12-1-2013

From Endogenization to Justification: Strategic Responses to Legitimacy Challenges in Contentious Organizational Fields

Paul-Brian McInerney
University of Illinois at Chicago

Gender and Corporate Sustainability: On Values, Vision, and Voice

Joan L. Slepian and Gwen E. Jones

Silberman College of Business, Fairleigh Dickinson University, Madison, New Jersey, USA

This article presents an exploratory empirical study of the role of gender in sustainability initiatives and practices in a sample of 925 men and women from American companies. We explore gender differences and their implications for sustainability values, priorities, and perceptions of sustainability-related activities in the workplace. Drawing from studies of sustainability, gender, and environmental values and action, our study finds that corporate women hold sustainability-related concerns and values to be significantly more important to them personally than do their male colleagues, and they view and evaluate their companies' sustainability-related value priorities, initiatives, and activities from these foundational ethical and value orientations. We conclude with a research agenda that includes identifying the actual participation of women in corporate sustainability initiatives, and also the organizational enablers and impediments of their empowered action and leadership. *Organization Management Journal*, 10: 215–226, 2013. doi: 10.1080/15416518.2013.859056

INTRODUCTION

In today's global and interconnected world economies, it has become critical for businesses to define and assume their responsibilities in addressing pressing global, ecological, economic, and social issues. Global challenges relating to providing adequate food and water, affordable and available health care, human rights and social justice, and ethical business practices confront all global citizens. Meanwhile, the impact of accelerated environmental degradation and human-generated climate change has been experienced across the planet (Battersby, 2012; Business Action for Sustainable Development, 2012; UN Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Core Writing Team, 2007).

To be successful in meeting these enormous challenges, global companies extend their foci both inside and beyond their corporate walls to address needs of local, national, and global communities (Business Action for Sustainable Development, 2012). Examples of acts of corporate social citizenship and responsibility, acts of corporate participation in local, national, and global partnerships to create solutions to complex environmental and social problems, acts that develop and implement transparent and accountable ethical business and practices, acts that demonstrate a commitment to energy efficiency and responsible waste management practices, and acts of donations of time and resources to address world poverty and disasters are reported in the popular and business press, and in companies' yearly "sustainability reports" to investors and the general public (for examples, see Blackburn, 2007; Savitz & Weber, 2006). However, although there have indeed been much progress and increasing corporate organizational activity in addressing these issues and concerns, there is much critical work to be done if negative consequences and catastrophes are to be averted.

Thus, in examining the popular and academic literatures, we note that men and women of many corporations appear to have come together to envision and enact a more sustainable future. However, thus far, little empirical, gender-focused research has emerged to describe and account for the emergence of sustainable business practices and initiatives in American companies. We argue in this article that this is indeed a glaring omission in the literature. The purpose of this study is to explore the role of sex and gender differences and gender in sustainability initiatives and practices in a sample of American companies.

Why Use the Lens of Gender? Why Does This Matter?

In his keynote address to a conference of leaders from the business and the nonprofit sectors, Tachi Kiuchi, former chief executive officer (CEO) of Mitsubishi Electric America, and founder and chairman of the board for The Future 500, specifically argued that in order for companies to successfully emulate nature to become sustainable and successful systems, they must (among other things) promote and propel women into real positions of power and influence in their organizations (Kiuchi, 2011). In this article, we explore what we understand to be some of the foundational premises of his observation and argument.

Address correspondence to Joan L. Slepian, Silberman College of Business, Fairleigh Dickinson University, 285 Madison Ave., Madison, NJ 07940, USA. E-mail: jlslepian@verizon.net

We concur with Kiuchi's observations that there is indeed a significant difference between how men and women hold and act upon core values that are associated with environmentalism and sustainability. Women's strong commitment to environmental and sustainability-related values does serve to shape their vision and priorities in their lives and organizations, and there exists a "gender gap" in this area. When women are promoted and empowered in leadership roles, they will create and lead organizations that are significantly closer to natural, ecologically healthy and sustainable relationships, and community systems that emulate nature (Kiuchi & Shireman, 2001; Zelezny & Bailey, 2006).

Our study is important in that we seek to explore and test these relationships empirically in a sample of American companies. First, we provide the first empirically based study of gender differences and the role gender plays in corporate sustainability initiatives. Thus far, there simply has been a void in the research and practice literatures. Second, we provide important applications and a test of the social psychological explanations of sex and gender differences in environmentalism and values by examining hypotheses that women's central environmental value orientations and socialization shape and frame their commitment to and evaluation of their company's sustainability initiatives and related activities. Finally, following from the work of feminist organizational scholars (Ely & Meyerson, 2001; Ely & Padavic, 2007), we propose that future studies should examine how women's values are behaviorally enacted in their leadership and participation in their company's sustainability initiatives and activities, and how their organizational structures and practices impact their participation and leadership.

Specifically, in this article, we draw on foundational work in the study of gender differences, values, and environmentalism that have shown that women possess significantly stronger altruistic and proenvironmental value orientations than do men (Zelezny, Chura, & Aldrich, 2000). From this, based on a sample of 925 men and women surveyed from American corporations, we predict and test that (a) corporate women will personally view sustainability related issues and practices to be highly important (*value*), and that (b) they will evaluate their companies' sustainability-related values and activities from this strong value base (*vision*). Following the literature, we expect to find evidence of significant sex and gender differences in these results.[1]

BACKGROUND

Sustainability Defined

Global sustainability is a pivotal world and business issue. Today's world citizens must seek to balance meeting their current pressing needs with their ethical and moral responsibility for their communities and for the generations that will follow (UN World Commission on Environment and Development [WCED], 1987, cited in Van Marrewijk, 2003). As the bases of the world's economy continue to progress from being primarily industrially based, local systems to an "emerging economy" of interconnected global information-based systems, it becomes even more necessary to recognize the ecology of relationships between ecosystems and nations. Individuals, businesses, and other organizations have begun to accept responsibility of addressing issues of ecological damage, environmental sustainability, and social justice (Holliday, Schmidheiny, & Watts, 2002).

In this study, we build on the World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) definition of *corporate social responsibility* (CSR) as being "the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large" (1999, p. 6). For an individual company, this means the integration of social (including human rights), environmental, and economic concerns into that company's values and culture, strategy, and operations. In many companies, this involves redefining success to include measures of the "triple bottom line" of profit (economic prosperity), planet (environmental protection), and people (social equity) (Elkington, 1997; Savitz & Weber, 2006).

Ultimately, we view Dyllick and Hockert's (2002) definition of *corporate sustainability* to best build upon the moral and ethical foundation of corporate social responsibility (CSR) to create and implement business strategies and business practices that serve to benefit multiple stakeholders and achieve consistent operational and strategic success:

> Corporate sustainability can accordingly be defined as meeting the needs of a firm's direct and indirect stakeholders (such as shareholders, employees, clients, pressure groups, communities, etc.) without compromising its ability to meet the needs of future stakeholders as well. Towards this goal, firms must maintain and grow their economic, social and environmental capital base while actively contributing to sustainability in the political domain. (pp. 131–132)

Firms, they argue (and we agree), not only must integrate all aspects of the triple bottom line in their long-term as well as short-term strategic planning, but they must also successfully manage social and natural capital, as well as economic capital. Corporate sustainability, then, forms the foundation of this study and our research.

Academic researchers, corporate public relations offices, and the popular press report numerous examples of socially responsible and community-motivated actions and sustainable business practices of corporations, including charitable contributions (individual and corporate), and philanthropic community actions related and unrelated to the business (Margolis & Walsh, 2003; Marquis, Glynn, & Davis, 2007). The American Management Association (AMA) (Wirtenberg, Harmon, Russell, & Fairfield, 2007) survey of sustainable business practices inside global companies reported evidence of sustainable business practices in the following areas: (a) operational controls and human resource practices (linkages

to selection, compensation, training and development, and working with suppliers); (b) eco-efficiency practices (operational practices such as reducing greenhouse gas emissions, reducing waste materials, improving energy efficiency); and (c) employee-centered ethical practices (work–life balance, empowered decision making, financial transparency, attention to employee health and safety concerns, and ethical accountability at all levels).

Why do corporations adopt sustainable, socially responsible business practices? What drives companies to engage in social action? The reasons often cited generally fall into two categories: financial and nonfinancial. Although Margolis and Walsh (2003) concluded from their extensive meta-analysis of 127 studies that the relationship between social and financial performance is mixed, more recent studies (Bansal & Roth, 2000; Barnett, 2007; Goldman Sachs Group, 2007; Marquis et al., 2007; Steger, Ionescu-Somers, & Salzmann, 2007) suggest that financial effects vary by industry, community, and stakeholder relationships. They identify nonfinancial drivers as including ethical values and principles, identity and reputation, regulation, community pressures, and membership. In the AMA study of the sustainability practices of more than 1,500 companies worldwide (which provides the sample that we use for analysis in this study), Wirtenberg et al. (2007) report that survey respondents identify the most significant drivers of sustainable business actions and practices in their companies to be (a) ecosystems concerns, (b) external stakeholders/financial, and (c) reputation/regulation.

On Gender Differences and Sustainability: Why Study Gender?

In their analysis and critique of the organizational research on gender differences, Ely and Padavic (2007) observed that much of the social science literature in psychology, sociology, and organizational behavior that examines gender and sex differences has tended to focus on (a) identifying and observing (significant) sex and gender differences in behavior when they do exist, and (b) attempting to identify the factors responsible for the observed differences. Most often, significant sex and gender differences in work-related behavior are attributed to factors that exist (or preexist) outside the work organization, such as innate biological differences, childhood socialization, or power relations between the sexes in the larger society. In most cases, however, Ely and Padavic note that sex or gender is a viewed as a "personal attribute," an individual-level variable that usually neglects the socially embedded nature of gender and sex relationships in organizations, and thereby creates and perpetuates significant problems.

In contrast to the preceding, Fletcher and Ely (2003) describe *gender* as a "complex set of social relations enacted across a range of social and institutional practices that exist both within and outside of formal organizations" (p. 6). As feminist organizational scholars and researchers, we concur and hold gender

to be a set of organizational and institutional processes and practices of social ordering, of enacting values, and enabling voice, action, and leadership. As Ely and Padavic (2007) argue (and we concur), gender is a meso-level construct (House, Rousseau, & Thomas-Hunt, 1995) that provides a conceptual and analytical lens through which to view and understand individual and social processes, and intergroup interactions in organizations and organizational fields. From this perspective, an individual's behavior and experience in an organization are profoundly impacted and shaped by particular features of that organization: its history, its processes, norms, and values, and where in the organization he or she is placed. For example, understanding the dynamics of gender in an organization (and its wider institutional and environmental contexts) can help us interpret the meaning of observed sex differences in individual behaviors (and survey responses). Moreover, a deeper understanding of the processes of gender in organizations can provide leaders and practitioners with intervention targets for empowering and enabling both men and women in becoming leaders and influencers in sustainability initiatives.

Clearly, men and women are not identical actors in sustainability initiatives in and among organizations. For example, Agarwal (2000) uses gender as the central organizing element in her field study of environmental collectives in Southeast Asia. Yes, gender matters, she argues, and she finds evidence of predictable differences in values, motivation, and social networks. In this article, we explore gender differences and their implications for sustainability values, priorities, perception, and experience in a sample of American firms.

Although there is a growing, influential stream of corporate sustainability research, we note that little of it examines the role of gender. Moreover, as Marshall (2007) found in her review of the "gendering of leadership in corporate social responsibility" (p. 165) most of the key leadership figures in sustainability "movement" had been experienced, White males ("tempered radicals"). Significant women's voices and styles, she noted, came from "outside" the corporation (e.g., Hazel Henderson, Ritu Kumar, Donella Meadows, and Mary Altomare). Other notable women in leadership roles in sustainability included entrepreneurs (e.g., Marilyn Waring, Anita Roddrick, and Vandana Shiva) and advocates and teachers (e.g., Joanna Macy and Margaret Wheatley). Given the variance in placement, socialization, context, and accessibility to resources that gendering brings, Marshall notes, it is indeed difficult to generalize as to the precise role gender plays in CSR leadership (Marshall, 2007).

Finally, while we have found practically no empirical, gender-based studies of corporate sustainability inside corporations, most gender-based analyses and cases of sustainability (outside corporations) tended to cluster in four areas: gender and development (Agarwal, 2000; Lansky, 2000, 2001, 2004, 2006; Zein-Elabdin, 1996, 1997, 2002) , women entrepreneurs and environmental collective action (Betters-Reed & Moore, 2007; Shoba & Thankom, 2002; Uden, 2008; Wooten, 2003), gender

justice and economic justice (Barton, 2005a, 2005b), and micro-finance (Mayoux, 1999). We believe that this exploratory study of gender and sustainability inside corporations begins to fill this much neglected area.

A Model of Enacting Environmental Values in Organizations

The following model (Figure 1) outlines the general process of value enactment in organizations and presents the primary set of concepts that frame our work. It brings together the primary theoretical and research links between proenvironmental, sustainability-related values that we hypothesize to shape one's perception and evaluation of sustainability-related strategies and activities practiced in one's workplace. Moreover, given an optimal set of environmental constraints and conditions, it suggests that individuals and organizational participants can indeed act to influence and lead sustainability-related initiatives and impact their organizations.

The research and results that we present here focus on the relationships between underlying sustainability-related proenvironmental values and their impact on differences in perceptions of sustainability-related strategies, activities, and outcomes in their companies (vision). We examine sex differences in proenvironmental and sustainability-related values and, based on past research, expect to find corresponding sex differences in perception of company strategies and actions in holding and achieving sustainability-related goals and activities. We use data from a survey of global managers to test hypotheses on gender differences in values and perception of sustainability practices in the workplace. In future research we hope to collect and use outcome data to extend our work, as well as to examine the relationship between values and perception and the capacity to effectively act to lead and impact change in one's workplace (voice). Moreover, with an extended data set to include environmental measures, we hope to contribute to a deeper understanding of how the external environment (organizational—structure, power relationships, work processes, technologies,

etc.; interorganizational, economic, social, political, and technical contexts) shapes and creates one's "engendered" experience in the workplace.

We next explore three general questions:

1. Is there evidence of significant gender-related differences in sustainability-related values held by male and females in our respondent sample?
2. How do male and female respondents perceive and evaluate their companies' sustainability-related strategies and activities?
3. How might gender generally impact corporate sustainability initiatives?

Values: Gender Differences in Proenvironmental, Sustainability-Related Values

Many studies in environmental psychology have suggested that values are core constructs in the study of environmentalism, environmental concern, and action (cf. Schultz, Valdiney, Cameron, & Geetika, 2005; Schultz & Zelezny, 1998, 1999; J. G. Stead & Stead, 2000; W. E. Stead & Stead, 1994; Stern & Dietz, 1994; Stern, Dietz, & Kalof, 1993; Stern, Dietz, Kalof, & Guagnano, 1995).

Environmental Value Orientation

Stern and Dietz (1994) observed that environmental concern has been related to three types of values that underlie environmentalism and proenvironmental action: egoistic, social-altruistic, and biospheric value orientations. Egoistic values predispose people to support and protect environmental causes that personally affect them, and to neglect or oppose those environmental protections where the cost or risk of such support is perceived as being high; a simple cost/benefit analysis is based on personal and material costs versus personal and material benefits (Hammond & Coppeck, 1990). Altruistic models posit that individuals act on the bases of inherent moral obligations to others; this has been used to account for various proenvironmental
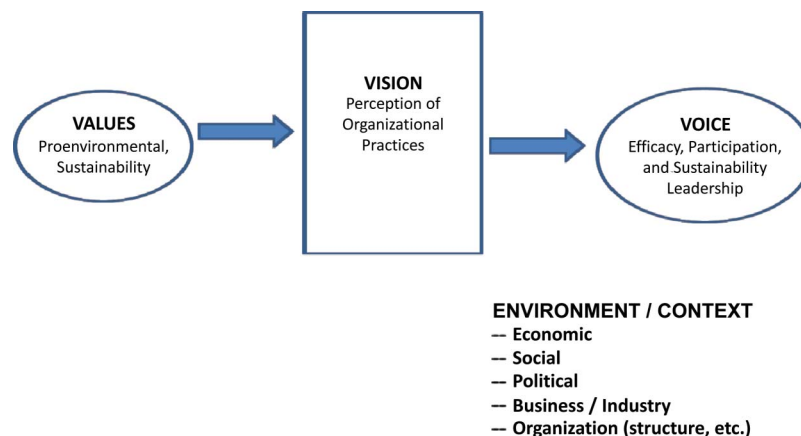

FIG. 1. Enacting sustainability values in organizations.

behaviors and actions, such as recycling and willingness to take social action (Heberlein, 1972; Schwartz, 1977; Stern, Dietz, & Black, 1986). In contrast to those whose assessments are egoistically based, those who based their assessment on altruistic values base their cost/benefit assessment on perceived benefits to others beyond oneself, to the community, and the world. Biospheric value orientations (Dunlap, Van Liere, Mertig, Catton, & Howell, 1992; Leopold, 1948) are held by those who judge behaviors and other phenomena on the basis of perceived costs or benefits to ecosystems and the environment.

Sex Differences in Value Orientation and Gender Socialization

Men and women have been found to differ significantly in proenvironmental values and concern. In their meta-analysis and review of 32 studies of gender differences and environmentalism from 1988 to 1998, Zeleny et al. (2000) report that women exhibited significantly more general environmental concern than men. Additionally, across 9 of 13 studies of environmental behavior, they found that women reported significantly more participation in proenvironmental actions than men.

These significant gender differences in environmental concern and behavior have generally been explained in two ways in the literature: gender socialization (Zelezny et al., 2000) and environmental value orientation (Stern et al., 1993). We view these two to be linked—gender socialization shapes one's values and identity in consistent and observable patterns. In this case, as researchers have consistently found, females across cultures are socialized to be more emotionally expressive, to exhibit an "ethic of care," to exhibit interdependence, to value the needs of others, and to exhibit altruism (Beutel & Marini, 1995; Chodorow 1974; Gilligan 1982; Noddings, 1984). In contrast, men are socialized to be more independent and competitive (Chodorow, 1974; Keller, 1985). Indeed, the most consistently significant difference in environmental value orientation found across all studies between women and men is that of altruism (Dietz, Kalof, & Stern, 2002; Zelezny et al., 2000).

Following, then, from the results of these studies identifying women's strong environmental value orientation and gender socialization, we would expect to see female managers viewing sustainability-related issues and priorities as highly important to them in their workplace. Additionally, from the sex differences observed in proenvironmental value orientation research, we also expect to see a significant difference between men and women in the strength of their personal values relating to sustainability and environmental concerns and problems in their organizations.

Hypothesis 1. Values (concern): Corporate women view sustainability-related issues as being highly important to them personally. They place higher value on sustainability related issues than do their male colleagues.

Values Shape Vision: Gender Differences in Environmental Values as a Basis for Evaluation

The next set of hypotheses examines the relationship between prosustainability values and subsequent judgment/perception in our sample of male and female respondents.

Values Shape Perception and Judgment

While there has been considerable debate and conflicting research in the psychological literatures on the exact sequence and processes, it is generally accepted that strongly held values and attitudes shape judgment and subsequent behavioral intent and actions. Moreover, the psychological constructs of beliefs and belief systems have been closely connected with conceptions of attitude and other cognitive organizing constructs.

Beliefs were originally described as the "cognitive component" of attitude in the traditional tripartite definition of attitude as comprising cognitive, affective, and behavioral elements (Katz, 1960), yet Rokeach (1960) synthesized the affective and cognitive components of attitude and called them "beliefs." Additionally, Rokeach (1960, 1968) incorporated the concept of expectancy by identifying a basic hypothesis of the relationship of beliefs and sets of beliefs to action: Beliefs were causally related to actions—beliefs caused and guided future actions, and as Bem (1970) later showed, beliefs reflected outcomes of past actions as well. In Rokeach's model, "belief" synthesized both the cognitive and affective components of attitudes. The belief system, then, reflected the collected expectancies at time T_1 for action at T_2. Additionally, another of Rokeach's major contributions to the understanding of beliefs and belief systems was his argument that not all beliefs are equally important to an individual: some are more central while others are more peripheral (Rokeach, 1968). Those that are more central to an individual (that are shared and socialized as a central component of one's belief and identity system) are used as primary organizing mechanisms. Beliefs were also related to attitudes and values by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), who related beliefs to attitude (and evaluation/judgment). From this perspective, an individual's attitude structure consists of a collection of subjective beliefs about an object (Pratkanis, 1989). Beliefs became cognitive representations of events, relationships, objects, and categories, again the foundation for subsequent judgment and evaluation of new information and situations.

Given the preceding, and following the arguments of Rokeach (1960, 1968) and Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), in the case of corporate women's strongly held (and deeply socialized and shared) central prosustainability value orientation, we expect to find them perceiving and judging their organizations' sustainability intentions and actions through this lens. Moreover, given the gender-based difference in proenvironmental values in the first hypothesis, we expect to find significant sex differences in the results.

Hypotheses 2 (2a and 2b) relate to corporate men and women's perceptions of the values, priorities, and degree of concern that they see their organizations holding regarding

sustainability-related issues. The first hypothesis (2a) predicts significant differences between gender groups regarding their companies' perceived concern for sustainability-related issues and concerns: Since women's personal proenvironmental and sustainability values are more central to their belief system than such values are for their male colleagues (H1), we predict that they will base their judgment and perception on their personal commitment to these core values to more critically view their company's values and priorities in this area. Hypothesis 2b predicts that women view their company's commitments to sustainability and proenvironmental values to be held less strongly than their own personal commitment to these values. Hypothesis 3 extends the gender difference arguments of H2a to judgments and perceptions of their organization's actual involvement in sustainability-related activities.

Hypothesis 2a. Vision (judgment and perception): Corporate women will perceive their organization to be less concerned about sustainability-related issues than will their male colleagues.

Hypothesis 2b. Vision (judgment and perception): Corporate women will perceive their organization to be less concerned about sustainability-related issues than they are personally.

Hypothesis 3. Vision (judgment and perception): Corporate women will perceive their organization to be less involved in sustainability-related practices than will their male colleagues.

METHODS

Survey and Procedure

This study utilized survey data collected in 2007 by the American Management Association (AMA) in conjunction with the Human Resource Institute and the Institute for Sustainable Enterprise. A link to an online survey was sent to the e-mail lists of both the professional organizations and HR.com's members. There were 1,514 usable surveys included in the final data set, which primarily included individuals at the supervisory level or above (75%) from 44 countries. Fairfield, Harmon, and Behson (2011) constructed the survey questions and measures from their review of the literature, organized the questions into groups, and conducted reliability and validity tests of the scales and measures by randomly splitting the data (one quarter to three quarters) and performing a principle components analysis on the smaller sample to yield a factor structure of the items that was then applied to the larger sample with a confirmatory factor and scale analysis. These analyses showed no significant differences across the two samples.

For the purposes of this study, we limited our analyses to respondents from the United States to control for cultural differences across gender. This resulted in a sample total of 925 (547 women [59%] and 378 men [41%]). Fifty-one percent were in the human resources (HR) function, and this differed across gender (61% of women were in the HR function and

37% of men). The rest were from a wide variety of levels and functions, with the most frequent including general management, finance, administrative, marketing, operations, research and development, sales, and systems/information technology (IT). Fairfield et al. (2011) reported that there were no significant differences in responses on survey items in this data set between HR and non-HR respondents (except that HR respondents found workforce issues to more significantly drive sustainability efforts). The sample equally represented small, medium, and large companies in a wide variety of industry sectors, with the most frequent including business-to-business services, chemicals, consumer goods, education, energy/utilities, financial services/banking, food products, government, hi-tech/telecommunications, health care, manufacturing, non-profit, pharmaceutical/biotech/medical device, and retail. Approximately half were in national-only companies and the other half in multinational or global companies. The most frequent age category for both men and women was 45–50 years (19% for both genders) with a distribution in all age categories comparable across gender. As noted earlier, this study utilized survey measures that were part of a larger survey. All survey items included in the present study used a 5-point, Likert-type scale, with 1 indicating *not at all* and 5 indicating *extremely important* or *to a very great extent*. To assess the degree to which respondents personally cared (H1), or their company cared (H2a), about sustainability issues, 18 sustainability-related items were listed and respondents rated each item on the two criteria. These items are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

The actual survey asked: How important are the following sustainability-related global issues to: (a) you personally, i.e., how much do you personally care about these issues? (b) to your company, i.e., how much do you think your company cares about these issues? We conducted an exploratory principal components analysis (varimax rotation) to reveal underlying dimensions of the two sets of items (personally care and company cares). In two separate analyses (one for personally care and another for company cares) we found that the items loaded on two factors that explained 44% (personally cares) and 51% (company cares) of the variance in response ratings. The first factor showed factor loadings with items that were more global sustainability issues (i.e., clean energy, population growth, clean water, open immigration, diverse ecosystem, climate change, safe food sources, assistance with natural disasters, poverty/homelessness, epidemics, human rights abuse, and right to collective bargaining). The second factor included items that were more local or company sustainability issues (i.e., well-being of employees, corruption in all its forms including extortion and bribery, safe work environment, affordable health care, business ethics and integrity, and worker job security).

Respondents also rated 17 sustainability practices to assess the extent to which they perceived that their companies had these sustainability practices in place (H3). These are shown in Table 3. All 925 survey respondents completed every survey

TABLE 1
Mean differences in rated personal importance of sustainability issues

Sustainability issue	Women's ratings (n = 547)		Men's ratings (n = 378)		
	M	SD	M	SD	F
Well-being of employees	4.74	0.49	4.61	0.56	14.31*
Corruption in all its forms	4.55	0.88	4.50	0.92	1.57
Affordable clean energy	4.15	0.87	4.03	0.86	5.26*
Safe and healthy work environment	4.76	0.49	4.65	0.56	10.80*
World population growth	3.35	1.10	3.16	1.11	7.22*
Clean water	4.45	0.80	4.33	0.87	4.68*
Open immigration	3.33	1.18	3.25	1.21	1.06
Diverse ecosystem	3.78	1.07	3.61	1.05	6.44*
Affordable quality health care	4.82	0.44	4.62	0.61	30.54*
Climate change	3.83	1.06	3.60	1.15	9.89*
Safe and reliable food sources	4.38	0.84	4.26	0.90	5.20*
Assistance after natural disasters	4.21	0.82	3.92	0.97	24.23*
Poverty and homeless	4.06	0.91	3.71	0.99	29.22*
Epidemics	3.86	1.03	3.65	1.08	9.48*
Human rights abuses	4.26	0.88	3.97	0.95	22.60*
Right to collective bargaining	3.09	1.30	2.84	1.25	8.21*
Business ethics and integrity	4.83	0.44	4.74	0.55	8.46*
Worker job security	4.45	0.76	4.32	0.80	8.13*

*$p < .001$.

item (only fully completed surveys were accepted); therefore, there were no missing data in our analysis. Fairfield et al. (2011) conducted a principal components analysis on this set of items and found three underlying factors, explaining 72% of the variance: Integration/Alignment (Factor 1), Eco-Efficiency (Factor 2), and Employee-Centered/Ethics Practices. The items are grouped within these three factors in Table 3.

RESULTS

Hypothesis 1: Gender Differences in Sustainability-Related Values

For Hypothesis 1, gender differences were assessed across survey items asking respondents how much they personally care about sustainability-related global issues. A multivariate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) was conducted to test H1. The effects of organizational size, respondent function (since a majority were from the HR function), and level within the organization (e.g., supervisory, director, etc.) were controlled for by entering in the analysis as covariates. Only organizational size exhibited a significant effect. The overall results were significant (Wilks $\Omega = .938$, $F = 3.34$, p $< .001$). As a result, univariate analyses of variance were performed for each of the 18 items. Gender means and the univariate F ratios are presented in Table 1. As can be seen in the table, all but two items were rated statistically significantly different across gender.

More specifically, women rated the sustainability-related issues as more important to them personally than did men, thus supporting Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2a: Gender Differences in Perceptions of Organizational Priorities and Values

A second MANCOVA was performed to test Hypothesis 2a on the survey items asking respondents how much they perceive that their company cares about the 18 sustainability issues. Again, the effects of organizational size, function, and level within the organization were controlled for in the covariate analysis (only organizational size again had a statistically significant effect). The results were significant (Wilks $\Omega = .955$, $F = 2.38$, $p < .001$). As can be seen from the means and univariate F ratios in Table 2, there were statistically significant differences across gender for four of the 18 items. The differences were mixed. Women rated two items, "well-being of employees" and "affordable quality healthcare," as more important to the company than did men. Men rated two items as more important to the company, "affordable clean energy" and "safe and healthy work environment," than did women. Thus, while we found some differences across gender in perceived importance to their company of sustainability-related issues, there was not strong support for the hypothesized gender differences in Hypothesis 2a.

TABLE 2
Mean differences in rated company importance of sustainability issues

Sustainability issue	Women's ratings (n = 547)		Men's ratings (n = 378)		
	M	SD	M	SD	F
Well-being of employees	3.94	.92	3.79	0.96	4.09*
Corruption in all its forms	4.27	1.06	4.40	0.98	2.02
Affordable clean energy	3.33	1.14	3.52	1.10	4.94*
Safe and healthy work environment	4.31	0.89	4.42	0.80	3.28*
World population growth	2.71	1.16	2.77	1.15	0.20
Clean water	3.56	1.22	3.64	1.19	1.02
Open immigration	2.86	1.20	2.94	1.07	0.61
Diverse ecosystem	2.97	1.22	3.08	1.15	1.30
Affordable quality health care	4.19	.97	4.02	1.03	5.21*
Climate change	2.93	1.17	3.04	1.20	1.62
Safe and reliable food sources	3.30	1.30	3.32	1.29	0.14
Assistance after natural disasters	3.76	1.14	3.73	1.14	2.03
Poverty and homeless	3.10	1.18	3.11	1.17	0.12
Epidemics	3.41	1.23	3.38	1.22	2.68
Human rights abuses	3.39	1.28	3.38	1.24	0.21
Right to collective bargaining	2.77	1.32	2.73	1.30	2.23
Business ethics and integrity	4.50	0.89	4.49	0.89	.004
Worker job security	3.50	1.16	3.43	1.10	0.81

$^*p < .001.$

Hypothesis 2b: Women's Personal Commitment to Sustainability Values Versus Their Organizations'

To test Hypothesis 2b, we conducted paired-sample t-tests to determine whether the differences in means were statistically significant in how women rated an item across personal importance and company importance. More specifically, the question was whether an item, such as "well-being of employees," was rated differently by women on personal importance versus their perceptions of importance to their company. We found strong statistically significant differences ($p < .001$) across all 18 survey item means (means are shown in Tables 1 and 2) between personal importance and company importance. Thus, women rated all sustainability-related global issues as more personally important to them than they perceived their company to care about these issues, supporting Hypothesis 2b. It should be noted that we also conducted this analysis on the male sample, and found that men, too, rated their company's importance for sustainability-rated issues to be significantly lower than their personal values ($p < .001$).

Hypothesis 3: Gender Differences in Perception of Organizational Practices

A final MANCOVA was conducted on 17 survey items that asked the extent to which the respondent's company has practices in place to address specific sustainability initiatives. These results were also significant (Wilks $\Omega = .949$, $F = 2.804$, $p < .001$). Gender means and follow-up univariate F ratios are shown in Table 3. As can be seen in the table, there were statistically significant gender differences on six sustainability practices. Men consistently perceived these practices to be in place in their company to a higher extent than did women, thus supporting Hypothesis 3.

DISCUSSION

We began this article noting the relative absence of women from leadership roles and accounts of corporate sustainability activities and initiatives inside most large corporations. The research and conceptual model that we have described here were designed to explore questions relating to the role of sex differences and gender in corporate sustainability initiatives. Specifically, the results we have presented focused on understanding the influence of gender on the underlying sustainability-related, proenvironmental values held by responding managers, and their subsequent impact on the perceptions and evaluation of sustainability-related values and strategies, activities, and outcomes in a sample of American companies. We built and tested arguments based on psychological research on sex differences in environmentalism, gender, and values, and on the cognitive psychological linkages between values, perception, and action. We hypothesized that (a) if the sex differences in proenvironmental values and socialization

TABLE 3
Mean differences in rated extent company has sustainability practices in place

Sustainability practice	Women's ratings		Men's ratings		
	M	SD	M	SD	F
Integration/Alignment (Factor1)					
Use sustainability-related criteria in recruiting and selection	2.74	1.34	2.69	1.23	.056
Use sustainability-related criteria in promotion and career development	2.71	1.34	2.63	1.19	0.97
Link sustainability-related criteria to compensation	2.46	1.25	2.43	1.18	0.07
Establish indicators to determine if the organization is meeting sustainability goals	2.61	1.33	2.65	1.28	0.10
Highlight our commitment to sustainability in our brand	3.00	1.39	2.99	1.36	0.07
Work with suppliers to strengthen sustainability practices	2.83	1.29	2.86	1.19	0.09
Get groups across your organization that are working on sustainability-related initiatives to work more closely together	2.71	1.33	2.87	1.23	2.18
Engage collaboratively with community and nongovernmental groups	3.45	1.26	3.54	1.15	0.553
Provide employee training and development related to sustainability	3.20	1.26	3.22	1.21	0.01
Eco-Efficiency (Factor 2)					
Reduce greenhouse gas emissions	2.30	1.23	2.68	1.25	15.29*
Reduce waste materials	2.89	1.30	3.17	1.24	6.60*
Improve energy efficiency	2.80	1.20	3.10	1.15	9.89*
Employee-Centered/Ethics Practices (Factor 3)					
Ensure accountability of ethics at all levels	3.91	1.09	4.12	0.96	5.77*
Ensure the health and safety of employees	4.04	0.91	4.08	0.94	0.20
Encourage employee volunteerism	3.20	1.33	3.45	1.22	5.35*
Involve employees in decisions that affect them	3.15	1.19	3.26	1.08	3.15*
Support employees in balancing work and life activities	3.35	1.14	3.30	1.14	0.05

$*p < .001$.

that have been found in the literature were evident in our sample, then (b) it should follow that the sex differences should also be evident in the managers' perception and evaluation of their organization's sustainability-related strategies and initiatives.

Our analyses of the survey responses have provided mixed results. First, we did find evidence of the hypothesized sex differences in personal sustainability-related, proenvironmental values. Our study adds to the considerable evidence supporting the clear gender differences in proenvironmental values and behaviors reported in the literature. While we found evidence that both men and women in the U.S. corporations surveyed clearly personally value sustainable, responsible, and compassionate individual and corporate actions (on a scale from 1 to 5, of the 18 sustainability values, the men's mean = 4.00, while the women's mean = 4.15), we found significant evidence of gender differences in the relative strength of their personal proenvironmental, prosustainability values, with the women's mean being significantly higher.

Moving from personal values to subsequent perception and evaluation of organizational priorities and sustainability values (vision), however, we found mixed results. Both men and women perceived their company to be equally concerned with sustainability-related issues. Only four of the issues (employee well-being, affordable clean energy, safe and healthy work environment, and affordable quality health care) presented significant gender differences: Two of the issues were rated significantly higher by women (employee well-being and affordable, quality health care), with two of the issues rated significantly higher by men (affordable clean energy and safe and healthy work environment). In comparing the degree to which the company valued the sustainability-related issues to their own personal values, however, some gender differences reemerged; women rated all sustainability-related global issues as more personally important to them than they perceived their company cared about these issues. While this pattern held true for men as well, the difference between personal values and perceived company values was greater for women.

Finally, in looking at the degree to which male and female managers perceived that their company had sustainability practices in place (and opposed to valuing sustainability issues), we found evidence of significant difference across the 17 practices. Moreover, for each of the six practices where the gender differences were significant at the $p < .001$ level, men consistently viewed their organization to be more positively implementing the practices than did women. Both male and female managers, however, appeared to view their organizations to be relatively weak in implementing the sustainability practices (the mean ratings of only 2 of the 17 practices were 3.5 or above on the 5-point scale).

In attempting to account for these results, we return to Ely and Padavic's (2007) arguments. Our initial hypotheses were presented within the traditional, more physiologically and psychologically based framework of sex and gender research that views sex or gender as an individual-level variable. Consistent with the psychological literature, we expected and found evidence of individual sex and gender differences in the strength of particular sustainability-related values in male and female managers. However, when we asked organizational participants to look outward and evaluate their organizations' sustainability-related values and activities through their "value lenses," we explicitly shifted the focus from individual to organizational, and our results predictably became more complex. In this case, the male and female managers' perception and judgments were not only being shaped by their own individual biological, social, and other individual factors, but they were also significantly impacted by the particular elements of the interpreted organizational context (environment): its history, processes, industry, size, structures, social networks, company norms and practices, power relationships, and where in the organization she or he was placed.

As Ely and Padavic (2007) argue, it is important to identify the institutional and organizational processes and mechanisms through which these engendered processes are communicated and reinforced. For example, in this study, when asked to estimate the company's commitment to particular sustainability values, the predicted sex differences disappeared in most cases. It would indeed be particularly instructive to uncover an explanation as to why the particular four items were perceived to be valued by their companies in a significantly different manner by male and female managers. However, when managers were asked to report the distance between their own personal sustainability values and their perception of their company's value of that same issue, the distance between the personal value strength and perceived organizational value strength was wider for women than it was for men. A significant question to be addressed in future studies would be to uncover why and how this occurred. Similarly interesting in future studies would be an examination of the role of organizational size in shaping these results.

Several methodological limitations of this research should be mentioned. First, results were obtained from existing survey data from a study that was not primarily intended to examine gender dynamics. As we have presented in this article, the measures appear to have good content and construct validity for the purposes of this study; however, future research exploring the role of gender in corporate sustainability should purposely develop a survey and measures to test new, gender-focused models and hypotheses. Second, a high percentage of respondents worked in the human resources function of their company, a function that is often predominantly female. While there were no statistically significant differences found between HR and non-HR respondents in our sample and also in its parent sample, a broader sample across functions would provide more generalizable results. Finally, this study intended to examine men's and women's perception of sustainability values and practices in their company; however, it should be noted that the study was based on a self-report, self-selected sample and may not represent actual perceptual differences of the population. Future research should utilize more rigorous sampling methods.

In conclusion, this study suggests that men and women value and view sustainability efforts in organizations differently. We proposed, based on prior research, that these perceptual differences are due to value differences across gender. Future studies might examine whether the perceptions of women or those of men are more in line (correlated) with objective measures of the extent to which their company is actually practicing sustainability-related initiatives.

While it was not the focus of this current study, our model suggests that, when possible, men and women seek to act on their personal vision and values and become involved (and assume leadership roles) in their company's sustainability-related activities. However, given the engendered social and structural contexts of corporations, and the differential means of access, we are concerned that corporate women seeking to enact their beliefs and values may well confront significant challenges and resistance inside their organization if their goals and values are not aligned with the predominant values, practices, and ideologies of their organization and company, and given the structural and functional constraints to access. Social systems and networks (position and access to resources), cultural and organizational values, paradigms, priorities, and degree of autonomy frame and often limit one's ability to successfully enact one's value orientation in an organizational context.

Finally, though we did not address it in the present study, it would follow that if women do indeed personally hold strong proenvironmental and sustainability-related values and use these lenses to evaluate their company's sustainability initiatives, then they will indeed act to impact their company's direction and participate in its sustainability initiatives at a high level. Clearly, a next step in this research would be to examine the actual involvement and behavior of corporate women in their companies' sustainability activities and initiatives. While we would expect (and hope) to see women taking active leadership roles in their companies' initiative, due to the organizational complexity and social structural limitations

of gender and occupational roles in large corporations, it does not necessarily follow that women will be more active and assume leadership roles in corporate sustainability initiatives (as they well might in other more entrepreneurial contexts). Indeed, anecdotal evidence suggests that this is not at all the case. While we might expect to see few gender differences in actual roles and behaviors between men and women in our next corporate sample, given the functional background of those responding to the survey (and the locations and type of corporate sustainability actions and initiatives in a particular company), men might well play greater roles in their companies' sustainability initiatives. We do hope, however, to see empirical evidence that women's values, vision, and voices will continue to shape corporate sustainability initiatives.

NOTE

1. In this article we use the terms "sex" and "gender" in accordance with the distinctions in the 6th edition of the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (APA, 2010, p. 130): "*Gender* is cultural, and it the term to use when referring to men and women as social groups. *Sex* is biological; use it when the biological distinction is predominant." This use is consistent with earlier work by Gentile (1993, p. 123), Unger and Crawford (1993, p. 121), and Walker and Cook (1998, p. 131).

Contemporary researchers in the sociology of work and gender highlight the role of individual and organizational structuration and socialization in developing a deeper understanding of the processes and dynamics of gender-linked processes and experience of organizational life (Ely & Padavic, 2007, p. 94; West & Zimmerman, 1991, p. 132). For this reason, much contemporary organizational survey research tends to use the category of *gender* differences (to emphasize the social nature of the difference between groups' experiences), rather than the biologically linked *sex* differences.

REFERENCES

Agarwal, B. (2000). Conceptualising environmental collective action: Why gender matters. *Cambridge Journal of Economics*, *24*, 283.

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual of the American Psychological Association* (6th ed.). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Bansal, P., & Roth, K. (2000). Why companies go green: A model of ecological responsiveness. *Academy of Management Review*, *43*, 717.

Barnett, M. L. (2007). Stakeholder influence capacity and the variability of financial returns to corporate social responsibility. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*, 794–816.

Barton, C. (2005a). Integrating feminist agendas: Gender justice and economic justice. *Development*, *48*, 75.

Barton, C. (2005b). Women debate the MDGs. *Development*, *48*, 101.

Battersby, S. (2012). How global warming is driving our weather wild. *New Scientist* (2872), 32–36.

Bem, D. (1970). *Beliefs, attitudes and human affairs*. Belmont CA: Wadsworth.

Betters-Reed, B., & Moore, L. L. (2007). Annotated bibliography on women business owners: A diversity lens. *New England Journal of Entrepreneurship*, *10*, 33.

Beutel, A., & Marini, M. (1995). Gender and values. *American Sociological Review*, *60*, 436–448.

Blackburn, W. (2007). *The sustainability handbook: The complete management guide to achieving social, economic, and environmental responsibility*. London, UK: Earthscan.

Business Action for Sustainable Development. (2012, June). *Scale UP: Business Day output document*. Paper presented at the Rio + 20, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.

Chodorow, N. (1974). Family structure and feminine personality. In M. X. Rosaldo & L. Lamphere (Eds.), *Women, culture and society* (pp. 43–66). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Dietz, T., Kalof, L., & Stern, P. (2002). Gender, values, and environmentalism. *Social Science Quarterly*, *83*, 353–364.

Dunlap, R., Van Liere, K., Mertig, A., Catton, W., & Howell. (1992). *Measuring endorsement of an ecological worldview: A revised NEP scale*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Rural Sociological Society, State College, PA.

Dyllick, T., & Hockerts, K. (2002). Beyond the business case for corporate sustainability. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, *11*, 130.

Elkington, J. (1997). *Cannibals with forks: The triple bottom line of 21st century business*. Oxford, UK: Capstone.

Ely, R., & Meyerson, D. E. (2001). Theories of gender in organizations: A new approach to organizational analysis and change. In B. Staw & R. Sutton (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (pp. 103–152). New York, NY: JAI Press.

Ely, R., & Padavic, I. (2007). A feminist analysis of organizational research on sex differences. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*, 1121–1143.

Fairfield, K., Harmon, J., & Behson, S. (2011). Influences of the organizational implementation of sustainability: an integrative model. *Organization Management Journal*, *8*, 4–20.

Fishbein, M., & Ajzen, I. (1975). *Belief, Attitude, Intention, and Behavior: An Introduction to Theory and Research*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Fletcher, J. K., & Ely, R. J. (2003). Introducing gender. In R. J. Ely, E. G. Foldy, M. A. Scully, & The Center for Gender in Organizations, Simmons School of Management (Eds.), *Reader in gender, work and organization* (pp. 3–9). Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Gentile, D. A. (1993). Just what are sex and gender, anyway? *Psychological Science (Wiley-Blackwell)*, *4*, 120–122.

Gilligan, C. (1982). *In a different voice: Psychological theory and women's development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Goldman Sachs Group. (2007). *GS sustain*. New York, NY: Goldman Sachs Global Research.

Hammond, P., & Coppeck, R. (Eds.). (1990). *Valuing the environment*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.

Heberlein, T. (1972). The land ethic realized: Some social psychological explanations for changing environmental attitudes. *Journal of Social Issues*, *28*, 79–87.

Holliday, C. O., Schmidheiny, S., & Watts, P. (2002). *Walking the talk: The business case for sustainable development*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.

House, R., Rousseau, D., & Thomas-Hunt, M. (1995). MESO: An integration of Macro and Micro OB. *Research in Organizational Behavior. 17*, 71–114.

Katz, D. (1960). The functional approach to the study of attitudes. *Public Opinion Quarterly 24*, 161–204.

Keller, E. (1985). *Reflections on Gender and Science*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Kiuchi, T. (2011, May 11). Keynote address to Leadership without Borders: Globalization and the quest for freedom. *Intersections*, New York, NY.

Kiuchi, T., & Shireman, B. (2001). *What we learned in the rainforest: Business lessons from nature. Innovation, growth, profit and sustainability at 20 of the world's leading companies*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.

Lansky, M. (2000). Gender, women and all the rest (Part 1). *International Labour Review*, *139*, 481.

Lansky, M. (2001). Gender, women and all the rest (Part II). *International Labour Review*, *140*, 85.

Lansky, M. (2004). The gender workplace health gap in Europe. *International Labour Review*, *143*, 399.

Lansky, M. (2006). The other half of gender: Men's issues in development. *International Labour Review*, *145*, 249.

Leopold, A. (1948). *A sand county almanac*. New York, NY: Oxford.

Margolis, J. D., & Walsh, J. P. (2003). Misery loves companies: Rethinking social initiatives by business. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *48*, 268–305.

Marquis, C., Glynn, M. A., & Davis, G. F. (2007). Community isomorphism and corporate social action. *Academy of Management Review*, *32*, 925–945.

Marshall, J. (2007). The gendering of leadership in corporate social responsibility. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 20, 165–181.

Mayoux, L. (1999). Questioning virtuous spirals: Micro-finance and women's empowerment in Africa. *Journal of International Development*, 11, 957.

Noddings, N. (1984). *Caring: A feminine approach to ethics and moral education*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Pratkanis, A. (1989). The cognitive representation of attitudes. In A. Pratkanis, S. Breckler, & A. Greenwald (Eds.), *Attitude structure and function* (pp. 71–98). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Rokeach, M. (1960). *The open and closed mind*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Rokeach, M. (1968). *Beliefs, attitudes, and values*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Savitz, A., & Weber, K. (2006). *The triple bottom line*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schultz, P. W., Valdiney, V. G., Cameron, L., & Geetika, T. (2005). Values and their relationship to environmental concern and conservation behavior. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 36, 457.

Schultz, P. W., & Zelezny, L. C. (1998). Values and proenvironmental behavior: A five-country survey. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 29, 540.

Schultz, P. W., & Zelezny, L. (1999). Values as predictors of environmental attitudes: Evidence for consistency across 14 countries. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 19, 255–265.

Schwartz, S. (1977). Normative influences on altruism. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Altruism and Helping Behavior* (pp. 127–141). New York, NY: Academic Press.

Shoba, A., & Thankom, A. (2002). ICTs, gender and development: women in software production in Kerala. *Journal of International Development*, 14, 39.

Stead, J. G., & Stead, W. E. (2000). Eco-enterprise strategy: Standing for sustainability. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 24, 313.

Stead, W. E., & Stead, J. G. (1994). Can humankind change the economic myth? Paradigm shifts necessary for ecologically sustainable business. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 7, 15.

Steger, U., Ionescu-Somers, A., & Salzmann, O. (2007). The economic foundations of corporate sustainability. *Corporate Governance*, 7, 162–177.

Stern, P. C., & Dietz, T. (1994). The value basis of environmental concern. *Journal of Social Issues*, 50, 65–84.

Stern, P. C., Dietz, T., & Black, J.S. (1986). Support for environmental protection: The role of moral norms. *Population and Environment*. 8, 204–222.

Stern, P. C., Dietz, T., & Kalof, L. (1993). Value orientations, gender, and environmental concern. *Environment and Behavior*, 25, 322.

Stern, P. C., Dietz, T., Kalof, L., & Guagnano, G. A. (1995). Values, beliefs, and proenvironmental action: Attitude formation toward emergent attitude objects. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 25, 1611–1636.

Uden, M. (2008). Indigenous women as entrepreneurs in global front line innovation systems. *Journal of Enterprising Communities*, 2, 225.

Unger, R. K., & Crawford, M. (1993). Commentary: Sex and Gender—The troubled relationship between terms and concepts. *Psychological Science*, 4, 122–124.

UN Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change Core Writing Team, Pachauri, R. K., & Reisinger, A. (Eds.). (2007). Climate change *2007: Synthesis report. Contribution of working groups I, II and III to the fourth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change*. Geneva, Switzerland: IPPC.

UN World Commission on Environment and Development. (1987). *Our common future*. Retrieved from http://www.un-documents.net/wced-ocf.htm

Van Marrewijk, M. (2003). Concepts and definitions of CSR and Corporate Sustainability: Between agency and communion. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 44, 95–105.

Walker, P., & Cook, D. (1998) Gender and Sex: vive la difference. *American Journal of Physiological Anthropology*, 106, 225–529.

West, C., & Zimmerman, D. (1991). Doing gender. In J. Lorber & S. Farrell (Eds.), *The social construction of gender* (pp. 13–17). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Wirtenberg, J., Harmon, J., Russell, W. G., & Fairfield, K. (2007). HR's role in building a sustainable enterprise. *Human Resource Planning*, 30, 10–20.

Wooten, S. (2003). Women, men, and market gardens: Gender relations and income generation in rural Mali. *Human Organization*, 62, 166.

World Business Council for Sustainable Development. (1999). *Meeting changing expectations: Corporate social responsibility*. Retrieved from http://www.wbcsd.org/pages/edocument/edocumentdetails.aspx?id=82&nosearchcontextkey=true

Zein-Elabdin, E. (1996). Development, gender, and the environment: Theoretical or contextual link? Toward an institutional analysis of gender. *Journal of Economic Issues*, 30, 929.

Zein-Elabdin, E. (1997). Women, culture, and development: A study of human capabilities. *Journal of Economic Issues*, 31, 849.

Zein-Elabdin, E. (2002). Women and human development: The capabilities approach. *Journal of Economic Issues*, 36(1), 229.

Zelezny, L. C., & Bailey, M. (2006). A call for women to lead a different environmental movement. *Organization and Environment*. 19, 103–109.

Zelezny, L. C., Chua, P.P., & Aldrich, C. (2000). Elaborating on gender differences in environmentalism. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56, 443–457.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Joan L. Slepian is an active organizational researcher, program evaluation and organizational change consultant, and educator. Her current research interests focus on examining gender and diversity, leadership development, and sustainability in contemporary global organizations. She is a student of organizational change and innovation management, and she writes on organizational learning, cross-functional teamwork, and change evaluation and assessment in technology companies, nonprofits, and higher education. She received her MPhil and PhD degrees in organizational behavior from Yale University. She may be reached at jlslepian@verizon.net.

Gwen E. Jones is Associate Professor of Management at the Silberman College of Business, Fairleigh Dickinson University. Her research interests include issues related to unethical behavior in organizations, fairness in the workplace, romance, gender, persons with disabilities, and change management. She has consulted in a wide variety of organizational settings on change management initiatives as well as executive and team coaching. She received her MS in industrial psychology from St. Mary's University, San Antonio, Texas, and PhD in organizational studies from the University of New York at Albany. She may be reached at gjones@fdu.edu.