Universidade de Aveiro
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FATORES INFLUENCIADORES DE ATITUDES EM RELAÇÃO ÀS AÇÕES AFIRMATIVAS NAS ORGANIZAÇÕES DE ENSINO SUPERIOR: ESTUDO DE CASO PORTUGUÊS

INFLUENCE FACTORS IN ATTITUDES TOWARDS AFFIRMATIVE ACTIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION ORGANIZATIONS: A PORTUGUESE CASE STUDY

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Dissertação apresentada à Universidade de Aveiro para cumprimento dos requisitos necessários à obtenção do grau de Mestre em Gestão, realizada sob a orientação científica do Doutor António Carrizo Moreira, Professor Associado do Departamento de Economia, Gestão, Engenharia Industrial e Turismo da Universidade de Aveiro, e coorientação do Professor Jorge Humberto Fernandes Mota Professor Assistente Convidado também do Departamento de Economia, Gestão, Engenharia Industrial e Turismo da Universidade de Aveiro

Dedico este trabalho às minhas meninas Isabela e Ana Laura, e todos aqueles na luta por igualdade de oportunidade, presença e reconhecimento.

o júri

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palavras-chave

Ação afirmativa de gênero, satisfação no trabalho, comportamento de cidadania organizacional, gestão da diversidade e inclusão, instituições de ensino superior.

resumo

Além de meta de desenvolvimento sustentável da ONU, a paridade de gênero continua a ser um desafio controverso para líderes e organizações. Até o momento, são escassos estudos que relacionam a responsabilidade social corporativa (CSR), as atitudes dos funcionários, o comportamento de cidadania organizacional (OCB) e a satisfação no trabalho (JS), estando estes excessivamente focados na questão ambiental. A originalidade deste estudo está no escrutínio dessas relações, investigando os fatores influenciadores das atitudes dos funcionários e também o OCB nas Instituições de Ensino Superior (IES) portuguesas. Uma amostra de 709 respondentes foi analisada para investigar os antecedentes das atitudes em relação às iniciativas de igualdade de gênero (AGPI) e seu efeito sobre JS, testando também a influência da satisfação no trabalho, comprometimento organizacional e perceções de CSR nos OCBs. Os resultados indicaram que, apesar de em direções opostas, as orientações de dominância social (SDO) e a ameaça de status (ST) influenciaram o AGPI dos funcionários, o que não afetou, entretanto, a JS. Além disso, as perceções dos funcionários sobre as iniciativas de CSR exerceram uma influência positiva e estatisticamente significativa sobre JS, ao mesmo tempo que afetaram positivamente o compromisso organizacional (OC) Por fim, constatou-se que as perceções de CSR e OC exercem uma influência positiva sobre o OCB.

keywords

Gender affirmative action, job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, diversity and inclusion management, higher education institutions.

abstract

Beyond a UN's sustainable development goal, gender parity remains a controversial challenge for leaders and organizations. Hitherto, studies connecting corporate social responsibility (CSR), employee's attitudes, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and job satisfaction (JS) are scant and overfocused on the environmental helm. The novelty of this study lays in the scrutiny of such a relationship, investigating what influences employee's attitudes and OCBs in Portuguese Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). A sample of 709 observations was analyzed to investigate the antecedents of attitudes towards gender equity initiatives (AGPI) and its effect on JS, also testing the influence of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and CSR perceptions on OCBs. Findings indicated that despite in opposed directions, both social dominance orientation (SDO) and status threat (ST) influenced employees' AGPI, which although did not affect JS. Additionally, employees' perceptions of CSR initiatives exerted a positive and statistically significant influenced on JS, while positively affecting organizational commitment (OC). Finally, CSR perceptions and OC were found to exert a positive influence on OCB.

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Acronym List

AA	Affirmative Action
AGPI	Attitudes towards Gender Parity Initiatives
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CR	Composite Reliability
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
DM	Diversity Management
DV	Dependent Variable
EEO	Equal Employment Opportunity
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
EO	Equal Opportunity
HEI	Higher Education Institutions
HR	Human Resources
HTMT	Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio
IV	Independent Variable
JS	Job Satisfaction
KMO	Keyser-Meyer-Olkin
OC	Organizational Commitment
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
Ph.D.	Doctor of Philosophy
PLS	Partial Least Squares
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling
SDG	Sustainable Development Goal
SDO	Social Dominance Orientation
SME	Small and Medium Enterprises
ST	Status Threat
UN	United Nations
USA	The United States of América
VIF	Variance inflation factor

1. Introduction

Gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls are among the 17 goals of the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, which comprises 169 targets in a universal plan of action for people, planet, and prosperity (United Nations, 2015). The UN Secretary-General António Guterres has consistently focused on women's longtime demand for gender equality, in what he argues to be 'the unfinished business of our time' (Guterres, 2019). Yet, the goal of gender parity, defined as the equal participation of women and men in positions of power and decision-making (Tremblay, Arscott, & Trimble, 2013), has gained increased attention globally over the past decades. Agreement on the validity of gender parity initiatives and their impacts, although, is yet to be found among scholars, practitioners, employers, and most importantly, employees.

Insofar as affirmative action, gender parity initiatives are designed to increase women's access and presence at the workplace (Connell, 2006, 2007; Tremblay et al., 2013). Far from being popular, gender quotas (mandated or voluntary) became a big controversy with many supporters and opponents worldwide. Their success, however, depends on the level of support received from employees at the organization. While some might contend that the only way to achieve parity is by imposing women's presence in leadership positions and general workplace levels, others believe that gender parity initiatives in recruitment and promotions broadly benefit unqualified candidates—chosen due to their gender instead of skills and abilities. That would violate merit's core principles of fairness, equity, and nondiscrimination (Bradbury, Battaglio, & Crum, 2010; Fassa, 2015; Foley & Williamson, 2019; Graves & Powell, 1994; Haynes & Alagaraja, 2016; Loosemore, Phua, Dunn, & Ozguc, 2011).

Hitherto, the literature on antecedents of attitudes towards gender parity initiatives in management has reached a somewhat consensus on the most commons antecedents on support for and opposition towards such initiatives. Prior experiences and general perceptions of affirmative action, for instance, are regularly indicated as the most common antecedents (Bradbury et al., 2010; Gröschl & Arcot, 2014; Loosemore et al., 2011; Susskind, Brymer, Kim,

Lee, & Way, 2014). The outcomes of gender parity initiatives on employee's attitudes and behaviors, although, typically include 'prejudice combo'—discrimination, tokenism and stigmatization—(Bradbury et al., 2010; Foley & Williamson, 2019; Haynes & Alagaraja, 2016; Leslie, Mayer, & Kravitz, 2014; Loosemore et al., 2011; Reddy & Parumasur, 2014), reduced performance (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012; Pitts, 2006, 2007) and employee's dissatisfaction (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Foley & Williamson, 2019; Hsiao, Ma, & Auld, 2014).

The inclusion of the gender equity goal (SDG 5) at the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (United Nations, 2015) also paved the way for a spread of corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives aimed at reducing the gender gap at the workplace. Corporate social responsibility encompasses initiatives that combine legal, economic, ethical, and philanthropic paths (Carroll, 1991), aimed at turning the organization accountable not only for itself—and shareholders—but also all its stakeholders (Setó-Pamies, 2015). Nevertheless, the effects of CSR on employee's perceptions and attitudes can be equally diversified. For instance, employees' holding a positive perception of the company's CSR activities identify strongly with the organization, and such positive social identification leads to positive job outcomes. Such outcomes include increased job satisfaction (Hoeffler, Bloom, & Keller, 2010), work engagement (Williams & Anderson, 1991) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Taghian, D'Souza, & Polonsky, 2015). However, little is known on the antecedents of OCBs and attitudes towards gender parity CSR initiatives and their role in influencing employees' behaviors in higher education institutions (HEI).

The effects of gender parity CSR on employee's behavior have already been somewhat discussed (Maleka & Rankhumise, 2014; Pitts, 2007). Initiatives for gender equity reinforcing the existing gender order in society—focused on women's needs and roles as wives and mothers—are more quickly accepted in organizations than those challenging such order (Connell, 2007). In parallel, OCBs—as employees' behaviors not explicitly recognized by the organization (Williams & Anderson, 1991) but broadly benefiting it (Cheema, Afsar, & Javed, 2020)—have been identified as typical individual's outcomes of the company's CSR initiatives (Bhattacharya, Korschun, & Sen, 2009; Manika, Wells, Gregory-Smith, & Gentry, 2013). Hitherto, scholars argue that attitudes towards gender parity initiatives can also be affected by

the individual's orientation in terms of group equality (Ho et al., 2012; Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006; Pratto, Stallworth, & Sidanius, 1997).

Indeed, both status threat (ST) and social dominance orientation (SDO) have been stated as explaining individuals' attitudes in intergroups relationships (Levin, 2004; Morrison, Fast, & Ybarra, 2009; Pratto et al., 2006). The former related to a perception of the potential risk of losing status (Kellogg, 2012; Zhang, Zhong, & Ozer, 2018), while the latter comprises the level of individuals' desires for group-based dominance and inequality (Pratto et al., 2006; Simmons, Hawkins, Duffy, & Alfraih, 2019). Thus, high SDO would act as a strategic response to ST for those high in status, while low SDO acts equally for those low in status (Morrison et al., 2009; Pratto et al., 2006). Moreover, men are expected to hold higher SDO levels, further favoring hierarchical intergroup relations (Pratto et al., 1997).

Nonetheless, studies connecting CSR, employees' attitudes, OCBs, and job satisfaction have over-focused environmental behaviors (Lamm, Tosti-Kharas, & King, 2015; Manika et al., 2013), falling short in exploring the antecedents of OCBs and attitudes towards gender parity among employees. This gap is precisely what motivates this study's central research question: *What influences attitudes towards gender parity initiatives and OCBs amongst employees?*

This study's novelty lies in scrutinizing such relationships and their mediators, focused primarily on gender equity initiatives developed under the CSR umbrella in Portuguese's higher education institutions (HEI). Hence, this paper follows a twofold approach. First and foremost, it investigates the role of individual orientation towards inequality and fear of status loss in influencing employees' attitudes towards gender parity initiatives and its effect on job satisfaction. Then, it analyzes the influence of CSR perceptions on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. A Portuguese case study was performed with data collected from higher education institutions' employees in Portugal. Professors and researchers from public and private institutions in all regions were invited to partake in the study.

Findings indicate that despite pointing in different directions, both social dominance orientations and status threat influenced employees' attitudes towards gender parity initiatives, confirming the expected general orientation towards gender equality among employees at higher education institutions—known as diverse and inclusive environments. However, their influence was stronger among women, confirming them as more prone to support equality initiatives. Job satisfaction was not influenced by attitudes towards gender parity (not statistically significant). The second model showed, however, that employees' perceptions of corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives exerted a positive and statistically significant influence on job satisfaction. CSR perceptions also positively affected organizational commitment. Finally, CSR perceptions and organizational commitment were found to exert an influence on organizational citizenship behavior.

Therefore, this dissertation was developed into five sections. In the second section, the extant literature is reviewed to address and explain the studied variables and their relationship. The third section then presents the methodological choices and methods used to test the hypotheses. Results are presented in section four, followed by a discussion of the findings. Finally, the conclusions, implications, and limitations of the study are discussed in the final section (five).

2. Literature Review

This dissertation aimed at investigating the influence factor in attitude towards gender equity initiatives and organizational citizenship behavior among employees in Portuguese's higher education institutions (HEI). Therefore, a twofold approach was adopted to (1) examine the role of individual orientation towards inequality and fear of status loss in influencing employees' attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (and its effect on job satisfaction); and (2) explore the influence of CSR perceptions on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior. Hence, the extant literature has been reviewed to address and explain all variables and their relationship—following the same aforementioned dual approach.

Aware of the controversy surrounding gender parity actions, and consequently the individual's attitudes towards them, we believe that a contextualization of affirmative action and gender equity initiatives is mandatory. Therefore, we start introducing, defining, and contextualizing both constructs with extant literature. Afterwards, a thorough revision of the potential antecedents of such attitudes—social dominance orientation and status threat—and their outcome—job satisfaction—is presented, concluding the first model proposed. The subsequent sections are dedicated to scrutinizing those variables influencing organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, we begin by defining and contextualization the latter, moving to discuss the existing literature on the formers. Finally, a summary of all hypotheses and models proposed is presented.

2.1. Affirmative Action & Gender Parity Initiatives

Conventionally understood as initiatives aimed at compensating for societal barriers that prevented minorities from having equal access to opportunities and representation (Bacchi, 2013; Pillipow, 2019); Affirmative Action (AA) comprises those plans designed to enable presence and workplace success for underrepresented groups—women included (Leslie et al., 2014; Shteynberg, Leslie, Knight, & Mayer, 2011). Likewise, Equal Opportunity (EO) policies

comprises policies, initiatives, or strategies aiming to represent excluded minorities in employment (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012). Both affirmative action (AA) and equal employment opportunity (EEO) initiatives are based on moral and legal arguments. At the same time, diversity management (DM) differs from the previous by resting on a business case argument that a diverse workforce—whenever properly managed—contributes to the organization's performance and success (Groeneveld & Verbeek, 2012; Thomas Jr., 1990).

Gender quotas, like AA, are meant to improve women's presence and representation, both in the legislature, government, and industry (Adams & Ferreira, 2009; Bacchi, 2013). Not particularly new, gender equality initiatives are central to both the UN 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (United Nations, 2015) and the European Union's Treaties (Schonard, 2019). Nonetheless, the idea of quotas for women (in politics or leadership positions) remains controversial, with both genders sustaining that "women must 'make it' according to the time-honored rules of the game because this test alone determines genuine merit" (Trimble & Arscott, 2008, p. 88).

Paradoxical results of gender parity initiatives—insofar as plans designed to enable workplace success for underrepresented groups—have been found (Leslie et al., 2014; Shteynberg et al., 2011). Such organizational actions may backfire, stigmatize members of the groups they target (women and minorities), and reduce their performance outcomes (Leslie et al., 2014). Moreover, AA tends to fall short in achieving its goals whenever they fail to give their targets a genuine opportunity to thrive (Coetzee, 2015).

Investigating perceptions of gender-based quotas on corporate boards, Wiersema and Mors' (2016) found hostility towards such AA, particularly in countries that do not hold them at the political level (Denmark and the USA). A common explanation was the belief that gender quotas might lead to the selection of unqualified women—above better-qualified men—based on gender rather than merit (Connell, 2007; Wiersema & Mors, 2016). Connell (2006) noted that whenever EEO (Equal Employment Opportunity) had been used as a tool of organizational reconstruction, resentments were found on the male side and exasperation/anger on the female side.

Moreover, the effects of such initiatives vary depending on whether these policies are viewed favorably within those potentially affected groups (He & Kaplan, 2017). A female quota would be acceptable for individuals at the organizational level insofar as being justified by a reasonable historical rationale—such as EEO policies in South Africa as amendments to apartheid—but only in the presence of such justification (Balafoutas, Davis, & Sutter, 2016; He & Kaplan, 2017). Inversely, selection practices justified under AA tend to be seen as less fair than those without justification (McMillan-Capehart, Grubb, & Herdman, 2009).

In fact, in those countries where AA at the organizational level is combined with the government's goals for gender equity (such as in Norway), not only greater gender diversity has been reached, but it also led to more professional and formal approaches to board selection; which resulted in higher support among CEOs (Wiersema & Mors, 2016). Nonetheless, rather than promoting substantive change, gendered parity initiatives are believed to create an atmosphere where women are not taken seriously (Bacchi, 2013; Pillipow, 2019).

Additionally, divergent perceptions of affirmative action (AA) in terms of merit are presented as an antecedent of attitude towards AA (Konrad & Linehan, 1995; Noble & Mears, 2000; Susskind et al., 2014; Thomas Jr., 1990; Walker, Feild, Giles, Bernerth, & Jones-Farmer, 2007). Foley and Williamson (2019) argue that implicit bias over AA could influence support for gender parity initiatives, which would explain the AA ineffectiveness in creating the cultural tipping point required for gender equality advancement. However, such a change would not be feasible without a perilous reassessment of 'merit' (Foley & Williamson, 2019). Moreover, Walker et al. (2007) imply that individuals' equity sensitivity (or the perceived unfairness of AA programs) negatively influences the perception of recruitment based on AA policies. Konrad and Linehan (1995) also indicated the role of merit issue in influencing managers' attitudes towards identity-conscious (instead of identity-blind) activities on equal employment opportunities and affirmative action programs. Noteworthy is that despite being more frequently discussed as an antecedent, merit concerns permeate every instance of AA initiatives—either as violation or correction action (Fassa, 2015; Foley & Williamson, 2019; Loosemore et al., 2011).

Furthermore, gender appeared as a moderator of such relationship (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Islam & Zilenovsky, 2011; Niederle, Segal, & Vesterlund, 2013; Oosthuizen, Tonelli, & Mayer, 2019; Reddy, Moodley, & Maharajj, 2000; Susskind et al., 2014; Zhuwao, Ngirande, Ndlovu, & Setati, 2019), further determining expectations and behaviors once AA is in place. Choi and Rainey (2014) pointed out that female employees tend to hold higher job satisfaction when companies manage diversity effectively, combined with fair procedures. Oosthuizen et al. (2019) also indicated males' tendency to feel discriminated against by female competitors whenever AA is implemented. Such findings reinforce the idea that AA can be perceived differently by individuals of different genders (Daniels, Neale, & Greer, 2017).

Concerning policies and strategies towards gender parity in corporate boards, not only do such initiatives led to the stigmatization of those individuals targeted, but also the attitude towards such AA can be equally influenced by such experiences (Casey, Skibnes, & Pringle, 2011). Thereby, Casey et al. (2011) sustain that despite successful cases in advancing numerical gender parity in boards of governance—like in the Norwegian experience—such advancements can be jeopardized if women's stigma is that they are appointed to such positions only to fulfill a legislative obligation persists.

Lastly, gender AA initiatives in management can be very controversial, with employees presenting opposite attitudes towards them (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Connell, 2006, 2007; Foley & Williamson, 2019; Wiersema & Mors, 2016). While some may actively support the use of AA policies to increase women's presence and representation, others are not supportive at all. Undeniably, attitudes towards AA can be observed in many ways, but special attention has been dedicated to variations in unhappiness with managing diversity issues (Foley & Williamson, 2019; Reddy & Parumasur, 2014). Nonetheless, to efficiently manage diversity in the workplace, a deep understanding of the influence of policies and procedures over the attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors among employees (either targeted or affected by such policies) is required (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Fassa, 2015; Foley & Williamson, 2019; Leslie et al., 2014; Soldan & Nankervis, 2014; Susskind et al., 2014).

2.1.1. Affirmative Action in Higher Education Institutions (HEI)

The struggle for equal rights, opportunities, and representation among genders is not new. Indeed, gender equity and women and girls' empowerment have gained increased attention globally over the past decades. Following this trend, gender equity in academia has become a prominent theme in higher education research (Park, 2020). The majority of studies, however, focused on affirmative action policies for admissions (Frisancho & Krishna, 2016), and as a tool to enhance diversity among students in male- or female-dominated university courses and careers (Perez, 2001). This study shall further respond to Park's (2020) recent call for research investigating "(…) the degree of the distinctive effect of academic gender quotas with diverse scopes and levels of quotas within different policy/legal frameworks. It is critical to understand how the quota effect cascades through the academic career ladder" (p.7).

Nonetheless, some attention has been paid to gender parity initiatives' effects—as affirmative action—on HEI employees' attitudes. Previous studies indicated that the mere presence of more than one woman in review committees and oversight bodies, for instance, beyond reducing isolation and tokenism, can effectively widen ideas and discussions—particularly diversity concerns (Wallon, Bendiscioli, & Garnkel, 2015). Incentives for gender equity initiatives vary considerably worldwide. In Europe, for instance, it can range from gender quota for supervisory and management boards in Portugal (Sousa & Santos, 2018), to mandatory gender parity plans for public research bodies in Spain; to comprehensive gender action plans for institutes, departments, and universities that in Germany (Wallon et al., 2015), and finally supplementary federal grants for universities in order to support gender action plans in Switzerland (Swiss National Science Foundation, 2017).

Results of such incentives (and actual plans) can vary profoundly. Gender quotas have produced significant increases in female faculty representation both at tenured and tenure-track professorship all levels. Park (2020) argues that, conversely, gender quotas did not increase women's presence at leadership and higher administrative positions (i.e., Dean, Provost, and President). Instead, gender quotas focused on entry-level faculty might fall short in achieving parity goals at all levels (Park, 2020). Nevertheless, given the organizational structure of most higher education institutions, it would be reasonable to expect the same opposite attitudes and

feelings from their employees as in an average company, which could lead to reduced performance (Pitts, 2006, 2007) and even employee dissatisfaction (Foley & Williamson, 2019).

2.2. Social Dominance Orientation

Social dominance orientation (SDO) relates to general social orientation expected to influence any behavior or attitude concerning intergroup relations (Pratto et al., 1997). Therefore, SDO research is focused on a general attitudinal orientation toward either equal or hierarchical intergroup relations (Duckitt & Sibley, 2010; Ho et al., 2012; Pratto et al., 2006, 1997; Simmons et al., 2019). As such, SDO comprises the level of individuals' desires for group-based dominance and inequality (Pratto et al., 2006; Simmons et al., 2019). In this approach, "members of dominant arbitrary-set groups are expected to have higher levels of SDO than members of subordinate groups because they want to sustain the privileged access to social and economic resources that their dominant position affords" (Pratto et al., 2006, p. 288).

As a predictor of intergroup attitudes, social dominance orientation explains the social-psychological processes that create and perpetuate group inequality (Ho et al., 2012; Pratto et al., 2006, 1997). A high SDO indicates a tendency to value hierarchical relationships among groups, while a low SDO indicates an orientation toward equal intergroup relations (Pratto et al., 2006, 1997). Gender differences in SDO levels might also explain variations in organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) via support towards affirmative action (AA) for gender parity (Simmons et al., 2019). Indeed, Pratto et al. (1997) imply that men are higher SDO holders than women, tending to favors hierarchical intergroup relations (Pratto et al., 1997). Inversely, women (low SDO holders) would favor programs promoting equal rights. In short, differences in SDO levels among genders explain variations in support toward programs promoting equal rights; and this difference stems from the gender difference in general support for group equality (Levin, 2004; Pratto et al., 1997).

Conversely, as proposed by Simmons et al. (2019), women with high SDO can both hold negative attitude toward other women manager (as in Kuwait) or positive attitudes towards them (as in the United States)—it could vary due to cultural and political influences. Thereby, there

are reasons to anticipate that attitudes towards gender parity initiatives can indeed be affected by the individual's orientation in terms of group inequality—social dominance orientation or SDO (Ho et al., 2012; Leslie et al., 2014; Pratto et al., 2006, 1997; Susskind et al., 2014). That, in turn, further sustains this study's first hypothesis:

H1 - Social dominance orientation negatively influences attitudes towards gender parity initiatives.

2.3. Status Threat

Beyond a personally ascribed characteristic, status can not only be contested and negotiated but also reinforced through interpersonal interactions (Bendersky & Hays, 2012). As a scarce social resource in organizations, the aim for 'status' may lead to increased competition, which, in turn, creates status threat (ST) concerns among those who already hold it (e.g., leaders) (Bendersky & Hays, 2012). Hence, instead of fixed, status can be performed in everyday interactions (Sauder, 2005), and such fluidity ignites the fear of 'status loss' that leads to ST. Rather than a real loss, ST relates to a perception of the potential risk of losing status (Kellogg, 2012; Major, Blodorn, & Blascovich, 2018; Zhang et al., 2018).

Authors somewhat diverge on the outcomes of ST in employee's attitudes and behavior. Oosthuizen et al. (2019), for instance, argue that despite understanding gender parity initiatives' purposes, both male and female employees present negative attitudes towards it. Particularly when believing that such practices are discriminative against their gender and threaten their actual 'position' (Daniels et al., 2017; Graves & Powell, 1994; Leslie et al., 2014; Oosthuizen et al., 2019; Torres-Ortega, Rialp-Criado, Rialp-Criado, & Stoian, 2015). High ST would then create stressful situations that potentialize risk-taking behavior and resistance to changes (Bothner, Kang, & Stuart, 2007; Kellogg, 2012).

Contrariwise, the positive effects of ST were also explored. The power-dependence perspective proposes a more controversial approach in which ST can encourage ethical behaviors (Zhang et al., 2018). Indeed, Zhang et al. (2018) argued that as a universal phenomenon—whenever status hierarchies are present, threat coexists—ST is believed to

encourage the leaders and subordinates in ethical behavior. Thus, status threat (ST) would push leaders to be both socially adaptable and behave ethically towards subordinates and colleagues in an attempt to protect or sustain status (Zhang et al., 2018). That, in turn, would lead to augmented motivation towards relationships among them (Zhang et al., 2018). Hereafter, the theoretical background is found to sustain a second hypothesis:

H2 - Status threat positively influences attitudes towards gender parity initiatives.

Conversely, status can play a relevant role in social inequality support (Levin, 2004; Morrison et al., 2009; Pratto et al., 1997). Morrison et al. (2009) imply that "perceptions of relative group status are a better predictor of anti-egalitarian responses to threat than are actual status differences" (p. 208). Moreover, those feelings of belonging to a high-status group would trigger inequality preferences (high SDO) (Levin, 2004; Morrison et al., 2009; Pratto et al., 1997). Essentially, those members of groups perceived as high (versus low) in status tend to be also higher in SDO (Levin, 2004; Morrison et al., 2009). Thus, similarly to high SDO (that act as a strategic response to threat for those high in status), low SDO could also be a strategic response to threat for those low in status (Morrison et al., 2009; Pratto et al., 2006). Levin (2004) summarizes it as "the higher the status of one's group, the higher one's level of SDO should be" (p. 31). This theoretical background also supports the third hypothesis:

H3 - Status threat is positively related to social dominance orientation.

Moreover, the SDO theory states that conflicts among groups may vary according to both the intergroup hierarchy and their basis for distinction (Levin, 2004). Scholars further argue that despite men holding higher SDO levels than women, gender differences in social dominance orientation do not vary as a function of the perceived status gap between men and women (Levin, 2004)—even when the perceived status gap was too little. Furthermore, the general evolutionary perspective suggests that since male reproductive success can be measured by high social status and power, SDO—as well as status threat—tend to be higher among men than among their female counterparts (Levin, 2004).

2.4. Job Satisfaction

Back in the 1950s, Brayfield and Rothe (1951) implied that job satisfaction (JS)—along with employee satisfaction—were "often equated but seldom defined" (p. 307). Yet, the scale proposed by the authors inferred 'job satisfaction' as a measurement of individual's attitudes towards their work, as an attitudinal scale that "elicits an expression of feeling towards an object" (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951, p. 307).

Thereby, job satisfaction (JS) tends to increase whenever employees value, respect, and partake in the organizational activities—including general corporate social responsibility initiatives (Hoeffler et al., 2010). By corporate social responsibility (CSR) we understand those corporative actions (or policies) aimed at positively affecting stakeholders (shareholders, employees, and community), while going beyond its economic interests (Nazir & Islam, 2019). Concerning environmental CSR initiatives, empirical studies indicated that the 'Olympic effect' (reached through sponsoring the Olympics) could boost employees' sense of organizational pride, influencing their CSR's perceptions (of the sponsor organization). That, in turn, would further increase employee's levels of identification and discretionary effort (Edwards, 2016). Studies have also associated perceived organizational support toward the environment with job satisfaction (Lamm et al., 2015). Furthermore, findings indicate that perceptions of organizational support toward sustainability can psychologically empower employees, resulting in positive implications for individuals, organizations, and the environment (Lamm et al., 2015).

In a more diverse approach, Choi and Rainey (2014) sustain that a combination of diversity management and perceived just and fair organizational procedures lead to higher employee job satisfaction. Whenever employees perceive themselves as accepted by the organization, their job satisfaction would be improved (Roberts & O'Reilly, 1979), further enhancing employees' organizational commitment (O'Reilly, Caldwell, & Barnett, 1989). Indeed, empirical research has already demonstrated that employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational performance can be enhanced by efforts to effectively manage diversity (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Pitts, 2009). Nonetheless, women were reported as holding higher job satisfaction than their counterparts whenever they perceive their

organization as managing diversity appropriately and maintaining high organizational fairness (Choi & Rainey, 2014). Based on these theoretical arguments, we postulate the following hypothesis:

H4 - Attitudes towards gender parity initiatives positively influence job satisfaction.

2.5. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Firstly understood as a category of extra-role actions (Williams & Anderson, 1991), organizational citizenship behaviors—hereafter referred as OCBs—encompasses those employees' behaviors broadly benefiting the organization (Cheema et al., 2020; Sarfraz, Qun, Abdullah, & Alvi, 2018), although not explicitly recognized by it in formal reward systems (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Recently identified as a corporate social responsibility outcome (Manika et al., 2013), OCB became a scale frequently used to measure the frequency of employee's engagement in citizenship or discretionary behaviors—not related to their job scope (Manimegalai & Baral, 2018). Additionally, gender tends to play a role in women scoring higher OCB levels than their male counterparts (Lovell et al., 1999). Although, the four dimensions of OCB (altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) (Lin, Lyau, Tsai, Chen, & Chiu, 2010; Podsakof, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Singh, Selvarajan, & Chapa, 2019) can be connected to gender stereotypes (Kidder & Parks, 2001).

Often used to investigate employee's voluntary behaviors toward the environment (Lamm et al., 2015), OCB has been widely adopted mainly due to its positive influence on both organizational turnover (Chen, Hui, & Sego, 1998) and performance (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Indeed, authors imply that those employees holding a positive perception of the company's CSR initiatives, insofar as activities aimed at turning the organization accountable for itself, shareholders, and stakeholders (Setó-Pamies, 2015) tend to respond positively to such initiatives and are more prone to engage in social behaviors or OCB (Hansen et al., 2011).

2.6. Corporate Social Responsibility Perceptions

Understood as a self-regulating business model, corporate social responsibility—hereafter shortened as CSR—allows an organization to be socially accountable not only to itself but also to its stakeholders and the environment (Setó-Pamies, 2015). As such, the CSR concept's primordial focus shall be to provide prime benefits to all stakeholders—shareholders, employees, customers, and society (Yasser, Al Mamun, & Ahmed, 2017). Corporate social responsibility stands as an umbrella term for a wide range of overlapping terms reflecting the relationship between business and society—sustainability, corporate responsibility, corporate citizenship, and corporate social responsibility (Matten & Moon, 2004; Setó-Pamies, 2015). Not only corporate bodies are increasingly facing external and stakeholder pressures to comply with sustainability norms, but CSR now constitutes a key area of compliance for publicly-listed entities also (McGuinness, Vieito, & Wang, 2017).

Despite the challenge to find a straightforward definition to CSR (Mackey, Mackey, & Barney, 2007; Wood, 2010; Zhang, Zhu, & Ding, 2013), a common theme among scholars is the idea of CSR as a reflection of "the social imperatives and the social consequences of business success" (Matten & Moon, 2008, p. 405). Therefore, the different perspectives on CSR share one same vision: the intention to balance economic, social, and environmental responsibilities (Mackey et al., 2007; Setó-Pamies, 2015). The instrumental theory, for instance, understands CSR as a means for wealth creation—enhanced profit and maximized shareholder value—hence firms that engage in socially responsible activities are commonly motivated by self-interest (particularly shareholders') (Harjoto, Laksmana, & Lee, 2015). Hitherto, CSR involves a combination of economic, legal, ethical, and philanthropic vectors (Carroll, 1991, 1999). However, the reasons for engaging in CSR remains a complex phenomenon (Miragaia, Martins, Kluka, & Havens, 2015).

Nonetheless, there is a consensus among authors that CSR's responsibilities shall respond to market forces and legal requirements while complying with social pressures to do what is right, just, and fair (Carroll, 1999; Harjoto et al., 2015). Indeed, CSR strategies, when effectively implemented, allow firms to capture sustainable competitive advantage

(McWilliams & Siegel, 2000). Thereby, corporate social responsibility (CSR) embodies those corporative actions to positively affect stakeholders while going beyond its economic interests (Nazir & Islam, 2019). Moreover, CSR became vital to corporations to satisfy stakeholders' needs and build a competitive advantage in business (Harjoto et al., 2015). More than a zero-sum game between society and business—or mere compliance—any company's CSR strategy relies upon creating shared value (Huang, 2013).

Beyond mere philanthropy or volunteering efforts, CSR activities are believed to boost morale, forging stronger bonds between employees and employers (Strategic Direction, 2018). It also comprises voluntary firm actions designed to improve environmental and social conditions (Mackey et al., 2007). CSR main drivers are commonly divided into three groups: stakeholder demands, performance, and motivation (Basu & Palazzo, 2008; Huang, 2013). Social responsibility is believed to have become a strategic tool with competitive implications and benefits for firms. Not only in terms of risk management and access to capital, but also customer relations and HR management, building the long-lasting trust of employees, consumers, and citizens—the base for sustainable business models (Setó-Pamies, 2015).

Furthermore, employees who positively perceive their organizations due to CSR activities identify strongly with the organization (social identification), influencing positive job outcomes, particularly work engagement and organizational citizenship behavior (Manimegalai & Baral, 2018). In a positive cycle, corporate reputation based on CSR activities generates 'good feelings' among employees, promotes a positive attitude, and attracts their support (Taghian et al., 2015). The main argument is that whenever employees respect, appreciate, and participate in CSR initiatives, JS increases accordingly (Hoeffler et al., 2010; Sarfraz et al., 2018). Bhattacharya et al. (2009) argue that employees' attitudes vary according to the perception of personal benefits resulting from the organization's CSR activity engagement. Sarfraz et al. (2018) recently confirmed the positive and significant correlation between employee CSR perceptions and JS in small and medium enterprises (SMEs). There are further indications that gender might influence employee's responses to CSR (Bhattacharya et al., 2009; Wehrmeyer & McNeil, 2000). Hence, theoretical support is found for another hypothesis:

H5 – CSR perceptions positively influence Job Satisfaction.

A consensus has been reached on corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives' most common outcomes among employees, being engagement, OCB, and organizational pride the most common stances (Hoeffler et al., 2010; Manimegalai & Baral, 2018; Strategic Direction, 2018; Taghian et al., 2015). Even though emotional exhaustion and intention to quit were found to be influenced by employees' perceptions of hypocrisy—triggered by inconsistent CSR initiatives (Scheidler, Edinger-Schons, Spanjol, & Wieseke, 2019)—turnover intentions were reduced, mainly influenced by CSR initiatives and organizational citizenship behavior (OCBs) (Lamm et al., 2015; Liu et al., 2014).

Nonetheless, the company's reputation on social issues can influence workers' attitudes, which accounts for the inherent relation between corporate citizenship and socially responsible work attitudes (Peterson, 2004). Thereby, employees' attitudes can be influenced not only by issues of primary importance but also as a reflex of the company's reputation in terms of CSR (Manimegalai & Baral, 2018; Peterson, 2004). Thus, companies invest in internal initiatives to increase employee's awareness of CSR results while encouraging such OCBs (Hansen et al., 2011).

Hitherto, not only the drivers for engaging in CSR remains a complex phenomenon (Miragaia et al., 2015) but also its implications in employees' perceptions and attitudes. For instance, CSR initiatives are believed to be ineffective in influencing OCBs when perceived as pure persuasion attempts by employees (Hoeffler et al., 2010). Moreover, the degree by which such stakeholder supports the focal issue of a CSR initiative—gender AA, for instance—is expected to moderate the degree to which such employee benefits from it and define the stakeholder–company relationship; and such relation thereby leads to OCBs (Bhattacharya et al., 2009). Nonetheless, recent studies with Pakistan SMEs confirmed the positive relationship between employee CSR perceptions and OCB (Sarfraz et al., 2018). Based on the abovementioned theoretical arguments, we postulate the following hypothesis:

H6 – CSR perceptions positively influence organizational citizenship behavior.

As aforesaid, employees holding positive perception of the company's CSR activities identify firmly with the organization, and such positive social identification leads to positive job outcomes, such as increased JS (Hoeffler et al., 2010), work engagement (Williams & Anderson, 1991) and OCB (Taghian et al., 2015). Prior studies have shown that job satisfaction and organizational commitment can positively influence OCB performance (Cheema et al., 2020; Williams & Anderson, 1991), confirming the connection between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior (Sarfraz et al., 2018). Indeed, job satisfaction (JS)—as a measure of workplace happiness—positively affects employees' OCB (Mousa, Massoud, & Ayoubi, 2020). Support is then found for another hypothesis of study:

H7 – Job satisfaction positively influences organizational citizenship behavior.

2.7. Organizational Commitment

Authors already postulated that whenever employees perceive themselves as accepted by the organization, their JS would be improved (Roberts & O'Reilly, 1979), which enhance their organizational commitment—henceforth shortened as OC (O'Reilly et al., 1989). Typically understood as the bond between an individual's identification with and involvement towards a particular organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974), OC has been thoroughly used as a measure of employee's work attitudes (Peterson, 2004). Indeed, Porter et al. (1974) proposed it as a measure "to discriminate better between stayers and leavers than did the various components of job satisfaction" (p. 603).

Organizational commitment is also known as the extent to which an employee (1) was fond of the organization, (2) could foresee a future tied to the organization (business unit), and (3) was keen to make personal sacrifices for it (Jaworski & Kohli, 1993; Maignan & Ferrell, 2001). Additionally, the association between corporate citizenship and OC is significant, and employees are particularly responsive to the organization's CSR efforts undertaken to meet their social responsibilities (afar those imposed by legal and ethical requirements) (Maignan & Ferrell, 2001). Indeed, employee JS, OC, and organizational performance can be enhanced by

efforts to manage diversity (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Pitts, 2009). Hence, theoretical support is found for another hypothesis:

H8 – CSR perceptions positively influence organizational commitment.

By now, it became evident the positive association between employee's CSR perceptions, organizational citizenship behavior (OCBs), and organizational commitment (OC) (Cheema et al., 2020; Manimegalai & Baral, 2018; Nazir & Islam, 2019). Thereby, employees of organizations with appropriate levels of ethnic diversity reported significantly higher levels of JS and OC (Hsiao, 2017). Prior studies have also shown that job satisfaction (JS) and organizational commitment (OC) can positively influence OCB performance (Cheema et al., 2020; Williams & Anderson, 1991), which further support another hypothesis:

H9 - Organizational commitment positively influences organizational citizenship behavior.

Moreover, Peterson (2004) implies that the relationship between corporate citizenship and organizational commitment is enhanced by the employee's CSR perception—particularly among those highly aware and supportive of businesses' CSR. Nevertheless, the effects of CSR on employee's perceptions and attitudes can be equally diversified. As aforesaid, positive perceptions of the company's CSR activities lead to increased JS (Hoeffler et al., 2010), work engagement (OC) (Williams & Anderson, 1991), and OCB (Taghian et al., 2015). Mousa et al. (2020), however, argue that employees' job satisfaction leads to positive OCB whenever they hold positive CSR perceptions through diversity management (DM). Nonetheless, job satisfaction (JS) and organizational commitment (OC) are believed to positively influence variances in OCB performance (Cheema et al., 2020; Williams & Anderson, 1991), which provide theoretical support for this study's two last hypotheses:

H10 - Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between CSR and organizational citizenship behavior.

H11 - Organizational commitment mediates the relationship between CSR and organizational citizenship behavior.

2.8. Models

The main goal of this study is to investigate what influences employee's attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI) and their effects on job satisfaction (JS) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Henceforth, it followed a twofold approach. The first study investigates the role of individual orientation towards inequality (SDO) and status threat (ST) in influencing employees' attitudes towards gender parity initiatives and its effect on job satisfaction (JS), as described in Figure 1.

Figure 1 – Conceptual Model Study 1: The Influence of Status Threat and Social Dominance Orientation on Attitudes towards Gender Parity initiatives and Job Satisfaction
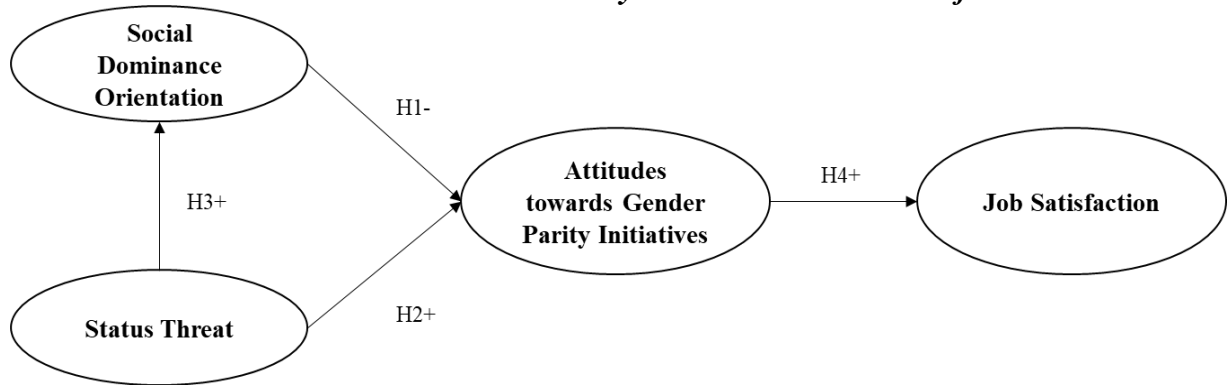
The second study analyzes the influence of CSR perceptions on job satisfaction (JS), organizational commitment (OC), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) among HEI employees in Portugal (illustrated in figure 2).

Figure 2 – Conceptual Model Study 2 – The Influence of CSR perceptions on Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

Finally, Table I summarizes all the hypotheses described by the conceptual models presented above.

Table I. Summary of Hypotheses

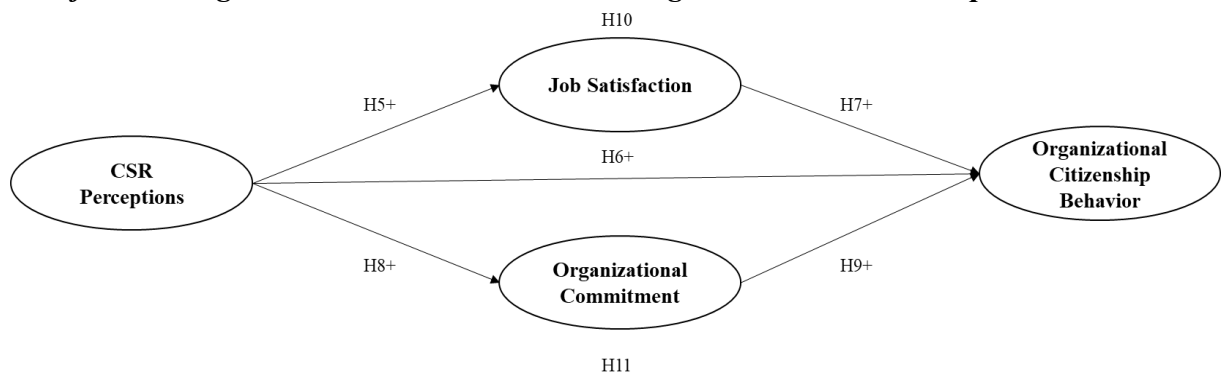| Hypothesis	Description
H1-	Social dominance orientation negatively influences attitudes towards gender parity initiatives
H2+	Status threat positively influences attitudes towards gender parity initiatives
H3+	Status threat is positively related to social dominance orientation
H4+	Attitudes towards gender parity initiatives positively influence job satisfaction
H5+	CSR perceptions positively influence job satisfaction
H6+	CSR perceptions positively influence organizational citizenship behavior
H7+	Job satisfaction positively influences organizational citizenship behavior
H8+	CSR perceptions positively influence organizational commitment
H9+	Organizational commitment positively influences organizational citizenship behavior
H10	Job satisfaction mediates the relationship between CSR and organizational citizenship behavior
H11	Organizational commitment mediates the relationship between CSR and organizational citizenship behavior

3. Methodology

This study is about attitudes toward gender parity initiatives in higher education institutions (HEI) and explanations for variations in such attitudes. The prime objective is to appropriately respond to the research question—*What influences attitudes towards gender parity initiatives and OCBs amongst employees?* Thus, it investigates the phenomena through a two-fold approach. Firstly, testing the effects of social dominance orientation (SDO) and status threat (ST) on influencing attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI). Secondly, it scrutinizes the influence of corporate social responsibility (CSR), job satisfaction (JS), and organizational commitment (OC) on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The main hypotheses were that in an inversely proportional relationship SDO and ST affect support for gender parity initiatives (the lower SDO/ST the higher AGPI), which positively affect JS; while CSR, JS, and OC directly affect OCBs. Hence the individual hypotheses previously described are derived from those main arguments. The following sections describe the methodology used and the paradigm, research design, and techniques chosen to sustain the study's validity and reliability.

3.1. Paradigm

Discussions about Affirmative Action (AA) in management—such as the use of quotas for gender parity—can be traced back to the 1970s, and the choice of the methodology used can be as controversial as the topic itself. Research in AA over the past 30 years has been balanced between empirical and conceptual approaches. Quantitative analysis—under the positivist paradigm mainly focused on causality and law-like generalizations (Wahyuni, 2012)—are slightly more common (see i.e., Leslie et al., 2014; Naff & Kellough, 2003; Pitts, 2006; Choi & Rainey, 2014) when compared to qualitative studies (see i.e., Ng, Booysen, Christiansen, & Kuvaas, 2016; Foley & Williamson, 2019; Maphunye, 2006; Gilbert, Stead, & Ivancevich, 1999).

Given the recurrent call for greater diversity in management research and practice— moved by the increasing concern about fairness, ethical responsibility, and greater diversity

(Cummings & Bridgman, 2016)—both the development of innovative theory and testing of existing theory through novel questions and deeper contextualization is demanded. Yet, scholars agree that the paradigm choice is essentially based on the researcher's presumptions that are neither tested on empirical or logical grounds (Sobh & Perry, 2006).

Aiming to investigate the antecedents of attitudes towards affirmative action for gender parity (through CSR initiatives), this study starts from the postpositivist paradigm, in which social phenomena (or the reality) can be reduced to simpler elements, that statistically tested can be generalized to different contexts (Wahyuni, 2012). Still, the assumption of absolute truth is confronted, acknowledging that reality—and the observable phenomena—can be framed in specific contexts and derived from social conditioning (Wahyuni, 2012). It is noteworthy that every research paradigm can be distinguished by two main philosophical dimensions: ontology and epistemology. The former is related to the nature of knowledge (or how one perceives reality), while the latter comprises the development of that knowledge (Wahyuni, 2012).

The postpositivist paradigm choice in this paper took into consideration those two dimensions. Quite close to positivism (most logical and rational paradigm), which understands reality as 'real and apprehensible', the postpositivist paradigm share the ontology of research-based on facts and the epistemology that implies a researcher to be both objective and observer of the reality (Sobh & Perry, 2006). Indeed, this study refrain from discussing the subjective values of anyone's behavior or the validity of gender parity initiates in higher education institutions (HEI). Instead, it tested the individual's answers in the Portuguese context, which has experienced initiatives towards gender parity in both public and private institutions (Sousa & Santos, 2018). The objective is to verify a causal connection between dependent and independent variables. A deductive approach comprising a quantitative study with closed questions survey allowed data compilation and analysis in an objective and non-spurious perspective.

Largely used in management research, the positivist paradigm assumes that reality can be measured through a value-free (one way) mirror (Sobh & Perry, 2006). However, the paradigm faces some objection when it comes to social sciences and the study of complex

phenomena such as marketing and management. The main argument is that contrary to expected in value-free methods, replication of positivism research would fail to produce the same results as the prior research (Hubbard & Armstrong, 1994). Nonetheless, replication is vital for advancing science (making it possible to assess the validity, reliability, and generalizability of empirical findings) and must be exercised to enhance marketing and management's scientific status (Hubbard & Armstrong, 1994).

This study aims to contribute to solving the dilemma as mentioned earlier, performing a theory-testing investigation under the drivers of the positivist paradigm (objectivity, statistical tests, and value-free method) that would lead to the increased validity and reliability of marketing and management research. Finally, the quantitative methodology proposed, as the model conducting this research process within the postpositivist paradigm (Wahyuni, 2012), corroborates the strategy of creating knowledge through theory testing. Table II summarizes the fundamental beliefs of research paradigms in social sciences, highlighting the paradigm choices described above.

Table II. Research Paradigms Comparison

Fundaments	Positivism	Postpositivism	Interpretivism / Constructivism	Pragmatism
Ontology *The nature of reality is…*	external, real, objective, apprehensible, and independent of actors	objective, the reality is independent of human thoughts but is interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist)	subjective, multiple, and socially constructed	external, multiple, most adequate view is chosen to reach an answer to the research question
Epistemology *Acceptable knowledge is achieved when…*	the researcher is objective; reality is viewed through a 'one-way mirror', focus on causality and law-like reductions, value-free. Only observable phenomena provide credible data (findings are true).	the researcher is focused on explaining reality within a context or contexts. Only observable phenomena provide credible data (findings are true).	the researcher is participant and focused on the details of the context, including the reality behind these details such as meanings and actions motivations (findings are created)	the researcher is focused on practical applied research and integrates different perspectives to analyze data. Both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge (findings are probably true).
Methodology	Mainly quantitative methods (survey, experiments), theory testing, and verification of hypotheses	Quantitative or Qualitative	Qualitative	Mixed or Multi-method

Source: adapted from Sobh & Perry (2006) and Wahyuni, (2012)

3.2. Research Design

Regardless of the research's nature—political studies or consumer behavior—if the research is well designed and operationalized, the study's reliability and validity are assured. Consequently, knowledge is improved. The other way around is also accurate. Developing research with blur or fluctuating concepts or using inappropriate samples may lead to loss of internal validity and compromise any study's external validity (Gerring, 1984). Once established the research paradigm and methodology, it becomes necessary to define the research methods to be used—which ought to be connected to the methodology while properly addressing both the research question and hypotheses defined (Wahyuni, 2012). This study employed a quantitative method in a single case study (survey) in which the theory on ST, SDO, JS, OC, and OCB were tested through the verification of the hypotheses proposed above.

Case studies are quite frequent among scholars (Haq, 2012; Maleka & Rankhumise, 2014; Oosthuizen et al., 2019; Soldan & Nankervis, 2014) in an attempt to investigate affirmative action as a real-life contemporary phenomenon (Yin, 2003). This research method is widely used to investigate contemporary phenomena in their natural context (Wahyuni, 2012; Yin, 2003), and ideally involve research questions on *why* and *how* forms, followed by no control over the contemporary (instead of historical) events being studied (Wahyuni, 2012). It is noteworthy that despite not precisely fitting the ideal form of a question, this study can potentially qualify as somewhat explaining how attitudes can be influenced and the most influential factors of such behavior in the particular and contemporary context of higher education. Single case studies are also valuable in explaining a presumed causal link between variables under scrutiny (Mariotto, Zanni, & Moraes, 2014; Yin, 2003).

Hence, to establish the cause-effect relationship between the literature variables, a quantitative exploratory study was conducted. Through a deductivist approach, hypotheses of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables were tested to identify the most influential antecedents in support for gender parity initiatives (AGPI) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB).

Previously tested scales were used to assure the validity and reliability of the study. The scales had to be adapted to both adequate to the Portuguese's higher education institutions (HEI) context and effectively translate the same feelings and perceptions in the Portuguese language. Therefore, all scale items were first translated from English to Portuguese, adapted to the HEI context, and to cover gender affirmative action specifically. The adapted questionnaire was then scrutinized in a panel of six academics and professors from public and private universities. This final version of the questionnaire was transformed into an online survey comprising 69 closed questions around all variables and demographic background (the complete version of the questionnaire, items, and supporting scales is available in Appendix I).

Finally, internet-based surveys built with multiple questions provide high reliability to the survey as logic and validity checks can be built-in, even in 'other – please state' responses (Malhotra & Birks, 2009). The web-based questionnaire also eliminates any potential interviewer bias. The scales' items corresponding to the negative form questions were reversed before proceeding with any statistical procedure.

3.3. Metrics and Scales

Under the postpositivist paradigm and through a deductivist approach, the relationship variables' hypotheses were tested to identify the antecedents of most influence in attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). All dependent and independent variables are described in the following sections, along with the controls, metrics, and scales to be used to test their influence on each relationship effectively.

3.3.1. Dependent Variables

In the absence of a previously tested scale precisely measuring *attitudes towards gender parity initiatives*, Sidanius, Pratto, and Bobo's (1996) 4-item *affirmative action attitude scale* had been adapted to include 'women' as the object of AA. A high score represented *support for gender parity initiatives* (Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1996). The Cronbach's alpha value for the original Sidanius' et al. (1996) scale was .63, which despite slightly lower than the .70 recommended by Nunnally (1975), is considered moderated reliability (Hinton, Brownlow, &

McMurray, 2004). There is considerable debate around the ideal cut-off for reliability. Nevertheless, some agreement is found on the adequacy of Cronbach's alpha values ranging from .5 to .7, as showing moderate reliability; especially when working with short scales (less than five items) (Hair, Black, Barry, & Anderson, 2010; Hinton et al., 2004; Malhotra & Birks, 2009).

To measure the *organizational citizenship behavior*, Lin's et al. (2010) 20-items OCB scale was adopted. Originally developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) and Morrison (1994) these items are used to measure individuals' citizenship behavior within the organization, via five dimensions: altruism ($\alpha = .87$), conscientiousness ($\alpha = .81$), sportsmanship ($\alpha = .86$), courtesy ($\alpha = .86$), and civic virtue ($\alpha = .78$) (Lin et al., 2010). The Cronbach's alpha value for all dimensions was higher than the .70 recommended by Nunnally (1975), indicating good internal consistency. Similarly, a high score would represent *positive organizational citizenship behavior.*

3.3.2. Independent Variable

To measure *social dominance orientation,* Pratto, Sidanius, and Levin's (2006) 16-item SDO had been used, in which a high score represented *individual orientation towards inequality.* The original 16-item SDO scale showed good internal reliability ($\alpha = .83$)—Cronbach's alpha higher than the .70 recommended by Nunnally (1975), confirming its adequacy to the study.

Pointing towards measuring *status threat,* Zhang's et al. (2018) status threat and power dependence 8-item scale was adapted. Item ST_1 "Some colleagues do not agree with my promotion" was excluded after the panel scrutiny since it did not fit the Portuguese HEI structure of career progression. The adapted scale measured the individual level of status conflict in a two-way manifestation: (1) an actor challenges the status of others, and (2) others challenge the status of the actor (Zhang et al., 2018). The first presented satisfactory internal reliability ($\alpha = .71$), while the latter showed good internal reliability ($\alpha = .80$). Nevertheless, both were higher than the .70 recommended by Nunnally (1975). A high score would indicate a *high fear of status loss* or *status threat.*

Job satisfaction, on the other hand, was measured through Cammann's et al. (1983) full 3-items scale, which recently recorded coefficient alpha values for .93 (Lamm et al., 2015), also higher than the .70 recommended by Nunnally (1975). Likewise, high scores indicated *positive job satisfaction*.

Corporate social responsibility perceptions measured how employees perceive the company's CSR activities. It comprised responses to a 12-item scale adapted from Maignan and Ferrell's (2001)—previously developed to measure perceived corporate citizenship. Recently used to measure employee's CSR perception, the scale recorded a coefficient alpha value of .80 (Sarfraz et al., 2018). Five items were excluded after the panel with specialists to be fully adequate to the Portuguese context. Nonetheless, the Cronbach's alpha value for all dimensions was higher than the .70 recommended by Nunnally (1975), indicating good internal consistency. Similarly, a high score represented *positive perceptions* of the institution's CSR initiatives.

Finally, *organizational commitment* was measured through a 4-item scale adapted from O'Reilly and Chatman's (1986) original 20-item scale. In a previous adaptation of the same organizational commitment scale, Williams and Anderson (1991) tested a 12-item scale reaching Cronbach's alpha value of .91, which was higher than the .70 recommended by Nunnally (1975), further indicating great internal consistency. Once again, high scores indicated *positive* or *strong organizational commitment* among HEI employees.

Table III summarizes the variables' descriptions and their coding forms and proxies used during data analysis.

Table III. Dependent, independent, and control variables

Variable	Description	Coding	Proxy
Dependent Variables			
DV1 **Attitudes towards gender parity initiatives**	measures the level of support for gender parity initiatives	**5-point Likert Scale** 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = strongly agree	AGPI
DV2 **Organizational citizenship behavior**	measures to what extent the employee engages in citizenship or discretionary behaviors within their organization	**5-point Likert Scale** 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = strongly agree	OCB
Independent Variables			
Social dominance orientation	indicates a tendency to value either hierarchical or equal intergroup relationships	**5-point Likert Scale** 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = strongly agree	SDO
Status threat	measures the level of the perceived or potential risk of losing status	**5-point Likert Scale** 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = strongly agree	ST_PERCEP
Job satisfaction	measure to what degree the employee is satisfied with present work	**5-point Likert Scale** 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = strongly agree	JOB_SAT
Corporate social responsibility perceptions	measures the employee's perceptions around the company's CSR activities or its corporate citizenship	**5-point Likert Scale** 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = strongly agree	CSR_PERCEP
Organizational Commitment	measures the bond between an individual's identification with and involvement towards the organization	**5-point Likert Scale** 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = somewhat disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = somewhat agree, 5 = strongly agree	COMMIT
Control Variable			
Gender	gender that respondents self-identify	**Binary variable** 0 = male, 1 = female	GENDER

3.4. Data Collection

Among the 'must-haves' of any research to assure the validity of its findings, sample selection plays an important role (Adcock & Collier, 2001). Therefore, being aware of bias risks when planning the sample selection reduces the chances of getting unrepresentative results (Hug, 2003). This study's unit of analysis is the individual; hence, a convenience sample of higher education institutions' employees—limited to professors and researchers of both universities and polytechnic institutions—had been used, as they fairly represent the universe

of organizations' employees. The convenience sample combined public and private higher education institutions (HEI) to achieve heterogeneity of participants and institutions while mitigating sample bias.

Therefore, invitations to partake in the investigation were sent via e-mail to professors and researchers of 12 universities and 12 polytechnic institutes in Portugal (a complete list of HEI is presented in Appendix II). Data was collected from HEI employees in Portugal between June 24th and August 10th, 2020.

The survey was divided into eight parts: the first explored individual attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI), followed by a second part about the individual's orientation towards equal or hierarchical relationships among groups (SDO). The third section comprised questions on status threat—or fear of 'status loss' (ST), and the fourth encompassed items aimed at measuring the level of job satisfaction among respondents (JS). Section five then focused on organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB), followed by the sixth section over the individual commitment towards the organization (OC), and finally a seventh section comprising the individual's perceptions over the company's corporate social responsibility (CSR) initiatives. The last section contained sociodemographic questions, with a total of 69 questions. All questions—except the sociodemographic ones—comprised answers using a 5-point Likert scale, which allows for both direction measuring (if the respondent agrees or disagrees) and intensity ('strongly', 'partially', or not) (Albaum, 1997). In this case, responses ranged from 1 - totally disagree to 5 - totally agree.

As aforesaid, the main hypotheses are that in an inversely proportional relationship social dominance orientation and status threat affects support for gender parity initiatives, while CSR perceptions, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment directly affect organizational citizenship behavior. To that matter, the analysis was focused on the responses of current higher education institutions' employees, that self-identify as 'woman' and 'man', considering not the biological gender, but gender identity instead ('other' answers cases were dismissed to avoid spurious data).

An Internet-based survey built with multiple questions had been used because its ability provides high reliability as logic and validity checks can be built-in, even in 'other – please state' responses (Malhotra & Birks, 2009). The web-based questionnaire also eliminates any potential interviewer bias. The survey was developed using the SurveyMonkey© platform, which allowed the online data collection and compilation into a final database (SurveyMonkey, 2020). All the information automatically grouped into the database was downloaded for further analysis. Statistical tests took place with the use of SPSS and SmartPLS to verify the relationship among variables. The following section describes the techniques and tests performed in data analysis.

3.5. Data Analysis

To analyze the data, both the software Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 26.0 was used, along with PLS-SEM (Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling), through the software SmartPLS 3.0 (v. 3.3.2). First and foremost, both models' consistency was checked. Therefore, reliability analysis (to validate the scales) and Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was employed.

The normal distribution of data was assessed before the hypotheses' tests. Normality can be assumed once skewness and kurtosis values are all below the thresholds set by Kline (2015)—skewness values do not exceed the absolute value of three and no kurtosis values above the absolute value of ten (Kline, 2015). According to Curran, West, and Finch (1996), to prove the sample's severe non-normality, the skewness values should be under two, and kurtosis values should be under seven (in absolute value). When considering the complete sample, the severe non-normality could not be rejected (as indicated in Appendix II) (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996).

Due to the study's sample size, along with the complexity and predictive nature of the model, the SEM PLS approach seemed appropriated (Hair, Hult, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2013). Indeed, this study's non-normal data and theoretical framework, yet at an early stage of

development, made the Structural Equation Modeling even more appropriate to test and validate the exploratory models (Chin, 2010).

Each model's internal consistency and reliability was assessed using Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. The α coefficient can vary from 0 to 1, being a 0.6 value or less generally indicating unsatisfactory internal consistency reliability (Malhotra & Birks, 2009). Nunnally (1975) recommends a Cronbach's alpha higher than the .70 as indicating good internal consistency, with values ranging from .50 to .70 with only one presenting a α coefficient slightly above .60 as an indication of moderated reliability (Hair, Black, Barry, & Anderson, 2010; Hinton, Brownlow, & McMurray, 2004; Malhotra & Birks, 2009). Findings suggested a good internal consistency of the scales used.

The Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) employed in this study aimed at analyzing the relationship between variables, comparing the results with theory (although not measuring their adjustment to a model). The main goal was to identify a pattern of correlations between items by analyzing the Keyser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) values (Pestana & Gageiro, 2014). As a sampling adequacy measure, the KMO ranges from 0 to 1, with high values (between 0.5 and 1.0) indicating the factor analysis's appropriateness (Malhotra & Birks, 2009). Despite the general rule of thumb for values greater than 0.5 as desirable, Pestana and Gageiro (2014) consider values ranging from 0.50 to 0.60 as weak and below .50 as unacceptable.

T-tests were also used to compare means amongst different groups. As a parametric test (based on the t-student distribution), the t-test compares the means of two different samples of individuals for the same items (Pestana & Gageiro, 2014).

Moreover, consistent PLS bootstrapping was used to assess the PLS estimates' precision and further support the hypotheses tested. As basic settings, 1000 sample sets were created to obtain estimates for each parameter in the PLS model, with casewise deletion for missing values. Each new sample was obtained by a re-sample process and replacement of the original data set (Chin, 1998; Fornell & Larcker, 1981). Path coefficients (interpreted similarly to standardized β) indicated the strength of the direct relationship between constructs. The t-statistics for path

coefficients were also analyzed to confirm the confidence intervals and significance level (Efron & Tibshirani, 1994; Hair et al., 2013).

Furthermore, differences by gender were investigated through multigroup analysis. Finally, the two measurement models were evaluated, considering reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. As aforementioned, the models were tested and analyzed separately, as presented below.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Sample characterization

A total of 1012 questionnaires were collected, with an average of 70% completion rate. Therefore, a final sample of 709 valid observations was analyzed, slightly above the thumb rule on ten observations per parameter as the minimum required sample size (Ockey & Choi, 2015; Raykov & Marcoulides, 2006). The sample also supersedes the ten times rule for PLS-SEM, which states that the sample should be (at least) equal to 10 times the largest number of structural paths directed at a particular construct in the structural model (Hair et al., 2013), which is 70 in the present study. Therefore, the quality and appropriateness of the PLS-SEM technique were assured study.

Respondents were majorly female (59.9%), married (51.8%), and between 45-54 years old (34.3%). In terms of education level, those holding a Doctoral Degree (Ph.D.) were also the majority (60.5%), followed by those holding a master's degree (13.7%)—which is consistent with the sample of professors and researchers of HEI. In professional terms, respondents were majorly connected to universities (75.5%) rather than polytechnic institutions (24.5%), mainly professors (74.2%), being the most common professional categories, subsequently: assistant professor (28.9%), adjunct professor (20.2%), and invited assistant professor (12.3%). Academic and research orientation was also a consensus among respondents (64.7%).

As presented in Table IV, respondents were neutral to somewhat supportive for gender parity initiatives (AGPI), presenting lower levels of orientation towards hierarchical relations or

inequality among groups, while neutral when it concerns the fear of losing status (ST_PERCEP). Additionally, Portuguese professors and researchers, as employees of HEI, were found highly satisfied with their work (JOB_SAT), committed towards the organization (COMMIT), and neutral to somewhat positively perceiving their organizations' CSR activities (CSR_PERCEP). Concerning the engagement in citizenship or discretionary behaviors (OCB), respondents also reported frequently engaging in such behaviors.

Table IV. Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
AGPI	1012	3.5020	1.03052
SDO	899	1.4459	0.66864
ST_PERCEP	826	3.2465	0.94814
JOB_SAT	807	4.4418	0.77593
CSR_PERCEP	737	3.4266	0.83793
COMMIT	755	3.9036	0.78556
OCB	782	4.1698	0.60048

Note: Minimum 1 and Maximum 5

As aforementioned, the normal distribution of data was assessed before the hypotheses' tests. Normality cannot be assumed once skewness and kurtosis values were not all below the thresholds set by Kline (2015)—skewness values < 3.0 and kurtosis values < 10 (Kline, 2015). As indicated in Appendix II, the severe non-normality could not be rejected (Curran et al., 1996). Nonetheless, PLS-SEM was applied to test and validate the exploratory models, considering this study's non-normal data (Chin, 2010). Given the scales used to measure this study's latent variables (in both models), which comprised items tested in previous studies, two path analyses were performed—one for each model—to assess the nature and scope of data.

4.2. Exploratory Factorial Analysis

4.2.1. Attitudes towards Gender Parity Initiatives

The EFA results for AGPI has shown good Cronbach's Alpha and KMO. The total variance explained, although it was slightly below the recommended (above 60%), with AAS_3_REV communality also lower than the 0.5 minimum proposed by Hair et al. (1995) (Table V).

Table V. EFA for AGPI

		Communalities
AAS_1_REV	Affirmative actions for women are (NOT) unfair to men	.551
AAS_2	Affirmative action in education offers opportunities to qualified women who would not have opportunities without these initiatives	.535
AAS_3_REV	Affirmative action for women at universities may (NOT) force employers to hire people with short curricula	.428
AAS_4	Affirmative action for women in organizations helps to ensure that the economy and the labor market remain competitive	.617
	KMO	*.633*
	Total Variance Explained	*56.249%*
	Cronbach's alpha	*0.703*

Note:
_REV indicates reverse coded items

4.2.2. Social Dominance Orientation

The EFA results for SDO revealed good Cronbach's Alpha and KMO. However, the total variance explained was well below the recommended, with SDO_1, SDO_3, SDO_9_REV, SDO_11_REV, SDO_14_REV, and SDO_16_REV presenting communalities lower than the 0.5 minimum proposed by Hair et al. (1995) (Table VI).

Table VI. EFA for Social Dominance Orientation

		Communalities
SDO_1	Some gender groups are valued more than others	.366
SDO_2	To achieve what your gender group wants, sometimes drastic measures are needed against another gender group	.643
SDO_3	It is acceptable for some gender groups to have more opportunities in life than other gender groups	.370
SDO_4	In order to progress in life, it is sometimes necessary to overcome other gender groups	.539
SDO_5	If certain gender groups remained in place, we would have less problems	.515
SDO_6	It is acceptable for some gender groups to be at the top and other gender groups to be at the bottom	.506
SDO_7	Lower gender groups must remain in place	.526
SDO_8	Sometimes other gender groups must be kept in place	.666
SDO_9_REV	It would be nice if all gender groups could (NOT) be equal	.413
SDO_10_REV	Equality of gender groups should (NOT) be our ideal	.616
SDO_11_REV	Both men and women should (NOT) have the same opportunities in life	.411
SDO_12_REV	All should do everything possible to (NOT) equalize conditions between different gender groups	.639
SDO_13_REV	We should (NOT) increase social equality	.570
SDO_14_REV	We would have less problems if we (DID NOT) treat different gender groups more equally	.400
SDO_15_REV	We must strive (NOT) to make income more equitable between different gender groups	.506
SDO_16_REV	No gender group should (NOT) dominate in society	.338
	KMO	*.862*
	Total Variance Explained	*28.997%*
	Cronbach's alpha	*0.726*

Note:
_REV indicates reverse coded items

4.2.3. Status Threat

The EFA results for status threat (ST_PERCEP) have shown good Cronbach's Alpha and KMO. The total variance explained was slightly below the recommended, with ST_2, and ST_4, communalities lower than the 0.5 minimum proposed by Hair et al. (1995) (Table VII).

Table VII. EFA for Status Threat

		Communalities
ST_2	Some colleagues may take sides to challenge my position/status	.419
ST_3	Other colleagues compete with me to gain more influence	.647
ST_4	I need to do more to protect my status in the organization	.446
ST_5	I feel that some colleagues come together to challenge my status in the organization	.627
ST_6	I feel that my job performance is threatened by other colleagues	.606
ST_7	Some colleagues compete with me to increase their influence/status in the organization	.696
ST_8	I feel that some colleagues do not agree with the value of my performance in the organization	.505
	KMO	***.872***
	Total Variance Explained	***56.386%***
	Cronbach's alpha	***0.869***

4.2.4. Job Satisfaction

Regarding job satisfaction (JOB_SAT), the EFA results indicated good Cronbach's Alpha and KMO. The total variance explained was slightly above the 60% recommended, and with none of the items presenting communalities lower than the 0.5 minimum proposed by Hair et al. (1995) (Table VIII).

Table VIII. EFA for Job Satisfaction

		Communalities
JS_1	All things considered, I am satisfied with my work	.687
JS_2_REV	Generally, I (DO) appreciate my work	.571
JS_3	In general, I like to work here (my work)	.688
	KMO	***.669***
	Total Variance Explained	***64.882%***
	Cronbach's alpha	***0.727***

Note:
REV indicates reverse coded items

4.2.5. Corporate Social Responsibility Perceptions

The EFA results for CSR perceptions have shown good Cronbach's Alpha and KMO. The total variance explained was slightly below the recommended, although all items presented communalities above the minimum proposed by Hair et al. (1995) (Table IX).

Table IX. EFA for CSR Perceptions

		Communalities
CSR_3	Institutional office heads seek to comply with laws and regulations	.619
CSR_4	Institutional officer heads seek to comply with laws and regulations	.764
CSR_6	The institutional leaders establish long-term strategies for the organization	.802
CSR_8	We have programs that encourage the diversity of our work team	.799
CSR_10	Our organization members follow high performance standards	.769
CSR_11	Our organization encourages employees to join civic community support organizations	.719
CSR_12	This organization's flexible policies allow employees to better coordinate their personal-professional lives	.699
	KMO	*.881*
	Total Variance Explained	*54.940%*
	Cronbach's alpha	*0.863*

4.2.6. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

The EFA results for Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) have shown good Cronbach's Alpha and KMO. However, the total variance explained was well below the recommended, with all items except OCB_18 presenting communalities lower than the 0.5 minimum proposed by Hair et al. (1995) (Table X).

Table X. EFA for Organizational Citizenship Behavior

		Communalities
OCB_1	I help colleagues who were absent	.362
OCB_2	I help colleagues with high workload	.341
OCB_3	I help guide new colleagues, even if I'm not asked	.349
OCB_4	I gladly help other colleagues who have work-related problems	.377
OCB_5	I don't use my work time for personal calls	.003
OCB_6	I don't get involved in unrelated conversations about work matters	.005
OCB_7	I come to work early, or work overtime if necessary	.160
OCB_8	I obey the organization's rules and regulations, even when I'm not being observed	.241
OCB_9_REV	I often (DO NOT) spend a lot of time complaining about trivial matters	.053
OCB_10_REV	I often (DO NOT) focus on what's wrong, instead of seeing the positive side of things	.059
OCB_11_REV	I have the habit of (NOT) making 'storms in a teacup'	.094
OCB_12_REV	I often see flaws in what the organization is doing	.004
OCB_13	I try to avoid creating problems for my co-workers	.059
OCB_14	I consider the impact of my actions on co-workers	.234
OCB_15	I get involved in voluntary activities	.241
OCB_16	I help organize meetings / meetings between colleagues	.346
OCB_17	I attend events that are not mandatory, but that help the image of the organization	.363
OCB_18	I monitor changes in the organization	.528
OCB_19	I read and follow the organization's announcements, memos and so on	.354
OCB_20	I often evaluate what is best for the organization	.402
	KMO	*.829*
	Total Variance Explained	*22.868%*
	Cronbach's alpha	*0.752*

Note:
_REV indicates reverse coded items

4.2.7. Organizational Commitment

The EFA results for organizational commitment (COMMIT) presented good Cronbach's Alpha and KMO. The total variance explained was above the recommended, with only OC_5 presenting communalities lower than the 0.5 minimum proposed by Hair et al. (1995) (Table XI).

Table XI. EFA for ST_PERCEP

		Communalities
OC_4	My attachment to this university is based mainly on the similarity of my values and those represented by the organization	.637
OC_5	This organization is important to me	.727
OC_6	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization	.767
OC_7	I have a feeling of 'empowerment' in this organization	.409
	KMO	*.748*
	Total Variance Explained	*63.475%*
	Cronbach's alpha	*0.869*

To properly analyze the models, we first assessed the adequacy of the measures. Therefore, the reliability of the individual measures, the constructs' convergent and discriminant validity were evaluated (Hulland, 1999). Hence, to assess each item's reliability, the loadings on its corresponding construct were examined. We assumed loadings above 0.55 as reliable, following more stringent cut-offs (0.32 – poor, 0.45 – fair, 0.55 – good, 0.63 – very good, 0.71 – excellent) (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A total of twelve items were excluded in Model 1 and fifteen in model 2 due to loadings below the 0.55 threshold. All remaining item loadings exceeded 0.60. The following sections further describe each model's results, along with all the hypotheses tests.

4.3. Hypotheses Tests – Model 1

The first model tested the influence of social dominance orientation (SDO) and status threat (ST_PERCEP) on attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI) and job satisfaction (JOB_SAT). Therefore, we assessed the reliability of the individual measures, the convergent validity, and each construct's discriminant validity. Concerning the reliability of the variables, both SDO and ST_PERCEP presented Cronbach's Alpha coefficients above the cut-off of .70 recommended by Nunnally (1975), indicating good internal consistency of their scales. As presented in Table XIII, AGPI and JOB_SAT presented Cronbach's alpha values slightly below .70. As aforesaid, the value, despite below the Nunnally's (1975) threshold, is yet considered of moderated reliability (Hair et al., 2010; Hinton et al., 2004; Malhotra & Birks, 2009)—especially when working with less than five items scales—which is the case of both variables.

Moreover, a bootstrapping with 1000 iterations was performed to obtain items' loadings and |t-values|. Aiming to assure the reliability of the model and its measurement indicators, only those items presenting reliable loadings (above 0.55) were kept (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Hence, twelve items had to be excluded due to their low loadings—AAS_3_REV, SDO_1, SDO_2, SDO_3, SDO_4, SDO_5, SDO_6, SDO_7, SDO_8, SDO_11_REV, SDO_16_REV, and JOB_SAT_1. As presented in Table XII, all remaining items presented loadings above 0.60, confirming the reliability of the measurement items. The presence of VIF values below three further excluded the issue of multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010).

Table XII. Items loadings and cross-loadings (using PLS-SEM)

	AGPI	JOB_SAT	SDO	ST_PERCEP
AAS_2	**0.83**	0.00	-0.38	0.15
AAS_4	**0.85**	0.01	-0.34	0.17
AAS_1_REV	**0.65**	0.08	-0.28	0.01
JS_2_REV	0.03	**0.94**	-0.11	-0.14
JS_3	0.01	**0.71**	-0.1	-0.13
SDO_10_REV	-0.33	-0.09	**0.80**	-0.03
SDO_12_REV	-0.35	-0.14	**0.80**	-0.01
SDO_13_REV	-0.31	-0.06	**0.75**	-0.01
SDO_14_REV	-0.32	-0.09	**0.68**	-0.05
SDO_15_REV	-0.33	-0.09	**0.72**	-0.01
SDO_9_REV	-0.24	-0.06	**0.65**	-0.05
ST_2	0.07	-0.03	-0.03	**0.60**
ST_3	0.05	-0.08	0.00	**0.74**
ST_4	0.19	-0.11	-0.06	**0.79**
ST_5	0.09	-0.14	0.02	**0.76**
ST_6	0.09	-0.18	-0.02	**0.77**
ST_7	0.11	-0.1	-0.03	**0.80**
ST_8	0.10	-0.14	0.00	**0.70**

Note:
Outer Loadings values in bold
_REV indicates reverse coded items

To assess each construct's internal consistency, the average variance extracted (AVE), composite reliability (CR), and each latent variable's correlations were analyzed. As described in Table XIII below, the CR values were higher than the recommended minimum of 0.6 (Götz, Liehr-Gobbers, & Krafft, 2010), indicating that all constructs have adequate internal consistency. Each construct's AVE coefficient above the threshold of 0.5 (Götz et al., 2010) further confirms its convergent validity. Finally, discriminant validity was determined through the Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT), with all variables presenting values below the 0.95 threshold (Benitez, Henseler, Castillo, & Schuberth, 2020; Gaskin, Godfrey, & Vance, 2018; Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015).

Table XIII. AVE, CR, and correlations among latent variables.

	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Correlations / HTMT		
				AGPI	JOB_SAT	SDO
AGPI	0.68	0.82	0.61			
JOB_SAT	0.60	0.82	0.7	0.03 / **0.05**		
SDO	0.83	0.88	0.54	-0.43 / **0.56**	-0.12 / **0.17**	
ST_PERCEP	0.87	0.89	0.55	0.16 / **0.19**	-0.15 / **0.21**	-0.04 / **0.05**

Note:
Bold values are HTMT (Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratios)

As aforementioned, to test this study's proposed hypotheses regarding the influence of social dominance orientation (SDO) and status threat (ST_PERCEP) in attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI) and job satisfaction (JOB_SAT), a structural model was developed (Figure 3). Following Gotz et al. (2010), the model was assessed considering the sign and magnitude of path coefficients, the statistical significance of such parameters (|t-values|), and the coefficient of determination (R^2) of the endogenous latent variables.

Figure 3. Structural Model 1 - The influence of Social Dominance Orientation and Status Threat in Attitudes towards Gender Parity Initiatives and Job Satisfaction
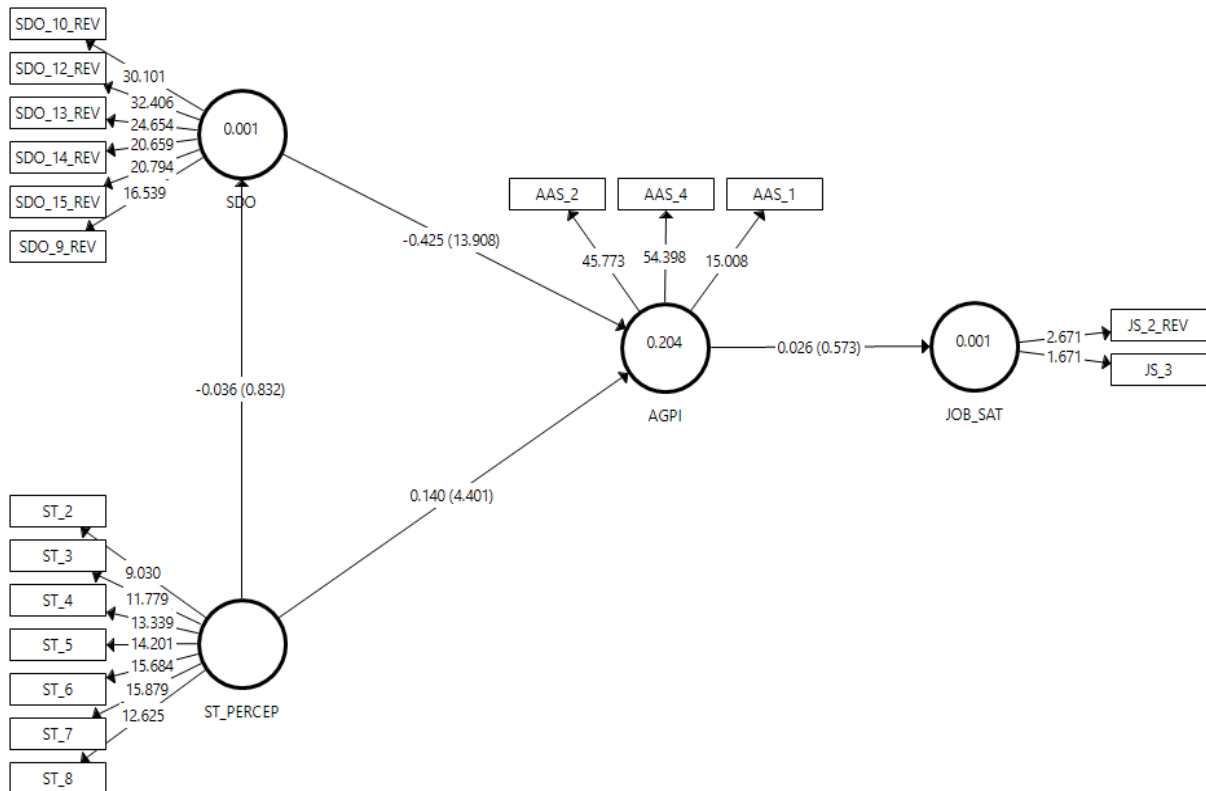
Notes: N = 807; p < 0.05 (two-tailed); SRMR < .08; casewise deletion of missing values; t-values presented between parentheses

Findings indicate that social dominance orientation (SDO) and status threat (ST_PERCEP) explained 20.4% of the variance in attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI), which can be considered satisfactory, considering that support for or opposition to gender parity initiatives as a phenomenon is yet not well understood (Benitez et al., 2020).

The structural model confirms that SDO influences AGPI in an inverse direction—supporting H1—and is the most important and significant determinant of attitudes towards gender parity initiative (β = -0.425). Likewise, ST_PERCEP was confirmed as a significant predictor of AGPI (β = 0.140) in a positive direction, further supporting H2. The influence of ST_PERCEP in SDO, however, was not significant since its |t-value| was below the 1.96 thresholds (Efron & Tibshirani, 1994; Hair et al., 2013), indicating that H3 is not supported in the present study. Moreover, the model also failed in explaining variance in JOB_SAT (R^2 = 0.001; |t-value| < 1.96) with low path coefficient, and further rejecting H4. The analysis of the direct, indirect, and total effects of the model (Table XIV) sought to confirm the mediation role of ST_PERCEP in AGPI. Although, the specific indirect effect between ST_PERCEP » SDO » AGPI were statistically insignificant, making evident that there was no mediating effect.

Table XIV. Structural Model 1 - Direct, indirect, and total effects

	Direct Effects		Indirect Effects		Total Effects	
	Path coefficients	t-value	Path coefficients	t-value	Path coefficients	t-value
AGPI » JOB_SAT	0.03	0.54			0.03	0.54
SDO » AGPI	**-0.42**	**14.04**			**-0.42**	**14.04**
SDO » JOB_SAT			-0.01	0.53	-0.01	0.53
ST_PERCEP » AGPI	**0.14**	**4.4**	0.02	0.83	**0.16**	**4.32**
ST_PERCEP » SDO	-0.04	0.84			-0.04	0.84
ST_PERCEP » JOB_SAT		0		0.49	0	0.49
ST_PERCEP » SDO » AGPI			0.02	0.82		
SDO » AGPI » JOB_SAT			-0.01	0.54		
ST_PERCEP » SDO » AGPI » JOB_SAT			0	0.3		
ST_PERCEP » AGPI » JOB_SAT			0	0.5		
Note: significant values in bold						

Prior studies suggested that gender can affect individuals 'ethical' conduct (Deshpande, 1997). Therefore, T-tests were held to compare the means of the two groups (male *vs.* female) to determine whether the two groups differ from each other. As observed in Table XV, $p < 0.05$ for all variables indicated that the assumption of the equality of variances for these constructs is not verified.

Table XV. Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
	F	**Sig.**
AGPI	**6.852**	0.009
SDO	**19.874**	0.000
ST_PERCEP	**5.373**	0.021
JOB_SAT	**5.038**	0.025

Note:
Significant values in bold ($p < 0.05$)

Additionally, as presented in Table XVI, a $p < 0.05$ for all constructs—except JOB_SAT—suggests a statistically significant difference of means between females and males in all variables but one.

Table XVI. T-test for Equality of Means

		T-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	**Mean Difference**	**Std. Error Difference**
AGPI	Equal variances assumed	0.000	**-0.51196**	0.07590
SDO	Equal variances assumed	0.000	**0.19326**	0.04613
ST_PERCEP	Equal variances assumed	0.033	**-0.15814**	0.07396
JOB_SAT	Equal variances assumed	0.297	-0.06158	0.05901

Note:
Significant values in bold ($p < 0.05$)
Group 0 = male
Group 1 = female

Indeed, females present higher means than their male counterparts in attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI), status threat (ST_PERCEP), job satisfaction (JOB_SAT) (as shown in Table XVII)—being social dominance orientation (SDO) the only exception where males held higher values. These findings confirmed Levin (2004) and Pratto et al. (1997)

arguments that not only men are higher SDO holders than women (tending to favor hierarchical intergroup relations (Pratto et al., 1997), but also that women—as low SDO holders—inversely tend to favor programs promoting equal rights, such as gender parity initiatives (AGPI).

Table XVII. Descriptive statistics for comparison between gender

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
AGPI	Male	284	3.2512	1.08108	0.06415
	Female	425	3.7631	0.92476	0.04486
SDO	Male	284	1.5329	0.66777	0.03962
	Female	425	1.3396	0.55356	0.02685
ST_PERCEP	Male	284	3.1363	0.90193	0.05352
	Female	425	3.2945	1.00486	0.04874
JOB_SAT	Male	284	4.4208	0.8139	0.0483
	Female	425	4.4824	0.7391	0.03585

Moreover, a multigroup analysis (PLS-MGA) had been held to examine if the relationship among variables diverges when controlled for gender. Findings indicate that the influence of social dominance orientation (SDO) in attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI)—the lower the individuals' orientation towards hierarchical relations (inequality), the higher support for gender parity initiatives—is stronger among women than their male counterparts. A possible explanation lies in women's tendency to hold lower SDO levels being more prone to support equality among genders. Moreover, the inversely proportional relationship among variables was also significant among men, confirming the expected general orientation towards gender equality among HEI employees—known as diverse and inclusive environments. Table XVIII describes the main findings, followed by their confidence intervals (table XIX).

Table XVIII. Multi-group analysis: gender differences

Structural Paths	βmale-βfem	SEmale	SEfem	*p*-Value (male *vs.* fem)	Test result
AGPI -> JOB_SAT	0.08	0.07	0.09	0.46	Not Accepted
SDO -> AGPI	**-0.13**	0.05	0.05	0.05	Accepted
ST_PERCEP -> AGPI	-0.19	0.1	0.05	0.06	Not Accepted
ST_PERCEP -> SDO	0.25	0.14	0.05	0.18	Not Accepted

Table XIX. Model 1 Confidence Intervals (MGA)

	Male		Female	
	2.5%	**97.5%**	**2.5%**	**97.5%**
AGPI -> JOB_SAT	-0.13	0.15	-0.26	0.09
SDO -> AGPI	-0.54	-0.36	-0.41	-0.23
ST_PERCEP -> AGPI	-0.26	0.13	0.09	0.27
ST_PERCEP -> SDO	-0.08	0.49	-0.20	0.00

The MGA although indicated that the relationship status threat (ST_PERCEP) » attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI) among men was not statistically significant when compared to women. Nonetheless, as proposed by Zhang et al. (2018), whenever status hierarchies are present, threat coexists, and status threat can indeed encourage leaders and individuals to adopt ethical behavior. All in all, support is found for some of the hypotheses proposed regarding the influence of social dominance orientation (SDO) and status threat (ST_PERCEP) in attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI) and job satisfaction (JOB_SAT), as shown in Table XX.

Table XX. Model 1 Hypotheses' Tests Results

Relationship	Path coefficient	t-value	Hypothesis	Test result
SDO » AGPI	**-0.425**	13.87	H1-	Supported
ST_PERCEP » AGPI	**0.140**	4.49	H2+	Supported
ST_PERCEP » SDO	-0.036	0.80	H3+	Not supported
AGPI » JOB_SAT	0.026	0.55	H4+	Not supported

4.4. Hypotheses Tests – Model 2

The second structural model aimed to analyze the influence of employee's perceptions of corporate social responsibility (CSR_PERCEP) on job satisfaction (JOB_SAT), organizational commitment (COMMIT), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) among

higher education institutions' employees in Portugal. Following the same procedure applied to the first model, we first assessed the individual measures' reliability, the convergent validity, and each construct's discriminant validity. All variables presented Cronbach's alpha coefficients above the cut-off of .70 recommended by Nunnally (1975), indicating good internal consistency of their scales.

Likewise, a bootstrapping with 1000 iterations was performed to obtain items' loadings and t-values. As aforementioned, those items presenting reliable loadings (above 0.55) were kept (Comrey & Lee, 1992; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The only exception was OCB_2 that presented loading slightly below 0.55 yet fair and reliable. Therefore, fifteen OCB items had to be excluded due to their low loadings—OCB_1, OCB_3, OCB_4, OCB_5, OCB_6, OCB_7, OCB_8, OCB_9_REV, OCB_10_REV, OCB_11_REV, OCB_12_REV, OCB_13, OCB_14, OCB_15, OCB_16. Nonetheless, all remaining items presented loadings above 0.60, confirming the reliability of the measurement items, as presented in Table XXI below. The presence of VIF values below three further excluded the issue of multicollinearity (Hair et al., 2010).

Table XXI. Items loadings and cross-loadings (using PLS-SEM)

	OCB	CSR_PERCEP	JOB_SAT	COMMIT
OCB_17	**0.72**	0.16	0.16	0.3
OCB_18	**0.83**	0.16	0.21	0.29
OCB_19	**0.75**	0.16	0.13	0.26
OCB_2	**0.51**	0.21	0.18	0.26
OCB_20	**0.74**	0.06	0.12	0.27
CSR_10	0.19	**0.75**	0.28	0.35
CSR_11	0.11	**0.71**	0.29	0.32
CSR_12	0.16	**0.68**	0.23	0.31
CSR_3	0.23	**0.65**	0.26	0.4
CSR_4	0.14	**0.77**	0.29	0.38
CSR_6	0.1	**0.80**	0.34	0.42
CSR_8	0.16	**0.81**	0.37	0.5
JS_1	0.18	0.4	**0.87**	0.49
JS_2_REV	0.15	0.16	**0.66**	0.27
JS_3	0.21	0.35	**0.85**	0.51
OC_4	0.34	0.44	0.4	**0.81**

OC_5	0.41	0.38	0.49	**0.85**
OC_6	0.29	0.48	0.51	**0.87**
OC_7	0.19	0.38	0.35	**0.64**

Note:
Outer Loadings values in bold
_REV indicates reverse coded items

Once again, the average variance extracted (AVE), composite reliability (CR), and correlations of each latent variable were analyzed to assess constructs' internal consistency. As described in Table XXII, the CR values were higher than the recommended minimum of 0.6 (Götz et al., 2010), indicating that all constructs have adequate internal consistency. Each construct's AVE coefficient above the threshold of 0.5 (Götz et al., 2010) further confirms its convergent validity. Finally, the discriminant validity was determined by the Heterotrait-Monotrait ratio (HTMT), with all variables presenting values below the 1.00 threshold (Benitez et al., 2020; Gaskin et al., 2018; Henseler et al., 2015).

Table XXII. AVE, CR, and correlations among latent variables.

	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)	Correlations / HTMT		
				COMMIT	CSR_PERCEP	JOB_SAT
COMMIT	0.80	0.87	0.64			
CSR_PERCEP	0.86	0.89	0.55	0.53 / **0.63**		
JOB_SAT	0.72	0.84	0.64	0.55 / **0.69**	0.41 / **0.47**	
OCB	0.75	0.84	0.51	0.39 / **0.49**	0.21 / **0.26**	0.23 / **0.30**

Note:
HTMT (Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratios) in bold

To test this study's remaining hypotheses regarding the influence of employee's perceptions of corporate social responsibility (CSR_PERCEP) on job satisfaction (JOB_SAT), organizational commitment (COMMIT), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (model 2), another structural model was developed (Figure 4). Again, the second model was assessed considering the sign and magnitude of path coefficients, the statistical significance of such parameters (|t-values|), and the coefficient of determination (R^2) of the endogenous latent variables (Götz et al., 2010).

Figure 4. Structural Model 2 - The Influence of CSR perceptions in Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors
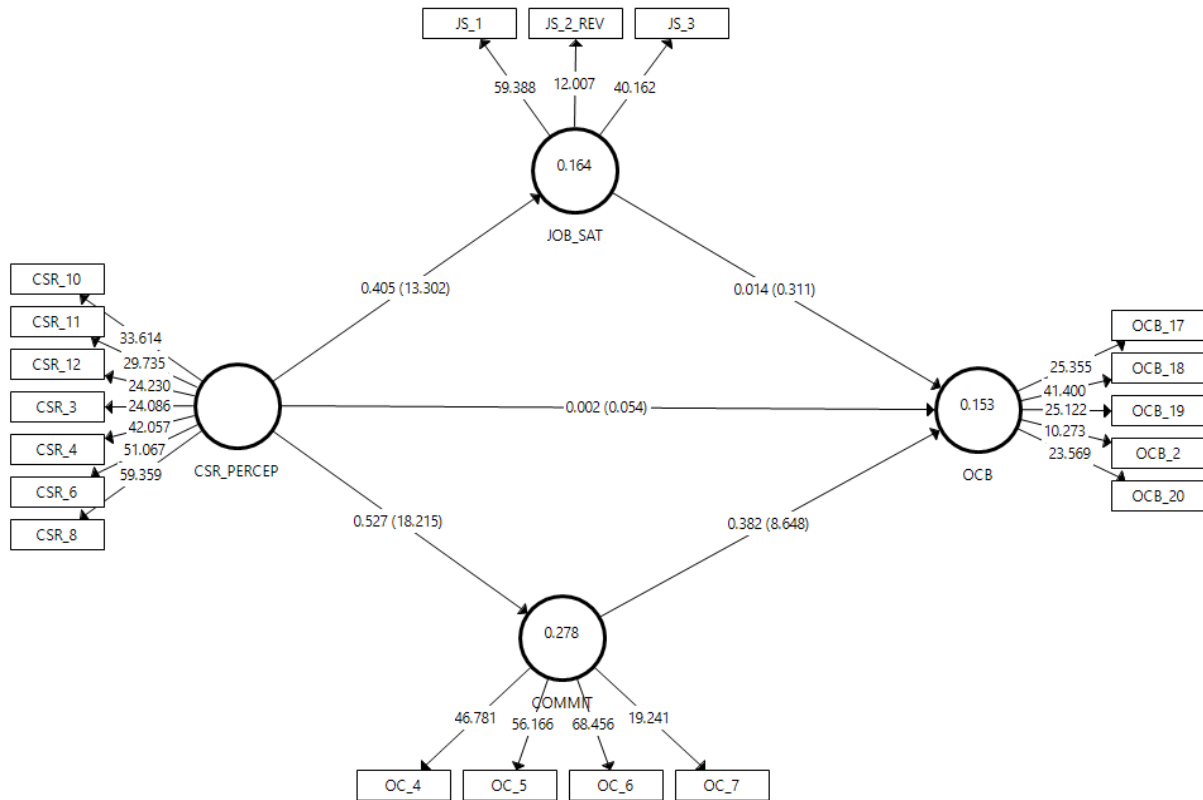
Notes: N = 732; $p < 0.05$ (two-tailed); SRMR < .08; casewise deletion of missing values; |t-values| presented between parentheses

The structural model has shown that CSR perceptions (CSR_PERCEP) explained 16.4% of the variance in job satisfaction (JOB_SAT), exerting a positive and statistically significant influence on the variable ($\beta = 0.405$)—supporting H5. The path analysis also indicated that the influence of CSR_PERCEP on organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) was not statistically significant (|t-value| were below the 1.96 thresholds) (Efron & Tibshirani, 1994; Joseph F. Hair et al., 2013), further rejecting H6.

Likewise, the model indicates that the influence of JOB_SAT in OCB is not significant (|t-value| way below the 1.96 thresholds, rejecting H7 in the present study (Efron & Tibshirani, 1994; Hair et al., 2013). The findings contradict Mousa et al. (2020) argument that JOB_SAT as a measurement of workplace happiness can influence employees' OCB in the Portuguese HEI context.

Nonetheless, the model confirmed that CSR perceptions (CSR_PERCEP) explains 27.8% of the organizational commitment (COMMIT) variance, being a strong and significant determinant of the latter ($\beta = 0.527$), which supports H8. Indeed, such results indicate that Maignan and Ferrel's (2001) argument that employees are particularly responsive to the organization's CSR efforts is supported in the Portuguese higher education institutions (HEI) context. Moreover, it also sustains prior studies' findings implying that organizational commitment can be enhanced by managing diversity (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Pitts, 2009).

Finally, the findings indicate that employee's perceptions of corporate social responsibility (CSR_PERCEP), job satisfaction (JOB_SAT), and organizational commitment (COMMIT) explain 15.3% of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) variance, which can be considered satisfactory in studying phenomena yet not well understood (Benitez et al., 2020). However, COMMIT was the only variable presenting statistically significant values. Indeed, the path analysis confirmed that COMMIT not only positively influenced OCB—supporting H9— but also is a strong determinant of it ($\beta = 0.382$). Therefore, the results partially confirmed the extant literature implying that JOB_SAT and COMMIT can positively influence OCB performance (Cheema et al., 2020; Williams & Anderson, 1991)—at least in the contemporary Portuguese HEI context.

Likewise, the analysis of the direct, indirect, and total effects of model 2 (Table XXIII) confirm that JOB_SAT do not influence OCB directly. The variable neither mediates the relationship between CSR_PERCEP and OCB, further rejecting H10 in the present study.

Although, the specific indirect effects indicate that COMMIT could fully mediate the relationship between CSR_PERCEP and OCB. The full mediation effect's significance was assessed using the Sobel test (Sobel, 1982), which was statistically significant at 0.01 ($z = 8.09$, $p = .000$). Therefore, support was found for H11.

Table XXIII. Structural model 2 - Direct, indirect, and total effects

	Direct Effects		Indirect Effects		Total Effects	
	Path coefficients	t-value	Path coefficients	t-value	Path coefficients	t-value
COMMIT » OCB	**0.38**	9.05			0.38	9.05
CSR_PERCEP » COMMIT	**0.53**	18.08			**0.53**	18.08
CSR_PERCEP » JOB_SAT	**0.41**	13.57			**0.41**	13.57
CSR_PERCEP » OCB	0	0.06	**0.21**	7.81	**0.21**	5.68
JOB_SAT » OCB	0.01	0.31			0.01	0.31
CSR_PERCEP » JOB_SAT » OCB			0.01	0.31		
CSR_PERCEP » COMMIT » OCB			**0.20**	8.00		
Note: significant values in bold						

As aforesaid, aiming to examine if the relationship among variables diverged when controlled for gender, T-tests were applied to compare the means of the two groups (male vs. female), to determine whether the two groups differ other. Also, another multigroup analysis (PLS-MGA) had been held. As observed in Table XXIV, $p < 0.05$ for job satisfaction (JOB_SAT) suggested that the assumption of the equality of variances for this construct is not verified.

Table XXIV. Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	
	F	Sig.
CSR_PERCEP	0.179	0.673
JOB_SAT	**5.127**	0.023
COMMIT	0.881	0.348
OCB	1.615	0.204

Note:
Significant values in bold ($p < 0.05$)

Contrariwise, as presented in Table XXV, the $p > 0.05$ for all constructs indicated no statistically significant difference of means between females and males in all variables.

Table XXV. T-test for Equality of Means

		T-test for Equality of Means		
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
CSR_PERCEP	Equal variances assumed	0.887	0.00907	0.06407
JOB_SAT	Equal variances assumed	0.297	-0.06158	0.05901
COMMIT	Equal variances assumed	0.269	0.06569	0.05937
OCB	Equal variances assumed	0.053	-0.08805	0.04549

Note:
Significant values in bold (*p* < 0.05)
Group 0 = male
Group 1 = female

Indeed, both genders presented proximal means in all variables, as shown in table XXVI, signaling towards communalities between men and women in terms of perceptions of corporate social responsibility (CSR_PERCEP), job satisfaction (JOB_SAT), organizational commitment (COMMIT), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in Portuguese higher education institutions (HEI). Findings indicate that despite slightly less impacted by the organization's CSR initiatives and less committed towards the organization than men, women were more satisfied with their jobs (JOB_SAT) and scored a bit higher in OCB.

Table XXVI. Descriptive statistics for comparison between gender

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CSR_PERCEP	Male	284	3.4296	0.83688	0.04966
	Female	425	3.4205	0.83531	0.04052
JOB_SAT	Male	284	4.4208	0.81390	0.04830
	Female	425	4.4824	0.73910	0.03585
COMMIT	Male	284	3.9569	0.74669	0.04431
	Female	425	3.8912	0.79285	0.03846
OCB	Male	284	4.1204	0.61432	0.03645
	Female	425	4.2085	0.57930	0.02810

Nonetheless, a multigroup analysis (PLS-MGA) had been held to examine if the relationship among variables diverges when controlled for gender. The positive influence of CSR perceptions (CSR_PERCEP) on organizational commitment (COMMIT), was stronger

among men, confirming a male tendency to increased commitment towards an organization whenever they positively perceive the companies CSR initiatives. The MGA also indicates that the relationship CSR_PERCEP » organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is stronger among men (βmale-βfem = 0.22), further indicating that not only male employees tend to be me more positively impacted by the organization's CSR initiatives, but also such positive perceptions can be of higher influence in adopting OBC, than when compared to their female counterparts. Table XXVII describes the main findings, followed by their confidence intervals (table XXVIII).

Table XXVII. Multi-group analysis: gender differences (model 2)

Structural Paths	βmale-βfem	SEmale	SEfem	p-Value (male *vs.* fem)	Test result
COMMIT » OCB	-0.05	0.07	0.06	0.55	Not Accepted
CSR_PERCEP » COMMIT	**0.11**	0.04	0.04	0.04	Accepted
CSR_PERCEP » JOB_SAT	0.06	0.04	0.04	0.28	Not Accepted
CSR_PERCEP » OCB	**0.22**	0.07	0.06	0.02	Accepted
JOB_SAT » OCB	0.04	0.08	0.05	0.65	Not Accepted

Note:
Significant values in bold ($p < 0.05$)

Table XXVIII. Multi-group analysis: Confidence intervals (model 2)

	Male		Female	
	2.5%	**97.5%**	**2.5%**	**97.5%**
COMMIT -> OCB	0.18	0.49	0.29	0.50
CSR_PERCEP -> COMMIT	0.51	0.67	0.40	0.55
CSR_PERCEP -> JOB_SAT	0.35	0.52	0.29	0.45
CSR_PERCEP -> OCB	-0.03	0.25	-0.21	0.00
JOB_SAT -> OCB	-0.13	0.19	-0.12	0.09

Finally, support is also found for other hypotheses of this study as described above. Table XXIX summarizes all the hypotheses' test results.

Table XXIX. Summary of Hypotheses' Tests Results

Relationship	Path coefficient	t-value	Hypothesis	Test result
SDO » AGPI	**-0.425**	13.87	H1-	Supported
ST_PERCEP » AGPI	**0.140**	4.49	H2+	Supported
ST_PERCEP » SDO	-0.036	0.80	H3+	Not supported
AGPI » JOB_SAT	0.026	0.55	H4+	Not supported
CSR_PERCEP » JOB_SAT	**0.405**	13.57	H5+	Supported
CSR_PERCEP » OCB	0.002	0.05	H6+	Not supported
JOB_SAT » OCB	0.014	0.31	H7+	Not supported
CSR_PERCEP » COMMIT	**0.527**	18.08	H8+	Supported
COMMIT » OCB	**0.382**	9.05	H9+	Supported
CSR_PERCEP » JOB_SAT » OCB	0.010	0.31	H10	Not supported
CSR_PERCEP » COMMIT » OCB	**0.200**	8.00	H11	Supported

Notes:
N = 807
*(two-tailed test)
**p < 0.01
significant values in bold

5. Conclusions

Gender equality and the empowerment of women and girls—as one of the UN's 2030 goals of the Agenda for Sustainable Development—has gained increased attention globally over the past decades. Although, neither the goal of parity nor the initiatives taken to reduce the gender gap have reached agreement among scholars and practitioners. Yet, gender parity initiatives—insofar as affirmative action policies intended to redress past disadvantages and compensate for historical discriminatory actions that hindered women's access to opportunities (McMillan-Capehart et al., 2009; Reddy & Parumasur, 2014)—have been exercised to achieve the goal of gender equity. The effects of such actions, however, can be equally diversified.

As aforesaid, this dissertation investigated the factors influencing employee's attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI), as well as their effects on job satisfaction (JS) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Therefore, a twofold approach had been employed. Firstly, we tested the role of individual orientation towards inequality (SDO) and status threat (ST) in influencing employees' attitudes towards gender parity initiatives and its effect in JS. Secondly, the influence of CSR perceptions on job satisfaction (JS), organizational commitment (OC), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) had been scrutinized. To that matter, a case study was performed with data collected from higher education institutions' (HEI) employees in Portugal. Professors and researchers from public and private HEI in all regions were invited to partake in the study. The main objective was to broaden the discussion beyond the concerns on whether gender policies might succeed or fail in organizations and higher education institutions. Instead, it proposes a thorough comprehension of what influences attitudes toward gender parity initiatives and organizational citizenship behaviors among individuals in such organizations.

Findings confirmed that both social dominance orientation (SDO) and status threat (ST) influenced attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI) amongst HEI employees in Portugal, being the former the most important and significant determinant of attitudes towards gender parity initiatives in an inversely proportional relationship—the higher SDO, the lower AGPI. Findings also indicated that despite the expected general orientation towards gender

equality among employees at higher education institutions (HEI), the inverse influence of social dominance orientation (SDO) in attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI) is stronger among women. Nonetheless, the lower level of SDO among respondents indicates a general orientation towards equal relations among groups. Which is exercised and perceived, particularly in the HEI context. That is suggestive that, once Portugal is perceived as an egalitarian country, the gender parity agenda can be assumed as in place, no longer requiring further efforts for gender equity—at least on the perceptions of individuals at the HEI helm. Indeed, the higher percentage of female responses confirms that both genders similarly perceive the phenomena.

Moreover, the lower levels of status threat, combined with the higher levels of job satisfaction, reflect the structure and stability proposed by the Portuguese's public function (and European). In Portugal—as in most of the European Union—open and public competition (contest) is the standard way of recruiting workers for public employment (Neves, 2013). The same occurs for promotions and career evolution in public universities and polytechnic institutions. Therefore, the fear of 'status loss', quite common in organizations, has its influence reduced in the higher education context.

Nevertheless, the absence of a statistically significant influence of attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI)in job satisfaction (JS) does not support Choi and Rainey's (2014) argument that diversity management could lead to higher employee's job satisfaction. All in all, the neutral to a somewhat positive level of AGPI is in line with the lower levels of SDO, confirming the Portuguese academic community (professors and researchers) as oriented towards equal relations among groups, which includes different genders. The influence of such attitudes on job satisfaction, unfortunately, remains unexplained.

Furthermore, when exploring the antecedents of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), results supported Maignan and Ferrel's (2001) argument that employees (including those at Portuguese HEI) are incredibly responsive to the organization's CSR and that such initiatives—when positively perceived—indeed enhanced organizational commitment (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Pitts, 2009). Moreover, organizational commitment was also confirmed as

mediating the relationship between CSR perceptions and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) among Portuguese HEI employees, acting as a strong determinant of OCB. Those findings partially confirmed the extant literature implying that job satisfaction and organizational commitment (OC) can positively influence OCB performance (Cheema et al., 2020; Williams & Anderson, 1991)—at least in the contemporary Portuguese HEI context.

The influence of CSR perceptions on OC was found stronger among men, which confirmed the theory that organizational commitment and job satisfaction increases whenever employees positively perceive the companies CSR initiatives (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Pitts, 2009). Although, the findings suggest that when it comes to gender parity initiatives, there is a potential endorsement toward 'equal opportunity' but not to 'formal policies'. Two possible explanations are proposed. First, it assumes that the higher education helm in Portugal has already reached some level of gender equity from the employees' perspective. The second implies that women must make it under their own merit and not through quotas or policies creating 'special access'—and that includes those already in place as HEI professors or researchers.

Nonetheless, male's CSR perceptions might differ when it concerns gender parity initiatives specifically, explaining divergent male responses when comparing the two models. Indeed, Oosthuizen et al. (2019) already proposed that not only those affected by affirmative action (AA) (but not targeted by it) perceive such initiatives as 'reverse racism' but also males employees report feeling discriminated against by female competitors—whenever gender parity initiatives take place. The present study did not directly address such outcomes. Therefore, we can only assume that it might also be the case, based on literature. Future studies might be successful in investigating gender differences in the individual's attitude towards gender parity initiatives and their common outcome—and further contrasting them.

5.1. Theoretical Implications

In terms of implications for theory, this study's results sustained the extant literature on support for gender parity initiatives being higher among those individuals holding low social

dominance orientation and status threat (Ho et al., 2012; Leslie et al., 2014; Pratto et al., 2006, 1997; Susskind et al., 2014). Theories over the positive and significant correlation between employee CSR perceptions and job satisfaction (Hoeffler et al., 2010; Sarfraz et al., 2018), as wells as that gender might influence employee's responses to CSR (Bhattacharya et al., 2009; Wehrmeyer & McNeil, 2000), were also supported. Likewise, findings further corroborated previous studies on the influence of CSR perceptions over organizational commitment (Choi & Rainey, 2014; Pitts, 2009) and organizational citizenship behavior (Cheema et al., 2020; Manimegalai & Baral, 2018; Nazir & Islam, 2019). Hence, the goal of enhancing academic knowledge by helping to identify the most influential factors both in attitudes towards Affirmative Action and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) has been reached.

5.2. Managerial Implications

In practical terms, this study's findings suggested that proposals for soft quotas and initiatives for equal opportunities, such as appointing the same numbers of men and women in leadership positions, might face lower rejection among female employees than among their male counterparts. Albeit, new strategies must be considered a stimulus to male employees, such as a thorough revision of recruiting and promotion policies based on merit that also encompass gender equity goals. Nonetheless, male's divergent responses concerning CSR initiatives in general and gender parity initiatives indicate that employees still need to be educated on the goals and benefits of diversity and inclusion management, in order to reduce mixed feelings and rejections towards it.

This study ignited a broader discussion on whether gender equity initiatives succeed and how gender parity is to be achieved in organizations, considering individuals' attitudes, behaviors, and orientations. Findings confirmed that the level of support for gender affirmative action initiatives is inversely related to social dominance orientation and status threat, and that employees are more prone to equal relations among groups—rather than hierarchical relations. It also revealed that female employees would be more receptive to these arguments than their male counterparts. Hence, those leaders and institutions focused on achieving and sustaining an equal number of men and women in departments can benefit the most by exploring group

equality arguments. That, in turn, might help developing policies that effectively improve the descriptive representation of women in management.

Moreover, results also confirmed that employees are particularly responsive to the organization's CSR and that such initiatives—when positively perceived—indeed enhanced organizational commitment, which in turn can positively influence organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) performance. Hereafter, to achieve positive and enhanced results in terms of employees' organizational citizenship behaviors, organizations should promote CSR initiatives that positively impact their employees—independently of their gender. Diversity and inclusion management shall constantly monitor how employees perceive such initiatives to assure that such a positive and virtual cycle is effectively implemented.

Ultimately, a thorough comprehension of what influenced attitudes toward gender parity initiatives and OCB among employees might help develop diversity and inclusion management policies that effectively improve women's and minorities' presence and representation in leadership positions without compromising both the individual's and the organization's overall performance.

5.3. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The present study collected and analyzed data from higher education institutions' employees in Portugal, encompassing professors and researchers from public and private institutions. However, the use of a non-probabilistic convenience sample does not realistically represent the population, further becoming the first limitation of this study.

The influence of status threat in attitudes towards gender parity initiatives was not statistically significant, and the latter was proven to be an unfitting predictor of job satisfaction. Therefore, it would be interesting for future studies to hypothesize using a different scale or a larger sample. Additionally, both attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI) and job satisfaction (JS) variables presented moderate Cronbach's Alpha values. Hence it would be appropriate to reproduce the study using different scales. Job satisfaction and CSR perceptions were similarly found to be unfitting predictors of organizational citizenship behavior in model

2, indicating another limitation of the study. Future studies, although might benefit from either a larger sample or the use of different scales.

As aforesaid, the present study did not directly address the outcomes of gender parity initiatives in higher education institutions (HEI), among employees. Therefore, future studies might be successful in investigating gender differences in the individual's attitude towards gender parity initiatives and their common outcome—and further contrasting them. Mixed-method approaches, as well as longitudinal studies would be of added value, in a more comprehensive research strategy to investigate the complex social phenomena involving gender affirmative action policies and attitudes towards them.

This study only addressed the individual's attitudes towards gender parity initiatives and organizational citizenship behavior. Along with differences between men and women of the Portuguese HEI population. It would be useful to conduct a similar study expanding the sample to all HEI employees (not limited to professors and researchers), comparing other demographic variables such as educational qualifications to verify if results vary. A cross-country research, comparing different cultures, could also contribute with exciting insights.

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Appendix I. Table of items and scales

Attitudes towards gender parity initiatives (AGPI)

Item	Question	PT	Authors
Ações Afirmativas têm por objetivo reparar desvantagens passadas e compensar ações discriminatórias históricas que impediram o acesso de minorias à oportunidades (Bacchi, 2013; Pillipow, 2019). Estas ações podem variar desde quotas obrigatórias, à políticas sugestivas de inclusão e diversidade. Ações afirmativas e de igualdade de gênero compreendem iniciativas destinadas a aumentar a presença e representatividade de mulheres nos diferentes contextos-- político, social, económico e educacional. Com relação à introdução de ações afirmativas de igualdade de género destinadas à aumentar a presença de funcionárias mulheres nas diferentes categorias profissionais dentro da universidade, quanto discorda ou concorda com as seguintes afirmações: (1 = discordo totalmente, 2 = discordo um pouco, 3 = nem concordo nem discordo, 4 = concordo um pouco, 5 = concordo totalmente)			
AAS_1*	Affirmative action for Women is unfair to Men	*Ações afirmativas para mulheres são injustas para com os homens*	(Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1996)
AAS_2	Affirmative action in education gives an opportunity to qualified Women who might not have had a chance without it	*Ações afirmativas na educação oferecem oportunidades a mulheres qualificadas que não teriam oportunidades sem estas iniciativas*	(Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1996)
AAS_3*	Affirmative action for Women may force employers to hire unqualified people	*Ações afirmativas para mulheres nas universidades, podem forçar empregadores a contratar pessoas com currículos menos relevantes*	(Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1996)
AAS_4	Affirmative action in the workplace for Women helps make sure that the local workforce and economy remain competitive	*Ações afirmativas para mulheres nas organizações, ajudam a garantir que a economia e o mercado de trabalho continuam competitivos*	(Sidanius, Pratto, & Bobo, 1996)

Appendix I. Table of items and scales cont.

Social Dominance Orientation (SDO)

Item	Question	PT	Authors
Existem muitos grupos de pessoas no mundo (homens e mulheres, grupos étnicos e religiosos, nacionalidades, facções políticas, etc.). No que se refere às relações entre diferentes grupos de género (homens ou mulheres), quanto discorda ou concorda com as afirmações: **(1 = discordo totalmente, 2 = discordo um pouco, 3 = nem concordo nem discordo, 4 = concordo um pouco, 5 = concordo totalmente)**			
SDO_1	Some groups of people are just more worthy than others	*Alguns grupos de género são apenas mais dignos de valor do que outros*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_2	In getting what your group wants, it is sometimes necessary to use force against other groups	*Para conseguir o que seu grupo de género deseja, às vezes é necessário usar força contra outro grupo de género*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_3	It's OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others	*É aceitável que alguns grupos de género tenham mais oportunidades na vida do que outros grupos de género*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_4	To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups	*Para poder progredir na vida, é às vezes necessário ultrapassar outros grupos de género*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_5	If certain groups of people stayed in their place, we would have fewer problems	*Se certos grupos de género permanecessem em seu lugar, teríamos menos problemas*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_6	It's probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom	*É, provavelmente, uma boa coisa que alguns grupos de género estejam no topo e outros grupos de género estejam na base*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_7	Inferior groups should stay in their place	*Grupos de género inferiores devem permanecer em seu lugar*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_8	Sometimes other groups must be kept in their place	*Às vezes, outros grupos de género devem ser mantidos em seu lugar*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_9*	It would be good if all groups could be equal	*Seria bom se todos os grupos de género pudessem ser iguais*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_10*	Group equality should be our ideal	*A igualdade de grupos de género deve ser o nosso ideal*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)

Appendix I. Table of items and scales cont.

Social Dominance Orientation (SDO)

Item	Question	PT	Authors
SDO_11*	All groups should be given an equal chance in life	*Tanto homens quanto mulheres deveriam ter as mesmas oportunidades na vida*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_12*	We should do what we can to equalize conditions for different groups	*Todos deveríamos fazer o possível para igualar as condições entre diferentes grupos de género*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_13*	We should increase social equality	*Deveríamos aumentar a igualdade social*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_14*	We would have fewer problems if we treated different groups more equally	*Teríamos menos problemas se tratássemos diferentes grupos de género de modo mais igual*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_15*	We should strive to make incomes more equal	*Devemos nos esforçar para tornar a renda mais igual entre diferentes grupos de género*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)
SDO_16*	No one group should dominate in society	*Nenhum grupo de género deveria dominar na sociedade*	(Pratto, Sidanius, & Levin, 2006)

Appendix I. Table of items and scales cont.

Status Threat (ST_PERCEP)

Item	Question	PT	Authors
Tanto estatuto quanto posição e influência são recursos sociais escassos nas organizações. Para além de característica atribuída (formal), o estatuto pode ser contestado, negociado, e também reforçado por meio de interações interpessoais cotidianas, o que pode levar ao aumento da concorrência e despertar o medo de 'perda de status' (Bendersky & Hays, 2012; Sauder, 2005). No que se refere às relações dentro da universidade, quanto discorda ou concorda com as afirmações: **(1 = discordo totalmente, 2 = discordo um pouco, 3 = nem concordo nem discordo, 4 = concordo um pouco, 5 = concordo totalmente)**			
ST_2	Some of my colleagues may take sides to challenge my status	*Alguns colegas podem tomar partido para desafiar a minha posição/estatuto*	(Zhang, Zhong, & Ozer, 2018).
ST_3	Other team managers may compete with me for influence	*Outros colegas competem comigo para ganhar mais influência*	(Zhang, Zhong, & Ozer, 2018).
ST_4	I need to try harder to protect my status in the organization.	*Eu preciso me empenhar mais para proteger meu status na organização*	(Zhang, Zhong, & Ozer, 2018).
ST_5	I felt some colleagues colluded to challenge my status in the firm	*Eu sinto que alguns colegas se unem para desafiar o meu estatuto na organização*	(Zhang, Zhong, & Ozer, 2018).
ST_6	I felt my dominance in work was threatened by other colleagues	*Eu sinto que meu desempenho no trabalho é ameaçado por outros colegas*	(Zhang, Zhong, & Ozer, 2018).
ST_7	Some colleagues competed with me to increase their influence in the firm	*Alguns colegas competem comigo para aumentar sua influência/estatuto na organização*	(Zhang, Zhong, & Ozer, 2018).
ST_8	I felt some colleagues did not agree with the relative value of my contribution to the firm	*Eu sinto que alguns colegas não concordam com o valor do meu desempenho na organização*	(Zhang, Zhong, & Ozer, 2018).

Job Satisfaction (JOB_SAT)

A satisfação no trabalho pode variar à medida em que as necessidades de uma pessoa são atendidas no trabalho. Em relação ao vosso trabalho atual na universidade, quanto discorda ou concorda com as afirmações: **(1 = discordo totalmente, 2 = discordo um pouco, 3 = nem concordo nem discordo, 4 = concordo um pouco, 5 = concordo totalmente)**			
JS_1	All in all, I am satisfied with my job	*Apesar de tudo, estou satisfeito com meu trabalho*	(Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983)
JS_2*	In general, I don't like my job	*De forma geral, não aprecio meu trabalho*	Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983
JS_3	In general, I like working here	*De forma geral, eu gosto de trabalhar aqui (do meu trabalho)*	Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1983

Appendix I. Table of items and scales cont.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

Item	Question	PT	Authors
Como funcionários, todos nós desempenhamos alguma forma de comportamentos de cidadania organizacional (OCBs) que beneficiam amplamente a organização e o meio envolvente. Com relação a estes comportamentos extra-papel realizados na Universidade, quanto discorda ou concorda com as afirmações: **(1 = discordo totalmente, 2 = discordo um pouco, 3 = nem concordo nem discordo, 4 = concordo um pouco, 5 = concordo totalmente).**			
OCB_1	AT1. I help others who have been absent.	*Ajudo colegas que estiveram ausentes.*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_2	AT2. I help others who have heavy work loads.	*Ajudo colegas com elevada carga de trabalho.*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_3	AT3. I help orient new people even though it is not required.	*Ajudo a orientar novos colegas, mesmo que isso não me seja solicitado.*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_4	AT4. I willingly help others who have work-related problems.	*Ajudo de bom grado outros colegas que possuam problemas relacionados ao trabalho.*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_5	CS1. I do not spend time on personal calls.	*Não uso meu tempo de trabalho para chamadas pessoais*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_6	CS2. I do not engage in non-work-related talk.	*Não me envolvo em conversas não relacionadas à assuntos de trabalho*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_7	CS3. I will come to work early if needed.	*Venho ao trabalho mais cedo, ou trabalho por horas excedentes, se necessário*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_8	CS4. I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.	*Obedeço às regras e regulamentos da organização, mesmo quando não estou sendo observado*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_9*	SP1. I often consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. (R)	*Com frequência passo muito tempo a reclamar de questões triviais*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_10*	SP2. I often focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side. (R)	*Com frequência mantenho o foco naquilo que está errado, ao invés de no lado positivo das coisas*	(Lin et al., 2010)

Appendix I. Table of items and scales cont.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

Item	Question	PT	Authors
OCB_11*	SP3. I tend to make ''mountains out of molehills.'' (R)	*Tenho o costume de fazer 'tempestade em copo d'água'*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_12*	SP4. I often find fault with what the organization is doing.	*Com frequência vejo falhas naquilo que a organização está a fazer.*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_13	CT1. I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.	*Tento evitar criar problema aos meus colegas de trabalho*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_14	CT2. I consider the impact of my actions on co-workers.	*Considero o impacto de minhas ações sobre os colegas de trabalho*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_15	CT3. I attend voluntary functions.	*Envolvo-me em atividades voluntárias*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_16	CT4. I help organize get-togethers.	*Ajudo a organizar encontros entre colegas*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_17	CV1. I attend functions that are not required but help the company image.	*Frequento eventos que não são mandatórios, mas que ajudam na imagem da organização.*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_18	CV2. I keep abreast of changes in the organization.	*Acompanho as mudanças na organização.*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_19	CV3. I read and keep up with organization announcements, memos, and so on.	*Eu leio e acompanho os anúncios da organização, memorandos e assim por diante.*	(Lin et al., 2010)
OCB_20	CV4. I often assess what is best for the firm	*Com frequência avalio o que é melhor para a organização.*	(Lin et al., 2010)

Appendix I. Table of items and scales cont.

Organizational Commitment (COMMIT) / psychological attachment

Item	Question	PT	Authors
Existem diferentes formas e razões pelas quais as pessoas se comprometem com as suas organizações. No que tange o vosso relacionamento com a Universidade, quanto discorda ou concorda com as afirmações: **(1 = discordo totalmente, 2 = discordo um pouco, 3 = nem concordo nem discordo, 4 = concordo um pouco, 5 = concordo totalmente).**			
OC_4	My attachment to this organization is primarily based on the similarity of my values and those represented by the organization.	*Meu apego a esta universidade é baseado principalmente na semelhança dos meus valores e daqueles representados pela organização.*	(O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986)
OC_5	What this organization stands for is important to me.	*Esta organização representa é importante para mim.*	(O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986)
OC_6	I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this organization.	*Tenho orgulho de contar aos outros que faço parte desta organização*	(O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986)
OC_8	I feel a sense of 'ownership' for this organization rather than being just an employee.	*Tenho sensação de 'empoderamento' nesta organização*	(O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986)

Corporate social responsibility perceptions (CSR_PERCEP)

Item	Question	PT	Authors
As organizações muitas vezes adotam ações de Responsabilidade Social Corporativa (CSR) com a intenção de equilibrar responsabilidades econômicas, sociais e ambientais. Em relação às ações implementadas pela Universidade em relação a CSR, quanto discorda ou concorda com as afirmações: **(1 = discordo totalmente, 2 = discordo um pouco, 3 = nem concordo nem discordo, 4 = concordo um pouco, 5 = concordo totalmente).**			
CSR_3	The managers of this organization try to comply with the law and regulations.	*Os responsáveis orgânicos procuram adequar-se às leis e regulamentos*	(Maignan & Ferrell, 2001)
CSR_4	Top management establishes long-term strategies for business.	*Os responsáveis orgânicos estabelecem estratégias de longo prazo para o negócio*	(Maignan & Ferrell, 2001)
CSR_6	We have programs that encourage the diversity of our workforce.	*Temos programas que incentivam a diversidade de nossa equipa de trabalho.*	(Maignan & Ferrell, 2001)
CSR_8	Members of our organization follow professional standards.	*Os membros de nossa organização seguem elevados padrões de desempenho.*	(Maignan & Ferrell, 2001)
CSR_10	Our business encourages employees to join civic organizations that support our community.	*A nossa organização incentiva os funcionários a ingressar em organizações cívicas de apoio à comunidade.*	(Maignan & Ferrell, 2001)
CSR_11	Flexible company policies enable employees to better coordinate work-personal life.	*Políticas flexíveis desta organização permitem que os funcionários coordenem melhor a vida pessoal-profissional.*	(Maignan & Ferrell, 2001)
CSR_12	Our business gives adequate contributions to charities.	*A nossa organização contribui adequadamente para instituições de caridade.*	(Maignan & Ferrell, 2001)

Appendix II. List of participant Portuguese Higher Education Institutions

	Name	HEI	Type
IPB	Instituto Politécnico de Bragança	Polytechnic Institute	Public
IPBeja	Politécnico de Beja	Polytechnic Institute	Public
IPC	Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra	Polytechnic Institute	Public
IPCB	Instituto Politécnico de Castelo Branco	Polytechnic Institute	Public
IPG	Instituto Politécnico da Guarda	Polytechnic Institute	Public
IPL	Instituto Politécnico de Lisboa	Polytechnic Institute	Public
IPSantarém	Instituto Politécnico de Santarém	Polytechnic Institute	Public
IPSetubal	Instituto Politécnico de Setúbal	Polytechnic Institute	Public
IPT	Instituto Politécnico de Tomar	Polytechnic Institute	Public
IPV	Instituto Politécnico de Viseu	Polytechnic Institute	Public
IPVC	Instituto Politécnico de Viana do Castelo	Polytechnic Institute	Public
ISCTE	Instituto Universitário de Lisboa	Polytechnic Institute	Public
NOVA	Universidade NOVA de Lisboa	University	Public
UA	Universidade de Aveiro	University	Public
AAUAb	Universidade Aberta	University	Public
UALG	Universidade do Algarve	University	Public
UC	Universidade de Coimbra	University	Public
UCP-BRAGA	Universidade Católica Portuguesa	University	Private
UCP-PORTO	Universidade Católica Portuguesa	University	Private
UCP-VISEU	Universidade Católica Portuguesa	University	Private
UÉVORA	Universidade de Évora	University	Public
ULISBOA	Universidade de Lisboa	University	Public
UPORTO	Universidade do Porto	University	Public
UTAD	Universidade de Trás-os-Montes e Alto Douro	University	Public

Appendix III. Normality Results

Construct	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
AGPI	AAS_1_REV	3,63	1,33	-0,48	-1,04
Attitudes towards Gender Parity Initiatives	AAS_2	3,48	1,34	-0,54	-0,93
	AAS_3_REV	3,19	1,41	-0,04	-1,38
	AAS_4	3,39	1,28	-0,43	-0,77
SDO	SDO_1	4,23	1,02	-1,64	2,40
Social dominance orientation	SDO_2	2,43	1,33	0,40	-1,22
	SDO_3	1,38	0,97	2,69	6,21
	SDO_4	2,07	1,25	0,78	-0,66
	SDO_5	1,63	1,09	1,63	1,63
	SDO_6	1,33	0,86	2,83	7,50
	SDO_7	1,28	0,77	3,01	9,12
	SDO_8	1,51	0,99	1,90	2,72
	SDO_9_REV	1,67	1,19	1,69	1,67
	SDO_10_REV	1,53	1,02	2,08	3,50
	SDO_11_REV	1,08	0,45	6,74	49,17
	SDO_12_REV	1,28	0,75	3,28	11,44
	SDO_13_REV	1,26	0,70	3,34	12,04
	SDO_14_REV	1,67	1,00	1,64	2,22
	SDO_15_REV	1,27	0,77	3,28	10,95
	SDO_16_REV	1,31	0,87	3,14	9,37
ST_PERCEP	ST_2	3,42	1,24	-0,56	-0,49
Status Threat	ST_3	3,74	1,16	-0,95	0,26
	ST_4	3,52	1,23	-0,62	-0,49
	ST_5	2,73	1,35	0,16	-1,16
	ST_6	2,70	1,36	0,15	-1,22
	ST_7	3,40	1,27	-0,64	-0,60
	ST_8	3,22	1,26	-0,38	-0,84
JOB_SAT	JS_1	4,09	1,02	-1,30	1,20
Job Satisfaction	JS_2_REV	4,48	0,94	-2,11	4,04
	JS_3	4,40	0,90	-1,89	3,64

Appendix III. Normality Results cont.

Construct	Items	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
OCB	OCB_1	4,47	0,69	-1,26	1,89
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	OCB_2	4,34	0,75	-1,21	2,11
	OCB_3	4,42	0,74	-1,24	1,64
	OCB_4	4,56	0,61	-1,29	1,74
	OCB_5	3,38	1,34	-0,20	-1,27
	OCB_6	2,87	1,26	0,19	-1,07
	OCB_7	4,51	0,79	-1,89	3,88
	OCB_8	4,56	0,71	-1,77	3,43
	OCB_9_REV	4,28	0,97	-1,24	0,67
	OCB_10_REV	3,85	1,15	-0,65	-0,67
	OCB_11_REV	4,39	0,95	-1,54	1,62
	OCB_12_REV	2,27	1,00	0,92	0,53
	OCB_13	4,45	1,09	-2,18	3,83
	OCB_14	4,27	0,79	-1,11	1,66
	OCB_15	3,84	1,10	-0,89	0,12
	OCB_16	3,86	1,00	-0,74	0,17
	OCB_17	3,97	1,03	-1,06	0,72
	OCB_18	4,27	0,76	-1,06	1,56
	OCB_19	4,21	0,82	-1,15	1,61
	OCB_20	4,06	0,87	-0,76	0,29
COMMIT	OC_4	3,63	1,12	-0,64	-0,24
Organizational Commitment	OC_5	4,40	0,79	-1,56	2,94
	OC_6	4,28	0,88	-1,23	1,29
	OC_7	3,31	1,21	-0,42	-0,62
CSR_PERCEP	CSR_3	4,12	0,93	-1,01	0,68
Corporate Social Responsibility Perceptions	CSR_4	3,63	1,16	-0,67	-0,42
	CSR_6	3,04	1,22	-0,08	-0,89
	CSR_8	3,52	1,15	-0,48	-0,60
	CSR_10	3,21	1,22	-0,26	-0,82
	CSR_11	3,21	1,21	-0,24	-0,82
	CSR_12	3,25	1,01	-0,11	-0,09