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A Taxonomy of Selected Organizational Theories

Grace S. Thomson, Nevada State College

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Taxonomy of Organizational Theories

Grace S. Thomson

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Abstract

This research proposes a taxonomy of 16 organizational theories that represent both germinal and current approaches. The author has used methodologies used by Miner (2005; 2006) and Vibert (2004) for purposes of classification of theories in macro level and micro level categories. Macro level theories are aimed at describing the design, behavior and paradigms of the organizations, whereas Micro level theories are focused on the description of individual behaviors and interactions within the organization. This taxonomy has identified nine theories that represent Eurocentric and traditional thought; three theories that represent global approaches and four theories considered non-traditional, identifying their creators and developers and the year of publication.

The doctoral learner has selected theories that apply to her current practice and research interest, which are organized in three tables, clearly identifying theories of organizational behavior, design and paradigms. Each table lists theories in no particular order.
## Taxonomy of Organizational Theories

### Table 1 Eurocentric and Traditional Thought

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory</th>
<th>General Description</th>
<th>Current examples</th>
<th>Other attributes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Micro Theories and Macro Theories of Organization (Barnard, 1937)</td>
<td>Barnard is considered the father of management theory, and precursor of the “paradigm of management” (Mitchell &amp; Scott, 1985). He proposed a number of micro and macro organizational theories. Barnard’s Micro theories studied individual behavior, motivation, communication and small groups. Individual behavior theories were the cornerstone of organizational behavior and study four: a) free will, b) causes of behavior, c) reverse causality and d) tension reduction (Mitchell &amp; Scott, 2003,</td>
<td>The influence of Barnard in the contemporary school of management reaches out to the discussion of the role of a CEO as “shaper and manager of shared values in an organization” (Peters &amp; Waterman, as cited by Mitchell &amp; Scott, 1985) may be predicted.</td>
<td>His human behavior theory establishes a difference between “individual” and “person”. Individuals have motives and purposes (Scott, 2003). Every individual carries a person within, which has traits, attitudes and intentions that may be predicted.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Criticism to Barnard are directed to his arbitrary boundaries between persons and individuals.
Barnard initiated the current debate between behaviorists and cognitive scholars. For Barnard behaviors are influenced by environment and cognitions. Barnard Micro level theories work were the base of Simon (1957) work on bounded rationality, Misbitt and Wilson (1979) on cognitive dissonance and Weick (1979) organizational behavior theories, were also influenced (Mitchell and Scott, 1985). Barnard’s Macro Theories were built on the concepts of exchange, consent to authority, legitimacy of leadership, executive responsibility and inculcation of operant approaches, and equity (Mitchell & Scott, 1985, p. 245). Barnard proposes that professional managers have the right to inculcate motives and values in their subordinates, being that the core of their executive functions. (Mitchell & Scott, 1985, p. 257) His appeal to intuition as a source of human behavior was compared by Miner (2005) with foolishness in decision making, purported by the Carnegie Scholars (Duncan, 2006). Some scholars have disregarded his contributions to behavioral science and attributed these advances to the psychological fields (Mitchell & Scott, 1985). In macro-theories, the systems theory comes from Barnard, too and is linked to contingency theories as part of macro-theory of organization, and theory of...
Three paradigms stand out in Barnard’s theories: 1) The organization as a system, 2) the contingency approach and 3) the mean-ends values (Mitchell & Scott, 1985, p. 254).

2. Theory of Motivation

Barnard’s (1938) theory of motivation merges the concepts of behavior and motivation. He views motivation from four perspectives: “goal setting, cost/benefit notion and rewards, equity, and performance”. He contends that people have motives or purposes that they can meet through two routes: active cognitive approach or non-reflection. If they opt for an active cognitive approach, the use of monetary and non-monetary incentives to compensate and stimulate workers is as current practice now as it was when Barnard wrote about the notions of cost benefit and rewards. Firms in the United States compensate the individual effort through particular managerialism and cooperation

If people make decisions without reflection, they still need a structure of norms to guide them. The outcome of either choice will depend on the impact of the environment. Efficiency according to Barnard is the “satisfaction of individual motives”, effectiveness is “the accomplishment of the
individuals will make choices based on the cost and benefits (Mitchell & Scott, 1985, p. 248). The underlying concept in Barnard’s proposal is manipulation. Managers may influence their subordinates using coercion, rationalization or inculcation of motives. Barnard recommends inculcating motives, and these may be of two types: a) incentives (objective) or b) persuasion (subjective) (Mitchell & Scott, 2003, p. 249).

In other cases, when monetary compensations are not available, organizations use perks such as additional training, representation or affiliation in associations and other non-monetary instruments (Mitchell & Scott, 1985, p. 249) to encourage exercising expert power instead of position power in their relationships with subordinates (Galbraith, 1974, p. 34).

3. Goal-setting theory of motivation

Locke and Latham (2002) developed this theory further in the 50s and 60s from the psychological perspective, contrary to the “behavioral” current of those years that originated in Barnard (1937) and in Ryan (1970) this theory is one of his four cognitive theories of motivation.

Several studies reported by the authors show that by setting high difficulty goals, employee productivity arises.
classified motivation as physiological. By defining a goal or an objective, individuals receive signals of the magnitude of contribution they have to make (Mitchell & Scott, 1985), e.g. write proposals, enroll in training programs, meet sales goals. The theory recognizes the differences between personal goals (subjective and internal: status, advancement) and group goals (objective and external: cooperation). Locke uses the term *motivation hub* to express that satisfaction of personal goals is the route to action and mediator of external incentives. The diamond of relationships Cases in silviculture analyzed by these authors, show 60% to 90% of productivity increase in some cases (Locke and Latham, 2002, p. 711). Other studies showed improvement in performance appraisal when scores were redefined as goals (Brown & Latham, as cited by Locke and Latham, 2002). Goal-setting in the selection process in hiring was used by Latham et al (as cited by Locke and Latham 2002) in Locke and Latham define goal as “the object or aim of an
The theory has the following elements: situational analysis, where the applicant is asked to respond to dilemmas, in order to assess goals and intentions. Self-efficacy is an important factor in performance. Individuals with high self-efficacy self-set their goals, and usually will perform better, because their commitment is higher, use better strategies and respond to feedback (Locke and Latham, 2002, p. 712).

Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) analyzed complex organizations to study their internal and external relationships and the ability to cope with the demanding environment. Differentiation and Integration are the key concepts in contingency theory. According to Miner (2005), contingency theory has high levels of importance, regular validity, acceptable usefulness at the organizational level, and...
integration are the two new elements in the theory. Lawrence and Lorsch’s approach analyzes the entire organization and moves down to its subsystems, whereas Argyris (1964), Likert and MacGregor (1960) and March and Simon (1958) started analyzing the individual and move up to the organization level (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967, p. 3).

Barnard (1937) set the germinal discussion in contingency-type approach, stating that individuals in an organization are part of a system that faces social, physical, biological influences (Mitchell and Scott, 1985, p. 243).

Each one of these units has a Dean or Chair who exercises a role with invested power. In small colleges the relationship between Dean and faculty members in each unit is not the type boss/subordinate, because the organization will have to change. The relationships between hierarchy and subordinates are based on the existence of expert power and power equalization. Expert power is technical competence in certain topics; power equalization occurs when...
Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) presented a variation of contingency theory based on a rational (syllogistic) statement: The more variation there is in the system, the more differentiated the internal structure will be. The more differentiation, the more difficult to coordinate the units. The more difficulty, the more conflict in relationships. The more conflict, the more resources have to be allocated to compensate the shortcomings (Scott, 2003, p. 97).

An organization is divided in subsystems where individuals within behave differently –differentiation-. Despite the differences, subsystems have to be of the unit participates in shared decision-making. Decisions such as new curriculum, new classes, are assigned to committees which report to the Dean and present their findings to the school. Although the final decision is made by a superior board, which has position power, and has the last word based on the expert power of the committee. By operating this way, decision-making is moved to the lower levels of the organization by using their knowledge and information. Individuals have to be assigned to positions that fit (Mitchell &
integrated to accomplish the organizational task –integration– (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967, 4)

Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) highlight the need of integrating roles for each individual, with a given level of power to make decisions (Malnight, 2001, p. 1208). Integration is the “task of top management” (Lawrence and Lorsch, 1967, p. 11).

5. Information processing

Contingency Model

Perspective added by Galbraith in 1974, to complement contingent theory, by adding information processing to the problem of organizational design (Scott, 2003, p. 97).

Organization Design Theory - Micro level

Galbraith based his contributions on three premises of contingency theory developed

In project management the use of the contingency theory and the perspective of information processing make possible the coordination of tasks. Each strategy has advantages and costs. The creation of slack
by March and Simon (1957): rules, goal setting and hierarchy (Galbraith, 1974, p. 29).

Galbraith highlights the importance of information in the design of the organization, and states: “the greater the task uncertainty, the greater the amount of information that must be processed among decision makers during task execution in order to achieve a given level of performance” (p. 28). However, the costs of this strategy could be customer delays, and extensions in project completion (Galbraith, 1974).

If a given task is understood from the beginning, the level of uncertainty for all the participants is reduced and all the subtasks will gather around a global goal (Galbraith, 1974). Other organizations, deal with problems in communication by creating a jointly process of decision-making; e.g. Multinational resources could delay the completion of a project; creating self-contained tasks could reduce specialization; investment in vertical information systems requires adding new channels of financing, and, creating lateral relations, i.e. task forces, teams, matrix-type organizations, creates conflicts in power and leadership (Galbraith, 1974, p. 33).

Following contingency theory, the behavior of a member of the
Galbraith (1974) proposes a model of information processing that relies on four strategies: 1) creation of slack resources, 2) creation of self-contained tasks, 3) investment in vertical information systems and, 4) creation of lateral relations, all of them based on perspectives of March & Simon (1957) and Lawrence and Lorsch (1967).

6. External control of organizations

This theory developed by Pfeffer and Salancick (1978) is based on the open-systems approach to organization as loosely coupled systems (Scott, 2003, p. 88). These are systems where behavior is connected to rules or where goals are connected to an individual’s actions. A study conducted by Pfeffer and Moore (1980) tracked forty departments of two American universities over twenty years. Its purpose was to explain the turnover of departmental heads based on system influences the behavior of the others, thus the coordination between rules, goal setting and hierarchy will ensure that exceptions are minimal (Galbraith, 1974, p. 30).

In this sense, Pfeffer’s statements are classified by Mitchell and Scott as symbolic management constructs (1985, p. 257), restated by Scott (2003) as views of the organization as a “coalition of shifting interest...
Pfeffer based his assertions on Barnard’s view of management obligation (Mitchell and Scott, 1985, p. 257). Pfeffer and Salancick (1978) address *Symbolic management* to explain that organizations influence on their members’ beliefs, by making them adhere to norms, but the leaders of the organization fail to exercise it themselves (Mitchell and Scott, 1985, p. 257) creating a “knowing-doing” gap (Scott, 2003, p. 88) where managers do not do what they inculcate in others. Succession is studied in this theory, as part of the symbolism of organizations.

The study defined variables such as: existence of consensus, shared paradigm within the department, relationship of consensus and size, faculty demography, performance, and resource scarcity (p. 388). To measure paradigm level, the authors used variables such as: “average length in words of dissertation abstracts in each field (…), abstracts in each field (…), energy, physical stamina, tolerance to conflicts, inclination for coalitions and not egotistical attitudes (Scott, 2003, p. 311).

Pfeffer based his assertions on Barnard’s view of management obligation (Mitchell and Scott, 1985, p. 257). The departmental paradigm development (Pfeffer & Moore, 1980, p. 388). This theory unveils the inconsistency between groups”, characterized by Miner (as cited by Duncan, 2006) as a theory of external control.
Succession is an important element in organizational change due to its political implications (Pfeffer & Moore, 1980, p. 387). Managerial turnover is caused by conflicts or dissensus resulting from the diversity of opinions within a department about the fit of the manager in the position, which they call departmental paradigm (Pfeffer & Moore, 1980, p. 387).

The study revealed that paradigm was the most significant variable to explain and predict tenure, which suggests a high level of external influence in the organization (Pfeffer & Moore, 1980, p. 404).

7. Living Systems Theory (LST)

Living systems theory (LST) evolves from the evolutionary approach of Darwin, that purports an analogy in the procreation and survival of organizations to that of living beings (Vancouver, 1996, p. 167). From this perspective, the definition of organizations as rational systems or organisms was rooted in Barnard (1938) Blau and Scott (1962) and March and Simon (1987). To measure the efficiency of the organization as a living system, reference signals such as job satisfaction and compensation are used to predict tenure, which suggests a high level of external influence in the organization (Pfeffer & Moore, 1980, p. 404).
the organizational perspective, LST is based in the understanding of humans and what makes them react (Vancouver, 1996). Based on the thoughts of Ashby (1956), (Kuhn (1986) and Katz & Kahn (1978).

In living systems theory the “needs, personality, values, goals, and strategies are all relevant to understanding humans in work organizations” (Vancouver, 1996, p. 167). Understanding these individual needs is vital to the understanding of social systems.

Organizations as humans reorganize in virtue of “reference signals”: individual needs, their inputs and outputs. They are measure retention; however, monitoring a retention system uses resources. A firm will have to allocate money and time to follow up the retention indexes. According to LST, organizations have two purposes: High specificity and high formalization, whereas families have high formalization but little goal specificity; social movements have high goal specificity and low formalization; and community organizations have both low formalization and low specificity (Scott, 2003, p. 27) Scott (2003) acknowledges that his ideas about rational systems were misleading when he wrote
created with a purpose or a goal (Blau and Scott, 1958) which is generally the founder’s goal. They have a high degree of formalization, where cooperation among members is purposeful, too (Scott, 2003, p. 27).

difficult when (a) employees are highly specialized – sometimes more than their bosses, or (b) there is lack of communication between employer and employee; in other words when control cannot be exercised (Montagu, as cited by Vancouver, 1996). In the society change constantly (Vancouver, 1996, p. 166).

8. Knowledge-based 
Theories 
The knowledge-based theory proposes that organizations who have access to know-how will perform differently to the ones who do not. Closely linked to the Foucaultian view of knowledge-power (Foucault, 1977, Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995; Cooper 1989) (Cooper, 1989; Scott, 2003) it is also linked to the traditional knowledge-based Organization design-Macro level 

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Juceviciene & Leonaviciene (2007) conducted a study of organizations that want to become world class firms, based on six stages or classes of development (Walton, as cited by Bryant, 2003) cites Asian scholars Nonaka & Takeuchi (1995) to explain that a firm creates new knowledge through four means: Socialization, externalization, internalization and combination. Bryant
theories (Penrose, as cited by Scott, 2003, p. 114).

Simsek & Lous (2004) propose five stages to reach the organizational change that higher education institutions require: “normalcy, confrontation of anomalies, crisis, selection of a new paradigm and normalcy” (Simsek & Louis, 2004, par. 10) in a continuum. Firms have to choose between a paradigms of two types: 1) Human resources focused on training employees to achieve qualification, competence, and systemic competence or 2) Human resources focused on either teaching/learning paradigms. A world-class organization is one that believes employees are self-learners, and prepare personal development plans for them, execute appraisals, empower their employees, communicate share values and is in continuous learning. In this case, there is an underlying concept of paradigm shift, if the firm was not used to make these processes formal.

Leonaviciene, 2007). The proposal is to link the organization strategy to the cultivation of knowledge (p. 34). A world-class organization is one that believes employees are self-learners, and prepare personal development plans for them, execute appraisals, empower their employees, communicate share values and is in continuous learning. In this case, there is an underlying concept of paradigm shift, if the firm was not used to make these processes formal.
| 9. Corporate Demography | Corporate demography influences and is influenced by organizational diversity. | Carrol and Hannan (2000) conducted a demographic study in the beer and wine industry in California and the influence of organizational diversity on the environment and has generated organizational changes (p. 153). This industry has used the knowledge about gender within their ethnic enclaves, as suggested by Carroll and Hannan (2000). | Policy-making is insignificant and isolated when there is not an understanding of corporate demography. |
Wilson (as cited by Carroll and Hannan) reports a growth in inequality within African-Americans population compared to white population. Which means that African-Americans have more distinct classes within, than other races, as a result of organizational diversity. Two explanations are provided: a) the existence of ethnic enclaves, and b) standardization of employment relation (Carroll and Hannan, 2000, 157).

Consumption habits to create new products that tap into new markets. Specialty firms design marketing campaigns adapted to diverse populations, based on the expert knowledge of their employees. Other firms participate in culturally diverse festivals and The beer and wine industry had undergone organizational changes.

Successful Japanese and Cuban migrating groups have. They also contend that because the standardization of laws aimed at improving the conditions of vulnerable workforce, has standardized in such a way that they created inequalities towards African American groups.

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<th>Table 2 Global Thought</th>
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<td><strong>Theory</strong></td>
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<td>1. Geoeconomic Theory</td>
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two new theories emerged from China in the last century. This theory aims at integrating strategic management and Chinese management (Schlevogt, 2001, p. 520).

Differences between Asian countries and the rest of the world were documented in other studies (Tsui et al. 2004) where the focus was economic and social transformation, changes in economic policy, restructuring of state-owned firms, transition from centrally planned production to self-managed units, and foreign direct investment. Schlevogt (2001) contributes by analyzing regional differences based on: organizational paradigms: price cutting, management expertise, proactive strategies, subcontracting, company age, size, price-cutting strategy towards the goals.

The results suggested that in the North of China government support, organizational structure and management expertise were the most important factors of effectiveness; while in the south, private ownership, (Schlevogt, 2001, p. 522).
structures, management practices, effectiveness. This theory builds upon resource-based approaches and key success factor (KSF) (Hofer and Schendel, as cited by Schlevoigt, 2001). This theory should not be confused with geopolitics (Haushofer, 1934 as cited by Schlevoigt, 2001, p. 524) “government is king in the North of China, whereas which focuses were only international politics. The theory studies the impact of subcultures in behavior and performance of individuals and organizations (p. 524, par 2).

2. Knowledge Paradigm - An Asian Perspective Tsui et al (2004) contends the differences between exploitation and exploration of knowledge. The creation of new theories Previous works by Li, Tsui, and Weldon (2000) had reported the characteristics of companies age and planning were the most important. Schlevogt suggest that managers in transnational organizations need to recognize these regional differences, that the “government is king in the North of China, whereas networks are important in the South, and structure is important anywhere” (p. 545) boundaryless, in constant transition of ownership, extremely tied to the state, and ruled by the relationships with authority. In two studies prepared in 2002, Li and Tsui found that between 1984 and 2000, the characteristics of Chinese firms, are...
and Weldon, 2000) requires historical and anthropological knowledge, combined with quantitative research (p. 142), this is exploration of knowledge. Knowledge of the organization context is necessary for any scholar who wants to create a new theory. Exploiting implies observing a new context and applying traditional theories and try to make it fit, which would not necessarily increase knowledge (Tsui et al, 2004). If exploitation is combined with exploration, new knowledge will be generated as a fact; if theories are simply replicated on new economies or societies no new knowledge is created (Tsui et al, 2004, p. 2).

Asian organizations that differentiates them from Western firms: Boundaryless organizations, networks based on familial relationships. (Scott, 2003, p. 228), collectivism (Hofstede, as cited by Tsui, 2006, p. 5), equality rules vs. differential rule of reward allocation. (Chen, 1995 as cited by Tsui, 2006, p. 5).

All of them were cited by Tsui, 2006, p. 5), adaptations of Western Theories and not originally created from the China reality, with exception of two: Geoeconomic theory (Schlevogt, 2001) and Political theory (Shenkar and Yan, 2002) (Tsui et al, 2004, p. 3) studies the (1) level of institutionalization of China and measures them by the 1999, 226 papers in scholarly journals had addressed China as object of study in management; and 104 between 2000 and 2003.
Tsui (2006) argues for the need of contextualization of management theories to the Chinese management research literature. Most of the studies applied in Asian countries are adaptations of institutionalized theories such as: agency, resource-based, transaction cost, role theory, cultural diversity theory (p. 5) of separation from the state. The number of Chinese firms listed in the stock exchange that are still 100% owned by the corporations with state ownership, (3) to improve the validity of beneficial consequences in prediction and hypothesis (Tsui, 1996, p. 6).

<table>
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<tr>
<th>3. Political Theory (Shenkar and Yan, 2002)</th>
<th>Global Theory- Macro level</th>
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<tr>
<td>The political theory (Shenkar and Yan, 2002) is one of two theories originally emerged from China (Tsui et al, 2004). Shenkar has been an active scholar conducted a study to identify 49 events that were critical to the creation and failure of ventures in China. Shenkar and Yan (2002) has conducted a study to identify 49 events that were critical to the creation and failure of ventures in China.</td>
<td>The theory studies the integration of politics into the creation and failure of ventures in China. Shenkar and Yan (2002) has conducted a study to identify 49 events that were critical to the creation and failure of ventures in China. Shenkar and Yan (2002)</td>
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<td>Topic</td>
<td>Details</td>
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<td>Taxonomy of Organizational Ventures (ICVs) with China.</td>
<td>CJVs and track down the reasons of the failure. They focus on 49 events throughout five stages: Pre-formation, formation, post-formation, crisis and decline, and termination (par. 6). The authors conducted a semi-structured survey using a case study: Ramada. This theory has some similarities with the symbolic management concept and loosing coupling concept of Pfeffer and Slancik (1978, 1981) that purported the political...</td>
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<td>The resulting model is called Integrative Political Process Model of ICV Failure</td>
<td>Shenkar and Yan based their theory in previous studies that addressed failure of ICV in a static way, without an in-depth analysis of why or how they fail. The focus of Shenkar and Yan is in the process that takes an ICV from creation to failure.</td>
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<td>where political influence is one of the most important variables, along with political jolts, changes in the industry and redirection of strategies as result of political influence.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Shenkar and Yan classify ICVs in two: Equity-based joint ventures (EJVs) and contractual joint ventures (CJVs). EJVs are characterized by a jointly investment and ownership of assets and liabilities, through the creation of a new entity. CJVs do not imply ownership and they are also interviews, newspaper clips.</td>
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</table>
called cooperative ventures. Shenkar and Yan follows a model analyzing 46 events and its implications in Other studies had defined implications of power in successions (acknowledged by the authors themselves).

Through empirical research they built a chronological multi-stage process-based model to link the model analyzing 46 events and its implications in Other studies had defined implications of power in successions (acknowledged by the authors themselves).

Shenkar and Yan follows a chronological multi-stage model analyzing 46 events and its implications in Other studies had defined implications of power in successions (acknowledged by the authors themselves).

through empirical research they built a process-based model to link the perspectives of failure and its linkage with politic dynamics such as: partner politics, logistics, economics failure based on transaction costs, bargaining power, partner selection and competitive learning.

disagreement, pursuit of hidden agenda, and finances. The authors concluded that transaction costs and the bargaining power were important factors in the failure of this venture.

political undercurrents, mutual sabotage, and endgame (Shenkar & Yar, 2002, par.7).

conflict escalation and public disclosure, and endgame (Shenkar & Yar, 2002, par.7).

and endgame (Shenkar & Yar, 2002, par.7).

Table 3 Non-traditional Theories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory</th>
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</tr>
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<tr>
<td>4. Confucianism (Tsui et al, 2004; Tsui, originated in China that prevails as the work of Hui, Lee, and studied by Farh, Zhong,</td>
<td>Confucianism is a social paradigm</td>
<td>Tsui et al (2004) cites the work of Hui, Lee, and studied by Farh, Zhong,</td>
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</table>
Non-traditional theory-
Macro level

According to Hui, Lee and Rousseau (as cited by Tsui et al., 2004), Confucianism or wu lun establishes relationships based on hierarchies and roles: "emperor-subject, father-son, husband-wife, elder-younger, and friend-friend) where individuals link to their superiors in the organizations, government or other institutions, but not to the organization itself (Tsui et al., 2004, p. 141).

The implications for the relationship between leader–follower in China are significant, as citizenship behavior and respect to support increased the level of organizational commitment, preserving of facilitate interpersonal harmony”.

Hui et al., (2004) conducted a study to explain the relationship between citizenship behavior and organizational commitment, saving company resources, and actions aimed to keeping the workplace clean, and actions aimed to preserving of facilitate interpersonal harmony”.

The Chinese economy differs from the Western economies in the following organizational paradigms:

Rousseau (2004) about employment relationships in China and the implications since they were rooted in Confucianism: “Self-training, social welfare participation, community service, protecting and saving company resources, and actions aimed to keeping the workplace clean, and actions aimed to preserving of facilitate interpersonal harmony”.

2006, Hui et al., 2004; Farh, Zhong, and Organ, 2004) base of the social structures and relationships in China, and becomes a factor in citizenship behavior.
superiors and the roles in the society. Hui et al, (2004) draw from Confucianism the concept of affection and respect between followers and leaders, as a reciprocal behavior to the symbol of authority. Employees are more committed because of the depth in personal relationships more than the perceived organizational support, different from Western behaviors (Tsui et al, 2004). Farh, Zhong and Organ (2004) studied 700 descriptors of citizenship and influence of state-owned and non-state owned corporations (Tsui et al, 2004, p. 141).

5. Cultural Feminism (Gilligan, 1982; Townsend and Twombly, 1998) Non-traditional theories- Macro level

Women learn, communicate, and lead differently than men, which requires change to allow women compete in a patriarchal society. A paradigmatic shift is promoted from this perspective (As cited by Townsend &)

In higher education, a study prepared by Belenky et al (1986) proposed cultural feminist strategies such as: 1) Special programs for women: in the classroom, However, Paradigm shift is
Seltzer (2004) offers a short by interesting analysis of similar cases of women who face “glass ceilings” in their executive careers. The author suggests that possible reasons relate to gender stereotypes and distinct perceptions. Two factors that affect the willingness of organizations to encourage promotions of women in the workplace: organizational context and self-monitoring.

The organizational context is the “extent to which a workplace traditionally had significant number of women managers” (Seltzer, 2004, p. 15). Self-monitoring relates to the “extent to which individuals studies, events; 2) Emphasis in women’s ways of knowing; 3) Specific leadership training for women; 4) Operations and organizations accommodating to women’s leadership, learning and communication. There is little evidence of the existence of this type of programs in colleges (Peterson’s Guide to Two-Year schools, as cited by Townsend and Twombly, 1998). Organizations may be slower or faster in recognizing the rights of females to have top positions depending on how exposed they have been to it.
are sensitive to external cues and norms
and adjust their behavior in response”

(Seltzer, 2004, p. 15).

| 6. Liberal feminism | Townsend and Twombly (1998) start their analysis of feminism, citing Levy and Merry’s (1996) definition of paradigm shifts of two orders. First order changes are relatively minor adjustments that leave organizations’ core essentially intact and that occur naturally as a system grows and matures. Second-order changes “multidimensional, multi-level, qualitative, discontinuous, radical organizational change(s)” propose a theory of liberal feminism that provides an advantage of the theory:
| Townsend and Twombly (1998) analyzed and identified the type of feminist theories applied across community colleges in the United States using liberal feminist theories. The agenda of liberal feminism included: 1) Equal pay for work, 2) equal access to high level positions, 3) affirmative action in hiring, 4) action in hiring, 4) advantage of the theory:
| Advantage of the theory: | Awareness of patriarchal thinking and behavior with 70s and 80s interest on: sexual harassment, salary inequities, family leaves policies. |

(As cited by Townsend and Twombly, 1998) Non-traditional theories-Macro level
equal opportunities for men and women by eliminating limitations for participation and achievement of women. Barriers to the promotion of women acknowledged by this theory are: (1) Lack of equal opportunities (2) sex role socialization, (3) sex stereotyping, and (4) sex discrimination (Acker as cited by Townsend and Twombly, 1994).

Organizational Diversity Approach (Lewin, 1933; Schein, 2003; Cox and Blake, 2003; Allen & Montgomery, 2001, p. 149). The level of organizational diversity implies diversity in gender, race, sexual preferences, education, experience and opinions. Firms that have embraced diversity in the United States, includes: Microsoft Corporation, WalMart.

Most of the changes were only first-order and patriarchal style was still present. Not much has been achieved, and second-order change has not been obtained; only first order change.

Establishment and enforcement of sexual harassment guidelines, child care assistance, gender-inclusive language and maternity and family leaves (Townsend & Twombly, 1998, p. 79). Most of the changes were only first-order and patriarchal style was still present.

Lewin (1993) studied diversity and proposed three stages in organizational change.
1991; Allen and Montgomery, 2001) of diversity will depend on the innovation level in the organization, “founding rates, founding rates, diversity of new entrants, the merger rate, and disbanding rate (...) environmental change and adaptive capacities of the organization” (Carroll and Hannan, 2000, p. 158).

Non-traditional theories - Macro level

Organizational diversity is based on the germinal theory of organizational change by Kurt Lewin (1933) who purported that organizations behaved as living beings and that change was the result of driving forces and resisting forces. Cox and Blake (2001) developed a typology of diversity in three categories: (1) monolithic, (2) pluralistic, (3) multicultural organizations, (2001) report that McDonald’s adjusted seating spaces to accommodate Hispanic families with large number of members. Walmart has also made changes to their promotional and marketing campaigns to include Hispanic holidays. Diversity in leadership has the advantage of increasing the motivation of talented minority employees who easily identify with their leaders (Allen & Montgomery, 2001, p. 33).
multicultural (Allen & Montgomery, 2001, p. 150). Monolithic organizations have majority of white males as managers, and women and minorities abide by the majority’s norms and values. Pluralistic organizations have more diversity in their staff due to hiring and promotion efforts in favor of minorities, through affirmative action programs. Minorities still abide by the majority’s norms and values. Multicultural organization: Implies a creating a different culture, where their workforce is encouraged to learn from each other, adopting some of the rules of minority groups. This diverse culture increases the diversity department and a Diversity Advisory Council. Their goals, as reported by Allen & Montgomery is to increase the distribution of women and minorities in top executive positions. The customer base of Microsoft shows 150 countries and 50 languages. Microsoft diversity statement shows the inclusion of the following groups: “African Americans, employees with attention deficit disorder, another benefit. Organizations that want to embrace diversity should conduct a top down analysis to gain awareness of the structure of their workforce and design a diverse culture where perpetuation ensures that “the organization does not revert back to its original state” (Allen & Montgomery, 2001, p. 149). An increase in motivation given the openness to diversity is
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<td>The Transformation from Traditional Organizations to Multicultural Requires five components: 1) leadership, 2) training, 3) research, 4) analysis and change of culture and human resource management systems, and 5) follow up” (Cox &amp; Blake, 1991, p. 52)</td>
<td>But diversity has also costs: underutilization of resources, unrelated outcomes and turnovers (Carroll and Hannan, 2002, p. 157).</td>
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References


