JOURNAL OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, COMMUNICATIONS AND CONFLICT

Connie Rae Bateman

Editor

University of North Dakota

Authors execute a publication permission agreement and assume all liabilities. Neither Jordan Whitney Enterprises, Inc. nor Allied Academies is responsible for the content of the individual manuscripts. Any omissions or errors are the sole responsibility of the authors. The Editorial Board is responsible for the selection of manuscripts for publication from among those submitted for consideration. The Publishers accept final manuscripts in digital form and make adjustments solely for the purposes of pagination and organization.

The *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict* is owned and published by Jordan Whitney Enterprises, Inc., 51 Blake Drive, Arden, NC 28704, USA. Those interested in communicating with the *Journal,* should contact the Executive Director of the Allied Academies at info@.alliedacademies.org.

EDITORIAL BOARD MEMBERS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

Welcome to the *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict,* the official journal of the Academy of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict. The Academy is an affiliate of the Allied Academies, Inc., a non profit association of scholars whose purpose is to encourage and support the advancement and exchange of knowledge, understanding and teaching throughout the world. The editorial mission of the *Journal* is to publish empirical and theoretical manuscripts which advance knowledge in the areas of organizational culture, organizational communication, conflict and conflict resolution. We hope that the *Journal* will prove to be of value to the many organizational scholars around the world.

The *Journal* is double blind, peer reviewed. The articles contained in this volume have been double blind refereed. The acceptance rate for manuscripts in this issue, 25%, conforms to our editorial policies.

We intend to foster a supportive, mentoring effort on the part of the referees which will result in encouraging and supporting writers. We welcome different viewpoints because in differences we find learning; in differences we develop understanding; in differences we gain knowledge; and, in differences we develop the discipline into a more comprehensive, less esoteric, and dynamic metier.

The Editorial Policy, background and history of the Allied Academies, and calls for conferences are published on our web site. In addition, we keep the web site updated with the latest activities of the organization. Please visit our site at www.alliedacademies.org and know that we welcome hearing from you at any time.

Connie Rae Bateman
Editor
University of North Dakota

CONFLICT AND COMMUNICATION IN THE WORKPLACE: AN INQUIRY AND FINDINGS FROM XYZ UNIVERSITY'S STUDY ON RELIGIOUS TOLERANCE AND DIVERSITY SUGGESTING IRONIES OF CULTURAL ATTITUDES, FREE EXPRESSION AND CONFLICT IN AN ACADEMIC ORGANIZATION

Stephanie Huneycutt Bardwell, Christopher Newport University

ABSTRACT

Organizational freedoms, rights and attitudes about diversity and tolerance are important to all organizations' core values. Exploring perceptions of diversity and tolerance and providing a protected forum for free expression can be controversial, but vital, to the integrity of the workplace. This article describes the activities of a university committee commissioned to execute a study of religious related concerns; it summarizes results of a survey in which 165 faculty members of the XYZ public University participated and also describes findings of the study. It offers observations, recommendations and identifies concerns that are pertinent to all organizations, particularly academic entities, on this controversial topic. It describes a vivid, vocal and sometimes vexing journey of discovery and inquiry about faculty views on religious tolerance and diversity in the workplace. In this study, the workplace is, of course, the university.

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

Exploring attitudinal and legal perceptions of diversity and tolerance on a macro view

The founding fathers did not include the term "diversity", nor did they include the phrase "tolerance" in the First amendment. In founding father George Washington's address to the Hebrew Congregation in Newport Rhode Island in 1790, (Karp, 1991) a sense of respect for religious tradition and expression is clearly present, but more as a mater of civility than law. "Diversity" and "tolerance" are more modern terms used to indicate modern concerns related to freedom of expression and freedom from government sanctioned religions, government prohibitions of religious practices, and inhibition of religious expression. The desire to create mutual respect and a sense of mutual beneficence is both old-fashioned, and modern; multi-culturalism is an ideal which has yet to be realized, though it is still a vital and worthwhile goal, according to Tilson and others (Tilson, 2011) (Thomas, 2008) (Barnard, 2010).

Basic individual freedoms, such as freedom of expression and freedom of religion (Amendment I, 1791) are guaranteed to each of us by the United States Constitution's first ten amendments, known as the Bill of Rights, ratified December 15, 1791. Every alert school age Jack and Jill knows this; but do our highly educated, intellectually refined and astute scholarly faculty know how these rights affect their workplace environment…and whether the private university workplace differs from the public University workplace in regard to religious expression, tolerance and diversity?

There is a need to open a conversation on this topic; many scholars have described the potential benefits of heightening awareness and commencing positive change (Harris & Ackah, 2011) (Wegner, 2006) (Farrell, 2003) (Sorenson, 1996); others remark on the need to neutralize the influence of religion and thus the terms tolerance and diversity are sometimes a counterweight to favoritism (Hanson, 2008) (Barnard, 2010) (Schultz, 2007), or so-called "mainstream" viewpoints (Bryant, 2011) (Huntington, 1996)(Lichterman, 2008). Many look to institutional culture or policies for guidance in preserving individual rights, like those described in the first Amendment; others look to the courts for definition, boundary making and interpretation of these complex issues. The climate and culture of the modern college campus is a perfect laboratory to experiment, though in contrast to a pristine scientific lab, the college campus cannot truly be controlled, made uniform, nor produce results that can be perfectly replicated.

Does the law clarify or confuse?

The Constitutional guarantee (US Constitution, 1791) for separation of church and state is provided for in the "Establishment Clause" of the first amendment, *"Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion,";* this prohibition, this statement of restriction upon Congress is simple in verbiage, but complex in meaning. How can these words offer both individual protection and governmental restrictions?

To address this question, one must also grapple with the functionality of law and the system of judicial review of laws. A shared belief may or may not result in a shared perception; this is evident to scholars who may study the intersections of university practices and religious tolerance and diversity. We may well ask, what is the role of the university as it relates to religion, expression, diversity and tolerance (Harris & Ackah, 2011) (Schultz, 2007)and may find no true peaceable kingdom is possible (Tilson & Venkateswaren, 2004) and yet the commitment to opening and maintaining a dialogue (Dufford, 2009) (Gray, 2010) is tremendously important to the integrity of the organization (Davis G. B., 2009) (Marchand & Stoner, 2012). When we attempt to reconcile practices and policies we may realize the impossible complexity of achieving a singular viewpoint, particularly and certainly when we realize the actions which seem beneficial to some are branded as onerous to others.

Over many years and many cases mainly involving religion in public schools, the Supreme Court has developed three "tests" to be applied to religious practices for determining their constitutionality under the Establishment Clause. These are the Lemon test, the coercion test and the endorsement test (Lemon v. Kurtzman, 1971) (Lee v. Weisman , 1992) (Allegheny County v. ACLU, 1989). The principles of law found in these cases are used to decide most legal questions about the permissibility of actions, especially those actions relating to universities, that arise and are related to religioous expression, establishment and inclusion or exclusion. Understanding the basic tenents of these basic cases can be useful and they are described below.

The Lemon Test

Based on an important 1971 United States Supreme Court case (Lemon v. Kurtzman, 1971), the Court will rule a practice unconstitutional if:

1. It lacks any secular purpose. That is, if the practice lacks any non-religious purpose.
2. The practice either promotes or inhibits religion.
3. Or the practice excessively (in the Court's opinion) involves government with a religion.

The Coercion Test

Based on a 1992 case (Lee v. Weisman,1992) religious practices are examined to see to what extent, if any, pressure is applied to force or coerce individuals to participate. The Court has defined that "Unconstitutional coercion occurs when: (1) the government directs (2) a formal religious exercise (3) in such a way as to oblige the participation of objectors."

The Endorsement Test

Finally, drawing from an 1989 case (Allegheny County v. ACLU, 1989), the practice of the organization or governmental entity is examined to see if it unconstitutionally endorses religion by conveying "a message that religion is 'favored,' 'preferred,' or 'promoted' over other beliefs."

These tests are provided to permit a methodical and structured examination of the practice, and then permit a decision to be made to determine whether the practice is constitutional. For example, the constitutionality of displaying a monument to the Ten Commandments on the grounds of the Texas state capitol (Van Orden v. Perry, 2005) came before the USSC; is such a display a violation of the anti-establishment clause?

In that case, Chief Justice Rehnquist announced the judgment of the Court and delivered an opinion, in which Justices Scalia, Kennedy, and Thomas joined. CJ Rehnquist stated that,

"The question here is whether the Establishment Clause of the First Amendment allows the display of a monument inscribed with the Ten Commandments on the Texas State Capitol grounds. We hold that it does." (Van Orden v. Perry, 2005).

In this simple explanation of the legality of the potentially offensive behavior, the opinion goes on to explain that historical references to religion, law, and tradition can and could be disengaged from a sponsorship or promotion of a specific religion or religious viewpoint. Does this case pose yet additional issues for the far future…for example, what is the longterm effect of excusing historic, questioning current and prohibiting future displays that may have religious undertones or religious associations? Scholars who study diversity and tolerance in the context of judicial decision-making have noted the difficulty of applying the general pronouncements of law and policy to specific examples affecting everyday campus life (Rigaux, 1995) (Comegys, 2012) (Roberson, 1998). There are some who have observed the differences between pre and post September 11, 2001 attitudes with both trepidation and cautious optimism (Putnam R. D., 2001) (Davis, Dunn, & Davis, 2004); others have found a way to describe, in their own voice, the way a group, in this case, campus ministers, feels about the state of religious tolerance and diversity on campus (Davis, Dunn, & Davis, 2004).

In 2010, Justice Ginsburg delivered the opinion of the Supreme Court in a case specifically about public universities and the constitutionality of their attempts to restrict student organizations based upon viewpoint, including religious viewpoints. (Christian Legal Society Chapter of Hastings College of the Law v. Martinez, 2010).

In the Hastings Law case, a lovely trail of precedents is provided to the reader. These past decisions are instrumental in guiding decision-making. We are informed in this case, that discrimination by a university against students or student groups based upon the group's viewpoint is NOT permitted. According to Ginsburg, *"in a series of decisions, this Court has emphasized that the First Amendment generally precludes public universities from denying student organizations access to school sponsored forums because of the groups' viewpoints. See* (Rosenberger v. Rector and Visitors of Univ. of Va., 1995)*);* (Widmar v. Vincent, 1981)*;* (Healy v. James, 1972)*)."*

Ginsburg identifies the main question presented to the USSC by this case,

> *"May a public law school condition its official recognition of a student group— and the attendant use of school funds and facilities—on the organization's agreement to open eligibility for membership and leadership to all students?"* (Christian Legal Society Chapter of Hastings College of the Law v. Martinez, 2010).

The importance and the essence of the historical perspective cannot be diminished; to truly understand what activities, actions and behaviors are legal and which are unconstitutional under the current USSC guidelines requires knowledge and comprehension of these precedential building blocks. In the Rosenberger case, the Widmar case, and in Healy v. James, challenges to

public university actions and policies are minutely explored and analyzed. These cases form compelling links that can bridge historic behaviors to current contemporary behaviors; indeed the irony is that well-reasoned intentional actions may survive based upon conflicting core values that have been recently [post 1964] introduced into our ethical environment.

For example, in the spirit of prohibiting discrimination, a university may decide to ban all religious groups which require members to adhere or subscribe to a credo or set of member rules. This indeed, is the actual circumstances of the Widmar case. In that case, a public university desired to avoid any appearance that it was providing state support for religion; therefore, it denied use of its campus facilities to a registered student group that wanted to use university space for religious worship and discussion. In other words, the university denied the student organizations use of facilities based upon the fact that it was a religious group and perhaps the university feared that letting religiously affiliated student groups use campus facilities would imply the university was promoting religion. This university decision was viewed by the USSC court under the most demanding of all judicial analysis, strict scrutiny. Strict scrutiny review is reserved for those most cherished rights under our constitutional framework, namely where the governmental action may impinge upon individual rights like those implied by the Bill of Rights.

When the USSC reviewed the Widmar case and also determined it should use strict scrutiny review guidelines it finally decided that the university's self-proclaimed reason to deny the student group use of university facilities was not sufficiently compelling; indeed, the university's behavior resulted in the equivalent of discrimination; but the discrimination was not religious discrimination, but discrimination against religious **speech** (Widmar v. Vincent, 1981).

The Rosenberger case, (Rosenberger v. Rector and Visitors of Univ. of Va., 1995) determined that a university generally may not withhold benefits from student groups because of their religious outlook. An officially recognized student group at the University of Virginia was denied student-activity-fee funding to distribute a newspaper because the publication discussed issues from a Christian perspective. The court subjected the university behavior to strict scrutiny and decided that the university violated the First amendments' free speech clause by selectively prohibiting expression of a Christian [religious] viewpoint.

The Healy case (Healy v. James, 1972) was possibly the least controversial of all university anti-discrimination, freedom of expression cases. In Healy, the court ruled that a university requirement forcing a student group to agree to abide by campus rules and regulations as a pre-condition of receiving "official recognition" was a legitimate exercise of the university's authority. The USSC confirmed that this university behavior was not unconstitutional under any interpretation, and did not violate the student group's right of free association.

Of course, these foregoing United States Supreme Court cases constitute the supreme law of the land. Nonetheless, individual states have also faced complicated questions relating to university actions and the state and federal constitutionality of those actions. While the Lemon case of 1971 is a famous federal USSC decision, there is another case with a similar name that pertains to the permissibility of university actions related to funding religious facilities or

programs in the Commonwealth of Virginia. The Virginia Supreme Court case is referred to as the *Lemons* case and is so-named because the author of the opinion is Justice Lemons.   This case revealed an interesting issue regarding public bond funding from the state to a private university that is religiously affiliated and whether such funding for religious purposes is constitutional or not (Virginia College Building Authority v. Barry Lynn, 2000).

In the Virginia College Building Authority v. Barry Lynn case, building funds in the form of bonds were approved for Regent University building projects. The building projects included student housing in the primary location of the university as well as a new campus facility in another city. Barry Lynn and other unnamed Virginia members of Americans United for Separation of Church and State, and Frank Feibelman, Mary Bauer, and Bernard H. Levin appeared during a hearing and contested the legitimacy of the bonds. The hearing to challenge the legitimacy of the bonds was held in circuit court; this resulted in the circuit court determination that the bonds could NOT be validated and further, that Regent University was not eligible to receive this type of funding due to its religious mission. The case was then appealed from the Circuit Court to the Virginia Supreme Court. This issue on appeal was whether Regent was or was not eligible to receive state bond funding pursuant to the Educational Facilities Authority Act, Code § 23-30.39 et seq. After an exceptionally simple though explicit review of the facts of the case, the opinion disclosed that the two issues identified on appeal (namely the free speech issue and the establishment clause issue) easily could be handled.

Thus, two constitutional issues were raised, but only one was required to resolve the case. Only the establishment clause issue was addressed by Justice Lemons who held that permitting Regent University to participate in the Bond financing program did not violate the establishment clause. Furthermore, although the Divinity School of Regent University was NOT eligible for public bond financing, the rest of the Regent University schools were eligible. Since the case was resolved in Regent's favor (with the exception of the School of Divinity), there was no need to review the second issue at all; thus, this decision did not address the free speech issue raised on appeal.

One might ask if the issues raised in these cases reflect the concerns shared by faculty across the United States, and whether these promote an interpretation that a conservative or a liberal professor would embrace (Mayhew & Grunwald, 2006) (Comegys, 2012). In posing the question, "why are profesors liberal" (Gross & Fosse, 2012) there is a humorous attempt to address yet another perception, but is it true and does liberal mean tolerant? Can the discussion truly be held and can personal attitudes ever remain intact whilst the dialogue continues (Jakobsen, 2006) in the public forum? Perhaps the irony of tolerance afficianados themselves exhibiting intolerance as suggested by Krotoszynki in his article entitled, If Judges Were Angels:Religious Equality, Free Exercise, and the (Underappreciated) Merits of Smith (Krotoszynski, 2008) provides the only provable and viable lesson. We can certainly understand this central theme in the academy, the unspoken rule that religious viewpoints are both personal and public, private and yet pertinent as policy. Indeed, the meaning of diversity, tolerance, and

communitas can run headlong into a narrow-minded traffic jam where ideas are not exchanged so much as thrown without being caught. Nonetheless, we attempt to understand the ironies and vagaries of life and can best progress on this goal by studying the views of …ourselves, the faculty.

Diversity and tolerance from a micro view

During "Getting Started Week" of XYZ University, a small public liberal arts University with about 5000 students, many dormant issues are brought to life. In the fall of academic year 2011-2012, the Faculty Senate invited all faculty to an open forum during which faculty formed a variety of interest groups to identify special topics of concern suitable for study and/or action. One of these topics garnered much popular interest; the topic was the university's forthcoming chapel, then currently under construction on the premises of the XYZ state university grounds. Those present identified multiple issues of interest related to the chapel: its use, its scheduling, and its relationship to religious tolerance, religious diversity on campus and the perceptions of the XYZ community about related issues including classic concerns of establishment and separation. There are many fine articles describing tensions, problems and issues related to tolerance and diversity on college campuses; there is no doubt that college life affects religious practices of students(Hartley, 2004), that viewpoint discrimination is a pressing problem (Bryant, 2011) (Wolf, 2006) (Snider, 2004).There are few studies on faculty perceptions, and fewer still that capture faculty perceptions of religious tolerance and diversity in the university setting.

Faculty Senate President and the Senate agreed to form a few ad hoc committees to study the key issues raised during the "Getting Started Week" Open Forum; therefore, the six member committee to study these issues was formed. The general purpose was to investigate the attitudes of the faculty, students and staff of a public university toward a chapel under construction, identify concerns relating to religious observances on campus, and determine whether these topics were pertinent to the campus culture. Members of the committee volunteered to serve; all were tenured but one; members of the committee presented diverse academic disciplines as well as diverse viewpoints. The initial members included one tenured history professor, one restricted business instructor, one tenured associate business professor, one tenured English professor, one tenured Philosophy and Religious Studies) professor, one tenured associate Philosophy and Religious Studies professor. The chair of the committee was appointed by the faculty Senate President; the chair was a member of the executive committee of the faculty Senate.

Charge to the Committee

The official charge to the committee from the Faculty Senate President was phrased thusly:

"Charge: Given the building of the XYZ chapel, the committee will study religious diversity on campus and student attitudes towards religious tolerance in order to understand the ways that XYZ's present state of religious engagement enforces or challenges XYZ's liberal arts mission. The committee will present a report to the Faculty Senate by the end of the 2011-12 academic year."

Practices and Processes

A concise summary of the committees' operational strategies is easily described; a master agenda was set up to outline the timelines, goals, objectives and expected outcomes. The members of the committee identified background resources, reviewed practices relating to chapels on other university campuses, and exchanged recommended reading all pertaining to the keys issues. The chair called the first meeting of the committee in October; the committee met and discussed the goals and objectives, research and products. We decided to utilize an Open Forum Model; this will be achieved by posting our scheduled meetings in advance. It was decided to take minutes to record our thoughts and ideas related to the committee "charge". The agenda was used to jumpstart the exchange of ideas.

Subsequently, the committee began to execute the preliminary objectives by drafting informal guidelines for the committee work; these included that our meetings would be open to the public, and that dates, times and locations of our committee meetings would be made available on the Faculty Senate website. We asked for and received helpful information from the administration related to other state universities with chapels on campus, and noted issues and model policies in place at those universities. We arranged to meet with the campus ministry in November to discuss and learn about the issues of concern to that constituency group and to further inform our study by sharing pertinent views.

A lively and fruitful discussion occurred at the November meeting; the campus ministers and the committee discussed tender subjects including perceptions of religious tolerance, diversity, sensitivity to world religions, sensitivity to non-religious views, awareness of agnostic and atheistic views, privacy, pragmatism, proselytism, and sensitivity to the newest feature of campus life, the erection of a chapel. These topics were reviewed by the committee and eventually reduced to nineteen points. The input from the campus ministry generated additional impetus to conduct a survey and capture feedback from faculty and others on these topics. The November meeting with campus ministers included an invitation to attend any future meetings; and ministers were invited to submit questions for our survey by December.

The Fourteen points

At a full faculty meeting in early December, fourteen issues to be studied by the committee were presented to the faculty via PowerPoint.

1. What is the state of religious diversity on our campus?
2. What is the comfort level of students and faculty on campus regarding religion?
3. Who will determine how and when and by whom the chapel will be used?
4. How can we be encouraged to be sensitive to religious practices and holidays [holy days] of various religions and understand diversity?
5. What is the role of religious organizations, such as Intervarsity, in campus life and how do other student organizations [Greek, frats, sororities, clubs, etc.] view non-religious and religious activities? Are any/many students intimidated by overtly religious behavior?
6. Is there a gathering place or dedicated space for campus ministers?
7. Who will administer the programming and scheduling in the chapel?
8. What is the attitude of non-religious, agnostic or atheistic students, faculty and staff on campus?
9. How can XYZ avoid issues which [named other university] inexpertly addressed regarding the [name omitted] Chapel?
10. Is there a perceived conflict related to a <u>state</u> university housing a chapel on its campus and display of traditional religious symbols affiliated with specific religions?
11. Are there concerns regarding the religious references in benedictions, invocations and the selection of the religious representative at significant University events like Graduation, Honor Code invocation, etc.
12. What are the educational opportunities as we anticipate the chapel and its impact on campus life?
13. How can the Chapel be well integrated into the Mission of XYZ?
14. What do we say is our University point of view about the Chapel?

Several members of the faculty mentioned an interest in attending our Open Forum meetings. Those in attendance of the full faculty meeting were informed that dates for committee meetings would be posted on Senate Web page.

The committee met again in December. At that meeting the committee intended to design initial survey questions and then prepare the survey itself for the next stage involving selection, testing of final items and distribution via Qualtrics software. Our December meeting was a successful working meeting and resulted in the construction of several survey questions. These items were emailed to the director of assessment in January after semester break; the Chair met in person with the director of assessment to classify the questions, as well as determine the best Likert scale and terminology; a draft version of our survey was set up in Qualtrics- a survey software program licensed to the University. In December, the chair wrote a brief committee status report and sent these minutes to Faculty Senate President and Secretary.

In mid January, the chair of the committee met with director of assessment to whittle the questions to an even more manageable number. The survey used objective responses on a 7 point Likert scale and provided opportunities for open-ended responses. The chair met in person and via email with the committee to construct the edited survey form, check for spelling and clarity. It was determined [ultimately by the Office of the Provost] that the committee survey would be combined with other Senate sub-committee surveys on Faculty Life and distributed to the faculty target population for our survey. An original intent to survey the entire campus community or to survey a stratified group of students and staff was re-evaluated and ultimately rejected. Also the amalgamation with other surveys [some intended only for the faculty] altered the scope of the survey; it was determined it would be distributed via email list to faculty only.

The committee also attended to other related matters including university programs and forums relating to religious points of view. In January of Spring term the first Rumi Forum was presented; it was sponsored by XYZ's Department of Philosophy & Religious Studies which featured a panel discussion "Religion and Social Justice," 7 p.m. in Gaines Theatre. This event was free and both XYZ community and the public were invited; it was well attended. It featured two members of the committee. Additional events in this series were planned; the committee invited ideas on similar topics that enrich campus discourse and campus life.

Later in January, the committee met to review the final version of the survey The survey was again modified for clarity, edited for content and approved for distribution. Survey was electronically distributed to all faculty in the database; it was bundled with two other surveys and appeared first in the group of three. Survey was open for two weeks and a reminder was sent out halfway through the survey period to encourage participation.

The preliminary results of the survey were presented to the faculty Senate Executive Committee as well as Provost and to a high ranking administrator at the request for the Faculty Senate President. In addition, the committee chair met in person with the administrator to discuss the survey. At his point, the committee still desired to obtain additional surveys of randomly chosen students from each class, and randomly chosen staff. However, the committee agreed that the undertaking was too intensive and time-consuming for the committee to complete within the current academic year and would not be feasible or advisable due to time constraints, fear of survey fatigue, and reluctance by the administration and some of the committee members to survey the staff and student populations.

The survey closed and results were delivered electronically to the chair who distributed these to the entire committee. The committee met in February and reviewed the survey results. The number of comments received, and the strong response rate was noted. Chair reported on the status of the Survey to the Senate Executive Committee and provided a copy of the survey results at the March SEC meeting. In March the committee met and again reviewed the sections of the survey and allocated additional tasks [including categorization of commentary] to each committee member.

The committee members were each asked to review and analyze sections of the survey responses. The late March meeting of the committee, in which the chair, and two members participated in person, was spent evaluating analysis submitted by the other committee members and refining the method of presenting the commentary. A draft of the commentary analysis was compiled by the chair and distributed at the late March meeting. A report to the Senate consisting of Executive Summary, committee activities and meetings, Survey Findings, Other Campus Practices, Recommendations of the Committee on Key Principles [Open and Welcoming to All] and Topics [Scheduling, Voluntariness, Educational Uses, Interfaith Programs]. Appendices would include the PowerPoint presented to the faculty at the full faculty meeting in April, Sample Facility Use forms, and references utilized by the committee.

In April, a draft report and draft PowerPoint showing highlights of the survey was prepared by the Chair and distributed to the committee for review and comment. After review, a PowerPoint entitled, "committee Highlights of Report to Senate" was emailed to the Senate President, all members of the Senate Executive Committee, Provost, head of Assessment, and high level members of the University administration in mid April. The report was completed and presented to the Faculty Senate and full faculty in April by the chair of the committee.

Survey Objectives

The survey items were intended to:

a. Inquire about attitudes and perceptions of religious tolerance and diversity on campus
b. Inquire about attitudes and perceptions about our forthcoming chapel at XYZ
c. Inquire about attitudes and perceptions about religious ceremonies and traditions on campus
d. Provide opportunity for expression on these topics

Survey Findings pertain only to the results of a faculty survey; no students, staff or administrators were surveyed. The survey design was intentionally without any demographic items; it was designed to capture insight into the attitudes of those responding and was expected to establish that there are diverse attitudes about religion, religious observance, religious diversity and religious tolerance on campus; some faculty expressed concerns in the survey.

Other campus practices related to chapel use were reviewed and compared to assist the committee in making recommendations.

Recommendations of the Committee to the Senate include the adoption of   Key Principles:

[Open and Welcoming to All] and Topics related to our University Chapel [Scheduling, Voluntariness, Educational Uses, Interfaith Programs].

Survey Methodology and Analysis

The survey contained one dozen statements related to religious activities, tolerance, diversity, construction of a chapel on campus; the format is summarized in Table A. As seen in Table A, several statements were associated with Likert scale responses as well as comment boxes; some statements were entirely open-ended [See Table B]. The questionnaire was constructed using Qualtrics survey software; it was alpha and beta tested, and then distributed to faculty via email. The email version of the survey contained an invitation to reply, assurance of

confidentially for respondents, a description of the purpose of the survey, and that the results would be reported in an aggregate format.

Survey was distributed to all 393 faculty using the official database of faculty emails. The number 393 represents all fulltime, part-time and adjunct members of the faculty. No demographic or other identifying questions were imbedded in the survey; that is, no questions about gender, rank, status, length of employment, etc. were asked. The survey was open for 2 weeks; one reminder email was sent to encourage survey completion. By the close of the survey, 166 respondents had completed the survey; each of the seven Likert response items was completed by a minimum of 164 and a maximum of 166 respondents. Each of these seven Likert scale items also received multiple comments by the respondents.

The five additional open-ended inquiries received multiple responses. The comments were not cross-tabbed for this report. Only aggregate data is reported; comments are associated by question, not by respondent.[Table B]

Table A- Schedule of Likert Scale				
Responses to Statements 1-7	#n	mean	s.d.	# of additional comments
1. Comfortable with religious diversity	164	3.75/7	1.63	22
2. XYZ University is sensitive to religious practices	166	3.55/7	1.66	11
3. Gathering place for ministers chaplains	164	3.50/7	1.82	12
4. XYZ treats all religious traditions equally	165	4.48/7	1.77	14
5. Comfortable chapel housed on state campus	165	3.56/7	2.24	14
6. Concern w. religious references in XYZ events	165	3.73/7	2.71	24
7. Chapel can be integrated into XYZ mission	166	3.11/7		13

Table B- Number of responses to Open-ended items [i,ii,iii,iv,v]	
	# of commentary responses
i. On XYZ campus, what is role of faith-based organizations?	88
ii. How should use of chapel be determined?	85
iii. By whom should chapel use be determined?	86
iv. As chapel opens, what are the potential educational opportunities?	66
v. What else should this committee consider related to religious tolerance and diversity?	52

Commentary Analysis and Survey Results by Item
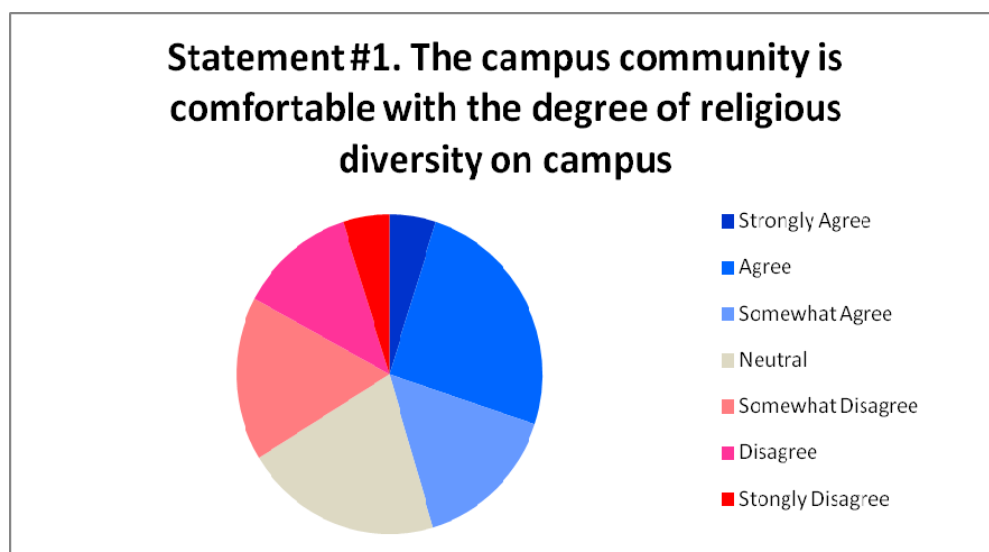
Item # 1- "*The campus community is comfortable with the degree of religious diversity on campus.*"

Objective LIKERT scale responses, n=164, Mean response is 3.75/7, Standard Deviation is 1.63.

The responses slightly favored *agree* in this item. As can be seen in the chart, in which shades of BLUE indicate agreement, and shades of RED indicate disagreement, more respondents agree than disagree. Strongly Agree =5%, Agree = 25%, Somewhat Agree = 16% when compiled totals 46%. The Neutral [neither agrees nor disagrees] is 21%. The compiled Disagree responses are: Somewhat Disagree 16%, Disagree 12% and Strongly Disagree 5% for a total of 33%.

Overall results for Statement #1- AGREE: 46%   DISAGREE: 21%   NEUTRAL: 21%.

Of these 164 respondents to Item #1, 22 also added comments. These comments were reviewed and a table summarizing the commentary, with selected representative quotes is seen in the following table [Table 1 of Item #1 Comments]. It appears that objective responses [n164] and those who also offered comments [n22] are not parallel in point of view. Of those few who offered commentary on this Item #1, more than half offered negative criticism.

<table>
<tr><td colspan="3">Table 1: Sample of Commentary
ITEM # 1: "<i>The campus community is comfortable with the degree of religious diversity on campus.</i>"</td></tr>
<tr><td>Positive or offers positive view or observation</td><td>2</td><td>"The campus diversity mirrors religious diversity of this area of the state"</td></tr>
<tr><td>Non-committal</td><td>5</td><td>"I'm reluctant to speak for anyone else"</td></tr>
<tr><td>Critical or offers negative criticism</td><td>12</td><td>"Very strong Christian focus that can disenfranchise students of other religions"</td></tr>
<tr><td>Not relevant to question or objects to question posed</td><td>3</td><td>"This is an awful question-how can I answer for the community. Isn't that the purpose of a survey? And what can we do about religious diversity anyway? Recruit religious minorities? Accept fewer Christians? Bias is showing through on this question."</td></tr>
<tr><td>TOTAL # COMMENTS</td><td>22</td><td></td></tr>
</table>

Item #2

Statement #2. XYZ University encourages sensitivity to religious practices and holidays [holy days] of various religions and understanding diversity

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Somewhat Agree
- Neutral
- Somewhat Disagree
- Disagree
- Stongly Disagree
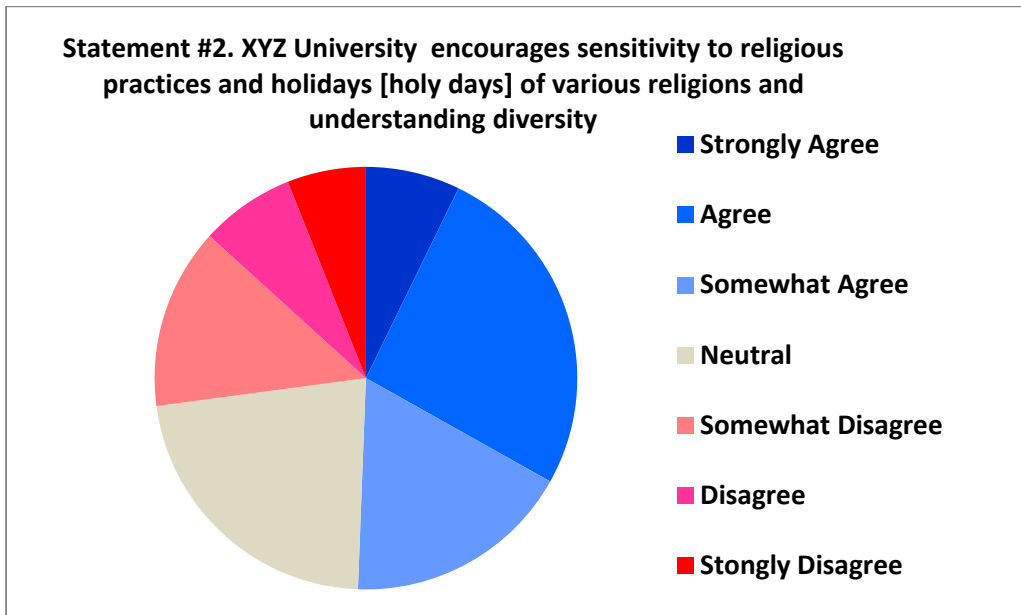
Item #2- "*XYZ encourages sensitivity to religious practices and holidays [holy days] of various religions and understanding diversity.*"

Objective LIKERT scale responses n=166.Mean response is 3.55 out of 7. Standard Deviation is 1.66.

The responses favored Agree in this statement; 7% Strongly Agree, 26% Agree, and 17% Somewhat Agree. When compiled these Agrees total 50%. The Neutral response was 22%.

Somewhat Disagree is 14%, Disagree is 7%, and 6% reported Strongly Disagree. Thus, in this objective portion of Item #2, the Agrees are 50% and the Disagrees are 27%.

Overall results for Statement #2- AGREE: 50%   DISAGREE: 27%   NEUTRAL: 23%.

Table 2: Sample of Commentary		
QUESTION # 2: XYZ encourages sensitivity to religious practices and holidays [holy days] of various religions, and understands diversity.		
Positive or offers positive view or observation	3	"The Provost's Office has issued memos reminding faculty to allow students to miss class without penalty for religious observances, such as the Jewish high holy days" and "I can only say that I haven't noticed any insensitivity by the administration"
Non-committal	2	"I hope so"
Critical or offers negative criticism	5	"Basic lack of awareness is the problem"
Not relevant to question or objects to question posed	1	"Is that even serious? what other non-judeo christian holidays do we have off?"
TOTAL # COMMENTS	11	

Statement # 3. There should be a gathering place or dedicated space for ministers and chaplains

- ■ Strongly Agree
- ■ Agree
- ■ Somewhat Agree
- ■ Neutral
- ■ Somewhat Disagree
- ■ Disagree
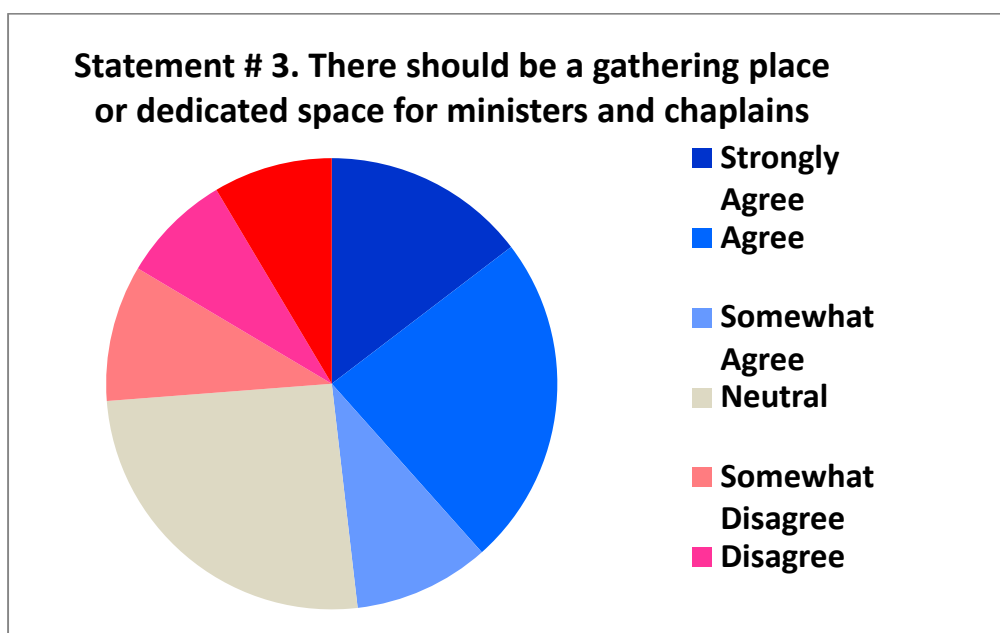
Item # 3. "*There should be a gathering place or dedicated space for ministers and chaplains.*"

164 responded. Of those: 15% Strongly Agree,24% Agree and ,10% Somewhat Agree. 26% were Neutral; and 10% Somewhat Disagree,8% Disagree and 9% Strongly Disagree. Mean is 3.5 out of 7 and the Standard deviation is 1.82. As the pie chart depicts, there were approximately the same number of Neutral responses as the compiled Disagrees.

The Agrees total 49%; Disagrees 27% ,with a parallel number of Neutral responses [26%].

Table 3: Sample of Commentary		
QUESTION # 3: "*There should be a gathering place or dedicated space for campus ministers and chaplains*"		
Comments		
Positive or offers positive view or observation	5	Colleges are academic institutions. As such they should encourage understanding of the multitude of religions practiced around the world. The professors who perform those rituals should have a place to perform them properly." I am religiously unaffiliated, yet value the many traditions and faiths and their spiritual leaders. We're going to have a Chapel, but itinerant chaplains as things stand. Of course they should have a space."
Critical or offers negative criticism	5	I Strongly Disagree. This is a State University; religious practices should be neither encouraged or discouraged."
Not relevant to question or objects to question posed	2	"Loaded question: if we have on staff campus ministers (how about rabbis?) and chaplains, why would we say no to a gathering space for them?"
TOTAL # COMMENTS	12	

Statement # 4. The XYZ campus community treats all religious traditions equally

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Somewhat Agree
- Neutral
- Somewhat Disagree
- Disagree
- Stongly Disagree

Item #4-"*The XYZ campus community treats all religious traditions equally.*"

165 Respondents in which 6% Strongly Agree, 11% Agree, 10% Somewhat Agree. 21% are Neutral, 21% Somewhat Disagree, 14% Disagree and 16% Strongly Disagree. This statement elicited a higher negative response. A majority [51%] disagrees that XYZ campus community treats all religious traditions equally. The Standard Deviation of the responses was 1.77 and the Mean response was 4.48 out of 7.

There were also 14 respondent comments associated with the statement in Item #4. These few comments reference a variety of points of view, objections and other expressions of dissatisfaction. Some complaints include objections to Christian symbolism, holiday trees, a chapel in the shape of a cross and Saturday exams. **All 14 comments are included**:

1. All I can say is that the *administration* does not appear to discriminate based on religious affiliation.
2. Bible Study group at [tile omitted] home is Christian
3. Holiday Happening? No, I do not think all religions traditions are treated equally.
4. I've never heard reference to anything but Protestantism/fundamentalilsm[sic]
5. If we have Jewish students, Saturday exams are not sensitive.
6. I hope so
7. It cannot possibly do so, especially for religions that are simply not represented here.
8. No...conservative evangelical Christian traditions are much more highly valued
9. Not by building a chapel in the shape of a cross. How are Jews, Muslims, Hindus, and Buddhists supposed to feel?
10. The [name omitted] hosts Christian Bible groups in [pronoun omitted] office weekly on an invitation-only basis--serious infraction of the First Amendment.
11. There is an overwhelming Christian sense here.
12. Trees at the holidays are Christian symbols. Even our "holiday" tree on the Great Lawn was still a tree. Before the winter holidays, our campus was filled with Christmas trees - in the DSU, in the Library. I am a Christian, but this still felt like an imposition.
13. Unless your religion is Christianity or Judaism, XYZ is a pretty lonely place.
14. Worded too broadly; this isn't a realistic goal.
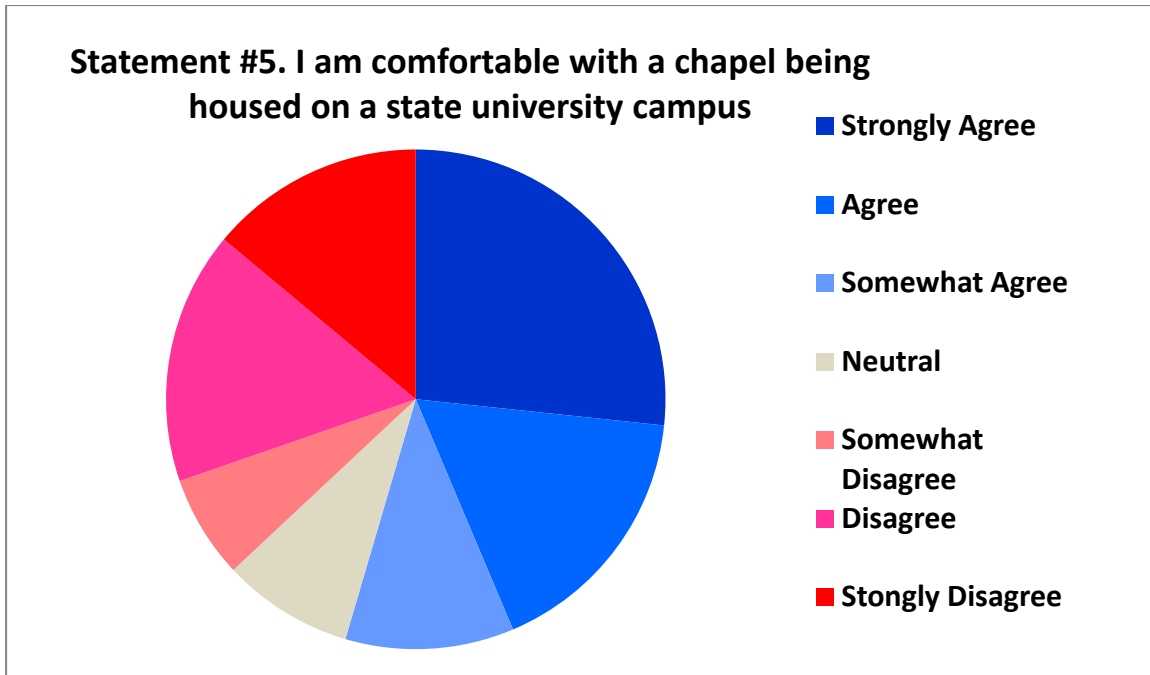
Item #5-*"I am comfortable with a chapel being housed on a state university campus."*

165 Respondents in which 27% Strongly Agree, 17% Agree, 11% Somewhat Agree. 8% are Neutral, 7% Somewhat Disagree, 16% Disagree and 14% Strongly Disagree. This statement elicited a higher positive response. A majority [51%] agrees they are comfortable with a chapel being housed on a state university campus. The Standard Deviation of the responses was 2.24 and the Mean response was 3.56 out of 7. Of the 165 respondents, 14 provided comments. All comments are:

1. As long as it is paid for by private donations, it wouldn't violate the Lemon Test, if applied to a non-federal governmental entity.
2. As long as the funds are private
3. Frankly, I find the building offensive, oppressive, & a waste of money. The space was put to better use as a parking lot & the money would have been better spent building up library resources.
4. I'm comfortable with a faith center, not a chapel. I would look into changing the name of that space.
5. I'm still not sure of the justification for this.
6. I am not a religious person, so do not care for spending all of of [sic]our tuition and tax dollers [sic] on a chapel
7. I am uncertain that a chapel belongs on a state university campus unless it caters to *all* religions equally.

8. If it serves all denominations.
9. if only it weren't so ugly...
10. It would have been very appropriate to have had such a space in December, for the memorial service for the two students who died. Of my previous institutions, two had chapels on campus (though one was a private institution). The state university I was at that had a chapel made every effort to make it nondenominational.
11. I will only be comfortable with the chapel when I am assured that it will not be run by XYZ administrators who owe their positions to the President
12. Strongly Disagree.
13. totally offensive
14. We have a [title omitted] with a fantasy of living in the eighteenth century. Witness the neo-Georgian craze in architecture. And in the eighteenth century, universities were religiously affiliated. Now, we are not, or are not supposed to be. I am most upset at the [name omitted]insistence on calling it a "chapel." And, and [sic] is evident, [pronoun omitted] simply doesn't care that the name has undeniable Christian connotations. So, a "chapel" is not so problematic. Being bullied into accepting that name and context— business as usual.

Statement # 6. I am concerned about religious references in benedictions, invocations or in the selection process of the religious representative at significant university events (ex. Graduation, Honor Code invocation)

- Strongly Agree
- Agree
- Somewhat Agree
- Neutral
- Somewhat Disagree
- Disagree
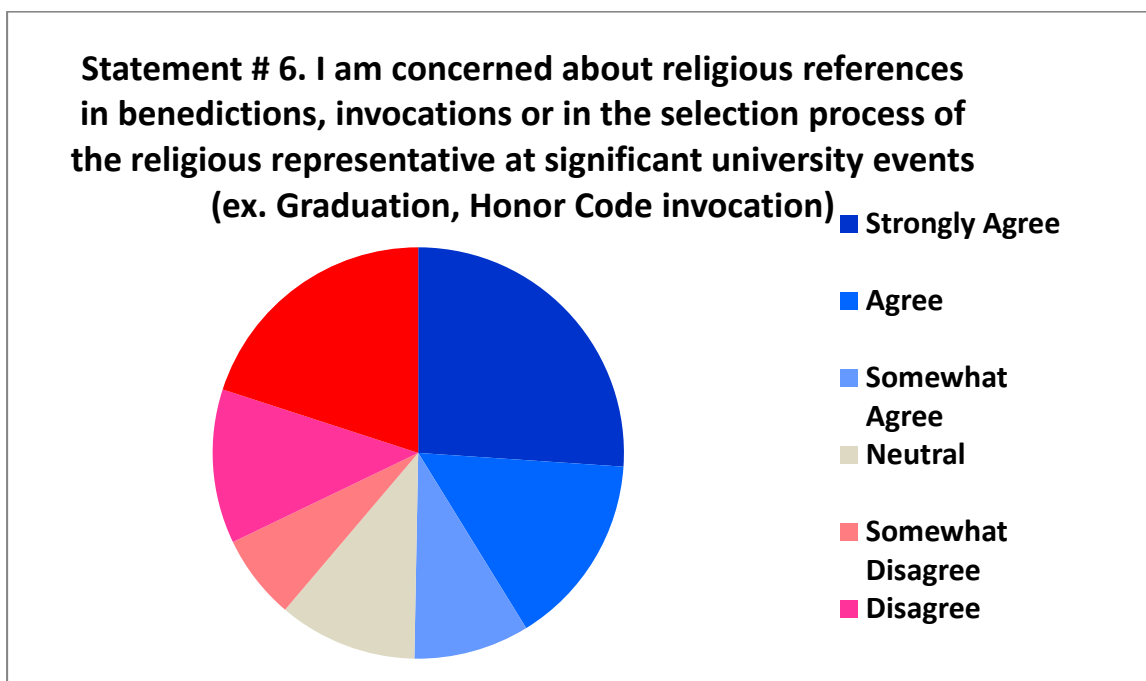
Item #6. "*I am concerned about religious references in benedictions, invocations or in the selection process of the religious representative at significant university events (ex. Graduation, Honor Code invocation).*"

165 Respondents in which 26% Strongly Agree, 15 % Agree, 9 % Somewhat Agree. 11% are Neutral, 7% Somewhat Disagree, 12% Disagree and 20% Strongly Disagree. The Mean response is 3.73, and the Standard Deviation is 2.71. In the objective responses, 11% were Neutral. 50% Agree they are concerned and 39% Disagree they are concerned.

Of all these 165 Respondents to Statement #6, 24 added comments on the statement.

1. Agnostic, atheist, and pantheist students graduate without the aid of the standard Judeo-Christian deity or Jesus. That these entities should be invoked during state university activities bothers me greatly.
2. Atheism is also a religion and atheists need to tolerate other religions. As long as the references are not specific to any religion and only to "our creator", people can interpret however they want, including atheistic interpretations. The hypocrisy of those who want more tolerance on campus are among the most intolerant XYZ citizens.
3. Can someone tell me why we do this? What happened with the separation between church and state?
4. Embarassing[sic], arrogant
5. For the record, I'm a Christian...but there's a separation of church & state for a reason
6. I'd be concerned if there was no reference.
7. I am not a Christian, but feel forced to be a part of Christian rituals and references constantly. We have, for instance, never had a non-Christian give a benediction or invocation. For that matter, we have never had a Catholic priest either. There is a clear bias that we are all forced to be participate [sic] in
8. I believe that we are a public institution that should observe a distinct separation between church and state. Therefore any references[sic] to god is inappropriate to those who do not hold to those beliefs. Better to have a moment of silence which respects everyone's beliefs.
9. I do not take offence but as a evolutionary biologist I do not agree with any specific religion, they are great to teach young children morals but I am strongly against enforcing morality by using fear of a "hell" that can never be scientifically proven.
10. I endorse these things, actually
11. I feel uncomfortable being required to attend an event that includes prayer.
12. It does me no harm and may do some good.
13. I think this creates community and solemnity. As a Christian, I am comfortable with prayer but I do not know how others perceive it.
14. It is completely disrespectful to non-Christians.
15. It simply will take a lawsuit from a student to stop this.
16. Know your audience. Is it christian, christian catholic, etc. Two years ago a student cited the Qaran during the breakfast commencement ceremony, and then there was a collective shocked sigh in the room...

17. Since student groups often choose the religious speaker and since the school if [sic] overwhelmingly Christian, there is an imbalance of Christian clerics.
18. Such benedictions have a long tradition and should be retained, but with an intentionally broader representation to include all faith traditions
19. The prayers are exclusively in Judeo-Christian (mostly Christian) tradition: it seems inappropriate to ask students from other traditions to participate in these and give no representation to their beliefs, particularly on occasions that require attendance or are the culmination of their four years of work toward their degrees. They are stuck between participating in religious observances that do not match their faiths or not attending their own graduation ceremony.
20. The prayers at university events are utterly inappropriate and offensive
21. These our [sic] in keeping with long established traditions in our country.
22. They have no place in the official business of a state institution and they have no relevance[sic] to the academic pursuits
23. This is not a place to pray, and to expect others to observe Christian practices.
24. We should attempt to represent various faiths or to ensure that the religious representative speaks in such a way as to be inclusive of multiple faith traditions.

Statement # 7. The Chapel can be of service to the XYZ community and be well integrated into our University mission

- **Strongly Agree**
- **Agree**
- **Somewhat Agree**
- **Neutral**
- **Somewhat Disagree**
- **Disagree**
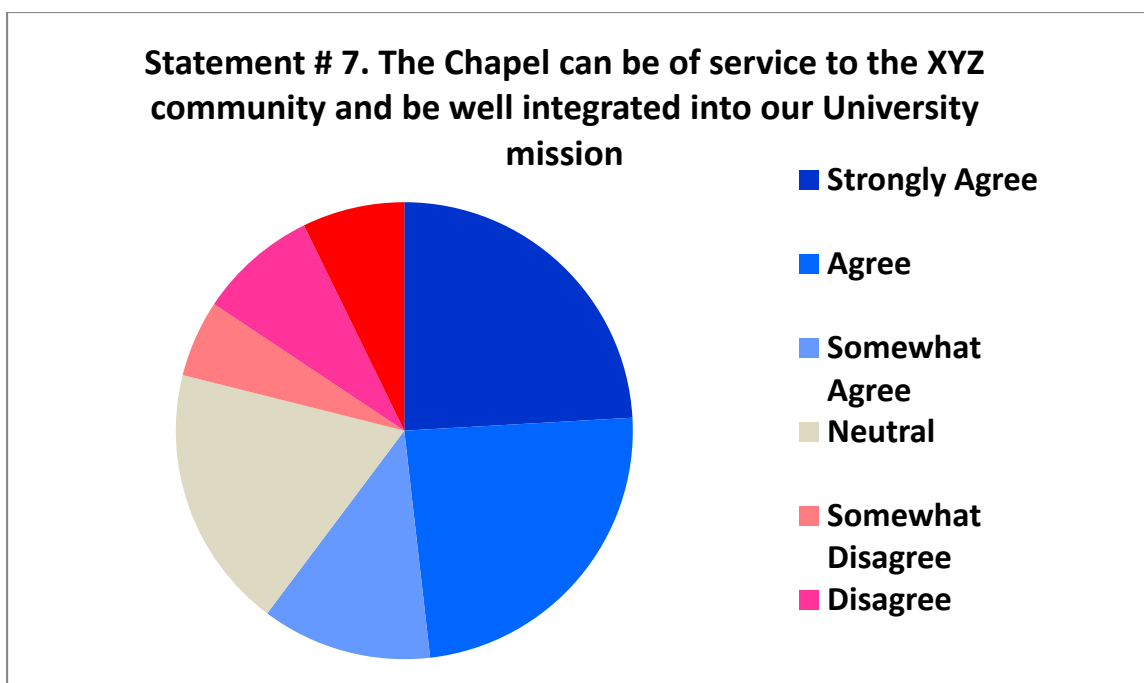
Item #7- *"The chapel can be of service to the XYZ community and be well integrated into our University mission."*

166 Respondents of which 24% Strongly Agree, 24% Agree and 12% Somewhat Agree. 19% are Neutral. 5% Somewhat Disagree, 8% Disagree and 7% Strongly Disagree. The Standard Deviation is 1.88 and the Mean is 3.11 out of 7. In this item, 60% of the Respondents support the statement. Only 20% disagree with the statement. 13 of the 165 Respondents added comments:

1. As a social space and a place for religious students to gather and worship, the Chapel can be of service to the XYZ community.
2. I don't think faith should be integrated into the University Mission, other than to state that students have the ability to explore.
3. If all faiths coexist
4. I feel that this is another space to rent
5. It looks good because main streem [sic] society believes in organized religion so I guess it is ok... It can be used as a device to lure religious students into the school....I grew up Catholic but after attending and graduating from the biology department and taking multiple religious studies classes, I now believe that Christianty [sic] is simply a culmination of previous religions. I know there is something out there but do not believe in "hell".
6. It may further the divided between chriustian [sic] and non-christian faiths
7. Just don't let the [name deleted] control the religious-life agenda. Please.
8. Only in the fact that it might bring more money to campus for the prez.
9. Students should feel comfortable with the direct linkage between chaplains and counseling. I think it is a great addition.
10. the chapel is a bid to get more money from alums for marriage ceremonies and receptions at the DSU
11. There is certainly a place for such a structure. But it should not be Christian.
12. Why would it be integrated into our mission? If I wanted to work at Regent or Liberty, I would have applied there. Furthermore, just because we have [name deleted] Stadium, "NCAA division 3 athletics" isn't included in our mission statement.
13. Yes, it could be used appropriately, and since it is obviously already being built, I would hope it is used conscientiously.

Open-ended response questions- Extra Questions [XQ#1]

In addition to the above 7 items, the survey included additional purely open-ended invitations for comments and thoughts. The results are summarized due to length considerations.

Table X Q #1		
QUESTION # i: "*On the XYZ campus, what is the role of faith-based organizations, such as interfaith ministry, intervarsity, Hillel, in campus life?*" Comments		
Positive or offers positive view or observation	65	"The role is to improve the spiritual lives of students. Academics do wonders for the mind, but very little to nourish the soul."
Non-committal	11	"This question should be really directed to students–not appropriate for faculty–since much if not all of campus life is driven by 4700+ students–and very little by 250+ faculty."
Critical or offers negative criticism	7	"I feel that faith-based organizations should not be highlighted as one of XYZ's strong points. Especially when recruiting future XYZ students in the scientific/evolutionary programs."
Not relevant to question or objects to question posed	5	No example
TOTAL # COMMENTS	88	

Table X Q #2		
QUESTION # ii: "*How should use of the chapel be determined?*"-Comments		
Relevant responses addressing "use" of the chapel	74	"By committee" 22 responses "By regular scheduling practices" 18 responses "For any event, religious or secular" 12 responses "All religions equally served" 11 responses "First come first served" 5 responses "Faith groups given priority" 3 responses "Exclusively religious use" 3 responses
Non-committal	4	"I don't know"
Critical or offers negative criticism	3	"it would be my hope that the building would be renamed and repurposed for general campus use unrelated to religious expression" and also, "not at all."
Not relevant to question or objects to question posed	3	
TOTAL # COMMENTS	85	

Table X Q #3		
QUESTION # iii: *By <u>whom</u> should the use of the chapel be determined?-Comments.*		
Most popular Responsive Suggestion-similar concepts	25	"By university committee"
Popular response	16	"Scheduling Office"
Popular response	12	"Administrative support person"
Popular response	8	"Campus ministers/ministry."
Miscellaneous responses	20	"Independent administrator not subject to outside pressure", "First come first served", "Whoever wants to get married at a University"
Humorous or facetious responses	5	"A bean-counter"
TOTAL # COMMENTS	86	

Table # X Q #4		
QUESTION # iv: *As we anticipate the opening of the chapel, what are the potential educational opportunities for the campus community?* Comments		
Popular religious or spiritual suggestions	18	"A place to go in times of trial, confusion, seeking; a sanctuary of quiet serenity; one-on-one and small group conferences pertaining to spiritual matters; and exposure to less familiar points of view, practices and rites."
What XYZ should encourage	17	"There are[sic] a wealth of opportunities if the chapel is truly used as an interfaith space. Opportunities dwindle if the XYZ community views the chapel as more available or welcome to only one or two faiths. If it is an open and inviting space to all perspectives, students can be encouraged to engage in critical thinking and dialogue about these various perspectives."
Comparison with other universities	5	"Chapel at my undergrad state supported institution was used for concerts, visiting speakers, organization installations, and other non-religious activities. I am sure that people could reserve the space for religious ceremonies, weddings and possibly funerals. I hope XYZ has an open policy like that-open for non-religious as well as religious activities."
Educational Opportunities	14	"There are wonderful opportunities for both interfaith and sectarian education and religious observance. But who will decide on use of the chapel when competing groups require the space at the same time. Also, no official activities should be held in the Chapel- the rights of the non-religious student must be observed too."
Objection posed	12	"The chapel should have no educational role and should never be a place that students or faculty or anyone is required or expected to visit."
TOTAL # COMMENTS	66	

Table X Q #5		
QUESTION # v: *What else should the Ad Hoc Study Committee on Religious Tolerance and Diversity consider?* Comments.		
Wide range of concerns and suggestions – these include perceived objectionable practices, political correctness concerns, free expression concerns, establishment concerns, and others.	32	"Religious intolerance by those who despise the religious freedoms of others". "Separation of church and state". "I do not believe that Christmas celebrations and Bible Study groups at the President's home are appropriate at a public university". "That polytheistic religions (not Christianity, Judaism or Islam) have an equal right to use the chapel if they wish to do so". "Let's stop being afraid of acknowledging the importance of God and religion in the lives of the majority". "The question about concern for religious references and representatives at University functions and ceremonies should be given more attention. If these functions are mandatory, and many of them are for faculty and students, a diversity of perspectives should be represented OR any religious association avoided whatsoever. The extent to which any particular religion is promoted at a state institution is concerning overall."
Non-committal or satisfied	5	"The topics you are looking into seem adequate."

Table X Q #5		
QUESTION # v: *What else should the Ad Hoc Study Committee on Religious Tolerance and Diversity consider?* Comments.		
Offers suggestion – or Asks question Wide range of topics	12	"I think keeping the Chapel non-denominational and open to all should be the goal of the committee". "Making such a space available to the XYZ community is not an endorsement of any particular religion. I do not oppose the implicit endorsement of religion itself as part of a student's wellbeing any more than I do building a rec center.(You don't have to go.) The minority that rejects religion should not exercise a veto over the majority (or Plurality) that embraces some form of spirituality. And given the role of religion in public affairs across the globe, we would dedicate space for confronting these issues directly, and not through shrouded or snarky asides in a classroom." "Drop the label of "chapel". Find another name. Spiritual Center or House of Reflection or Center for Inner Peace or Temple. No more prayer/benediction for university events (graduation, etc.). Where do the agnostics and atheists go?"
Suggestion related to policy	3	"How will the maintenance and monthly expenses the building incurs be paid for if it is a privately funded enterprise? Will state funds pay for the electric and water bills?"
TOTAL # COMMENTS	52	

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In an ideal world, the concepts of tolerance and diversity would be so natural they would be considered unremarkable. In their compelling article about civility which they name "authentic tolerance", Von Bergen et al (Von Bergen, 2012) discuss the virtues of being polite, hospitable, respectful and most of all, accepting. This view is both admirable and ideal; unfortunately, it may be that kindness, civility and respect serve simply to mask negative authentic feelings, contrary beliefs and opposing viewpoints. So, the ultimate dilemma remains intact, how to celebrate differences while protecting and preserving the common good.

The undertaking to inquire about faculty perceptions of diversity and tolerance on our campus was the first of its kind. The open-forum nature of the study committee was at times fruitful and at times less fruitful. The faculty responses to our survey on religious tolerance and diversity, and religious expression and practices on a state university campus are remarkably honest. Faculty demonstrated a wide range of beliefs, feelings and viewpoints and were sometimes sincere, sometimes sarcastic, and sometimes angry. The comments of faculty in the open-ended and commentary demonstrate that some faculty are very angry and may express their anger by exaggeration, insult or broad generalizations. These are methods that are counterintuitive to modern concepts of "authentic tolerance". Nonetheless, the opportunity to voice an opinion and be "counted" can be beneficial to both the listener and the speaker. Again, in an ideal world a dialogue would entail both transmitting ideas AND receiving ideas, perhaps I

secretly long for a suggestion box that would talk back! As the survey results demonstrate, faculty perceptions of diversity and tolerance and attitude about religious diversity and religious tolerance may wax and wane as the individual determines his or her own personal beliefs.

Finally, the committee recommendations to the Faculty Senate include advice on Key Principles for the Chapel, suggestions on Scheduling, Voluntariness, Educational Uses, Interfaith Programs, and recommendations on religious references and religious speakers at university events. The committee will continue to exist for the next academic year with additional members, and all but one member will return to the committee.

REFERENCES

Allegheny County v. ACLU, 492 U.S. 573 (USSC 1989).

Barnard, A. a. (2010, October 8). "Outraged and Outrageous". *New York Times*. New York, New York, USA. Retrieved from http://www.nytimes.com/2010/10/10/nyregion/10geller.html

Bryant, A. N. (2011, August). The Impact of Campus Context, College Encounters, and Religious/Spiritual Struggle on Ecumenical Worldview Development. *Research in Higher Education, 52*(5), 441-459.

Christian Legal Society Chapter of Hastings College of the Law v. Martinez, 08-1371 (USSC 2010).

Comegys, C. (2012, June). The Impact of Religiously Affiliated Universities and Courses in Ethics and Religious Studies on Students' Attitudes Toward Business Ethics. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research, 3*(6), 35-44.

Davis, G. B. (2009, Fall). Personnel Is Policy: Schools, Student groups, and the Right to Discriminate. *Washington and Lee Law Review, 66*(4), 179-183.

Davis, J. K., Dunn, M. S., & Davis, J. S. (2004, Spring). In Their Own Words: Campus Ministers' Perceptions of Their Work and Their Worlds. *College Student Affairs Journal, 23*(2), 173-184.

Dufford, S. (2009, October). An Islamic Perspective on the Commitment to Inter-Religious Dialogue. *Islam and Civilisational Renewal, 1*(1), 186-188.

Farrell, R. J. (2003, May). Religious Pluralism in the Academy: Opening the Dialoge. *Teachers College Record, 105*(4), 652-655.

Franklin, B. (1793). *The Autobiography of Benjamin Franklin.* Philadelphia, PA: Independence Hall Association. Retrieved from http://www.ushistory.org/franklin/autobiography/page49.html

Gray, K. (2010). Keeping the Faiths. *Diverse Issues in Higher Education, 27*(17), 12-14.

Gross, N., & Fosse, E. (2012, March). Why are professors liberal? *Theory and Society, 41*(2), 127-168.

Hanson, F. A. (2008, November/December). What Would Jesus Do...If He Were a Lawyer? *The Humanist, 68*(6), 27-32.

Harris, W. J., & Ackah, A. (2011, August). Freedom of Religion and Accommodating Religious Dress in Schools. *Education Law Journal, 20*(3), 211-242.

Hartley, H. V. (2004). How College Affects Students' Religious Faith and Practice: A Review of Research. *College Student Affairs Journal*, 111-129.

Healy v. James, 408 US 169 (USSC 1972).

Huntington, S. P. (1996). *The Clash of Civilizations and the Remaking of World Order.* New York: Simon and Schuster.

Jakobsen, J. R. (2006, July/August). Campus Religious Conflict SHOULD GO PUBLIC. *Academe, 92*(4), 35-40.

Karp, A. (1991). "George Washington to the Hebrew Congregation in Newport Rhode Island 1790". In A. J. Karp, *From the Ends of the Earth: Judaic Treasures of the Library of Congress.* Washington, DC, USA: Library of Congress. Retrieved from http://www.jewishvirtuallbrary.org/jsource/loc/washington.html

Krotoszynski, R. J. (2008, Summer). If Judges were Angels: Religious Equality, Free Exercise, and the (Underappreciated) Merits of Smith. *North Western University Law Review, 102*(3), 1189-1275.

Lee v. Weisman , 505 U.S. 577 (USSC 1992).

Lemon v. Kurtzman, 403 U.S. 602 (USCA 1971).

Lichterman, P. (2008). Religion and the construction of civic identity. *American Sociological Review, 73*(1), 83-104.

Mackay, R. (2010, August 30). "Fire and Gunshots at Tennessee Mosque Site Called 'Terrorism'". New York, New York, USA. Retrieved from http://thelede.blogs.nytimes.com/2010/08/30/fear-spreads-after-fire-at-tennessee-mosque-site/

Marchand, S., & Stoner, J. (2012, Spring). A Brief history of Accountability in Higher Education. *Phi Kappa Phi Forum, 92*(1), 16-18.

Mayhew, M., & Grunwald, H. &. (2006). Breaking the Silence: Achieving a positive campus climate for diversity from the staff perspective. *Research in Higher Education, 47*, 63-88.

Nicolosi, A. M. (2002, Fall). A Community's Response to Hate: Reactions of a College Campus to Expressions of Homophobia and Heterosexism. *Transformations, 13*(2), 47.

Putnam, R. D. (2001). *Bowling alone:The Collapse and Revival of American Community.* New York, New York, USA: Simon and Schuster.

Putnam, R. D. (2010). *American Grace: How Religion Divides and Unites Us.* New York, New York, USA: Simon and Schuster.

Reimer, S. (2012, Winter). Higher Education and Theological Liberalism: Revisiting the Old Issue. *Sociology of Religion, 71*(4), 393-407.

Rigaux, P. (1995). Opting Out: Critics Charge Use of Student Fees Will Stifle Free Expression, Differing Viewpoints on Campus. *Black Issues in Higher Education, 12*(20), 28.

Roberson, D. (1998). The Supreme Court's shifting tolerance for public aid to parachial schools and the implications for educational choice: Agostini v. Felton, 117 S. Ct. 1997(1997). *Harvard Journal of Law and Public Policy, 21*(3), 861-879.

Rosenberger v. Rector and Visitors of Univ. of Va., 515 U. S. 819 (USSC 1995).

Russo, C. J., & Hee, T. F. (2008, July). The Right of Students to Wear Religious Garb in Public Schools: A Comparative Analysis of the United States and Malaysia. *Education Law Journal, 18*(1), 1-19.

Schultz, K. M. (2007, September). "Favoritism Cannot Be Tolerated": Challenging Protestantism in America's Public Schools and Promoting the Neutral State. *American Quarterly, 59*(3), 565-591.

Snider, M. A. (2004, Spring). Viewpoint Discrimination by Public Universities: Student Religious Organizations and Violations of University Nondiscrimination Policies. *Washington and Lee Law Review, 61*(2), 841-882.

Sorenson, G. (1996). Religion and American Public Education: Conservative religious agendas and the US Constitution. *Education and Urban Society, 28*(3), 293.

Thomas, N. J. (2008). Reframing and Reclaiming Democracy:Higher Education's Challenge. *Peer Review, 10*(2/3), 9-12.

Tilson, D. J. (2011). Public Relations and Religious Diversity: A Conceptual Framework for Fostering a Spirit of Communitas. *Global Media Journal, 4*(1), suppl/ Multi-cultural, Multi-ethnic, and Multi-faith Communication.

Tilson, D. J., & Venkateswaren, A. (2004). Toward a Peaceable Kingdom: Public Relations and Religious Diversity in the US. *Public Relations Quarterly, 49*(2), 37-44.

US Constitution, Amendment I (December 15, 1791).

Van Orden v. Perry, 03-1500 (USSC 2005).

Virginia College Building Authority v. Barry Lynn, 992099 (Commonwealth of VA Supreme Court 2000).

Von Bergen, C. B. (2012). Creating a Culture and Climate of Civility in a Sea of Intolerance. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict, 16*(2), 95-114.

Wegner, J. (2006, July/August). The View from Chapel Hill. *Academe, 92*(4), 46-49.

Widmar v. Vincent, 454 US 263 (USSC 1981).

Wolf, G. (2006, November). The Church of the Non-Believers. *Wired Magazine*. Retrieved from http://www.wired.com/wired/archive/14.11/atheism.html

WE'VE COME A LONG WAY, BABY, OR HAVE WE?

Kathy L. Hill, Sam Houston State University

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the research was to explore how far the women in the US workforce have come including (1) a comparison of men and women's pay, work positions, and promotion possibilities, (2) a review of women entrepreneurs, and (3) an examination of obstacles facing women in the workplace.

In 1964, women were only 34.56 percent of the labor force, for the last 24 years, women have been more than 45 percent of the labor force on payrolls. Women's growth in the labor force slowed in the 1990's, but by March 2010, they were up to 46.86 percent of the labor force (English, Hartmann, & Hayes, 2010).

Although tremendous growth of women participating in the workforce is evident, equal treatment is not. Women continue to make 75 percent of the salary of a white male (Institute for Women's Policy, 2010) and fill 51.4 percent of managerial positions (Catalyst Statistical Overview, 2010). Barriers such as stereotypical attitudes, 'good ole boy networks', and the 'glass ceiling' continue to stifle women's achievements and contributions to the corporate world.

As a result, many women are electing nontraditional careers such as engineering and science technicians, computer specialists, and starting their own businesses. Women have also invaded and proven themselves successful in traditional white male bastions–architects, economists, pharmacists, lawyers, and journalists.

INTRODUCTION

A plethora of articles has been published addressing the significant changes in US society and workforce demographics. Massive changes have been documented by the U.S. Census Bureau, (2010), indicating the change in Caucasian population in 1950 of 89 percent, to the 74.5 percent in 2009. The Hispanic population has grown from 6 percent in 1990 to 15.1 percent in 2009. Although the total percentage of Asian Americans is only 4.4 percent, this demographic group is currently the fastest growing in the US (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010).

Additionally, the number of older workers is increasing significantly, graying US society and the labor force. People in their 50's, 60's or 70's are staying employed longer than at any time on record. Fifty-five percent of people ages 60 to 64 were in the labor market during the first 11 months of 2010, up from 47 percent for the same period in 2000 (Cauchon, 2010). This will significantly impact organizations, insurance costs, and social security and medicare benefits. Perhaps one of the greatest demographic shifts is the influx of women into the workforce. In

2009, 59.2% of all women over 16 were in the labor force, compared to 72% of all men. Women made up 46.7% of the labor force and 51.4% of managerial, professional, and related positions (Catalyst Management, 2010).

The purpose of this research is to explore how far the women in the US workforce have come including (1) a comparison of men and women's pay, work positions, and promotion possibilities, (2) a review of women entrepreneurs, and (3) an examination of obstacles facing women in the workplace.

WOMEN ENTER THE US WORKFORCE

During the early 1900's , women's participation in the workforce gradually increased but made up a small percentage of the total workforce–in 1900, the percentage of female workers was only 18.1 percent and had risen only to 20.4 percent by 1920 and 21.9 percent by 1930 (Kay, 2000).

World War II brought major change in the demographics of the US work force. Many women entered the job market, working on farms and in factories to take the place of men who had gone to war (Judy & D'Amico, 1997). During this difficult time, women became the head of the home, held full-time jobs, and educated their children. Generally, women did not return home after World War II and made up 57 percent of the workforce in 1945 (Kay, 2000).

American women proved as adept factory workers during World War II (Judy & D'Amico, 1997). In 1964, women were 34.56 percent of the labor force. Women have made up more than 45 percent of the labor force on payrolls for the last 24 years. Women's growth in the labor force slowed in the 1990's. Since 1990, women's and men's employment growth has been about the same, but by March 2010, women were 46.86 percent of the labor force (English, Hartmann, & Hayes, 2010). The current recession, which began in December 2007, has increased women's share of paid employment because the heavier job losses were among men. This is expected to be temporary. As the economy recovers, men's employment will probably rebound more than women's (English, Hartmann, & Hayes, 2010).

Obtaining advanced education is a reliable prediction of work force participation, and women have taken advantage of this path for entering the work force in greater numbers and at higher entry levels, possessing greater possibilities for promotion and advancement. Women's education levels at the undergraduate and graduate levels have matched the educational level of men since the early 1980's and continued through the 1990's (Equal Pay, 1998). In 2005 - 2006 women earned 55 percent of bachelor's degrees, 60 percent of master's degrees, and 48.9 percent of doctorates. Women are projected to earn 62.9 percent of master's degrees and 55.5 percent of doctorate degrees by 2016 - 2017 (Catalyst Academia, 2010).

Traditionally, American society placed the man as head of the home and 'breadwinner.' However, developments within the US society, mainly increased divorce rates, women's changing self-perceptions, and abandonment of families by men, truly launched new trends.

There are about 14 million single parents in the U.S. today. They are responsible for raising 21.6 million of our nation's children. Statistics show that 83.1% of the single custodial parents are mothers as compared with 16.9% being custodial fathers (Single Parent Statistics, 2010). In 2008, 26.3% of children lived in one-parent families (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). The number of people who live alone comprise 27 percent of all households, up from a mere seven percent in 1950 (U.S. Census Bureau Department of Commerce, 2010).

Around 54% of custodial single parents are employed on a full-time basis, 28% on a part-time basis and 18% do not work at all. Around 25% of single parent households live below the Federal poverty levels, while only 12% of the entire United States population lives below the poverty level. In 2007, only 5 percent of single parent custodians sought help from the Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF), which was formerly known as Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC). In 1993 AFDC provided help to 22 percent of single parent custodians (Thadani, 2010).

A COMPARISON OF MEN AND WOMEN'S PAY, WORK POSITIONS, AND PROMOTION POSSIBILITIES

Even though a gap remains between men and women's pay, the gap has been gradually closing since 1973. Women's pay experienced its greatest increase during the 1980's and incremental increases during the 1990's. At the same time, men's earnings peaked in the 1970's and have 'drifted downward' since (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). In 1967, women earned 60 cents for full-time work, while men earned one dollar. Although progress in equity pay has been made, there remains a startling imbalance. According to the U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau, women continued to make only 80 cents to a man's one dollar in 2009 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010).

The AFL-CIO Report (2011) supports the US Department of Labor's statistics indicating that women's wages in 2009 were about 80 percent of males. Additionally, the AFL-CIO Report indicated that wages for minority women were much worse. In 2009, the earnings for African American women were 68.9 percent of white men's earnings while Latinas' earnings were 60.2 percent of white men's earnings.

Women faculty members earn less than men faculty across all ranks and institutions, also. Women earn 81 cents while men earn one dollar. Just as in corporate America, the percentage of women in academic positions drops off the higher they climb. Women held 23 percent of presidential positions at all colleges while men held 77 percent in 2006. Women made up 45 percent of senior administrators and 38 percent of chief academic officers. Minorities comprise only 10 percent of college presidents, 16 percent of senior leaders, and 10 percent of chief academic officers (Catalyst Academia, 2010).

In 2007 about 24.6 percent of custodial parents and their children had incomes below the poverty level. The poverty rate of custodial parents declined between 1993 (33.3 percent) and

2001 (23.4 percent) and has remained statistically unchanged since. The poverty rate of custodial mothers fell from 36.8 percent in 1993 to 27.0 percent in 2007 and was significantly higher than the poverty rate for custodial fathers, 12.9 percent. Custodial parents who were less than 30 years of age, Black, or never married tended to have higher poverty rates (about 35 percent). Custodial parents with full-time, year-round employment had a poverty rate of 8.1 percent, while custodial parents who did not work or who were participants in public assistance programs had poverty rates of about 57.0 percent in 2007 (Grall, 2009).

Although the pay gap is decreasing, the presence of women in top-level corporate positions is minimal. A very small percentage of women have made it to the highest levels of authority in US corporations. In 2009, women held 49% of jobs in the U.S. and 50% of all managerial jobs. In some mid-level occupations, women even outnumbered the men in 2006. Women have been promoted and make up 2.4 percent of the U.S. Fortune 500 chief executives. They make up 1.8 percent in the FTSE 500 of corporate officers, and 12.5 percent of directors in the FTSE 100 compared to 12.2 percent in 2009 and 12 percent in 2008 (Toegel, 2011; Prosser, 2010). Only 6.3 percent of top managers are women (chairman, vice chairman, CEO, president, chief operating officer, senior executive vice president, executive vice president); in numbers this percentage represents 161 women versus 1969 men (Soares, Combopiano, Regis, Shur, & Wong, 2010).

WOMEN ENTREPRENEURS

Women are starting their own businesses because of the flexibility, freedom, and opportunity it gives them. They are trying to find a balance between work and family; therefore, women are more likely to start home-based businesses (MacNeil, 2009). In 1977, women owned fewer than one million firms (Equal Pay, 1998). However, women owned businesses increased 15 percent each year between 1977 and 1992. By 1992, they owned nearly 6.4 million businesses and by 2009, they owned 50 percent or more of 10.1 million businesses (Equal Pay, 1998; Center for Women's Business Research, 2011). By 2009, three-quarters of women-owned businesses were majority owned by women (51% or more) for a total of 7.2 million firms and generating $1.1 trillion in sales. Women of color majority owned 1.9 million organizations and generated $165 billion in revenues annually. Only one in five organizations with revenue of $1 million or more is woman-owned. Three percent of all women-owned firms have revenues of $1 million or more compared with 6 percent of men-owned firms (Center for Women's Business Research, 2011).

BARRIERS

Catalyst conducted a survey in 2007 and 2008 of women and men who graduated between 1996 and 2007 from MBA programs at 26 leading business schools in Asia, Canada,

Europe, and the United States. Findings come from 4,143 women and men who graduated from full-time MBA programs and worked full-time in companies at the time of the survey (Carter & Silva, 2010). The survey found that women were more likely to take a first assignment at a lower rank with fewer responsibilities than men, taking into account years of experience, industry, and global region. The survey finds that 60 percent of women were entry-level contributors compared to 46 percent of men. At the first level manager, 30 percent of the women were contributors while 34 percent of the men were. At the mid-manager level, 8 percent of the women were contributors compared to 13 percent of the men, and at the CEO/Senior Executive level only 2 percent of the women were contributors while 6 percent of the men were (Carter & Silva, 2010). What the survey shows is that since women start behind the men, they don't catch up in promotions or in salary. The survey also found that, on average, women are being paid $4,600 less in their first job than men (Carter & Silva, 2010).

> *Just give it time. Not yet, but soon. When women get the right education, the right training, the right work experience, and the right aspirations—to succeed at the highest levels of business—then we will see parity (Carter & Silva, 2010)*

Women are poised to make rapid gains to the top. They have been graduating with advanced professional degrees often surpassing the number of men, and they have been moving into managerial ranks consistently. Why then, aren't women well represented at the helm of global companies, in boardrooms, and in C-suites? (Carter & Silva, 2010)

According to Hinchliff (2010) of the Louisville Women's Careers Examiner, "Glass ceilings are still found in the workplaces, not only in the discrimination of pay scales, but also marked by sexual harassment, exploitation at work and as a feeling of insecurity in women due to conduct of the opposite sex." She, also, believes that the absence of role models at the highest levels could be why women keep hitting the glass ceiling since only 2.6 percent of CEOs of Fortune 500 companies are female.

Hinchliff (2010) advocates women equality among workers, male and female, especially during this time of economic desperation. "Women should be given equal chances to succeed and accomplish their goals in the workforce without any discrimination."

Businesses are beginning to set challenging goals (25 percent) around the number of women in senior management positions. These goals have a strong research base that shows the value of having a gender-diverse management team. It shows that companies that have more than three women in management positions have a better return on equity and assets than those who don't. Companies tend to score higher on organizational effectiveness criteria, and because women are better prepared for meetings, they raise the bar for others. This leads to better discussions and better decisions (Toegel, 2011). It seems that companies are starting to understand that women can contribute positively to their companies.

Because of the downturn of the economy, men have been hit harder than women. The majority of workers in the US could be women for the first time in history (Gibbs, 2009).

Women make 85 percent of the buying decisions and make most of the chief purchases for their households. For every two males who graduate from college or get a higher degree, three women do. Women make up the majority of the workforce in 9 out of 10 occupations the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2010) predicts and will add the most jobs in the next eight years (Luscombe, 2010). In 2007, women were $90 billion worth of the $200 billion consumer-electronics business and $105 billion of the $256 billion home-improvement market. Most industries are trying to lure the female dollar; such as, Harley-Davidson has a Women Riders section on its website; Habanos, Cuban cigar manufacturer, launched the Julleta, a smaller, milder cigar aimed specifically at women; Kodak has a chief listening officer on staff; Best Buy has the WOLFs, Women's Leadership Forum groups consisting of the WOLF pack (employees from one area), WOLF den (employees and sometimes customers from one store), and a group of omega WOLFs (customers) which is "translating to significant financial results"; and Midas who has the getting-it-right program, Greet, Explain, Thank (G.E.T.) (Luscombe, 2010).

SUMMARY

Women entered the U.S. work force in mass and in nontraditional work positions primarily in response to jobs left vacant during World War II. After the War many women continued to work although they were relegated to role segregated jobs and jobs considered to be traditional, such as teaching and nursing. Women had to fight for equality in the home and in the workplace. Education was one venue that women elected to follow to increase their value, worth, and advancement possibilities in the workplace.

Significant societal changes also placed women in position of head of home and as sole support or in dual income family situations. Even though women made some gains in equal treatment via the 1963 Equal Pay Act and the 1964 Civil Rights Act, the US workforce has predominantly remained a Caucasian male bastion.

In 2009, women held 49% of jobs in the U.S. and 50% of all managerial jobs. In some mid-level occupations, women even outnumbered the men in 2006. Women have been promoted and make up 2.4 percent of the U.S. Fortune 500 chief executives. They make up 1.8 percent in the FTSE 500 of corporate officers, and 12.5 percent of directors in the FTSE 100 compared to 12.2 percent in 2009 and 12 percent in 2008 (Toegel, 2011; Prosser, 2010). Only 6.3 percent of top managers are women (chairman, vice chairman, CEO, president, chief operating officer, senior executive vice president, executive vice president); in numbers this percentage represents 161 women versus 1969 men (Soares, Combopiano, Regis, Shur, & Wong, 2010).

Even though a gap remains between men and women's pay, the gap has been gradually closing since 1973. Men's earnings peaked in the 1970's and have 'drifted downward' since (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). In 1967, women earned 60 cents for full-time work, while men earned one dollar. According to the U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau, women continued to make only 80 cents to a man's one dollar in 2009 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010).

Even though women are beginning to be respected in the workforce, the glass ceiling is still found in the workplace. It is found in the discrimination of pay scales, sexual harassment, exploitation at work, and insecurity because of the conduct of the opposite sex. Women keep hitting the glass ceiling, also, because of the absence of role models at the highest levels (Hinchliff, 2010).

Because of these and other hindrances, many women are choosing nontraditional work positions such as financial managers, computer specialists, and self-employment. By 2009, three-quarters of women-owned businesses were majority owned by women (51% or more) for a total of 7.2 million firms and generating $1.1 trillion in sales. Women of color majority owned 1.9 million organizations and generated $165 billion in revenues annually. Only one in five organizations with revenue of $1 million or more is woman-owned. Three percent of all women-owned firms have revenues of $1 million or more compared with 6 percent of men-owned firms (Center for Women's Business Research, 2011).

Although women are making great strides in the work environment, they still face and must deal with stereotypical attitudes, "good ole boy" networks, and the "glass ceiling."

REFERENCES

AFL-CIO. (2011). It's time for working women to earn equal pay. Retrieved http://www.aflcio.org/issues/jobseconomy/women/equalpay/.

Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2010 July 8). Women's-to-men's earnings ratio by age, 2009. Current Population Survey. Retrieved from http://www.bls.gov/opub/ted/2010/ted_20100708.htm

Carter, N. M. & Silva, C. (2010). Pipeline's broken promise. Catalyst. Retrieved from http://www.catalyst.org/

Catalyst. (2010). Statistical overview of women in the workplace. Retrieved from http://www.catalyst.org/publication/219/statistical-overview-of-women-in-the-workplace

Catalyst. (2010). Women in academia. Retrieved from http://www.catalyst.org/file/288/qt_women_in_academia.pdf

Catalyst. (2010). Women in U.S. management. Retrieved from http://www.catalyst.org/file/412/2010_us_census_women_executive_officers_and_top_earners_final.pdf

Cauchon, D, (2010 December 15). American workforce growing grayer. *USA TODAY*. Retrieved from http://www.usatoday.com/money/workplace/2010-12-14-older-workers-employment_N.htm

Center for Women's Business Research. (2011). Key facts about women-owned businesses: The overall picture: 2008 - 2009. Retrieved from http://www.womensbusinessresearchcenter.org/research/keyfacts/

English, A., Hartmann, H., & Hayes, J. (2010 April). Are women now half the labor force? The truth about women and equal participation in the labor force. Institute for Women's Policy Research, Briefing Paper. Retrieved from www.iwpr.org.

Equal pay: A thirty-five year perspective. (1998). U.S. Depart Of Labor, Women's Bureau. Washington, D.C.

Gibbs, N. (2009 October 14). What women want now. *Time*. Retrieved from Retrieved from http://www.time.com/time/specials/packages/article/0,28804,1930277_1930145_1930309,00.html

Grall, T. S. (2009 November). Custodial Mothers and Fathers and their child support: 2007. Current Population Reports. Retrieved from http://singleparents.about.com/gi/o.htm?zi=1/XJ&zTi=1&sdn =singleparents&cdn=parenting&tm=10&gps=269_133_1263_614&f=00&su=p284.9.336.ip_p504.1.336.ip _&tt=11&bt=1&bts=1&zu=http%3A//www.census.gov/prod/2009pubs/p60-237.pdf

Hinchliff, N. (2010 January 6). Why are women still banging their heads against the glass ceiling? Examiner.com. Retrieved from http://www.examiner.com/women-s-careers-in-louisville/why-are-women-still-banging-their-heads

Institute for Women's Policy Research. (2010 September). The gender wage gap. Retrieved from http: www.cnesus.gov/hhes/www/pcstables/032010/perinc/new05_001.htm

Judy, R. W. & D'Amico, C. (1997). Workforce 2020: Work and workers in the 21st century. Indiana: Hudson Institute.

Kay, H.H. (2000 December). From the second sex to the joint venture: An overview of women's rights and family law in the United States during the twentieth century. *California Law Review, 88*(6), 2017-2093.

Luscombe, B. (2010 November 22). Woman power: The Rise of the sheconomy. *Time*. Retrieved from http://www.time.com/time/printout/0.8816.2030913.00.html

MacNeil, N. (2009 October 21). Women in business and entrepreneurship series part 2 of 3: The facts and trends. *Her Business, Women & Entrepreneurship, Work-Life Balance*. Retrieved from http://shetakesontheworld.net/2009/10/women-in-business-and-entrepreneurship-series-part2

Prosser, D. (2010 December 10). Quotas are the way to smash the glass ceiling. *The Independent*. Retrieved from http://www.independent.co.uk/news/business/comment/david-prosser-quotas-are-the-way-to-smash-the-glass-ceiling-2160577.html#

Single parent statistics–Do the stats show the real view? (2010). Single Parent Center. Retrieved from http://www.singleparentcenter.net/single-parent-statistics.html

Soares, R., Combopiano, J., Regis, A., Shur, Y., & Wong, R. (2010, December). 2010 Catalyst census: Fortune 500 women executive officers and top earners. Catalyst. Retrieved from http://www.catalyst.org/publication/459/2010-catalyst-census-fortune-500-women-executive

Thadani, R. (2010 April 21). Single parent statistics. Buzzle.com Intelligent Life on the web. Retrieved from http://www.buzzle.com/articles/single-parent-statistics.html

Toegel, G. (2011 February 18). Disappointing statistics, positive outlook. *Forbes*. Retrieved from http://www.forbes.com/2011/02/18/women-business-management-forbes-woman-leadership

U.S. Census Bureau, Washington, D.C. (2010). U.S. Census Bureau, 2005-2009 American Community Survey. Retrieved from http://factfinder.census.gov/servlet/ACSSAFFFacts?_submenuId=factsheet_0&_sse=on

U.S. Census Bureau, U. S. Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. (2010 July 19).Unmarried and single Americans week September 19 - 25, 2010. Retrieved from http://factfinder.census.gov/servlet/ACSSAFFFacts?_submenuId=factsheet_0&_sse=on

THE TRANSFER OF MILITARY CULTURE TO PRIVATE SECTOR ORGANIZATIONS: A SENSE OF DUTY EMERGES

Janet Tinoco, Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University
Anke Arnaud, Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University

ABSTRACT

As a government institution, the United States (US) Department of Defense (DOD) wields powerful influence on private sector organizations in the defense industry beyond the implications of public policy. In our conceptual research, we study the DOD as a key customer stakeholder in these organizations and investigate the influence of its military culture on these private sector organizations. By analyzing the culture of the DOD, we uncover a new dimension, sense of duty, not previously studied in mainstream organization literature. We propose that this dimension transfers from the DOD to its private sector suppliers in the defense industry via interorganizational relationships, characterized by type, strength and tenure. Finally, we review the implications of culture transference for both entities and discuss generalizability of findings beyond the setting of this study.

INTRODUCTION

"We Never Forget Who We Are Working For [Tm]."
Lockheed Martin Company motto (2012)

The literature suggests that organizational culture differs between industries (e.g. Gordon, 1985; Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990) as well as professions and occupational communities (e.g., Barley, 1986; Bloor & Dawson, 1994; van Maanen & Barley, 1984). Some research suggests that the cultures of organizations may differ because institutions are open-systems that interact with the external environment beyond their immediate communities, an environment that includes key stakeholders in their organizations (Katz & Kahn, 1966; Schein, 2004). As such, it is likely that some stakeholders can have an effect on the development and transformation of organizations and their cultures; especially those influential stakeholders that have unique, strong, and lasting relationships with organizations outside their immediate institutional boundaries. Interestingly, despite the rich and abundant research in organizational culture, there is a large gap in the research arena on the evolution and transfer of culture, particularly as a result of stakeholder influence.

A stakeholder represents an individual or group that can affect or is affected by the actions, decisions, policies, or goals of an organization (Caroll & Buchholz, 2008). As a key stakeholder to organizations in the private sector, the United States (US) government can influence all practices, actions, policies and decisions of these organizations via the public policy process (e.g., Buchholz & Rosenthal, 2004). It develops, implements, and enforces the laws and regulations that frame how private sector organizations conduct business. Yet, it is likely that the government can impact some organizations far beyond the reach of laws and regulations, spreading into the more "personal" characteristics of the firm, such as its organizational culture. Specifically, we argue that the Department of Defense (DOD), as an integral part of the US government, represents a highly influential stakeholder that can affect the culture of private sector organizations in the defense industry. With its unique and deeply embedded military culture, it influences and shapes the culture of these organizations through culture transference. This transference and the resulting implications for both the DOD and organizations in the defense industry are particularly important in today's business climate where the boundaries between government and the private sector have begun to blur (e.g., Grimshaw et al., 2005). We propose that the main avenue in which culture transference occurs is via the intensely interconnected relationships between the two entities.

Past research on interorganizational relationships suggests that these relationships develop because a key stakeholder may perceive it has similar values to an organization in which it desires to interact (Voss et al., 2000) and that some organizations view themselves as deeply interconnected with others through dyadic bonds, subsequently leading to shared norms and values (e.g., Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Brickson, 2007). While this literature suggests organizations can develop strongly interconnected relationships, it does not inform us about the effect of those relationships on the transfer of organizational culture. More specifically, we are not aware of research that has investigated why and how culture transfers between organizations, or more specifically, between the DOD, as a key customer stakeholder, to organizations in the US defense industry.

In this conceptual study, we analyze the military culture of the DOD using the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) developed by O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell (1991) and create propositions regarding the DOD's culture. We also research how cultural dimensions can transfer from the DOD to the defense organizations via interorganizational relationships. While we acknowledge that in many settings culture transference can be bidirectional, we propose this direction on which to base our initial conceptual research due to the uniqueness of the government-business relationship, the unusual environment of a "business of war" (Longnecker, 2005, p. 131) on which their relationship is built, and the highly influential nature of the DOD as customer stakeholder. Furthermore, after extensive review of the extant literature of military culture, as well as culture transference, we believe that the subject research arena is severely underrepresented in mainstream literature, but rich with new knowledge possibilities for organizational management. In our research, the organizations in the defense industry are

comprised of non-government suppliers of research, development, production, and service of military equipment and facilities. Henceforth, the terms, DOD and military will be used interchangeably.

With this backdrop, our contribution is twofold. First, we review the literature on organizational culture and US military culture and uncover a distinctive culture dimension, sense of duty, not previously identified in mainstream management research yet, as we argue, is also relevant outside the immediate boundaries of the military. We define sense of duty as the degree to which an organization feels a profound obligation and allegiance to support a mission or cause. We propose that this unique dimension that highly defines the military culture of the DOD also aids in characterizing organizations in the defense industry and is the result of culture transference. Because of its prominence in the military culture, we focus on the sense of duty as the key dimension of the DOD's culture that transfers to the subject organizations. Second, we discuss interorganizational relationships and their effect on the transfer of culture, drawing on resource dependence theory, institutional theory and organizational behavior to develop our arguments. As shown in Figure 1, we specifically propose that the conduit for and likelihood of culture transference of sense of duty lies in the type, strength, and tenure of the relationship between the DOD and the defense industry organization. Finally, we close our discussion with implications for management and suggestions for future research.

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of Culture Transference of Sense of Duty

GOVERNMENT (DOD)
Customer Stakeholder with a Military Culture defined by a Sense of Duty

CULTURE TRANSFER via Interorganization-al Relationships (Type, Strength, Tenure)

PRIVATE SECTOR
Defense Organization as Supplier with an Organizational Culture with a Sense of Duty
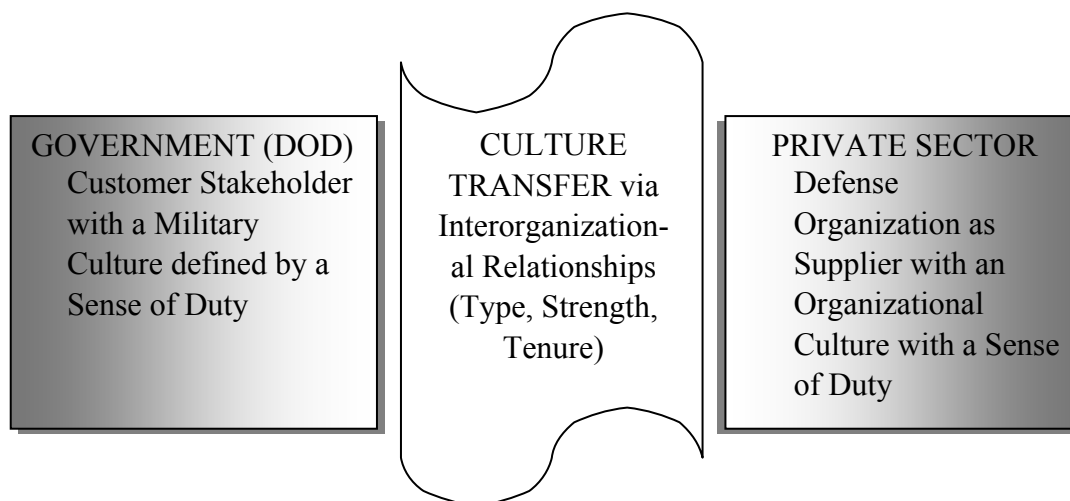
ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND THE MILITARY

While differences exist regarding how to define culture and what dimensions make-up organizational culture, most scholars agree that culture is socially constructed, unique to an organization, and that the common elements of organizational culture include fundamental

assumptions, values, and behavioral norms and expectations (e.g., O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Rousseau, 1990; Schein, 2004). Scholars agree that values represent the most fundamental and defining elements of organizational culture and that those values manifest in organizational norms, rituals and ceremonies, stories, language, myths, and other cultural artifacts (Chatman & Jehn, 1994; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Denison, 1996; Enz, 1988; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). Thus, we define organizational culture as the widely shared and strongly held values by members of a social system (see Chatman & Jehn, 1994; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Peters & Waterman, 1982).

Gordon (1991) argues that the foundation of organizational culture is partially grounded in the organization's assumptions about its *customers*. He states that an organization's values, that is, its cultural dimensions, are born from these assumptions. Scholars have studied culture and identified cultural dimensions across and within industries such as utilities and non-defense high technology firms (Gordon 1985), private manufacturers of electronics, chemicals, and consumer products, service companies in banking, transportation, and trade, and some public institutions (e.g. telecommunications, police) (Hofstede et al. 1990), general consulting firms, public accounting firms, freight carrier firms, and the US Postal Service (Chatman & Jehn 1994), industry clusters such as basic and assembly manufacturing, telephone utilities, power utilities, banking, and insurance (Christensen & Gordon 1999), and fine arts museums and wineries (Phillips 1994). While all these studies represent a diverse cross-section of industries, it is not exhaustive, leaving open the door for some dimension(s) not yet uncovered (Hofstede et al., 1990) but highly relevant in today's environment.

Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) and the Military

In our quest to understand the culture of the military, we use the Organizational Culture Profile (OCP) (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell 1991). It is based on the perspective that the organization's external environment is a key determinant of its organizational culture. The OCP has been found to be robust in characterizing organizational culture within and across industries (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell 1991). Thus, it is well-suited for our research on the military culture of the DOD, as well as, our extension to the organizations in the defense industry.

The OCP defines seven key values as the foundation of organizational culture: (1) *innovative* cultures are opportunistic, where individuals are encouraged to take risks and experiment; (2) *stable* cultures emphasizes organizational growth, security of employment and predictability; (3) cultures characterized by *respect for its people* emphasize respect for individual rights, fairness, tolerance, and personal concern; (4) cultures characterized by a *results orientation* emphasize achievement and focus on results of the tasks rather than the processes, and procedures to achieve these results; (5) *team oriented* cultures emphasize cohesiveness, collaboration, and people-orientation where tasks are structured around teams rather than individuals; (6) *attention to detail* cultures encourage individuals to be analytical, precise, and

pay attention to detail; and (7) *aggressiveness* cultures emphasize competitiveness and aggressiveness as a key to organizational success.

its suppliers, visible through the extensive use of military metaphors by top management.

Table 1: Conceptual Studies on Military Culture		
Study (Year)	**Research Focus**	**Core Findings**
Apgar & Keane (2004)	Military transformation	Transformation is making military needs more transparent and turning the military into a more flexible and inviting organization.
Ault (2003)	Need to change US army culture	Culture needs to encourage risk taking and willingness to embrace uncertainty.
Buckingham (1999)	The warrior ethos and culture is compared to the current society and its values	Army's role is shifting from war fighting to peace keeping. Military culture and war ethos characterized by discipline, sacrifice, cohesion, strength and authority need to remain intact and resist blindly adapting to societal changes sacrificing military effectiveness.
Carpenter (2006)	How to change army's institutional culture to innovation culture	To change army culture into an innovation culture, the strategic vision needs to support change at all levels, innovative behavior needs to be embedded and rewarded by leaders and leaders need to be mentors for followers.
Combs (2007)	US army cultural obstacles to transformational leadership	Leadership composition, "by the book," "by the numbers" process driven garrison and training culture, linear progression system, and current officer evaluation systems impede transformational leadership development in the military. Military culture needs to embrace innovation, imagination, adaptability, agility, intellectual and individual stimulation.
Deavel (1998)	Military culture and privatization	Military does not operate like a private organization and hence suffers from inefficiencies, lack of commitment and willingness to change, adapt, and innovate.
Driessnack (2003)	Transforming the military culture	Military culture needs to be open to change; leadership needs to embrace innovation values (externally sensitive, rapid short term strategic planning, flexibility and diversity). Military needs better, faster learners, rich network of relationships. Effective leadership/strategy, processes, structures, and personnel policy, can help to speed the cultural transformation.
Dunivin (1994)	Change and continuity of military culture	Military's dominant paradigm of masculine-warrior conflicts with the evolving model of the military culture of equality and social change.
Gumbus, Woodilla, & York (2007)	Case study focused how military culture is maintained and gender issues.	While a case study, it is based on actual events regarding a female cadet in a military academy during a one year time period (approximately 2004-2005). It discusses whistle-blowing, organizational bullying, ethical decisions on honoring codes of conduct and the implications of fraternization.
Murray (1999)	Complexities involved in military culture, and suggestions for moving American military culture in positive directions	The US military is threatened by its self-satisfied, intellectually stagnant culture. It needs to change slowly to integrate innovation. Services need to practice profound introspection to understand themselves, and see how different their world views are from those of their opponents.
Murray (2003)	Organizational climate key to army effectiveness	Army culture is decaying. The army needs to develop a strong and supportive climate by making more effective use of the command climate surveys, implement 360-degree feedback for leaders at the senior tactical leadership level, and an effective officer education system.
Nuppenau (1993)	Factors influencing the success of the military's process improvement teams	Success of process improvement teams is decreased because military culture lacks a focus on empowerment, innovation, and tolerance for risk taking. It suffers from a rigid, short-term action, and quick-fixes numerical goal orientation.
Trainor (2000)	Military values and culture; civil-military relations	Key military values include obedience, loyalty, integrity, duty, selflessness, hierarchy, subordination, discipline. In future, battlefield is likely to be more widely dispersed, interconnected, highly relativistic, and more reliant on individual or very small group action.
Watson (2006)	Trends in U.S. military culture	The increasingly domestic tone of the military mission and the military's reliance upon defense contractors to achieve its objectives has led to the erosion of the military culture.

Table 1: Conceptual Studies on Military Culture		
Study (Year)	**Research Focus**	**Core Findings**
Wilson (2008)	Defining military culture as specific form of institutional culture	Military culture differs from other institutions because of its unique mission (internal structure and required resources), and relationship to society, state and other institutions.
Winslow (2000)	Literature review of army culture applying perspectives of integration (major themes, larger values, and structures) differentiation (insight into subgroups and informal groups) and fragmentation (making sense of contradictory and ambiguous fragments of culture)	The dialectic between the impulse to order and the chaos of warfare constitutes the heart of the army culture. The cross pull between order and chaos becomes visible in forms such as highly ritualized promotion, ceremonies and drunken initiation and hazings, rationality of tactics and the raw emotions of battle skills and training.
Winsor (1996)	Military perspectives of organizations and their effects on organizational culture	Even though businesses recognize the shortcomings of the hierarchical, inflexible, overspecialized, dictatorial and disciplinarian features of the military culture, middle-level workers are manifesting a demand for metaphors and idols that embrace these attributes.

Table 2: Empirical Studies on Military Culture				
Study (Year)	**Research Focus**	**Data**	**Reference to Culture Concepts**	**Core Findings**
Breslin (2000)	Social and environmental influences on change in the military's organizational culture	Empirical: n= 211 army war college students and 680 company grade officers (captains and lieutenants) serving in operations units	Traditional values, discipline (authority), organizational honesty/openness, channels, commissioned officer leaders, climate/teamwork/morale, mutual trust, evaluation/promotion, resource/personnel availability, family balance/support, pay/ allowances, racial/gender issues, societal comparison	All groups expressed pride in military service, willingness to sacrifice self for the mission, respect for civilian society and race and gender initiatives in the military. War fighting is still core mission of the military. Both groups perceive low balance between career and family, low levels of trust, and poor leadership, morale (poorly defined missions, shortage of personnel and resources etc.), and quality of military life. Senior leaders seemed out of touch with conditions of their units.
Rhoads (2005)	Tests model of antecedents and outcomes of an entrepreneurial mindset in the Air Force	Empirical: master thesis	Individual characteristics, context, process entrepreneurial mindset job performance, job satisfaction, affective commitment	Entrepreneurship in Air Force can be fostered through right processes (structure) and culture. Culture should promote learning, education, clear vision for organization, organizational spontaneity.
Soeters & Boer (2000)	Organizational culture and flight safety in military aviation (Air Force)	Empirical: secondary data	Focuses on Hofstede's (1984, 1991) cultural values of individualism, uncertainty avoidance, and power distance	The authors found relatively less accidents in individualistic (organizational) cultures. The authors found relatively more accidents in uncertainty avoidant and higher power distance cultures.

The military is a social institution with values and beliefs developed and nurtured to support the "management of violence" (Snider, 1999). These values are instilled early in the soldier's career as part of basic training and socialization into this unique organization (Carpenter, 2006) and bonded with rituals, symbols, and heroic stories (Dunivin, 1994). While

the military culture is recognized and studied within the armed forces and by military sociologists (e.g., Breslin, 2000; Buckingham, 1999; Carpenter, 2006; Coates & Pelligrin, 1965; Rhoads, 2005; Riccio et al, 2004), it has received limited attention outside these areas regardless of its relevance and extension beyond the immediate military setting. Tables 1 and 2 summarize the extant conceptual and empirical research, respectively, that focuses on military culture relevant to this study. One of the few studies in mainstream literature that highlights the application of military culture outside the federal government community is Longnecker's (2005) study on the use of war metaphors in the top management team of a defense organization. Her research is particularly useful in highlighting the transference of "war culture" elements between the DOD and

Table 3 recaps each OCP dimension and its presence in the military culture and detailed as follows. First, research indicates that relative to organizational cultures in the US private sector, the culture of the military is not known to emphasize and encourage innovation. The military is highly structured and controlling, and embraces strict rank hierarchies (Collins, 1998; Janowitz, 1959) with the goal to "minimize the uncertainty of the battlefield," (Ault, 2003, p. 6). In fact, there have been recent calls from within the DOD for a more innovative military culture (Rumsfeld, 2002) and an increased tolerance for uncertainty (Ault, 2003). Second, stability within the military is less pronounced because the environment is characterized by fluctuating DOD budgets and tenuous congressional approval for budgets and activities (Augustine, 1983). These uncertainties result in constant adjustments to military assignments and force build-up and reductions, and contribute to an overall sense of instability. Third, studies indicate that the military culture is generally characterized by a limited respect for the individual needs of its personnel relative to private industry. In fact, many individual freedoms are restricted; individual rights are considered secondary to the needs of society and country (Janowitz, 1959). Surveys of military personnel indicate a discontent with respect to basic rights of pay, allowances, and career-family life balance (Breslin, 2000). In recent years, the US military is seen as slowly advancing towards a more tolerant culture with a stronger concern for member needs (e.g. Collins, 1998; Hillen, 1999; Snider, 1999). Fourth, research indicates that strong cultures, such as that of the military, are typically results-oriented (Hofstede et al., 1990; Peters & Waterman, 1982) although one could argue that the military culture is also highly process-oriented as indicated by the need to follow strict procedures (Collins, 1998). Fifth, the cultural value of teamwork is salient in the military as unit cohesion and teamwork in the severest of circumstances, respect for comrades and loyalty to the group (Collins, 1998; Moskos, 1976; Segal & Segal, 1983; Snider, 1999). Reliable and error free performance in a team environment is required; otherwise catastrophes may occur (Weick & Roberts, 1993). Sixth, the military culture can be defined as detail oriented. For example, the highly intensive and complicated technologies of weaponry and military systems require an inordinate amount of detail and precision to work effectively under the severest of circumstances and prevent injury or death in military training, during development, manufacturing, and testing of products. Seventh, the

military culture can be characterized as aggressive and competitive. It is "an organized system of activity directed at the achievement of certain goals...for carrying on aggression against other societies, protecting the society against aggression by others, and providing the means for maintaining domestic order and control" (Coates & Pelligrin, 1965, p. 10).

Table 3: OCP and the US Military Culture		
Dimension	**Descriptor**	**US DOD Military Culture (Relative to Private Sector)**
Innovation	Opportunistic, risk taking, experimenting, innovative	Historically, a low tolerance for uncertainty and risk-taking. Recent calls for more risk taking and innovation
Stability	Rule oriented, stability, predictability, security of employment	Fluctuations in government spending and constantly changing military assignments reduce stability and predictability
Respect for it people	Respect for individual rights, fairness, tolerance, and personal concern	Individual rights secondary to needs of society and country; more recently advancing toward higher level of tolerance.
Result/outcome orientation	Achievement oriented, action oriented, high expectations, results oriented	Strong culture towards achievements and results
Team orientation	Cohesiveness, collaboration, and people/team-oriented	Military requires unit cohesion and teamwork in the severest of circumstances
Attention to detail	Analytical, precise, and attention to detail	Weaponry and military systems require detail and precision
Aggressiveness	Aggressive, competitive	Essential for "management of violence"

As we examined the military culture using the seven value dimensions of the OCP, we noticed that these dimensions do not address one of the most important value dimensions that characterizes the military and distinguishes it from many other institutions. None of the seven value dimensions address the key military culture dimension that is based on the preservation of life and society and is deeply-rooted in the military ethos (e.g., Breslin, 2000; Buckingham, 1999; Riccio et al., 2004), transcends all branches of the military, serves to distinguish the military from many other organizations, and remains constant and unwavering despite other changes internal and external to the DOD (e.g., Buckingham, 1999; Trainor, 2000). As aforementioned, we term this value dimension, sense of duty, and define it as the degree to which an organization feels a profound obligation and allegiance to support a mission or cause. This definition is based on an integration of the military culture descriptions in literature and dictionary word definitions for duty and allegiance. The Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary (http://merriam-webster.com/dictionary) defines duty as "obligatory tasks, conduct, service, or functions that arise from one's position (as in life or in a group)" (merriam-webster.com/dictionary/duty) while allegiance is defined as "devotion or loyalty to a person, group, or cause." (merriam-webster.com/dictionary/allegiance). Thus, our definition encompasses obligation, allegiance, devotion, and loyalty to a cause or mission.

Sense of duty, which embraces values of integrity, subordination, unbending obedience, fervent loyalty, duty, selflessness and strict discipline (Trainor, 2000), makes up a "set of normative self-understandings for which the members define the profession's corporate identity, code of conduct, and social worth" (Snider 1999). It is the integral and innermost component of

the military culture which emphasizes honor and commitment to duty, unconditional service and allegiance to the nation, achievement of the greater good to the sacrifice of self, and unqualified authority to those in command (Breslin, 2000; Riccio et al., 2004). It includes attitudes and behavior of what is considered right, good, and important (Breslin, 2000).

It is critical to understand that sense of duty is distinct from organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) which is defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p. 4). OCB dimensions include, for example, altruism, conscientiousness, sportsmanship, and courtesy (Farh, Zhong, & Organ 2004). On the other hand, sense of duty isan organizational value that is based on preservation of life and society, allegiance, and the goal of the greater good as opposed to self. It is linked to Kantian good will "governed by duty" as stated in Awal et al. 2006. It is formally recognized by the DOD in their reward system in terms of rank promotions and military assignments, as well as meritorious rewards for distinguished service, duty, and valor.

The military, characterized by a high sense of duty, is selflessly committed to and will loyally pursue the mission or cause with focus, obedience, diligence and discipline. It is obvious that the uniqueness and breadth of the military culture that fills the DOD are not fully captured by the seven value dimensions included in the OCP or by comparable research in the field (cf, Denison, 1996; Hofstede et al., 1990, Rousseau, 1990). Hence we suggest,

> *P1*   *The organizational culture of the DOD can be characterized by eight dimensions: Sense of Duty, Innovation, Stability, Respect for People, Results Orientation, Teamwork, Attention to Detail, and Aggressiveness.*

THEORETICAL BASIS FOR CULTURE TRANSFERENCE

Recognizing that a sense of duty permeates the military culture, the task at hand is to determine the theoretical foundation in which this unique cultural dimension can transfer from DOD to private-sector defense organization. As key customer of defense services and products, the DOD has an especially important stake in organizations in the defense industry. On the other hand, the strategic importance of stakeholders to an organization is determined by the contributions of the stakeholder to the environmental uncertainty facing the organization, the ability of the stakeholder to reduce environmental uncertainty for the organization, and the organization's strategic choice (Harrison & St. John, 1996). Organizations in the defense industry make the strategic choice to concentrate their enterprise on one key customer, the DOD. Therefore, the military – being the single largest customer for defense related services and products - contributes to and can reduce the environmental uncertainty of organizations from the defense industry. Likewise, defense organizations reduce the uncertainty for the DOD in their steady supply of military weaponry.

Harrison and St. John (1996) suggest that partnering tactics help organizations to reduce this uncertainty by developing strong, stable and enduring relationships with strategically important stakeholders. Because of the DOD's unique position as the nation's key protector of security and peace, it represents a unique customer stakeholder who will seek to develop and control the relationships with defense organizations. As the DOD develops these relationships, it influences the operation and culture of those organizations. Specifically, the deeply-rooted, core cultural values, such as the sense of duty, will affect interactions and transactions between the DOD and its suppliers and find their way into the culture of those organizations.

In explaining the transference of organizational culture, and, more specifically, sense of duty, we begin by discussing generalized theories and relevant literatures and their respective arguments as to why and how this phenomenon can occur. We then turn our focus to the phenomenon studied under the military-defense organization context, its implications for the new proposed cultural dimension, and finally propositions of culture transference based on attributes of the interorganizational relationship between the two entities.

Resource Dependence Theory

Resource dependence theory suggests that all organizations (public and private) are influenced by and depend on resources for survival. Contingent on the degree of resource dependence, organizations strive to control these resources, thereby reducing their dependence on and uncertainty with regard to those critical resources while increasing their power and control (e.g., Mizruchi & Yoo, 2002; Pfeffer, 1982). Control of resource dependencies produces outcomes of increased chance of survival, improved autonomy and increased freedom from external influences (Pfeffer, 1982). Resource dependence theory recognizes the interdependence between stakeholder and organization and the desire for each party in the relationship to reduce dependence and uncertainty.

Resource dependence theory offers several explanations for the transference of organizational culture from customer stakeholder to organization. First, an organization will voluntarily alter its structure and behavior patterns to acquire and maintain needed, external resources (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978; Ulrich & Barney, 1984). This indicates that organizations may be open to influence and willingly adapt their cultures when it proves advantageous to increasing access to valuable resources controlled by a key stakeholder, such as a major customer. Second, dependence and resource scarcity may induce cooperation between stakeholder and organization rather than "arm's length" transactions and competitiveness. As customers provide the revenue for the sustainability and the success of profit-seeking organizations, they hold a special position among the organizations' stakeholders. Because these organizations are dependent on customers, customers have power to affect the organization (Berman et al., 1999). In lieu of power and control attempts over those customer stakeholders, organizations may resort to cooperation and build unique, not-easily imitated, and strong

relationships with those key stakeholders that can provide scarce resources (funding, purchase of goods, etc.). These unique and strong relationships are more likely to lead to the transfer of organizational culture or cultural dimensions from stakeholder to organization. Third, outside of cooperative interorganizational relationships, strong stakeholders can use powerful tactics from their position in the environment to promote their value system, seeking to control resources through culture transference, particularly among organizations on which they are highly dependent.

Institutional Theory

Institutional theory has generally focused on external groups (Hirsch 1972), and the mimetic, coercive and normative practices that lead to homogeneity in the form and behavior of organizations within the same organizational field. An organizational field includes "organizations that, at the aggregate, constitute a recognized area of institutional life" (DiMaggio & Powell 1983, p. 148). The principle of isomorphism states that variation in organizations is "isomorphic" to the variation in the environment (Hannan & Freeman 1977; Hawley 1968). Specifically, mimetic isomorphism develops from organizations mimicking others in their field, seeking enhanced legitimacy, which is defined as "a generalized perception or assumption that the actions of an entity are desirable, proper, or appropriate within some socially constructed system of norms, values, beliefs and definitions (Suchman, 1995, p.574). Conversely, organizations may also become isomorphic to the environment and legitimized via coercion, such as that which may occur as a result of environmental (government) regulation (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983) or in response to the dictations and influences of strong stakeholders in their environment. Once legitimized, firms have easier access to resources and increase their chances for survival (Delacroix & Rao, 1994).

Both types of isomorphism can lead to culture transfer and, ultimately, homogeneity in organizational culture between stakeholder and organization. In the process of adhering and conforming to the rules and norms of their institutional environment, organizations become instilled with values and social meaning compatibility with the characteristics of their environments and its stakeholders (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977).

Organizational Behavior Theory

Schein (2004) explains that culture is socially constructed as founders surround themselves with people who share their values. Organizations attract and select individuals for employment who are perceived to have similar values to those of the organization and who fit the culture of the organization (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991; Schneider, 1987). The fit or congruence between individual and organizational values and culture benefits the organization

and promotes performance and long-term sustainability (see Kristof, 1996; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991).

Adapting this argument to the organizational level, value congruence between two organizations that are highly interrelated and co-dependent should benefit both organizations and promote their performance and long-term sustainability. Therefore, stakeholder organizations may choose to build stronger relationships with organizations that share the same values and culture or have the potential for *changing* their culture to match that of the stakeholders in order to maximize organization-to-organization fit. Greater fit may increase the ability of the stakeholder organization to influence the organization to meet its requirements and needs. On the other hand, the organization may be more successful if its culture and sense of reality matches the demands and needs of its key stakeholders. Research supports that organizations and the content of their cultures need to fit their environments and stakeholders; cultural patterns need to mirror environmental challenges (e.g. Kotter & Heskett, 1992). Voss et al. (2000) identified that organizations build relationships with other organizations that share similar values and that these relationships, characterized by value congruence, serve to reduce complexity and increase resource flow.

CULTURE TRANSFERENCE OF SENSE OF DUTY

The theories outlined above provide a foundation for why and how culture transference can occur between stakeholders and organizations, but do not address the specific mechanism in the interorganizational relationship that functions as a conduit for our proposed eighth dimension, sense of duty, to move between the organizations, specifically from the DOD, a customer stakeholder, to defense organizations. As depicted in Figure 1, we believe that the path for and likelihood of culture transference lie in the type, strength, and tenure of the relationship between the military stakeholder and defense organizations. More specifically, we propose that one, two, or all three attributes can increase the likelihood of culture transference of sense of duty.

Type of Relationship

Interorganizational relationships can be thought of as lying on a continuum anchored by non-cooperative arm's length transactions on one end and cooperative networks, partnerships, and alliances on the other (Gulati, 1995). These relationships are often explored by the advantages they bring to both organizations in a dyadic relationship or to the organizations within a network (e.g., Dyer, 1998; Gulati, 1998; Kogut, 1988; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). The established relationship between stakeholder and organization can take on multiple characteristics drawn from different points on this continuum ranging from coercive (non-

negotiable contractual requirements, government laws, and the like) to cooperative and social relationships.

Using the core cultural dimension of the DOD, sense of duty, we argue that the customer stakeholder and its requirements for national defense products generate a strong sense of duty in the organizations in the US defense industry. The transfer and emergence of the dimension is a result of (a) coercion through non-negotiable contractual requirements and dictations of law (public policy) and (b) collaborations and social relationships that develop between the military stakeholder and defense organization.

Coercive Relationships

Institutional theory refers to isomorphism as a process that "forces one unit in a population to resemble other units" in its organizational field (DiMaggio & Powell 1983, p.149). Coercive isomorphism is the result of formal and informal pressures such as environmental regulations and enforcement of important values imposed on one organization by another organization (DiMaggio & Powell 1983). As organizations adapt to these formal and informal isomorphic pressures, they will become more similar to those organizations that exercise pressure. For example, defense organizations are required by law to provide annual security training, security briefings, and individual employee security certifications, as well as determine the level of security clearance needed for all employees in order for them to perform their immediate tasks on the military program.

Resource dependence theory states that depending on the level of resource dependence, an organization will seek to exercise control over resources and use its power to secure those scarce resources (Mizruchi & Yoo, 2002; Pfeffer, 1982). This suggests powerful stakeholders, such as the DOD, have the ability to control and influence defense industry organizations. As the single most important customer, they control important resources, i.e., revenues that are important to the organizations' sustainability. Berman et al. (1999) identified that customers hold a key position among other stakeholders and affect an organization's strategy. Stakeholders may use tactics grounded in their position in the environment to secure access to important resources. These tactics may include coercive pressures that lead to the transfer of cultural values from stakeholder to defense organizations.

The relationship between the DOD and the organizations in the defense industry can be partially described as coercive. As necessitated by the government rules, laws and procedures, defense organizations implement tight US security controls in facilities, processes and procedures, to protect US classified (i.e. Confidential, Secret, Top Secret) information, hardware, and software from "landing in the wrong hands." Furthermore, inappropriate employee conduct or lax discipline with respect to classified information may result in a number of punishments by the organization depending on severity of infraction: time off, job loss, and, possibly, federal penalty (Tinoco, 2005). Thus, organizational use and protection of classified data and the

resulting development of national defense systems elicit a strong sense of duty in the organization.

The DOD manages and controls the suppliers of military products and services in a similar fashion as they control their soldiers, implicitly expecting and requiring discipline, military ethos, cohesion, and loyalty. They often direct their suppliers to implement similar management and control techniques in their organizations as a result of the highly unique requirements of the customer and the product (Tinoco, 2005). Compliance to copious military standards, processes, procedures, and regulations for product design, development, and test, as well as program management, financial reporting, and program planning, among other areas, are contractual requirements (Augustine, 1983) that necessitate military-like discipline and a sense of duty to implement. Note that we do not argue that all coercive elements will result in a culture shift, but we propose that coercive elements that are tightly associated with a sense of duty will. Thus, we posit:

> *P2*   *As the influence of a sense of duty increases via coercive relationships between the DOD and the defense industry organization, the likelihood of culture transference of sense of duty increases from the DOD to the defense industry organization.*

Cooperative and Social Relationships

Resource dependence theory suggests that as an alternative to seeking power and control, organizations may resort to cooperation and build unique relationships with those organizations that are needed for key and scarce resources. As stakeholders, such as the DOD, recognize their resource dependence on key organizations, they may become more cooperative and interact voluntarily with their suppliers and build cohesive relationships instilling their values into the culture of those organizations.

The unique relationship between the DOD and defense organizations is becoming more intertwined as the DOD turns to outsourcing many key military functions. Military activity and operations in more recent years has resulted in a substantial increase in the DOD's reliance on non-military entities to achieve military objectives (Lovelace, 1997; Watson, 2006). "During ... Operation Desert Storm, 9,200 contractors were deployed to support military operations in the Middle East....by 1999, some military observers were expressing sentiments like, 'Never has there been such a reliance on non-military members to accomplish tasks directly affecting the tactical success of an engagement.' " (Watson, 2006, p. 10-11).

Longnecker (2005) found that the nature of the work by a defense contractor for the DOD meant "they worked with warriors in warlike situations" (p.131). She identified a need by the top management team to maintain an organizational culture that was directed toward and included values of war and military life. Defense organizations are actively performing tasks formerly

restricted to military personnel, such as maintaining weapons systems, "piloting" unmanned aerial vehicles (UAVs), collecting and analyzing intelligence, and interrogating prisoners (Watson, 2006). Not only are these organizations increasingly embedded within the DOD, but there is also constant military presence in the defense organization's facilities and an on-going interchange of personnel between facilities during the design, development, test, and production of the military product. For the past 20 years, the US government has encouraged government-industry collaborations and cooperative assistance where typically personnel are traded between facilities to increase interactions (Linton et al., 2001). These increasingly cooperative interactions in an environment highly characterized by warfare trigger a culture transfer from stakeholder to defense organization(s), particularly with regard to sense of duty. Thus, we posit that

> P3   *As the influence of a sense of duty increases via cooperative relationships between the DOD and defense organization, the likelihood of culture transference of sense of duty increases from the DOD to the defense organization.*

Research indicates that interacting organizations become more homogeneous as the interactions between partners leads to the diffusion of cultural norms, behavioral expectations and values (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). As organizations develop close, social relationships, patterns of interactions may emerge that lead to the transfer of important values and norms from DOD to defense organization. These interactions include the sharing of valuable and often "secret" information, as well as institutional values and norms.

Organizational behavior research further supports this argument. As stated earlier, the person-organization fit literature suggests that when individuals' values are congruent with those of the organization, organizational performance improves (e.g. Kristof, 1996). Raising this position to the organization level, organization-organization fit would mean that value congruence between two interrelated and co-dependent organizations, such as the DOD and defense organizations, should improve the performance of those organizations. As the social relationship between these organizations develops and deepens, it is likely that "organization-organization" value congruence emerges. Finally, institutional theory explains that mimetic processes lead organizations to model themselves after other organizations. This is the result of environmental uncertainty. Mimetic processes will be most effective when organizations have correct and in depth information about the organizations that they intend to mimic. This is most likely the case when information is shared on a continuous and consistent basis and where organizational processes and procedures are readily observed as in the case where organizations have developed a strong social relationship.

As stated earlier, interactions between the DOD and organizations in the defense industry are ever-increasing as a result of a growing interdependence and interaction. Social relationships

between the DOD and its suppliers easily develop under the stressful and pressing conditions of war where defense organizations absorb the profound sense of duty as they work side-by-side with the military. Additionally, upon retirement a significant number of military personnel obtain civilian positions with private-sector defense organizations (Lieberson, 1971; Schoenberger, 1997). Clearly, these new members bring deeply entrenched sense of duty with them, along with strong social ties back to the government institution. These social ties act as a bridge between the DOD and the defense organization that allows entrance into and hiring of additional ex-military personnel by a defense organization. This further deepens the social and cultural interconnectedness between the two entities. Since member demographics highly influence culture (Hofstede et al., 1990), the cultural effect of the ex-military employees on a defense organization grows with each new member. Moreover, the influx of ex-military into a defense organization can increase a sense of cooperation between parties with similar values such as the sense of duty.

> P4   *As the influence of a sense of duty increases via social relationships between the DOD and defense organization, the likelihood of culture transference of sense of duty increases from the DOD and the defense organization.*

Strength of Relationship

Relationship strength is defined as the extent or degree of closeness or strength of the relationship between two organizations. It can differ within a single relationship type and may be higher in vertical integration and cooperative relationships than in arm's length transactions or coercive relationships (Golicic et al., 2003).

The strength of the relationship between the DOD and a defense organization can be evaluated in terms of the positions of the customer and supplier within an enduring and unique market structure. In the case of the DOD and defense organizations, the market structure is characterized by a strong oligopoly on the supply side (two dominant defense organizations) and a powerful, rich monopsony on the demand side, the government (e.g., Adams & Adams, 1972; Tinoco, 2010) For the defense organizations, US military contracts can be quite lucrative. In addition, new entrants are precluded or limited from entering the industry due to high entry barriers with intense capital requirements and a possible inability of those entrants to fit with the values of the organizational field.

Despite the profit potential of US military contracts, defense organizations have one, powerful, demanding customer in the DOD (e.g. Adams & Adams, 1972; Tinoco, 2010). Resource dependence theory suggests that such a market structure creates significant resource interdependencies and, in turn, will likely result in the development of strong, lasting relationships. The fit between the values, such as the sense of duty, between the DOD and

defense organizations reinforces their relationship further and improves the performance of their relationship.

Although resource dependence theory suggests that organizations strive to increase power and control over limited resources (Pfeffer, 1982; Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), an alternative for gaining control and power is the development of strong relationships with those organizations critical for survival. This is especially applicable to an organizational field where the number of major organizational participants is small. More directly, the DOD can exercise its power by seeking to develop strong relationships with defense organizations by way of immersing its cultural values such as the sense of duty into those defense organizations.

Furthermore, it is likely that powerful customer stakeholders will engage in transactions with organizations that fit their needs, requirements, and view of reality. It is likely that value congruence between organizations such as stakeholder and defense organization(s) will increase the commitment of those organizations to the relationship. This will lead to the development of stronger, lasting relationships between those organizations. For example, since value congruence is a key factor in the development of interorganizational relationships (Voss et al., 2000), its presence increases organization-organization fit, leading to decreased uncertainty and reduced complexity while increasing resource flow for both organizations. When key stakeholders have significant control over other organizations in an organizational field, greater value fit may increase the ability of stakeholders to influence the values and cultures of defense organization(s).

Interdependence and the strength of the relationship are further augmented as a result of the needs and demands of war. As aforementioned, the DOD is increasing its reliance on defense contractors, far beyond the levels seen in the past. Exchanges between the military and defense organizations have emerged to such high levels of strength and efficiency that they are no longer substitutable by any other structural form. For example, military observers state that deployment is no longer possible without defense contractors (Watson, 2006). This growing need for non-military involvement in military actions stirs a strong sense of duty in defense organizations and the industry itself, as organizations "stand ready to help keep or restore the peace anywhere it is needed" (Sizemore, 2006). As such, we posit:

> P5   As the relationship between the DOD and the defense organization
>   strengthens, the likelihood of culture transference of sense of duty from
>   DOD to defense organization increases.

Tenure of the Relationship

Over time organizations learn from their environments and stakeholders. The longer an organization has a relationship with a key influential stakeholder, the more likely the organization adopts important cultural values of that stakeholder. Jones and colleagues (1997)

explain that frequently recurring transactions between organizations over extended periods of time will lead to relational and structural embeddedness of norms and values across those organizations. For example, transacting organizations will develop shared perceptions of destiny, purpose, and mutual interests. Therefore, as the recurrence and frequency of interactions between the DOD and defense organizations extend over longer periods of time, it is likely that the defense organizations will learn and adapt important values such as the sense of duty, from the DOD. The adoption of those values and norms from will further cement the interorganizational relationship and increase culture homogeneity between those organizations.

Institutional theory suggests that organizations become more homogeneous across an organizational field and learn to depend more on organizations in the same field over time as they interact with organizations across the field (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Meyer & Rowan, 1977). This suggests that cultural homogeneity is a long-term process. Over time, organizations, such as those from the defense industry, are likely to adhere and conform to the rules and norms of their key stakeholder, such as the DOD. As part of this process, the values and social meanings that characterize the DOD are likely to be embedded in the defense organizations.

These arguments support that highly interconnected organizations develop relational channels of continuous interaction, communication and cooperation which leads to the emergence of shared beliefs and values. The US military and the organizations in the defense industry have had a long, enduring, and unique relationship since the middle of the last century; so much so that President Dwight D. Eisenhower coined the term, military-industrial complex, to capture the essence of this relationship (Eisenhower, 1961). The multiple and continuous interactions that have occurred over the years between the DOD and defense organizations have built a strong pathway from which sense of duty can be transferred. Whether the interactions have occurred based on arm's length transactions, collaborations, alliances, or strong social ties, we propose the tenure of this relationship contributes to culture transference of sense of duty:

> *P6 As the relationship between the DOD and defense organization ages, the likelihood of culture transference of sense of duty increases from the DOD to the defense organization.*

DISCUSSION

Our conceptual study on the transference of organizational culture was taken from the perspective of the DOD as a key stakeholder in the "business of war." In doing so, we first analyzed the military culture of the DOD using the widely used and methodologically sound OCP and then uncovered a distinctive culture dimension, sense of duty, not previously identified in mainstream organizational culture research. We are not aware of any studies to-date that adequately address this cultural dimension that is so deeply associated with a sense of obligation

and allegiance to a cause and so profoundly ingrained and irrefutably a significant part of organizational culture.

This dimension of organizational culture, the sense of duty, has significant implications for the government and private sector organizations. In recent years, the government has turned more and more to government-private sector partnerships for co-development and implementation of products and services, as well as, to outsourcing of formerly key government tasks and activities. The increase in government outsourcing of core and peripheral government competencies to private contractors has prompted critics to refer to these private organizations as the "shadow government" (e.g. Goldstein, 1992; Light, 2008). With this more recent change in the manner in which the government functions, public-private boundaries are blurring and certain elements of culture can transfer more easily between entities to the benefit of both parties. By instilling a sense of duty in its contractors, the DOD may reap the fruits of a uniquely shared cultural value that leads to better understanding between parties as to the goals and objectives of the relationship. Sharing the sense of duty between DOD and defense organizations is likely to increase the effectiveness of both organizations during times of war and reduces interorganizational conflicts as a result of a shared allegiance to the mission.

Through the conduit of the interorganizational relationship and its attributes of type, strength and tenure, we proposed that sense of duty transfers from DOD to defense organization. More specifically, we suggest that three different types of relationships, that is, coercive, cooperative or social, increase the likelihood of culture transference. Furthermore, the strength and tenure of the relationship are additional characteristics that can explain the transference of culture. As culture transfers from DOD to defense organizations, the industry as a whole takes on important homogeneous cultural value dimensions, aiding to create a united "military industrial complex."

Our research, while conceptual in nature, is based on informal discussions, observations, and interviews with military personnel and employees in defense organizations, as well as extensive literature reviews in military organizational management, military sociology, and mainstream management research. For the organizations in the defense industry, the sense of duty characterizes a core element of their identity and transcends the other cultural dimensions. This identity permeates throughout the organization, instills a strong sense of duty and patriotic pride, and focuses work toward the greater mission at hand. It is often apparent in the vision statement of defense organizations, such as that of Northrop Grumman, which operates under the vision: "...is to be the most trusted provider of systems and technologies that ensure the security and freedom of our nation and its allies. As the technology leader, we will define the future of defense—from undersea to outer space, and in cyberspace."

On a more general note and from the perspective of management, analyzing and understanding the nature of the relationships between two or more organizations and the effect this relationship has on organizational culture can help managers to look beyond their immediate organizational boundaries. Schein (2004) suggests that organizations need to develop learning

cultures characterized by a commitment to systemic thinking. As the world becomes more complex and interdependent, managers need to be able to think systematically and analyze the forces that affect organizational culture (Schein, 2004). Considering the effect of external environmental forces such as stakeholder influences on the emergence and change of organizational culture may present new opportunities and/or challenges to managers. For example, it may reveal that certain dimensions of the organization's culture cannot be easily controlled or changed and may represent "a fact of the organization's life," based on the influence of external stakeholders. While this may pose a threat to managers who now recognize the need to manage this relationship and associated influence carefully, it could serve as an advantage. Analyzing and understanding the relationship process and the stakeholder influences on one's culture may lead to the development of more productive relationships with key stakeholders based on a high degree of organization-to-organization fit. Also, managers who understand the scope and depth of their organization's culture and how it is influenced by external stakeholders are more likely to engage in recruitment and selection that will result in better employee-organization fit which in turn leads to stronger commitment, less turnover and ultimately higher organizational performance (O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991).

Understanding the dynamics of stakeholder-organization relationships and the key cultural dimensions that define the various stakeholders should result in improved understanding, communication and coordination with those stakeholders. It may present a benefit for managers who identify key stakeholders and know that the development and maintenance of key stakeholder relationship resides in the ability to develop a cultural fit between their organizations' cultures. This seems to be especially important before organizations engage in mergers, acquisitions, alliances or joint ventures or organizational fields with limited numbers of participants. Overall, managers who understand their own organizational cultures and those of their stakeholders are able to manage interactions and relationships with those stakeholders more effectively. They can address the needs of those stakeholders and reduce conflict by developing cohesive working relationships.

Future Research Opportunities

Rousseau (1990) explains that cultural dimensions are unique to organizations and that research needs to focus on the identification of dimensions and categories that have not been uncovered before. Many empirical studies of organizational culture apply a priori assessments of culture, yet research on organizational culture should begin with theory and analysis to identify relevant dimensions of organizational culture that apply to specific institutions and organizations. Without this kind of initial investigation, empirical research may lead to the omission of important culture dimensions and possible misspecification of organizational culture. In return, this could lead to erroneous conclusions or the neglect of important attributes of culture that affect organization performance as well as employee behavior and attitudes. Thus, we hope to

encourage other researchers to study organizations and organizational field first through observation and conceptual analysis before engaging in empirical research studying the effect of culture on other organization-specific variables and relationships.

Our research will be enriched by development of a measurement scale for sense of duty and by empirically testing the propositions developed in this study on culture transference. The sense of duty dimension, as born out of the military culture of the DOD, is directly related to the preservation of the US way of life, lives of US soldiers, and the safety of US citizens. A similar sense of duty may be found in organizations that share a profound obligation and allegiance to support a mission or cause, such as hospitals, public service organizations, and many non-profit organizations, such as the Red Cross and Habitat for Humanity. These organizations are characterized by a strong sense of duty, the duty to improve and save lives. They are likely to employ individuals who are selflessly committed to the cause and will pursue the cause with focus, obedience, diligence and discipline. As sense of duty permeates the organization, employees in these organizations feel honor in their duty and go above and beyond out of commitment to the cause. We encourage researchers to study conceptually and empirically the sense of duty as a key dimension of organizational culture generalizable beyond our context.

We acknowledge that the direction in which elements of culture flow between organizations should be addressed and why. We believe that the characteristics of the stakeholder in terms of power and influence are key drivers in the direction of the culture transfer. However, the characteristics of the changing organization should be considered as well. For example, if the organization is characterized by a weak culture, transfer of organizational culture dimensions should logically flow from the stronger culture to the weaker culture.

Because we believe that sense of duty is such an important element of organizational culture in many industries, it is likely that it will impact organizational outcomes such as the effective and efficient flow of information and resources across organizational functions, improved coordination and cooperation across the organization while reducing conflict as well as general performance and productivity of the organization. Employees who fit these cultures and share this sense of duty are likely to demonstrate higher commitment to the organization and its goals, increased citizenship behaviors and reduced turnover and absenteeism. While this extends beyond the scope of this paper, it represents an interesting avenue for future research.

While we focus on the relationship between the customer stakeholder and organizations across a specific industry, it is reasonable to assume that this may transcend to other interorganizational relationships. For example, research on interorganizational relationships recognizes that organizational sustainability and performance depends on the relationships organizations develop with other organizations (e.g. Neville & Menguc 2006; Oliver 1990). Shared values are a key factor in the development and maintenance of relationships between stakeholders (Ranson et al., 1980; Wilson, 1995). For example, Voss et al. (2000) studied nonprofit professional theaters and found that organizations seek to build relationships with other stakeholders that share their values and that value congruence is likely to improve the relational

performance of stakeholders including resource sharing and financial performance. However, this research does not extend to the emergence of shared organizational cultures, which is likely to develop as a result of those close interorganizational relationships grounded in interorganizational value congruence. Future research should investigate, in more depth, how interorganizational relationships affect the emergence and change of organizational cultures and how organization-to-organization fit may lead to sustainable competitive advantages. This may be particularly interesting for large conglomerates, such as General Electric Company and United Technologies Corporation, who operate globally and across multiple industries. Further conceptual and empirical research is needed to study how multiple stakeholders and organizations interact to lead to the emergence of cultures across organization fields in general.

CONCLUSION

As a key stakeholder, the government can influence private sector business practices, actions, policies, and decisions, as well as their organizational cultures. As the federal government increasingly outsources core competencies and services and develops more public-private partnerships in order to function, both entities needs to understand the subsequent blurring of organizational boundaries and its implications. The cultural dimension of sense of duty, so visible in the DOD and equally present in defense organizations, creates a unique and lasting bond between government and industry, dating back to World War II, that appears even today, unwavering and withstanding the tests of time. Recalling the Lockheed Martin Company's driving motto, defense organizations with their sense of duty and patriotic zeal, *never forget* who they work for.

REFERENCES

Adams, W. & W.J. Adams (1972). The military-industrial complex: A market structure analysis. *American Economic Review,* 62 (1/2), 279-287.

Apgar , A. IV & J.M. Keane (2004). New business with the new military. *Harvard Business Review,* 82(9), 45-56.

Augustine, N.R. (1983). *Augustine's laws and major system development Programs.* American Institute of Aeronautics and Astronautics, Inc., New York.

Ault, R.T. (2003). *Encouraging risk and embracing uncertainty.* US Army School of Advanced Military Studies, Fort Leavenworth, KS, 52.

Awal, D, Kinger, J., Rongione, N, & S. Stumpf (2006). Issues in organizational culture change: A case study. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communication and Conflict*, 10(1), 79 - 97.

Barley, S.R. (1986). Technology as an occasion for structuring: Evidence from observations of CT scanners and the social order of radiology departments. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 31 (1), 78-108.

Baumeister, R.F. & M.R. Leary (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin,* 117 (3), 497-530.

Berman, S.L., Wicks, A.C., Kotha, S. & T.M. Jones (1999). Does stakeholder orientation matter? The relationship between stakeholder management models and firm financial performance. *Academy of Management Journal,* 42(5), 488-506.

Bloor, G. & P. Dawson (1994). Understanding professional culture in organization context. *Organization Studies,* 15(2), 275-295.

Breslin, C.B. (2000). *Organizational culture and the military.* U.S. Army War College, Carlisle Barracks, PA.

Brickson, S.L. (2007). Organizational identity orientation: The genesis of the role of the firm and distinct forms of social value. *Academy of Management Review,* 32(3), 864-888.

Bucholz, R.A. & S.B. Rosenthal (2004). Stakeholder theory and public policy: How governments matter. *Journal of Business Ethics,* 52(2), 143-153.

Buckingham, D.W. (1999). *The warrior ethos.* Naval War College, Newport, Rhode Island.

Caroll, A.B. & A.K. Buchholz (2008). *Business & society: Ethics and stakeholder management.* 7th ed. Mason, OH: South-Western Cengage Learning.

Carpenter, M.T. (2006). *Army organizational culture of innovation: A strategic imperative for transformation,* Master's thesis. US Army War College, Carlisle, PA, 22.

Chatman, J.A. & .A.K. Jehn (1994). Assessing the relationship between industry characteristics and organizational culture: How different can you be? *Academy of Management Journal,* 37(3), 522-553.

Christensen, E.W. & G.G. Gordon (1999). An exploration of industry, culture, and revenue growth. *Organization Studies,* 20(3), 397-422.

Coates, C.H. & R.J. Pelligrin (1965). *Military sociology: A study of American institutions and military life.* University Park, MD: Social Science Press.

Collins, J. (1998). The complex context of American military culture: A practitioner's view. *Orbis,* 21(4), 213-223.

Combs, P.C. (2007). *US army cultural obstacles to transformational leadership.* Master's thesis. U.S. Army War College, Carlisle Barracks, PA.

Deal, T. & A. Kennedy (1982). *Corporate culture.* Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.

Deavel, R.P. (1998). The political economy of privatization for the American military. *Air Force Journal of Logistics,* 22, 5-42

Delacroix, J. & H. Rao (1994). Externalities and ecological theory: Unbundling density dependence. In J.A.C. Baum, & J.V. Singh (Eds.), *Evolutionary Dynamics of Organizations.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Denison, D.R. (1996). What is the difference between organizational culture and organizational climate? A native's point of view on a decade of paradigm wars. *Academy of Management Review,* 21(3), 619-654.

DiMaggio, P.J. & W.W. Powell (1983). The iron cage revisited: Institutional isomorphism and collective rationality in organizational fields. *American Sociological Review,* 48(2), 147-160.

Driessanck, C. H. (2003). *Responding to the call to transform the army culture.* Carlisle Barracks, PA; US Army War College

Dunivin, K.O. (1994). Military culture: Change and continuity. *Armed Forces and Society,* 20(4), 531-547.

Dyer, J.H.D. (1998). The relational view: Cooperative strategy and sources of interorganizational competitive advantage. *Academy of Management Review,* 22(4), 660-679.

Eisenhower, D.D. (1961). Farewell address to the nation. *Public Papers of the Presidents.* 1035-1040.

Enz, C.A. (1988). The role of value congruity in intraorganizational power. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 33(2), 284-304.

Farh, J., Zhong, C. & D.W. Organ (2004). Organizational citizenship behavior in the People's Republic of China. *Organization Science,* 15(2), 241-253.

Goldstein, M.L. (1992). *America's hollow government: How Washington has failed the people.* Scarborough, ON: Irwin Professional Pub.

Golicic, S.L. Foggin, J.H. & J.T. Mentzer (2003). Relationship magnitude and its role in interorganizational relationship structure. *Journal of Business Logistics,* 24(1), 57-75.

Gordon, G.G. (1985). The relationship of corporate culture to industry sector and corporate performance. In M.J.Saxton., R.H. Kilmann, R. Serpa & Associates (Eds.) *Gaining Control of the Corporate Culture (pp.*103-125). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gordon, G.G. (1991). Industry determinants of organizational culture. *Academy of Management Review,* 16(2), 396-415.

Grimshaw, D., Marchington, M., Ruberry, J., & H. Willmott (2005). *Fragmenting work: Blurring organizational boundaries and disordering hierarchies.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Gulati, R. (1995). Social structure and alliance formation patterns: A longitudinal analysis. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 40(4), 619-652.

Gulati, R. (1998). Alliances and networks. *Strategic Management Journal,* 19(4), 293-317.

Gumbus, A., Woodilla, J. & C. York (2007). Jane's decision: Her experience as a plebe. *Organization Management Journal,* 4 (3), 230-256.

Hannan, M.T., & J. Freeman (1977). The population of ecology of organizations. *American Journal of Sociology,* 82(5), 929-964.

Harrison, J.S., & C.H. St. John (1996). Managing and partnering with external stakeholders. *The Academy of Management Executive,* 10(2), 46-60.

Hawley, A.H. (1968). Human ecology. In D. Sills (Ed.), *International Encyclopedia of the Social Sciences (pp.* 328-337). New York: Macmillan.

Hillen, J. (1999). Must U.S. military culture reform? *Orbis,* 43(1), 43-57.

Hirsch, P.M. (1972). Processing fads and fashions: An organization set analysis of cultural industry systems. *American Journal of Sociology,* 77(4), 639-659.

Hofstede, G.H. (1984). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values.* Beverly Hill, CA: Sage

Hofstede, G., Neuijen, B., Ohayv, D., & G. Sanders (1990). Measuring organizational cultures: A qualitative and quantitative study across twenty cases. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 35(2), 218-316.

Hofstede, G.H. (1991). *Cultures and organization, Software of the mind. Intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival.* London: McGraw-Hill.

Janowitz, M. (1959). Changing patterns of organizational authority: The military establishment. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 3(4), 473-493.

Jones, C., Hesterly, W.S., & S.P. Borgatt (1997). A general theory of network governance: Exchange conditions and social mechanisms. *Academy of Management Review,* 22(4), 911-945.

Katz, D. & R.L. Kahn (1966). *The social psychology of organizations.* New York: Wiley.

Kogut, B. (1988). Joint ventures: Theoretical and empirical perspectives. *Strategic Management Journal,* 9(4), 319-332.

Kotter, J.P. & J.L. Heskett (1992). *Corporate culture and performance.* New York: Free Press.

Kristof, A.L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology,* 49(1), 1-37.

Lieberson, S. (1971). An empirical study of military-industrial linkages. *American Journal of Sociology,* 76(4), 562-584.

Light, P.C. (2008). *A government ill executed: The decline of the federal service and how to reverse it.* Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Linton, J., Lombana, C.A., & A.D. Romig (2001). Accelerating technology transfer from Federal laboratories to the private sector—the business development wheel. *Engineering Management Journal,* 13(3), 15-33.

Lockheed Martin Company motto. (2012). Retrieved July 16, 2012 from http://www.lockheedmartin.com/us/who-we-are.

Longnecker, J.L. (2005). Boots on the ground: Use and implications of war metaphors in a top team. *Organization Management Journal,* 2, 123-143.

Lovelace, D.C.J. (1997). *The evolution of military affairs: Shaping the future U.S. Armed Forces.* Strategic Studies Institute, Carlisle Barracks, PA.

Merriam –Webster Online Dictionary. Retrieved June 12, 2009 from http://www.merriam-webster.com/ dictionary/allegiance and duty.

Meyer, J.W. & B. Rowan (1977). Institutional organizations: Formal structures as myth and ceremony. *American Journal of Sociology,* 80(2), 340-363.

Mizruchi, M.S. & M. Yoo (2002). Interorganizational Power and Dependence. In J.A.C. Baum (Ed.), *Companion to Organizations*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

Moskos, C.C.J. (1976). The military. *Annual Review of Sociology,* 2, 55-77.

Murray, W. (1999). Does military culture matter? *Orbis,* 43(1), 27-42.

Murray, J. M. (2003). *The key to unit effectiveness: A supportive organizational climate.* U.S. Army War College, Carlisle Barracks, PA, 46.

Neville, B.A. & B. Menguc (2006). Stakeholder multiplicity: Toward an understanding of the interactions between stakeholders. *Journal of Business Ethics,* 66(4), 377-391.

Northrop Grumman (2012). Vision statement. Retrieved July 16, 2012 from http://www.northropgrumman.com/ corporate-responsibility/ethics/our-vision-values-and-behaviors.html

Nuppenau, R. M. (1993). The influence of organizational factors on the activities of a process improvement team. Master thesis. Fort Sam Houston, TX: US Army Medical Department Center and School.

O'Reilly, C.A.I., Chatman, J., & D.F. Caldwell (1991). People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Journal,* 34(3), 487-516.

Oliver, A.L. (1990). Determinants of interorganizational relationships: Integration and future directions. *Academy of Management Review,* 15(2), 241-265.

Organ, D.W. (1988). *Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome.* Lexington Books, Lexington, MA.

Peters, T.J. & R.H. Waterman (1982). *In search of excellence: Lessons from America's best run companies*. New York: Harper Row.

Pfeffer, J. (1982). The external control of organizations. In J.C. Baum (Ed.), *Organizations and Organization Theory,* (pp. 178-207), Boston: Pitman.

Pfeffer, J. & G. Salancik (1978). *The external control of organizations: A resource dependence perspective*. New York: Harper and Row.

Phillips, M.E. (1994). Industry mindsets: Exploring the cultures of two macro-organizational settings. *Organization Science,* 5(3), 384 - 402.

Ranson, S.B., Hinings, B., & R. Greenwood (1980). The structuring of organizational structures. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 25(1), 1-17.

Rhoads, G.R. (2005). *Initiating an entrepreneurial mindset in the Department of Defense (MILITARY): Testing a comprehensive mode.* Master Thesis. Air Force Institute of Technology, Wright-Patterson Air Force Base, OH.

Riccio, G., Sullivan, R., Klein,G., Salter, M., & H. Kinnison (2004). *Warrior ethos: Analysis of the concept and initial development of applications*. US Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences, Arlington, VA.

Rousseau, D. (1990). Quantitative assessment of organizational culture: The case for multiple measures. In B.Schneider (Ed.), *Frontier in Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (pp. 153-192). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Rumsfeld, D.H. (2002). Transforming the military. *Foreign Affairs,* 81(3), 20-32.

Schein, E.H. (2004). *Organizational culture and leadership,* 3rd ed. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology,* 40(3), 437-449.

Schoenberger, E. (1997). *The cultural crisis of the firm*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell Publishers.

Segal, D.R. & M.W. Segal (1983). Change in Military Organization. *Annual Review of Sociology,* 9 (August), 151-170.

Sizemore, B. (2006). Blackwater USA says it can supply forces for conflicts. *Norfolk Virginian-Pilot.*

Snider, D.M. (1999). An uninformed debate on military culture. *Orbis,* 43(1), 11-26.

Soeters, J. & P. Boer (2000). Culture and flight safety in military aviation. *International Journal of Aviation Psychology,* 10(2), 111-133.

Suchman, M.C. (1995). Managing legitimacy: Strategic and institutional approaches. *Academy of Management Review,* 20(3), 571-610.

Trainor, S.C. (2000). *Values, culture, and civil-military relations: Implications for the postmodern military.* U.S. Army War College, Carlisle Barracks, PA, 35.

Tinoco, J. (2005). The primary determinant and the dimensions of organizational culture in US defense firms. *Winter Conference of the International Academy of Business and Public Administration Disciplines Proceedings,* 3(1).

Tinoco, J. (2010). Organizational power and dependence: Contradictions and implications for industry control. *International Journal of Management and Innovation,* 2(2), 54-67.

Trice, H. & J. Beyer (1984). Studying organizational cultures through rites and ceremonials. *Academy of Management Review,* 9(4), 653-669.

Ulrich, D. & J.B. Barney (1984). Perspectives in organizations: Resource dependence, efficiency, and population. *Academy of Management Review,* 9(3), 471-481.

Van Maanen, J. & S.R. Barley (1984). Occupational communities: Culture and control in organizations. In B.M. Staw, & L.L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior* (pp. 287-365). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Voss, G.B., Cable, D.M., & Z.G. Voss (2000). Linking organizational values to relationships with external constituents: A study of nonprofit professional theatres. *Organization Science,* 11(3), 330-347.

Watson, B.D. (2006). *A look down the slippery slope: Domestic operations, outsourcing, and the erosion of military culture.* Air University Press, Maxwell Air Force Base Alabama.

Weick, K.E. & K.H. Roberts (1993). Collective mind in organizations: Heedful interrelating on flight decks. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 38(3), 357-381.

Weiner, Y. (1988). Forms of value systems: A focus on organizational effectiveness and cultural change and maintenance. *Academy of Management Review,* 13(4), 534-545.

Wilson, D.T. (1995). An integrated model of buyer-seller relationships. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 23(4), 335-345.

Wilson, P.E. (2008). Defining military culture. *The Journal of Military History*, 72(1), 11-41.

Winslow, D. (2000). *Army culture.* Ontario, Canada: Ottawa University.

Winsor, R.D. (1996). Military perspectives of organizations. *Journal of Organizational Change Management,*. 9, 34-42.

DEMOGRAPHIC DIFFERENCES BETWEEN A LEADER AND FOLLOWERS TEND TO INHIBIT LEADER-FOLLOWER EXCHANGE LEVELS AND JOB SATISFACTION

Teddie E. Malangwasira, Regent University

ABSTRACT

This quantitative study explores whether demographic differences between a leader and follower are negatively related to the leader-follower exchange (LMX) levels and job satisfaction. The demographic character differences primarily focused on differences in age, gender, tenure, and educational qualification. Results of the research support the notion that dissimilarity leads to: (a) poor quality of exchange which in turn affects job satisfaction of the employees due to repulsion because people tend to be drawn to those who are comparable to them; (b) low communication between the members of a dyad; (c) high role ambiguity; (d) differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs; and (e) high role conflict because the dyad members may have different conceptions of what the subordinate's role necessities. Overall, job satisfaction reflects an individual's general attitude towards his or her job based on satisfaction of the needs or wants. The LMX-7 survey, satisfaction with my supervisor survey, overall job satisfaction, and demographic characteristics questionnaire were the instruments used for data collection administered to 123 participants from a convenient sample. Data was analyzed by regression analysis using the SPSS 17.0 statistical computer program.

INTRODUCTION

This quantitative research explored whether demographic differences between a leader and follower inhibit the leader-follower exchange (LMX) levels and job satisfaction. Bellou (2010) points out that organizational researchers have studied demographic characteristics as proxies of employees' background and experience. On the other hand, job satisfaction is important because it "promotes positive behaviours among employees, helping thus organizations develop core competencies and offering a major source of competitive advantage" (Bellou, 2010, p. 12). This research will add on to the knowledge of whether demographic differences between a leader and follower inhibit the LMX levels and job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is defined as the collection of feelings and beliefs that people have about their contemporary jobs (Ghazzawi, 2011). It "has probably been the most often researched work attitude in the organizational behavior literature" (Blau, 1999, p. 1099). The degree and levels of job satisfaction can range from extreme satisfaction to extreme dissatisfaction depending on what the people are experiencing in their jobs. Therefore, different factors must be considered if one is to measure job satisfaction of employees in organizations. For example, age, tenure, gender, and educational qualification may play a vital role in employee's job satisfaction.

On the other hand, leader-member exchange theory (LMX) stresses the role making progression relating leaders and work group members who report to them and the extent to which their association displays exchange and reciprocal influence (Davis & Bryant, 2009). It is under the premise that leaders develop a separate relationship with each subordinate as the two parties mutually describe the subordinate's role (Grean & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Yukl, 2010). Therefore, leader-member dyad with high levels of trust, liking, and respect will establish a high exchange relationship and contribute to each other beyond the requirements of the contracts (Wu, 2009, p. 1). If there are low levels, the dyadic relationship tends only to comply with the formal requirements of the work contract (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Hence, depending on whether there are high levels or low levels of trust, job satisfaction is affected.

Differences in demographic characteristics of individuals such as age, tenure, gender, and educational qualification may play an important role in the dyadic relationship between a leader and follower (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Similarly, a study by Bhal, Mahfooz, and Aafaqi (2007) indicated that gender dissimilarity leads to poor quality of exchange which in turn affects job satisfaction of the employees. Further, Kavanaugh, Duffy, and Lilly (2006) indicated that tenure differences have been integrated into career stages by a number of researches. The disengagement is predicted by years in the specific job, and negatively by job commitment. Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) point out that "knowing the comparative similarity or dissimilarity in given demographic attributes of a supervisor and a subordinate or of the members of an interacting work team may provide additional information about members' characteristic attitudes…processes through which demography affects job outcomes" (p. 403). Therefore, it is important that demographic differences between a leader and followers be explored because if there are differences the dyadic relationship is affected as there will likely be poor communication in most cases. Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) argue that the demographic effects may be a combination of a high level attraction based on similarities, attitudes, values, experience, and strong communication among interacting members of a dyad. In addition, demographic characteristic "dissimilarity can lead to repulsion" (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989, p. 404) because people tend to be drawn to those who are comparable to themselves. Tsui & O'Reilly (1989) further pointed out that:

> If dissimilarity in demographic characteristics leads to low communication
> between the members of a dyad, role ambiguity should also be high. If

dissimilarity in demographic background leads to differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs, role conflict should also be high because the dyad members may have different conceptions of the subordinate's role requirements (p. 405).

The results of the research for Tsui and O'Reilley (1989) reported that the subordinates in mixed-gender dyads were rated as performing more poorly and were liked less than the subordinates in same-gender dyads. In addition, the subordinates in mixed-gender dyads reported higher levels of role ambiguity and role conflict. On the other hand, Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) found out that women subordinates with woman superiors reported the lowest level of role ambiguity, were rated to be most effective, and were liked most by their superiors. However, men with women as their superiors reported the highest level of role ambiguity. In addition, subordinates in dyads with larger differences in age reported higher levels of role ambiguity; subordinates with less educational qualifications than their supervisor reported lower role ambiguity than subordinates who had the same or more educational differences than their supervisor. Finally, Tsui and O'Reillly (1989) found out that "subordinates with shorter job tenure reported the highest level of role ambiguity" (p. 416). Therefore, it is clear that if there are differences in demographic characteristics, there may be communication problems and role conflict which will in turn affect job satisfaction of employees in organizations. Mainly, this is caused by having different expectations because of the differences that exist.

By considering the expectation theory, different expectations are likely to be associated with different affective and behavioral responses at work (Brush, Moch, & Pooyan, 1987). That is the reason why sometimes differences in job satisfaction due to education qualification could be attributed to differences in expectations. In addition, based on the cohort membership theory, differences in employee satisfaction by age could be attributed to consequences of cohort membership (Brush et al., 1987). This is also true when one looks at value and belief in which demographic differences, according to Brush et al., (1987), often distinguished among individuals on the basis of cultural values, beliefs, and conceptual framework they use to interpret their experiences. Based on the brief description and concepts from the two theories--expectation and cohort membership--it is imperative that demographic differences between a leader and followers be examined.

Variables

For this research, differences in education qualification, differences in age, differences in tenure, differences in gender, LMX, and job satisfaction are the variables used because "analyses of demographic effects must consider the full impact of an individual's demographic profile rather than only one or two demographic characteristics" (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989, p. 404-405). The LMX is the primary mediating (intervening) variable because if there are dissimilarity in demographic background leading to differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs, role conflict will

be high because the dyad members may have different conceptions of the subordinate's role requirements. On the other hand, dyads with low quality exchange relationship tend only to comply with the formal requirements of the work contract (Wu, 2009) which will result in lower job satisfaction level. However, if the LMX dyad has high levels of trust, liking, and respect, there is likely going to be a high exchange relationship which will in contribute positively towards job satisfaction. Therefore, the LMX is central to the employee's job satisfaction depending on the relationship that exists between a leader and the subordinates. Creswell (2009) points out that "mediating variables stand between the independent and dependent variable, and they mediate the effects of the independent variable on the dependent variable" (p. 50). The independent variables include differences in demographic characteristics in terms of differences in education, differences in age, differences in tenure, and differences in gender because these are the ones manipulated by the research, and they will control the research analysis. A study by Kavanaugh et al., (2006) indicates that "demographic differences in terms of age, education, tenure…significantly influence job satisfaction" (p. 307). Therefore, it is important to include various demographic characteristics because individuals vary on multiple demographic characteristics. Hence "analyses of demographic effects must consider the full impact of an individual's demographic profile" (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989, p. 404).

Job satisfaction is the dependent variable because it is the measured behavior that is expected to be caused by the independent variable (Cabanda, Fields, & Winston, 2011). It is dependent on the demographic differences between a leader and followers in terms of age, gender, tenure, and educational qualification. The general picture is illustrated in figure 1. LMX is the mediating variable because it is believed to mediate the relationship between follower-leader demographic difference characteristics (age, gender, tenure, and educational qualification) and job satisfaction which will be mentioned in hypothesis 5.

The demographic differences tend to reduce the extent to which employees can communicate well with the supervisor. The communication affects job satisfaction in the end because if it is poor, there is an increased chance of role ambiguity between the two sides. For example, Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) point out that when members of a dyad differ on educational level, they also tend to vary on beliefs and values and may communicate relatively infrequent, since they do not have the language compatibility that is associated with similar levels of education. Therefore, LMX is central and bridges the gap between demographic differences in the dyadic relationship between a leader and follower to job satisfaction. To the best of the author's knowledge, no study to date has explicitly explored the mediation role of LMX between demographic differences and job satisfaction. Therefore, this research will add to the growing literature on the subject.

Figure 1: Relationships among variables
Demographic differences in terms of age, gender, tenure, and educational qualification between a leader and follower; LMX is a mediating variable, and job satisfaction is a dependent variable.

Independent Variables   Mediating Variable   Dependent Variable
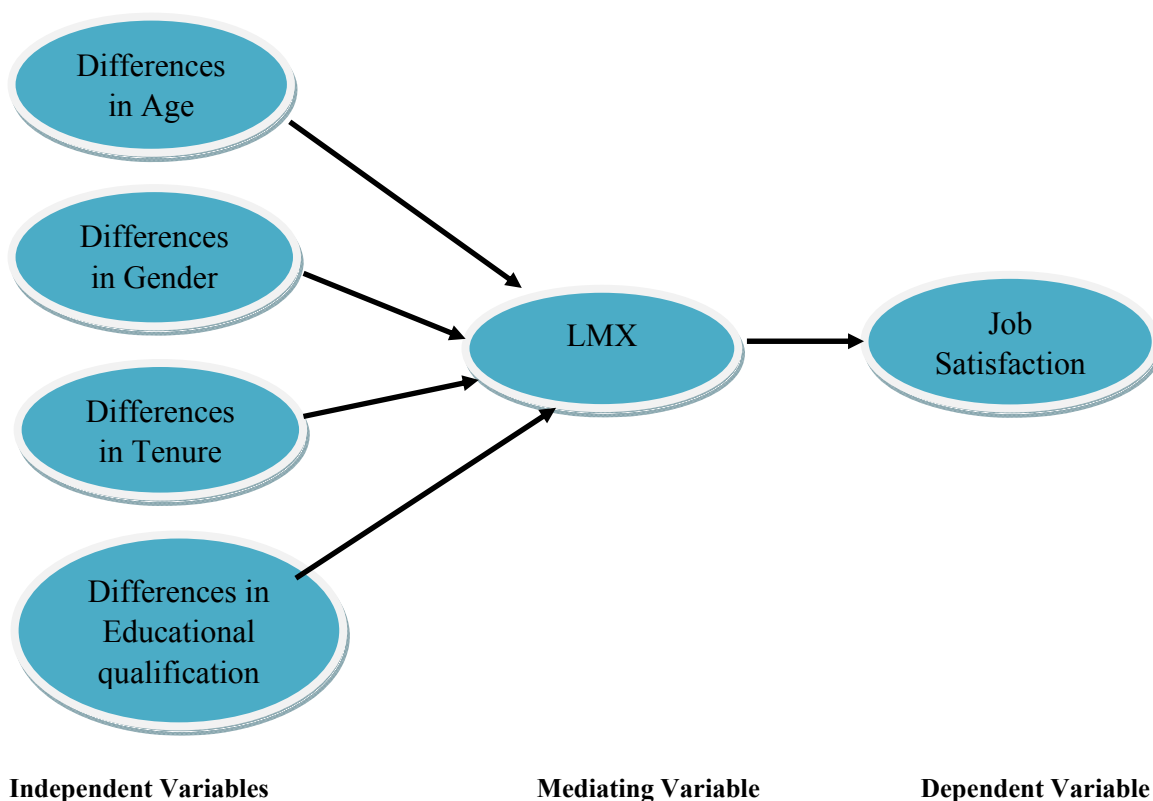
RESEARCH QUESTION

The completion of the study helped to answer the following research question: Does demographic differences between a leader and followers in terms of age, tenure, gender, and educational qualification inhibit LMX levels and job satisfaction?

HYPOTHESES

There are five research hypotheses for this study. The first part of the hypothesis examines the dyadic relationship and the differences between the leader and follower in terms of demographic differences of age on LMX and job satisfaction; the second of part of the hypothesis examines the dyadic relationship and the differences between the leader and the follower in terms demographic characteristics of gender on LMX and job satisfaction; the third

part of the hypothesis examines the dyadic relationship and the differences between the leader and the follower in terms demographic characteristics of tenure on LMX and job satisfaction; the fourth of part of the hypothesis examines the dyadic relationship and the differences between the leader and the follower in terms demographic characteristics of education qualification on LMX and job satisfaction. Finally, the fifth part examines whether the quality of LMX will mediate the relationship between demographic differences between a leader, follower, and job satisfaction. The hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 1　　*Differences in age between the leader and followers are negatively related to LMX and job satisfaction levels.*

Hypothesis 2　　*Differences in gender between the leader and followers are negatively related to LMX and job satisfaction levels.*

Hypothesis3　　*Followers who have more tenure than their supervisors have lower levels of LMX and job satisfaction compared to followers who have the same or lower tenure than their supervisor.*

Hypothesis 4　　*Followers who have a higher educational qualifications than their leader have lower levels of LMX and job satisfaction compared to followers who have the same or lower educational qualifications than their leader.*

Hypothesis5　　*The quality of LMX will mediate the relationship between demographic differences between a leader, follower and job satisfaction.*

LITERATURE REVIEW

The primary purpose of this quantitative research is to explore whether demographic differences between a leader and follower inhibit the leader-follower exchange (LMX) levels and job satisfaction. Demographic characteristics of individuals like age, gender, tenure, and educational qualification have long been considered important variables in psychological research (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). These variables are closely associated with characteristic perceptions, attitudes, or work outcome which has a strong indication of how individuals are satisfied or dissatisfied with their job.

A review of past and current literature served to highlight areas of convergence and divergence among various applicable theoretical constructs and brought into focus empirical findings pertaining to the specific area of study. This study will present the opportunity for new research in this field by providing additional information that will be useful to literature. The LMX theory will be the primary supporting leadership model "due to its specific focus on dyadic relationships, in particular, those within which exist a leader and a subordinate" (Topjian, 2009, p. 28).

LEADERSHIP FOUNDATIONAL REVIEW

Leader-member exchange

Formally known as the vertical dyad linkage theory because of its emphasis on reciprocal influence process within vertical dyads composed of one person who has direct authority over another person (Yukl, 2010), Graen (1976) adopted a model to describe the defining process that occurs at the level of the organization's participants. The model suggests that role definition occurs through a series of interactions with relevant members of the organizations, where one individual has a vested interest in the performance of another (Topjian, 2009, p. 37). The role process in LMX supports the concept that organizational members accomplish their work through roles that are developed or negotiated and that clarity of such roles is achieved through high-LMX relationship. In addition, the LMX model is an accumulation of attributions theory, role theory, social exchange, and upward influences. It has been expanded from its original vertical dyad model to include several steps within the leader-member exchange process. The emphasis of the theory is the role making process involving leaders and work group members who report to them and the extent to which their relationship exhibit exchange and reciprocal influence (Davis & Bryant, 2009; Yukl, 2010). The emphasis on the dyadic relationship between a leader and followers makes the LMX theory unique in leadership studies (Shirley, 2003). The theory has repeatedly been reinforced in literature with studies reporting correlations between leaders and subordinates when the latter perceive a higher level of interaction with leaders (Topjian, 2009).

Yukl (2010) points out that "most leaders develop a high-exchange relationship within a small number of trusted subordinates who function as assistants, lieutenants, or advisors" (p. 122). This is because of their possible high degree of reciprocal dependence, mutual support, loyalty, greater contribution and responsibility. In addition, the high exchange relationships are developed between a leader and subordinates according to the compatibility, capacity, and reliability of the members of the dyad and only a few trusted subordinates are selected to form a more close working relationship (Wu, 2009). On the other hand, a low-exchange relationship is characterized by a relatively low level of mutual influence. The leader will develop a unique relationship with each subordinate. The basic premise of this theory is that the leaders do not form a single universal relationship with each subordinate; instead, leaders develop separate relationships with each subordinate as the two parties engage in a mutual role-making process (Grean & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

The quality of the leader-member relationship, generally indexed by the LMX-7 scale, has shown significant associations with many work outcomes such as subordinate's satisfaction with supervision, role clarity, overall satisfaction, and organizational commitment, which suggest that LMX is positively related to organizational citizenship behavior (Wu, 2009). However, it

should be noted that the existing LMX measures do not capture the concept of exchange as the theory implicitly proposed and have not gone through adequate psychometric testing (Wu, 2009).

Job satisfaction

Studies of job satisfaction in the United States emerged in the early 1900s (Wignall, 2004). Although there were some mentions of job satisfaction prior to 1900s, the studies were not fully documented. However, job satisfaction has probably been the most often researched work attitude in the organizational behavior literature (Blau, 1999; Wignall, 2004; Ghazzawi, 2011). It is a central construct in organizational psychology, and "it is associated with the important work-related and general outcomes (e.g., higher levels of job performance, organizational commitment, discretionary activities such as organizational citizenship behavior, and life satisfaction) as well as with lower levels of absenteeism, lateness, and turnover (Cohrs, Abele, & Dette, 2006, p. 363). Therefore, depending on the satisfaction of the employees, an organization may or may not see high turn overs depending on the five core characteristics of task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy, and feedback (Cohrs et al., 2006).

Fields (2002), points out that "for decades, organizational researchers have been intrigued by employee satisfaction with work" (p. 1). It is a pleasurable or positive emotional state that results from the evaluation of one's job (Locke, 1976 cited by Bellou, 2010). In other words, job satisfaction reflects an individual's general attitude towards his or her job, stemming from the satisfaction of the needs or wants. The relationship between a supervisor and subordinate also plays a big role in job satisfaction of the employees. If the relationship between the two sides is poor, it may lead to low job satisfaction on either side. The Job Demand-Control-Support Model identifies low levels of job demands and high levels of job control and social support by supervisors as relevant situational predictors of job satisfaction (Cohrs et al., 2006). Despite this, many causal relationships concerning antecedents to and significances from job satisfaction are still open to exploration. In addition, job satisfaction is a central construct in organizational psychology because it is associated with important work-related and general outcomes such as higher levels of job performance on one hand, and lower levels of absenteeism and turn over on the other hand (Cohrs et al., 2006). Therefore, it is important to understand how satisfied employees are in order to move ahead with the organization. Hence, research into the antecedents of job satisfaction is vital. Furthermore, the "correlation between constructs and results, for example, job satisfaction and turnovers, offer fertile grounds to research in their quest to discover precisely what job satisfaction is and its impact on the workforce" (Wignall, 2004, p. 40). It still remains a complex issue, and the determinants of job satisfaction differ widely from study to study (Ward, 2002). The key to job satisfaction is an understanding of the inputs which can greatly affect employees' job satisfaction level. These inputs include satisfaction with characteristics of a job such as intrinsic job characteristics. It can in turn demonstrates itself in

terms of job inclusion in job commitment while the "opposite of job inclusion is either absenteeism or turnover" (Lovett, Herdebeck, Coyle, & Solis, 2006, p. 37).

Although some experts suggests that it is acceptable to use a single-item measure in the research about job satisfaction (Ward, 2002), demographic characteristics such as gender, age, tenure, and educational qualification are important variables to consider when evaluating job satisfaction. This is because many have questioned the correlation between job satisfaction and these variables (Wignall, 2004). In general job satisfaction is U-shaped in age and for the less educated (Donohue & Heywood, 2004). However, among the most uniform findings in the USA and Britain job satisfaction is greater in women than is it for men (Donohue & Heywood, 2004). This research aims at contributing towards literature on the job satisfaction based on demographic characteristic differences of gender, age, tenure, and educational qualification between a leader and followers based on the LMX level among workers.

Demographic differences

Demographic characteristics such as age, gender, tenure, and educational qualifications of individuals have been considered an important variable in psychological research (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). The differences in demographic characteristics between a leader and follower have a significant impact on job satisfaction. For example, "dissimilarity can lead to repulsion…with differences between people increasing the distance between them and lowering interpersonal attraction and liking (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989, p. 404). As a result, people that have demographic differences may resort to quitting the job if there are no compromises to resolve the differences. Furthermore, if dissimilarity in demographic characteristics leads to low communication between the members of a dyad, role ambiguity should also be high. In addition, Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) argue that if dissimilarity in demographic background leads to differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs, role conflict should also be high because the dyad members may have different conceptions of the subordinate's role requirements (p. 405).

Gender differences and job satisfaction

Literature review on gender and job satisfaction revealed that job satisfaction represents a worker's subjective evaluation of his or her job (Donohue & Heywood, 2004). A study by Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) concluded that dissimilarity can lead to repulsion, with differences between people increasing the distance between them and lowering interpersonal attractions and liking. In their research, the subordinates in a mixed-gender dyads were rated as performing more poorly and were less liked than the subordinates in the same-gender dyads. In addition, Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) found out that subordinates in mixed-gender dyads reported higher levels of ambiguity and role conflict. However, when the same gender worked together, results indicated the lowest level of role ambiguity, and they were to be the most effective. This clearly indicates

that when there are gender differences between a leader and subordinates, there may be obvious role ambiguity and lower levels of job satisfaction. The study by Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) indicated that "…women subordinates with woman superiors reported the lowest level of role ambiguity, were rated to be most effective, and were liked most by their superiors. Men with women as superiors reported the highest level of role ambiguity" (p. 414). This is also supported by Bellou (2010) who reported that there is enough evidence that gender has separate effects on job satisfaction. Other literature has indicated that the gender differences might greatly affect job satisfaction especially when the two sides do not have higher levels of LMX. In most cases, both men and women are intimidated because of their gender when their superiors are of different gender (Ward, 2002). This becomes controversial when men have a woman as their superior because most people in the work place think that "…women possess less personal influence and power than men" (Ward, 2002, p. 25) hence the reason why it appears that "women are sometimes intimidated because of their gender" (Ward, 2002, p. 59). The final element on gender issues is dependent on the organizational culture because "different socialization of men and women during the early stages makes them develop different cognitive schemas, increasing therefore the chances that employees of the same gender have more homogenous values and display similar attitude" (Bellou, 2010, p. 7). Therefore, organizational cultures shape and reinforce socially appropriate roles for men and women.

Age differences and job satisfaction

Ghazzawi (2011) posit that very few researchers have studied the role of age in job satisfaction in specific industries such as information technology and manufacturing companies. In general, literature reviews indicated that older workers tend to be more satisfied with their jobs than younger workers, and a positive linear relationship exists between age and job satisfaction (Ward, 2002; Ghazzawi, 2011). The reason provided is that older workers are more experienced with work in general. They are less stressed, and they have fewer expectations. Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) point out that in their study, subordinates in dyads with larger differences in age reported higher levels of role ambiguity. In addition, "subordinates who were younger or older than their superiors reported a more role ambiguity than subordinates of the same age" (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989, p. 416). Although most researchers have concluded that job satisfaction increases with age (Ghazzawi, 2011), there has been little confirmation in literature because for example, in the United Sates, "it fails to go above 49% regardless of the age group" (Ghazzawi, 2011, p. 28). Bellou (2010) posits that a possible explanation for this may be the fact that "male and female individuals belonging to the same age group are likely to have experienced similar societal and organizational events, such as technological changes, social and organizational trends, mitigating thus possible differences" (p. 7).

Tenure differences and job satisfaction

Tenure is another variable that affects job satisfaction of employees in different organizations as it deals with the duration of the dyad working together. The relationship between a leader and followers is supposed to grow with time through the process of role definition (Bhal et al., 2007). In addition, the leader and member might get through repeated episodes over a period of time a more accurate idea about the quality and quantity of each other's contribution which could either be low or high. However, previous research on length of association and affective response reveals that "duration might result in affected-related relationships, as feelings of likings are likely to grow over a period of time" (Bhal et al., 2007, p. 67). According to Kavanaugh et al., (2006) Kats presented a three-stage model of job tenure based upon the evolving needs of the employee. These include: socializations, innovation, and adaptation. Other scholars (McNees-Smith, 2000) cited by Kavanaugh et al, (2006) proposes a "three-stage job model: entry, mastery, and disengagement" (p. 305). The disengagement was particularly predicted by years in the specific job, and negatively by job commitment. As pointed out in literature, "managers often think about and treat employees differently depending on their time within the organization" (Lovett et al., 2006, p. 36). This agrees with the findings of Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) who found out that superiors saw subordinates with either more or less time in their current job than the superiors had as less effective performers than subordinates with job tenure equivalent to their superiors'. However supervisors liked better subordinates with short job tenure than they liked subordinates with the same or longer job tenure.

Education differences and job satisfaction

A study on age by Lahoud (2006) cited by (Ghazzawi, 2011) "concluded that job satisfaction is correlated positively with person's education and experience" (p. 28). However, "results of studies regarding the connection between education and job satisfaction are contradictory and incomplete" (Ward, 2002, p. 24). Overall, most studies have concluded that lack of education is a strong source of job dissatisfaction in the work place. Hence, education has been recognized as a key variable to job expectations and job satisfaction. Martin and Shehan (1989) point out that "since higher education is associated with higher pay and better benefits, better educated workers should be more satisfied than those less educated" (Ward, 2002, p. 54). Finally, Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) argue that "when members of a dyad differ on educational level, they also tend to vary on beliefs and values and may communicate relatively infrequently, since they do not have the 'language compatibility'" (p. 406). In addition, the study by Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) indicated that subordinates with less education than their supervisors are liked better, and those subordinates also reported less role ambiguity than subordinates who had same or more education than their superiors.

Summary of literature review

The evidence from literature review indicates possible relation between differences in demographic characteristics of the leader and subordinates. Of course, researchers do not fully agree on all evidence that has been discussed. The LMX is vital in employees' job satisfaction because of its emphasis on reciprocal influence process within vertical dyads composed of one person who has direct authority over another person. The emphasis of the theory is the role making process involving leaders and work group members who report to them and the extent to which their relationship exhibit exchange and reciprocal influence . Most leaders develop a high-exchange relationship within a small number of trusted subordinates who function as assistants, lieutenants, or advisors. High exchange relationships are developed between a leader and subordinates according to the compatibility, capacity, and reliability of the members of the dyad and only a few trusted subordinates are selected to form a more close working relationship (Wu, 2009). On the other hand, a low-exchange relationship is characterized by a relatively low level of mutual influence. Leaders do not form a single universal relationship with each subordinate; instead, leaders develop separate relationships with each subordinate as the two parties engage in a mutual role-making process.

As pointed out earlier, the higher levels of LMX in the dyadic relationship will yield higher levels of job satisfaction which is associated with the important work-related and general outcomes, such as higher levels of job performance, organizational commitment, discretionary activities such as organizational citizenship behavior, and life satisfaction, as well as with lower levels of absenteeism, lateness, and turnover.

Job satisfaction is dependent on the relationship that exists between a supervisor and the subordinates. Therefore, demographic characteristic differences between a supervisor and subordinates will have an impact on overall job satisfaction because dissimilarity can lead to repulsion with differences between people increasing the distance between them and lowering interpersonal attraction and liking (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). As a result, people that have demographic differences may resort to quitting the job if there are no compromises to resolve the differences. In addition, dissimilarity in demographic characteristics may lead to low communication between the members of a dyad, role ambiguity should also be high. Tsui and O'Reilly (1989) point out that if dissimilarity in demographic background leads to differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs, role conflict should also be high because the dyad members may have different conceptions of the subordinate's role requirements. This quantitative research study explores whether demographic differences between a leader and followers inhibit the leader-follower exchange (LMX) levels and job satisfaction. The variables for the research include differences in age, differences in gender, differences in tenure, differences in education qualification, LMX, and job satisfaction.

METHOD

Participants and sample

The survey was sent out on June 4th, 2012 to a total of 851 convenient participants with a hope of getting at least 100 responses. The target was population was workers in manufacturing industries across the USA and the other parts of the world where social media is utilized. However, the dominant sample population for the research was primarily drawn from different companies in USA. Other parts of the world, such as Canada and Malawi were also considered as potential source of participants because of the researcher's connection through Facebook, Surveygizmo, and LinkedIn. There were a total of 123 convenient participants whose data was used for this research. This sample size is good because a practical guideline for samples in discriminant analysis is at least 20 observations per each predictor variable (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). On the other hand, Johnson (2003) argues that the in the case that the study falls short of 100 participants, a sample of 60 participants is acceptable because the intent of the population size is to gather "a sample size of 10 subjects for each variable" (p. 39). In addition, the use of a convenient sample is utilized because "the investigator can obtain research participants without spending a great deal of money or time on selecting sample" (Cabanda et al., 2011, p. 125). They are efficient and inexpensive. However, they are likely to introduce bias into the sample, and results may not generalize to intended population. In addition, there is no particular method of choosing participants in subgroups (Cabanda et al., 2011).

Gender of participants

Out of 123 participants, 51 were male and 72 were female. The participants were from three countries that were identified. The fourth category of participants (left bank) did not identify their country of residence: two males and two females (a total of four). However, from Canada, there were 6 participants: 3 males and 3 females; from Malawi there were 2 participants: 1 male and 1 female; from United States there were 111 participants: 45 males and 66 females. Table 1 presents a cross-tabulation of participant's gender by country of residence.

Table 1: Participant's gender by country of residence				
		Male	Female	Total
		2	2	4
Country	Canada	3	3	6
	Malawi	1	1	2
	United States	45	66	111
Total		51	72	123

Age of participants

Participant's age were grouped into 6 age categories: 18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54, 55-64, and 65 or older. Out of the 123 participants, 2 did not disclose their age group. However, the majority of participants were in the age range between 25 and 34 with 37.4% participants. The age group between 35 and 44 had 22.8% participants; the age group between 55 and 64 had 17.9% participants; the age group between 45 and 54 had 14.6% participants; the age group between 18 and 24 had 4.9% participants; the group of 65 or order had 0.8% participants. Table 2 presents the frequency table of participants based on the age group.

Table 2: Frequency table of participants based on the age group		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18 - 24	6	4.9	5.0	5.0
	25 - 34	46	37.4	38.0	43.0
	35 - 44	28	22.8	23.1	66.1
	45 - 54	18	14.6	14.9	81.0
	55 - 64	22	17.9	18.2	99.2
	65 or older	1	.8	.8	100.0
	Total	121	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.6		
Total		123	100.0		

Education qualification of participants

Participants were also asked to describe their highest educational levels: 49.61% of the participants have a bachelor's degree, 13.8% have a master's degree, 12.2% have some college with no degree, 9.8% have 2-year college degree, 7.3% have graduated from high school, 4.9% have less than high school education, 0.8% have doctoral degrees, and 1.6% have professional degree (JD, MD). Table 3 presents the frequency based on highest level of education.

Tenure of participants

Based on tenure, the majority of participants (71.9%) indicated to have worked for their company for less than 10 year as follows: 22.8% have worked between 3-5 years, 18.7% have worked between 1-2 years, 16.3% have worked between 6-10 years, and 13.0% have worked for less than 1 year. The remaining 28.1% comprised of participants that have worked for the company for more than 10 year as follows: 8.1% indicated to have worked for the company between 16-20 years; 7.3% indicated to have worked for the company between 11-15 years;

6.5% indicated to have worked for their companies for more than 25 years; finally, 5.7% indicated to have worked for the company between 20-24 years. Out of the 123 participants, two did not report the number of years worked for their current company. Table 4 presents the frequency of responses based on tenure.

Table 3: Frequency table of highest level of education completed by participants.		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	12th grade or less	6	4.9	4.9	4.9
	Graduated high school	9	7.3	7.3	12.2
	Some college, no degree	15	12.2	12.2	24.4
	2-year college degree	12	9.8	9.8	34.1
	Bachelor's degree	61	49.6	49.6	83.7
	Master's degree	17	13.8	13.8	97.6
	Doctoral degree	1	.8	.8	98.4
	Professional degree	2	1.6	1.6	100.0
	Total	123	100.0	100.0	

Table 4: Frequency table of tenure completed by participants.		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Less than 1 year	16	13.0	13.2	13.2
	1-2 years	23	18.7	19.0	32.2
	3-5 years	28	22.8	23.1	55.4
	6-10 years	20	16.3	16.5	71.9
	11-15 years	9	7.3	7.4	79.3
	16-20 years	10	8.1	8.3	87.6
	20-24 years	7	5.7	5.8	93.4
	More than 25 years	8	6.5	6.6	100.0
	Total	121	98.4	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.6		
Total		123	100.0		

RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION

The research is quantitative in nature. This is appropriate for this study because of the need to generalize the results of the study, make predictions, and look for causal explanations (Lange, 2008). As such, survey questionnaires were used because "a survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population by studying a

sample of that population" (Creswell, 2009, p. 145). All survey questions were administered electronically through suveygizmo (website http://www.surveygizmo.com/), facebook (website http://www.facebook.com/), and linkedin (website http://www.linkedin.com/). There were a total of 51 questions which took about 10 – 15 minutes to complete; the survey questionnaires were accompanied by an implied consent cover letter. Results are kept confidential. Only the researcher has access to the survey data and forms. At the end of the archival period, which is 3 years from the time the survey closes, all data will be destroyed by deleting all survey materials from the secure website.

Measurement

The purpose of the quantitative multiple regression study is to determine if demographic differences between a leader and follower inhibit LMX levels and job satisfaction. Four instruments were used for data collection. First is the LMX-7 which is still "one of the most frequently used measure in the literature" (Wu, 2009, p. 27). In addition, LMX-7 is the soundest measure of LMX and is recommended and used most widely to assess the quality of leader-member exchange (Grean & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Davis & Bryant, 2009; Wu, 2009). This will provide the information needed to describe the degree of exchange relationship that exists within each dyad. The survey tool consists of seven questions specific to working within a dyadic relationship (Topjian, 2009). The questions are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale with question-specific anchors. According to Grean and Uhl-Bien (1995), LMX-7 has a Cronbach alpha in the range of .80 to .90 on a single measure. Within the sample for this research the Cronbach alpha was .86 as illustrated in Table 5. Appendix A shows the actual questions for the LMX-7 measure.

Table 5: Reliability Statistics: Cronbach alpha for LMX	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.855	7

Second instrument is the satisfaction with my supervisor survey (SWMS). This instrument is used to measure how satisfied the subordinates are with their superiors. It is an important instrument as it will provide vital data that is needed to evaluate the relationship that exist between the superiors and their subordinates. If there are similarities or dissimilarities in demographic characteristics between the two sides, the SWMS will help pinpoint and confirm if the results are due to the differences in supervisor and subordinate or if they are as a result of something different. According to Fields (2002) the coefficient alpha values ranges from .95 to .96. The instrument involves 18 items making up the scale with the items loading on two factors.

It uses the 5-point Likert-type scale to obtain responses where 1 = very dissatisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = neutral, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, 4 = satisfied, 5 = very satisfied—see appendix B. According to Fields (2002), the "measure was developed by Scarpello and Vandenberg (1987), describing an employee's satisfaction with his or her immediate supervisor" (p. 41). It relates to the degree of subordinate satisfaction with supervisor as an organizational role whose effective performing entails the ability to resolve and coordinates the needs and goals of a work group's members with organizational requirements (Ward, 2002). The coefficient alpha for the sample in this research was .96. See Table 6.

Table 6: Reliability Statistics: satisfaction with my supervisor survey	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.957	18

The third instrument is overall job satisfaction. According to Fields (2002) the measure was developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951). It uses 18 items to describe overall job satisfaction in a one-dimensional measure of overall job satisfaction. The reliability on this instrument indicates that the "Coefficient alpha values for the entire measure ranged from .88 to .91" (Fields, 2002, p. 18). For the sample of this research the Coefficient alpha was .85. Table 7 illustrates this and Appendix C shows the instrument.

Table 7: Reliability Statistics	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.853	18

The last instrument is the demographic characteristic survey that was put together by the researcher. It aims at collecting such information as age, educational qualification, gender, tenure, and income of the survey participants. In addition, the instrument has additional question regarding the gender of the participant's immediate supervisor and whether the supervisor is more highly educated than the participant. Age was measured in years, and gender was coded such that 1 represented men (male) and 2 represented women (female). Appendix D illustrates the instrument. The data for the supervisor helped the researcher to see the relationships that exist between the survey participants and their leaders based on age and educational qualification differences.

Procedure

The procedure of the study is divided into several sections to illustrate the actual steps that were taken during the research. These procedures range from having an informed consent, demographic characteristics, pilot study, and data analysis. All of these are described in the subsequent paragraphs.

Informed consent

Participation in the survey was voluntary for all participants. They were asked to sign a consent form acknowledging their understanding of the purpose of the study; indicating their awareness that their participation is voluntary; acknowledging that they have the right to withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind Appendix E details the information.

Demographic characteristics

Participants were asked to indicate their demographic characteristics such age, tenure, gender, and educational qualification. In addition, they will be asked to report the gender of their immediate supervisor. When both members of the dyad are of the same gender (male-male or female-female), they will be considered a matched dyad. On the other hand, dyads of opposite gender (male-female or female-male) they will be treated as a mismatch. Financial information was also requested. This is detailed in Appendix D.

Pilot test

Before the survey was officially launched to the desired population, a pilot study was done with 7 participants. Two questions had to be modified because they were a bit confusing to the participants. In addition, the nature of the survey had to be entirely changed. Initially, all questions required a response before advancing to the next. The pilot test revealed that the set up could have deterred participants because they may not want to answer some questions. This was softened after the pilot study. The only mandatory item was the consent form. A second pilot test also involved 7 participants which were different from the original group of 7 participants in the first pilot study. This time no changes were suggested. Therefore, the survey was ready to be launched at that time.

DATA ANALYSIS

Correlation analysis using multiple regressions determined if a relationship between job satisfaction and the independent variables within the population. Multiple regression is the appropriate method for this research because it is a method "used to analyze the relationship between a single dependent variable and several independent variables" (Hair et al., 2010, p. 155). The analysis focused on the relationship between job satisfaction as a dependent variable, and independent variables: differences in education, differences in age, differences in tenure, and differences in gender.

The research also provides descriptive analysis of data for all independent and dependent variables in the study. All data was analyzed using the SPSS 17.0 statistical computer program. Finally, all results are presented in a table or figure format. These are interpreted by the researcher—meaning that the researcher will draw conclusions from the research question, hypotheses, and the large meanings of the results (Creswell, 2009).

Number of participants who did or did not return the survey is reported in the results section. In addition, response bias determination will be discussed. Response bias is the effect of nonresponses on survey estimates. The term bias "means that if nonrespondents had responded, their responses would have substantially changed the overall results" (Creswell, 2009, p. 151).

RESULTS

The purpose of the quantitative multiple regression study was to determine if demographic differences between a leader and follower inhibit LMX levels and job satisfaction as measured by the LMX-7, satisfaction with my supervisor, overall job satisfaction, and demographic characteristics surveys. The demographic differences between a leader and followers included differences in education qualification, differences in age, differences in tenure, and differences in gender. The target population was manufacturing industry employees across the USA and the rest of the world where social media, such as Facebook, LinkedIn, and Surveygizmo are utilized. The multiple regression analysis tested the hypotheses that guided the study.

Hypothesis 1:   *Differences in age between the leader and followers are negatively related to LMX and job satisfaction levels.*

Hypothesis 2:   *Differences in gender between the leader and followers are negatively related to LMX and job satisfaction levels.*

Hypothesis 3:   *Followers who have more tenure than their supervisors have lower levels of LMX and job satisfaction compared to followers who have the same or lower tenure than their supervisor.*

Hypothesis 4:   *Followers who have a higher educational qualifications than their leader have lower levels of LMX and job satisfaction compared to followers who have the same or lower educational qualifications than their leader.*

Hypothesis 5:   *The quality of LMX will mediate the relationship between demographic differences between a leader, follower and job satisfaction.*

In addition, person correlation analyses and descriptive statistics were analyzed for relationships between demographic data, independent variables, and dependent variables.

FINDINGS

Correlation analysis

Correlation analysis is used to describe the strength and direction of the linear relationship between two variables (Pallant, 2010). However, it is often used to explore the relationship among a group of variables, rather than just two. Since there were five hypotheses for this research, every attempt was made to assure that items were correlated based on the category they belonged to. Pearson correlation coefficients were used extensively. This is an index of effect size. "The index ranges in value from -1 to +1…a correlation of +1 indicates that as scores on strength increases across cases, the score on clumsiness increases precisely at a constant rate" (Green & Salkind, 2011, p. 258-259). On the other hand, negative (-) correlations indicates that as scores on strength increase across cases, the scores on clumsiness decrease precisely at a constant rate (Green & Salkind, 2011). The subsequent sections discuss the correlation findings as they relate to the five hypotheses of this research.

Differences in age

The first hypothesis evaluated differences in age between a leader and followers if they are negatively related to LMX and job satisfaction levels. Results revealed mostly negative correlations except when the question dealt with the education qualification. For example, age and how followers are satisfied with their leaders yielded -.047; leader's understanding of followers job problems = -.016; Leaders' recognition of followers potential = -.038; leaders' chances of bailing a follower = -.004; confidence of follower in a leader = -.046, and working relationships between followers and a leader = -.058. Other correlations involve the working relationship which was not significant at -.058. Overall, the entire correlations are significant and negative for age and LMX. Table 8 summarizes the correlation findings for this category.

Other relationships that affect job satisfaction involve the age differences between the follower and supervisor. The correlation between these two variables (age and supervisor satisfaction) indicate that out of the 18 items from satisfaction with supervisor, 7 relationships show correlations that were significant: the way supervisors listen, = -.019; the way supervisor help to get the job done, = .037; the way supervisor gives clear instruction, = .038; the way supervisor shows concern for subordinates career progress, = -.037; technical competence of supervisor, = .025; time to do the job right, = -.026; the way responsibilities are clearly defined, = -.010. Overall, out of the 18 correlations between age and satisfaction with the supervisor, 12 relationships had negative correlations. The remaining 6 positive correlation relationships were split into half where three of the correlations were significant and the remaining three had significant relationships. Table 9 illustrates the results in more details.

Table 8: Correlation of age and LMX									
Age	Pearson	1							
	Sig.								
Do you know where you stand with your leader; do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?	Pearson	-.047	1						
	Sig.	.626							
How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?	Pearson	-.016	.723**	1					
	Sig.	.872	.000						
How well does your leader recognize your potential?	Pearson	-.038	.631**	.574**	1				
	Sig.	.694	.000	.000					
Regardless of how much formal education he or she has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	Pearson	.013	.633**	.625**	.574**	1			
	Sig.	.894	.000	.000	.000				
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he or she would bail you out at his or her expense?	Pearson	-.004	.533**	.498**	.467**	.645**	1		
	Sig.	.967	.000	.000	.000	.000			
I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so	Pearson	-.046	.127	.182	.267**	.180	.116	1	
	Sig.	.635	.187	.058	.005	.060	.229		
How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?	Pearson	-.058	.711**	.665**	.632**	.660**	.630**	.202*	1
	Sig.	.545	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.034	
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).									
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).									
a. Listwise N=110									

Differences in gender

The second hypothesis looked at whether differences in gender between the leader and followers are negatively related to LMX and job satisfaction levels. There is a positive .248 Pearson Correlation between the gender of the leader and follower. This is significant at 0.01 levels. A positive correlation designates that as one variable increases, so does the other (Pallant, 2010). Therefore, as the gender differences increases, the levels of LMX and job satisfaction are affected as well. However, the overall picture shows positive correlation between gender and LMX with an exception of confidence following responses to the question, "I have enough confidence in my leader that I will defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so". This has a negative correlation of -.217. Negative correlation indicates that as one variable increases, the other decreases (Pallant, 2010). Table 10 summarizes these results.

Table 9: Pearson Correlation of age and Supervisor Satisfaction (2 tailed test)																			
Age	Pearson	1																	
	Sig.																		
My supervisor listens when I have something to say	Pearson	-.019	1																
	Sig.	.850																	
My supervisor sets clear work goals	Pearson	.066	.600**	1															
	Sig.	.519	.000																
The way my supervisor reacts to a mistake	Pearson	-.076	.599**	.524**	1														
	Sig.	.457	.000	.000															
My supervisor's fairness in appraising my performance	Pearson	-.083	.723**	.558**	.614**	1													
	Sig.	.417	.000	.000	.000														
My supervisor is consistent in his/her behavior towards subordinates	Pearson	-.068	.603**	.560**	.606**	.668**	1												
	Sig.	.505	.000	.000	.000	.000													
My supervisor helps me get the job done	Pearson	.037	.631**	.715**	.529**	.638**	.612**	1											
	Sig.	.719	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000												
My supervisor gives me credit for ideas	Pearson	-.117	.599**	.474**	.443**	.614**	.500**	.625**	1										
	Sig.	.250	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000											
My supervisor gives me clear instructions	Pearson	.038	.667**	.741**	.561**	.576**	.605**	.750**	.493**	1									
	Sig.	.714	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000										
My supervisor informs me about work changes ahead of time	Pearson	.052	.642**	.722**	.554**	.598**	.604**	.644**	.477**	.687**	1								
	Sig.	.609	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000									
My supervisor follows through to get problems solved	Pearson	-.081	.540**	.632**	.471**	.584**	.590**	.719**	.541**	.712**	.539**	1							
	Sig.	.427	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000								
My supervisor understands the problems I might run into doing the job	Pearson	-.088	.595**	.540**	.511**	.555**	.542**	.673**	.543**	.730**	.608**	.657**	1						
	Sig.	.390	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000							
My supervisor shows concern for my career progress	Pearson	-.037	.505**	.388**	.457**	.527**	.464**	.496**	.478**	.420**	.558**	.341**	.425**	1					
	Sig.	.720	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000						
My supervisor backs me up with other management	Pearson	-.066	.654**	.628**	.628**	.648**	.654**	.596**	.628**	.630**	.693**	.593**	.513**	.599**	1				
	Sig.	.519	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000					
The frequency of recognition for doing a good job	Pearson	-.070	.721**	.530**	.529**	.713**	.617**	.580**	.714**	.527**	.676**	.524**	.554**	.670**	.745**	1			
	Sig.	.492	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000				
My supervisor's technical competence	Pearson	.025	.461**	.584**	.587**	.470**	.479**	.506**	.376**	.531**	.527**	.547**	.439**	.269**	.604**	.387**	1		
	Sig.	.810	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.007	.000	.000			
The time to learn a task before moved to another task	Pearson	.083	.568**	.527**	.442**	.393**	.460**	.441**	.291**	.599**	.632**	.387**	.620**	.372**	.503**	.429**	.430**	1	
	Sig.	.417	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.004	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
The time I have to do the job right	Pearson	-.026	.351**	.334**	.307**	.361**	.292**	.441**	.376**	.506**	.375**	.365**	.634**	.235*	.341**	.346**	.222*	.628**	1
	Sig.	.803	.000	.001	.002	.000	.004	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.020	.001	.000	.028	.000	
Job responsibilities are clearly defined	Pearson	-.010	.556**	.645**	.457**	.502**	.558**	.675**	.546**	.675**	.648**	.603**	.638**	.470**	.565**	.583**	.471**	.540**	
	Sig.	.919	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
a. Listwise N=98

Table 10: Correlations – Gender and LMX									
Gender	Pearson	1							
	Sig.								
Do you know where you stand with your leader? Do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?	Pearson	.095							
	Sig.	.322							
How well does your leader (follower) understand your job problems and needs?	Pearson	.088	.726**						
	Sig.	.362	.000						
How well does your leader (follower) recognize your potential?	Pearson	.069	.638**	.597**					
	Sig.	.474	.000	.000					
Regardless of how much formal education he or she has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	Pearson	.121	.689**	.691**	.593**				
	Sig.	.207	.000	.000	.000				
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he or she would bail you out at his or her expense?	Pearson	.060	.555**	.522**	.464**	.631**			
	Sig.	.532	.000	.000	.000	.000			
I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so	Pearson	-.217*	.106	.163	.246**	.154	.072		
	Sig.	.023	.272	.089	.010	.109	.455		
How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?	Pearson	.133	.717**	.667**	.620**	.670**	.633**	.164	
	Sig.	.166	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.088	
Gender of your leader	Pearson	.248**	.178	.193*	.116	.087	.025	.071	
	Sig.	.009	.063	.044	.228	.364	.793	.459	
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).									
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).									
a. Listwise N=110									

There were a number of significance correlations between gender and job satisfaction. For example, "I consider my job rather unpleasant" = 0.02; "I am often bored with my job" = 0.04; "I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job" = 0.02; "I am satisfied with my job for the time being" = -0.02; "Most days I am enthusiastic about my work" = 0.01; "I like my job better than the average worker does" = -0.04; "I am disappointed that I ever took this job" = -.03. Table 11 provides a summary of correlations between gender and job satisfaction.

From the overall job satisfaction, 84.4% of the responders indicated that they do not enjoy their work than their leisure. However, 73.6% indicated a fair satisfaction with their present job. Additional 68.3% indicated being happier at work than most other people. Finally 95.9% reported being very satisfied that they took their job. Table 12 (a), Table 12 (b), and Table 12 (c) illustrate these findings.

Table 11: Correlations – Gender and job satisfaction																				
		Gender																		
Gender	Pearson	1																		
	Sig.																			
My job is like a hobby to me	Pearson	-.103	1																	
	Sig.	.300																		
My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored	Pearson	-.095	.103	1																
	Sig.	.338	.299																	
It seem that my friends are more interested in the their jobs	Pearson	-.074	-.055	-.270**	1															
	Sig.	.453	.580	.006																
I consider my job rather unpleasant	Pearson	.024	-.136	-.203*	.275**	1														
	Sig.	.808	.168	.038	.005															
I enjoy my work more than my leisure time	Pearson	-.056	.422**	.092	-.186	-.133	1													
	Sig.	.575	.000	.355	.058	.180														
I am often bored with my job	Pearson Correlation	.040	-.245*	-.620**	.362**	.223*	-.332**	1												
	Sig.	.684	.012	.000	.000	.023	.001													
I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job	Pearson	.022	.152	.268**	-.206*	-.387**	.246*	-.366**	1											
	Sig.	.822	.123	.006	.036	.000	.012	.000												
Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work	Pearson	.081	-.135	-.414**	.398**	.467**	-.028	.354**	-.393**	1										
	Sig.	.411	.171	.000	.000	.000	.775	.000	.000											
I am satisfied with my job for the time being	Pearson	-.020	.153	.144	-.160	-.290**	.111	-.165	.405**	-.202*	1									
	Sig.	.836	.120	.145	.105	.003	.260	.095	.000	.040										
I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get	Pearson	.117	-.127	-.032	-.122	-.066	-.087	-.033	.124	-.069	.092	1								
	Sig.	.238	.200	.747	.218	.503	.378	.741	.209	.488	.354									
I definitely dislike my work	Pearson	.132	-.229*	-.425**	.307**	.573**	-.265**	.485**	-.462**	.537**	-.405**	-.050	1							
	Sig.	.181	.019	.000	.002	.000	.007	.000	.000	.000	.000	.616								
I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people	Pearson	.092	.269**	.240*	-.249*	-.446**	.168	-.206*	.329**	-.410**	.134	.001	-.414**	1						
	Sig.	.351	.006	.014	.011	.000	.089	.036	.001	.000	.176	.993	.000							
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work	Pearson	.011	.222*	.515**	-.348**	-.371**	.123	-.441**	.222*	-.583**	.240*	-.066	-.568**	.448**	1					
	Sig.	.908	.023	.000	.000	.000	.214	.000	.024	.000	.014	.504	.000	.000						
Each day of work seems like it will never end	Pearson	-.079	.108	-.484**	.277**	.310**	.065	.336**	-.326**	.535**	-.182	-.063	.427**	-.287**	-.465**	1				
	Sig.	.423	.277	.000	.004	.001	.510	.000	.001	.000	.064	.522	.000	.003	.000					
I like my job better than the average worker does	Pearson	-.044	.293**	.310**	-.312**	-.441**	.283**	-.258**	.375**	-.363**	.233*	.040	-.500**	.738**	.393**	-.287**	1			
	Sig.	.659	.003	.001	.001	.000	.004	.008	.000	.000	.018	.683	.000	.000	.000	.003				
My job is pretty uninteresting	Pearson	.127	-.228*	-.262**	.073	.225*	-.086	.299**	-.232*	.270**	-.093	.100	.273**	-.312**	-.294**	.289**	-.178	1		
	Sig.	.200	.020	.007	.459	.021	.383	.002	.018	.006	.348	.311	.005	.001	.002	.003	.070			
I find real enjoyment in my work	Pearson	-.096	.211*	.392**	-.245*	-.449**	.392**	-.469**	.511**	-.442**	.146	-.002	-.457**	.486**	.464**	-.365**	.499**	-.284**	1	
	Sig.	.331	.032	.000	.012	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.139	.983	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.003		
I am disappointed that I ever took this job	Pearson	-.027	-.112	-.255**	.200*	.390**	-.054	.278**	-.378**	.447**	-.394**	-.090	.503**	-.242*	-.405**	.321**	-.278**	.157	-.214*	
	Sig.	.785	.258	.009	.042	.000	.584	.004	.000	.000	.000	.364	.000	.013	.000	.001	.004	.111	.029	

Table 12 (a): Frequency indicating overall job satisfaction: I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	30	24.4	24.6	24.6
	Disagree	73	59.3	59.8	84.4
	Undecided	13	10.6	10.7	95.1
	Agree	4	3.3	3.3	98.4
	Strongly agree	2	1.6	1.6	100.0
	Total	122	99.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.8		
Total		123	100.0		
Table 12 (b): Frequency indicating overall job satisfaction: I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	1	.8	.8	.8
	Disagree	14	11.4	11.5	12.3
	Undecided	23	18.7	18.9	31.1
	Agree	77	62.6	63.1	94.3
	Strongly agree	7	5.7	5.7	100.0
	Total	122	99.2	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.8		
Total		123	100.0		
Table 12 (c) : Frequency indicating overall job satisfaction: I am disappointed that I ever took this job		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly disagree	68	55.3	55.3	55.3
	Disagree	50	40.7	40.7	95.9
	Undecided	5	4.1	4.1	100.0
	Total	123	100.0	100.0	

Differences in tenure

Hypothesis 3 evaluated whether followers who have more tenure than their supervisors have lower levels of LMX and job satisfaction compared to followers who have the same or lower tenure than their supervisor. The analysis shows positive correlations between tenure and all aspects of LMX on one hand, and between tenure of respondents and that of their supervisors on the other. There were two correlations sets that were significant, $p < .05$. These include responses to the questions, "How well does your leader understand your job problem needs?" The correlation with tenure was reported at 0.04; "I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so". The correlation of this question with tenure was reported at 0.02. The rest of the questions on LMX were not significant. Finally, tenure differences between respondents and their leaders were reported at 0.51. Table 13 illustrates the correlation results from the SPSS output.

Table 13: Pearson Correlations – Tenure and LMX (2 tailed)									
Tenure	Pearson	1							
	Sig.								
Do you know where you stand with your leader: do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?	Pearson	.122	1						
	Sig.	.204							
How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?	Pearson	.043	.722**	1					
	Sig.	.654	.000						
How well does your leader recognize your potential?	Pearson	.099	.629**	.584**	1				
	Sig.	.304	.000	.000					
Regardless of how much formal education he or she has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	Pearson	.072	.635**	.629**	.578**	1			
	Sig.	.453	.000	.000	.000				
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he or she would bail you out at his or her expense?	Pearson	.104	.547**	.512**	.478**	.658**	1		
	Sig.	.281	.000	.000	.000	.000			
I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so	Pearson	.024	.102	.159	.246**	.154	.079	1	
	Sig.	.807	.288	.097	.010	.108	.409		
How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?	Pearson	.121	.715**	.664**	.627**	.663**	.639**	.167	1
	Sig.	.208	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.080	
Have you been at your job longer than your current supervisor?	Pearson	.511**	.120	.009	.099	.035	-.016	.056	.037
	Sig.	.000	.213	.924	.302	.720	.870	.561	.701
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). a. Listwise N=110									

The analysis of tenure and job satisfaction showed a number of positive and negative correlations. Four Pearson correlations were reported to be significant. These included answers to the questions that asked, "My job is like a hobby to me", = .00; "I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get" = 0.03; "I definitely dislike my work" -.037. Table 14 illustrates the correlations discussed in this section.

Differences in education qualification

The fourth hypotheses explored whether followers who have a higher education than their leader have lower levels of LMX and job satisfaction compared to followers who have the same or lower educational qualifications than their leader. Research results indicate three significant negative correlations between LMX items and education qualification. The question on "how well does your leader understand your job problems needs?" had correlation of -.027; "How well does your leader recognize your potential?" reported correlation of -.015; "Regardless of how much formal education he or she has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his or her power to help you solve problems at work?" had -.041. The rest of

the items on LMX and education qualification had positive correlation. Two of the significant positive correlation involved the questions, "Regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he or she would bail you out at his or her expense?" had correlation of .012, and "I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so" = .030. The correlation between education qualification of the followers and whether their leaders had completed more years of education degrees has a negative correlation, = -.425. This is only significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). Table 15 illustrates the findings of correlation between education qualification and LMX.

Table 14: Pearson Correlations of Tenure and Job satisfaction (2 tailed)

Variable	Stat	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Tenure	Pearson	1																		
	Sig.																			
My job is like a hobby to me	Pearson	.000	1																	
	Sig.	.998																		
My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored	Pearson	.118	.119	1																
	Sig.	.239	.232																	
It seem that my friends are more interested in the their jobs	Pearson	-.310**	-.071	-.261**	1															
	Sig.	.001	.480	.008																
I consider my job rather unpleasant	Pearson	-.083	-.147	-.194	.235*	1														
	Sig.	.409	.139	.050	.018															
I enjoy my work more than my leisure time	Pearson	.187	.448**	.078	-.173	-.122	1													
	Sig.	.060	.000	.433	.081	.222														
I am often bored with my job	Pearson	-.060	-.265**	-.631**	.306**	.183	-.331**	1												
	Sig.	.551	.007	.000	.002	.066	.001													
I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job	Pearson	.195*	.168	.260**	-.147	-.359**	.237*	-.322**	1											
	Sig.	.049	.092	.008	.141	.000	.016	.001												
Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work	Pearson	-.066	-.144	-.416**	.352**	.444**	-.016	.307**	-.356**	1										
	Sig.	.507	.150	.000	.000	.000	.870	.002	.000											
I am satisfied with my job for the time being	Pearson	-.088	.178	.129	-.144	-.283**	.094	-.155	.403**	-.197*	1									
	Sig.	.378	.073	.196	.149	.004	.348	.120	.000	.047										
I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get	Pearson	.026	-.107	-.058	-.071	-.033	-.117	.016	.084	-.031	.064	1								
	Sig.	.795	.284	.564	.479	.740	.242	.875	.399	.759	.523									
I definitely dislike my work	Pearson	-.037	-.242*	-.419**	.291**	.567**	-.257**	.479**	-.453**	.533**	-.400**	-.027	1							
	Sig.	.710	.014	.000	.003	.000	.009	.000	.000	.000	.000	.786								
I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people	Pearson	.215*	.303**	.225*	-.244*	-.449**	.149	-.204*	.328**	-.422**	.109	-.033	-.411**	1						
	Sig.	.030	.002	.023	.014	.000	.136	.039	.001	.000	.273	.742	.000							
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work	Pearson	.152	.241*	.518**	-.295**	-.341**	.110	-.398**	.171	-.554**	.232*	-.120	-.564**	.456**	1					
	Sig.	.127	.015	.000	.003	.000	.271	.000	.086	.000	.019	.230	.000	.000						
Each day of work seems like it will never end	Pearson	-.138	.092	-.476**	.267**	.303**	.084	.333**	-.319**	.543**	-.165	-.037	.421**	-.270*	-.47**	1				
	Sig.	.165	.360	.000	.007	.002	.403	.001	.001	.000	.097	.712	.000	.006	.000					
I like my job better than the average worker does	Pearson	.217*	.328**	.297**	-.307**	-.442**	.266**	-.256**	.373**	-.371**	.210*	.006	-.498**	.729**	.395**	-.27**	1			
	Sig.	.028	.001	.002	.002	.000	.007	.009	.000	.000	.034	.954	.000	.000	.000	.006				
My job is pretty uninteresting	Pearson	-.055	-.199*	-.315**	.146	.280**	-.133	.378**	-.302**	.333**	-.148	.038	.319**	-.391**	-.37**	.351**	-.251*	1		
	Sig.	.580	.045	.001	.142	.004	.183	.000	.002	.001	.136	.705	.001	.000	.000	.000	.011			
I find real enjoyment in my work	Pearson	.134	.236*	.382**	-.201*	-.430**	.381**	-.445**	.489**	-.421**	.125	-.050	-.447**	.479**	.439**	-.35**	.491**	-.37**	1	
	Sig.	.178	.017	.000	.043	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.210	.620	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
I am disappointed that I ever took this job	Pearson	.072	-.120	-.249*	.173	.377**	-.045	.257**	-.362**	.435**	-.390**	-.068	.497**	-.238*	-.39**	.316**	-.274**	.194	-.20*	
	Sig.	.475	.229	.012	.081	.000	.652	.009	.000	.000	.000	.495	.000	.016	.000	.001	.005	.050	.049	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
a. Listwise N=102

Table 15: Pearson Correlations – Education qualification and LMX (2 tailed)											
Education qualification	Pearson	1									
	Sig.										
Has your supervisor completed more years of education of higher degrees than you?	Pearson	-.425**	1								
	Sig.	.000									
Do you know where you stand with your leader; do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?	Pearson	.052	-.011	1							
	Sig.	.586	.912								
How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?	Pearson	-.027	-.045	.727**	1						
	Sig.	.779	.641	.000							
How well does your leader recognize your potential?	Pearson	-.015	-.072	.636**	.592**	1					
	Sig.	.879	.450	.000	.000						
Regardless of how much formal education he or she has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?	Pearson	-.041	-.048	.640**	.636**	.586**	1				
	Sig.	.671	.616	.000	.000	.000					
Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he or she would bail you out at his or her expense?	Pearson	.012	-.119	.541**	.505**	.472**	.651**	1			
	Sig.	.903	.212	.000	.000	.000	.000				
I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so	Pearson	.030	-.089	.106	.163	.249**	.158	.079	1		
	Sig.	.751	.351	.265	.086	.008	.095	.407			
How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?	Pearson	.071	-.006	.713**	.661**	.624**	.661**	.638**	.168	1	
	Sig.	.455	.953	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.077		
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). a. Listwise N=112											

The second part explored the correlations of education qualification and job satisfaction. Eight (8) of the 18 questions on job satisfaction had significant correlation with education qualification as follows: My job is like a hobby to me, = .027; My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored, = .002; It seem that my friends are more interested in their jobs, = -.032; I am often bored with my job, = -.021; Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work, = -.028; Most of the days I am enthusiastic about my work, = -.016; I find real enjoyment in my work, = .049. Table 16 demonstrates the findings.

LMX mediation

The final hypotheses explored whether the quality of LMX mediates the relationship between demographic differences between a leader, follower, and job satisfaction. The analysis used dependent variable (job satisfaction) by focusing on the question, "I am satisfied with my job for the time being", mean = 3.86. The independent variables of age (mean = 4.05), tenure (mean = 3.54), education qualification (mean = 4.44), and gender (mean = 1.57) were used. Two

questions, "I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so" (mean 3.38), and "How well does your leader recognize your potential?" (Mean = 3.73) were the questions that were used from the LMX standpoint. The valid *N* was 109. See Table 17.

Table 16: Correlations of education qualification and Job Satisfaction																				
ducation qualification	Pearson	1																		
	Sig.																			
as your supervisor completed more years of education than you?	Pearson	-.470**	1																	
	Sig.	.000																		
ly job is like a hobby to me	Pearson	.027	-.001	1																
	Sig.	.787	.995																	
ly job is interesting enough to keep me from getting bored	Pearson	.002	.002	.109	1															
	Sig.	.983	.983	.271																
seem that my friends are more interested in the their jobs	Pearson	.037	-.137	-.057	-.267**	1														
	Sig.	.709	.169	.565	.006															
consider my job rather unpleasant	Pearson	-.032	.046	-.136	-.207*	.276**	1													
	Sig.	.749	.647	.172	.036	.005														
enjoy my work more than my leisure time	Pearson	.063	-.114	.450**	.066	-.181	-.141	1												
	Sig.	.528	.252	.000	.509	.067	.154													
am often bored with my job	Pearson	-.021	.005	-.256**	-.614**	.360**	.228*	-.309**	1											
	Sig.	.835	.959	.009	.000	.000	.021	.001												
feel fairly well satisfied with my present job	Pearson	.074	-.010	.154	.266**	-.205*	-.387**	.246*	-.37**	1										
	Sig.	.460	.924	.120	.007	.038	.000	.012	.000											
lost of the time I have to force myself to go to work	Pearson	-.028	.010	-.135	-.417**	.399**	.467**	-.030	.358**	-.393**	1									
	Sig.	.782	.920	.173	.000	.000	.000	.763	.000	.000										
am satisfied with my job for the time being	Pearson	.121	-.018	.154	.143	-.160	-.290**	.111	-.164	.405**	-.202*	1								
	Sig.	.222	.859	.119	.149	.107	.003	.263	.097	.000	.041									
feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get	Pearson	-.138	.099	-.131	-.023	-.126	-.065	-.070	-.045	.127	-.069	.093	1							
	Sig.	.163	.322	.186	.815	.206	.513	.482	.655	.200	.490	.349								
definitely dislike my work	Pearson	-.108	.116	-.227*	-.435**	.311**	.573**	-.290**	.500**	-.47**	.538**	-.41**	-.045	1						
	Sig.	.276	.242	.021	.000	.001	.000	.003	.000	.000	.000	.000	.652							
feel that I am happier in my work than most other people	Pearson	-.089	.148	.266**	.251*	-.254**	-.446**	.194*	-.220*	.332**	-.41**	.135	-.005	-.411**	1					
	Sig.	.374	.135	.007	.011	.010	.000	.050	.025	.001	.000	.173	.958	.000						
lost days I am enthusiastic about my work	Pearson	-.016	.016	.224*	.515**	-.348**	-.372**	.120	-.44**	.221*	-.58**	.240*	-.064	-.571**	.452**	1				
	Sig.	.872	.872	.023	.000	.000	.000	.226	.000	.025	.000	.015	.518	.000	.000					
ach day of work seems like it will never end	Pearson	.060	-.039	.102	-.476**	.273**	.315**	.103	.323**	-.33**	.540**	-.182	-.075	.440**	-.301**	-.466**	1			
	Sig.	.545	.692	.306	.000	.005	.001	.301	.001	.001	.000	.066	.452	.000	.002	.000				
like my job better than the average worker does	Pearson	-.071	.130	.289**	.326**	-.318**	-.441**	.320**	-.28**	.380**	-.37**	.235*	.033	-.497**	.736**	.398**	-.31**	1		
	Sig.	.476	.190	.003	.001	.001	.000	.001	.005	.000	.000	.017	.744	.000	.000	.000	.002			
ly job is pretty uninteresting	Pearson	-.110	.016	-.236*	-.252*	.069	.229*	-.057	.286**	-.230*	.273**	-.092	.091	.284**	-.326**	-.293**	.277**	-.194*	1	
	Sig.	.268	.872	.016	.010	.492	.020	.564	.003	.019	.005	.356	.358	.004	.001	.003	.005	.050		
find real enjoyment in my work	Pearson	.049	-.152	.213*	.391**	-.244*	-.450**	.396**	-.47**	.510**	-.44**	.146	.001	-.460**	.490**	.464**	-.36**	.506**	-.28**	1
	Sig.	.625	.126	.031	.000	.013	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.142	.996	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.004	
am disappointed that I ever took this job	Pearson	-.146	.109	-.117	-.248*	.198*	.392**	-.035	.270**	-.38**	.449**	-.39**	-.097	.511**	-.250*	-.404**	.314**	-.289**	.149	-.21*
	Sig.	.142	.272	.240	.011	.046	.000	.724	.006	.000	.000	.000	.329	.000	.011	.000	.001	.003	.134	.031

Table 17: Descriptive Statistics: LMX as a mediating variable between job satisfaction and demographic difference variables of age, tenure, education qualification, gender.			
	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
I am satisfied with my job for the time being	3.86	.700	109
Age	4.05	1.250	109
Tenure	3.54	1.913	109
Education qualification	4.44	1.391	109
Gender	1.57	.498	109
I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so	3.38	1.216	109
How well does your leader recognize your potential?	3.73	.919	109

Regression analysis

Three models were used for this regression analysis. The aim of regression analysis is to predict a single dependent variable from the knowledge of one or more independent variables (Hair et al., 2010, p. 162). Model 1 used gender, age, education qualification, and tenure to predict job satisfaction using only one concept, "I am satisfied with my job for the time being." Results show R Square .029 indicating that after the variables were used; the overall model explains 2.9 percent of the variance (.029 * 100). The relationship was not significant between job satisfaction and the variables entered in model 1, $F = (4, 104) = .766$, $p > .05$. The second model had variables age, gender, educational qualification, tenure, and confidence in the leader. Results show R Square .054 indicating that after the variables were entered; the overall model explains 5.4 percent of the variance (0.54 * 100). The relationship was not significant between the variables and job satisfaction in the second model as well, $F = (1, 103) = 2.713$, $p > .05$. Finally the third model all the variables in the second model plus an additional variable, leader's recognition of the follower's potential. Results show R Square .122 indicating that after the variables were entered; the overall model explains 12.2 percent of the variance (.122 * 100). The relationship was significant between the variables and job satisfaction in this model, $F = (1, 102) = 7.906$, $p < .05$. Table 18 illustrates the model summary of the three models.

					Change Statistics				
Table 18: Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.169[a]	.029	-.009	.703	.029	.766	4	104	.550
2	.231[b]	.054	.008	.697	.025	2.713	1	103	.103
3	.349[c]	.122	.070	.675	.068	7.906	1	102	.006

a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Education qualification, Tenure
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Education qualification, Tenure, I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.
c. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Education qualification, Tenure, I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so, How well does your leader recognize your potential?

	Table 19: Correlations: Job satisfaction and independent variables of age, tenure, education qualification, and Gender.							
Pearson	I am satisfied with my job for the time being	1.000						
	Age	.028	1.000					
	Tenure	-.034	.501	1.000				
	Education qualification	.158	-.118	-.177	1.000			
	Gender	-.039	.077	.121	-.138	1.000		
	I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present	-.156	-.060	.039	.000	-.189	1.000	
	How well does your leader recognize your potential?	.216	-.062	.135	.042	.051	.198	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	I am satisfied with my job for the time being	.						
	Age	.385	.					
	Tenure	.364	.000	.				
	Education qualification	.050	.110	.032	.			
	Gender	.344	.214	.105	.076	.		
	I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present	.052	.267	.343	.499	.025	.	
	How well does your leader recognize your potential?	.012	.262	.080	.333	.301	.019	.
N	I am satisfied with my job for the time being	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
	Age	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
	Tenure	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
	Education qualification	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
	Gender	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
	I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present	109	109	109	109	109	109	109
	How well does your leader recognize your potential?	109	109	109	109	109	109	109

All of these three models are confirmed by the ANOVA output that shows model three as the only one being significant. The ANOVA output indicate the following: Model 1 = F (4, 104) = .77, sig .550, p > .05; Model 2 = F (5, 103) 1.17), sig .33, P > .05; Model 3 = F (6, 102) 2.35, sig .05, p > .05. See Table 20.

Results of Pearson correlation between job satisfaction (I am satisfied with my job for the time being) and the independent variables of age, tenure, and gender were all significant at .028, -.034, and -.039, respectively. There was a positive correlation between job satisfaction and education qualification, but the relationship was not significant at .158. In addition there were both negative and positive correlation between job satisfaction and LMX, but these relationships were not significant, see Table 19.

	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Table 20: ANOVA[d]					
1	Regression	1.515	4	.379	.766	.550[a]
	Residual	51.421	104	.494		
	Total	52.936	108			
2	Regression	2.835	5	.567	1.166	.331[b]
	Residual	50.101	103	.486		
	Total	52.936	108			
3	Regression	6.439	6	1.073	2.354	.036[c]
	Residual	46.497	102	.456		
	Total	52.936	108			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Education qualification, Tenure
b. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Education qualification, Tenure, I have enough confidence in my leader (follower) that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so
c. Predictors: (Constant), Gender, Age, Education qualification, Tenure, I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so, How well does your leader recognize your potential?
d. Dependent Variable: I am satisfied with my job for the time being

In addition to the above analysis, the author did a regression analysis to see if the independent variables of age, gender, education qualification, gender of the leader, tenure, and individual income would predict job satisfaction. The second model under this category added supervisor's education to the variables outlined in model 1 to verify if the added variable would have an impact in predicting job satisfaction. Results of the two models indicate no significance which meant that the variables could not predict job satisfaction: Model 1, $F = (6, 101) = .551 =$ sig (.768), $P > .05$. Model 2, $F = (1, 100) = 1.831 =$ sig (.179), $p > .05$. Therefore, based on the model, the variables could not predict job satisfaction due to the model not being significant. Table 21a and Table 21b summarize the findings.

Table 21a: Regression analysis: Model Summary									
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.178[a]	.032	-.026	.717	.032	.551	6	101	.768
2	.222[b]	.049	-.017	.714	.017	1.831	1	100	.179
a. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Gender, Education qualification, Gender_leader, Tenure, Individual annual income range									
b. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Gender, Education qualification, Gender_leader, Tenure, Individual annual income range, Has your supervisor completed more years of education of higher degrees than you?									

Table 21b : Regression Analysis- ANOVA Table						
	Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1.702	6	.284	.551	.768[a]
	Residual	51.956	101	.514		
	Total	53.657	107			
2	Regression	2.636	7	.377	.738	.640[b]
	Residual	51.022	100	.510		
	Total	53.657	107			
a. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Gender, Education qualification, Gender_leader, Tenure, Individual annual income range						
b. Predictors: (Constant), Age, Gender, Education qualification, Gender_leader, Tenure, Individual annual income range, Has your supervisor completed more years of education of higher degrees than you?						
c. Dependent Variable: I am satisfied with my job for the time being						

DISCUSSION

This quantitative research explored whether demographic differences between a leader and follower inhibit the leader-follower exchange (LMX) levels and job satisfaction. There were four independent variables: differences in age, differences in gender, differences in tenure, and differences in education qualification. The LMX was the mediating variable, while job satisfaction was the dependent variable. The research question that drove the research was: Does demographic differences between a leader and follower in terms of age, tenure, gender, and educational qualification inhibit LMX and job satisfaction? The sample population was 123 participants who completed the online surveys.

Results of the differences in age between a leader and a follower appear to have negatively affected the LMX and job satisfaction. There were negative correlations that were reported, which indicate that as the age differences increased, the level of LMX decreased. This

affected job satisfaction in the end. These results are consistent with earlier findings by Tsui & O'Reilly (1989) who pointed out that the differences in demographic characteristics between a leader and follower have a significant impact on job satisfaction because dissimilarity can lead to repulsion which will ultimately lead to increasing distance between the two sides. The end result is the lowering of interpersonal attraction, which affects the level of LMX.

Results on the gender differences between a leader and follower were similar to those recognized in other research. There was a positive correlation between gender differences and job satisfaction on one hand, and between gender and LMX on the other. This proves that as the gender difference decrease, job satisfaction and levels of LMX increase. Therefore, when a leader is female, the relationship with followers who are females is great. This in turn increases the level of the LMX between the dyad. Tsui & O'Reilly (1989) argue that subordinates in mixed-gender (male-female) have higher levels of ambiguity and role conflict. On the other hand, when the same gender work together, there is the lowest level of role ambiguity. Therefore, gender differences between a leader and subordinates have a negative effect on LMX and job satisfaction.

Results on whether followers who have more tenure than their supervisors have lower levels of LMX and job satisfaction compared to the same or lower level than supervisor had a positive correlation indicating that the more number of years an employee is employed, the more the level of job satisfaction. At the same time, the more a leader and follower work together, the higher the levels of LMX. This affects the overall job satisfaction of the flowers because the relationship is supposed to grow over a period of time. As Lovett et al., (2006) pointed out, "managers often think about and treat employees differently depending on their time within the organization" (p. 36).

There was a positive correlation between LMX and job satisfaction based on education similarities between a leader and followers which indicate that as the level of LMX increase between a leader and followers who have similarities in education qualification, job satisfaction increases as well. Most respondent indicated to be satisfied with their job. In addition, the relationship between the variables in this category was significant. The level of job satisfaction in this case is affected by the differences in education qualification because if the two sides: a leader and followers differ in education qualification, they are likely going to vary in beliefs and values and may communicate less frequently. Therefore, differences in education qualification between a leader and follower have negative effects on job satisfaction and LMX levels.

Finally, results on LMX prove that it mediates the relationship between demographic differences between a leader, followers, and job satisfaction. The regression analysis models indicate that it was significant (.006), $p < .05$. This was primarily focusing on the elements of the LMX as a mediating variable between demographic differences between a leader and followers on one hand, and job satisfaction on the other. Therefore, hypothesis 5 is accepted.

The overall results of the research did not support that money is a predictor of job satisfaction. However, all the hypotheses were accepted after the analysis. This will lead us to the implication of the study.

IMPLICATIONS

The study was important because it added to the knowledge of understanding as to why a demographic difference between a leader and followers is important in leadership study. The study also provided the baseline for further exploration of the subject in other parts of the world because differences in demographic characteristics of individuals such as age, tenure, gender, and education qualification play an important role in the dyadic relationship between a leader and followers (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Identifying the main causes of the differences and resolving issues between a leader and follower will help increase the LMX level which will in turn mediate the relationship between demographic differences and job satisfaction. If demographic differences in characteristics between a leader and followers are not well understood, there may be an increased level of role ambiguity which will results in the dyad communicate less frequently. If the relationship between the two sides is poor, job satisfaction will be affected. As pointed out earlier, the LMX is vital in employees' job satisfaction because of its emphasis on reciprocal influence process within vertical dyads composed of one person who has direct authority over another person. The emphasis of the theory is the role making process involving leaders and work group members who report to them and the extent to which their relationship exhibit exchange and reciprocal influence . Most leaders develop a high-exchange relationship within a small number of trusted subordinates who function as assistants, lieutenants, or advisors. High exchange relationships are developed between a leader and subordinates according to the compatibility, capacity, and reliability of the members of the dyad and only a few trusted subordinates are selected to form a more close working relationship (Wu, 2009). On the other hand, a low-exchange relationship is characterized by a relatively low level of mutual influence.

The sample used in the research was important because it was drawn from the entire USA, Canada, and Malawi. Although the majority was from the USA, other parts of the world contributed to the study. In addition, different age group, different work experiences due to tenure and variation in education levels was important because data represented all age groups, as well as all levels of experiences. Results supported earlier findings by Tsui & O'Reilly (1989) who indicated that "dissimilarity can lead to repulsion" (p. 404) because people tend to be drawn to those who are comparable to themselves. In addition, demographic differences tend to reduce the extent to which employees communicate well with their supervisors. Poor communication will affect job satisfaction because there is an increased chance or role ambiguity between a leader and followers.

LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The study had a number of limitations that affected the outcome. First, there were missing data on a number of responses. These were not utilized in the research. The data was not included in the response because of language barriers in different countries. The survey was submitted via social media which uses English. In Malawi, respondents were restricted on what they could respond to because some of the responders did not fully understand English. Therefore, there was a need to translate the questions into the local language.

The second limitation is that the surveys were completed electronically. This was a limitation because some people did not have readily available computers to respond to the survey questions. Most of the Facebook users acknowledge having received the surveys, but they were limited because they only use their mobile phones on social media such as Facebook. Therefore they needed paper copies to complete the surveys. This also was an issue because it restricted participants to only those who have access to computers with internet connections. People in poor countries could not afford to pay for internet connection in order to respond to the surveys.

The last limitation is that it was difficult to know if the responders were different of if they were the same responders completing the survey more than one time. This was because it was a convenient sample and was open to anybody who could get a hand on it.

Delimitations

The use of standard scale prohibited being able to infer more deeply into relationships, as might be possible through the use of personal interviews—qualitative research.

CONCLUSION

After data was collected from 123 convenient participants, all proposed research hypotheses were supported as evidenced by the data analysis. First it was evident that differences in age between the leader and followers are negatively related to LMX and job satisfaction levels. If there was a clear age gap between the supervisor and the followers job satisfaction was affected and there were lower levels of LMX reported. However, when the two dyad members were within the same age bracket, there were high levels of LMX and job satisfaction reported. This was the same with all the hypotheses that were tested against.

Differences in demographic characteristics of individual such as age, tenure, gender, and education qualification play an important role in the dyadic relationship that exist between a leader and followers. Dissimilarity leads to poor quality of exchange, which in turn affects job satisfaction of the employees due to repulsion because people tend to be drawn to those who are

comparable to them. If dissimilarity in demographic characteristics leads to low communication between the members of a dyad, role ambiguity should also be high; If dissimilarity in demographic background leads to differences in attitudes, values, and beliefs, role conflict should also be high because the dyad members may have different conceptions of the subordinate's role necessities.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, further exploration on the effects of demographic differences between a leader and followers will need to be conducted. This study used a quantitative approach. I would recommend using the qualitative approach in order to have a chance to ask clarifying questions on some of the concepts because there may be a slight disconnect by using the quantitative methods because of the stringent approach since the surveys are set and do not provide a chance to modify the questions when responding to them.

A second recommendation is to have the survey questions translated from English to a local language if it is administered in a non-English speaking country, such as Malawi. That will alleviate all the misunderstandings and barriers that are caused by the language differences.

A third recommendation would be to use both electronic surveys as well as the traditional paper survey method. This will give a chance and flexibility to those individuals that either do not have access to the internet or are technologically challenged. It will also ensure that everyone is accommodated regardless of their status.

The final recommendation is to conduct this research over a long period of time. This is because based on the nature of the class, the data was collected with such speed and it did not allow the researcher to adequately focus on the study, and the time frame did not allow for participants to seek for clarification on the items that were not very clear to them.

REFERENCES

Bellou, V. (2010). Organizational culture as a predictor of job satisfaction: the role of gender and age. *Career Development International, 15*(1), 4-19. doi:10.1108/13620431011020862

Bhal, K. T., Mahfooz, A., & Aafaqi, R. (2007). The role of gender match, LMX tenure, and support in leader-member exchange. *International Journal of Business and Society, 8*(2), 63-80.

Blau, G. (1999, August). Testing the longitudinal impact of work variables and performance appraisal on subsequent overall job satisfaction. *Human Relations, 52*(8), 1099-1113.

Brush, D. H., Moch, M. K., & Pooyan, A. (1987). Individual demographic differences and job satisfaction. *Journal of Occupational Behavior (1986-1998), 8*(2), 139-156.

Cabanda, E., Fields, D., & Winston, B. (2011). *Organizational Leadership PhD: Quantitative Research Methods* [E-Book]. Retrieved from http://create.mcgraw-hill.com

Cohrs, C. J., Abele, A. E., & Dette, D. E. (2006, July). Integrating situational and dispositional determinants of job satisfaction: findings from the three samples of professionals. *Journal of Psychology, 140*(4), 363-396.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches* (3 ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Davis, D. D., & Bryant, J. L. (2009, November 10). Leader-member exchange, trust, and performance in national science foundation industry/university cooperative research centers. *Journal of Technology Transfer*, *35*(5), 511-526. doi:10.1007/s10961-009-9144-0

Donohue, S. M., & Heywood, J. S. (2004). Job satisfaction and gender: an expanded specification from NLSY. *International Journal of Manpower*, *25*(2), 211-234. doi:10.1108/01437720410536007

Fields, D. L. (2002). *Taking the Measure of Work: a guide to validated scale for organizational Research and Diagnosis*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Ghazzawi, I. (2011). Does age matter in job satisfaction? The case of U.S. information technology professionals. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict*, *15*(1), 25-54. Retrieved from http://0-search.proquest.com.library.regent.edu/docview/886532019?accountid=13479

Grean, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: applying a multi-level multi-domain perspectives. *Leadership Quarterly*, *6*(2), 219-247.

Green, S. B., & Salkind, N. J. (2011). *Using SPSS for Windows and Macintosh: analyzing and understanding data* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E. (2010). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Johnson, L. M. (2003). *A study of women in leadership and the next glass ceiling* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ABI/INFORM Complete. (UMI 3112715)

Kavanaugh, J., Duffy, J. A., & Lilly, J. (2006). The relationship between job satisfaction and demographic variables for healthcare professionals. *Management Research News*, *29*(6), 304-325. doi:10.1108/01409170610683842

Kerlinger, F. N., & Lee, H. B. (2000). *Foundations of Behavioral Research* (4 ed.). Belmont, CA: Cengage Learning.

Lange, D. J. (2008). *A correlational analysis of job satisfaction and intent to turnover in a community college organization* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest. (UMI: 3322890)

Liden, R. C., & Maslyn, J. M. (1998). Multidimensionality of leader-member exchange: an empirical assessment through scale development. *Journal of Management*, *24*(1), 43-72.

Lovett, S., Herdebeck, S., Coyle, T., & Solis, J. T. (2006, January). Job satisfaction and organizational tenure in three Mexican assembly plants. *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship*, *11*(1), 36-57. Retrieved from http://0-search.proquest.com.library.regent.edu/docview/203912228?accountid=13479

Pallant, J. (2010). *SPSS survival manual: a step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS* (4th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Shirley, C. (2003). *A study of the effects of leader-member exchange (LMX) on subordinate employment satisfaction and loyalty in the newly "reinvented" federal sector* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (UMI 3105574)

Topjian, D. F. (2009). *Leader roles of Chief Executive Officer-Chief Nurse Officer dyads* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses: ABI/INFORM Complete. (UMI 3393491)

Tsui, A. S., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1989, June). Beyond simple demographic effects: the importance of relational demography in superior-subordinate dyads. *Academy of Management Journal*, *32*(2), 402-423. Retrieved from http://0-www.jstor.org.library.regent.edu/stable/pdfplus/256368.pdf?acceptTC=true

Ward, L. W. (2002). *A survey and description of direct care providers' satisfaction with their supervisor: a look at race, education, gender, and age characteristics of direct care providers* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (UMI 3034784)

Wignall, R. A. (2004). *An investigation of job satisfaction of Florida State Prison industry workers: an examination of Herzberg two-factor theory* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ABI/INFORM Complete. (UMI: 3131080)

Wu, Y. (2009). *A multidimensional analysis of the relationship between leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior with an alternative measure of leader-member exchange* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses: ABI/INFORM Complete. (UMI 3359347)

Yukl, G. (2010). *Leadership in Organizations* (7 ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

APPENDIX A

Leader-member exchange 7 (LMX-7) Survey

Instructions: This questionnaire contains items that ask you to describe your relationship with either your leader or one of your subordinates. For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by cycling one of the responses that appear below item.

1 Do you know where you stand with your leader (follower)…do you usually know how satisfied your leader (follower is with what you do?

Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly often	Very often
1	2	3	4	5

2 How well does your leader (follower) understand your job problems and needs?

Not a bit	A little	A fair amount	Quite a bit	A great deal
1	2	3	4	5

3 How well does your leader (follower) recognize your potential?

Not at all	A little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
1	2	3	4	5

4 Regardless of how much formal authority he or she has built into his or her position, what are the chances that your leader (follower) would use his or her power to help you solve problems in your work?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very high
1	2	3	4	5

5 Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority you leader (follower) has, what are the chances that he or she would "bail you out" at his or her expense?

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very high
1	2	3	4	5

6 I have enough confidence in my leader (follower) that I would defend and justify his or her decision if he or she were not present to do so.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

7 How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader (follower)?

Extremely ineffective	Worse than average	average	Better than average	Extremely effective
1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B

Satisfaction with my supervisor survey

Instructions: This questionnaire contains items that ask you to describe your satisfaction with your supervisor. For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by cycling one of the responses that appear below item.

1 = very dissatisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = neutral, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, 4 = satisfied, 5 = very satisfied

Please, circle the appropriate number to the right indicating your satisfaction with your supervisor

	very dissatisfied	dissatisfied	neutral	satisfied	very satisfied
1. The way my supervisor listen when I have something important to say	1	2	3	4	5
2. The way my supervisor sets clear work goals.	1	2	3	4	5
3. The way my supervisor treats me when I make a mistake.	1	2	3	4	5
4. My supervisor's fairness in appraising my performance.	1	2	3	4	5
5. The way my supervisor is consistent in his/her behavior towards subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5
6. The way my supervisor helps me get the job done.	1	2	3	4	5
7. The way my supervisor gives me credit for my ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
8. The way my supervisor gives me clear instructions.	1	2	3	4	5
9. The way my supervisor informs me about work changes ahead of time.	1	2	3	4	5
10. The way my supervisor follows through to get problems solved.	1	2	3	4	5
11. The way my supervisor understands the problems I might run into doing the job.	1	2	3	4	5
12. The way my supervisor shows concern for my career progress.	1	2	3	4	5
13. my supervisor's backing me up with other management.	1	2	3	4	5
14. The frequency with which I get a pat on the back for doing a good job.	1	2	3	4	5
15. The technical competence of my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5
16. The amount of time I get to learn a task before I'm moved to another task.	1	2	3	4	5
17. The time I have to do the job right.	1	2	3	4	5
18. The way my job responsibilities are clearly defined.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

Overall Job Satisfaction survey

Instructions: This questionnaire contains items that ask you about your satisfaction with your current job. For each of the items, indicate the degree to which you think the item is true for you by putting a check mark or an "x" on the responses that appear below item.

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = undecided, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree

Please, circle the appropriate number to the right indicating your satisfaction with the job	Strongly diasgree	disagree	undecided	agree	strongly agree
1. My job is like a hobby to me	1	2	3	4	5
2. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored	1	2	3	4	5
3. It seem that my friends are more interested in the their jobs	1	2	3	4	5
4. I consider my job rather unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5
5. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I am often bored with my job	1	2	3	4	5
7. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job	1	2	3	4	5
8. Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I am satisfied with my job for the time being.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I definitely dislike my work.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Each day of work seems like it will never end.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I like my job better than the average worker does.	1	2	3	4	5
16. My job is pretty uninteresting.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I find real enjoyment in my work.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I am disappointed that I ever took this job.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D

Demographic characteristics questionnaire.

1) What is your gender?

☐Male ☐Female

2) What is the gender of your leader (subordinate)?

☐Male ☐Female

3) What is the highest level of education you have completed?

☐ 12th grade or less
☐ Graduated high school or equivalent (GED)
☐ Some college, no degree
☐ 2-year college degree
☐ Bachelor's degree
☐ Master's degree
☐ Doctoral degree
☐ Professional degree (JD, MD)

4) Has your supervisor completed more years of education of higher degrees than you?

☐ Yes ☐ No

5) What is your individual annual income range?

☐ Below $20,000 ☐ $20,000 - $29,000
☐ $30,000 - $39,000 ☐ $40,000 - $49,000
☐ $50,000 - $59,000 ☐ $60,000 - $69,000
☐ $70,000 - $79,000 ☐ $80,000 - $89,000
☐ $90,000 - $99,000 ☐ $100,000 or more

6) How old are you?

☐ Under 18 ☐ 18-24
☐ 25-34 ☐ 35-44
☐ 45-54 ☐ 55-64
☐ 65 or older

7) Number of years you have been on your current job

☐ Less than 1 year ☐ 1-2 years
☐ 3-5 years ☐ 6-10 years
☐ 11-15 years ☐ 16-20 years
☐ 20-24 years ☐ More than 25 years

8) You have been at your job longer than your current supervisor?

☐ Yes ☐ No

APPENDIX E

Introduction, procedure of the survey detailing number of questions, confidential information, voluntary participation, benefits of participation, and contact information for the researcher for questions or inquiries about the research.

Introduction:
This study aims at collecting data regarding the demographic differences between a leader and followers, and how their relationships affect job satisfaction.

Procedure:
The questionnaire consists of approximately 51 questions and should take no more than 15 minutes to complete. Questions are designed to determine your level of satisfaction with your supervisor on one hand, and your level of job satisfaction on the other.

Benefits
There are no direct benefits for participation. However, it is hoped that though your participation, the researcher will learn more about the real life situation involving job satisfaction and employees level of satisfaction with their leaders. This is part of the PhD study that the researcher is engaged in.

Confidentiality
All data obtained from participants will be kept confidential. All questions and responses will only be used for research purposes by the primary researcher, and will not be shared with anyone else.

Participation
Your participation in this research study is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any time or refuse to participate at any time throughout the survey.

Questions about the research and your rights
Should you have questions or concerns about the research, you may contact Teddie Malangwasira via email address teddmal@regent.edu

I have read and understood the above consent form. I am participating in this study under my own free will.*
☐ Yes   ☐ No

* The use of an asterisk denotes that this part must be acknowledged before proceeding to the next section

UNDERSTANDING THE IMPACT OF EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT ON ORGANIZATIONAL PRODUCTIVITY: THE MODERATING ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Simone T. A. Phipps, Macon State College
Leon C. Prieto, Clayton State University
Erastus N. Ndinguri, Louisiana State University

ABSTRACT

Organizational culture plays an important role in the growth and development of an organization, and can substantially impact organizational performance. There are many elements that can reflect the "soul" of an organization's culture, and one such element is the extent to which employees are granted the opportunity to participate in the direction of their organization. This paper will explore this element by investigating the relationship between employee involvement (EI) and organizational productivity (OP), the latter being a form of organizational performance. The possible moderating effect of organizational commitment (OC) will also be considered. The four employee involvement elements (power, information, knowledge/skills, and rewards) will be examined, and propositions will be provided concerning the influence of these elements on organizational productivity, and the interaction between these elements and organizational commitment that affects organizational productivity. A conceptual model, implications, and suggestions for future inquiry will also be presented.

KEYWORDS: employee involvement, organizational commitment, productivity

INTRODUCTION

Organizational development (OD) and change are critical if organizations are to be successful and remain competitive in this era of unremitting advancement and progress. According to Beer and Walton (1987), increasing international competition, deregulation, the decline of manufacturing, the changing values of workers, and the growth of information technology have changed the concepts and approaches managers must use. By definition, OD comprises a set of actions or interventions undertaken to improve organizational effectiveness and employee well-being (Beer & Walton, 1987). Friedlander and Brown (1974) described it as a planned change effort where the intervention is at the individual, process, technological, and/or structural level. Therefore, organizational development and change are intertwined concepts that can involve numerous facets or components of the organizational system, and that have the potential to result in positive outcomes for the organization.

Successfully implementing change inevitably requires encouraging individuals to enact new behaviors so that desired changes are achieved (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999). The authors' review mentioned behaviors, processes, practices, and attitudes that enable positive change to occur, including active participation by affected parties (e.g., vicarious learning, enactive mastery, and participative decision making), human resource management practices (e.g., selection, performance appraisal, compensation, and training and development programs), management of information (i.e. internal and external), and commitment (e.g., compliance commitment, identification commitment, and internalization commitment). These behaviors, processes, practices, and attitudes are reflective of the culture that the organization espouses.

In these current dynamic times that require organizational development and change, culture plays a pivotal role in determining how well organizations perform. For example, change efforts elicit improvements in performance criteria such as quality, service, productivity, profitability, efficiency, effectiveness, and risk-taking (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999; Porras & Silvers, 1991). Burke and Litwin (1992) asserted that when management establishes a working climate of participation, coupled with pay for performance, positive results occur. Evidence to support this claim is provided through an earlier study by Rosenberg and Rosenstein (1980) as their results revealed that increased participative activity was associated with an increase in productivity. A literature review by Katzell and Guzzo (1983) revealed that OD interventions, including training and instruction activities, financial compensation, and decision-making techniques, frequently influence productivity improvement. These interventions are reflective of an organization that strives to cultivate and sustain a culture that values employee participation and involvement.

One of the major indicators of operational fruition is organizational productivity. In fact, productivity is a standard measure often used to assess organizational performance (Newlin, 2009). However, productivity can be delineated in many ways. It has been defined in terms of output, sales, profitability, work quality, and processes completed on schedule (Culnan & Bair, 1983; Pritchard, 1990). Another major organizational productivity indicator is absenteeism (Kyoung-Ok, Wilson, & Myung Sun, 2004). How productivity is measured varies based on what is important to the organization (Newlin, 2009). Therefore, in this paper, productivity is generally defined as increased value over time. This definition enables the inclusion of all the aforementioned indicators, which embrace both effectiveness and efficiency.

Organizational productivity is crucial as it is directly tied to an organization's formula for success (Schneider, 1995). Therefore, it is important to determine what factors influence productivity as organizational development occurs and interventions are introduced and implemented.

A culture of increased employee involvement (EI) has been acknowledged as one means of augmenting organizational productivity. Wolf and Zwick (2008) found that employee involvement raised establishment productivity. Jones, Kalmi, and Kauhanen (2010) also found that participation had a strong positive effect on value added, with an establishment that improved its score on participation from the first to the third quartile, seeing its "value added" increase by five percent. Results also revealed that information sharing had a positive and statistically significant effect on value added.

Another cultural factor that has been associated with organizational productivity is organizational commitment. There has been an explosion of interest in the concept of high performance-high commitment (HP-HC) work systems, of which an underlying premise is that superior technology, efficient task design, congruent structure and processes, and good planning are necessary but not sufficient for high performance, productivity, or quality (Woodman, 1989). The author asserted that individuals and work groups must be committed to make the technology, task design, structure, and strategy work. A review by Passmore and Fagans (1992), although mentioning participative management as having positive effects on productivity, also referred to commitment as a contextual factor that determines the effectiveness of participation in organizations.

The literature suggests that both employee involvement and organizational commitment should play a role in organizational productivity. Therefore, the primary purpose of this manuscript is to explore the possible influence of employee involvement on organizational productivity, as well as to investigate the moderating effect of organizational commitment on the involvement-productivity relationship.

This review is significant in that it serves as a preliminary stride to provide a theoretical basis and conceptual framework from which an actual study can be designed. Results obtained from the study can be used as organizations strive to promote development and implement cultural changes that would increase their productivity. If findings show that employee involvement does indeed influence organizational productivity, EI practices should be used within HR systems, with a focus on the EI elements that are shown to impact productivity most, and organizations, as a cohesive unit, should endeavor to promote a culture that inspires participation and involvement. Also, if organizational commitment is found to be a moderator, steps should be taken to motivate employees to be committed to their organizations and to create a culture that embraces and encourages commitment.

DOMAIN AND BOUNDARIES

Employee involvement has long been seen as an important aspect of organizational life, and a key to achieving increased organizational effectiveness (Shadur, Kienzle, & Rodwell, 1999). The authors mentioned numerous varying definitions and conceptualizations of the construct and proposed that three factors (i.e., communication, teamwork, and participation in decision-making) accounted for the majority of processes and programs used in the field of involvement. Boxall and Macky (2009) stated that a high-involvement goal implied making better use of employee capacities for self-management, personal development, and problem solving. Employee involvement, then, is a broad term, which covers an extremely broad range of concepts (Collins, 1994). Therefore, it is important to delineate the boundaries of this manuscript.

Primary focus is placed on employee involvement as described by Lawler (1986), and the concept is discussed within the confines of human resource (HR) practices that constitute a high-performance work system (HPWS). This decision was made because HR practices do provide ample insight about what matters to organizations and what culture they support. HPWS consists of work practices that lead in some way to superior organizational performance (Boxall &

Macky, 2009). The authors further described work practices as being affiliated with the way the work itself is organized, including its normal structure and any associated opportunities to engage in problem-solving and change management regarding work processes. They also discussed the link between involvement and commitment as firms that invested in high-involvement work practices and processes had better economic performance, including higher productivity, in conditions of low labor turnover. Thus, these work practices that encourage employee involvement can potentially interact with organizational commitment, as well as impact organizational productivity, which, as aforementioned, is a performance indicator.

EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT

Glew, O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, and Fleet (1995) defined employee participation (i.e., involvement) as a conscious and intended effort by individuals at a higher level in an organization to provide visible extra-role or role-expanding opportunities for individuals or groups at a lower level in the organization to have a greater voice in one or more areas of organizational performance. EI includes four elements, namely power (i.e., providing people with enough authority to make work-related decisions), information (i.e., timely access to relevant information), knowledge and skills (i.e., providing training and development programs), and rewards (i.e., providing intrinsic or extrinsic incentives for involvement) (Cummings & Worley, 2008; Lawler, 1986).

Interestingly, keeping in mind that quality is an indicator of productivity, Geralis and Terziovski (2003) found that workforce empowerment practices that promoted employee autonomy substantially improved service quality in banks. Schiemann (1987) discussed how rewards determined by compensation and benefit policies could have a sizable impact on a number of productivity indicators. A meta-analysis by Guzzo, Jette, and Katzell (1985) found that training and goal-setting, which encompass knowledge and skills, and information respectively, were the intervention programs with the most powerful effects on productivity. In general, results of their meta-analysis revealed that participative management had quite positive effects on output (Sashkin & Burke, 1987).

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Cole and Bruch (2006) defined organizational commitment as an individual's emotional attachment to and involvement in an employing organization. Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) explained that commitment is characterized by three factors, namely (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (2) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (3) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership. Therefore, an employee's commitment to an organization embraces his/her bond with and responsibility to the organization, which pushes him/her to want to contribute to the organization and its mission.

There are three components of commitment, namely affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Allen, 1991). According to the authors, affective commitment refers to the emotional attachment that an

employee has with his/her organization and its goals such that he/she identifies with, is involved in, and enjoys membership of the organization. Continuance commitment reflects a readiness to remain with the organization as a result of consideration of the costs associated with discontinuing the relationship. Finally, normative commitment incorporates a sense of obligation to the organization as the employee perceives that it is his/her duty to remain loyal to the organization.

Angle and Perry (1981) hypothesized that organizations whose members were strongly committed would have both high participation and high production. They also expected such organizations to show high levels of operating efficiency. Thus, it is logical to assert that an organization that fosters a climate that encourages commitment would also profit from efficiency benefits. Furthermore, since a climate for efficiency affects productivity (Van De Voorde, Van Veldhoven, & Paauwe, 2009), it is reasonable to state that commitment would indeed impact productivity.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

Reciprocal obligations are the cornerstone of social exchange theory, which advocates that parties in a jointly dependent relationship give and take in a fashion that maximizes their benefits. Blau (1964) suggested that social exchanges may be prompted by an organization's treatment of its employees, anticipating that actions by the organization would be reciprocated accordingly. When organizations send a signal that they value employees' contributions and are willing to seek their interests, employees respond with positive work attitudes and behaviors (Aryee, Budhwar, & Chen, 2002; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-Lamastro, 1990).

A culture that promotes employee involvement recognizes and embraces the development of employees, the facilitation of their informed decision-making, the sharing of power between management and the workforce, and the latter's receipt of incentives for input. Therefore, human resource practices that encourage employee involvement can be viewed as evidence of good treatment and an indication that the organization does indeed value its employees and their contributions. Thus, according to the premise of social exchange theory, employees should react in a favorable manner towards the organization. For instance, Gould-Williams (2007) mentioned that employees that feel valued would be more willing to exert extra effort and less likely to withdraw membership from the organization. These potential responses certainly have implications for both organizational commitment and organizational productivity. The exertion of extra effort by an employee can be a sign of his/her commitment to the organization and can have a positive impact on productivity in terms of output, efficiency, quality, and other indicators. Likewise, the decision to remain with an organization alludes to an employee's commitment to that organization.

Social identity theory (SIT) is also helpful in exploring the relationships proposed in this manuscript. Ashforth and Mael (1989) explained that SIT incorporates a self-concept that is comprised of a personal identity and a social identity, with the latter enabling the individual to locate or define himself/herself in his/her social environment. Thus, the individual feels a sense of oneness with or belonging to that environment, and thus the group (or organization) with which he/she is affiliated.

Riketta (2005) found that involvement and organizational identification were related constructs. Participation frequently entails psychological changes in individuals' concept of themselves and others, and many contemporary approaches to management presume that people working together will come to identify with each other and their larger organization (Rousseau, 1998). Research also found that organizational identification was related to turnover intentions (Van Dick et al., 2004), which were indeed influenced by commitment (Joo, 2010). Moreover, commitment has been shown to have an effect on performance in general (Baugh & Roberts, 1994) and productivity in particular (Jacobs, Tytherleigh, Webb, & Cooper, 2007). Therefore, human resource practices that encourage employee involvement should foster a sense of identity with the organization, which encourages employees to be committed to the organization, and to behave in a manner that would be conducive to gains in productivity.

PROPOSITION DEVELOPMENT

High involvement, collaboration, and participation are crucial components to managing human systems (Woodman, 1989). Commitment is also viewed as an important contributor that serves to enhance the success of sound HR practices toward the achievement of desired organizational outcomes. In fact, the concept of high performance-high commitment (HP-HC) work systems is often used interchangeably with labels such as high-involvement plants and productive workplaces (Woodman, 1989), alluding that there is indeed a link between involvement, commitment, and productivity. Considering the established connections and similarities, this paper proposes relationships among employee involvement, organizational commitment, and organizational productivity.

Power

In an autonomy supportive environment, significant others encourage choice and participation in decision-making instead of control (Deci, Eghrari, Patrick, & Leone, 1994). Autonomy support can have an impact on individuals' attitudes and behavior by fulfilling their psychological need for competence, which encompasses their desire to produce outcomes and to understand the circumstances leading to these outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Therefore, an organization that promotes employee involvement, whereby workers have the authority and autonomy to play an active role in work-related decision-making, should benefit from increased organizational productivity due to the paradigm shift employees incur by having the opportunity to give their input. This paradigm shift should be reflected in their behavior as they would consequently be more motivated to perform at a high standard to achieve goals that they had a part in setting.

An interaction between power and commitment is also quite reasonable to expect, as the success of human resource practices and policies that promote employee authority and autonomy would be aided by committed employees who use these opportunities wisely. Woodman (1989) asserted that congruent processes are necessary but not sufficient for high performance, productivity, or quality, and that individuals and work groups must be committed to make strategy work. One of the defining characteristics of the HP-HC system is empowerment, which

embraces the provision of opportunities to employees as well as valuing their contributions (Sherwood, 1988). Everyone is expected to accept and exercise the responsibility necessary to get their jobs done and to help others accomplish tasks. Therefore, employees are not confined or limited to their "appropriate lane," and thus, they are more likely to be committed to the organization. The following propositions reflect the associations put forward among power, organizational commitment, and organizational productivity:

> *Proposition 1A:*   *Power is positively related to organizational productivity.*

> *Proposition 1B:*   *Organizational commitment moderates the relationship between power and organizational productivity, such that the relationship is stronger when employees are more committed to the organization than when they are less committed to the organization.*

Information

Timely access to relevant information allows employees to be effective and efficient self managers as they would have to depend less on management to perform their duties, which also saves time. O'Toole and Lawler (2006) mentioned information technology (IT) as one way to disseminate information resourcefully, and explained that quick access to needed information to manage one's own processes limits the need for supervision, giving employees more control over their tasks, which, in turn, increases the degree to which their jobs are motivating and satisfying, and their efforts are productive. Thus, timely access to information should influence productivity.

It is also reasonable to expect an interaction between information access and commitment as a more committed employee should be more motivated to use the information to which he/she has access, in order to be more productive. Another defining characteristic of the HP-HC system is delegation, which entails giving responsibility for decisions and actions to the individuals who have the most relevant and timely information (Sherwood, 1988). One would expect that the committed employees would take this responsibility seriously, and use the information at his/her disposal to maximize desirable outcomes, including productivity. The following propositions relay the relationships suggested among information, organizational commitment, and organizational productivity:

> *Proposition 2A:*   *Information is positively related to organizational productivity.*

> *Proposition 2B:*   *Organizational commitment moderates the relationship between information and organizational productivity, such that the relationship is stronger when employees are more committed to the organization than when they are less committed to the organization.*

Knowledge/Skills

A better educated and better trained workforce can be expected to produce more efficiently (Prais, 1995). A pertinent example was a manufacturer of Fender guitars that was

struggling to achieve acceptable quality at a reasonable cost (Moore, Blake, Phillips, & McConaughy, 2003). The authors explained that a training program focusing on state-of-the-art manufacturing processes was implemented in an effort to improve productivity (including quality). The result was two racks a week of rejected guitars, compared with twelve racks every two days before training. Thus, unacceptable output that needed to be reworked or scrapped was dramatically reduced. Aw, Roberts, and Winston (2007) also found that exporters who invested in research and development and worker training had significantly higher future productivity than firms that only exported. Their findings supported a development process whereby firms positively impacted their productivity path by making investments that increased their knowledge base, and in turn, higher productivity increased the return to these investments which resulted in additional investments that further expanded the knowledge base. Therefore, human resource practices that embrace the pursuit of developmental activities can play a vital role in achieving organizational outcomes such as increased productivity.

However, an employee may possess the necessary knowledge and skills to be more productive and to help drive organizational productivity, but lack the commitment to use his/her skills to make a difference. Noe (1986) asserted that if training is to be connected to the individual's and organization's performance, employees must be motivated. Commitment is a motivational phenomenon (Johnson, Chang, & Yang, 2010). The authors explained that different motivations underlie each form of commitment. They also proposed that self-identity, a motivation-based variable, helped clarify differences among different types of commitment. Identification embraces a need for affiliation, and this need may motivate employees to commit more to the organization and align their behaviors (i.e., use their knowledge and skills) to benefit the organization.

Delegation, one of the aforementioned HP-HC system characteristics, also embraces the idea that individuals with the most appropriate knowledge and skills should be granted responsibility for decisions and actions (Sherwood, 1988). Proper application of delegation should also develop employees' knowledge and skills, as well as their self-confidence and commitment (Vinton, 1987). Vinton (1987) explained that commitment may be developed and maintained through delegation by conveying a feeling of personal importance by being considered productive and valuable to the organization, and by creating an experience in a cohesive group with positive feelings toward the organization. Both help employees to identify with the organization, and to have more of a desire to reciprocate by using their knowledge and skills to help the organization achieve its performance goals. Therefore, the attainment of relevant knowledge and skills may interact with employee commitment to influence organizational productivity. The following propositions convey the links proffered among knowledge/skills, organizational commitment, and organizational productivity:

Proposition 3A: *Knowledge/skills is positively related to organizational productivity.*

Proposition 3B: *Organizational commitment moderates the relationship between knowledge/skills and organizational productivity, such that the relationship is stronger when employees are more committed to the organization than when they are less committed to the organization.*

Rewards

Research has consistently linked rewards to productivity. For instance, Blinder (1990) described how incentives like profit sharing and employee stock ownership plans may enhance motivation and increase productivity. However, for a strong reward system, the incentives themselves must be desirable to organizational members, and a clear connection is required between productivity and obtaining the incentive (Pritchard, 1990). Therefore, the reward for involvement must be sufficiently attractive to the employee to motivate him/her to reciprocate with behaviors conducive to productivity gains. Also, the necessary criteria for earning these incentives must be explicit and unambiguous, and understood by all.

Although there is inconsistency as regards which HR practices should be classified as "high-commitment," employee involvement schemes and performance contingent reward packages are prominently featured (Gould-Williams, 2007). Bonus and financial incentive programs have become very popular tools to motivate employees (Schiemann, 1987). The author explained that rewards can increase employee commitment and reduce turnover, thus increasing overall productivity and improving the bottom line. Pritchard, Jones, Roth, Stuebing, and Ekeberg (1988) asserted that the mechanism by which productivity increases is primarily a motivational one as increased motivation means that personnel would exert more effort and be more persistent in their efforts. Efficiency would increase because efforts would be more directly related to organizational objectives and there would be more effective cooperation to meet objectives. Rewards may serve as this mechanism. Thus, an interaction between rewards and commitment to influence productivity is quite possible. The following propositions reflect the associations put forward among rewards, organizational commitment, and organizational productivity:

> *Proposition 4A:* *Rewards is positively related to organizational productivity.*

> *Proposition 4B:* *Organizational commitment moderates the relationship between rewards and organizational productivity, such that the relationship is stronger when employees are more committed to the organization than when they are less committed to the organization.*

Figure 1 depicts the proposed relationships among the constructs being explored. It is a conceptual model that illustrates the influence of employee involvement, including the elements of power, information, knowledge/skills, and rewards, on organizational productivity. The moderating effect of organizational commitment on the involvement-productivity relationship is also conveyed.

Figure 1: Conceptual Model
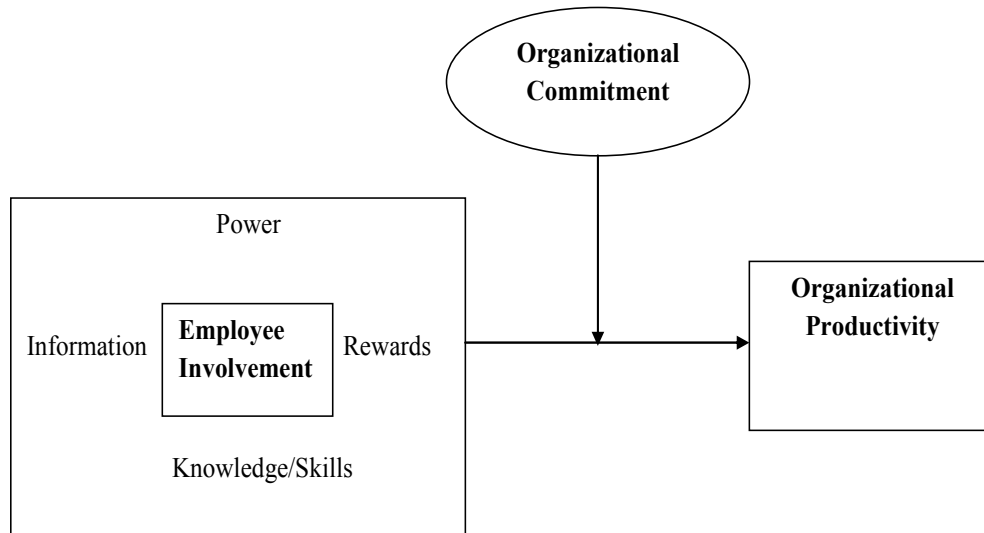
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Evidence suggests that expedient performance outcomes are the result of an organization's culture of participation and involvement, and its inclination to use HR practices that mirror this culture, and indicate that the organization values employees and their input. For example, Arthur (1994) found that practices that emphasized the development of employee commitment resulted in higher productivity than practices that were more control oriented. The author also asserted that these "commitment" human resource systems were characterized by higher levels of employee involvement in managerial decisions, formal participation programs, and training in group problem solving, as well as higher percentages of average wage rates.

Commitment can be an exchange commodity; people are likely to become committed to an organization when they feel that the organization is committed to them (Fuller, Barnett, Hester, & Relyea, 2003). Martin, Parsons, and Bennett (1995) found that employees who were members of employee involvement programs reported higher levels of organizational commitment than non-members, even after being discharged or laid off. This kind of strong commitment can certainly be an asset to an organization. If channeled in the right direction, it can greatly influence productivity as well as other organizational outcomes. According to the research, both involvement and commitment seem to go hand in hand, and main effects as well as interaction effects between them can be expected to influence productivity.

IMPLICATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE INQUIRY

Employee involvement and organizational commitment are cultural constructs that both have implications for human resource management practices, which do impact performance in general, and productivity in particular. Research has shown that providing employees with opportunities to participate in work-related decision-making, to access relevant information, to gain appropriate skills, and to earn suitable incentives enhances productivity. Research has also shown that employees' commitment to their organization can induce behaviors that positively influence organizational productivity. Therefore, while also taking other organizational factors such as strategic goals and other cultural elements into account (e.g., people orientation, aggressiveness/competitiveness etc.), human resource management practices that promote employee involvement and foster organizational commitment should be embraced in an attempt to boost organizational productivity.

Since HR practices are often reflective of organizational culture, implications for HRM should be addressed. Empirical research on the productivity impact of HRM has been relatively sparse (Jones, Kalmi, & Kauhanen, 2010). Therefore, much can be gained from the investigation of EI dimensions (i.e. power, information, knowledge/skills, and rewards) separately and in an HRM context. For instance, research should be conducted to determine which HR practices associated with each dimension are most effective as regards increasing productivity. Also, researchers should consider that employee involvement dimensions, and EI on the whole, may be differentially related to various productivity outcomes (e.g., output, sales, and quality). Likewise, different components of commitment (i.e. affective, continuance, and normative) may relate more or less strongly to different productivity outcomes. Further inquiry into these notions would be useful.

Future research should also address additional moderators that can potentially impact the involvement-productivity relationship, especially personality constructs, which tend to influence both employee involvement and organizational productivity. For instance, Organ and Lingl (1995) asserted that employees high in conscientiousness have a greater inclination to be involved in the workplace and to perform better than the employees that are low in conscientiousness. Other trait, as well as state factors, should be investigated to shed more light on the moderating variables involved in the relationship.

Examination of the literature has revealed concerns about negative issues like stress, which affect employees, and by extension, their satisfaction, motivation, commitment, and productivity. This, in turn, affects the productivity of the organization as a whole. Thus, additional research should also explore the role of a "healthy" workplace as it relates to the model presented in this article. Grawitch, Gottschalk, and Munz (2006) identified employee involvement as one of five healthy workplace practices that influence employee well-being (including commitment) as well as numerous organizational improvements (including productivity). Some more attention should be focused on novel and innovative organizational practices that are conducive to employee well-being, as they can be instrumental in achieving desirable organizational outcomes.

REFERENCES

Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63*(1)*,* 1-18.

Angle, H. L., & Perry, J. L. (1981). An empirical assessment of organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 26*(1), 1-14.

Armenakis, A. A., & Bedeian, A. G. (1999). Organizational change: A review of theory and research in the 1990s.*Journal of Management, 25*(3), 293-315.

Arthur, J. B. (1994). Effects of human resource systems on manufacturing performance and turnover. *Academyof Management Journal, 37*(3), 670-687.

Aryee, S., Budhwar, P. S., & Chen, Z. X. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(3), 267-285.

Ashforth, B., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, *14*(1), 20-39.

Aw, B., Roberts, M., & Winston, T. (2007). Export market participation, investments in R&D and worker training, and the evolution of firm productivity. *World Economy*, *30*(1), 83-104.

Baugh, S., & Roberts, R. (1994). Professional and organizational commitment among engineers: Conflicting or complementing? *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, *41*(2), 108-114.

Beer, M., & Walton, A. E. (1987). Organization change and development. *Annual Review of Psychology, 38*, 339-367.

Blau, P. M. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life.* New York: JohnWiley & Sons, Inc.

Blinder, A. S. (1990). *Paying for productivity: A look at the evidence.* Washington, DC: The Brookings Institution Press.

Boxall, P., & Macky, K. (2009). Research and theory on high-performance work systems: Progressing the high-involvement stream. *Human Resource Management Journal, 19*(1), 3-23.

Burke, W., & Litwin, G. (1992). A causal model of organizational performance and change. *Journal of Management*, *18*(3), 523-545.

Cole, M., & Bruch, H. (2006). Organizational identity strength, identification, and commitment and their relationships to turnover intention: Does organizational hierarchy matter? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *27*(5), 585-605.

Collins, D. (1994). The disempowering logic of empowerment. *Empowerment in Organizations, 2*(2), 14-21.

Culnan, M., & Bair, J. (1983). Human communication needs and organizational productivity: The potential impact of office automation. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, *34*(3), 215-221.

Cummings, T. G., & Worley, C. (2008). *Organization development and change.* Cincinnati, OH:Southwestern Publishing Co.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.

Deci, E. L., Eghrari, H., Patrick, B. C., & Leone, D. (1994). Facilitating internalization: The self-determination theory perspective. *Journal of Personality*, *62*(1), 119–142.

Eisenberger, R., Fasolo, P., & Davis-Lamastro, V. (1990). Perceived organizational support and employee diligence, commitment, and innovation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(1), 51-59.

Friedlander, F., & Brown, L. D. (1974). Organization development. *Annual Review of Psychology, 25,* 313-341.

Fuller, J., Barnett, T., Hester, K., & Relyea, C. (2003). A social identity perspective on the relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational commitment. *Journal of Social Psychology*, *143*(6), 789-791.

Geralis, M., & Terziovski, M. (2003). A quantitative analysis of the relationship between empowerment practices and service quality outcomes. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, *14*(1), 45-62.

Glew, D., O'Leary-Kelly, A., Griffin, R., & Van Fleet, D. (1995). Participation in Organizations: A Preview of the Issues and Proposed Framework for Future Analysis. *Journal of Management*, *21*(3), 395-421.

Gould-Williams, J. (2007). HR practices, organizational climate and employee outcomes: Evaluating social exchange relationships in local government. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *18*(9), 1627-1647.

Grawitch, M., Gottschalk, M., & Munz, D. (2006). The path to a healthy workplace: A critical review linking healthy workplace practices, employee well-being, and organizational improvements. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *58*(3), 129-147.

Guzzo, R. A., Jette, R. D., & Katzell, R. A. (1985). The effects of psychologically based intervention programs on worker productivity: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, *38*(2), 275-291.

Jacobs, P., Tytherleigh, M., Webb, C., & Cooper, C. (2007). Predictors of work performance among higher education employees: An examination using the ASSET Model of Stress. *International Journal of Stress Management*, *14*(2), 199-210.

Johnson, R., Chang, C., & Yang, L. (2010). Commitment and motivation at work: The relevance of employee identity and regulatory focus. *Academy of Management Review*, *35*(2), 226-245.

Jones, D., Kalmi, P., & Kauhanen, A. (2010). How does employee involvement stack up? The effects of human resource management policies on performance in a retail firm. *Industrial Relations*, *49*(1), 1-21.

Joo, B. (2010). Organizational commitment for knowledge workers: The roles of perceived organizational learning culture, leader–member exchange quality, and turnover intention. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *21*(1), 69-85.

Katzell, R. A., & Guzzo, R. A. (1983). Psychological approaches to productivity improvement. *American Psychologist*, *38*(4), 468-472.

Kyoung-Ok, P., Wilson, M., & Myung Sun, L. (2004). Effects of social support at work on depression and organizational productivity. *American Journal of Health Behavior*, *28*(5), 444-455.

Lawler, E. E., III. (1986). *High-involvement management.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Martin, C., Parsons, C., & Bennett, N. (1995). The influence of employee involvement program membership during downsizing: Attitudes toward the employer and the union. *Journal of Management*, *21*(5), 879-890.

Meyer, J., & Allen, N. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, *1*(1), 61-89.

Moore, R. W., Blake, D. R., Phillips, G. M., & McConaughy, D. (2003). *Training that works: Lessons from California's employment training panel program.* Kalamazoo, MI: W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research.

Newlin, J. S. (2009). Effect of enterprise resource planning implementation on organizational productivity. *Air Force Journal of Logistics, 33*(2), 34-38.

Noe, R. A. (1986), Trainees attributes and attitudes: Neglected influences on training effectiveness, *Academy of Management Review*, *11*(4), 736–749.

Organ, D., & Lingl, A. (1995). Personality, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Social Psychology*, *135*(3), 339-350.

O'Toole, J., & Lawler, E. E., III. (2006). *The new American workplace.* New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Passmore, W. A., & Fagans, M. R. (1992). Participation, individual development, and organizational change: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Management, 18*(2), 375-397.

Porras, J. I., & Silvers, R. C. (1991). Organization development and transformation. *Annual Review of Psychology, 42,* 51-78.

Porter, L., Steers, R., Mowday, R., & Boulian, P. (1974). Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicians. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *59*(5), 603-609.

Prais, S. J. (1995). *Productivity, education, and training: An international perspective.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Pritchard, R. D. (1990). *Measuring and improving organizational productivity: A practical guide.* New York: Praeger Publishers.

Pritchard, R., Jones, S., Roth, P., Stuebing, K., & Ekeberg, S. (1988). Effects of group feedback, goal setting, and incentives on organizational productivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *73*(2), 337-358.

Riketta, M. (2005). Organizational identification: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *66*(2), 358-384.

Rosenberg, R. D., & Rosenstein, E. (1980). Participation and productivity: An empirical study. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 33*(3), 355-367.

Rousseau, D. (1998). Why workers still identify with organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *19*(3), 217-233.

Sashkin, M., & Burke, W. W. (1987). Organization development in the 1980's. *Journal of Management*, *13*(2), 393-417.

Schiemann, W. (1987). The impact of corporate compensation and benefit policy on employee attitudes and behavior and corporate profitability. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, *2*(1), 8-26.

Schneider, W. (1995). Productivity improvement through cultural focus. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, *47*(1), 3-27.

Shadur, M. A., Kienzle, R., & Rodwell, J. J. (1999). The relationship between organizational climate and employee perceptions of involvement: The importance of support. *Group and Organization Management, 24*(4), 479-503.

Sherwood, J. J. (1988). Creating work cultures with competitive advantage. *Organizational Dynamics, 16*(3), 5-27.

Van De Voorde, K., Van Veldhoven, M., & Paauwe, J. (2009). Strategic climate and organizational productivity: The role of work satisfaction. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 1-6.

Van Dick, R., Christ, O., Stellmacher, J., Wagner, U., Ahlswede, O., Grubba, C., Hauptmeier, M., Hohfeld, C., Moltzen, K., & Tissington, P. (2004). Should I stay or should I go? Explaining turnover intentions with organizational identification and job satisfaction. *British Journal of Management*, *15*(4), 351-360.

Vinton, D. (1987). Delegation for employee development. *Training & Development Journal*, *41*(1), 65-67.

Wolf, E., & Zwick, T. (2008). Reassessing the productivity impact of employee involvement and financial incentives. *Schmalenbach Business Review (SBR)*, *60*(2), 160-181.

Woodman, R. W. (1989). Organizational change and development: New arenas for inquiry and action. *Journal of Management, 15*(2), 205-228.

THE NEW WORK CONTRACT: MITIGATING THE NEGATIVE EFFECTS ON WORK ATTITUDES

Wendy J. Walker, University of North Georgia

ABSTRACT

Psychological contracts in today's workforce continue to evolve from those that are more relational to those that are more transactional. However, highly transactional contracts tend to be negatively related to workplace attitudinal outcomes. Given both the increasing pervasiveness and the potential negative effects of transactional contracts, it is important to understand how to reduce their negative effects on work attitudes. Career motivation and person-organization fit were proposed to moderate these relationships. Data from 302 survey respondents working full-time in a variety of job types show that person-organization fit indeed significantly limits the negative effects on work attitudes.

Keywords: Psychological contract; person-organization fit; job satisfaction; organizational commitment

INTRODUCTION

A psychological contract is defined as "individual beliefs, shaped by the organization, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between individuals and their organization" (Rousseau, 1995, p. 9). These contracts are based on the premise that individuals perceive obligations to and promises from the organizations by which they are employed, just as those organizations recognize the implied promises from and their implied obligations to employees. Terms of the contract may concern a variety of work-related issues such as compensation, benefits, working conditions, and interpersonal relations (Schein, 1972).

There are many different conceptualizations of psychological contract type. Teague, Aiken & Watson (2012) proposed direct and indirect contract types, in which the direct contract involves the employee and employer, and the indirect contract involves the employee's perception of the employer's relationship with consumers. Jackson, Elenkov, Wright & Davis (2012) include relational and transactional contracts, as well as a third type: principled, which concerns ideological terms. Other authors have adhered to the more common model including only transactional and relational contracts (Aggarwal & Bhargava, 2010; Isaksson, De Cuyper, Bernhard Oettel & De Witte, 2010; Jensen, Opland & Ryan, 2010).

Transactional contracts are primarily economic, relatively short-term in nature, and concern substantive issues such as pay, benefits, and working hours. Relational contracts on the

other hand, also contain noneconomic terms, tend to be open-ended in time period, and concern more intangible issues, such as interpersonal treatment, job security, and professional development (Robinson, Kraatz & Rousseau, 1994; Rousseau, 1990). Scholars posit that the American, and increasingly the international, workforce is shifting from primarily relational contracts to primarily transactional contracts (Rousseau & Ho, 2000; Westerman & Sundali, 2005). Changes in technology and the economy, as well as increased foreign competition and globalization over the past few decades, have increased uncertainties and cost pressures, which have produced shifts in the assumptions about the relationship between employees and organizations.

Most of the psychological contract literature focuses on the outcomes of breach, the perception that one of the parties has not fulfilled its obligations under the contract. Specifically, this research generally addresses the individual and organizational outcomes that result when individuals perceive that their employers have failed to fulfill the psychological contract. A subset of this literature considers moderating variables that are proposed to affect the outcomes of breach. The moderating variables explored in recent studies include age (Bal, De Lange, Jansen, & van der Velde, 2008), career orientation (Gerber, Grote, Geiser & Raeder, 2012), perceived organizational support, and organizational tenure (Conway & Coyle-Shapiro, 2012). Research shows that the transactional contract is generally a negative predictor of work attitudes (Millward & Hopkins, 1998; Raja, Johns & Ntalianis, 2004; Rousseau, 1990). A logical follow-up question to these findings is "What factors can reduce the negative effects of the transactional contract?" Having an understanding of these factors, if any exist, may help those organizations that are following more of a transactional contract model to maintain a satisfied and productive workforce. However, there does not appear to be any research examining moderators of the relationship between psychological contract type, rather than breach, and attitudinal outcomes. This paper will begin to fill that gap with an exploration of variables that limit the negative effects of transactional contracts on organizational outcomes.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Relational and Transactional Contracts

Two main types of psychological contracts have been identified in the literature: transactional and relational. Highly transactional contracts concern primarily objective terms of the employment relationship, such as the compensation owed to the employee and the amount of time owed to the employer (Robinson et al., 1994; Rousseau, 1990). These terms often are explicitly discussed in the early stages of the employment relationship. Relational contracts, on the other hand, concern more of the softer side of the employer – employee relationship. They tend to include more subjective terms such as interpersonal and developmental inducements in return for employees' loyalty and commitment. Transactional and relational contracts are not

mutually exclusive (Conway & Briner, 2005), but they do tend to be negatively correlated (Millward & Hopkins, 1998; Raja et al., 2004). The more that individuals perceive their psychological contracts to be relational in nature, the less they perceive them to be transactional.

Millward and Hopkins' (1998) study of workers in the United Kingdom showed that the pattern of work obligations that employees provided did indeed support the two-contract framework consisting of transactional and relational contracts. Whereas relational contracts tend to positively predict desirable attitudinal outcomes, research consistently shows a negative relationship between transactional contracts and work attitudes (Millward & Hopkins, 1998; Raja et al., 2004; Rousseau, 1990). Millward & Hopkins' (1998) study of employees ranging in age from 16 to 60 showed transactional contracts to be negatively related to job and organizational commitment, as well as job and organizational tenure. In their study of workers in Pakistan, Raja and associates (2004) found transactional contracts to negatively relate to job satisfaction and affective commitment, and to positively relate to intent to quit. Rousseau (1990) found transactional contracts to positively predict MBA students' intentions to frequently change jobs.

Social exchange theory may explain why transactional contracts tend to negatively predict desirable work attitudes. Psychological contract theory evolved in part from social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Emerson, 1976), of which reciprocity is a key tenet (Gouldner, 1960). It is posited that individuals abide by a reciprocity norm, such that obligations between exchange members are generally in balance. Consistent with the reciprocity proposition, there is evidence that employees' self-perceived obligation levels are related to their perceptions of employers' promises (De Vos, Buyens & Schalk, 2003). The transactional contract characterizes the relationship between employer and employee as one that involves primarily an economic exchange, whereas the relational contract involves terms that are more connected to employees' professional, social, and emotional needs. Therefore, employees' responses to relational contracts may involve more affect-related outcomes, such as satisfaction with the job and commitment to the organization. Employees' responses to the transactional contract, on the other hand, would likely be less affect-laden. Therefore, I propose the following:

> *Hypothesis 1: Transactional contracts will be negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment.*

Person-Organization Fit

Psychological contracts represent the individual's perception of the agreement between the individual and the organization on work-related issues such as hours, compensation and benefits, interpersonal treatment, and expected tenure with the organization. Psychological contracts have been characterized as representing the norms or values of an organization (Rousseau, 1995). Person-organization fit, on the other hand, indicates the level of congruence

between the values of an individual and the values or norms of the organization (Chatman, 1989).

We propose that individuals' perceptions of fit with the organization may have a buffering effect on the negative relationship between the transactional contract and attitudes toward the job and organization. Individuals with high person-organization fit perceive a high level of similarity between their own values and those of the organization. The positive feelings associated with this congruence may insulate employees from negative feelings that can be associated with the transactional contract. Rather than feeling disappointed with the transactional contract, as employees with low fit may, employees with high fit may feel a connection to the organization that isn't damaged by perceptions of a transactional contract.

If an individual has a high degree of fit with the organization, and also perceives the psychological contract to be highly transactional, then the high level of fit also may indicate congruence or agreement with the transactional contract. On the other hand, individuals who have low person-organization fit may have that level of fit in part because they disagree with the psychological contract they perceive to be in place. In other words, it is assumed that if an individual has a high degree of fit with the norms of the organization, that since the psychological contract is one of those norms, the individual also fits with the psychological contract. Some individuals may prefer the flexibility offered by the transactional contract, in that they can change jobs without breaching the loyalty implied in relational contracts. They may prefer to take responsibility for their own career progression rather than let the organization guide it. Consistent with person-environment fit theory and theory of work adjustment, individuals who prefer these sorts of working conditions will likely be more satisfied with and committed to jobs and organizations that offer them than individuals who prefer different psychological contract characteristics (Chatman, 1989; Dawis, 1984).

Whether or not one can *fit* with the psychological contract of an organization as one fits with the values of an organization is an empirical question. The dominant conceptualization of person-organization fit is congruence between the organization and the employee on values. However, some scholars have conceptualized the construct as congruence between the employee's personality and the organization's climate (Christiansen, Villanova & Mikulay, 1997; Ryan & Schmit, 1996; Tom, 1971) and as goal congruence (Vancouver & Schmitt, 1991). Congruence between an individual's psychological contract preferences and the inducements and expectations of a particular organization may indeed constitute a conceptualization of person-organization fit. Nonetheless, this research was not designed to address this issue. Therefore, it is proposed:

> Hypothesis 2: The negative relationship between transactional contracts and work attitudes will be weaker the higher the level of P-O fit.

Career Motivation

London (1983) proposed that three individual differences in career motivation would influence an individual's attitudes, decisions and behaviors related to careers: career identity, career insight, and career resilience. Career identity refers to the degree of importance of one's work organization and career to one's personal identity or self-image. Some degree of attachment to the organization as a key component of one's career is assumed in this conceptualization. It is proposed that individuals high on career identity will have high organizational identity, high job involvement, and high primacy of work. Career insight is defined as having realistic views of oneself and the environment as related to one's career aspirations, and using that information when making career-related decision. It is proposed to be related to self-monitoring and feedback processes. Career resilience is the extent to which an individual is able to cope with a suboptimal career environment or recover from career-related obstacles. It has an efficacy component and, accordingly, it is theorized that career resilience is related to adaptability, internal locus of control, and self-esteem. Consistent with the work of other researchers (e.g., Day & Allen, 2004; Wolf, London, Casey & Pufahl, 1995), this study will treat career motivation as a single variable.

Career motivation has shown relations to several work-related outcomes. Examples include positive relationships with both subjective and objective measures of career success (Day & Allen, 2004; Eby, Butts & Lockwood, 2003), performance effectiveness (Day & Allen, 2004), the presence of motivating job characteristics (Noe, Noe & Bachhuber, 1990), empowerment and managerial support (London, 1993; Noe et al., 1990), and a perceived match between personal and organizational career plans (Noe et al., 1990). Individuals with high levels of career motivation already demonstrate a strong commitment to their careers, are disposed toward taking responsibility for career development, and are prepared for disruptions such as job loss. They are likely to be highly self-reliant and independent in their career management behaviors. In fact, the characteristics of identity, related to the career motivation dimensions of career identity and insight, and adaptability, proposed by London (1983) as being related to career resilience, have been proposed to be related to success and satisfaction in the boundaryless career (e.g., Eby et al., 2003; Hall & Mirvis, 1995). The boundaryless career concept is based on similar premises as the transactional contract, such as little job security and organization-provided professional development (see Arthur & Rousseau, 1996).

Highly transactional contracts offer little in terms of career and professional development support as compared to less transactional contracts. Employees working under this contract are responsible for managing their own careers. Individuals with high career motivation have both the ability and motivation to manage their own careers. Therefore, those with high career motivation should have less of a negative response to the transactional contract than individuals with lower levels of career motivation. Thus, the following is proposed:

> *Hypothesis 3:* *The negative relationship between transactional contracts and work attitudes will be weaker the higher the level of career motivation.*

METHODS

Sample and Procedures

Individuals who were members of the Study Response Project online research panel and who were employed full-time were surveyed for this research. This was deemed an appropriate sample for this study based on the diversity of the individuals' employers and industries and, hence, the diversity in perceptions related to careers and employment relationships. The Study Response Project was founded by scholars specifically for the use of academic, non-commercial research. It maintains a diverse panel of individuals who have agreed to participate in research. Of those invited to participate, 331 responded, representing a 17% response rate. Missing data reduces the sample size to 302 for most analyses. Respondents were 56% female and 75% white with ages ranging from 18 to 74 (M = 36 years). Median education level was "some college, no degree" and most common occupational fields were administrative (9.5%), education or training (6.4%), health or safety (6.1%) and retail or wholesale (6.1%).

Measures

Independent variables.

To assess *transactional contract*, I used a nine-item scale (e.g., "I only carry out what is necessary to get the job done") from Raja and colleagues (2004) which is a shortened version of Millward & Hopkins' original scale (Millward & Hopkins, 1998). The reliability of this scale is .80. *Person-organization fit* (α = .91) was measured with a three-item scale (e.g., "My personal values match my organization's values and culture") from Cable & DeRue (2002). *Career motivation* (α = .88) was assessed using Day & Allen's (2004) 21-item measure with a five-point Likert-type response scale. Sample items are "I have a specific plan for achieving my career goal" and "I am able to adapt to changing circumstances".

Dependent variables.

Three outcome variables were assessed. *Job satisfaction* (α = .85) was assessed with a three-item scale (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins & Klesh, 1979). A sample item is "All in all I am satisfied with my job". A nine-item scale from Porter and Smith (1970) was used to measure

organizational commitment (α = .91). A sample item includes "I really care about the fate of this organization". A five-point Likert-type scale was used for both of the outcome measures.

Control variables.

Data regarding respondents' race were collected and dummy coded into six variables, such that respondents who chose that category were given a "1" and those not in that category were given a "0". An analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed a main effect of race on the transactional contract ($F = 2.47$, $p < .05$), P-O fit ($F = 1.96$, $p < .10$), and career motivation ($F = 1.91$, $p < .10$). Given these findings, I controlled for race when testing the hypotheses. I also collected data on subjects' gender, age, education level, and status as a US resident, but none of these variables was found to relate to the hypothesized variables in this study.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations among the variables. Transactional contract was moderately negatively correlated with both P-O fit ($r = -.40$, $p < .001$) and career motivation ($r = -.30$, $p < .001$). P-O fit was moderately correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .59$, $p < .001$) and highly correlated with organizational commitment ($r = .82$, $p < .001$). Correlations between career motivation and the work attitudes were moderate as well ($r = .33$, $p < .001$ for job satisfaction; $r = .45$, $p < .001$ for organizational commitment). Career motivation and P-O fit were moderately correlated as well ($r = .35$, $p < .001$).

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of the Independent and Dependent Variables									
Variable	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Gender (1 = male)	0.44	0.50							
Age	36.29	11.03	-.08						
Education level	4.26	1.77	-.09†	.03					
Transactional contract	2.55	0.64	.01	-.09	.02				
Career motivation	3.75	0.50	-.05	.07	.08	-.30***			
Person-organization fit	3.26	0.96	-.06	.05	.07	-.40***	.35***		
Job satisfaction	3.73	0.89	.03	.06	.00	-.54***	.33***	.59***	
Organizational commitment	3.34	0.79	-.04	.01	-.01	-.46***	.45***	.82***	.75***
N = 302									
† *p* < .10									
* *p* < .05									
** *p* < .01									
*** *p* < .001									

Hierarchical regression was used to test the hypotheses. To test the first hypothesis, job satisfaction and organizational commitment were regressed on the control variables in the first step and the transactional contract in the second step. Table 2 shows that after controlling for race, transactional contracts were negatively related to both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Table 2: Regressions of Work Attitudes on the Transactional Contract[a]		Job satisfaction	Organizational commitment
		β	β
Step 1	Race – White	.04	-.01
	Race – Black	.09	.02
	Race – Asian/Pacific Islander	.13	.13
	Race – Other	-.02	.03
	ΔR^2	.02	.02
Step 2	Transactional contract	-.55***	-.47***
	ΔR^2	.29***	.21***
	Final R^2	.31***	.23***
[a] Coefficients from the final regression model are shown.			
† $p < .10$			
* $p < .05$			
** $p < .01$			
*** $p < .001$			

To test Hypothesis 2, the job attitudes were regressed first on the control variables, then on the transactional contract in Step 2, P-O fit in Step 3, and the cross-product of the transactional contract and P-O fit in the final step (see Table 3). Results show that P-O fit did significantly moderate the relationships between the transactional contract and both job satisfaction and organizational commitment (see Figures 1 and 2), fully supporting Hypothesis 2.

Table 3: Regressions of Work Attitudes on the Transactional Contract and Person-Organization Fit[a]		Job satisfaction	Organizational commitment
		β	β
Step 1	Race – White	.00	-.09
	Race – Black	.09	.01
	Race – Asian/Pacific Islander	.04	-.03
	Race – Other	-.07	-.06
	ΔR^2	.02	.02
Step 2	Transactional contract	-.36***	-.16***
	ΔR^2	.29***	.21***
Step 3	Person-organization fit	.44***	.75***
	ΔR^2	.16***	.46***
Step 4	Transactional contract x Person-organization fit	.10*	.09**
	ΔR^2	.01*	.01**
	Final R^2	.48***	.70***
[a] Coefficients from the final regression model are shown.			
† $p < .10$			
* $p < .05$			
** $p < .01$			
*** $p < .001$			

Figure 1: Moderating Effect of Person-Organization Fit on the Relationship between the Transactional Contract and Job Satisfaction
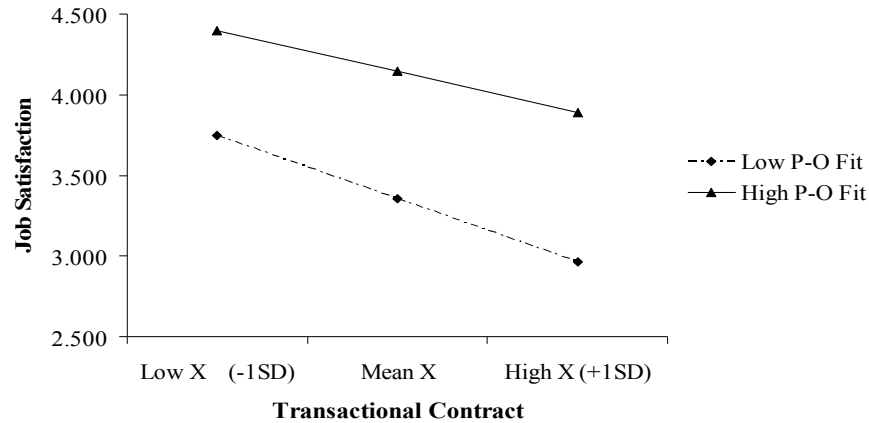
Figure 2: Moderating Effect of Person-Organization Fit on the Relationship between the Transactional Contract and Organizational Commitment
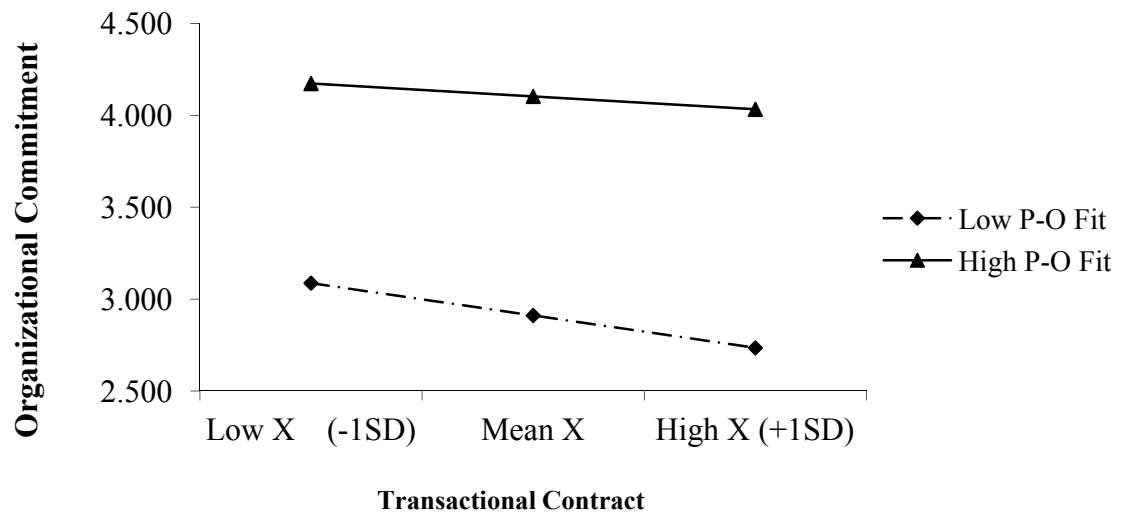
To test Hypothesis 3, the job attitudes were regressed first on the control variables, then on the transactional contract in Step 2, career motivation in Step 3, and the cross-product of the transactional contract and career motivation in the final step (see Table 4). Results show that career motivation did not significantly moderate the relationship between the transactional contract and job satisfaction. The moderating effect of career motivation on the relationship

between the transactional contract and organizational commitment was significant only at the 90% confidence level (see Figure 3). Therefore, there is only slight evidence in support of Hypothesis 3.

		Job satisfaction	Organizational commitment
Table 4: Regressions of Work Attitudes on the Transactional Contract and Career Motivation[a]			
		β	β
Step 1	Race – White	.03	-.03
	Race – Black	.05	-.04
	Race – Asian/Pacific Islander	.10	.08
	Race – Other	-.03	.01
	ΔR^2	*.02*	*.02*
Step 2	Transactional contract	-.50***	-.37***
	ΔR^2	*.29****	*.21****
Step 3	Career motivation	.16**	.35***
	ΔR^2	*.02****	*.10****
Step 4	Transactional contract x Career motivation	.01	.08†
	ΔR^2	*.00*	*.01†*
	Final R^2	*.34****	*.34****
[a] Coefficients from the final regression model are shown. † $p < .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$			

Figure 3: Moderating Effect of Career Motivation on the Relationship between the Transactional Contract and Organizational Commitment
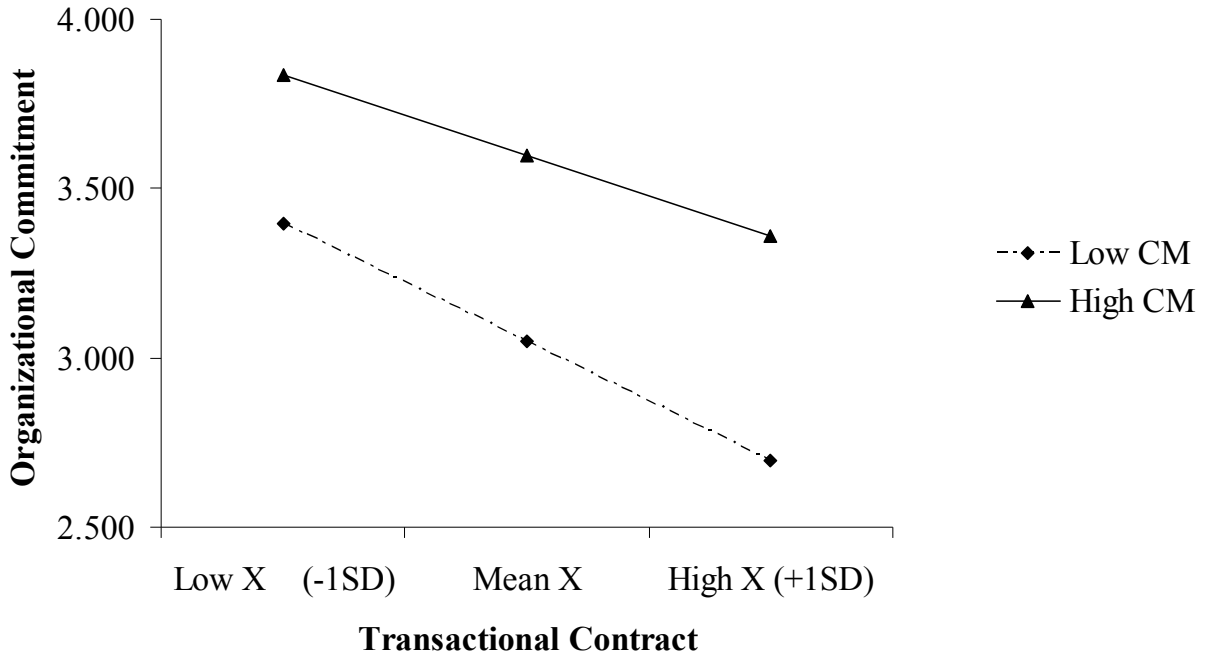
DISCUSSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The purpose of this study was to test ways of limiting the negative effects of the transactional contract on job attitudes. The results show that among a sample of individuals working in a variety of different job types and fields, P-O fit indeed had a mitigating effect on the negative relationship between transactional contracts and both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This shows that P-O fit may partially compensate for the negative outcomes associated with the transactional contract. Individuals whose values match the values and culture of the organization have better attitudinal outcomes under the transactional contract than those individuals that do not fit well with the organization.

The results for career motivation as a moderator of the relationships between transactional contracts and work attitudes, however, were in the hypothesized direction but nonsignificant at the standard 95% confidence level. An explanation for this may be that the career motivation variable does *not* simply distinguish between those with career goals and those without career goals. Rather, it distinguishes between those with career goals who also have the perceived ability and perseverance to reach them, and those who either do not have career goals at all or have career goals but are less confident regarding their abilities and motivation to reach them. Indeed individuals who have strong career goals but feel less confident regarding their abilities may be more negatively impacted by the transactional contract than those without career goals at all. Workers that have career goals but not the ability to achieve them need external help, which typically comes from the employer, in order to progress toward their objectives. Under a highly transactional psychological contract, this support from the employer is limited if it exists at all. On the other hand, individuals who simply do not have career goals will also fall into the low career motivation category, but may not be negatively affected by the transactional contract at all. They do not need the professional development offered under less transactional contracts because they don't have career goals. An implied contract with the organization that doesn't involve loyalty or job security, in fact, may meet the needs of these workers. When combined as in this study, the subset of individuals with low career motivation, both with and without career goals, may be just as satisfied and committed as those with career motivation. This would explain the lack of a significant moderation effect. A study could be designed to more explicitly address this issue in future research.

This paper contributes to the careers, psychological contracts, and P-O fit literatures in a number of ways. First, it is one of the few papers that examines person-environment fit as a moderator. There has been little exploration of the moderating role of fit in the literature (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). Among the notable exceptions are Erdogan and Bauer's (2005) examination of both person-organization and person-job fit as moderators of the relationship between personality and career outcomes. The moderating effect of P-O fit was supported, such that proactive personality predicted job satisfaction and career success only for individuals with high P-O fit. Erdogan and colleagues (Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004) also

found that both leader-member exchange (LMX) and perceived organizational support (POS) compensated for person-organization fit such that fit only related to career success when LMX or POS was low. In their study of full-time employees, Xie and Johns (1995) found that perceived demands-abilities fit, which is a type of person-job fit, moderated the relationship between job scope and stress.

A second contribution is that this paper begins to fill the need for a better understanding of the impact of different types of work relationships on individual and organizational outcomes (Sullivan, 1999). Consistent with previous research (Millward & Hopkins, 1998; Raja et al., 2004; Rousseau, 1990), we found a negative relationship between the transactional contract and work attitudes. This provides some support for the reciprocity tenet of social exchange theory (Gouldner, 1960). However, until now there has been little examination of moderators of the relationship between psychological contract type and outcomes. This paper shows that even though transactional contracts tend to relate negatively to desired outcomes, there is a factor, namely P-O fit, that can mitigate this effect. Future research should further explore moderators to find other ways of reducing the negative effects of transactional contracts which some argue are becoming more prevalent.

Third, this paper is one of the few to link P-O fit and psychological contracts (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Both the P-O fit and psychological contract literatures intimately examine relationships between the individual and the organization. As such, linking these two literatures is likely to improve understanding in both lines of research. Future research may explore the role that fit plays in the perception and reaction to breach. As an example, fit with the organization indicates value congruence (Chatman, 1989). Perception of a psychological contract breach may inform individuals that the organization's values have changed or that their initial perception of the organization's values was inaccurate. As a result, breach perception may actually influence fit perceptions. Future research should also explore the role of psychological contract perceptions in the conceptualization of fit. Just as alternative conceptualizations of fit include goal congruence and personality – climate congruence, psychological contract congruence between employer and employee may be a fruitful way to operationalize fit. Had such a method of measuring fit been used in this study, the results of this study may have been more robust.

Finally, this paper offers a practical suggestion to managers. Research has shown that P-O fit can be improved via socialization programs consisting of a sequential process occurring over a fixed time period, that involves experienced organizational members to serve as role models, and that affirms newcomers' existing identities (Cable & Parsons, 2001; Hoffman & Woehr, 2006). Also, according to Schneider's (1987) attraction – selection – attrition theory, selection is a key method of producing high levels of fit at the organizational level. Selecting for individuals with high P-O fit can be done during the selection process. In fact, Kristof-Brown's (2000) research showed that recruiters' perceptions of applicants' fit do influence recruiters' decisions of which applicants to recommend for jobs. Even prior to selection, realistic job previews (RJPs) may be an effective tool for improving fit. It is expected that individuals who

perceive low fit following an RJP will remove themselves from selection procedures before beginning the job, this resulting in high fit among remaining applicants (Phillips, 1998). RJPs have been shown to lower applicants' job expectations and increase self-selection out of the application process prior to starting the job (Premack & Wanous, 1985). By being clear with applicants about what the company expects from them as well as what the company would provide to them as employees, managers and recruiters may improve fit among their newcomers. Taken together, the findings of this paper, along with those of previous research, show that managers can attenuate the negative affects of transactional contracts by selecting individuals with high levels of P-O fit and by improving P-O fit through the socialization process.

LIMITATIONS

First, the cross-sectional and non-experimental nature of this study means that the direction of relationships between the transactional contract, P-O fit, and the work attitudes cannot conclusively be determined. It is possible, for instance, that the relationship between outcomes and the transactional contract is spurious. An example of this is that individuals with high levels of neuroticism are both more likely to enter into transactional contracts (Raja et al., 2004) and tend to have lower levels of job satisfaction (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). Though there is a theoretical basis for the relationships found in this paper, future research using longitudinal methods or experimentation is needed to confirm these relationships. However, the potential for reciprocal relationships between these types of variables may continue to be a challenge.

A second limitation is that this study was conducted using all self-report data. As a result, common-method bias (see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003) likely played some role in the strength of the relationships found. However, the main effect of the transactional contract on work attitudes was quite strong ($p < .001$) as was the moderating effect of P-O fit on the relationship between the transactional contract and organizational commitment ($p < .01$). Given that these relationships were significant not just at the 95% confidence level, but at the 99% confidence level they appear to be robust. However, future research using multiple data sources or, as mentioned above, experiment-based or longitudinal designs is needed to determine whether these relationships hold once common-method error has been reduced.

CONCLUSION

Researchers speculate that transactional contracts are becoming more common in organizations, but the literature shows that these types of contracts are negatively associated with attitudinal outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This paper utilizes research from the psychological contract, person-environment fit, and careers literatures to explore ways of reducing the negative effects of transactional psychological contracts on work

attitudes. The finding that P-O fit may play such a role has implications for both theory, pointing to the need for more research regarding the link between person-environment fit and psychological contracts, and practice, showing that managers can influence the effects of psychological contract type in their organizations.

REFERENCES

Aggarwal, U., & Bhargava, S. 2010. Predictors and outcomes of relational and transactional psychological contract. *Psychological Studies,* 55(3): 195-207.

Arthur, M. B., & Rousseau, D. M. 1996. *The boundaryless career: A new employment principle for a new organizational era*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bal, P. M., De Lange, A. H., Jansen, P. G. W., & Van Der Velde, M. E. G. 2008. Psychological contract breach and job attitudes: A meta-analysis of age as a moderator. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 72(1): 143-158.

Blau, P. M. 1964. *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Cable, D. M., & DeRue, D. S. 2002. The convergent and discriminant validity of subjective fit perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(5): 875-884.

Cable, D. & Parsons, C. 2001. Socialization tactics and person-organization fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 54(1): 1-23.

Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, D., & Klesh, J. 1979. The Michigan organizational assessment questionnaire. University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Chatman, J. A. 1989. Improving interactional organizational research: A model of person-organization fit. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(1): 333.

Christiansen, N., Villanova, P., & Mikulay, S. 1997. Political influence compatibility: Fitting the person to the climate. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18(6): 709-730.

Conway, N., & Briner, R. B. 2005. *Understanding psychological contracts at work: A critical evaluation of theory and research*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Conway, N., & Coyle-Shapiro, J. A. 2012. The reciprocal relationship between psychological contract fulfilment and employee performance and the moderating role of perceived organizational support and tenure. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology,* 85(2): 277-299.

Dawis, R. V. 1984. *A psychological theory of work adjustment: An individual-differences model and its applications*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Day, R., & Allen, T. D. 2004. The relationship between career motivation and self-efficacy with protégé career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 64(1): 72-91.

De Vos, A., Buyens, D., & Schalk, R. 2003. Psychological contract development during organizational socialization: Adaptation to reality and the role of reciprocity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(5): 537-559.

Eby, L. T., Butts, M., & Lockwood, A. 2003. Predictors of success in the era of the boundaryless career. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(6): 689-708.

Emerson, R. M. 1976. Social exchange theory. *Annual Review of Sociology*, 2: 335-362.

Erdogan, B., & Bauer, T. N. 2005. Enhancing career benefits of employee proactive personality: The role of fit with jobs and organizations. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(4): 859-891.

Erdogan, B., Kraimer, M. L., & Liden, R. C. 2004. Work value congruence and intrinsic career success. *Personnel Psychology*, 57(2): 305-332.

Gerber, M., Grote, G., Geiser, C., & Raeder, S. 2012. Managing psychological contracts in the era of the "new" career. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology,* 21(2): 195-221.

Gouldner, A. W. 1960. The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review*, 25(2): 161-178.

Hall, D. T., & Mirvis, P. H. 1995. The new career contract: Developing the whole person at midlife and beyond. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 47(3): 269-289.

Hoffman, B. J., & Woehr, D. J. 2006. A quantitative review of the relationship between person–organization fit and behavioral outcomes. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*.

Isaksson, K., De Cuyper, N., Bernhard Oettel, C., & De Witte, H. 2010. The role of the formal employment contract in the range and fulfilment of the psychological contract: Testing a layered model. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology,* 19(6): 696-716.

Jackson, W. T., Elenkov, D., Wright, P., & Davis, B. 2012. Psychological contracts in enterprises. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications & Conflict,* 16(1): 133-154.

Jensen, J. M., Opland, R. A., & Ryan, A. M. 2010. Psychological contracts and counterproductive work behaviors: Employee responses to transactional and relational breach. *Journal of Business and Psychology,* 25(4): 555-568.

Judge, T. A., Heller, D., & Mount, M. K. 2002. Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3): 530-541.

Kristof-Brown, A. L. 2000. Perceived applicant fit: Distinguishing between recruiters' perceptions of person-job and person-organization fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 53(3): 643-671.

Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. 2005. Consequences of individual's fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(2): 281-342.

London, M. 1983. Toward a theory of career motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, 8(4): 620-630.

London, M. 1993. Relationships between career motivation, empowerment and support for career development. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 66(1): 55-69.

Millward, L. J., & Hopkins, L. J. 1998. Psychological contracts, organizational and job commitment. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 28(16): 1530-1556.

Noe, R. A., Noe, A. W., & Bachhuber, J. A. 1990. An investigation of the correlates of career motivation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 37(3): 340-356.

Phillips, J. M. 1998. Effects of realistic job previews on multiple organizational outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(6): 673-690.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. 2003. Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5): 879-903.

Porter, L. W., & Smith, F. J. 1970. The etiology of organizational commitment. University of California at Irvine.

Premack, S. L., & Wanous, J. P. 1985. A meta-analysis of realistic job preview experiments. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 70(4): 706-719.

Raja, U., Johns, G., & Ntalianis, F. 2004. The impact of personality on psychological contracts. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(3): 350-367.

Robinson, S. L., Kraatz, M. S., & Rousseau, D. M. 1994. Changing obligations and the psychological contract: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(1): 137-152.

Rousseau, D. M. 1990. New hire perceptions of their own and their employer's obligations: A study of psychological contracts. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 11(5): 389.

Rousseau, D. M. 1995. *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten agreements*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Rousseau, D. & Ho, V. T. 2000. Psychological contract issues in compensation. In S. L. Rynes, & B. Gerhart (Eds.), *Compensation in organizations: Current research and practice*: 273-310. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Ryan, A. M., & Schmit, M. J. 1996. An assessment of organizational climate and p-e fit: A tool for organizational change. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 4(1): 75-95.

Schein, E. H. 1972. *Organizational psychology* (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall.

Schneider, B. 1987. The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, 40(3): 437-453.

Sullivan, S. E. 1999. The changing nature of careers: A review and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, 25(3): 457-484.

Teague, B. T., Aiken, K. D., & Watson, G. W. 2012. When does breach of the organizational consumer psychological contract affect the employee's desire to stay? *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications & Conflict,* 16(2): 79-90.

Tom, V. R. 1971. The role of personality and organizational images in the recruiting process. *Organizational Behavior & Human Performance*, Vol. 6(5): 573-592.

Vancouver, J. B., & Schmitt, N. W. 1991. An exploratory examination of person-organization fit: Organizational goal congruence. *Personnel Psychology*, 44(2): 333-352.

Westerman, J. W., & Sundali, J. 2005. The transformation of employee pensions in the united states: Through the looking glass of organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(1): 99-103.

Wolf, G., London, M., Casey, J., & Pufahl, J. 1995. Career experience and motivation as predictors of training behaviors and outcomes for displaced engineers. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 47: 316-331.

Xie, J. L., & Johns, G. 1995. Job scope and stress: Can job scope be too high? *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(5): 1288.

THE ROAD TO FULFILLMENT:
THE IMPORTANCE OF TRUST IN CONTRACT TYPES

Joanna M. Kraft, University of Windsor
Catherine T. Kwantes, University of Windsor

ABSTRACT

Psychological contracts are the beliefs an individual holds concerning terms of an agreement between the individual and their employer (Rousseau, 2007). The current study examined the role trust plays in the relationship between psychological contract type and contract fulfillment in a sample of employees from various organizations. Results indicated that trust was a mediator for relational contracts and a moderator for transactional contracts. Employees with relational obligations trust their organization more and as a result indicate higher levels of contract fulfillment. However, a positive relationship between transactional obligations and contract fulfillment (i.e., employees with transactional contracts are more likely to have a higher level of fulfillment) only occurs when organizational trust is also high. Implications of these findings, including the need to consider how the type of obligations employees engage in can influence their experience of fulfillment, are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Anticipation of various aspects of the work context affects whether or not an individual will join that organization. Once hired into an organization, employees further develop several expectations which may or may not be confirmed throughout the duration of their tenure. Adding to the complexity of the employee-employer relationship is the multitude of variables within the work environment that may influence these expectations. One framework that has been used to examine perceptions of expectations between the employee and employer is that of psychological contracts; that is, the beliefs an employee holds concerning the implicit terms of an agreement between that individual and the organization (Rousseau, 2007). The majority of psychological contract research to date has focused on the constructs of contract breach (i.e., breach of promised obligations) and fulfillment (i.e., keeping promised obligations) and the resulting workplace outcomes (e.g., stress, job satisfaction, etc.). In addition, although psychological contracts were originally viewed as a single construct; recently, they have more recently been recognized as varying in form (i.e., relational and transactional contract type). Although studies have examined how contract type can influence workplace outcomes (e.g., contract breach may differ according to the perceived psychological contract type; Robinson, Kraatz and Rousseau, 1994), research has not fully examined how different contract types may,

or may not, pave the way for perceptions of contract fulfillment. Further, inherent within the examination of workplace expectations is the construct of trust. Trust has been examined concerning psychological breach and fulfillment; however the addition of trust into the influence of contract type on fulfillment perceptions is an important addition to the extant literature. The current research therefore, addresses this gap by examining the role trust plays in the relationship between psychological contracts and outcomes.

Psychological Contract Types

O'Donohue, Sheehan, Hecker and Holland (2007) suggest that a unidimensional, bipolar framework (i.e., relational and transactional) is best used to operationalize the psychological contract. Relational contracts relate to stability (i.e., long-term based) and are based upon mutual trust and loyalty, with rewards that focus on membership and participation (i.e., focus on social exchange), and thus loosely on performance (Rousseau, 2007). Transactional contracts are short-term—focusing on exchange of goods or services—and consist of work with a narrow set of duties, frequently with no training or skill development provided for the employee, and thus more closely tied to explicit performance (e.g., temporary work; Rousseau, 2007). The relational contract is more complex and relies on the employee perception of his/her relationship with the organization. This type of contract generally evolves over time, and therefore typically results in a longer term perspective than does the transactional, which relies more on a somewhat explicit economic perception of the reciprocal obligations between organization and employee being met. The differences that exist between relational and transactional contract types have some important implications. Herriot and Pemberton (1996), for example, argued that employees with transactional contracts are concerned with distributive equity (e.g., are the outcomes fair?), while employees with relational contracts are more concerned with procedural equity (e.g., is the process fair?). These differences in perspectives stress the importance of examining the issue of trust in the workplace, as trust plays a large role in equity within the workplace (Aryee, Budhwar & Chen, 2002). Further, Millward and Hopkins (1998) found that relational and transactional contract types are inversely related, such that as the more relational contract obligations exist, the less transactional contract obligations exist. These authors also found that relational contracts were positively related to trust and affective commitment; conversely, transactional contracts were negatively associated with an attitude of limited contribution to the organization, and low commitment. In addition to the examination of contract types with other workplace attitudes, some research has also focused on the influence of fulfillment and breach on employee perceptions of their obligations.

Robinson and colleagues (1994) examined the effect of contract breach on both relational and transactional obligations. Their study employed a longitudinal framework and not only did they find that employees' perceived obligations change over time, but that breach resulted in employees moving towards feeling an increase in relational obligations and a decrease in

employee transactional obligations in the psychological contracts they hold with their organization. These authors recognize how a breach of the psychological contract can influence employees' perceived obligations and highlight the 'dynamic and evolving nature of psychological contracts' (p. 149). They do not, however, consider the influence that these perceptions may have on how and when employees determine whether there is fulfillment or breach of the psychological contract. If the psychological contract relationship is dynamic and unfolds over time, it is possible that not only does the fulfillment or breach of the contract influence perceived obligations, but that these perceived obligations might also influence the initial acknowledgement of fulfillment or breach, that is, the perception of whether or not a breach has occurred and, if so, how grievous the breach is. This type of spiral reinforcement (i.e., breach may make contracts more transactional, which may in turn influence the experience of the breach) has previously been found for trust. Robinson and Rousseau (1994) examined the influence of psychological violation on trust, discussing the "spiral reinforcement" pattern of trust, where an initial decline in trust may lead to a further decline (p. 255). Trust plays an important role within the complexities of psychological contracts and an examination of contract types should therefore also include the construct of trust.

Trust and Psychological Contract Types

While research has supported the idea that contract type is an important individual difference variable to consider when examining psychological contracts, other factors may also affect outcomes related to contract type. Robinson (1996) defined trust as "one's expectations, assumptions, or beliefs about the likelihood that another's future actions would be beneficial, favourable, or at least not detrimental to one's interest" (p. 576). Previous research has shown that trust in an organization is essential for successful socialization, teamwork, and cooperation (Lämäs & Pučėtaitė, 2006; Robinson, Dirks & Ozcelik, 2004). Further, trust has been considered a fundamental component of the psychological construct itself (Atkinson, 2007), and research has demonstrated that trust is negatively associated with contract breach (Robinson, 1996; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). Using a longitudinal field study where trust was examined as a mediator between contract breach and workplace outcomes, Robinson (1996) identified several important findings regarding trust. Specifically, initial trust was negatively associated with perceptions of contract breach one year later. Further, Robinson found that perceived contract breach resulted in a loss of trust which in turn led to decreases in civic virtue, employee contributions, and also intentions to remain.

Research has also examined trust in conjunction with psychological contracts types however to a much lesser extent. Atkinson (2007) sought to examine what she termed "the under-researched relationship between trust and the psychological contract" through employing a case study approach (p. 227). She concluded that trust is involved in all types of psychological contracts; however the nature of the trust may differ. For example, they found that relational and

transactional contract types are associated with affective and cognitive trust, respectively. According to Atkinson (2007), cognitive trust centers around rationality, being calculative, material and a focus on the economic aspects of the relationship; while affective trust centers on relational bonds, respect and focuses on the emotional aspect of the social exchange. It is further suggested that a breach of the psychological contract will consequently make a relational contract more transactional.

Research by Atkinson (2007) and others focuses on the construct of breach and the potential outcomes that may follow, highlighting the fact that trust is an important part of the psychological contract process. What is still unclear, however, is the influence of trust and the differing obligations employees may perceive on their experiences of psychological contract breach and/or fulfillment. Employees enter the organization with their own unique perceptions of the obligations required for this exchange relationship, and the very nature of those perceptions may influence whether or not an employee feels that obligations are being fulfilled. Do employees with more relational obligations expect, perceive, and then experience higher levels of fulfillment? Do employees with transactional obligations, with considerable less focus on the mutual trust and loyalty expect, perceive, and then experience lower levels of contract fulfillment? And what is the role that trust plays in each of these scenarios. It is these questions that the current study seeks to address. Understanding the initial impact that contract type may have on fulfillment of the psychological contract allows for further investigations on how fulfillment and breach may influence other workplace outcomes.

Current Study

The current study seeks to examine the role each contract type plays in the experience of contract fulfillment. Relational contracts, for example, are associated with stability and are based on mutual trust and loyalty, where rewards are focused on membership and only loosely on performance (Rousseau, 2007). As relational contracts focus on social exchange, employees who believe that they have relational obligations to their employee may have higher expectations in return. In addition, due to the high degree of trust and loyalty embedded within relational contracts, these employees may be more likely to perceive that the organization is fulfilling their obligations in return of this social exchange (e.g., self fulfilling prophecy). Therefore, it can be posited that employees with relational obligations are more tied to, and invested in, the organization. Evidence for this increased investment, would be demonstrated by relational contract types having higher levels of affective commitment (i.e., commitment based on emotional attachment and organizational involvement; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Further, these stronger ties incorporate a higher level of trust in the organization, and through this trust, they are more likely to experience higher levels of fulfillment.

H1   A significant positive relationship will exist between relational contract type and affective commitment.

H2   Trust will mediate the relationship between the degree of relational contract type an employee experiences and that employee's perception of the degree of contract fulfillment.

Conversely, transactional contracts are short-term, focused on monetary exchange, and with no training or skill development (Rousseau, 2007). Employees holding transactional contracts focus on the economic aspects of this relationship and therefore have limited involvement in the organization. Evidence for this economic nature and limited involvement relationship, would be demonstrated by transactional contract types also having lower levels of affective commitment (i.e., commitment based on emotional attachment and organizational involvement; Meyer & Allen, 1997). Because of this, it is less likely that employees with transactional contracts will be highly invested in the organization, and as such may have a shorter term perspective, and therefore a higher threshold for what is considered psychological contract fulfillment. Trust may therefore play a role in the relationship between contract type and fulfillment, however trust will not be the mechanism through which this relationship exists, as such is the case for relational contracts. As trust has been shown to be negatively associated with contract breach, it is likely that fulfillment of the psychological contract will be positively related to higher levels of trust. It is therefore predicted that trust will have a mitigating effect of the relationship between transactional contract type and fulfillment, such that the negative effects of transactional contract type will only be seen when trust is low.

H3   A significant negative relationship will exist between transactional contract type and affective commitment.

H4   Trust will moderate the relationship between transactional contract type and fulfillment and will have a stronger negative impact on perceptions of psychological contract fulfillment when trust is low.

METHOD

Participants

Ninety-eight full-time and part-time employees were surveyed from a variety of organizations including retail/grocery stores (n = 47), tourism agencies (n = 32) and an accountant firm (n = 19). Over half (63%) of the sample was female and the majority of employees reported an English Canadian culture (88%). Employees varied in ages with 23%

between 18 and 34, 26% between the ages of 35 to 44, 29% between the ages of 45 to 54, and 22% over 55.The majority of employees worked full-time (79%) and the average tenure was 8.2 years.

Measures

Psychological Contract Inventory (PCI)

The PCI (Rousseau, 2000) assesses contract type (i.e., relational and transactional subscales, 10 items each) and contract fulfilment (5 items) using a 7-point Likert-type scale. The PCI measure demonstrated sufficient internal reliability for all subscales for the current study (Cronbach's alpha = .89, Contract Type; .84, Contract Fulfillment).

Trust

A seven item scale based on the trust dimensions identified by Gabbarra and Athos (1976) was used to examine trust using a 7-point Likert-type scale with higher scores indicating greater trust. The trust measure demonstrated sufficient reliability for the current study (Cronbach's alpha = .85).

Organizational Commitment

Affective organizational commitment was included in order to further understand the nature of relational and transactional contract types. In previous research, Allen and Meyer's (1996), measure of affective commitment demonstrated sufficient reliability (Cronbach's alpha .72).

Procedure

Target organizations were approached to participate in data collection, and then employees were invited to complete either a paper copy or electronic questionnaire. All measures were presented in a random order to control for any order effects, followed by the demographic questions. Employees then received a debriefing page which included an overview of the purpose and goals of the study.

RESULTS

Prior to analysis, one-way ANOVAs were performed in order to compare the results from each organization surveyed. The independent variable (organization) had three levels (i.e., retail, tourism and an accountant firm) and group differences were examined across the dependent

variable of fulfillment. Results indicated no significant differences across fulfillment, $F(2, 95) = 2.195$, $p > .05$; therefore, samples were collapsed across organization for data analysis. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations) for all variables can be found in Table 1. Bivariate correlations among all variables can be found in Table 2.

Table 1: Mean and Standard Deviations for all Variables			
Measure	Possible Range	*N*	*M*
Contract Fulfillment	1 – 7	98	5.31
Relational Contract	1 – 7	98	4.81
Transactional Contract	1 – 7	98	2.64
Trust Total	1 – 7	98	5.20
Affective Commitment	1 – 7	96	4.30

Table 2: Bivariate Correlations among all Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. Fulfillment	-	.50**	-.25*	.73**	.54**
2. Relational		-	-.44**	.44**	.68**
3. Transactional			-	-.35*	-.47*
4. Trust				-	.63**
5. Affective Commitment					-
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).					
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).					

Mediation Analysis

Prior to conducting the mediation analysis, bivariate correlations were examined in order to determine the relationship between relational contract type and affective commitment. Results indicated that these two variables were significantly positively related to each other ($r = .68$, $p < .01$), suggesting that the more relational a contract is, the more likely they are to be committed to the organization due to their emotional attachment, organizational involvement, and subsequent investment towards the organization. These results provide support for Hypothesis 1 and provide justification for the predicted mediating effect of trust (i.e., stronger investment within the organization will lead to higher levels of fulfillment through increased trust).

A mediation analysis was performed to determine if trust plays a mediating role in the relationship between relational contract type and contract fulfillment. According to Baron and Kenny (1986) mediation occurs when: 1) relational contract type is related to the mediator and contract fulfillment; 2) the mediator is related to contract fulfillment; and 3) the relationship between relational contract type and contract fulfillment is reduced to non-significance when the variance attributed to the mediator is partialled out. Table 2 reveals that relational contract type

is related to trust ($r = .44$, $p < .01$) and contract fulfillment ($r = .50$, $p < .01$). Further trust is related to contract fulfillment ($r = .73$, $p < .01$). Next, a hierarchical regression analysis was perform, such that, in the first step only the effect of relational contract type was entered in the analysis; in the second step, the mediator trust was also included (see Table 3). The results show that the effects of relational contract type on fulfillment decreases when trust is included in the regression analysis. Although the effect of relational contract type is still significant, the reduction in Beta suggests partial mediation (e.g., β Step 1 = .50; β Step 2 = .22).

Table 3: **Mediation Analysis**		
	Contract Fulfillment	
Predictor Variable	β Step 1	β Step 2
Step 1 Relational Contract Type	.50**	.22**
Step 2 Trust		.64**
Overall *F* for equation	32.41**	65.41**
Adjusted R^2	.25**	.57**
*$p < .05$; **$p < .01$.		

In addition, a Sobel test was calculated to determine whether the significance of this indirect path significant. The test of the indirect path was significant ($z = 4.21$, $p < .001$). Further, the total effect of relational contract type on contract fulfillment was significant (TE=5.69, SE=.10, $p < .001$) and the direct effect was also significant (DE=3.01, SE=.08, $p < .01$) again supporting partial mediation. Finally, bootstrapping is often recommended for smaller sample sizes (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007) in order to test the mediation model of trust as a mediator of the relationship between relational contract types and contract fulfillment. For the mediation analysis to be significant there should not be a zero within the 95% bias corrected and accelerated confidence intervals concerning the indirect effect (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Preacher et al, 2007). Results based on 5000 bootstrapped samples from the current research showed that trust partially mediated the relationship between relational contract type and contract fulfillment (IE lower 95% CI= .15, upper 95% CI= .46), therefore, employees who indicated higher levels of relational obligations were more likely to experience more trust, and through high levels of trust, more likely to experience fulfillment. The 95% confidence interval lends support for the reliability of the estimate of the indirect effect (and provides support that this indirect effect does exist), as from sample to sample, 95% of the time the true value of the parameter will be contained within the confidence interval. Thus, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported as trust emerged as a partial, rather than full, mediator of the relationship between the degree of relational contract type and degree of contract fulfillment perception.

Moderated Multiple Regression Analysis

Prior to conducting the moderation analysis, bivariate correlations were examined in order to determine the relationship between transactional contract type and affective commitment. Results indicated that these two variables were significantly negatively related to each other ($r = -.47$, $p < .01$), suggesting that the more transactional a contract is, the less likely they are to be committed to the organization due to their emotional attachment and subsequently these employees would be less invested in the organization. These results provide support for Hypothesis 3 and provide justification for the predicted moderating effect of trust (i.e., employees with transactional contracts will not be invested in the organization, and as such high levels of fulfillment will only exist when trust is also high).

Moderated multiple regression (MMR) was employed to determine the moderating role of trust between contract type and contract fulfillment. Relational and transactional contract type were both included in order to confirm Hypothesis 4 and provide further support for Hypothesis 2 (i.e., trust is a mediator and not a moderator between relational contract type and contract fulfillment). Independent variables were first centered then interaction terms were computed. Hierarchical regressions were performed with relational, transactional, and trust entered at step one; all two way interactions entered at step two; and the three way interaction entered at step three with fulfillment as the outcome. Table 4 displays the unstandardized (B) and standardized (β) regression coefficients, Overall F, Adjusted R^2 and change in R^2 for all models. Although relational contract types represent a significant contribution to predicting fulfillment within all models (see Table 4), the relational x trust interaction was not significant. These results provide additional support for Hypothesis 2, such that trust is mediator and not a moderator between relational contract type and contract fulfillment.

In accordance with Hypothesis 4, a significant R^2 change provides support for the presence of a moderating effect (see Table 4). The addition of two way interactions within step two not only provided a significant increase in variance explained, the transactional x trust interaction predictor was also significant (B = .170, $p = .05$). Specifically, trust was found to moderate the relationship between transactional contract type and contract fulfillment. In order to interpret the significant interaction, unstandardized beta values were used to determine the individual regression lines (low, medium and high) for the relationship between the fulfillment and transactional contract type as a function of trust (using procedures as described by Aiken & West, 1991). Upon inspection of the graph (see Figure 1), it appears that when trust is low an increase in employee perception of their psychological contract as transactional decreases perceptions of contract fulfillment; however when trust is high, an increase in transactional contract type increases perceptions of contract fulfillment. Simple slope analysis (as recommended by Aiken & West, 1991) revealed transactional contract type had a significant positive influence on contract fulfillment for employees with high trust scores ($t = 2.09$, $p < .05$).

Table 4: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Fulfillment (N = 98)									
	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
Variable	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*	*B*	*SE B*	*β*
Step 1									
Relational	.28**	.08	.26	.39**	.10	.36	.40**	.11	.37
Transactional	.12	.09	.09	-.14	.14	-.11	-.18	.15	-.14
Trust	.67**	.08	.65	.61**	.08	.59	.64**	.09	.62
Step 2									
Relational x Transactional				-.10	.08	-.11	-.15	.09	-.15
Relational x Trust				-.06	.06	-.11	-.06	.06	-.11
Transactional x Trust				.17*	.09	.26	.18*	.09	.27
Step 3									
Relational x Transactional x Trust							.04	.05	.09
Overall *F* for equation			44.35			25.30			21.74
Adjusted *R²*			.57**			.60**			.60**
Change in *R²*			.59**			.04*			.00
Note: Relational, Transactional, and Trust were centered at their means. *p < .05; **p < .01.									

Figure 1: Trust as a moderator between fulfillment and transactional contract type
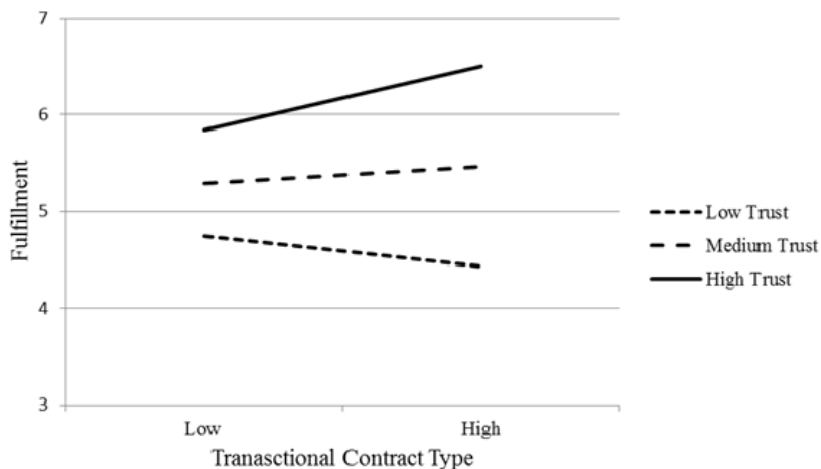
It is important to note that although this relationship was positive, overall a negative relationship exists between transactional contract type and contract fulfillment ($r = -.25$, $p < .05$). The test of simple slope for employees with medium and low trust scores was not significant, indicating that transactional contract had no influence on contract fulfillment for employees with low to mediums trust scores. However, the simple slope for employees low on trust was found to be negative and approaching significance ($t = -.98$, $p = .07$). This suggests that fulfillment

may be lowest for employees who are high on perceived transactional obligation and low on trust.

DISCUSSION

Contract fulfillment has been found to be related to several other employee outcomes within the workplace (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Lemire & Rouillard, 2005; Robinson et al., 1994). Within the present study, an increase in contract fulfillment is associated with an increase in affective commitment, trust and relational contract type, and a decrease in transactional contract type. Regarding specific hypotheses, it was predicted that trust would mediate the relationship between relational contract type and perceptions of contract fulfillment, and that trust would moderate the relationship between transactional contract type and perceptions of contract fulfillment. Results provided support for these hypotheses, such that trust partially mediated the relationship between the degree of relational contract type and degree of contract fulfillment and moderation was found to exist for trust between transactional contract type and contract fulfillment. These results indicate that individuals with high relational contract scores are more likely to have high levels of trust, which then lead to higher levels of reported fulfillment. Conversely, for employees with transactional contracts, moderation exists, such that fulfillment increases as transactional increases, but only when trust is high. When trust is not high, a negative or non-existent relationship exists between fulfillment and transactional contract type. Overall, when trust is high, it appears that employees tend to feel that their psychological contracts are being fulfilled by their organization regardless of psychological contract type (e.g., trust acts as a mediator and results in high fulfillment for relational contract types, and through moderation, overrides the negative effect of transactional contract types). What becomes apparent, is that the type of obligations expected (i.e., relational or transactional), may not be as important for influencing how fulfilled employees are. In actuality, it is trust that plays a big role in how employees evaluate their fulfillment, so much so, that it can override the effects of a transactional contract type and, even produce the effects of a relational contract type (i.e., increased fulfillment). For example if an employee has mainly transactional expectations for their role (e.g., perform only required tasks, fulfill limited number of responsibilities) they are less likely experience fulfillment (negative correlation exists between transactional contract types and fulfillment). However, if this same employee has a high degree of trust in their employer then the negative effect of their transactional contract on fulfillment will diminish and instead they are more likely to feel that the contract has been fulfilled due to the overriding effect of trust.

Implications

Contract fulfillment has been examined as a predictor of a number of employee outcomes in many research studies (e.g., Robinson et al., 1994). More specifically, research has demonstrated that when employees perceive that their psychological contract has been fulfilled, they are more satisfied, more committed, and more willing to go above and beyond role requirements (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Lemire & Rouillard, 2005). Further, the positive aspects of contract fulfillment also include lower employee stress and an indication to want to remain in the organization (Gakovic & Tetrick, 2003; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994). These positive aspects of psychological fulfillment are desirable for both the employee and the organization. However, an understanding of what types of attitudes may or may not lead to perceptions of fulfillment is critical for organizations to be able to take advantage of these positive outcomes. The current study starts the examination of the antecedents that lead to fulfillment perceptions by examining the influence that psychological contract type has on contract fulfillment. The current study also contributes a broader understanding of the role of trust within the psychological contract.
Trust is an important construct within the workplace, but what is even more evident, given the current study's findings, is that trust plays a role in how employees perceive contract fulfillment. Relational contracts require trust to be able to exist within the organization and through trust these relational obligations can lead to more contract fulfillment. Further, this research further highlights the importance of trust in regards to transactional contract types. Although the consequences of an employee endorsing transactional obligations are often negative (e.g., significant negative correlations were found for trust, affective commitment, and job satisfaction), high levels of trust within that same employee can mitigate these negative effects and produce perceptions of contract fulfillment similar to that of an employee who endorses relational obligations.

The current study has identified the importance of trust within organizations. Trust can play such an important role in the workplace, that it can override negative effects of other workplace variables. Due to this prevailing quality of trust, it might be more important for organizations to place emphasis on employee trust, as opposed to other employee attitudes within the workplace. Research should continue to examine different ways that organizations can increase or bolster trust within the workplace. While it is clear that trust is important, within a variety of contexts, including psychological contracts; it is still unclear how exactly trust can be built within organizations. Some research on trust has examined how using empowerment can increase trust within nurses (Laschinger & Finegan, 2005), while other research has discussed the importance of communication in building trust through human resources management practices (Savolainen, 2000). It would be valuable to use the information found within the current study to develop strategies to increase and build trust within organizations. For example, within the psychological contract context, trust may be built differently for employees who have more relational obligation perceptions as compared to transactional obligations. This research

has demonstrated the differing role that trust plays according to these different contract types, and this could be valuable in applying these findings to develop strategies within the workplace. More research should continue to examine how to build trust within organizations and develop and test specific strategies within a workplace setting.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

While this study takes an important step toward addressing a gap in the psychological contract literature, limitations associated with the sample should be considered within the context of this study. A small sample size limits the power of the statistical analyses and therefore caution should be taken in interpreting and generalizing these results. Further, the sample consisted of several small samples drawn from different organizations. While no significant differences were found between organizational samples in the current study, generalizability of these results must still be examined, as results may only be applicable to similar organizations. It would be valuable to examine the mediating and moderating effects of trust within the context of psychological contracts across several larger organizations and include other organizational variables that may also influence this unique dynamic relationship (i.e., organizational culture).

In addition, the current study aimed to determine mediating and moderating effects for trust. Although the cross-sectional design of this study allowed for these analyses, a longitudinal design would be valuable to gain further insight into the process of change in contract type, trust and perceptions of contract fulfillment over time. Researchers have discussed the cyclical nature of trust in organizations, such that the variables that trust may influence, which also, in turn, influence trust. For example, Robinson (1996) found that trust may lead employees to perceive fewer instances of contract breach; however contract breach may lead to a decrease in trust. It is possible that similar dual relationships exist regarding trust and other variables, and a longitudinal design would be more effective in parcelling out these directional influences over time.

Psychological contracts inherently involve trust. Trust is involved in the perception of how successful this contract it, but also in the types of obligations employees perceive to be involved within that contract. Trust is tied very closely to relational contract types and it is no surprise that trust may be the vehicle through which relational obligations lead to increased fulfillment. Due to the intertwined nature of trust and psychological contracts it is worthwhile to continue to examine these constructs in tandem and the many potential outcomes that may results from varying levels of trust within the workplace.

REFERENCES

Aiken, L.S. & West, S.G. (1991). *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions.* Newbury Park, California: SAGE Publications.

Allen, N.J. & Meyer, J.P. (1996). Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 49,* 252-276.

Aryee, S., Budhwar, P. S., & Chen, Z.X. (2002). Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23*(3), 267-286.

Atkinson, C. (2007). Trust and the psychological contract. *Employee Relations, 29*(3), 227-246.

Baron, R.M., & Kenny, D.A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(6), 1173-1182.

Coyle-Shaprio, J. A. (2002). A psychological contract perspective on organizational citizen ship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23,* 927-946.

Gakovic, A. & Tetrick, L.E. (2003). Psychological contract breach as a source of strain for employees. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 18*(2), 235-246.

Herriot, P., & Pemberton, C. (1996). Contracting careers. *Human Relations, 49*(6), 757-790.

Laschinger, H.K.S., & Finegan, J. (2005). Using empowerment to build trust and respect in the workplace: A strategy for addressing the nursing shortage.*Nursing Economics, 23, 6-13*. Lämsä, A., & Pučetaite, R. (2006). Development of organizational trust among employees from a contextual perspective. *Business Ethics: A European Review, 15*(2), 130-141.

Lemire, L., & Rouillard, C. (2005). An empirical exploration of psychological contract violation and individual behaviour: The case of Canadian federal civil servants in Quebec. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 20*(2), 150-163.

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

Millward, L.J., & Hopkins, L.J. (1998). Psychological contracts, organizational and job commitment. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 28*(16), 1530-1556.

O'Donohue, W., Sheehan, C., Hecker, R., & Holland, P. (2007). The psychological contract of knowledge workers. *Journal of Knowledge Management, 11*(2), 73-82.

Preacher, K.J., & Hayes, A.F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers, 36*, 717-731.

Preacher, K.J., Rucker, D.D., & Hayes, A.F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 42, 185-227.

Robinson, S.L. (1996). Trust and breach of the psychological contract. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 41*(4), 574-599.

Robinson, S.L., Dirks, K.T., & Ozcelik, H. (2004). Untangling the knot of trust and betrayal. In R. M. Kramer, & K. S. Cook (Eds.), *Trust and distrust in organizations: Dilemmas and approaches.* (, pp. 327-341). New York, NY, US: Russell Sage Foundation.

Robinson, S.L., Kraatz, M.S., & Rousseau, D.M. (1994). Changing obligations and the psychological contract: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal, 37*(1), 137-152.

Robinson, S.L., & Rousseau, D.M. (1994). Violating the psychological contract: Not the exception but the norm. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 15*(3), 245-259.

Rousseau, D.M. (2000). Psychological Contract Inventory, Revised Version: Technical Report.

Rousseau, D.M. (2007). Psychological contract. In J. Rogelberg (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. (pp. 645-648). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rousseau, D.M., & Tijoriwala, S.A. (1998). Assessing psychological contracts: Issues, alternatives and measures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 19,* 679-695.

Savolainen, T. (2000). Towards a new workplace culture: development strategies for employer-employee relations, *Journal of Workplace Learning, 12*(8), 318 – 326.

THE IMPACT OF PERFORMANCE ATTRIBUTIONS ON ESCALATION OF COMMITMENT

Tobias M. Huning, Columbus State University
Neal F. Thomson, Columbus State University

ABSTRACT

This study examines individual biases in the attributions made for a generalized performance related event, and relates those attributional differences to the individual's propensity to escalate their commitment to a failing course of action. Initial results show that causality and internal attributions predict escalation of commitment, whereas stability attributions are only marginally significant predictors of escalation of commitment tendencies. Both theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Escalation of commitment (Aka misguided persistence) has been a salient topic in management research since the seminal work of Staw (1976). People exhibit strong tendencies to become locked into courses of action (Brockner, 1992; Staw, 1997). Individuals must be able to judge when it is appropriate to avoid or abandon tasks or projects (Janoff-Bulman & Brickman, 1982). When they fail to do so, individuals can escalate their commitment to a losing course of action. Escalation of commitment typically manifests itself as the tendency to continue to invest in a losing course of action, particularly when one is personally responsible for the initiation of the failing investment (Staw, 1976). Escalating commitment involves investing time and effort, even when the likelihood of failure is high and perhaps even certain. The causes of escalation of commitment can be found in self-justification, problem framing, sunk costs, goal substitution, self-efficacy, accountability, and illusion of control (Wong, Yik, & Kwong, 2006). Furthermore, studies have demonstrated that escalation of commitment (Moon, 2001; Staw, 1976:1997) can undermine performance (Steel, Brothen, & Wambach, 2001; Wolters, 2003), decision quality (Baumeister, Twenge, & Nuss, 2002; Staw, 1997), and goal setting (Baumeister, Heatherton, & Tice, 1994). However, despite multiple theoretical and empirical advancements and attempts aimed at disentangling the causes and processes behind escalated commitment, we know very little about the attributions people make of their escalated commitment. After a review of the literature we find that attributional biases offer important insights into the causal mechanism that leads people to escalate their commitment to a failing path. Therefore, we will present a review of attribution theory followed by theoretical derived and tested hypotheses about the relationship between performance attributions and misguided persistence.

ATTRIBUTION THEORY

Originating from Heider's (1958) description of the "naive psychologist", attribution theory attempts to find causal explanations for events and human behaviors. Several models have been developed from this idea, which attempt to explain the process by which these attributions are made in the case of self attribution (e.g. Weiner, 1974; Abramson, Seligman & Teasdale, 1978) and social attributions made regarding the behaviors and outcomes of others (e.g. Kelley, 1973, Thomson and Martinko, 2004).

The attributional model of achievement motivation and emotion has evolved over the past 20 years as an influential theory in social psychology and management (McAuley, Duncan, & Russell, 1992). Weiner (1974), in his development of the achievement motivation model of attributions, classified causal attributions across two dimensions; the locus of causality, and the stability of the cause. The first, locus of causality, originally proposed by Rotter (1966), is the degree to which the attributed cause is internal to the person, or part of the external environment. Internal attributions might include factors such as low intelligence, or lack of attention. External attributions could include weather conditions, or task difficulty. A second dimension, stability, refers to the degree to which the cause remains constant over time. The example of low intelligence would be stable, where the example of lack of attentiveness, would be unstable. Weiner (1979) and Zuckerman and Feldman (1984) added the dimension of controllability to the achievement motivation model. This dimension focused on whether the cause of an event or behavior is controllable or uncontrollable.

McAuley, Duncan and Russell (1992) expanded the concept of controllability by proposing dual dimensions of personal and external control. For personal control, the attributor indicates that he or she either can or cannot personally control the outcome of the event. The external control dimension measures the degree to which the attributor sees the situation as being controllable by anyone else, such as a supervisor or co-worker. Vielva and Iraurgi, (2002) suggest that a response indicating external control is different from a response indicating uncontrollability. This paper proposes that the type of attribution made by an employee across these dimensions is likely to impact an employee's tendency to engage in the negative emotional activity referred to as escalation of commitment.

ESCALATION OF COMMITMENT

Traditional models of economic rationality posit that resources should be allocated and decisions based on an assessment that the benefits outweigh future costs (Vroom, 1964), yet managers' tendencies to throw "good money after bad" have been well documented and examined from multiple perspectives. There is a strong stream of research that examines misguided persistence from the commitment perspective, recognizing that both behavioral consistency expectations and self-justification processes play an important role when

commitment escalates. According to Staw (1984), self-justification processes play an important role in commitment decisions and therefore can cause commitment to escalate. Self-justification theory postulates that managers will bias their future decisions in order to justify their past behavior. Further, research has shown that managers may selectively filter information from their environment in order to achieve consistency between their past behavior and their current and future decisions. The mechanism underlying self-justification is largely based on self-esteem protection. In other words, inconsistencies in behavior and decision-making present a threat to the decision maker's ego, which the decision maker will try to prevent by aligning past resource allocation decisions with future decisions. This is caused by the decision maker's perceptions of societal and peer expectations.

Escalation of commitment has been studied from different theoretical backgrounds. On the one hand researchers have focused on the characteristics of the task (i.e. sunk cost), while on the other hand researchers have focused on theories of risk (Staw, 1997; Moon, 2001), specifically, escalation of commitment has been studied using prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979). It has been found that among other factors, sunk cost, degree of completion, the attractiveness of the outcome, and the record of success or failure play an important role in the decision to escalate commitment (Moon, 2001).

HYPOTHESES

Past studies have looked at the role of internal and external attributions on employee behaviors and decision making (McCormick, 1997, Norris and Niebuhr, 1984). Of particular interest to this study are those that looked at the relationship between attributions and escalation of commitment. In particular, Bateman (1987), found a link between attributions made by powerful others and the subsequent escalation of commitment of subjects. Similarly, Staw (1981) found that escalation of commitment after a failure was highest when the attribution made for the failure was external, unstable and uncontrollable. While the results of his study have been criticized for methodological reasons (Conlon and Wolf, 1980), the basic finding that there was a relationship between attributions and escalation of commitment seem to encourage more research in the area (Bettman and Weitz, 1983).Using the findings of Staw (1981) as a starting point for our research, we hypothesize the following:

H1:   External LOC will be related to higher Escalation of commitment.

H2.   High stability will be related to lower Escalation of commitment.

H3.   High external control will be related to higher Escalation of commitment.

H4:   Low internal control will be related to higher Escalation of commitment.

METHOD AND SAMPLE

Participants were 363 students at a regional state university located in the southeastern United States. The sample consisted of graduate and undergraduate students at the university's college of business. We distributed a survey instrument together with a cover letter and consent form. We asked the participants to read the cover letter and sign the consent form, provided they chose to participate. The cover letter explained the study and reiterated the fact that participation was voluntary. We explained that incentives were (or were not) provided at the discretion of the respective course instructor. The participants were also informed that they could discontinue the survey at any time without penalty or loss of reward that they were otherwise entitled to receive. We instructed the participants that they were to treat these questions as they relate to the jobs the currently hold, a job they have held in the past in case they currently did not work, or if they have never worked to treat being a student as their current job. The survey contained the measurement scales as well as questions on demographics of the participants. The participants took the survey during their respective class periods. 99% of the participants returned a usable survey.

Fifty-one point two percent (51.2%) of the participants were female, 47.1% were male; 1.7% did not respond to this question. The average age was between 23 and 25 years of age with 9.9% of the sample age 35 or older. 56.5% were white (non-Hispanic), 30% African-American, 4.7% Hispanic, 3.6% Asian, .6% Native American, and 2.2% specified as "other", 43.3% responded that they had high school diplomas, 11.8% indicated they had associate degrees, 38.9% stated they held a bachelors degree, and 3.9% stated that they had master's degrees. .3% suggested they had doctorates. The average work experience of this sample was 6 years and 5 months. 92.4% of the respondents had at least one year of work experience, 83.6% reported work experience of at least 2 years, 46.4% reported 5 years or more, and 14.8% expressed that they had worked for at least 10 years. We believe that this demographic composition of the sample makes a strong argument for the generalizability of the sample to an average "working" population. The average participant also maintained a 2.9 GPA.

MEASURES

Attributions

For the measurement of performance attributions, we used the Causal Dimension Scale II (CDS II), developed by McAuley, Duncan and Russell (1992). The CDS II consists of a 12 questions, which make up 4 scales, with three items per scale, which evaluated the attributional dimensions of (1) locus of causality, (2) external control, (3) stability, and (4) personal control. Reliabilities using the CDS II are generally reported to be high (McAuley, Duncan and Russell,

1992). The reliabilities of the scales in our sample are as follows: Locus of causality α = .74, external control α =.7, stability α = .6, and personal control α.= .83

Escalation of Commitment

Escalation of commitment was assessed with an adaptation of the blank radar plane scenario, which has been established and validated in the literature (Arkes & Blumer, 1985; D.E. Conlon & Garland, 1993; Garland, 1990; Garland & Conlon, 1998). On the basis of the scenario, participants indicated via two questions on a scale of 0 to 100% the extent to which they would continue to pursue the project and invest more resources toward its completion.

ANALYSIS

We conducted a series of regression analyses to examine the relationships between attribution styles, job satisfaction, and turnover intentions using SPSS. Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations are reported in Table 1.

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations among all Variables						
	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4
Locus of Causality	6.3	1.46	**-0.74**			
External Control	5.1	1.53	-0.1	**-0.7**		
Stability	5.3	1.49	.44**	.17**	**-0.62**	
Personal Control	2.4	1.46	.68**	-.26**	.35**	**-0.83**
Escalation	61.25	25.14	-0.001	-0.073	0.1	1.09*
Note: Reliabilities (Cronbach's Alphas) are given in parentheses.						
**Correlation is significant at the .01 level.						
*Correlation is significant at the .05 Level.						

The initial results show that, as hypothesized in H1, based on the early tentative findings of Staw(1981) locus of causality is significantly related to escalation of commitment at p=.01. The standardized path coefficient for the relationship between locus of causality and escalation of commitment was estimated to be β=.-20.

However, unlike Staw's earlier (1981) study, we found no support for H3, which hypothesized that the attribution dimensions External control was related to escalation of commitment.

Interestingly, H2 received some support as the hypothesized relationship was marginally significant at p=.06. However, while we hypothesized, consistent with Staw's (1981) findings that unstable causes would be more likely to lead to escalation of commitment, the findings are in the opposite direction. We found that stable attributions lead to higher incidence of escalation of commitment.

However, as hypothesized by H4, we also examined the relationship between internal control and escalation of commitment. We found a significant, positive relationship between internal control and increased escalation of commitment. While this is directly opposite of the findings of Staw (1981), we do not find the results surprising. This is entirely consistent with Staw's earlier (1976) assessment that escalation of commitment typically manifests itself as the tendency to continue to invest in a losing course of action, particularly when one is personally responsible for the initiation of the failing investment

Table 2: Regression results				
Regression results with Escalation of Commitment as Dependent Variable				
	β*	s.e.	t-value	p-value
Locus of Causality	-0.2	1.4	-2.4	0.017
External Control	-0.06	1.5	-0.955	0.34
Stability	0.121	1.1	1.9	0.06
Personal Control	0.206	0.21	2.5	0.01
*Standardized path coefficient				

DISCUSSION

While past studies have peripherally included attributions in their examination of the phenomenon of escalation of commitment (Staw 1981, Bateman, 1981 Bettman and Weitz, 1983), few have explicitly questioned the relationship between attributions and escalation of commitment as a main or primary focus. We explicitly ask the question: "Do attributions impact escalation of commitment?" through the use of four hypotheses. Our results explicitly support one of these hypotheses and find a significant, yet in the opposite direction, relationship for two others. The traditional locus of causality dimension was negatively related to escalation of commitment, as we hypothesized. Those who personally placed the responsibility for a specific performance related failure on environmental rather than internal causes were more likely to exhibit escalation of commitment. However, these specific findings highlight the contrast between locus of causality and the construct of internal or external controllability. External locus of causality relates to higher escalation, however, external control (someone else controls your failures and successes) is not statistically related to escalation. In contrast, internal control (you have control over success and failure) is statistically related to escalation. What this suggests is that individuals will be most likely to engage in escalation of commitment if they feel that they generally control their success or failure, but that this particular event is failing due to external causes. Essentially, the high internal controllability leads the individual to believe that they can personally force a positive outcome, in spite of the fact that environmental forces are stacked against them. Related to this, we also found that attributions to stable causes increased escalation of commitment. While this differed from Staw's (1981) findings, it is not inconsistent with the original conception of escalation of commitment. Since escalation of commitment involves

making decisions to achieve consistency with past behaviors, there would be more need psychologically to do this when confronted with a stable cause for failure. The cause would have been present in the same form and therefore factored into the original decision, while in the case of an unstable cause, it would give the decision maker an way to psychologically let themselves "off the hook" in terms of responsibility, as the cause was not already present when the original decision was made.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abramson, Lyn Y.; Seligman, Martin E.P.; Teasdale, John D. (1978) Learned Helplessness in Humans: Critique and Reformulation. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 87, 49-74.

Baumeister, R. F., Twenge, J. M., & Nuss, C. K. 2002. Effects of social exclusion on cognitive processes: Anticipated aloneness reduces intelligent thought. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83(4): 817-827.

Baumeister, R. F., Heatherton, T. F., & Tice, D. M. 1994. *Losing Control: How And Why People Fail At Self-Regulation.* San Diego: Academic Press.

Bateman, Thomas, S. (1986) The Escalation of Commitment in Sequential Decision Making: Situational and Personal Moderators and Limiting Conditions. *Decision Sciences*, 17(1) 33-49.

Bettman, James R. and Weitz, Barton A. (1983) Attributions in the Board Room: Causal Reasoning in Corporate Annual Reports. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 28, No. 2. 165-183.

Brockner, J. 1992. The escalation of commitment to a failing course of action: Toward theoretical progress. *Academy of Management Review*, 17(1): 39-61.

Conlon, Edward J., and Gerrit Wolf (1980) The moderating effects of strategy, visibility, and involvement on escalation behavior: An extension of Staw's Escalation Paradigm." *Organizational Behavior and Human Perform*ance 26: 172-192.

Harvey, Paul ; Harris, Kenneth J. and Martinko, Mark J. (2008) The Mediated Influence of Hostile Attributional Style on Turnover Intentions, *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 22, 333-343.

Heider, F. (1958) *The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations*. New York, Wiley.

Janoff-Bulman, R., & Brickman, P. 1982. Expectations and what people learn from failure. *Expectations and actions: Expectancy-value models in psychology*: 207–237.

Kahneman, D., & Tversky, A. 1979. Prospect theory: An analysis of decision under risk. *Econometrica: Journal of the Econometric Society*: 263-291.

Kelley, H.H. (1973) The Process of Causal Attribution. *American Psychologist*, 28, 107-128.

Locke, 1976 cited in Brief, A. P., & Weiss, H. M. (2001). Organizational behavior: affect in the workplace. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53, 279-307, p. 282

McAuley, E. ; Duncan, T. E. & Russell, D. W. (1992) Measuring causal attributions: The revised causal dimension scale (CDSII). *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 18, 566 - 573.

McCormick, John (1997) An attribution model of teachers' occupational stress and job satisfaction in a large educational system. *Work & Stress*, 11(1) 17-32.

Mobley, W.H. Immediate linkages in the relationship between job satisfaction and employee turnover, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 1977, 62, 237-240.

Moon, H. 2001. Looking forward and looking back: Integrating completion and sunk-cost effects within an escalation-of-commitment progress decision. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1): 104-113.

Norris, Dwight R. and Niebuhr, Robert E. (1984) Attributional influences on the job performance-job satisfaction relationship. *Academy of Management Journal*, 27(2), 424-431.

Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 775-802.

Rotter, J.B. (1966) Generalized Expectations for Internal versus External Control of Reinforcement. *Psychological Monographs*, 801-828.

Staw, B. M. 1976. Knee-deep in the big muddy: A study of escalating commitment to a chosen course of action. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 16(1): 27–44

Staw, B. M. 1997. The escalation of commitment: An update and appraisal. *Organizational Decision Making*: 191-215.

Staw, Barry M. (1981) The escalation of commitment to a course of action. *Academy of Management Review*,6:577-587

Steel, P., Brothen, T., & Wabash, C. 2001. Procrastination and personality, performance, and mood. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 30(1): 95-106.

Weiner, B. (1974) (ed.) *Achievement Motivation and Attribution Theory*, Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press.

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

Wong, K. F., Yik, M., & Kwong, J. Y. 2006. Understanding the emotional aspects of escalation of commitment: The role of negative affect. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(2): 282-297.

Zuckerman, M. and Feldman, L (1984) Actions and occurrences in attribution theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 3, 541-550.

ALTRUISM, RECIPROCITY, AND CYNICISM: A NEW MODEL TO CONCEPTUALIZE THE ATTITUDES WHICH SUPPORT PROSOCIAL BEHAVIORS

Robert D. Hatfield, Western Kentucky University
James H. Turner, Xavier University
Shane Spiller, Western Kentucky University

ABSTRACT

There is an active interest in the prosocial behaviors that help provide the social glue in organizations. This article proposes the ARC Model of Prosocial Attitudes which extends from the concepts of altruism and reciprocity through to cynicism. This conceptual article offers this ARC model as a way to help explain the prosocial attitudes that underlie behaviors found in Organ's Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs). This paper also offers the ARC model as a fresh way to understand the progression from lower to higher order needs in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs. The attitude range from Altruism to Cynicism can be seen to correlate with Maslow's progressions and with the behaviors associated with OCBs. Each variable in the ARC model is discussed and ideas for future research are included.

INTRODUCTION

Managers and researchers alike have a strong desire to understand what enables and predicts behaviors that provide the necessary mortar between employees that improves both the work and the workplace. There have been attempts to develop a taxonomy of behaviors which can be considered a parsimonious description of the elements comprising the construct of "prosocial" within an organization (see Smith, Organ and Near, 1983; Organ, 1988; George and Brief, 1992). A metaanalysis of the construct of prosocial behaviors called Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs) shows that the five elements of altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, courtesy, and good sport ("sportsmanship") have stimulated a considerable amount of attention and research (Organ and Ryan, 1995). A prosocial construct that is based less upon behaviors and more upon attitudes needs to be identified. The thoughts that precede prosocial behaviors and predispositions which might predict such social behaviors also needs clarification. This paper presents a construct based upon attitude called the ARC Model of Prosocial Attitudes.

Management academics, consultants, and practitioners maintain a strong interest in prosocial cooperative behaviors from employees. However, research, and practical experience show that many employees respond to many management and Human Resource programs with cynicism. This cynicism can result in a refusal by employees to buy into the program. (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989, Fleming 2005). Researchers have often examined the role of reciprocity in OCB's (Korsgard, Meglino, Lesser & Jeong, 2010) and cooperation in organizations (Koster & Sanders, 2006). Others have explored the role of cynicism in how employees relate to others in the organization (Rego, Ribeiro, & Cunha, 2010). Still others view cynicism as a possible human trait (Hochwarter, James, Johnson & Ferris, 2004). Cynicism and reciprocity also have face value in helping to explain employee participation, perceptions, and behaviors.

A good deal of research has explored the role of social attitudes at work (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002) since Organ's articulation of OCBs as a social construct. One view of attitudes defines them as the general affective, cognitive and intentional responses toward objects, other people, themselves or social issues (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981). This definition includes the commonly cited "ABC" components of an attitude: affect, behavioral intentions, and cognition (Rosenberg and Hovland, 1960). Whereas the OCB conceptualization is focused upon behaviors, the three prosocial attitudes explored in this paper focus more broadly upon the affect, behavioral intentions, and cognitions which specifically support prosocial workplace activity. We argue that there are three fundamental attitudes that exist which facilitate social organization and organizations: Altruism, Reciprocity, and Cynicism (ARC).

The ARC Model of Prosocial Attitudes

Altruism has been defined as where one seeks to maximize the outcomes of another without regard for one's own outcomes (Ballinger and Rockmann, 2010). Altruism is a prosocial attitude thought of as a predisposition to unselfishly help and focus upon others, associated with the affect of compassion, and resulting in acts of cooperation, caring, giving assistance, and other selfless acts. Reciprocity is an attitude thought of as sensitivity to the behaviors and attitudes of others combined with the belief that there should be a return, balance, or social exchange of behaviors. Reciprocity is an attitude about equity. Reciprocity may result in our being friendly in return for friendliness we received from someone else. We are courteous in return for courteousness from others. We often behave with anger when we receive anger. Cynicism is a distrusting dimension characterized by a predisposition to question the motives of others, skepticism, and wariness. In a sense, this is the only attitude in this scheme that is cast as negative. It is often manifested behaviorally into acts of distrust such as rechecking or questioning because we question the motives of the other person.

While other attitudes might be associated with prosocial activity, it is our contention that these attitudes, ARC, provide a reasonably satisfactory and parsimonious model for explaining the basis for the "social glue" in organizations (Brief and Downey, 1983). Business practitioners

and researchers most often deal with the required paradox of self-interested individuals which the organization needs working together cooperatively. Barnard (1938) said "… it appears utterly contrary to the nature of men to be sufficiently induced by material or monetary considerations to contribute enough effort to a cooperative system to enable it to be productively efficient to the degree necessary for persistence over an extended period." Prosocial attitudes and behaviors partially explain the social glue that must exist for the cooperation needed in an organization for it to prosper and continue.

Altruism, acting primarily for the benefit of another instead of acting purely for self-interest, is credited as providing the basis of ethical and moral codes (Lieberman, 1991). Altruism provides one anchor on our ARC model of Prosocial Attitudes. [PLACE EXHIBIT 1 ABOUT HERE]

Figure 1: The ARC Model of 3 Prosocial Attitudes:

Altruism ←----- Reciprocity -----→ Cynicism

Reciprocity, the tendency to treat others as they have treated us, can be viewed as the oil that lubricates the prosocial attitudes of altruism and cynicism. Decrkop, Cirka, & Andersson (2003) found that many employees help others because they previously received help from others. An altruistic act becomes reflected, repeated, and multiplied through reciprocal acts in common social exchange (Trivers, 1971). Reciprocity is an extention of "the Golden Rule" of "do unto others as you would have others do unto you."

Cynicism can be seen as a self-protective attitude that limits the ability of others, acting in their own self-interest, to take unfair advantage of one's altruistic pro-social attitude. It defends and limits. Cynicism is the other anchor on our model of prosocial attitudes. We are separating the concept of skepticism from cynicism in that the latter goes so far as to question the motivation of others. At worst, Cynicism leads to paranoia. In less severe forms, Cynicism is found in attitudes like the fundamental attribution error. Altruism and Cynicism together form the basis for moral decision-making and behavior. "A gangster can succeed only if most people are law abiding" (Kant, 1964, p.18).

Cynicism is ultimately prosocial. We assert that cynicism is necessary because people are not merely one-dimensional actors who are only self-focused all of the time. If we were, organizations would fall apart and we could not exist as social beings. Because we are prosocial by nature and attitude, a social loafer or exploiter might attempt to take advantage of our altruism. Cynicism can protect us from the worst of possible exploitation from others.

Cynicism enables trust. Cynicism may even be more natural than trust. For instance, we often cynically view those in power positions who might exploit us with their power. However, we often follow and support people in power, so we consciously determine when we can let

down our defense of cynicism. Only then can we commit fully to a cooperative relationship with such organizational leaders, and others. In order for this kind of prosocial limit on self interest to exist, we must be able to protect ourselves from opportunistic and free-riding behavior. Cynicism is that self-protection. Therefore, cynicism is as moral as altruism because it enables altruism. The twin anchors of cynicism and altruism continue to operate only within a system of where reciprocity is active.

One weakness of Altruism is that it creates vulnerability. One weakness of Cynicism is that this attitude must not only impugn the motivations of others, it must assume in some situations that those intentions are to take advantage unfairly. We even have a name for a common manifestation of this, the "Fundamental Attribution Error". This bias is that the seer attributes failures in others to internal causes in them (Gilbert and Malone, 1995). For instance, the manager notices that a sales person fails to make a sale and attributes the failure upon the lack of skill in the sales person. However, a situational cause, such a high price or the superiority of a competitive product, may fully explain the failure. Positive attributions are equally enlightening. This error is often seen in attributions about someone with power, someone in a leadership position, and especially in a crisis situation. When the Twin Trade Towers were attacked, for example, President Bush's effectiveness ratings went up. Successful actions in the war on terrorism are widely attributed to his leadership. Whether chance occurrence, the result of another person's effort, or his own, the credit is given to the leader (Turner and Valentine, 2001) While this is more common in times of crisis, it certainly exists at other times as well. Positive attributions also follow the decision-making rules of the ARC model.
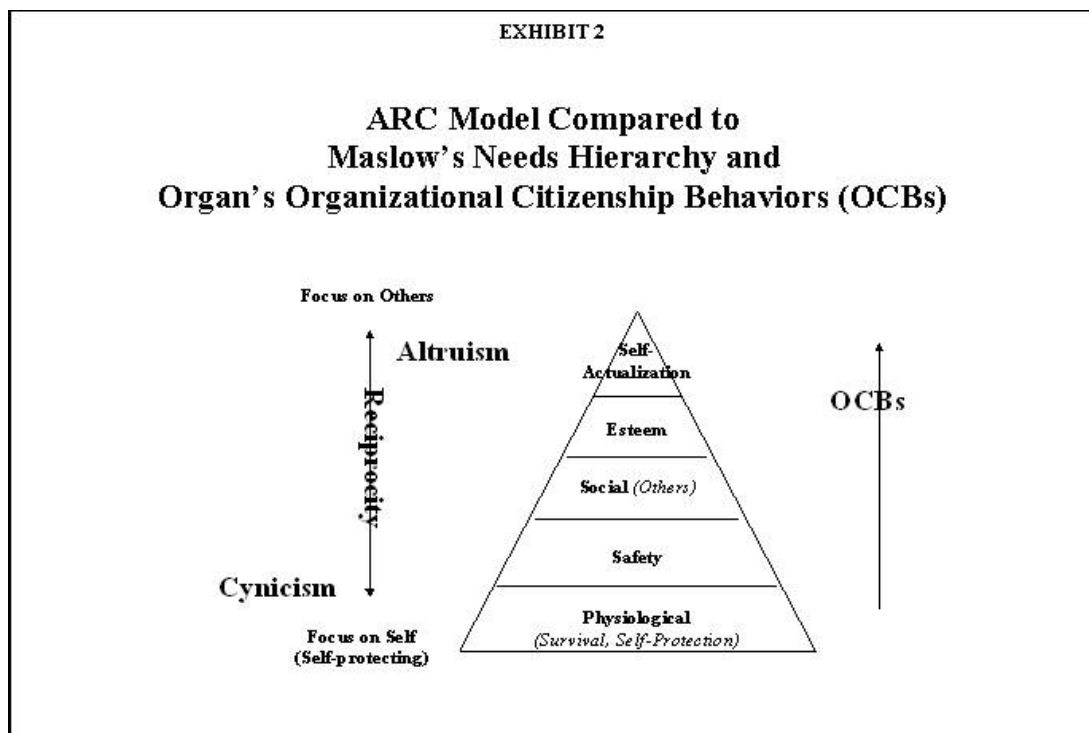
The Prosocial Attitude ARC Model Compared to Maslow's Hierarchy and Organ's OCBs

Maslow's "hierarchy of needs" (Maslow, 1970) has become ubiquitous. While the hierarchy was not designed to define prosocial attitudes or behavior, it does examine the motivational elements of social behaviors. "Social" needs are even written as the middle need. It is natural that a model of attitudes driving prosocial behavior like the ARC model be compared to Maslow's hierarchy. The hierarchy can be understood as series of needs that start fully focused upon oneself and then go outward; toward others. Contrary to some explanations, Maslow did not intend the self to be the highest order need. In his last interview, Maslow said, "the ultimate happiness for man is the realization of pure beauty and truth, which are the ultimate values. What we need is a system of thought - you might even call it a religion - that can bind humans together" (Hoffman, 1992). One can see that the highest level, penned as "self actualization," was always intended as something beyond the self, since "self" esteem was already listed in the fourth progressive need.

The lower level needs, like Physiological and Safety, are those that can be viewed as self-protecting or defensive. The focus is upon the self and the goal is to maintain security and

survival. Maslow's lower level needs correspond, in this way, with the function of Cynicism, in the ARC model. The primary goal of the attitude of Cynicism is self-protection and fending off those who might take unfair advantage of our Altruism. These self-protecting needs from Maslow and the attitude of Cynicism correlate.

The upper level needs, like Social and Esteem can be viewed as acknowledging the importance of others, rather than focusing upon the self. Belonging with others, being loved by others, being valued in the eyes of others, are all "others focused". We motivationally progress by satisfying these needs we are moving out toward others, just as we attitudinally move away from Cynicism and toward Altruism and responsibility.

EXHIBIT 2

ARC Model Compared to
Maslow's Needs Hierarchy and
Organ's Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCBs)

Focus on Others

Altruism

Reciprocity

Cynicism

Focus on Self
(Self-protecting)

Self-Actualization

Esteem

Social *(Others)*

Safety

Physiological
(Survival, Self-Protection)

OCBs

At the highest level, we can examine Maslow's comments about beauty and truth being most important. Having satisfied the need to reach a level of esteem and value in the eyes of others, the hierarchy suggests that we find enlightenment and fulfillment through actualization. At this highest level Maslow suggests we reach a system of thought "which binds all humans together" according to his words (above). At actualization we look outward, not just inward, to see our fit within the organization and world. "Like a religion" he suggests, we will be purely Altruistic.

The relationship between the ARC Model and OCBs, is like the relationship between motivation and performance – the former precedes and helps explain the latter. Thus, the

attitude of altruism precedes and helps explain the acts of courtesy, civic virtue, good sport, conscientiousness, and other altruistic behaviors. In fact, altruism is one of Organ's five OCBs (Organ, 1988). The focus is others-focused. Checking with others in the organization (courtesy), doing one's own share of group work so others will not have to do it all (civic virtue), not complaining to others ("sportsmanship" or good sport), working more carefully than necessary for the benefit of others or the "organization" (conscientiousness), and unselfish acts of stepping forward to help some other person (altruism), are all non protective acts focused upon the benefit of others. Since such prosocial behaviors have become a more explicit focus for many organizations, employers should be equally interested in the predictors of such behavior, including the attitudes that precede or motivate the occurrences of prosocial behaviors.

CONCLUSION

It is helpful to examine the concepts found in the ARC Model of Prosocial Attitudes to stimulate discussion and thought about those acts that must commonly happen for organizations and societies to thrive. While there has been attention to Altruism and the norm of Reciprocity in the literature, Cynicism is often discarded as a inhibiting rather than an enabling factor; negative rather than positive. We believe that seeing Cynicism as part of a model or series of interactions, more closely portrays its importance in human behavior. We feel that examination at the level of attitudes adds depth to discussions of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors and motivational theories like Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs.

The literature indicates that predictors other than even attitude and motivation might explain prosocial behavior. For instance, Rushton (1986) has suggested that 60% of altruistic behavior is a manifestation of inherited traits, while the remaining 40% results from a combination of cultural influence and state, or situational influence. Genome research may hold explanations. Careful consideration of other such variables would be helpful in understanding prosocial behavior. The relationship between these the ARC model and social or emotional intelligence also needs exploration. There is much to examine in these emerging areas.

Related hypotheses using these three variables can be tested empirically (Turner and Valentine, 2001). Scales have been developed relating to these three variables (Turner, 2000). We encourage both the conceptual and empirical examination of this model. We believe Altruism, Reciprocity, and especially Cynicism have great potential for explaining the prosocial behaviors of people in organizations.

Finally, employers and leaders can develop strategies and tactics to maximize the attitude of Altruism and minimize the need for Cynicism within their organizations. To do so, they must have a deep understanding of these attitudes and the role they play in promoting positive social behaviors.

REFERENCES

Barnard, C. I. (1938). The functions of the executive, Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Ballinger, Gary A. and Kevin W. Rockmann (2010). Chutes versus ladders: Anchoring events and a punctuated-equilibrium perspective on social exchange relationships. Academy of Management Review, 35(3), 373-391.

Brief, A. P.; & K. H. Downey (1983). Cognitive and organizational structures: A conceptual analysis of implicit organizing theories, Human Relations 36(12), 1065-1090.

Coyle-Shapiro, J. A-M, (2002). A psychological contract perspective on organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 23(8), 927-946.

Foster, F. & K. Sanders (2006). Organisational citizens or reciprocal relationships? An empirical comparison. Personnel Review, 35(5), 519-541.

George, J. M., & A. P. Brief (1992). Feeling good-doing good: A conceptual analysis of the mood at work-organizational spontaneity relationship, Psychological Bulletin, 112, 310-329.

Gilbert, D.T. & P.S. Malone (1995). The correspondence bias, Psychological Bulletin, 117 21-38.

Hochwarter, W. A., M. James, D. Johnson, & G. R. Ferris, (2004). The interactive effects of politics perceptions and trait cynicism on work outcomes. Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies, 10(4), 44-57.

Hoffman, E. (1992). The last interview of Abraham Maslow, Psychology Today 25(1), 68-74.

Kant, I., (1964). Metaphysical principles of virtue, New York, The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Inc.

Korsgaard, M. A, B. M. Meglino, S. W. Lester, & S. S. Jeong (2010). Paying you back or paying me forward: Understanding rewarded and unrewarded organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 92, 277-292.

Lieberman, P. (1991). Uniquely human: The evolution of speech, thought, and selfless behavior, Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Maslow, A. H. (1970). Motivation and personality 2nd ed, New York, NY Harper and Row.

Organ, D. W. (1988). Organizational citizenship behavior: The good soldier syndrome, Lexington MA: Lexington Books.

Organ, D. W. & Katherine Ryan (1995). A Meta-analytic review of attitudinal and dispositional predictors of organizational citizenship behavior, Personnel Psychology 48, 775-802.

Petty, R. E. & J.T. Cacioppo (1981). Attitudes and persuasion: classic and contemporary approaches, Dubuque, IA: C. Brown Publishing.

Rego, A., N. Ribeiro, & M. P. Cunha. (2010). Perceptions of organizational virtuousness and happiness as predictors of organizational citizenship behaviors. Journal of Business Ethics, 93, 215-235.

Rosenberg, M.J. & C. I. Hovland (1960). Cognitive, affect, and behavioral components of attitude, in M.J. Rosenberg, C. I. Hovland, W. J. McGuire, R. P. Abelson, & J. H. Brehm, Attitude organization and change, New Haven, CT, Yale University Press.

Rushton, J. P. (1986). Altruism and aggression: The heritability of individual differences, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 50(6), 1192-1198.

Smith, C. A., D. W. Organ, & J. P. Near (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents', Journal of Applied Psychology 68(4), 653-663.

Trivers, R. L. (1971). The evolution of reciprocal altruism, The Quarterly Review of Biology 46, 35-57.

Turner, James H. (2000). The development and validation of a scale to measure cynicism, Southwest Federation of Administrative Disciplines, Proceedings, March, 2000.

Turner, James H., & Sean R. Valentine (2001) Cynicism as a fundamental dimension of moral decision-making: A scale development, Journal of Business Ethics, 34(2), Nov (II), 123-136.