

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN McCLELLAND'S THEORY OF NEEDS, FEELING INDIVIDUALLY ACCOUNTABLE, AND INFORMAL ACCOUNTABILITY FOR OTHERS

M. Todd Royle, Valdosta State University
Angela T. Hall, The University of Texas at San Antonio

ABSTRACT

This research examines the relationship between the dimensions of McClelland's Theory of needs (i.e., needs for power, achievement, and affiliation), felt accountability, and informal accountability for others (IAFO). This study's aim is to enhance organizational research by demonstrating the mediating effects of informal accountability, on the needs and IAFO relationship. The research tests hypotheses using data collected from 187 working adults. Findings indicate that felt accountability partially mediates the relationship between achievement and affiliation needs and IAFO. The paper concludes with a discussion of managerial implications, the study's relevant strengths, limitations and directions for future research.

JEL: M12, M14

KEYWORDS: Theory of needs, felt accountability, informal accountability for others

In an era of rapidly globalizing economies and increasingly available information, it is apparent that high profile lapses of accountability occur frequently (e.g., the global crisis in real estate markets and the massive frauds perpetrated by former NASDAQ chief Bernard Madoff). There are growing concerns in both the academic literature and popular press about a perceived lack of accountability. Accountability is a fundamental aspect of both personal and organizational life (Tetlock, 1985, 1992), and is, thus, instrumental in allowing societies to sustain themselves. In the organizational context, a lack of accountability may undermine firms' internal, legitimate, systems of checks and balances, and adversely affect performance (Yarnold, Muesur, & Lyons, 1988; Enzele & Anderson, 1993). So fundamental is accountability that social interactions might be impossible without it (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999).

Unfortunately, accountability may not always be an easily observable formal system or reporting, and often individuals feel simultaneously pulled in different directions by various constituencies (Cummings & Anton, 1990). This suggests that both the individual and others are important in determining subjective levels of accountability. At present, a growing body of research (e.g., Royle, Fox, & Hochwarter, 2009; Royle & Fox, 2011) deals with the notion that individuals feel accountable for others at work, even if those others are not formal subordinates. It is important for the field to examine further, what contributes to those sentiments and how individuals come to feel accountable for themselves and informally for others. In order to augment the literature, the field needs a model that helps shed light upon antecedent conditions, consequences, and possible mediating circumstances. The hypothesized model of informal accountability for others in this work addresses these concerns.

The model proposed here includes McClelland's (1961) socially learned needs variables (i.e., needs for power, achievement, and affiliation), feelings that individuals have about their own levels of accountability, and the degree to which they think they will be required to answer for others. This paper examines the potential that individuals' learned needs predict the degree to which they feel accountable for their own actions, then how much they feel they answer for the behaviors of others in their

organizations. This paper will proceed as follows: first, we will give a review of the literature relevant to our study variables, then present our model and explain the sample, measures, and data analysis technique used. We then discuss the theoretical contributions of our research, its practitioner implications, its strengths, limitations, and directions for future inquiry. We conclude with a short summary of the study's major findings.

LITERATURE REVIEW

The Phenomenological View of Accountability

Lerner and Tetlock (1999) called accountability the implicit or explicit expectation that one might have to justify one's beliefs, feelings, and actions to others. With respect to accountability in organizations, Frink and Klimoski (1998) defined accountability as "the perceived need to justify or defend a decision or action to some audience which has potential reward and sanction power, and where such rewards and sanctions are perceived as contingent on accountability conditions" (p. 9). Although one might expect that accountability takes place only when a breach of conduct has occurred (Cummings & Anton, 1990), it is possible that an individual can be accountable and rewarded for his/her diligent stewardship absent any wrongdoing. Accountability usually implies that those who do not provide reasonable justifications for their actions will be negatively sanctioned with consequences ranging from disdainful looks to loss of one's livelihood, liberty, or even life (Stenning, 1995). Conversely, individuals who provide sufficient justification for their actions experience positive consequences ranging from the mitigation of punishment to reward.

The phenomenological view of accountability, based on Tetlock's (1985, 1992) social contingency model, includes several empirically distinguishable sub-components. These include (a) the effects of social facilitation – the mere presence of others (individuals behave differently when others observe their performances (Zajonc, 1965; Zajonc & Sales 1966); (b) identifiability (individuals believe that what they say or do will be linked to them personally) (Price, 1987; Zimbardo, 1970); (c) evaluation (participants expect that their performance will be assessed by another according to some normative ground rules and with some implied consequences) (Geen, 1991); and (d) reason-giving (individuals expect that they must give reasons for their attitudes or behaviors) (Simonson & Nowlis, 2000).

The Pyramid Model of Accountability

Accountability, in Barry Schlenker's terms, refers to being answerable to audiences for performing up to certain prescribed standards. It entails meeting specified obligations, duties, and expectations (Schlenker, 1986; Schlenker & Weigold, 1989; Schlenker, Weigold, & Doherty, 1991). The dimensions of these models are more formal and objective than are phenomenological conceptualizations of accountability.

Schlenker et al. (1991) contended that when individuals are accountable, they answer for their attitudes or try to justify their conduct. Others scrutinize, judge, sanction, and potentially reward their actions (Semin & Manstead, 1983; Tetlock, 1985, 1992). Individuals establish prescriptions for conduct, judge others' performances in relation to those standards, and distribute rewards and punishments based on these assessments.

The "evaluative reckonings" described by Schlenker and colleagues (e.g., Schlenker, 1986, Schlenker & Weigold, 1989; Schlenker et al., 1991) are value-laden judgments that require an evaluator to have information about three key elements in order to assign culpability. The elements necessary to make these judgments are: (1) the *prescriptions* that should be guiding the actor's conduct on the occasion, (2) the *event* that occurred that is relevant to those prescriptions, and (3) a set of *identity images* that are

relevant to the event and prescriptions and that describe the actor's roles, qualities, convictions, and aspirations.

The three elements, and the linkages among them, depict a triangle when visualized, thus, the classification. Schlenker, Britt, Pennington, Murphy, and Doherty (1994) contended that the combined strength of the three linkages determine how responsible an individual is judged to be. In other words, individuals are responsible to the extent that: (a) a clear set of prescriptions is applicable to the event (prescription–event link); (b) the prescriptions are perceived to bind an individual by virtue of his or her identity (prescription–identity link); and (c) the individual is associated with the event, especially if that person is thought to have had personal control over the event, (identity–event link).

In this respect, responsibility is the force that binds individuals to events and to relevant prescriptions that govern their conduct. This is how responsibility provides a basis for judgment and sanctioning (Schlenker et al., 1994). When evaluators “look down” and appraise the configuration of the elements and linkages, the image is that of a pyramid (Schlenker, 1986). The presence of an evaluative audience, and the individual’s answerability to it, moves the individual from responsibility to accountability.

The present paper contends that IAFO too fits in terms of these linkages. For example, organizational culture may dictate that established members of a firm mentor new hires (prescription-event link). As established members in good standing, individuals thus feel obligated to engage and orient new members (prescription-identity link). Established members know the “rule” that new members need their tutelage and have the ability to give of their time and knowledge (prescription-event link). When these conditions are met, observed, and rewarded, by those with sanctioning power, individuals are deemed informally accountable for others. It is likely that established employees would choose to engage in these activities, thus becoming informally accountable for others, in order to maintain or increase their good standing within the organization, provided they are able to attend to their own duties. This study intends to demonstrate the role of needs in promoting such behaviors.

Cummings and Anton’s Conceptualization of Accountability

Cummings and Anton (1990) took a slightly different approach to conceptualizing responsibility. Based on attribution theory literature (e.g., Heider, 1958; Weiner, 1979), they defined responsibility in terms of a person’s causal influence on a situation. They used this definition to highlight the actor’s volition in an event. This person can affect the situation directly or indirectly, proximally or distally (Cummings & Anton, 1990). The relationship is simple, physical, and linear in terms of the individuals’ responsibility. Therefore, any condition attributed either directly or indirectly to one’s influence increases his/her perceived culpability.

Cummings and Anton (1990) also claimed that felt responsibility and accountability are subsequent and distinct outcomes of one’s responsibility (as defined by his/her causal influence). Further, they argued that felt responsibility is an internal path whereas accountability is an external, public, and visible social process. It is the authors’ contention that IAFO may have both internal and external components but that it is the external, visible, dimension that individuals seek to affect their standings within organizations.

Cummings and Anton (1990) proposed that three contingent conditions determine accountability. In order for others to deem one accountable, individuals must: 1) have the capacity to behave rationally, 2) engage in behaviors wherein some outcome is foreseeable, and 3) deviate from previously stated expectations. Cummings and Anton (1990) diverged somewhat from other notions typically found in accountability theory. Specifically, they considered deviation from a standard to be a precondition of accountability whereas others posited that the accountability evaluations could detect either alignment or

deviation. We contend that individuals understand what is required of them on the job and that they affect the behaviors of others because they believe they should.

Felt Accountability

Contemporary reviews of the literature on accountability generally cast it as an objective condition (Lerner & Tetlock, 1999). However, these conceptualizations overlook subjective aspects of accountability (Hall, Royle, Brymer, Perrewé, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2006). Specifically, these authors contended that objective facets of accountability do not guarantee employee compliance (Frink & Klimoski, 1998, 2004). In fact, employees could fail to understand directives that promote accountability or even be unaware of them entirely (Hall et al., 2006).

Hall and her colleagues (2006) noted that it is “employees' subjective interpretations of objective mechanisms” that actually affect their behaviors. Specifically, borrowing from well-established principles of psychology; it is individuals' subjective perceptions of reality, rather than objective true circumstances that drive their thoughts and actions (Lewin, 1951). Therefore, a central focus of this research pertains to whether individuals *feel* accountable and then engage in desirable behaviors. This view follows phenomenological view proposed by Tetlock (1985, 1992). Specifically, this research attempts to establish the degree to which variables personality (i.e., needs for power, achievement, and affiliation) influence individuals' feeling of accountability and the degree to which that motives them to feel answerable for what others around them do.

Informal Accountability for Others

Informal accountability for others (IAFO) is a public demonstration that one is willing to answer for the attitudes and behaviors of individuals in an organization regardless of formal position within the firm, rank, or mandate by the organization (Royle, et al., 2009; Royle & Fox, 2011).

Our conceptualization of informal accountability reflects views previously theorized and demonstrated by others as well as budding research on the subject (e.g., Royle, Hochwarter, & Hall, 2008). For example, it borrows from the work of Morrison and Phelps's (1999) who noted that individuals generally believe they are personally obligated to bring about constructive change, which either directly or indirectly affects (ostensibly benefits) both themselves and others. Another element of the construct comes from Lerner and Tetlock (1999) who contended that accountability is the implicit or explicit expectation that one may be called on to justify one's beliefs, feelings, or actions to others. Still other aspects come from Ferris, Mitchell, Canavan, Frink, and Hopper (1995), who considered accountability to be a function of how much a person is observed and evaluated by powerful others who have reward or sanctioning power, and the extent to which valued rewards (or feared sanctions) are consistent with these evaluations.

Uncertainty Reduction

As hard as individuals might try, there will always be things outside their control. However, this does not mean that they like it that way. Individuals often engage in behaviors that reduce future uncertainties to help allay those attendant trepidations. According to Epstein (1999), all individuals experience some aversion to uncertainty. Epstein (1999) further defined uncertainty aversion as a large class of preferences wherein information about the future is too imprecise to be conceptualized in terms of a probability of occurrence, but which individuals, nonetheless, conceive of as an eventuality.

Expectancies are crucial in the creation or reduction of uncertainty. O'Driscoll and Beehr (1994) contended that uncertainty contributes to work-related affect and attendant behaviors. Specifically, they

noted uncertainty corresponds to unpredictability about the consequences of role performance. Further, they contended that ambiguous situations are generally dissatisfying. Beehr and Bhagat (1985) concurred and proffered an explanation of uncertainty based on expectancy theory (e.g., Vroom, 1964; Porter & Lawler, 1968). They noted two types of uncertainty that related to expectancy: (1) effort-to-performance (E-P) and (2) performance-to-outcome (P-O) uncertainty. Essentially, individuals experience dissatisfaction and agitation when they do not know if their work-related efforts are up to acceptable standards. Furthermore, that angst grows when they do not know if important members of the organization (P-O) value what they do.

O'Driscoll and Beehr (1994) contended that employees seek social approval. As such, employee responses to supervisory treatment affect their willingness to stay in an organization. Along with E-P and P-O expectancies, not knowing whether a supervisor accepts a subordinate on a personal level becomes another source of uncertainty. This uncertainty predicts dissatisfaction and turnover intentions (O'Driscoll & Beehr, 1994). Feeling accountable could demonstrate commitment and help ensure supervisor acceptance. Furthermore, individuals might pursue informal accountability conditions if they feel that their gestures will be noticed (E-P) and that they can achieve an increase in status. Additionally, if these gestures are appreciated, individuals will be perceived as informally answerable for others, which makes them appear cooperative (P-O), and laudable.

In order to avoid semantic misunderstandings, it is important to consider Epstein's (1999) related notion of risk. It is similar to uncertainty, but differs in that risk connotes that individuals have a more precise idea of the probability of some future event (e.g., a 50% chance that one's stocks will increase in value). As noted, the "large class" associated with uncertainty contains the similar, if not sometimes interchangeable, notions of "vagueness" and "ambiguity". In this research, the author uses the umbrella term "uncertainty" because it is more inclusive. This research contends that feeling accountable and being answerable for others are behaviors that reduce uncertainty. Feeling accountable will likely enhance individuals' performances at work, thus, reducing uncertainty. Further, based on norms of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960), answering for others is likely to engage systematic exchanges between coworkers and evoke return favors that will also reduce future uncertainties.

McClelland's Theory of Needs

The theory of (learned) needs is one of the most ubiquitous and pragmatic in personality and organizational scholarship. Developed by McClelland (e.g., 1961, 1975, 1985), needs theory contends that individuals are motivated by three basic drivers: achievement, affiliation, and power. Winter (1992) argued that these needs not only motivate individuals, but also include many of the most important human goals and concerns. This research attempts to demonstrate that each of these dimensions affects the level of accountability one feels for both himself/herself and others.

Achievement Needs. McClelland's (1961, 1985) need for achievement describes a person's drive to excel with respect to some established set of standards. Individuals' achievement needs are satisfied when they are able to actualize their own purposes relative to and regardless of the situations of others (Yamaguchi, 2003). Those high in achievement needs dislike succeeding by chance and seek personally identifiable sources for their success or failure rather than leaving the outcome to probability (Robbins, 2003; Weiner, 1979). Furthermore, individuals high in achievement needs experience joy or sadness contingent upon the identifiable outcomes of their efforts (McClelland & Koestner, 1992).

McClelland (1961, 1975, 1985) noted that individuals high in this dimension differentiate themselves from others by their desire to perform at a more advanced level than their peers. Although achievement could be measured in terms of mastery and competitiveness, it also reflects individuals' desires to excel

relative to themselves (Heintz & Steele-Johnson, 2004). High achievement needs motivate individuals to seek relatively difficult vocations (McClelland & Koestner, 1992). Further, high achievement individuals are more satisfied in jobs that involve both high skill levels and difficult challenges (Eisenberger, Jones, Stinglhamber, Shanock, & Randall, 2005). Similarly, individuals high in achievement needs more frequently seek feedback en route toward goal completion (McAdams, 1994; Emmons, 1997).

McClelland (1961, 1985) noted that high in achievement needs individuals seek situations in which they can obtain personal responsibility for finding novel solutions to problems. One underlying driver of such actions is partly the alleviation of trepidations about their future in the organization. These individuals tend to be very persistent with respect to solving problems (McClelland & Koestner, 1992). Research indicated that individuals with high achievement needs are, generally, more effective leaders (McNeese-Smith, 1999; Henderson, 1993, 1995). Unfortunately, however, the motivation to behave opportunistically while trying to satisfy this need has been empirically validated (Treadway, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Ferris, 2005).

Brunstein and Maier (2005) noted that two separate but interacting dimensions drive achievement needs: implicit and explicit motives. Implicit motives energize spontaneous impulses to act (e.g., effective task performance). The degree of effective task performance is, of course, related to the degree to which the individual behaves accountably in his/her position.

Explicit motives, on the other hand, are manifest by deliberate choice behaviors (e.g., explicitly stated preferences for difficult tasks). As such, high achievement needs map appropriately onto a drive to be informally accountable for others. Specifically, high achievement needs might drive individuals to seek informal accountability for others because the successful coordination of others' activities might translate directly into better job performance evaluations (both for them and for those for whom they are informally accountable). In addition, those who claim informal accountability for others and are effective in this capacity, appear to others as more proactive, appealing, employees. Appearing to be an effective leader is, thus, an explicit motive (Brunstein & Maier 2005).

This research contends that accountability relates to achievement needs such that those who want to maintain high marks and be considered credible leaders must feel answerable for their performances and that then seeking IAFO enhances the degree to which they can achieve.

Power Needs. The need for power denotes individuals' desires to be influential. This could manifest itself in attempts to make others behave, as one would like, or in a manner that they might not have otherwise (McClelland, 1961, 1975, 1985). In other words, individuals high in this need seek position power so that they can compel the actions of others. Those high in power needs prefer being in competitive, status-driven situations, and actively seek the trappings of status (Veroff, 1992). Additionally, they are concerned with ensuring that the methods they choose to influence others are within their control (Veroff, 1992; McAdams, 1994; Emmons, 1997). However, in order to maintain viable interdependent relationships with others, individuals with high power needs must often restrain these desires (Yamaguchi, 2003).

Central to one's need for power is gaining influence over others (McClelland, 1961, 1975, 1985; Robbins, 2003; Yamaguchi, 2003). Individuals with influence can then parlay informal accountability for others into the accumulation of additional resources that serve to enhance their status. Prior research indicated that expression of power needs might have a mixed effect on how others are perceived. For example, direct subordinates often react negatively to leaders high in power needs whereas clients and others more distal in the organization view them more positively (McNeese-Smith, 1999; Henderson, 1993, 1995). However, despite these findings, interpersonal failings caused by excessive displays of power seeking tend to derail managers (Van Velsor & Leslie, 1995).

Based on the principles of role theory, when an individual becomes informally accountable for others, the target becomes cognizant of it (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, & Snoek, 1964; Royle & Fox, 2011). Given the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Meyer & Allen, 1997), targets believe that the accountable party has extended a benefit and reciprocate with actions that align with the attitudes or behaviors to repay their obligations (e.g., Royle et al., 2009). Individuals who are aware that another person has been helpful will reciprocate by ensuring that relevant mutual goals are met or corrective measures taken if perceived performance decrements exist. For one high in power needs, this suggests that others will often indirectly cede a portion of their autonomy to them. Consequently, it is plausible that positive changes to one's job might occur and satisfy implicit power motives. For example, by co-opting some portion of a coworker's efforts, an individual may gain more organizational prestige or be promoted to a job with a greater span of control. At a minimum, those known to be informally accountable for others may perceive a status differential that appeals to those who seek power. However, the extent to which those high in power needs behave in amoral, Machiavellian, fashions, would diminish levels of felt accountability and discourage IAFO if others perceive their actions to be disingenuous. Essentially, it is our contention that power needs to promote felt accountability and IAFO but only if the specific person high in power also feels an obligation to act morally (Spangler et al., 2004).

Affiliation Needs. The need for affiliation reflects the desire to have close, friendly, relationships with others (McClelland, 1961, 1985; Robbins, 2003). Those high in this dimension tend to spend considerable time seeking interactions with others (McClelland & Koestner, 1992). Further, those with strong affiliation needs pursue team activities in which interdependence and cooperation with others are paramount (Yamaguchi, 2003). Affiliation needs have garnered relatively less critical scholarly attention than the other two of McClelland's needs theory (Robbins, 2003), but they still warrant discussion with respect to accountability. For those who value friendship and prefer cooperation over competition, demonstrating a willingness to meet stated standards of conduct, and to accept accountability for others might be taken as a sign of organizationally desired civility (McClelland, 1961, 1975, 1985). High levels of affiliation motivate individuals to be both sympathetic and accommodating toward (*i.e., needs for power, achievement, and affiliation*) others (McClelland & Koestner, 1992). Prior research noted the influence of affiliation on leadership. Specifically, McNeese-Smith (1999) demonstrated a positive relationship between high affiliation needs and enabling others to act in ways deemed desirable. McNeese-Smith (1999) further suggested those high in affiliation needs lead others in desirable directions and that in doing so, they feel answerable to the same ethical codes of conduct common to their peers.

In the course of social interaction, individuals pass along important information about how to behave. The norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960; Meyer & Allen, 1997) contends that people might exchange useful information because they sense a debt of obligation. An understanding of the expectations associated with informal accountability for others are well developed in those high in affiliation needs because such individuals are strongly motivated to foster social ties.

Building on this discussion it is likely that those high in affiliation needs will seek informal accountability. Although doing so can be risky (because sometimes a desired complicit reaction fails to occur), seeking informal accountability for others may be attractive to those with high affiliation needs because it offers the opportunity to build informal teams and "feel a part of something (*i.e., needs for power, achievement, and affiliation*)."

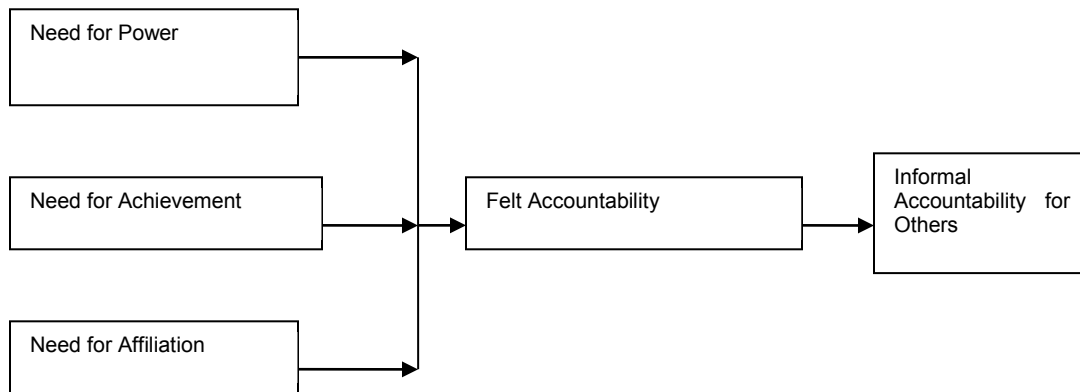
Nevertheless, those attempting to signal IAFO must demonstrate their own competence. This could be done by feeling accountable for one's role obligations and living up to them. IAFO fosters strong interpersonal associations attractive to high affiliation types (McClelland, 1961, 1975, 1985) and helps reduce their fears of being ostracized (McClelland & Koestner, 1992). Creating strong interpersonal associations also acts as a resource in the future when maneuvering in threatening or uncertain settings.

Hypothesis 1: Felt accountability mediates the relationship between power needs and informal accountability for others (IAFO) such that power needs increase felt accountability and subsequently promote IAFO.

Hypothesis 2: Felt accountability mediates the relationship between achievement needs and IAFO such that achievement needs promote felt accountability and subsequently foster IAFO.

Hypothesis 3: Felt accountability mediates the relationship between affiliation needs and IAFO such that affiliation needs promote felt accountability and subsequently enhance IAFO.

Figure 1: The Mediating Effects of Felt Accountability on the Relationship between Learned Needs and Informal Accountability for Others



This is the model of McClelland's Needs Theory and individuals' feeling of accountability, both for themselves and, subsequently, for others as well. The proposed model contends that individuals' learned impulses foster feelings of answerability for their own actions which then incline them to feel accountable for the attitudes and behaviors of others in their organizations.

DATA AND METHODOLOGY

This research proposes a mediated relationship between variables. In short, this research tries to determine if the variance in a dependent variable (IAFO in this case) is caused independently by the predictor variables (learned needs and felt accountability), or if a causal chain of events exists. In other words, could we attribute the sample's variance in informal accountability for others to needs for power, affiliation, and achievement only if they predict felt accountability first?

Participants and Procedures

The sample consisted of self-reports from working adults around the world. Students involved in an extra credit assignment dispensed surveys to individuals they knew were full time employees in their respective organizations. A group of 75 students was allowed to give as many as five surveys per person for class extra credit. In many cases, respondents were parents or siblings of these students. A total of 375 surveys were available to students. Ultimately, 187 usable surveys were returned. This constitutes a response rate of 49%. Students either brought completed surveys back to class with them or informed respondents that they could contact the researcher directly and submit an electronic copy. The researchers collected, but did not disseminate, contact information on all respondents in order to ensure the legitimacy of their survey responses. To ensure the privacy of respondents, we never shared identifying information with any third party. However, we collected their telephone numbers and addresses in order to contact them if we suspected that students misrepresenting themselves to obtain class credit completed the surveys.

Respondent occupations in this sample included accountants, human resources administrators, sales professionals, marketing directors, and food service personnel. The average age of respondents was about 37 years old and the average organizational tenure was 7 years. The sample included 98 females (55%).

These data were collected between 2006 and 2007. Respondent occupations included human resource professionals, small business owners, restaurant servers, and civil service employees.

Measures

Before reporting results based on this study's scales, even those well validated in existing research we conducted confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to ascertain their dimensionality. The researchers used a principal component analysis with an orthogonal (Varimax) rotation. We subsequently applied Kaiser's Rule (retaining factors with eigenvalues over one), and examined the amount of variance extracted in the construct by the first factor relative to others (Pallant, 2004; Kaiser, 1974). The factor structures expected based on existing research emerged, thus, no items were deleted in any scales in the analyses. Table 1 notes the scales' calculated coefficient alpha values, the eigenvalues of the first extracted factor, and the proportion of cumulative variance in the construct described by that factor as extracted in this research. Additionally, it notes the measures' original authors and years of publication.

Table 1: Scales, Sources, Reliabilities, and Factor Analyses

Variable Name	Scale Author	Coefficient α	Eigenvalue of the 1 st Factor	Variance Explained by 1 st Factor
Need for Power	Yamaguchi (2003)	.71	2.55	.42
Need for Achievement		.80	2.53	.63
Need for Affiliation		.91	5.35	.59
Felt Accountability	Hochwarter, Perrewé, Hall, & Ferris (2005)	.73	2.89	.36
Informal Accountability for Others		.85	3.12	.62
	Royle, Hochwarter, & Hall (2008)			

This table contains information about the study's variables and the creators of the scales used to measure them. In addition, it reports the coefficient alpha values of each scale in both samples as well as the Eigenvalue of the first extracted factor and the amount of variance that it accounts for. All scales were measured with a five-point Likert-type response format anchored by "strongly disagree" and "strongly agree".

McClelland's Individual Needs. This study measures, achievement, affiliation, and power needs using a ten-item scale created by Yamaguchi (2003). The scales employ a five-point response format (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Four items measure affiliation needs. Three items each measure power, and achievement needs. Representative items include, "I enjoy influencing other people and getting my way, I want to be liked by others at work, and I enjoy difficult work challenges."

Informal accountability for others. In this research IAFO is measured using Royle, Hochwarter, and Hall's (2008) five-item scale. This scale was originally derived from Ivancevich and Matteson's (1980) "Responsibility for people" portion of their Stress Diagnostic Survey. The scale employs a five-point response format (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Representative items include, "I am accountable at work for the results or outcomes of others although it is not part of my formal job duties," and "I am accountable for counseling and consulting with peers and/or helping them solve their problems although I do not have to."

Felt accountability. The felt accountability measure used here comes from Hochwarter, Perrewé, Hall, and Ferris' (2005) eight-item scale. It uses a five-point response format (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Representative items include, "I am held very accountable for my actions at work and co-workers, subordinates, and supervisors closely scrutinize my efforts at work."

Control variables. Spurious effects are possible if researchers do not include control variables. Age, gender, race, and organizational tenure are, thus, included as control variables given their previously demonstrated influences (Sheridan & Vredenburg, 1978).

Data Analysis and Results

To determine if mediation existed in these data, Baron and Kenny’s (1986) three-step procedure is used. In order to test for mediation, a step-wise process is used. In the first step, analysis must demonstrate that the independent variable is significantly related to the mediator variable (i.e., felt accountability regressed on needs for power, achievement, and affiliation and control variables). Second, the independent variable must be related to the dependent variable (i.e., IAFO regressed on the learned needs). Finally, in the third step, the mediating variable should be related to the dependent variable with the independent variable included in the equation (i.e., felt accountability added into the regression equation). If the first three conditions hold, at least partial mediation is present. If the independent variable has a non-significant standardized beta weight in the third step and the mediator remains significant, then full mediation is present. If the independent variable has a significant but a reduced standardized beta weight (especially if associated significance levels drop) in the third step and the mediator remains significant as well, then a case of partial mediation exists.

Table 2 provides the means, standard deviations, and correlations among study variables. The two largest correlations between variables in this sample are between two controls- age and organization tenure ($r = .57, p < .01$) and two learned needs- achievement and affiliation ($r = .60, p < .01$). These correlations do not strongly indicate problems of multicollinearity because none exceeds the .60 benchmark noted by Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken (2003). No control variable was significantly related to felt accountability or IAFO. However, consistent with theory, felt accountability was significantly related to IAFO at the $p < .01$ level.

Table 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations between Study Variables

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age	36.51	13.42	---								
2. Gender	---	---	-.08	---							
3. Race	---	---	.22	.12	---						
4. Tenure	7.37	8.02	.57	-.10	-.14	---					
5. IAFO	2.46	.82	.05	-.05	-.11	.04	---				
6. Felt Account	3.94	.48	.04	-.08	-.01	-.01	.43	---			
7. NACH	3.54	.73	.02	.01	.04	-.08	.38	.34	---		
8. NAFF	1.77	.69	.09	.01	-.15	.07	.38	.41	.60	---	
9. NPOW	3.71	.82	-.04	-.15	-.05	-.05	.21	.22	.25	.31	---

*N = 187. The table above presents all of the inter-correlations between this study’s variables. These correlations do not strongly indicate problems of multicollinearity because none exceeds the .60 benchmark noted by Cohen, Cohen, West and Aiken (2003). *All bolded correlations indicate significance levels of $p < .05$ or stronger*

To test the study’s hypotheses, the researcher performed the three-step procedure as recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986) to test for mediation. In each of the three steps, the standard demographic control variables (i.e., age, race, organizational tenure, and gender) were included to help alleviate any spurious effects they might introduce and to promote a more stringent test of the relationships.

The first panel in Table 3 provides the results for the first step indicating that the mediating variable, felt accountability, was significantly negatively related to NPOW ($b = .21, p < .01$). As such, it is legitimate

to proceed to the second step. The second panel provides the results for this step and shows that power needs are significantly related to the dependent variable (IAFO) ($b = .21, p < .01$). Needs for power explained 3% of the variance in IAFO. In the third step of Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure, the mediating variable (i.e., felt accountability) must relate to the dependent variable (IAFO) with the independent variables included in the equation. The third panel in Table 3 provides the results of the final step. Results indicated that felt accountability was a significant predictor ($b = .40, p < .001$) of IAFO, but that power needs too were still significant ($b = .13, p < .10$). Had the standardized beta weight for power needs become insignificant in the third step, felt accountability could be said to fully mediate the relationship (Baron & Kenny, 1986). However, according to these same authors, a decline in the significance of the standardized beta weight of an independent variable between steps two and three with the mediator included in the regression equation indicates a case of partial mediation. Thus, analysis indicated that felt accountability partially mediated the relationship between power needs and IAFO. The following mediated regression equation estimates the determinants of informal accountability for others in the final step:

$$IAFO = \beta_1(Age) + \beta_2(Gender) + \beta_3(race) + \beta_4(tenure) + \beta_5(NPOW) + \beta_6(felt\ accountability)$$

Table 3: Mediation Results for Needs for Power

Step 1: Mediator Variable Regressed on the Independent Variable				
Variable	F	df	Adjusted R ²	β (standard)
Mediator: Felt Accountability	1.90†	5	.02	
NPOW				.21**
Step 2: Dependent Variable Regressed on Independent Variable				
Dep. Var.: IAFO	2.14 †	5	.03	
NPOW				.21**
Step 3: Dependent Variable Regressed on Mediator (IAFO) with the Independent Variable Included				
Dep. Var.: IAFO	7.99***	6	.18	
Felt Accountability				.40***
NPOW				.13†

N=187. The panels of this table show the mediation steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The results suggest that if the relationship weakens substantially in the presence of felt accountability, partial mediation occurs. Table 3 shows the regression estimates of the following equation: $IAFO = \beta_1(Age) + \beta_2(Gender) + \beta_3(race) + \beta_4(tenure) + \beta_5(NPOW) + \beta_6(felt\ accountability)$. Significance levels are indicated as follows: † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. All results include age, gender, and tenure, as control variables.

Table 4 provides the results for the study's second test hypothesis. It indicated that the mediating variable, felt accountability, is significantly positively related to achievement needs ($b = .34, p < .001$). Thus, further calculations are in order. The table's second panel shows that achievement needs significantly, positively, related to the dependent variable (IAFO) ($b = .39, p < .001$). Needs for achievement explained between 14% of the variance in IAFO.

The third panel in Table 4 notes the third step of Baron and Kenny's (1986) procedure. The mediating variable (i.e., felt accountability) is related to the dependent variable (IAFO) with the independent variables included in the equation. As can be seen, felt accountability was still a strong predictor ($b = .34, p < .001$) of IAFO, but achievement needs still proved a significant antecedent ($b = .27, p < .01$) in the equation. Baron and Kenny (1986) noted that if between the second and third steps the IV's standardized beta weight drops and/or the significance level drops, the relationship is partially mediated. Such is the case here. In this sample, felt accountability partially mediated the relationship between needs for achievement and IAFO. The following mediated regression equation estimates the determinants of informal accountability for others in the final step:

$$IAFO = \beta_1(Age) + \beta_2(Gender) + \beta_3(race) + \beta_4(tenure) + \beta_5(NACH) + \beta_6(felt\ accountability)$$

Table 4: Mediation Results for Needs for Achievement

Step 1: Mediator Variable Regressed on the Independent Variable				
Variable	F	df	Adjusted R ²	β (standard)
Mediator: Felt Accountability	4.92***	5	.10	
NACH				.34***
Step 2: Dependent Variable Regressed on Independent Variable				
Dep. Var.: IAFO	6.89***	5	.14	
NACH				.39***
Step 3: Dependent Variable Regressed on Mediator (OBSE) with the Independent Variable Included				
Dep. Var.: IAFO	10.56***	6	.24	
Felt Accountability				.34***
NACH				.27***

N=187. All results include age, gender, and tenure, as control variables. The panels of this table show the mediation steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The results suggest that if the relationship weakens substantially in the presence of felt accountability, partial mediation occurs. Table 4 shows the regression estimates of the following equation: $IAFO = \beta_1(Age) + \beta_2(Gender) + \beta_3(race) + \beta_4(tenure) + \beta_5(NACH) + \beta_6(\text{felt accountability})$. Significance levels are indicated as follows: † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

Table 5 provides information like that mentioned above for the results for the study’s third hypothesis. It indicated that the mediating variable, felt accountability, is significantly positively related to affiliation needs ($b = .42, p < .001$). Moving to the second step, the table’s second panel indicated that affiliation needs also significantly, positively, related to the dependent variable (IAFO) ($b = .37, p < .001$). Needs for affiliation explained between 13% of the variance in IAFO.

The following mediated regression equation estimates the determinants of informal accountability for others in the final step:

$$IAFO = \beta_1(Age) + \beta_2(Gender) + \beta_3(race) + \beta_4(tenure) + \beta_5(NAFF) + \beta_6(\text{felt accountability})$$

Table 5: Mediation Results for Needs for Affiliation

Step 1: Mediator Variable Regressed on the Independent Variable				
Variable	F	df	Adjusted R ²	β (standard)
Mediator: Felt Accountability	7.82**	5	.16	
NAFF				.42***
Step 2: Dependent Variable Regressed on Independent Variable				
Dep. Var.: IAFO	6.34***	5	.13	
NAFF				.37***
Step 3: Dependent Variable Regressed on Mediator (OBSE) with the Independent Variable Included				
Dep. Var.: IAFO	9.49***	6	.22	
Felt Accountability				.33***
NAFF				.24**

The panels of this table show the mediation steps suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986). The results suggest that if the relationship weakens substantially in the presence of felt accountability, partial mediation occurs Table 5 shows the regression estimates of the following equation: $IAFO = \beta_1(Age) + \beta_2(Gender) + \beta_3(race) + \beta_4(tenure) + \beta_5(NAFF) + \beta_6(\text{felt accountability})$. Significance levels are indicated as follows: † $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. All results include age, gender, and tenure, as control variables.

In the third step, the mediating variable (i.e., felt accountability) was still related to the dependent variable (IAFO) with the independent variables included in the equation. The third panel notes that felt accountability was a strong predictor ($b = .33, p < .001$) of IAFO, but affiliation needs still proved a significant antecedent to IAFO ($b = .24, p < .01$) with felt accountability entered in the equation. Again, between the second and third steps, the independent variable’s standardized beta weight drops along with its significance levels, thus, this relationship is partially mediated. Felt accountability partially mediated the relationship between needs for affiliation and informally accountability for others.

DISCUSSION

This research partially corroborates the mediating effects of felt accountability on the relationship between learned needs and informal accountability for others. These needs, for power, affiliation and achievement promote feelings of individual answerability, which then, in turn, facilitate informal answerability accountability for others. These findings help expand the field's understanding in several respects. For example, confirming that individuals learn needs that then encourage them to answer for their behaviors and those of others enhances both the body of research in accountability, organizational politics, and personality psychology. Indeed, these findings help further support the contention that individuals are both intuitive psychologists as well as politicians (Tetlock 1985, 1992).

To this point the field has not examined the extent to which individuals' learned needs impact the degree to which they feel answerable to others for their own attitudes and behaviors as well as those of their colleagues. Consequently, this study extends accountability research by enhancing the field's understanding of the sequence of feelings of answerability. By a step-wise methodological examination of the links in a chain, it appears that dimensions of needs relevant to felt accountability and informal accountability for others are effectively tapped in this research.

Contributions to Theory and Practice

McClelland's perspective on personality and its impact on motivation help clarify the sense of social context that creates apparent leaders, as well as noncontributing members, based on motives present in individuals that drive, direct, and select their behaviors (Spangler, House, & Palrecha, 2004; McClelland, 1980). The findings in this research help broaden the field's understanding of accountability by tapping the unique motives inherent in power, achievement, and affiliation needs. These data indicate that all three (i.e., achievement, power, and affiliation) needs contribute to individuals' willingness to answer for their actions and those of others, but to differing degrees and for different reasons.

The present findings indicated that felt accountability partially mediated the relationship between needs for achievement and IAFO. This finding helps augment the field's understanding by confirming the contention proffered by Spangler et al. (2004) that individuals high in achievement needs identify with tasks on a personal level and are, thus, likely to dedicate efforts to realize task and goal accomplishments. Naturally, one would expect higher levels of felt accountability and these findings validate that assumption. Furthermore, Spangler et al. (2004) claimed that individuals high in achievement are not inclined to delegate and are given to involving themselves, if not, meddling in the affairs of others in the organization. In one respect, the significant direct effects of achievement needs on IAFO in the study's findings helps validate their assumption. It appears that those high in achievement needs first feel driven to diligently satisfy the expectations inherent in their own positions in order to affect their standings within organizations (Cummings & Anton, 1990). They then attempt to influence, if not co-opt, the behaviors of others by signaling IAFO. Nevertheless, others must believe in the sincerity of a person's answering for them due to the expected reciprocated compliance it could entail and the expected uncertainty reduction (Gouldner, 1960; Royle et al. 2008; Epstein, 1999).

Another key contribution of this research involves the direction and motives of individuals high in affiliation needs. As achievement needs mentioned above, affiliation did predict both felt accountability and IAFO. Felt accountability partially mediated that relationship. However, the rationale is different in this case. As opposed to directly involving themselves in the efforts of others (e.g. achievement needs), those with high needs for affiliation are reluctant to overtly monitor or encumber their peers (Spangler et al. 2004). Because these individuals are concerned with establishing and maintaining close personal relationships (e.g., McClelland, 1985), they appear to seek IAFO as a means to further enhance the quality of their relationships with their colleagues. However, they still believe that they may be called on

to justify their actions to others as a sign of competence and legitimacy (Lerner and Tetlock 1999), thus, they feel accountable for themselves first.

McClelland (1985) noted that expression of power needs generally resulted in effective job performance, so long as individuals high in those needs constrain their behaviors in constructive and ethical ways. Winter (1992) claimed that those high in needs for power mostly seek money and influence. Unsurprisingly, feeling accountable for one's actions plays an important role in merit pay. Meeting, or exceeding, organizational expectations results in higher base salaries and better evaluations (Ivancevich, 2007). Ivancevich (2007) further indicated that in many organizations both formal and informal systems of evaluation exist side by side. A formal system of accountability methodically evaluates employee performance, simultaneously, an informal system hinges on how individuals think others are doing. If employees seem to be doing their jobs and answering for the actions of others in the firm, they are deemed better organizational citizens (Royle et al., 2008). This study's findings help empirically link these assumptions. High power need individuals (if acting morally) focus on formal appraisals to enhance their earnings and then lever the prestige of such high evaluations with others in order to influence them for future gains (e.g., gaining coworker accommodation for possible future promotion).

The study's findings present practical implications for organizations. For example, Greenhaus, Callahan, and Godshalk (2000) contented that those best suited to competition in contemporary careers, cannot merely possess adequate skills, but must extend their work involvement. This means they must manage organizational politics, enhance their reputations, and develop supportive, if not co-developmental, relationships (both within and outside their firms). Maintaining interpersonal associations that demonstrate informal accountability for others is an example of extending work involvement as well as a means of enhancing one's reputation.

This research, further, suggests a practical need to test individuals on basic, but legally and organizationally appropriate, personality needs for the purpose of selection (e.g., the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) Smith, 1992). Managers should know that personality (i.e., McClelland's needs) influences aspects of accountability, thus, affecting employee motivation (e.g., Enzele & Anderson, 1993), and ultimately enhancing aspects of organizational effectiveness (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Hogan, 2004).

Schein (1983) noted that an organization's culture reflected a founder's personality. Subsequently, personality attributes shape organizations through a sequence of attraction, selection, and attrition (Schneider, 1987). Testing these needs could reduce the risk of the costs (e.g., employees stress, lower levels of job satisfaction, and turnover) of a person-organization mismatch (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). In addition, because employees might build their work roles around their personalities (Bell & Staw, 1989), it is important to know what those attributes are. This is particularly important for firms not performing sophisticated job analysis because it increases the likelihood that positions become filled by employees with non-essential skills and/or exploitative personalities (e.g., those high in power needs with low responsibility dispositions), thus, threatening the organization's strategic positioning (Winter & Barenbaum, 1985; Butler, Ferris, & Napier, 1991).

Strengths and Limitations

As with any research, both the strengths and limitations of this study require attention. Prior criticisms of accountability research often involved contentions that the manner of data collection and subsequent findings lacked a sense of realism, therefore, bringing into question the external validity of the findings (Frink & Klimoski, 2004). Specifically, detractors noted that accountability research relied too heavily on experiments, rather than examining real employees in actual organizational settings (Frink & Klimoski, 2004). The current study benefits from the fact that it gathered data from working adults in actual

organizations. Furthermore, responses came from employees in a wide range of occupations throughout the southeast United States.

There are also limitations that deserve attention. Specifically, the data in this study came from single source, self-report surveys. This allows for the possibility of common method variance (CMV), a ubiquitous drawback to self-report measures (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003; Spector, 2006). Although CMV increases the probability of making both Type I and II errors, and acts a threat to validity (Podsakoff et al. 2003), an examination of Table 2 does not suggest spuriously inflated relationships due to response bias. Post hoc, the researchers conducted a Harman Single factor analysis. CMV could exist if a single factor emerges from unrotated factor solutions, or a first factor explains the majority of the variance in the variables (Harman, 1976; Podsakoff & Organ, 1986). These results did not indicate CMV. Admittedly, one cannot completely rule out the possibility that artifacts generated some of the observed effects, but based on the magnitude of the correlations and post hoc analysis, evidence suggests that this study was not deleteriously affected by common method variance.

Another limitation of this study relates to the sampling procedure. Specifically, selection bias could be an issue, because individuals seeking extra credit might have relied too heavily on family members and friends as data sources. Students might have felt certain that family and friends would respond as a favor or perhaps pressured them to do so. This allows for the possibility that respondents gave only a cursory treatment to the items in the survey as a means of appeasing their friends and family. We therefore note that this is a convenience sample so generalizing the results of this study is tenuous. Furthermore, non-response bias, the potential that respondents differ in motivation and ability from non-respondents, cannot be entirely ruled out in this sample (Schwab, 1999). Although it is encouraging that the sample's response rate was 57% as opposed to the relatively low expected rate of only 30% common to organizational research (Dillman, 2000), it is impossible to know for certain if respondents differed from non-respondents on dimensions critical to this research.

This study suffers from another limitation in that it was a cross-sectional study. A common bane of organizational researchers is the difficulty of conducting longitudinal research designs in field studies. Among other reasons, a lack of continued organizational access to employees, turnover, and firm attrition continue to hamper researchers' attempts. Cross-sectional studies diminish researchers' abilities to make definitive statements of causality (Schwab, 1999). Capturing a view of a whole at only one point is tenuous. This problem is akin to trying to understand a symphony when hearing only one movement.

Directions for Future Research

This research controlled for variables such as gender, age, and race. This is in keeping with guidelines proposed by Sheridan and Vredenburg (1978). Furthermore, this study controlled for organizational tenure and age, due to their implications for predicting hierarchical level within the firm and, thus, higher levels of formal accountability (Schlenker & Weigold, 1989; Schlenker et al., 1991). In the future researchers could employ longitudinal cohorts to better indentify the effects of time on McClelland's needs, felt accountability, and IAFO. Friedman and Schustack (1999) suggested that those high in achievement needs could rise to top organizational levels if individual shrewdness and persistence lead to triumph. These authors noted, however, over time individuals might feel less accountable for both themselves and others as they progress in the organizations hierarchy if skills of diplomacy and cooperation become less important (Friedman & Schustack, 1999).

Another possible direction for future research incorporates Hofstede's (1980, 2001) cultural dimensions. They may shed light on the relative attractiveness of expressing needs, feeling accountable, and of seeking informal accountability for others. It is possible that each of Hofstede's (1980, 2001) dimensions

differentially affects this study's variables. For example, in cultures that are masculine and individualistic (i.e., those that have prescribed gender differences and value individual initiative, Hofstede, 1980, 2001) perhaps feeling accountable and seeking IAFO is desirable due to culture norms related to personal initiative, recognition, and assertiveness. Additionally, authoritarian cultures (both national and organizational) are more conducive to the demonstration of assertive behaviors like those preferred by individuals high in power and achievement needs (Shankar, Ansari, & Saxena, 1999; Spangler et al., 2004).

On the other hand, collectivistic and feminine cultures (Hofstede, 1980, 2001) value the well-being of the group, overall quality of life, and the maintenance of non-contentious, interpersonal relationships (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). Shankar et al. (1999) asserted that participative climates are more common in collectivist societies and ingratiatory behaviors are, thus, more likely to be elicited. Future research could investigate if expressing affiliation needs in collectivistic and/or feminine cultures is a differentially important driver in the creation of both felt accountability and IAFO.

CONCLUSION

In a review of literature, Staw (2004) demonstrated that dispositional affect (e.g., basic needs or drivers of work behaviors like those studied here) can be a theoretically and empirically robust explanation for attitudes and demonstrated work behaviors. Admittedly, individuals' affective disposition cannot be the only relevant driver of job related attitudes or behaviors. It is, nonetheless, one key determinant (Staw, 2004). This study attempted to further link dispositional affect to important issues of organizational governance and social interaction (i.e., felt accountability and informal accountability for others).

This study set out to demonstrate the relationship between McClelland's (1961, 1975, 1985) needs, felt accountability, and informal accountability for others. It included a sample of working adults in the southeast United States. It hypothesized that these needs all promote, for different reasons, individuals' feelings of accountability for their own attitudes and behaviors and informally for those others as well. It tested these hypotheses with using mediated regression (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

The findings indicated that learned needs for power, achievement, and affiliation all, differentially, promoted individual feelings of answerability and that it partially mediated the relationship between needs and IAFO. Data suggested that of McClelland's (1961, 1975, 1985) needs, achievement motivation was the strongest predictor of IAFO followed by affiliation and power. Of course, these findings are limited owing to a reliance on cross-sectional data and sample of respondents who do not all come from the same organization. Future research should attempt to constructively replicate these findings in a single organization of substantial size and, further, consider additional cultural or boundary conditions that might affect the needs-felt accountability-IAFO relationship.

REFERENCES

- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *51*, 1173-1182.
- Beehr, T. A., & Bhagat, R. (1995). Introduction to human stress and cognition in organizations. In T. Beehr & R. Bhagat (Eds.), *Human stress and cognition in organizations*. (pp. 3-19). New York: Wiley.
- Bell, N. E., & Staw, B. M. (1989). The role of people as sculptors versus sculptor: The roles of personality and personal control in organizations. In M. B. Arthur, D. T. Hall, & B. S. Lawrence (Eds.), *The handbook of career theory*. (pp. 232-251). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Brunstein, J. C., & Maier, G. W. (2005). Implicit and self-attributed motives to achieve: Two separate but interacting needs. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 89, 205-222.

Butler, J. E., Ferris, G. R., & Napier, N. K. (1991). *Strategy and human resource management*. Cincinnati, OH: South-Western.

Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). *Applied multiple regression for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cummings, L. L., & Anton, R. J. (1990). The logical and appreciative dimensions of accountability. In S. Sivastva, D. Cooperrider, & Associates (Eds.), *Appreciative management and leadership* (pp. 257-286). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Dillman, D. A. (2000). *Mail and internet surveys: The tailored design method*. New York: Wiley.

Eisenberger, R., Jones, J. R., Stinglhamber, F., Shanock, L., & Randall, A. T. (2005). Flow experiences at work: For high need achievers alone? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 755-775.

Emmons, R. A. (1997). Motives and life goals. In S. Briggs, R. Hogan, & J.A. Johnson (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 485-512). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Enzele, M. E., & Anderson, S. C. (1993). Surveillant intentions and intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 64, 257-266.

Epstein, L. G. (1999). A definition of uncertainty aversion. *The Review of Economic Studies*, 66, 579-608.

Ferris, G. R., Mitchell, T. R., Canavan, P. J., Frink, D. D., & Hopper, H. (1995). Accountability in human resource systems. In G. R. Ferris, S. D. Rosen, & D. T. Barnum (Eds.), *Handbook of human resource management* (pp.175-196). Oxford, U.K.: Blackwell Publishers.

Frink, D. D., & Klimoski, R. J. (1998). Toward a theory of accountability in organizations and human resource management. In G. R. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in personnel and human resource management* (Vol. 16, pp. 1-51). Stamford, CT: JAI Press.

Frink, D. D., & Klimoski, R. J. (2004). Advancing accountability theory and practice: Introduction to the human resource management review special addition. *Human Resource Management Review*, 14, 1-17.

Friedman, H. S., & Schustack, M. W. (1999). *Personality: Classic theories and modern research*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Geen, R. G. (1991). Social motivation. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 42, 377-399.

Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement, *American Sociological Review*, 25, 161-178.

Greenhaus, J. H., Callahan, G. A., & Godshalk, V. M. (2000). *Career management* (3rd ed.). Fort Worth, TX: Dryden Press.

Hall, A. T., Royle, M. T., Brymer, R. A., Perrewé, P. L., Ferris, G. R., & Hochwarter, W. A. (2006). Relationships between felt accountability as a stressor and strain reactions: The neutralizing role of autonomy across two studies. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 11, 87-99.

- Harman, H. H. (1976). *Modern Factor Analysis*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press
- Heider, F. (1958). *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations*. New York: Wiley.
- Heintz, P. Jr., & Steele-Johnson, D. (2004). Clarifying the conceptual definitions of goal orientation dimensions: Competence, control and evaluation. *Organizational Analysis, 12*, 5-19.
- Henderson, M. C. (1993). Measuring managerial motivation: The power management inventory. *Journal of Nursing Measurement, 1*, 67-80.
- Henderson, M. C. (1995). Nurse executives: Leadership motivation and leadership effectiveness. *Journal of Nursing Administration, 25*, 45-51.
- Hochwarter, W. A., Perrewé, P. L., Hall, A.T., & Ferris, G. R. (2005). Negative affectivity as a moderator of the relationship between felt accountability and job tension. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*, 517-534.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hogan, R. (2004). Personality psychology for organizational researchers. In B. Schneider & D. B. Smith (Eds.), *Personality and organizations*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ivancevich, J. M. (2007). *Human resource management*. New York: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Ivancevich, J. M., & Matteson, M. T. (1980). *Stress and work: A managerial perspective*. Tucker, GA: Scott, Foresman, & Company.
- Kahn, R. L, Wolfe, D. M, Quinn, R. P., Snoek, J. D., & Rosenthal, R. A. (1964). *Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity*. New York: Wiley.
- Kaiser, H. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika, 39*, 31-36.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1966). *The social psychology of organizations*. New York: Wiley.
- Lerner, J. S., & Tetlock, P. E. (1999). Accounting for the effects of accountability. *Psychological Bulletin, 125*, 255-275.
- Lewin, K. (1951). *Field theory in social science: Selected theoretical papers*. New York: Harper & Row.
- McAdams, D. P. (1994). *The person: An introduction to personality psychology* (2nd ed.). Fort Worth, TX: Harcourt Brace.
- McClelland, D. (1961). *The achieving society*. Princeton, NJ: Van Nostrand Company Inc.
- McClelland, D. C. (1975). *Power: The inner experience*. New York: Irvington.
- McClelland, D. C. (1980). Motive dispositions: The merits of operant and respondent measures. In L. Wheeler (Ed.), *Review of personality and social psychology*, (Vol. 1, pp. 53-81). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

McClelland, D. C. (1985). *Human motivation*. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman.

McClelland, D. C., & Koestner, R. (1992). The achievement motive. In C. Smith (Ed.), *Motivation and personality: Handbook of thematic content analysis* (pp. 143-152). New York: Cambridge University Press.

McNeese-Smith, D. K. (1999). The relationship between managerial motivation, leadership, nurse outcomes, and patient satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20, 243-260.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). *Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

O'Driscoll, M. P., and Beehr, T. A. (1994). Supervisor behaviors, role stressors and uncertainty as predictors of personal outcomes for subordinates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15, 141-155.

O'Reilly, C. A., Chatman, J. A., & Caldwell, D. F. (1991). People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing the person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34, 487-516.

Pallant, J. (2004). *SPSS survival manual: A step-by-step guide to using SPSS*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research: Problems and prospects. *Journal of Management*, 12, 531-544.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 879-903.

Price, K. H. (1987). Decision responsibility, task responsibility, identifiability, and social loafing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 40, 330-345.

Porter, L. W., & Lawler, E. E. (1968). *Managerial attitudes and performance*. Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press.

Robbins, S. P. (2003). *Organizational behavior* (10th ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Royle, M. T., Hochwarter, W. A., & Hall, A. T. (2008). The mediating effect of informal accountability for others. *International Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 1, 1-22.

Royle, M. T., Fox, G., & Hochwarter, W. A. (2009). The relationships between select situational and dispositional constructs and informal accountability for others. *International Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 2, 113-133.

Royle, M. T., & Fox, G. (2011). The relationships between psychological strain, self-regulation, and informal accountability for others. *International Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 4, 1-18.

Schein, E. H. (1983). The role of the founder in creating organizational culture. *Organizational Dynamics*, 12, 13-28.

- Schlenker, B. R. (1986). *Personal accountability: Challenges and impediments in the quest for excellence*. Technical report prepared for the Navy Personnel Research and Development Center, San Diego, CA.
- Schlenker, B. R., & Weigold, M. F. (1989). Self-identification and accountability. In R. A. Giacalone & P. Rosenfeld (Eds.), *Impression management in the organization* (pp. 21-43). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Schlenker, B. R., Weigold, M. F., & Doherty, K. (1991). Coping with accountability: Self-identification and evaluative reckonings. In C. R. Snyder & D. R. Forsyth (Eds.), *Handbook of social and clinical psychology* (pp. 96-115). New York: Free Press.
- Schlenker, B. R., Britt, T. W., Pennington, J., Murphy, R., & Doherty, K. (1994). The triangle model of responsibility. *Psychological Review*, *77*, 419-426.
- Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, *40*, 437-453.
- Schwab, D. P. (1999). *Research methods for organizational studies*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Semin, G. R., & Manstead, A. (1983). *The accountability of conduct: A social psychological analysis*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Shankar, A., Ansari, M. A., & Saxena, S. (1999). Organizational context and ingratiation behaviors in organizations. *Journal of Social Psychology*, *134*, 641-647.
- Sheridan, J. E., & Vredenburgh, D. J. (1978). Usefulness of leader behavior and social power variables in predicting job tension, performance, and turnover of nursing employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *63*, 89-95.
- Simonson, I., & Nowlis, S. (2000). The role of explanations and the need for uniqueness in consumer decision-making: Unconventional choices based on reasons. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *27*, 49-68.
- Smith, C. P. (1992). *Motivation and personality: Handbook of thematic content analysis*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Spangler, W. D., House, R. J., & Palrecha, R. (2004). Personality and leadership. In B. Schneider & D. B. Smith (Eds.), *Personality and organizations*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Spector, P. E. (2006). Method variance in organizational research: Truth or urban legend? *Organizational Research Methods*, *9*, 221- 232.
- Staw, B. M. (2004). The dispositional approach to job attitudes. In B. Schneider & D. B. Smith (Eds.), *Personality and organizations*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Stenning, P. C. (1995). *Accountability for criminal justice*. Toronto: University of Toronto Press.
- Tetlock, P. E. (1985). Accountability: The neglected social context of judgment and choice. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 7, pp. 297-332). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Tetlock, P. E. (1992). The impact of accountability on judgment and choice: Toward a social contingency model. In M. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (pp. 331-377). New York: Academic Press.

Treadway, D. C., Hochwarter, W. A., Kacmar, C. J., & Ferris, G. R. (2005). Political will, political skill, and political behavior. *Organizational Behavior*, 26, 229-245.

Van Velsor, E., & Leslie, J. B. (1995). Why executives derail: Perspective across time and culture. *Academy of Management Executive*, 9, 62-72.

Veroff, J. (1992). Power motivation. In C. Smith (Ed.). *Motivation and personality: Handbook of thematic content analysis* (pp. 278-285). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation*. New York: Wiley.

Weiner, B. (1979). A theory of motivation of some classroom experiences. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 71, 3-25.

Winter, D. G. (1992), Power motivation revisited. In C. P. Smith, J. W. Atkinson, D. C. McClelland, & J. Verhoff (Eds.), *Motivation and personality: Handbook of thematic content analysis*: (pp. 301-310). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Winter, D. G., & Barenbaum, N. B. (1985). Responsibility and the power motive in women and men. *Journal of Personality*, 53, 335-355.

Yarnold, P. R., Mueser, K. T., & Lyons, J. S. (1988). Type A behavior, accountability, and work rate in small groups. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 22, 353-360.

Yamaguchi, I. (2003). The relations among individual differences, needs, and equity sensitivity. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18, 324-344.

Zajonc, R. B. (1965). Social facilitation. *Science*, 149, 296-274.

Zajonc, R. B., & Sales, S. M. (1966). Social facilitation of dominant and subordinate responses. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 2, 160-168.

Zimbardo, P. G. (1970). The human choice: Individuation, reason, and order versus deindividuation, impulse, and chaos. In W. J. Arnold & D. Levine, (Eds.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation*, (pp. 237-307). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.

BIOGRAPHY

M. Todd Royle Ph.D., corresponding author, is an associate professor of management and international business at Valdosta State University. He teaches courses in organizational behavior, international business, human resource management and career development. His main research interests relate to accountability, culture and organizational politics. He is available for correspondence to readers. Interested individuals may contact him in any of the following ways: M. Todd Royle 103 H Pound Hall Department of Management and International Business, Valdosta State University, Valdosta, GA 31698-10076, by phone at (229) 245-3875 (office), or mtroyle@valdosta.edu

Angela T. Hall, J.D., Ph.D. is an assistant professor of management at The University of Texas at San Antonio. She teaches courses in organizational behavior, human resource management, and training and development. Her main research interests are accountability, social influence, reputation and legal claiming. Her contact information is as follows: Angela T. Hall, Department of Management, College of Business, One UTSA Circle, The University of Texas at San Antonio, San Antonio, Texas 78249, (210) 458-5042 (office), angela.hall@utsa.edu.