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**Humanitarian  
and Socio-  
Economic  
Sciences  
Journal  
No. 10 (2018)**

Humanitarian and Socio-Economic Sciences Journal  
No. 10 (2018)

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### Interracial face-to-face crimes and the socioeconomics of neighborhoods: Evidence from policing records

*Abstract only*Gregory De Angelo<sup>a</sup>, R Kaj Gittings<sup>b</sup>, Anita Alves Pena<sup>c</sup>

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#### ABSTRACT

Using a novel data set comprising the universe of reported crimes to the Los Angeles Police Department from 2000 to 2007, we examine race victimization patterns among face-to-face crimes at the neighborhood level. While some of our findings support previous work, others challenge previous research and general expectations about race and crime. Contrary to victimization patterns observed in the aggregate data, our panel data models identify consistent patterns of reported violence committed by White individuals against Blacks and Hispanics across neighborhoods. Specifically, in the presence of controls for neighborhood and time effects, Whites are more likely to assault and use weapons against Blacks and Hispanics than Blacks and Hispanics are to assault or use weapons against Whites. On the other hand, Blacks and Hispanics are typically more likely to commit robbery (crimes which we characterize as being often related to economic motives) against Whites than the reverse. We estimate these effects across the racial composition and earnings distribution of neighborhoods in Los Angeles County and find significant heterogeneity in the propensity for certain types of crimes to occur as a function of the race/ethnic match of suspect and victim.

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### К вопросу рассмотрения природы института международной ипотеки как особого вида кредитования: проблемные аспекты, пути их устранения и тенденция развития

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#### ABSTRACT

Исследование правового обеспечения инновационных банковских механизмов, которые применяются российскими банками для решения проблем ипотечного кредитования граждан, приобретающих недвижимость за границей.

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Ипотека является одной из важнейших форм кредитования. Проблема доступности приобретения жилья остаётся одной из наиболее существенных. Ипотечное кредитование «возглавляет» перечень основных инструментов, выбранных государствами для помощи гражданам в решении их жилищных проблем [5, с. 110].

Особую популярность в условиях развития мирового сообщества на национальном рынке банковских услуг приобретает международное ипотечное кредитование. Предоставление кредита на приобретение недвижимости за границей осуществляется через международное ипотечное кредитование, при котором заемщиком является иностранное домашнее хозяйство, приобретающее объекты недвижимости вне территории страны под залог приобретаемой недвижимости либо под залог имеющегося объекта недвижимости у заемщика, расположенного на территории страны его проживания [1, с. 7].

В настоящее время в зависимости от страны и региона, а также класса квадратных метров банки требуют единовременного внесения первого взноса за жилье в размере до 60 %, а сам кредит предоставляется на 10–15 лет, при этом заемщик должен доказать иностранному кредитору свою платежеспособность. Часто банки предоставляют ипотеку тем, кто уже имеет какую-либо недвижимость в этой стране, которая будет выступать дополнительным залогом по кредиту до его погашения.

В некоторых странах Европы формально ипотека доступна российским гражданам, но на практике получить ее практически невозможно. Это связано с очень жесткими требованиями, предъявляемыми банками к заемщикам-нерезидентам. К таким странам относятся Англия, Италия и Австрия.

В ряде других стран Европы для российских граждан действуют «территориальные» или

определенные «процедурные» ограничения при оформлении ипотечных кредитов. Так, в Германии потенциальный заемщик должен пройти «испытательный срок», в течение которого он должен совершать регулярные отчисления из своего дохода на специальный накопительный счет в том банке, в котором планирует получить ипотечный кредит. В Чехии, Венгрии, Словакии и Хорватии получить ипотеку может только зарегистрированное в этой стране юридическое лицо. Во Франции лишь немногие банки готовы предоставить ипотеку нерезидентам, причем их услугами можно воспользоваться лишь при сделках с недвижимостью в Париже и на территории юга Франции. В Турции можно оформить ипотеку только для приобретения недвижимости в крупнейших городах страны – Стамбуле, Алании, Анталии и др.

Чтобы нейтрализовать проблемы, с которыми сталкиваются российские граждане при получении ипотеки за границей, российские банки разработали инновационные банковские продукты, обладающие рядом преимуществ ипотечного кредитования, осложненного международным характером возникших правоотношений. Теперь недвижимость за границей в кредит можно купить, обратившись в такие российские банки, как Сбербанк и ВТБ.

Кроме того, эффективным решением вопросов международного ипотечного кредитования стало привлечение потенциальных клиентов в дочерние заграничные банки, такие как, например, турецкий DenizBank (дочернее предприятие Сбербанка) или европейский VBI (ныне – SberbankEurope). В планах ВТБ выдавать кредиты на жилье за границей через свою сеть. По официальным данным ВТБ, на начальном этапе будут задействованы такие страны, как Австрия и Чехия [3]. Это позволит потенциальным покупателям не только размещать валютные депозиты в заграничном банке и получать при этом выгодные условия ипотеки, но и

предотвратить отток капиталов за рубеж.

Считаем, что главной особенностью международной ипотеки является длительность срока кредитования. Для того чтобы реализация данного банковского продукта была стабильной, кредитным организациям необходимо либо привлекать долгосрочные ресурсы, либо обеспечивать доступность механизмов рефинансирования. Говоря о возможности привлечения денежных средств на длительной основе, нельзя не отметить, что с учетом макроэкономической ситуации в целом эта задача является одной из самых значимых для кредитных организаций. С начала и середины 2000-х годов формирование определенного правового регулирования во взаимосвязи с устойчивым развитием экономики способствовало увеличению объемов и количества реализованных ипотечных кредитов [6, с. 181–182]. Например, в России весомая роль отводится Агентству по Ипотечному Жилищному Кредитованию (далее – АИЖК), которое занимается рефинансированием выдаваемых банками кредитов. Так, в 2008–2009 гг. объемы выдачи ипотечных кредитов заметно сократились, однако, несмотря на кризис, в 2010 г. вновь наблюдался рост реализации данного банковского продукта. Что касается показателей 2016 г., то их анализ позволяет говорить об уверенном развитии института ипотеки в России [4, с. 25].

Основными инструментами, применяемыми в мировой практике кредитными организациями в целях рефинансирования ипотечных кредитов, являются секьюритизация и выпуск ипотечных ценных бумаг.

Необходимость реформы и дальнейшего развития данной законодательной сферы подтверждаются практикой. Не случайно во всем мире наблюдается интерес к законотворчеству в сфере государственной поддержки социального

кредитования. На долю социальной экономики приходится от 5 до 10 % мирового ВВП. Среди наиболее заметных инициатив следует отметить принятие подобных законов о социальной экономике и социальном кредитовании в Испании (2011), Эквадоре (2011), Греции (2012), Мексике (2013), Словении (2014), Португалии (2015) [7, с. 107].

Стандартизация в сфере ипотечного кредитования граждан России оказывается на гораздо более высоком уровне, нежели в иных розничных сегментах в связи с тем, что государство таким образом реализует различные социальные программы [4, с. 29].

Функция гарантии кредитования состоит в обеспечении надлежащего исполнения обязательства заемщика перед кредитором. Одной из наиболее эффективных правовых форм предоставления гарантий, получившей наибольшее распространение за рубежом, является создание гарантийных фондов. В качестве основной функции этих фондов рассматривается выдача гарантии (поручительства) специализированным банкам и другим кредитным организациям. Гарантийный фонд в данном случае призван частично взять на себя риск невозврата кредита заемщиком [1, с. 8]. Банки России, в свою очередь, за 2010 г. выпустили ипотечные ценные бумаги всего один раз, в 2011 – семь. Согласно данным Стратегии развития рынка ипотечного жилищного кредитования, принятой в 2014 г., доля выпуска ипотечных ценных бумаг по отношению к объему выдачи ипотечных жилищных кредитов в 2012 г. составила около 10,4 процента, а к 2020 г. планируется выпуск ипотечных ценных бумаг объемом 350 млрд. рублей [8].

Одним из важнейших факторов, влияющих на качественное развитие кредитной политики банков, является наличие современного правового

регулирования взаимоотношений заемщиков и кредитных организаций, а также наличие экономических преобразований, направленных на увеличение доходов населения, снижение дисбаланса между спросом и предложением. Кроме того, большое влияние на банковскую политику в области ипотечного кредитования оказывают залоговые правоотношения. Действительно, главной особенностью ипотечного кредитования является обеспеченность его возврата залогом недвижимого имущества, что способствует снижению рисков для кредитных организаций и снижению стоимости ипотечных продуктов по сравнению с другими видами кредитования. Однако риски для кредитных организаций все равно есть. Так, например, в конце 2011 г. согласно Федеральному закону № 405-ФЗ «О внесении изменений в отдельные законодательные акты Российской Федерации в части совершенствования порядка обращения взыскания на заложенное имущество» в отношении по залогу при ипотечном кредитовании были внесены принципиальные изменения. В соответствии с данными изменениями у банка отсутствуют основания для требования доплаты от заемщика, который перестал вносить платежи по кредиту и был вынужден в счет долга отдать кредитной организации квартиру. В таком случае задолженность считается погашенной независимо от стоимости жилья. Данные изменения для заемщиков, безусловно, носят позитивный характер в связи с исключением ситуаций, когда после продажи ипотечной квартиры, которая является предметом залога, заемщики все равно оставались должниками из-за пеней, штрафов, небольшого первоначального взноса. В связи с вступлением в силу вышеуказанных законодательных изменений риски кредитных организаций возросли, что может повлиять на повышение ставок по ипотечным кредитам, а также повлечь отказы от программ с

минимальным первоначальным взносом [1, с. 8].

Преимущество такой совокупной ипотеки заключается в том, что с помощью обеспечения обязательств должника несколькими объектами недвижимого имущества стало возможным привлечение значительных кредитных ресурсов, необходимых для финансирования, пополнения оборотных средств текущей деятельности хозяйствующих субъектов.

В современном мире постепенно возрастает значение ипотеки, основной целью которой является социальное развитие общества. В свою очередь, когда речь идет о международной ипотеке, то основной целью выступает социально-экономическая интеграция российского государства с межгосударственными и региональными объединениями и союзами, участником которого оно является, а также мировым сообществом в целом.

Таким образом, ипотечное кредитование является неотъемлемым элементом рыночной экономики, выступая одним из приоритетных инструментов развития бизнеса, отражающего закономерности и тенденции развития мирового банковского хозяйства. Благодаря созданию системы ипотечного кредитования стало возможным приобретение жилья основной частью населения, а также обеспечение взаимосвязи между денежными ресурсами банков, населения, финансовых, строительных компаний и предприятий стройиндустрии, направление финансовых средств в реальный сектор экономики.

На примере зарубежного опыта можно увидеть, что именно благодаря ипотечному кредитованию появилась возможность воссоздания промышленности, нормализации банковской системы, решения вопроса с безработицей, снижение инфляции [1, с. 9]. В свою очередь



механизм международного ипотечного кредитования делает более доступной возможность приобретения недвижимости в различных странах, что отвечает социальным потребностям современного общества. Растет популярность приобретения недвижимости в инвестиционных целях, например сдачи в аренду. Механизм международной ипотеки расширяет возможности граждан по приобретению недвижимости в туристических целях. Однако в нашей стране данные схемы приобретения недвижимости распространения не получили. Считаем, что такой финансовый инструмент, как международная ипотека, в условиях российской действительности требует доработки. Стремление развития международного ипотечного кредитования приведет к установлению его как одного из основных и наиболее востребованных направлений вложения средств населения [2, с. 218].

Существенная проблема заключается, на наш взгляд, и в отсутствии комплексного направления развития ипотеки, в том числе и на основе зарубежного опыта. Следует также принимать в расчёт институциональные недоработки и отрыв науки от практики. Недостаточное влияние научного сообщества на законодателя приводит к невозможности продвижения необходимых законопроектов. Определяющим для развития жилищной ипотеки становится создание ресурсной базы при одновременном совершенствовании инструментов и механизмов ипотеки на основе внедрения инноваций и привлечения долгосрочных инвестиций в сферу ипотечного кредитования.

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### К ВОПРОСУ ОПРЕДЕЛЕНИЯ ФИНАНСОВО-ПРАВОВОГО РЕГУЛИРОВАНИЯ В СФЕРЕ ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ И НАУКИ В РФ: ПРОБЛЕМНЫЕ АСПЕКТЫ И ПУТИ ИХ РЕШЕНИЯ, СРАВНИТЕЛЬНЫЙ АНАЛИЗ С ЗАРУБЕЖНЫМИ СТРАНАМИ

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#### ABSTRACT

В данной статье рассмотрены проблемные аспекты финансово-правового регулирования инновационной деятельности в РФ, а также пути их решения. Представлен сравнительный анализ с зарубежными странами.

*This article discusses the problematic aspects of the financial and legal regulation of innovation activity in the Russian Federation, as well as ways to solve them. A comparative analysis with foreign countries is presented.*

**TO THE QUESTION OF DEFINITION OF FINANCIAL AND LEGAL REGULATION IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE IN THE RUSSIAN FEDERATION: PROBLEM ASPECTS AND WAYS OF THEIR SOLUTION, COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES**

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Актуальность выбранной темы детерминирована тем, что в веке информационных технологий большое внимание уделяется вопросам правового регулирования инновационной деятельности в сфере образования и науки.

Инновационный путь развития на современном этапе построения общества является перспективным направлением сферы жизни. Инновации на данный момент являются главным конкурентным преимуществом организаций, целью которых составляет постоянное развитие и устойчивый рост.

В передовых странах, таких как США, Япония, Германия, разработка и внедрение инноваций является определяющим фактором социального и экономического развития, залогом экономической безопасности. Экономика развитых стран, основанная на внедрении инноваций, продолжает устойчиво расти. По оценкам зарубежных экспертов, ежегодный оборот на мировом рынке высоких технологий и наукоемкой продукции в несколько раз превышает оборот рынка сырья, включая нефть, нефтепродукты и газ. Сегодня, Россия, при всем своем научно-техническом потенциале на этом рынке представляет всего - 0,3 %, тогда как США - 39 %, Япония - 20 %, Германия - 16 %.

В нашей стране только 4-5% предприятий развивают и внедряют инновационные разработки в свою деятельность, в то время как в США этот показатель превышает 35%. Наиболее важным аспектом организации инновационной деятельности является ее финансирование. Финансирование инновационной деятельности в развитых странах осуществляется как из государственных, так и из частных источников. Для большинства стран Западной Европы и США характерно примерно равное распределение финансовых ресурсов между государственным и частным капиталом. Например, в Германии

Министерство образования и научных исследований обычно берет на себя около 50% расходов на осуществление проектов малых, средних и крупных предприятий и общественных исследовательских организаций. В США же главным источником финансирования инновационных разработок являются компании, которые этими разработками занимаются, второе место отводится непосредственно федеральным органам власти. Таким образом, можно сделать вывод, что главными источниками финансирования инновационной деятельности в развитых зарубежных странах являются федеральные органы власти, а также компании и фирмы, непосредственно занимающиеся разработкой и внедрением инноваций.

Обратимся к краткой исторической справке возникновения и развития инновационных процессов.

Первые теоретические аспекты инновационных процессов были разработаны в начале XX века. Большой вклад в становлении этого явления внесли Й.Шумпетер, Н.Д.Кондратьев, Г.Тард, которые обратили внимание на инновации, как на средства экономического роста и составили основу к изучению инновационных процессов.

Тенденции инновационных процессов продолжали свой путь до 80-х г. XX века. Отечественные исследователи (В.С. Раппопорт, А.Н. Аганбегян) и зарубежные (Е. Роджерс, Л.Ульман) в своих работах дали возможность мониторинга технических и технологических инноваций, что в итоге способствовало формированию понятия инноватика.

Третий этап изучения инновационных процессов (с начала 80-х годов до начала 90-х годов XX века) характеризуется проявлением первых обучающих программ - тренингов для участников инновационной деятельности. В данном периоде широко прослеживался инновационный процесс,



который включал в себя нововведения.

Следующий этап (с 90-х годов XX века до осени 1998 года.) Данный период в развитии отечественной экономики носил упадочный характер в производстве и в действительности имел полный дефицит спроса на инновации. Инновационная политика существовала номинально – в виде Указа Президента РФ «О неотложных мерах по сохранению научно – технического потенциала Российской Федерации».

На протяжении всего периода экономические реформы приняли резкий темп. Сфера научных разработок приобрела новую – хозяйственную модель. В обновленной ситуации заказчиками стали крупные представители частного капитала. Такой переворот послужил необходимостью существенного пересмотра подходов в научной деятельности, а именно в инновационном процессе.

Период с 1998 года по 2002 год характеризовался ростом пищевой отрасли и легкой промышленности. Названные отрасли стали представлять собой востребованность на научно – технические достижения.

Последующий этап с 2002 года – по 2006 год. Реализация государственной инновационной политики протекала через формирование федеральных целевых программ, создание особых экономических зон, технопарков и технополисов [1].

Завершающий этап (с 2006 – по настоящее время). Период трактуется внесением инновационной деятельности в число главных приоритетов государства.

На современном общественном построении инновационный процесс связан с созданием,

освоением и распространением (диффузией) инноваций [2].

Обратимся к этимологии слова инновация и инновационная деятельность. Важно отметить, что в законодательстве федерального уровня данное определение не закреплено ни в каких нормативно-правовых актах.

Однако законы субъектов напротив содержат данные понятия, которые различаются по смыслу. Например, в соответствии с Законом Оренбургской области «Об инновационной деятельности в Оренбургской области», Инновационная деятельность - процесс, направленный на воплощение результатов научных исследований и разработок либо иных научно-технических достижений человечества в новый продукт или в продукт с новыми качествами, реализуемый на рынке, в новый или усовершенствованный технологический процесс, используемый в практической деятельности. Исходя из нормативно-правовой базы Свердловской области определение инновационной деятельности звучит следующим образом: инновационная деятельность - деятельность (включая научную, технологическую, организационную, финансовую и коммерческую деятельность), направленная на реализацию инновационных проектов, а также на создание инновационной инфраструктуры и обеспечение ее деятельности. Учитывая вышесказанное можно подчеркнуть, что существуют различия в этимологии основных понятий. Это обусловлено, прежде всего, тем, что нет единого акта, регулирующего данные отношения на федеральном уровне.

Обозначив данную недоработку в законодательстве, перейдем к ряду других немаловажных проблемных аспектов:

1. Исходя из вышесказанного, на сегодняшний момент в системе законодательства

Российской Федерации нет единого нормативно правового акта, регулирующего инновационную деятельность. В связи с этим на территории субъектов РФ самостоятельно принимаются законы, регулирующие данную сферу деятельности. Быть может, это связано с тем, что наша страна имеет слабо развитую инновационную инфраструктуру, а также недейственную систему стимулов для привлечения инвестиций в инновационную сферу [3].

2. Вторым проблемным аспектом является квалификация управляющего персонала. В инновационной сфере не хватает ряда специалистов, способных разрабатывать планы инновационной деятельности в существующей экономической сфере. Возможным выходом из ситуации является целенаправленная политика государства по подготовке инновационных менеджеров, привлечение зарубежных специалистов, обучение студентов ВУЗов, а также составления программ - тренингов.

3. Инновационные предприятия сталкиваются с таким вопросом, как низкая финансовая активность. Инновационная деятельность представляет собой деятельность по внедрению, разработке и освоению новшеств. Для повышения инновационной активности и для достижения высоких, намеченных показателей инновационного развития Российской Федерации, необходимо совершенствовать меры стимулирования инновационного прогресса. Можно предположить, что существенными факторами, которые влияют на инновационную деятельность являются: препятствующие факторы (недостаток средств для финансирования инновационных проектов) и способствующие факторы (наличие материальных резервов). Возможным вариантом выхода из ситуации является создание хорошо обоснованной системы финансирования инновационной деятельности для создания условий накопления финансовых средств, возможности их концентрации на

ключевых направлениях инновационных процессов, а также развитие государственных венчурных сетей, которые позволят обеспечить централизацию инновационных проектов.

Вопрос о финансовом регулировании инновационной деятельности в сфере образования и науки стоит остро, поскольку данная сфера требует большого количества финансовых затрат.

Главный финансовый инструмент государственной научно-технической политики – использование средств государственного бюджета. В развитых странах государство несет от 20 до 50 % национальных научных, инновационных расходов. Доля затрат на исследовательские работы и инновационные разработки невелика, но в последние 20 лет достаточно стабильна. Она составила 6–7 % от государственного бюджета в США, 4–5 % – в ФРГ, Франции, Великобритании и Италии, 3–5 % – в Японии.

Источниками финансирования инновационных разработок являются частный и государственный сектора. Частный сектор является главным источником в экономически развитых странах. На его долю приходится 48–72 % общего объема финансирования научных исследований и технических разработок в США, Японии, ФРГ и Франции. Важной характеристикой распределения денежных средств для инновационной сферы является показатель расходов на исследования и разработки, выполняемые в предпринимательском секторе науки за счет собственных средств предприятий. Величина в России незначительна (20,1% всех расходов на исследования и разработки), особенно если приводить в сравнение ее с аналогичным показателем в развитых странах мира. Например, в США доля промышленности в финансировании исследований и разработок составляет 66%, в Германии – 64,1%, Канаде – 49,4%, Франции –

48,5%, Великобритании – 47,3%.

В России из средств госбюджетов различных уровней и специализированных государственных фондов финансируются направления инновационной деятельности, которые имеют приоритетное значение. Предоставление бюджетных средств осуществляется в формах:

1. финансирования федеральных целевых инновационных программ;
2. финансового обеспечения перспективных инновационных проектов на конкурсной основе.

К числу приоритетов государственной инновационной политики РФ относятся федеральные целевые программы: «Национальная технологическая база», «Развитие электронной техники в РФ», «Развитие гражданской авиационной техники», «Информатизация РФ», «Технологии двойного назначения», «Развитие промышленной биотехнологии», «Реструктуризация и конверсия оборонной

промышленности» и другие.

Федеральный бюджет РФ предусматривает выделение в 2018 году на образование 626,29 миллиарда рублей, в 2019 году — 623,824 миллиарда рублей, а в 2020 году — 635,788 миллиарда рублей, говорится в проекте бюджета на 2018-2020 годы, который опубликован на портале проектов правовых актов.

Стоит отметить, что в соответствии с Указом Президента от 07.05.2012 №599 «О мерах по реализации государственной политики в области образования и науки» государственная поддержка к 2018 году должно обеспечить объем финансирования до 25 млрд. рублей.

Согласно законопроекту о «О федеральном бюджете на 2018 год и на плановый период 2019 и 2020 годов» все образовательные и научные ведомства получили финансирование больше за текущий год (см. таблицу №1).

Таблица 1. Затраты на основные образовательные и научные ведомства

Федеральное агентство научных организаций (ФАНО)	19 218 447, 5 тыс. руб.
Министерство образования и науки	15 756 291, 7 тыс. руб.
НИЦ «Курчатовский институт»	1 173 405, 2 тыс. руб.
Российский фонд фундаментальных исследований (РФФИ)	9 497 125, 8 тыс. руб.
Российская академия народного хозяйства и государственной службы при Президенте Российской Федерации	822 084, 1 тыс. руб.
Московский государственный университет имени М.В. Ломоносова	3 092 808, 4 тыс. руб.
Санкт – Петербургский государственный университет	976 384, 3 тыс. руб.

Согласно статье 20 ФЗ от 29.12.2012 №273 –ФЗ «Об образовании в РФ» - Экспериментальная и инновационная деятельность в сфере образования осуществляется в целях обеспечения модернизации и развития системы образования с учетом основных направлений социально – экономического развития РФ, реализации приоритетных направлений государственной политики РФ в сфере образования.

Инновационные разработки в образовании внедряются непосредственно в организацию учебного процесса, в учебные программы и методики. Нововведения касаются характера педагогической деятельности, системы финансирования и оценки качества образовательных услуг. В настоящее время возникла необходимость поиска перспективных направлений развития образовательной системы, поскольку система образования в России на сегодняшний день функционирует главным образом за счет того фундамента, который был заложен в советское время.

Без применения информационно коммуникативных технологий никакое образовательное учреждение не может претендовать на уровень инновационного статуса в образовании. В рамках инновационного развития деятельность высших учебных заведений должна быть направлена на осуществление образовательной деятельности по программам подготовки бакалавров (специалистов), в которых заинтересована компания - партнер инновационной среды.

Юридические отношения между высшим учебным заведением и компанией, как правило, оформляются договорами о сотрудничестве или иными рамочными документами. В соответствии с такими документами высшее учебное заведение привлекает компанию к организации учебного процесса, согласует с ней образовательные

программы студентов, планируемых к трудоустройству в компании, обеспечивает прохождение практики на предприятиях и в подразделениях компании, обеспечивает написание учебно-исследовательских и выпускных квалификационных работ обучающимися с привлечением специалистов компании и на темы, актуальные для компании, и т.д. Таким образом, возникает устойчивая связь между соответствующим высшим учебным заведением и компанией.

Важное значение в финансировании инновационной деятельности в России имеет Российский фонд технологического развития. На протяжении 20 лет фонд предоставляет целевое заемное финансирование, тем самым оказывая поддержку научно-техническим проектам. В сфере образования и науки финансовую поддержку фундаментальных научных исследований оказывает Российский научный фонд. Законодательством РФ предусмотрено выделение государственных инвестиций для Фонда отдельной строкой в Федеральной инвестиционной программе в размере 1,5% государственных централизованных капитальных вложений.

Учитывая вышеизложенное можно указать следующее:

- 1) Инновационная деятельность, как правило, характеризуется достаточно высокой степенью неопределенности и риска, поэтому важными принципами системы финансирования инноваций являются множественность источников, гибкость и адаптивность к быстро меняющейся среде инновационных процессов.
- 2) Источниками финансирования инновационной деятельности могут быть предприятия, финансово-промышленные группы, малый инновационный бизнес, инвестиционные и инновационные фонды, органы местного управления, частные лица и т.д. Все они участвуют в хозяйственном

процессе и тем или иным образом способствуют развитию инновационной деятельности.

Актуальной проблемой всё же остается законодательное закрепление на федеральном уровне и финансирование инновационной деятельности.

В последнее время в России государство всё больше финансирует научные исследования и разработки посредством целевых программ. Приоритетное значение имеют также фонды, оказывающие финансовую поддержку (Российский фонд фундаментальных исследований, Российский гуманитарный научный фонд и другие). Финансовые затраты, вложенные в инновационную деятельность должны в последующем окупиться и вывести Россию на один уровень с такими передовыми странами как США, Япония, Германия. В современных условиях только государство способно замедлить разрушение накопленного научно-технического потенциала в России, а также создать условия для обеспечения необходимыми объемами инвестиций, с помощью государственных долгосрочных и краткосрочных программ.

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### ПРАВО НА ЖИЗНЬ КАК ЦЕННОСТЬ

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#### ABSTRACT

Право на жизнь является высшей ценностью, первооснова всех других прав и свобод человека, однако российское законодательство не содержит определения жизни человека. В юридической науке право на жизнь чаще всего интерпретируется как право индивида на свободу и личную неприкосновенность, охрану здоровья, сводя проблему к отмене смертной казни и эвтаназии. В статье рассматриваются вопросы, приобретающие особую актуальность в связи с развитием искусственных методов репродукции: с какого момента возникает право на жизнь и обладает ли эмбрион правовой ценностью.

The right to life is the highest value, is the basis of all other human rights and freedoms, but Russian legislation does not contain a definition of a person's life. In legal science, the right to life is interpreted as the right of the individual to freedom and personal integrity, health protection, reducing the problem to the abolition of the death penalty and euthanasia. The article deals with issues that are especially relevant in connection with the development of artificial methods of reproduction: from when does the right to life arise and whether the embryo has a legal value.

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#### THE RIGHT TO LIFE AS A VALUE

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В демократическом и правовом государстве права человека имеют первостепенное значение. *Право на жизнь* является естественным правом, образуя основу других прав и свобод человека, объединяет вокруг себя все остальные права. Вопросы прав человека изучаются юристами, философами, религиозными деятелями и социологами. Проблемы реализации права на жизнь приобретают особую значимость в связи с глобализацией естественно - научных и медицинских знаний и их усиливающимся воздействием на человека.

На международном уровне Всеобщая декларация прав человека предусматривает, что «каждый человек имеет право на жизнь, на свободу и на личную неприкосновенность». В России провозглашено, но не в полной мере защищено конституционное право человека на жизнь. Согласно ст. 20 и п. 2 ст. 17 Конституции РФ: «Каждый имеет право на жизнь. Основные права и свободы человека неотчуждаемы и принадлежат каждому от рождения». Из буквального толкования статей можно сделать вывод, что по российскому праву все права, в том числе право на жизнь, человек приобретает только с момента рождения. Сразу возникает вопрос с кого момента человек считается рожденным, а также какие правовые последствия имеет мертворождение. В.Д. Зорькин, комментируя Конституцию РФ, подчеркивает, что право на жизнь принадлежит каждому от рождения, но от определения критериев понятия «рождение» воздерживается [3]. Однако в преамбуле Декларации прав ребенка указано, что «ребенок, ввиду его физической и умственной незрелости, нуждается в специальной охране и заботе, включая надлежащую правовую защиту, как до, так и после рождения». Таким образом, международным правом предоставляется защита права на жизнь еще до рождения человека.

Следует отметить, что ни на законодательном уровне, ни в теории не закреплено понятие жизни

человека. Н.А. Рубанова определяет жизнь как фундаментальное личное неимущественное, нематериальное, естественное благо высшего уровня, охраняемое позитивным законом с момента зачатия и до момента необратимой гибели головного мозга, выражающегося в естественном поддержании физиологических и социальных функций, составляющих его жизнедеятельность [8]. Исходя из данного определения, право на жизнь признается за еще не родившимся ребенком. Таким образом, правовое определение начала жизни человека непосредственно связано с моментом приобретения человеком права на жизнь и ее охрану.

В юридической доктрине право на жизнь интерпретируется как право индивида на свободу и личную неприкосновенность, охрану здоровья. Проблема нарушения прав человека чаще всего сводится к отмене смертной казни и эвтаназии. Однако особую актуальность приобретает вопрос о возникновении права на жизнь в связи с развитием медицинской науки и широким применением новых биомедицинских технологий. Развитие науки привело к появлению новых проблем медицинского и этико-правового характера, требующих нормативного разрешения и урегулирования. Соответственно возникает вопрос определения момента возникновения субъективного права на жизнь и момента возникновения самой жизни: различны ли они и зависят ли друг от друга.

В связи с использованием искусственных способов репродуктивной деятельности человека (экстракорпоральное оплодотворение, суррогатное материнство, репродуктивное донорство, криоконсервация эмбриона) необходимо выяснить, с какого момента право на жизнь должно быть распространено на внутриутробный плод человека, ограничено ли данное право определенным отрезком времени

или определенными физиологическими данными зародыша. Решение данной проблемы: во-первых, имеет значение в связи с определением правового режима гамет и эмбриона; во-вторых, целесообразно с точки зрения определения происхождения ребёнка [4, с.96].

От отношения законодателя к эмбриону как к объекту или субъекту права зависит, будут ли права на вспомогательные репродуктивные технологии

(далее - ВРТ) регулироваться Гражданским Кодексом РФ (далее – ГК РФ) или только защищаться [7, с. 137].

В теории выделяют три основных подхода к определению начала жизни человека, в соответствии с которыми право на жизнь у человека возникает:

1. С момента рождения, в связи с этим эмбрион и плод не обладают правовой ценностью (М.Тули, В. С. Репин).

Ст. 17 Конституции РФ связывает возникновение прав и свобод с таким юридическим фактом, как рождение. Право на жизнь также принадлежит только конкретному субъекту - рожденному лицу.

2. С момента зачатия либо с момента имплантации эмбриона в полость матки

(Е. Велти, В. А. Голиченко, Л. Н. Линик, И. В. Чиндин).

Если за основу взять момент зачатия, как эквивалент начала жизни и начала права на жизнь, то:

2.1. религиозная культура свидетельствует об уважении человеческой жизни с момента зачатия, что обуславливает осуждение аборт в зависимости от сроков беременности и применения суррогатного материнства;

2.2. нормативно-правовые акты, содержащие положения, косвенно свидетельствуют о наличии определённых прав у зачатого, но не родившегося человека.

Существует ряд международных договоров и

нормативных правовых актов, в которых эмбриону предоставляется правовая защита в контексте реализации права на жизнь. В п. 1 ст. 4 Американской конвенции о правах человека определено, что «каждый человек имеет право на уважение к его жизни. Это право защищается законом и, как правило, с момента зачатия».

Сторонники отнесения эмбриона к субъектам правоотношений ссылаются на положение наследственного права (ст. 1116 ГК РФ). ГК РФ исходит из принципа, сформулированного в римском праве: «Зачатый ребенок считается родившимся, если речь идет о его выгоде».

В этой связи был разработан законопроект о внесении поправок в

ГК РФ в части, касающейся определения момента возникновения и прекращения правоспособности физических лиц. Основная идея планируемых поправок состояла в принципиально ином определении момента начала правоспособности гражданина, т.е. не с момента рождения ребенка, как это закреплено в ст. 17 ГК РФ, а с момента его зачатия [5, с.45].

Содержание ряда правовых норм в России действительно позволяет сделать вывод о том, что в некоторых случаях жизнь и телесная неприкосновенность эмбриона выступает в качестве объекта, охраняемого уголовным и гражданским правом. Как справедливо заметил В.В. Груздев, в данном случае заложена фикция, которая считает зачатого, но неродившегося ребенка родившимся, при этом признавая его способным к приобретению ряда субъективных прав при условии рождения его впоследствии живым [2, с.672].

В.В. Самойлова отмечает, что международные соглашения и прецедентная практика Европейского суда по правам человека однозначно утверждают, что эмбрионы не обладают правом на жизнь[9], что вызывает сомнения относительно появления в данном случае субъекта права.

Некоторые авторы придерживаются противоположной позиции, в силу отсутствия



специальных норм в законе, признавая репродуктивный материал объектом вещного права [12]. Лишь придание эмбриону статуса вещи особого рода на него может распространяться ответственность за причинение вреда имуществу [1, с.63].

В то же время признание за эмбрионом человека статуса вещи весьма дискуссионно. Если исходить из данного мнения, могут возникнуть достаточно серьезные юридические проблемы при разводе супружеской пары, когда один из участников процесса пожелает решить судьбу эмбриона без участия второй стороны либо в случае гибели одного из генетических родителей. Однозначно следует ответить, что эмбрионы не могут быть предметом раздела между супругами, так как целью использования эмбриона является рождение совместных детей, а не удовлетворение имущественного интереса супругов.

В России в Московском городском суде в 2015 году было рассмотрено первое дело о судьбе криоконсервированных эмбрионов, полученных при экстракорпоральном оплодотворении в случае развода супругов. Причем, суд не касался вопросов правовой природы договора, а исследовал условия договора с медицинским учреждением. В Самарском суде было рассмотрено не типичное для российских судов дело между бывшими супругами по вопросу, что делать с принадлежащими им эмбрионами, которые хранились в частной клинике. На основании всех данных суд вынес решение об утилизации эмбрионов [10].

3. В различные сроки внутриутробного развития плода: начало работы мозга, развитие дыхательной системы (Б. Херинг, М. Д. Байлес). Если же за основу брать различные сроки внутриутробного развития в качестве начала жизни и возникновения права на жизнь, то какой именно брать за основу: момент формирования организма, момент начала работы мозга или момент начала работы сердца?

По медицинским критериям жизнеспособными считаются даже лица, родившиеся ранее среднестатистических сроков беременности с массой тела, намного меньшей, чем должно быть в норме [6].

Большинство исследователей полагают, что основной критерий начала жизни – начало физиологических родов, которые влекут возможность существования плода отдельно от матери [11, с.75].

При проведении методов ВРТ следует учитывать положения ст. 18 Конвенции о защите прав и достоинства человека в связи с применением достижений биологии и медицины: «1. В тех случаях, когда закон разрешает проведение исследований на эмбрионах *in vitro*, он должен обеспечивать надлежащую защиту эмбрионов.

2. Создание эмбрионов человека в исследовательских целях запрещается». То есть эмбриону предоставляется международная защита, как объекту, у которого имеется потенциальная возможность стать человеком.

По нашему мнению, право на жизнь возникает с момента появления человека на свет в результате физического отделения от материнского организма. У плода есть потенциальное право на жизнь. Эмбрион, созданный в лабораторных условиях как таковым правом на жизнь не обладает, однако имеет право на охрану. Признавать эмбрион человека, полученный в результате применения ВРТ и находящийся вне тела женщины (преимплантационный эмбрион) в качестве ограниченной в обороте вещи, возможно только в целях осуществления защиты донорского генетического материала средствами гражданского права, однако не допустимо с точки зрения морали и религии. Несомненным является признание эмбриона самостоятельным объектом правовой защиты в силу его правовой ценности как потенциального субъекта права.

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### The many faces of leadership: Proposing research agenda through a review of literature

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#### ABSTRACT

Leadership is one of the most studied topics in organizational settings and has been studied in relation to several employee performance outcomes. Based on literature review, it is observed that the concept of congruence between leaders and followers is relatively new. As organizations spend a huge amount of their budget on different leadership development programs, congruence between the perception of leaders and followers is necessary to achieve better results. In developing countries, very little literature is available on the concept of congruence between leaders and followers. The present study is an effort to review and synthesize major leadership theories and its relationship with different outcomes. Further, based on a comprehensive review of literature, a future research agenda about leadership studies in a developing country is proposed.

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## Introduction

The concept of leadership is as old as the history of people who tried to make groups and manage individuals for accomplishment of certain tasks. According to Sarachek (1968), the concept and practice of leadership has its origin in the beginning of human civilization with different attributes. However, the industrial revolution, when common people gained power on the basis of their skills, created a paradigm shift to a new theory of leadership (Clawson, 2003). The concept of leadership is the most discussed and observed, but there is lack of mutual understanding on what leadership approach or style deems to fit in a particular context or culture (Goethals, Sorenson, & Burns, 2004). In past, extensive research on leadership has given rise to many leadership theories and models which can fit in different contexts and affects different outcomes. However, there was still need to review major leadership theories, models, and related outcomes which the present study has tried to address. The study starts with the definitions of leadership, classical view of leadership, moves on to different leadership models (partial models to comprehensive models) and its relationship with different outcomes. Later, role of national culture in effective leadership is discussed and a research agenda for further leadership studies in a developing country (Pakistan in particular) is proposed.

## Section 1. Definitions and models of leadership

Organizational leadership is a multidisciplinary field and has been the area of interest to the scholars from a wide variety of backgrounds, i.e. sociology, psychology, management, education, political science, and organizational studies. Concept of leadership has been defined by many research scholars in the past (Antonakis et al., 2004, Bass and Stogdill, 1990, Conger and Riggio, 2007, Northouse, 2009), yet not a universal definition of leadership is agreed upon. Bennis and Nanus (1985) have highlighted that leadership is like beauty. It is hard to define beauty, but when you see it, you know it.

According to Fiedler (1967), leadership is an interpersonal relationship in which power and influence is unevenly distributed and one person directs and controls the behaviors of others. Northouse (2009) takes leadership as a power relationship which exists between the leader and the followers. Though numerous definitions of leadership exist, yet most of the definitions share the similarity that leadership is an effort to influence, the power to make subordinates submissive (Wren, 1995) and/or to transform the organization (Conger and Kanungo, 1987, House, 1976). According to Humphreys (2001), leadership is the most studied and least understood area in the social sciences. However, most of the definitions are related to the trait, ability, skill, behavior and relationship (Northouse, 2007) that shows that the leadership field of study rushed from one fad to another (Yukl, 2010). According to Yukl (1989), the major lines of empirical research on leadership include leadership versus management, traits and skills, power and influence, situational determinants of leader behavior, and the importance of leadership for organizational effectiveness. In addition, leadership and gender, culture and leadership and congruence in leadership styles are also significant areas of research. On the basis of empirical researches, different leadership theories were developed to address different organizational problems, and to predict proposed situations in response to different behaviors (Bass and Avolio, 1993, Hoy and Miskel, 2008).

The main contributions to the early era of leadership studies were classical management theory and scientific management theories. The classical theory focused on the design of total organization whereas the scientific management theory focused on the systematic management of the individual's tasks to achieve organizational goals. Maslow (1970), Herzberg and McGregor (1960) focused on work situation, its effects on leaders and followers, individual needs, and increase in productivity and came up with different theories i.e. hierarchy of

needs, the dual factor theory and motivation-hygiene theory and theory X and Y. The following discussion is based on (a) partial models that focus on the individual as a leader, (b) partial models that focus on the process of leadership and (c) comprehensive models which encompass both the individual and the process.

#### Trait theory

The trait theory of leadership, known as “Great Man theory”, was one of the first systematic efforts to study the concept of leadership in the early 20th century (Northouse, 2004, Northouse, 2007). The notion of great men theory states that, there are some rare individuals who have the ability to revolutionize the history or bring a real change in the society. Trait theories of leadership emerged during 1920s and 1930s. According to the notion of trait theory, the traits instilled in the leaders makes them different from non-leaders. Allen (1998) highlighted that trait theories were the earliest form of leadership theories after the Great Man theory was proposed. Trait theories assume that leadership qualities of individuals are inherited and are a part of their personality (Allen, 1998). These qualities may be social or political in nature. According to Northouse (2007), some leaders from history like Mohandas Gandhi, Abraham Lincoln, Napoleon, and Hitler were studied and it was noticed that such leaders were effective due to some unique and innate leadership qualities. Therefore, different studies were carried out to find out those attributes and personal characteristics that distinguished them from others.

Stogdill (1974) conducted different studies between 1920 and 1975 and came up with the findings of some traits of effective leadership. In 1949, he proposed intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability as the unique traits of effective leadership. In 1974, he identified the responsibility and task completion and added in the earlier list of leaders’ traits. In addition, he emphasized on the

importance of situational factors for the success of any leader.

Mann (1959) studied leadership traits in small settings and came up with more than five hundred different measures of personality. He combined the most common measures in seven main characteristics that included intelligence, adjustment, extroversion-introversion, dominance, masculinity-femininity, conservatism, and interpersonal sensitivity. When he compared these characteristics in relation to leadership, he found a highly significant relationship between leadership and intelligence, adjustment, extroversion measures and most of the times, a positive relationship with dominance, masculinity, and interpersonal sensitivity. Further, he acknowledged the importance of situational elements too. However, Mann (1959) and Stogdill (1974) agreed that traits for effective leadership vary from situation to situation and sometime acts in combination.

Fiedler (1967) also agreed that effective leaders cannot be predicted on the basis of only traits for every situation. However, Lord, De Vader and Alliger (1986) considered that conclusions of Stogdill and Mann were based on flawed studies in a variety of ways and therefore created wrong conclusions. He is of the view that their results were overgeneralized and negatively interpreted. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) talked about six characteristics of effective leadership: motivation, honesty, integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business. Kouzes and Posner (2003) came up with four key leadership traits: honesty, forward-looking, inspiring, and competency. Although trait theories of leadership emphasized more on the traits of the leaders, but never clarified as if these traits are inherited in the leaders or can be learned with time through adequate education or training (Allen, 1998). At the same time, Pierce and Newstrom (2006) indicated that, many researchers came up with individual traits of effective leadership, yet no one



was able to predict the leadership success and failed to identify precise traits that predict leadership success. Horner (1997) further highlighted that trait theories ignored the environmental and situational factors which tend to affect the effectiveness of the leader in a particular situation.

#### Behavioral theories of leadership

The trait theories concentrate on leaders' certain personality characteristics whereas the behavioral theories focus on the behaviors of the leaders. For instance, what leaders do and how leaders act (Northouse, 2004). Behavioral theories of leadership emphasized more on studying the determinants of behavior of a leader and concluded that using these determinants, leadership style can be learned.

According to Northouse (2007), the behavioral theories include two types of behaviors: task behaviors and relationship behaviors. The task behaviors are related to the task accomplishment whereas the relationship behaviors motivate the followers to carry on their efforts. The underlying assumption of behavioral theories of leadership is that, it is possible to learn leadership behavior and styles through training (Allen, 1998). In this regard, Ohio and Michigan studies are considered significant contributions in the development of behavioral theories.

The first contribution was from Ohio State University researchers (i.e. Stogdill, Coons, Halpin & Winer, Fleishman) who came up with some influential theories of leadership that remained popular during 1950s and 1960s (Gill, 2006). They worked on leadership behaviors in military (Stogdill & Coons, 1957) and found that leadership styles are practiced in different ways. Most of the time, they influenced their followers by initiating structure and consideration. In initiating structure, the leaders organize work, define the tasks and schedule the work activities for their followers. In consideration, they develop an atmosphere of respect and trust with

the followers. The effective leaders use both initiating structure and consideration at the same time at different degrees (Stogdill & Coons, 1957).

The second major contribution in development of behavioral theories is from the University of Michigan studies (researchers include Katz & Kahn). They identified 'concern for task' (product oriented) and 'concern for people' (employee oriented) behaviors as common leadership behaviors (Blake and Mouton, 1994, Likert, 1967, Gill, 2006). This model of leadership behaviors was called the managerial grid (Blake & Mouton, 1994) and then renamed as leadership grid. The production-oriented behavior focuses on the technical aspects of task accomplishment. The employee-oriented behavior focuses on followers to take them as human beings, to value their individuality, and to pay particular attention to their needs. Likert (1967) classified leadership styles into four categories: exploitative autocratic, benevolent autocratic, consultative and democratic. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) classified the leadership styles in similar ways: autocratic, persuasive, consultative and democratic (Gill, 2006).

Furthering the behavioral theories of leadership, university of Iowa studies focused on identification of the most appropriate leadership style which bring maximum outcomes. These studies reflected some leadership styles which included autocratic, democratic and Laissez fair styles. However, Allen (1998) highlighted that, the research findings of Iowa did not clarify which leadership style was most effective.

#### Contingency theories of leadership

The contingency theories of leadership studied the behavior of leaders in the era of 60 s to 70 s. The contingency theories of leadership focused on studying the behavior of leader which varies from one situation to another. Leader needs to define one particular behavior or leadership style which could fit

in varying situations. Therefore, contingency theories propose that there is no best leadership style in every situation. Effective and successful leaders use different leadership styles based on the situation and followers. According to Goldsmith (2003), effective leadership is the best fit between the behavior, context and the need. In order to fully understand the effectiveness and the performance of leaders, it is necessary to understand the situation in which they lead. In contingency theories, the relationship between two variables is measured. These two variables may be the leadership styles or some situational variables. Where the situational variables might include relationship quality between leader and subordinates, structure of task, availability of information, maturity level of subordinate, unclear tasks or roles of the subordinates and the degree to which subordinates are willing to accept the decisions of the leader (Howell, Dorfman & Kerr, 1986).

#### Fiedler's contingency theory

Fred Fiedler is considered the pioneer of contingency theories. His contingency theory suggests that the effectiveness of leadership styles depends upon the suitability of the situation in terms of three parameters. Fiedler (1967) developed the Least Preferred Coworker scale to determine the effectiveness of leadership styles. This scale suggests that the situation is highly favorable and fit when the job is clearly defined, the leader has authority/power, and a healthy relationship exists between leader and followers (Fiedler, 1967, Gill, 2006). According to Fiedler (2006), the style of leadership is fixed and it is challenging to change the leadership style one adopts. Once the style of leadership is determined using Least Preferred Coworker questionnaire, the next step is identification of the situational variables which, according to Fiedler (2006) include task structure, position of power held by the leader and relationship between leader and members.

#### Path-goal theory

Path-goal leadership theory is based on Fiedler's

contingency theory and adds employee motivation as a choice in leadership styles. However, it is not appropriate in those situations where goals are not consistent. It can be called an 'expectancy model' of work motivation (Evans, 1970; House & Mitchell, 1974; Gill, 2006).

Path-goal leadership theory was developed by the House (1971) and later improved by House and Mitchell (1974). This theory states that the main role of leader is to help subordinates to solve their problems to achieve goals. Effective leaders always motivate their followers to understand their tasks and reach goals. However, different subordinates are motivated through different factors according to their needs and preferences like need affiliation, preference for structure, desire for control, or self-efficacy. On the other hand, if the tasks are ambiguous and unstructured, the followers will be less satisfied and less motivated (House and Mitchell, 1974). House (1971) proclaimed that leadership style and behavior of leader is flexible which allows him to adapt his leadership style according to situation.

#### Leader-member exchange theory

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory explains the effectiveness of leaders as the result of psychodynamic exchange between leaders and followers (Gill, 2006). It focuses on the characteristics of the leaders, followers and the relationship between leaders and followers. The LMX theories emphasize that the relationship between every pair of leader and follower varies with the other pair and different followers may have a different description or relationship with the same leader (Gill, 2006, Graen et al., 1977). The underlying idea behind the psychodynamic theory is that the nature of the relationship between leaders and followers is based on the self and others' perceptions or understanding (Gill, 2006). Thus, the LMX theory provides a baseline for the studies which aims to find out the congruence among self and others' perceptions about leadership styles and performance.

According to leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, leadership is a process that motivates followers or subordinates to exert extra efforts (Dunnette, Hough, & Triandis, 1990). Moreover, the relationship between leaders and followers has a significant relation with followers' degree of job satisfaction, job performance, and organizational commitment (Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki & McNamara, 2005). Further, the level of interaction between leaders and followers also matters (Kaplan & Norton, 2001). According to Krishnan (2004), when the quality of exchange between leader and follower increases, progress also begins to increase. However, it depends on the degree of exchange, the nature of exchange and the nature of tasks as well.

#### Transformational and transactional leadership

Downton (1973) is believed to be the first person who used the terms transformational and transactional leadership and Burns (1978) was the first person who distinguished leadership styles based on followers' motivation as either transformational or transactional. He defined transformational leadership as a process of motivating followers by focusing on their values to impact on their performance and envisioning a clear future for them. On the other hand, transactional leadership is a process of social exchange to have an impact on the performance of employees towards established goals. However, he viewed transformational and transactional leadership as mutually exclusive.

Based on his work, Bass (1985) reviewed and extended the concept and proposed transformational leadership theory. According to Bass, transformational leadership is exclusively about the leaders and their behaviors. He focused on the followers and came up with a conclusion that transformational and transactional leadership styles are not mutually exclusive but interdependent or interrelated (Northouse, 2004). Transformational theory suggests that most of the leaders have the characteristics of both the transformational and

transactional leadership styles and the former augments the later. The effective leaders use both leadership styles at various situations based on the task and the followers.

According to Burns (1978), the transactional leaders focus on the followers' self-interest through exchanging different things to motivate them. These exchanges may be of different natures like salary or bonus in exchange for some task accomplishment. In short, a transactional leader controls his followers through different types of rewards/penalties. Moreover, the transactional leaders work within systems, try to avoid risks and try to achieve the goals on already set parameters (Bass, 1985). In most of the situations, transactional leadership is preferred when the objectives are the short term. It does not support well in terms of long term objectives, especially when organizations go through some big changes. Contrary, the transformational leadership focuses on long term strategies and transformational leaders motivate their followers by convincing them that organizational goals are much important than their personal goals or organizational goals are actually in their own benefits. In this situation, transformational leadership fits to motivate the followers to exert more efforts than they are actually required. Further, they facilitate development and change.

In this technological and competitive era, organizations prefer transformational leaders to motivate and help their workforce to achieve higher goals. They make them aware and able to accomplish beyond their expectations and perceived capabilities (Palestini, 2009). The improvement in followers' performance is the main emphasis of transformational leadership theory (Avolio, 2011).

#### The full range leadership (FRL) model

In order to better understand the process of leadership effectiveness, Bass and Avolio (1994) developed a leadership model called the Full Range Leadership (FRL) model. This model proposes that leaders use



multiple behaviors to influence their followers. This model is based on the theory of transformational and transactional leadership and incorporates both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. The Full Range Leadership model includes three leadership styles: transformational, transactional and passive/avoidant leadership. There are nine variables in the model which are represented by these three styles. The transformational leadership style is to inspire and motivate followers through compelling vision, individual support, and, empowerment. It includes five behaviors: idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavioral), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. The transactional leadership style is to exchange rewards or punishment for any positive work performance or lack of satisfactory performance with followers. Transactional leadership is associated with three behaviors: contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive). Laissez-faire means the absence of leadership (Northouse, 2004). It can be defined as the most inactive and the most ineffective leadership (Avolio, 2011). It becomes evident when the leaders avoid responsibility and do not care about what happening around them. They delay different decisions, and do not make any effort to motivate and satisfy their followers' needs. According to Bass (1990), laissez-faire leadership is negatively correlated with followers' efforts, attitude, and performance.

## Section 2. Leadership outcomes

Organizational leadership has been the focus of researchers and practitioners for many decades. The review of literature shows that most of the researches are conducted on the relationship between leadership styles and employee or organizational outcomes and examining leadership styles in different organizational, national or cross-national settings. However, most of the researches on organizational leadership, if not all, are conducted in the United States, Canada and Western Europe in the last half

century (Ardichvili and Kuchinke, 2002, Grint, 2005). In addition, most of the studies in the last two decades are based on transformational and transactional leadership styles.

The literature on leadership and its outcomes can be studied from different perspectives. The performance outcome means how the leader has performed his/her job assigned. The aspects that are studied from subordinate perspectives are the relationship between leadership styles and employees' job satisfaction, motivation, job performance, employee well-being, job commitment, and their turnover behaviors. From organizational perspective, leadership has been studied from different aspects like organizational performance, organizational commitment, turnover, employee satisfaction, exert to extra effort and organizational culture. Based on a wide range of outcomes, Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, and Doty (2011) have summarized all the leadership outcomes in four domains based on the nature and measurement criteria: effectiveness, attitude, behavior and cognition. The effectiveness domain is about the tangible outcomes of leaders and leadership i.e. effectiveness and performance in the shape of profitability, bankruptcy and objective performance. The attitude domain is about changing the way employees feel. It includes motivation, satisfaction, commitment, self-esteem and emotion. The behavioral domain of leadership is about actual or observable behaviors/processes of an individual or group. It consists of turnover behavior and intentions, helping behavior and communication process. The fourth domain of leadership outcomes is cognition. Though the attitude domain includes the cognition aspect, yet the separate domain is to distinguish the non-attitudinal and non-emotional effects (Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, & Doty, 2011). It includes perceived organizational structure, perceived organizational support, climate and self-schema. The literature is replete with studies on organizational leadership outcomes. However, a few leadership outcomes which are recurrent throughout literature

are briefly discussed.

#### Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction means the individual's perception of his/her own work in terms of job tasks, the relationship with supervisor/colleagues, future opportunity, work environment, and compensation. The acceptance of these factors causes job satisfaction and the unfavorable situation causes dissatisfaction with the job. Though these factors are not directly related to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. These factors include recognition, achievement, autonomy and responsibility that lead to job satisfaction. Numerous studies were conducted on the significance of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction plays a key role in the organization's quality, growth and performance. On the other side, job dissatisfaction can lead an organization to many issues like employee turnover, low growth rate, poor performance and ultimately failure of the company. Numerous studies (Kuchinke, 1998, Chiok, 2001, Walumbwa et al., 2005, Elloy, 2005; Abass & Yaqoob, 2009; Braun, Peus, Weisweiler & Frey, 2013) are done to examine the relationship between leadership styles and employee job satisfaction in the organizations. The findings of these studies show that leadership of any organization has a positive and significant impact on employees' job satisfaction and is one of the key contributors to their performance. Therefore, the supervisors should adopt such leadership behaviors that increase the perception of job satisfaction in the employees.

#### Motivation

Motivation is another significant outcome of leadership. There is an old saying that 'you can take a horse to the water but you cannot force it to drink, it will drink only if it's thirsty' and same is the case of the workforce in the organization. They will perform as they want to perform or motivated to perform. Employee motivation is considered the principal factor for any organization to perform well especially in the transition phases. To better cope such

challenges, the need for such leadership increases that understand and improve the employees' motivation. The employees' motivation is considered a key function of any leadership position. In order to survive and succeed in the global world, a leader must know how to motivate the employees. Motivation means to use or develop such a force in a person that causes the person to behave in directed way. Literature on leadership is replete with studies on motivation. The researches (McNeese-Smith, 1999, Charbonneau et al., 2001, Clark et al., 2009, Basford et al., 2012) show that leadership and motivation has a significant relationship that leads to improve the individual and organizational performance. However, different leadership styles have different impact on the employees' motivation (Mehta, Dubinsky & Anderson cited in Chipunza, Samuel & Mariri, 2011) and different strategies can be used to motivate employees. For instance, empowering employees, involving employees in the decision making process, job rotation, changing communication patterns, and presenting as a role model to the employees are those strategies that leaders adopt following transformational leadership styles. In transactional leadership approach, contingent rewards and management by exception techniques are used. Thus, there are different strategies that leaders can adopt to increase or maintain motivation in their subordinates.

#### Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment is considered as an attitude or individual's mindset about his/her particular organization. Gbadamosi (2003) states that the employee more committed to the organization will be more dedicated to achieve organizational goals. Moreover, the employees who are committed to their organization will be willing to exert extra effort for organizational growth and productivity. Organizational commitment is the employee's psychological attachment to the organization. It is defined in multiple ways and different models of organizational commitment are developed i.e. Meyer

and Allen's (1991) three-component model of commitment. The three components are affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Affective commitment means the psychological or emotional connection with the organization. The employees who have affective commitment with their organization, they are dedicated and usually remain with the organization. Continuance commitment is considered the awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen 1991). The employees with continuance commitment work for a particular organization because of the benefits they earn. They do not have any emotional affiliation with the organization and leave that organization if they have better opportunity. Normative commitment is the sense of responsibility to work for the specific organization (Meyer & Allen 1991). The normative committed employees take it morally appropriate to work for a particular organization irrespective of compensation, benefits or promotion. The literature shows that organizational commitment predicts organizational citizenship behavior, turnover, and job performance. In addition, job stress, empowerment, job insecurity, and leadership also affect the organizational commitment. It is commonly accepted that effective leaders have committed followers and commitment is considered a potential outcome of effective leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2005; Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Commitment is a multiple dimensional construct, but from the leadership perspective, it is usually studied from the organizational commitment point of view. For instance, Hawkins and Dulewicz (2009) state that leadership is pivotal to encourage organizational commitment to achieve organizational goals and the implementation of strategic decision. Though different leadership styles might have different implications for organizational commitment, but most of the literature on organizational commitment is from transformational and transactional leadership styles. It is evident from that literature that transformational and transactional leadership styles

are positively and significantly correlated with organizational commitment (Robert, 2000, Chiok, 2001; Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2009; Lo, Ramayah, Min & Songan, 2010).

#### Psychological well-being

Well-being means the relaxed state of being. Psychological well-being is considered an important indicator of individual mental health (Keyes, 2002). There are three main aspects of psychological being: self-regard, relationships with others, and capability to face and overcome difficulties in the environment (Warr, 2005). The researches show that different factors like experiences at work (Danna & Griffin, 1999), leadership behaviors (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; van Dierendonck, Haynes, Borrill, & Stride, 2004; Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008) and organizational politics (Chang, Rosen & Levy 2009) affect psychological well-being. However, the relationship between leadership and employees' well-being is widely studied and a debated topic in organizational behavior (Barling, Christie, & Hopton, 2010; Kelloway, Weigand, McKee & Das, 2013). That's why; Luthans, Youssef, Sweetman, and Harms (2013) consider employees' well-being as a challenge for leadership. Transformational leadership style is widely studied leadership style in relation to employees' well-being. The literature (Tafvelin et al., 2011, Kelloway et al., 2012) shows that transformational leadership has a positive and significant impact on employees' well-being.

#### Turnover

Employee turnover is one of the most critical problems organizations face (O'Connell & Chuang-Kung, 2007). In recent years, the turnover rate in many organizations is increased due to globalization, advancement in technology and crunch in the economy. According to Bodla and Hameed (2009), there are two different schools of thoughts about employee turnover: psychological school and the labor market school. The psychological school focuses on the psychological aspects i.e. job

satisfaction, job stress, organizational environment, organizational commitment and psychological well-being. The labor market school emphasizes on the supply and demand, job opportunities and job search aspects. There are some factors of turnover intentions that controllable and some are uncontrollable by organizations. For instance, satisfaction with compensation, satisfaction with work environment, satisfaction with leadership behaviors, organizational commitment, and job stress are considered controllable factors of employees' turnover intentions. The uncontrollable factors include the job hoping and perceived alternative employment. However, leadership behavior is considered a potential reason of employees' turnover intentions. According to Aggarwal, Tanner and Castleberry (2004) and Gul, Ahmad, Rehman, Shabir, and Razzaq (2012), leadership style is the main reason and has direct impact on employees' turnover intentions and the relationship between leadership styles and employees' turnover intentions is significant. On the other hand, most of the studies (Mascall and Leithwood, 2010, Furtado et al., 2011, Wells and Peachey, 2011) suggest that leadership style has a mediating effect on employees' turnover intentions. The main factors might include job dissatisfaction, job stress, compensation or organizational commitment. However, it is evident from the literature that employees' turnover intentions can be controlled by adopting appropriate leadership styles.

### Section 3. Role of national culture

The concept of 'culture' is defined variously throughout literature (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952; McSweeney, 2002). Sometimes, it is considered exclusively observable or recordable (McSweeney, 2002) and sometimes as subjective or implicit (Hofstede, 1980a). Hofstede (1977, 2001) defined culture as 'the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another'. In this definition, he includes different aspects of life, i.e. thinking, feeling, religion, behaviors, attitudes, language, skills

and values. Culture is an elusive source that binds the people of society and transforms their behaviors. It is the sense of the inner values and attitudes that guide a population (Bhagat & Steers, 2009).

National culture is not merely a culture of a particular type but territorially unique. It is not only the culture or a combination of cultures within a nation, but it is the culture that distinguishes the people of one nation from another nation, even if they are different on different grounds (Hofstede, 1980a, 1983). Geert Hofstede's concept of national culture (1980, 2001) revolutionized organizational studies through understanding the relationship between organizational behavior and cultural factors. He proposed four dimensions of national culture that help to distinguish it from other: power distance, individualism, masculinity vs. femininity and uncertainty avoidance. Power Distance is the most important dimension of national culture that influences leadership and organizational subcultures. High power distance leads to a very autocratic type of leadership, whereas a low power distance leads to a more democratic approach.

According to Hofstede (1991) and Scott and Meyer (1994), national culture comprises of shared beliefs about organizational models. Therefore, a 'fit' between cultural values and organizational arrangements should be consistent and congruent. Muczyk and Holt (2008) state that leadership styles and approaches should be effectively aligned with the national culture because it affects the organizational culture and performance (Willmott, 2000). In other words, national culture influences leadership styles, decision-making (Li, Lam & Qian, 2001) and other HR practices. Hofstede (1980b) further emphasized the need to better align organizational leadership and national culture because managerial attitudes, values, behaviors, and efficacy differ across national cultures. The influence and effectiveness of leaders varies considerably based on the cultural forces in which leaders perform. According to Newman and Nollen (1996) 'national culture is a central organizing

principle of employees' understanding of work, their approach to it, and the way in which they expect to be treated'. Based on the available literature on national culture and leadership, the culture may influence the leadership behaviors and practices through the following ways. First, culture develops the image of the effective leader or leadership (House, 1998). Second, culture affects the personality traits and work values of leaders and followers (Berry, 1992). Third, culture determines the leadership behaviors/practices and cultural values and norms influence leaders' attitudes and behaviors consciously or unconsciously (Yukl, 2002). Fourth, culture affects followers' perception and acceptance of leaders' behaviors and practices. Followers across nations differ in their perceptions and preferences for effective communication patterns, task orientation, and leadership styles (House, 2004). Fifth, culture affects the significance of leadership outcomes. For example, Sinha (1984) examined that in India job satisfaction is given much importance than productivity. Sixth, culture influences and determines the leader and follower relationship. For example, in some countries, the relationship between supervisor and subordinate is like the relationship between a father and son whereas some countries have a huge difference. Seventh, culture defines the effective leadership behaviors and practices. The effective leadership behaviors and leadership development is culture specific and can only be better understood if someone knows the culture. However, some leadership behaviors like 'supportive leadership' and transformational leadership produce similar effects across cultures (Dorfman, 2004). Though these leadership styles might not be considered as effective in some cultures, yet would create similar effects.

The cultural competency is now considered as an important leadership competency. The leadership development programs in most of the organizations give significant importance to national cultural values. It is considered a key to effective leadership that ultimately leads to improve organizational

performance. The importance of cultural competency turns multifold in case of executive leadership. The United States Office of Personnel Management has a managing diversity component (which now includes cultural diversity) as an important and required competency for Senior Executive Service (SES) leadership (Borrego & Johnson, 2012). Therefore, cultural congruence (Bass & Bass, 2008) is necessary for effective leadership. There must be alignment between the leaders' behavior and cultural values.

#### Section 4. Critical evaluation and proposed research agenda

Organizational leadership has a wealth of literature, but most of the literature consists of leadership in North America or Western Europe (Ardichvili and Kuchinke, 2002, Grint, 2005). There is need to study leadership in other parts of the world, i.e. south Asia in general and Pakistan in particular. Leadership development from national culture perspectives can be a new avenue for the researchers particularly in South Asian perspective.

Leadership has been a focus of research interest in western society from leader's and followers' perspective for many years. Extant research studies in the Asian context have been conducted on determining the outcomes of leadership styles in various sectors from follower perspective (Haque et al., 2015, Asrar-ul-Haq and Kuchinke, 2016, Zulfqar et al., 2016, Riaz et al., 2017). However, there is dearth of research on examining leadership from a multi perspective including perceiving leadership from the viewpoint of leaders, peers, fellow leaders etc. particularly in Asian context, where culture has been identified as the determinant of leadership style (Jalal, 1995; Khilji, 2001; Islam, 2004). Considering this research gap, current research study aims to propose a research agenda on examining how leadership is perceived from the view point of leader, peers and fellow leaders in an Asian perspective.

The review of the literature indicates the need for



further studies on examining leadership styles and its relationship with different outcomes from more than one perspective (congruence). It is also evident that national culture may have strong impact on leadership perceptions, leadership styles, practices, and preferences which need to be studied. As Bhagat and Steers (2009) state that leadership is not the same across cultures and the perceptions of effective leadership style is different in South Asia from other parts of the world (Northouse, 2009b).

To better understand the self-other agreement, Yammarino and Atwater (1997) developed a conceptual model called the self-perception accuracy model. They argue that individual as well as organizational performance can be improved through the agreement among self and others' perceptions at different levels. It is because the self-perception usually lacks accuracy due to over-estimation or under-estimation. Moreover, different other factors like experiences, personality traits, contextual factors, and cognitive processes also affect self-perceptions that lead to inaccurate self-ratings. On the other hand, the ratings on the basis of only others' perceptions cannot be ensured as accurate. The literature shows that there are many factors that influence the accuracy of others' ratings. According to Smith and Fortunato (2008), the personality traits of the raters have a significant impact on the quality of ratings. Employees who have lack of trust on their supervisors and the employees who have a very close relationship with the management could not provide honest ratings. In addition, if people provide information face to face, the individuals show a soft corner during the ratings. There are many factors that impact the accuracy of others' ratings like the raters' personality, values, beliefs, motivation, and interaction with the ratee. Therefore, the leadership style and its related outcomes should be examined through self and other agreement in different sectors.

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### The moderating effect of love of money on relationship between socioeconomic status and happiness

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#### ABSTRACT

The objective of this research is to determine the moderating effects of Love of Money (LOM) on the relationship between socio-economic status (SES) and happiness. This study explores not only the direct relationship between SES and happiness, but also indirect relationships that may exist through life domain satisfaction, such as through job, income and family satisfaction. Additionally, it further studies the moderating roles of LOM on those indirect or mediated relationships. Purposive sampling method was used to collect data from 433 samples drawn from four different target groups with the mix of level of income and LOM. For analysis of data, the structural equation modeling technique was employed. The findings reveal no direct relationship between SES and happiness, but findings did show an indirect, positive relationship between SES and happiness through job, family and income satisfaction. This suggests a multiple mediated relationship between SES and happiness. LOM has a negative effect on happiness as well as on job satisfaction and income satisfaction. In addition, LOM revealed moderating roles on SES-income satisfaction (strengthening) and job satisfaction-happiness (weakening) relationships. The results suggest that low LOM people have a sense of contentment because they are more satisfied with their income, no matter how much they earn, compared with the satisfaction of high LOM people. Also, high LOM people undermine job satisfaction as a source of happiness, therefore lowering their overall happiness or life satisfaction.

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## Introduction

One of the most studied relationships in happiness research is the income–happiness relationship. Based on Needs theory, income predicts happiness or life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1993, Graham, 2005). However, many researchers have found that income is a crucial determinant of happiness up to a certain point, and beyond that point, there is a lower correlation (Graham, 2005, Layard, 2005). Diener and Biswas-Diener (2002) suggest there could be a psychological factor such as desire for material wealth that can influence the relationship between money and happiness. Previous research found that desire for wealth is negatively related to life satisfaction. For example, there is ample evidence showing that materialistic values cause lower life satisfaction (Dittmar et al., 2014, Tang and Chiu, 2003). A similar construct that directly represents the desire for money is Love of Money (LOM). Previous research found that LOM results in lower satisfaction with pay and job as well as unethical behavior in the workplace (). Therefore, this paper aims to explore the role of LOM in the relationship between socio-economic status (income and education) and happiness of general Thai working people. In order to provide a more holistic view of happiness, three domains of life satisfaction, i.e., job satisfaction, family satisfaction, and income satisfaction were used to mediate the influence of SES on happiness. This research then further studied the moderating effects of the love of money on these mediated relationships (except family satisfaction). In short, this study seeks to determine how the desire for money influences life satisfaction in relation to economic and social status.

A review of relevant literature indicates that there is a lack of research on the relationship between socio-economic status (i.e., income and education) and happiness, particularly in relation to the desire for, or love of money. Therefore, it would benefit the field of knowledge to explore how a person's desire for money affects their happiness given their social and

economic status. Moreover, as there is much evidence showing a strong negative association between materialism and happiness, this research would like to confirm that finding using the LOM construct.

## Literature Review

### Happiness

In a broad sense, happiness is all things that are positive. It is what is desired by all human beings and is their ultimate goal. People use money as a means to buy things they need, happiness on the other hand is the ultimate end that can be satisfied by itself. A review of happiness research shows that the term happiness is often used interchangeably with life satisfaction and subjective well-being (SWB) as well as with quality of life (Camfield, 2006, Ng, 2015 proposed three main components of happiness or SWB, i.e., positive affect, negative affect, and life satisfaction. Based on this definition, the first two components involve emotional aspects (or feeling). Affect theory sees happiness as feelings and emotions. This is when a person continuously appraises how they feel, positively and negatively. As there are many things that make one feel happy and what can make one happy may be different for different people, what makes one feel happy is a complicated system. However, it could be said that such feeling is an expression of their gratification of needs. Meanwhile, life satisfaction refers to cognitive-judgmental aspects. In cognitive theory, happiness is the product of human thinking and an evaluation process. This process involves evaluating the difference between one's life as it is and how life should be (Veenhoven, 2010). Lyubomirsky (2001), states that cognitive processes moderate the impact of objective environment on well-being. This shows that human thought has an important impact on human behavior apart from the external environment in which people live. In short, evaluating one's happiness involves a combination of what is felt and how well one thinks one is doing in life. This research, therefore, defines happiness as an appreciation of one's life as a whole (Veenhoven,

1984). This definition involves both cognitive-judgmental and emotional aspects in evaluating one's own life as being satisfactory or not satisfactory. This is considered a common definition which is applied in happiness indices around the world.

### SES and Happiness

Socio-economic status (SES) is a widely used construct capturing many dimensions of a person's social position. SES includes prestige, power and economic well-being (Oakes & Rossi, 2003). Income and education are considered to be good indicators, among many, that reflect the social class of a person (Ensminger, Fothergill, Bornstien, & Bradley, 2003). The relationship was found to be stronger at the lowest economic levels or in cross-sectional studies while the strength of the relationship decreased in longitudinal studies. Education, as another indicator of SES, can significantly affect a person's occupation and income level (Krieger, Williams, & Moss, 1997). There are several studies that find a positive effect of education on happiness (Di Tella et al., 2001, Gerdtham and Johannesson, 2001, Hayo and Seifert, 2003). Secondly, higher positions usually come with more autonomy, independence, and involvement in decision making as well as with less routine tasks (Albert & Davia, 2005). In addition, education can also benefit one's prestige and social acceptance (Castriota, 2006). Therefore, education can be an important factor in enhancing a person's life satisfaction. For these reasons, the first hypothesis is stated as follows:

#### Hypothesis 1

There is a positive association between SES and happiness.

### Satisfaction in Life Domains as Multiple Mediators

According to the bottom-up theory, there are several facets of life which act as contributors to overall happiness (Headey, Veenhoven, & Wearing, 1991). To better understand the relationship between SES

and happiness, this research further studied how life domains' satisfaction (job, family, and income satisfaction) can help explain the relationship. A number of research studies in several countries found a strong connection between family and happiness. This relationship was especially true for countries with collectivist culture, particularly in Asian countries (Lu & Gilmour, 2004). In Thailand, Senasu (2014) found that among the satisfaction achieved in many life domains, family satisfaction is the only determinant that predicts future happiness of Thai people. From a study by Helliwell and Putnam (2004), people who were highly connected to family, friends and other community members were happier. As family is important to one's happiness, resources such as money can be used to create well-being of a family, encourage family satisfaction, and thus enhance individual happiness.

Relevant literature shows that SES relates positively to job satisfaction in many ways. Generally, pay is considered to be one of the fundamental elements of job satisfaction (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, & Rich, 2010). Also, education leads to higher work positions that come with more challenging tasks, autonomy, promotion and recognition; all of which promote job satisfaction (Albert and Davia, 2005, Blanchflower and Oswald, 1994). There is much evidence showing that job satisfaction is one of the main positive indicators for life satisfaction (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001).

Income satisfaction can be viewed under the theory of human motivation by Maslow (1954). The theory asserts that there are two basic needs that must be satisfied before other needs. In this research, income is viewed as a means to satisfy these basic needs. Safety and security needs refer to freedom from physical and psychological harm. Satisfying such needs can be achieved through saving money which can be used to ensure that unexpected events can be faced without difficulty.

For these reasons, the second hypothesis is stated as follows:

#### Hypothesis 2

Satisfaction in life domains mediates the relationship between SES and happiness.

#### Hypothesis 2.1

Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between SES and happiness.

#### Hypothesis 2.2

Family satisfaction mediates the relationship between SES and happiness.

#### Hypothesis 2.3

Income satisfaction mediates the relationship between SES and happiness.

#### Love of Money

Love of money (LOM) is defined as the degree to which an individual desires money. Once desire for money builds up, a person can become obsessed with money (Argyle & Furnham, 1998). Tang (2007, p. 379) summarized the definitions of LOM as “(1) one's wants, desires, values, and aspirations for money (Easterlin, 2006), (2) one's attitudes toward money (Tang, 1992), (3) one's meaning of money, and (4) not one's needs, but greed (Sloan, 2002), or materialism (Belk, 1985)”. The origin of the term “love of money” can be traced to the Bible, 1 Timothy 6:9–10 (NIV). The verse states “Those who want to get rich fall into temptation and a trap and into many foolish and harmful desires that plunge people into ruin and destruction. For the love of money is the root of all kinds of evil.” Research findings have supported this statement where the LOM results in unethical actions in the workplace (Sardžoska and Tang, 2012, Singhapakdi et al.,

2013). Furthermore, previous research has continually found that LOM results in other negative behaviors. For example, high LOM causes employees to have lower pay satisfaction (Tang, 2007), and job satisfaction (Tang, 1992), which then causes withdrawal cognition and turnover. In addition, Tang and Chiu (2003) found LOM as a mediator for lower pay satisfaction, which in turn causes unethical behavior. By following their money motives, employees can simply fail to recognize intrinsic job satisfaction. Moreover, as LOM is related to greed (Sloan, 2002), it can also result in lower psychological well-being.

In this research, the LOM scale is adopted from Tang and Chiu (2003). It consists of four dimensions. The first dimension is “success”, which is a cognitive component to which individuals view money as a sign of success. This is when people keep scoring up the amount of money they have as it defines how well they are doing in their life. The second dimension is “rich” as an affective component. People who love money want to be rich and feel strongly positive about being rich. They believe that by being rich, their life will be better. The third dimension is “motivator”, a behavioral component, where LOM motivates people to work hard for it. The fourth dimension is important as another affective component. This is when individuals see money as their “primary factor” in life.

#### Love of Money as Moderators

Previous research found that people who place high importance on material wealth experience lower life satisfaction (Kasser and Ryan, 1993, Richins and Dawson, 1992). Self-Determination Theory (SDT) suggests that by primarily pursuing external wealth, people usually pay less attention to acquiring their psychological needs like autonomy, competence and relatedness. Satisfying these needs is the main factor that enhances happiness in the long-run. Also, their obsession with material wealth causes them to undermine sources of happiness that may already

exist. Therefore, their perceived happiness is less than others. As a result, it can be predicted that LOM can not only decrease a person's happiness level as well as satisfaction in life domains, it can also change the pattern of the relationship between SES and happiness.

This research initially assumes that income and education (SES) increase job and income satisfaction. Satisfaction of high LOM groups is likely to be determined heavily by their income (SES level). Therefore, the relationship between SES and job/income satisfaction will be stronger for high LOM people than for low LOM people. For these reasons, the third hypothesis is stated as follows:

#### Hypothesis 3

LOM moderates the relationship between SES and satisfaction in life domains.

##### Hypothesis 3.1

The influence of SES on job satisfaction is higher for high LOM people than for low LOM people.

##### Hypothesis 3.2

The influence of SES status on income satisfaction is higher for high LOM people than for low LOM people.

In the fourth hypothesis, we estimate that high LOM people will be less sensitive to job satisfaction, but more sensitive to income satisfaction in order to be happy. Because their focus is primarily on material wealth, they could fail to recognize their happiness through job satisfaction. On the other hand, as high LOM people place value on money, income satisfaction could be a strong predictor of happiness. The fourth hypothesis is therefore stated as follows:

#### Hypothesis 4

LOM moderates relationships between satisfaction in life domains (i.e., job and income satisfaction) and happiness.

##### Hypothesis 4.1

The influence of job satisfaction on happiness is lower for high LOM people than for low LOM people

##### Hypothesis 4.2

The influence of income satisfaction on happiness is higher for high LOM people than for low LOM people.

The last hypothesis is based on assumptions regarding the moderating role of LOM on the SES-happiness relationship. According to aspiration theory, high aspirations lower life satisfaction. High aspiration implies high LOM. As human beings tend to adapt quickly to increases in material wealth, the happiness gained from such increases tends to disappear quickly. This is particularly true when high aspirations occur in groups which are disadvantaged in terms of finances and education. For groups with lower income and/or education, it would be harder for them to achieve what they aspire to. As a result, LOM causes more dissatisfaction among lower income and/or lower education level groups. The fifth hypothesis is therefore stated as follows:

#### Hypothesis 5

LOM moderates (strengthening effect) the SES-happiness relationship.

A brief overview of our conceptual model and proposed research hypotheses are presented in Figure 1. Satisfaction in life domains are proposed as multiple mediators of the SES and happiness relationship. Meanwhile, LOM is studied as a moderator of the mediated relationships.



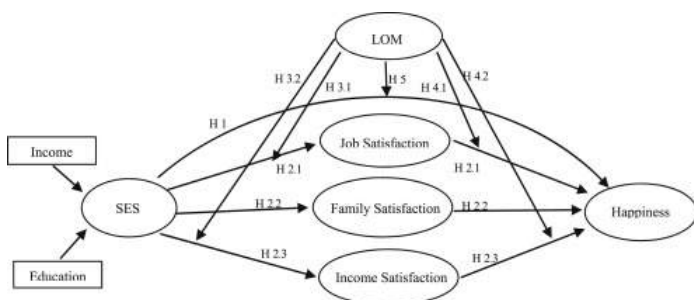


Figure 1. Conceptual model with proposed hypotheses

## Methodology

### Measures

The conceptual model for this research consists of six latent variables including SES, happiness, job satisfaction, income satisfaction, family satisfaction and LOM. Following, are definitions for each of these variables as well as descriptions of measurement scales and items.

### Happiness

Happiness is defined as overall appreciation of one's life as a whole (Veenhoven, 1984). In this research, there are two direct questions asking about life satisfaction and happiness. These questions and the methods used to rate them are widely used both by practitioners and academic researchers. The first question from Veenhoven (2012) asks "Taking all things together, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?" (Veenhoven, 2012, p. 336). The second question, taken from the European Social Survey (ESS) asks "Taking all things together, how happy would you say you are?". In both questions, the respondents rate themselves on a Likert scale ranging from 0 to 10.

### Satisfaction in Life Domains

Each domain of life satisfaction consists of 4–7 items. Respondents will rate all the items on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 "strongly disagree" to 5 "strongly agree". The operational definitions of each

life-satisfaction domain are as follows:

Family satisfaction is defined as personal satisfaction with (i) the love and connectedness of family members (Gray, Chamrathirong, Pattaravanich, & Prasartkul, 2013); (ii) feelings of being secure and supported (Gray et al., 2013, Senasu and Singhapakdi, 2018); and (iii) sufficient quality time spent together (Layard, 2005). Examples of items include "You and your family members share love and connectedness", "You feel secure with your family", and "You and your family members occasionally spend moments or time together".

Job satisfaction is defined as personal satisfaction with (i) overall job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975); (ii) job characteristics (Hackman & Oldham, 1975); (iii) management of time among work, family and free-time (also called work-life balance) (Senasu & Singhapakdi, 2018). Examples of items include "Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job", "I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job" and "I am satisfied with the way I manage my time with work and personal life".

Income satisfaction is defined as personal satisfaction with (i) overall income, (ii) income to meet basic needs and safety needs (Maslow, 1954, Oleson, 2004); and (iii) sufficient money to spend on leisure, hobbies and life experiences (Dunn, Aknin, & Norton, 2008). Examples of items include "How satisfied are you with your income", "I have sufficient income for daily necessities", and "Currently, I have enough income for my saving plan".

### Love of Money

This research adopts the love of money scale by Tang and Chiu (2003) consisting of 4 dimensions; success, motivator, rich and important. Examples of items include "Money is a symbol of my success" for success factor, "I am highly motivated by money" for motivator factor, "I want to be rich" for rich factor,

and “Money is an important factor in the lives of all of us” for important factor. Respondents rate all the items on a 5 point–Likert scale ranging from 1 “strongly disagree” to 5 “strongly agree”. This LOM measurement scale includes a total 16 items - 4 items

for each dimension.

Each of the latent variables in this model is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1. Description of research variables with operational definitions

Latent Variables	Type	Operational Definitions	Scales	Items
SES	Formative	1) Personal Income range	0–11	2
		2) Education level	0–8	
Happiness	Reflective	1) Taking all things together, how happy would you say you are?	0–10	2
		2) All things considered, how satisfied are you with your life as a whole these days?	0–10	
Job Satisfaction	Reflective	(i) overall job; (ii) job characteristics; (iii) the time management between work, family and free-time	1–5	7
Family Satisfaction	Reflective	(i) the love and connectedness of the family members; (ii) feelings of being secure and support; and (iii) sufficient quality time spent together	1–5	6
Income Satisfaction	Reflective	(i) the personal income to meet their basic needs, (ii) safety needs (savings); and (iii) sufficient money to spend on leisure, hobbies and life experiences	1–5	7
Love of Money	Reflective	(i) Success; (ii) Motivator; (iii) Rich; and (iv) Important	1–5	16

### Data Collection and Data Analysis

This research adopted a purposive sampling method. A total of 433 samples were collected from four different target groups representing a mix of income level and LOM. The first two groups are selected based on high aspirations for money (high LOM) with high and low income. The first group was low-income with high-LOM. Samples were collected from lottery buyers who are street vendors; slum residents; motorbike taxi drivers; and low-income workers. The second group consisted of people with high-income and high-LOM. Samples were collected from business owners, successful entrepreneurs and owners of large corporations. Samples were collected from groups of people who attended high-connection short courses run by well-known institutions in Thailand. In order to gain information from people who were likely to live their life with low aspiration for money (low LOM), this research selected respondents from religious communities. Therefore, the third group consists of respondents from religious communities whose members are known to have high-incomes. The fourth group consists of respondents from other religious communities whose members have low incomes.

The data collected were then analyzed using a 2-step approach of structural equation modeling (SEM) to test both validity of research measurement models and the research hypotheses. The rationale behind the adoption of SEM was that it allows for testing multiple mediators and series of moderating effects all at once and can be conducted using a widely known statistical program, AMOS.

### Results and Discussion

A total of 433 samples were collected with 127 male (29%) and 306 female (71%) samples. The age of respondents ranged from 20 to 60 + years old with the highest proportion in the age range of 31–40 years or 37 percent of the total sample. Education level held by respondents included 127 (29%) with high school or lower, 158 (37%) with diplomas and

Bachelor degrees, and 148 (34%) with Master and Doctoral degrees. In terms of personal income, 156 (36%) respondents earned less than 15,000 baht per month, 139 (32%) earned in between 15,001 and 50,000 per month, and 138 (32%) earned above 50,001 baht per month.

In Table 2, all measurements had a satisfactory level of internal consistency, above 0.7 as recommended by Nunnally (1978). Happiness showed a slight difference in mean between overall happiness (7.26) and life satisfaction (7.22) implying a valid interpretation between these two definitions. The LOM scale indicated that people, on average, perceive money as an important object and think it representative of personal achievements. The CFA produced a good model fit of  $\chi^2(109) = 384.66$ , GFI = .906, CFI = .932, RMSEA = .077. LOM showed high factor loading with a range of between .77 and .86, with “rich” having the highest and “important” having the lowest loading. This rank of loadings was congruent with a previous study by Singhapakdi et al. (2013) who adopted this construct.

The results of the structural model are presented in Table 3. Although, the results show no direct relationship between SES and happiness, the mediated paths with job, family and income satisfaction were all positive and significant (H2 supported). This suggests that the relationship between SES and happiness were found through multiple mediators. As expected, this research found that LOM was negatively related to all dependent variables (job satisfaction, income satisfaction and happiness), which were a prerequisite in testing the moderation effect of LOM. This study then found two significant interacting effects: 1) SES  $\times$  LOM on income satisfaction, and 2) job satisfaction  $\times$  LOM on Happiness. As a result, LOM moderated the relationships between SES and income satisfaction (H3.2 supported), and between job satisfaction and happiness (H4.1 supported).

Table 2. Descriptive statistics for socio-economic status, happiness, job satisfaction, income satisfaction, family satisfaction and love of money

	Items	Range	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha
<b>Socio Economic Status</b>	2				–
Education		1–9	5.42	1.74	
Income Personal		0–10	6.35	2.38	
Happiness	3	0–10	7.23	1.71	.857
Overall Happiness			7.26	1.79	
Life satisfaction			7.22	1.81	
Family Satisfaction	6	1–5	4.16	0.71	.874
Job Satisfaction	7	1–5	3.69	0.66	.791
Income Satisfaction	7	1–5	3.30	0.91	.924
Love of Money	16	1–5	3.33	0.87	.892
Success	4		2.89	1.02	.900
Motivator	4		3.16	1.04	.920
Rich	4		3.59	1.02	.892
Important	4		3.69	0.91	.881

Table 3. Results of the structural model

No.	Path	Path coefficient	<i>p</i>	Conclusion
1	SES – Happiness	–	–	Not significant
2	SES – Family	0.375	.004	Significant
3	SES – Job satisfaction	0.392	.000	Significant
4	SES – Income satisfaction	0.871	.000	Significant
5	Family satisfaction – Happiness	0.143	.000	Significant
6	Job satisfaction – Happiness	0.350	.000	Significant
7	Income satisfaction – Happiness	0.356	.000	Significant
8	LOM – Happiness	–0.197	.000	Significant
9	LOM – Income satisfaction	–0.122	.005	Significant
10	LOM – Job satisfaction	–0.140	.008	Significant
11	SES * LOM – Happiness	–	–	Not significant
12	SES * LOM – Job satisfaction	–	–	Not significant
13	SES * LOM – Income satisfaction	0.213	.000	Significant
14	Job satisfaction * LOM – Happiness	–0.137	.003	Significant
15	Income satisfaction * LOM – Happiness	–	–	Not significant

Note. Path coefficient reported is unstandardized.

After adjusting the model by deleting the insignificant paths, the model yields a good fit of  $\chi^2(310) = 935.669$ ,  $cm\ in/df = 0.3.018$ ,  $GFI = .859$ ,  $CFI = .888$ ,  $RMSEA = .068$ . The coefficient determinant R-square is .51 indicating that all of the research exogenous variables contribute up to 51 percent to happiness.

Figure 2(A) and 2(B) are the graphical depictions of the two significant interaction effects found in this study. In Figure 2(A), the graph shows that LOM strengthened the relationship between SES and

income satisfaction. This result was supported by Tang, Luna-Arocas, Sutarso, and Shin-Hsiung Tang (2004) where LOM strengthened the relationship between income and pay satisfaction with a cross over pattern. Generally, income satisfaction was affected more by income and education level (SES) for the high LOM group. This is not surprising as the income satisfaction of people who value money highly can be determined by their level of income. There are two interesting points to be mentioned regarding these moderation effects of LOM. First, for those with low SES there was a big difference in



income satisfaction between high- and low- LOM groups. According to aspiration theory, people who hold strongly to materialistic values experience less satisfaction than those who hold less strongly to materialistic values. Further, the level of satisfaction decreases when they are incapable of achieving materialistic goals (Barbera & Gurhan, 1997). Low SES means people with fewer opportunities in society. Their ability to achieve what they want is

much less than people with high SES. As a result, their desire for money (high LOM) combined with less chance of having it causes them to experience a much lower level of satisfaction. The second interesting point to mention is that the low LOM group was less sensitive to SES level. This implies that their satisfaction with income might result from inner abilities, e.g., self-sufficiency or a sense of contentment.

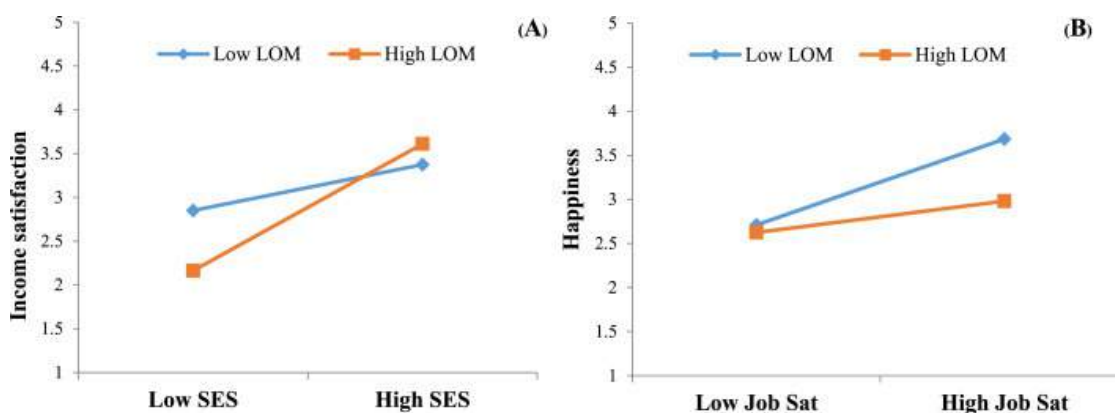


Figure 2. Graphical depiction of: (A) moderation by LOM of the SES-income satisfaction relationship; and (B) moderation by LOM of the job satisfaction-happiness relationship

Figure 2(B) shows that LOM weakened the relationship between job satisfaction and happiness. Job satisfaction had only a slight influence on happiness for high LOM group whose overall happiness was less than the low LOM group. In addition, the low LOM group showed higher job satisfaction, which suggests that job satisfaction was an important factor for those who give less intrinsic value to external wealth. The fact that the high- LOM group experienced a much lower level of happiness can be explained with SDT theory. Those who primarily focus on money often undermine job satisfaction as their source of happiness. On the other hand, low LOM people are more intrinsically motivated. Because they enjoy the nature of the work they are doing, they are more likely to develop their competence in performing their work. As a result, their happiness level can increase significantly

through job satisfaction.

#### Conclusions and Recommendation

This study highlighted LOM not only as a negative factor to happiness, job, and income satisfaction, but also as a moderator in the multiple mediated relationship between SES and happiness. Firstly, LOM strengthened the relationship between SES and income satisfaction. Though it is intuitive to predict high income satisfaction to be driven mostly by higher SES in a high LOM group, the findings suggest that the high LOM group experienced much lower income satisfaction than the low LOM group. In addition, the low LOM group generally maintained a high level of income satisfaction and were less sensitive to income satisfaction given their social status compared to the high LOM group. This research does not undermine the importance of SES



on income satisfaction as well as overall happiness. The findings still emphasize the significance of SES as a fundamental factor to happiness; however, the low LOM group had the advantage of maintaining a high level of income satisfaction which in turn led to a higher level of life satisfaction.

Secondly, this research found a weakening effect of LOM on the relationship between job satisfaction and happiness. This finding is supported by SDT theory which proposes that LOM as an extrinsic motivator can undermine important psychological needs such as competence, relatedness and autonomy, which can be fulfilled through job satisfaction.

Given these conclusions, the theoretical and practical implications are discussed in the following section.

#### Theoretical Implications

To the best of the author's knowledge, this is the first research study that adopts the LOM construct to explain the relationship between SES and happiness. The negative effects of LOM found on job, family, income and overall life satisfaction contributes knowledge regarding another factor that negatively impacts on happiness. In addition, this research provided empirical evidence supporting one of the major components of the sufficiency economy philosophy (SEP) –moderation. To live with moderation means that one needs to be satisfied with what one has. This is congruent with the research findings that low LOM people were generally more satisfied with their income than those with high LOM.

#### Practical Implications

At a national level, this study provides confirmation of the importance of SES to job satisfaction, income satisfaction and family satisfaction; all of which relate to happiness. SES, therefore, is a matter of social well-being. Economic and social policy makers need to be aware of the social gap that exists and understand that education can bring about an

improvement in social well-being, particularly for disadvantaged groups.

Within the context of organizations, organizations should realize that money is not the only, nor the best motivator for employees. Money can sometimes be a hygiene factor and at other times be a motivation factor (Herzberg, 1987). To some, especially those who are satisfied with their job and have intrinsic motivation, their pay level is of less importance to them. In some cases, research has shown that incentives or extrinsic motivation can negatively affect employee's intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999). As a result, organizations should provide other non-monetary rewards to supplement financial payment. It should be noted that even though money is not the primary focus to some, it does not mean that pay is not a motivating factor. As shown in this study, low-LOM people still show a positive relationship between income and income satisfaction, and between income and job satisfaction. In turn, these satisfactions lead to happiness. As this study found that LOM had negative effects on happiness as well as satisfaction in other life domains, organizations should beware of competing for employees by offering the highest pay as this could enhance the perception of loving money and therefore lower job satisfaction. Referring to the SDT, non-tangible rewards or activities that promote self-acceptance would be an alternative approach. For example, organizations may provide job empowerment, career development, challenging tasks and recognition.

#### Limitations and Future Research

Measures of income and education are self-reported so there may be inaccuracies. Furthermore, many variables in this research could have reciprocal relationships such as relationships between income and happiness, and between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. To avoid such endogeneity, researchers may want to conduct a longitudinal research study instead of using cross-sectional data.

To provide better understanding on the influence of the LOM construct, future research may want to study which components of LOM has the most impact on job, income and overall life satisfaction. To improve implications, future research may focus on collecting samples for study from specific organizational contexts such as the government sector, large corporations, etc.

#### Conflict of Interest

No conflict of interest.

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