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LETTER FROM THE EDITORS

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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.

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JoAnn C. Carland
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Carland College

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GENDER ROLE IN JOB SATISFACTION: THE CASE OF THE U.S. INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY PROFESSIONALS

Issam Ghazzawi, University of La Verne

ABSTRACT

While job satisfaction is a major concern in today's organizations, there is little empirical research concerning Information technology "IT" and its professionals. A survey of 132 IT professionals (99 men and 33 women) in various Southern California organizations were conducted using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire "MSQ" short form containing the 20 question-general satisfaction scale to indicate their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with research variables along a five-point scale. Through an empirical study and descriptive statistics, this paper examined the effects of gender on job satisfaction and accepted all its three null hypotheses that gender does not play a role in job satisfaction among IT professionals in the United States. Implications for research and practice are discussed. The research contributes to job satisfaction literature by providing empirical findings regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and the subject of gender.

INTRODUCTION

The subject of job satisfaction is considered to be one of the most studied work related attitudes by organizational behaviorists and human resources researchers in both private and public sectors (Bedeian, Ferris, & Kacmar, 1992; Clark 1997; Durst & DeSantis, 1997; Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001; Jung & Moon, 2007; Lewis, 1991; Ting, 1997; Wright & Kim, 2004). It is no surprise that more than 12,000-job satisfaction studies were published by the early 1990s (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, Carson, 2002; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007).

According to Ghazzawi (2008-a), information technology professionals have not been a major focus of study, and today's literature provides few insights on the subject of job satisfaction in the information technology industry. Such industry controls most aspects of our lives and thus deserves much attention. This profession employs people from all ages and different genders with a mission to cope with the challenges of this borderless world. While an earlier research by the author titled "Job satisfaction among information technology professionals in the U.S.: An empirical study" was published earlier (Ghazzawi, 2008-a); this research is a continuation of the aforementioned paper, but it focuses on the subject of gender.

It is important to stress that while the literature has placed a major emphasis on the subject of job satisfaction, very few researchers have studied the role of gender in job satisfaction in the information technology industry in the United States or in other countries. Most of the research associated with the significance of gender in job satisfaction has been general and not industry specific. This paper is focused on studying the effects of gender on job satisfaction of IT professionals out of a belief that every industry has its own unique differences that differentiates it from other industries.

Through collected data from 132 IT professionals from various organizations in Southern California, using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire “MSQ” (the general satisfaction scale-the short form); the study tested the gender factors on job satisfaction through the use of descriptive statistics.

THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

According to the U.S. Department of Labor- Bureau of Labor Statistics (2009), the U.S. employs over 3.05 million IT professionals of all skill levels annually. This number rose from 3,084,000 in 1997 to a peak of 3,631,000 in 2000, and then declined to 3,055,000 in 2006. However, the employment of computer and information systems managers is expected to grow 16 percent over the 2006-16 decade, which is *faster than the average* for all occupations (U.S. Department of Labor, 2008).

Additionally, computer software engineering is projected to be one of the fastest growing occupations over the 2006-2016 periods, with a projected increase in employment by 38 percent over the 2006 to 2016 period (U.S. Department of Labor, 2008). Only the employment of computer programmers is expected to decrease by 4 percent for the same period (i.e. 2006 to 2016) due to consolidation and centralization of systems and applications, advances in programming languages and tools, and to the offshore outsourcing of programming jobs (U.S. Department of Labor, 2008). The reason this study focuses on the gender of IT professionals is that this subject has received scant attention from researchers, despite the importance of IT pros’ contributions to today’s organizations.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF THE STUDY

In today’s economy, employees’ choices of employment and job mobility are limited compared with a few years ago. Employees are also limited in their ability to choose careers that reflect their abilities, personalities, and personal choice (person-job fit). Since the recession began in December 2007, America’s labor market has lost 4.4 million jobs; its employment rate rose to a quarter century high of 8.1% in February of 2009 (“The jobs crisis”, 2009). According to the Economist magazine, “an American who losses his job today has less of a chance of finding another

one than at any time since records began half a century ago... but it already clear that unemployment will strike hard beyond America and Britain ("The jobs crisis", 2009, p. 11).

The American Dream today is changing. While many U.S. workers (65 percent) still believe that the American Dream is realistic, they also feel it is under attack ("Change to Win", 2009). "Due to the great economic distress and anxiety, a stunning majority of Americans (52 percent) fear that someone in their family or a friend will lose their health insurance in the next year, and even more (58 percent) fear a family member or friend will lose their job. Moreover, two-thirds think it will be harder for the next generation to achieve the Dream" ("Change to Win", 2009, p. 47).

Over the years, The Conference Board released various reports on workplace satisfaction based on a representative sample of 5,000 U.S. households ("Job Satisfaction Declines", 2007). According to these reports, American employees are growing increasingly unhappy with their jobs ("Job Satisfaction Declines", 2007; The Conference Board, 2003; Olian, 2003; Shea, 2002; Stafford, 2007; "U.S. job satisfaction hits record low, 2003; "U.S. Job Satisfaction Keeps Falling", 2005). Overall, less than half of workers say they are satisfied with their jobs, down from 61% two decades ago ("Job Satisfaction Declines", 2007). An important finding of this report is that as the weekly worked hours increase, levels of job satisfaction increase too; however it tends recede at 60 or more hours ("Job Satisfaction Declines", 2007). According to Lynn Franco- Director of The Conference Board's Consumer Research Center, "The widespread feeling among many Americans that their jobs aren't providing the satisfaction they once did is likely to be a growing concern for management" (in Shea, 2002, p. 28).

Surprisingly, an August 2008 Gallup Poll showed that 48% of U.S. workers feel "completely satisfied" with their jobs; the highest percentage over the past eight years (Saad, 2008).

Many researchers argued that people work for various reasons, the most obvious one being money; however, money is not what keeps people working (Greenberg & Baron, 2008). Reflecting on the report of the Conference Board, the most dissatisfied group in their study was those earning less than \$15,000 a year, compared with the most satisfied (i.e. those in the income category of \$50,000 and above) ("Job Satisfaction Declines", 2007; Stafford, 2007). While only about one-third of the study respondents indicated satisfaction with their income, almost fifty percent indicated satisfaction with their fringe benefits-namely, vacation and sick leave policies (Stafford, 2007). However; all other benefits such as health, pension and retirement plans, and other leave, were sources of discontent among survey respondents (Stafford, 2007). The highest satisfaction ratings were: (1) satisfaction with their co-workers-57.7%; and (2) satisfaction with their supervisors-52.7% (Stafford, 2007). In a new online poll, involving 6,624 Canadians, 45% of participants indicated that "personal satisfaction" was their top motivator ("Personal Satisfaction Tops Money", 2009). While in the same survey, 29 % said money, 21% indicated that "respect from colleagues or the boss" motivates them the most, and 5% cited promotion opportunity as their top reason to be motivated to do a good job ("Personal Satisfaction Tops Money", 2009).

In an empirical study, Ghazzawi (2008-a) concluded that overall IT professionals are dissatisfied with their company policies, their chances for advancement, and their pay. On the other hand, IT professionals' highest satisfaction factors include their ability to keep busy, their ability to do things that don't go against their conscience, job security, the chance to work alone on the job, the chance to try their own methods of doing the job, the way co-workers get along with each other, and the working conditions.

Job Satisfaction

Robbins and Judge (2009), broadly defined job satisfaction as "a positive feeling about a job resulting from an evaluation of its characteristics" (p. 83). Similarly, George and Jones (2008) stated that job satisfaction is "the collection of feelings and beliefs that people have about their current jobs. People's levels or degrees of job satisfaction can range from extreme satisfaction to extreme dissatisfaction" (p. 84). To Kreitner and Kinicki (2007), job satisfaction is essentially the extent to which someone likes his or her job, while Nelson and Quick (2009) define it as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences" (p. 56). Additionally, it reflects the extent to which people are gratified or get the sense of fulfillment that is derived from their job (Griffin & Moorhead, 2007).

Some studies on the subject of job satisfaction suggest that job satisfaction is the opposite of job dissatisfaction (Beam, Kim, & Voakes, 2003; Ewen, Hulin, & Smith, 1966). Ewen et al. concluded that if the presence of a factor leads to satisfaction, then its absence will eventually lead to dissatisfaction. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) developed the "Two-Factor Theory of job satisfaction". The development of this theory was based on interview of more than two hundred accountants and engineers in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania to determine the factors responsible for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). The findings of these interviews led Herzberg and associates to conclude that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are associated with completely separate and distinct clusters of factors (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg et al. (1959) suggested that job satisfaction was frequently related to outcomes associated with the work itself. These factors include: (1) achievement, (2) chance for personal growth, (3) recognition, (4) responsibility/stimulating work, and (5) promotion opportunities. Herzberg et al. (1959) labeled these factors "motivators" since they were associated with strong levels of job satisfaction.

On the other hand, job dissatisfaction was associated primarily with factors surrounding the job (Gordon, 2002; Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg, 2003). These factors include: (1) the physical working conditions, (2) job security, (3) company policies, (4) quality of supervision, (5) salary, and (6) relations with others (Gordon, 2002; Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 1987; Herzberg, 2003). These factors were labeled as the hygiene (maintenance) factors and the authors suggested that they are not motivational per se (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg and

associates also noted that employees who satisfy their hygiene factors will show reduced job dissatisfaction as regards their working conditions (Herzberg et al., 1959).

Based on extensive research of job satisfaction, individual needs and personal aspirations largely determine attitude in this regard—that is, satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Griffin & Moorhead, 2007). It is important to note here that a person's job requires interactions with coworkers, superiors, and subordinates; the following organizational policies, rules, and operating procedures; meeting performance standards, and coping with the environment of work and its conditions; to name a few (Robbins & Judge, 2009; Griffin & Moorhead, 2007). Therefore, assessing people's satisfaction or dissatisfaction in the workplace is not a simple task (Ghazzawi, 2008-b).

Organizations with satisfied employees tend to have the lowest employee turnover rates while making their organizations successful (Dalton, 2004; Grant, 1998; Grugulis, 2007; Kent, 2005; Phifer, 1978; Stammen, 2003). According to Stammen (2003), happy and healthy workers help boost the image of their organization by being more productive and by taking care of customers better. Accordingly, "happy employees are likely to be more motivated, engaged, committed, and loyal to their employers" ("Happiness Research", 2007, p. 53).

Dimensions of Job Satisfaction

Based on empirical studies, it was determined that satisfaction stems from 20 different dimensions including: (1) recognition, (2) compensation, (3) supervision, (4) job security, and (5) advancement on the job, to name a few (Weiss, England, & Lofquist, 1967). Based on that, researchers at the University of Minnesota developed what is known today as the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire or MSQ (Weiss et al., 1967). In addition to that, researchers at Cornell University developed the Job Descriptive Index "JDI" for the purpose of assessing one's satisfaction with the following job related factors: (1) work, (2) pay, (3) promotions, (4) coworkers, and (5) supervision; (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969).

ANTECEDENTS OF JOB SATISFACTION OR DISSATISFACTION

Based on the review of literature, the antecedents of job satisfaction as discussed below are: (1) Personality-Dispositional/Genetic; (2) values-extrinsic and intrinsic; (3) work situation; (4) social influence; and (5) life satisfaction (George, 1992; George & Jones, 2008; Ghazzawi, 2008-b; Ghazzawi & Smith, 2009; Judge & Locke, 1993; Staw & Ross, 1985; Staw & Cohen-Charash, 2005; Watson & Slack, 1993).

Personality-Dispositional/Genetic

Personality affects how an individual thinks and feels about a job. Many scholars have concluded that a person's disposition can have a significant effect their job attitudes, which in turn will reflect positively or negatively on job satisfaction (George, 1992; Judge & Locke, 1993; Staw & Ross, 1985; Staw & Cohen-Charash, 2005; Watson & Slack, 1993). The Dispositional/genetic factors attributed to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction are partly the result of an individual's personality traits and genetic components; it was determined that those factors can accurately predict job satisfaction and a person's life satisfaction and well-being (Arvey, Bouchard, Segal, & Abraham, 1989; Weiss, Nicolas, & Daus, 1999; Staw & Ross, 1985).

Values-Extrinsic Versus Intrinsic

Based on research findings, value- is positively associated with job satisfaction (Hochwarter, Perrewe', Ferris, & Brymer, 1999; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2007; Perrewe' & Hocwarter, 2001). An employee, whose intrinsic values involve the expectation that work should be satisfying regardless of compensation, is more likely to be satisfied than a person with weak intrinsic values (George & Jones, 2008). On the other hand, an employee with a strong extrinsic work values-(that is, values associated with the outcomes of the job); is more likely to be satisfied with a higher paying job regardless of its type, compared with a person with week extrinsic values (George & Jones, 2008; Ellickson, 2002; Price & Mueller, 1981; Ting, 1997; Iverson & Maguire, 2000).

Work Situation

Work situation is one of the strongest determining factors of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction (George & Jones, 2008). It relates to how interesting, or boring the job is. Additionally; the physical work environment, the quality of interaction with coworkers and customers, and the way an organization treats its employees are some of the factors which can influence an employee's satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Brief, 1998; George & Jones, 2008).

Social Influence

Social influence is another factor in job satisfaction. It is "the influence that individuals or groups have on a person's attitudes and behavior" (George & Jones, 2008, p. 87). An individual's coworkers, work groups, teams, and even the culture that he/she grows up in, all have the potential to affect job satisfaction (George & Jones, 2008).

Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction, meaning happiness, is proved through empirical research to have a strong correlation with performance (Jones, 2006; Judge and Hulin, 1993; Vroom, 1964). People with happy lives are more likely to be satisfied at work than people with unhappy lives (Judge & Hulin, 1993).

CONSEQUENCES OF JOB SATISFACTION OR DISSATISFACTION

Many studies have concluded that there is a weak correlation between job satisfaction and job performance (Iaffaldano, & Muchinsky, 1985). Based on the review of literature, the consequences of job satisfaction as discussed below are: (1) organizational commitment, (2) organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and (3) employee well-being (George, 1992; George & Jones, 2008; Ghazzawi, 2008-b; Ghazzawi & Smith, 2009; Judge & Locke, 1993; Robbins and Judge, 2009; Rue & Byars, 2005). However, the consequences of job dissatisfaction are: (1) absenteeism, (2) turnover intentions, and (3) turnover (George, 1992; George & Jones, 2008; Ghazzawi, 2008-b; Ghazzawi & Smith, 2009; Judge & Locke, 1993; Robbins and Judge, 2009).

Organizational Commitment, Turnover Intention, and Turnover

Based on the results of 178 independent samples from 155 studies using meta-analysis, job satisfaction and organizational commitment independently contributed to turnover intention and withdrawal cognitions, and turnover intention and cognitions were highly correlated to job satisfaction (Tett & Meyer, 1993). According to Rue and Byars (2005), job satisfaction results in an increased commitment to one's organization, while job dissatisfaction leads to negative outcomes that include absenteeism, tardiness, turnover, and strikes.

Studies on job satisfaction concluded that extrinsic factors continue to have an important effect on employee turnover, while intrinsic satisfaction has more effects than extrinsic factors, and play an even greater role in employee turnover behavior (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1980; Randolph, 2005; Tang, Kim, & Tang, 2000; Udechukwu, 2007).

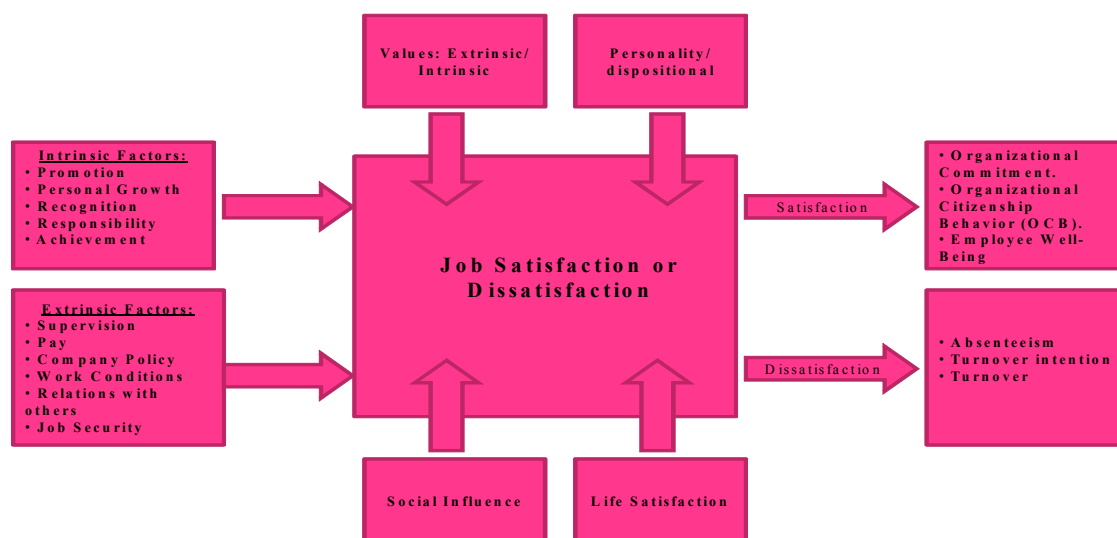
O'Reilly and Caldwell (1980) argued that the factors considered important by individuals when deciding on a job, as well as what they have experienced on the job, are correlated with their subsequent organizational commitment and satisfaction. In addition, there is a positive relationship that exists between job satisfaction and organizational commitment (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1980).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)

Organizational citizenship behavior is behavior (such as altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and peacemaking) involving individuals who help others on the job without expecting rewards (Bies, 1989; George & Jones, 2008; Organ, 1988). Using a meta-analytic review of 55 studies; Organ & Ryan (1995), suggested that job satisfaction is more strongly related to organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) than to performance, at least among non-professional and non-managerial groups. Other researchers concluded that job satisfaction is positively correlated with work behaviors that are voluntary and not demanded by organizations (George & Jones, 2008; Organ, 1990).

Employee Well-being

Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of Factors Affecting Job satisfaction Based on Literature Review



*Figure 1. Conceptual Framework of Factors Affecting Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction. From *Job satisfaction antecedents and consequences: A new conceptual framework and research agenda*, by Issam Ghazzawi, 2008. The Business Review, Cambridge. Vol. 11, No. 2, pp. 1-10. Used with permission of the author.*

According to George and Jones (2008), a happy, healthy, and successful employee is a probable result of job satisfaction (George & Jones, 2008). The result of job satisfaction is focused toward the employee rather than her/his organization. “Being dissatisfied with one’s job for a major

portion of one's working life almost certainly adversely affects well-being and general happiness" (George & Jones, 2008, p. 97). Accordingly; many studies concluded that job satisfaction correlates positively with overall employee well-being (George & Jones, 2008; Schmitt & Bedeian, 1982). Figure 1 summarizes the conceptual framework of the factors affecting job satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

GENDER AND JOB SATISFACTION

Little research exists on the effect of gender and job satisfaction (Clark, 1997; Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001; Jung & Moon, 2007), but such studies have yielded conflicting outcomes (Al-Ajmi, 2006; Hickson & Oshagbemi, 1999; Jung & Moon, 2007). While some studies have concluded that women are more satisfied than men (Clark, 1997; De Rijk, Nijhuis, & Alexanderson, 2009), other studies indicated the opposite outcome (i.e. that men are more satisfied) (Forgionne & Peeters, 1982; Chusmir, 1981). In a newly-released study of job satisfaction among full time faculty in 10 medical schools, the Association of American Medical Colleges (2008), in partnership with the Collaborative on Academic Careers in Higher Education (COACHE) concluded that gender differences do affect work outcomes. For example, male faculty responding to the survey "more often agreed or strongly agreed that the workplace culture at their institution cultivates collegiality than did the women" (The Association of Medical Colleges, 2008, p. 1). In addition, gender differences were also apparent with respect to opportunities for promotion, and pay and compensation; women were significantly less satisfied compared with their male colleagues (The Association of Medical Colleges, 2008).

On the other hand, other studies concluded that there are no differences between U.S. women and men in managerial positions when it comes to sources of satisfaction at work (Bender, Donohue, and Heywood, 2005; Eskildsen, Kristensen, & Westlund, 2004; Mason, 1995; Mason, 1997).

In a study titled "why are women so happy at work," Clark (1997) concluded that women are happier than men because they have lower expectations from the workplace than do men. According to The Conference Board of Canada report, "executive women face unique challenges reconciling their work and personal lives, and many make career decisions based on how organizations help them to manage work/life issues ("Executive women in Canada", 2003, p.12).

In a study of job satisfaction among academics in the United Kingdom, Oshagbemi and Hickson (2003) found a strong positive relationship between satisfaction and gender. This study indicated that female in academia are more satisfied than their male counterparts. In another study on the effect of gender on job satisfaction in Korea, Jung and Moon (2007) suggested that female employees seem to have a "slightly higher level of perceived job satisfaction in some areas (wages and work environment), probably because they compare themselves to unemployed or underemployed females rather than to their male colleagues" (143). While this is an interesting finding, said gender effect could be influenced by the Korean culture and therefore its applicability to other cultural settings is limited. In addition, Bashaw (1998) in a study of gender, earnings, and

job satisfaction among U.S. physicians. concluded that male physicians are more likely than female physicians to report being very dissatisfied with their job and not happy with their career choice. Additionally, “male physicians were much less likely to report very satisfied and very happy compared to female physicians” (Bashaw, 1998, pp. 57-58).

When Forgionne and Peeters (1982) studied differences in job motivation among first-level management positions, their results indicated greater satisfaction among male managers than among female managers. The same study indicated that young and inexperienced female managers are more highly motivated by recognition (Forgionne & Peeters). However, in a study on the job satisfaction of police officers, Dantzker & Kubin (1998) concluded that no relationship existed between gender and job satisfaction, and suggested that job satisfaction variables may have some gender relationship when combined with other variables, such as rank, ethnicity, age, education, and years of experience.

According to Mason (1992), no observed differences in job satisfaction should be attributable to gender; but rather to other random variables that systematically occur at the same time period and could impact gender. In support of these findings, Eskildsen, Kristensen, and Westlund (2004); in their study of work motivation and job satisfaction in the Nordic countries concluded that there are no gender differences with respect to job satisfaction. Similarly in 2004, Donohue and Heywood concluded that no gender differences exist; however “job satisfaction of women is less sensitive to both actual and comparison earnings than that of men” (211). Bender, Donohue, and Heywood (2005) suggested that in female-dominated organizational settings, women may report higher job satisfaction for reasons related to the fact they value flexibility, and their choice of said female-dominated workplace.

JOB SATISFACTION IN THE INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY PROFESSION

The U.S. Department of Labor-Bureau of Labor Statistics (2009-a), stated that the employment growth in the technology sector is projected to be faster than average as the use of technology and the high demand for technical workers is increasing in the workplace. Accordingly, “the employment of computer and information systems managers is expected to grow 16 percent over the 2006-16 decade, which is *faster than the average* for all occupations” (U.S. Department of Labor, 2009-b: Para. 2). While the employment of computer systems analysts is projected to grow by 29 % over the 2006 to 2016 time period, the employment of computer software engineers is projected to grow by 38 % over the same time period (U.S. Department of Labor, 2009-a). This projected increase for the computer software engineers is much faster than the average for all occupations (U.S. Department of Labor, 2009-a).

Contrary to the above-mentioned positive outlook, the employment of computer programmers is expected to decrease by 4 percent from 2006 to 2016 (U.S. Department of Labor-Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009-c). This decrease will be a “result of the consolidation and

centralization of systems and applications, developments in packaged software, advances in programming languages and tools, and the growing ability of users to design, write, and implement more of their own programs mean that more programming functions can be performed by other types of information workers, such as computer software engineers” (U.S. Department of Labor-Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009-c: Para. 36).

It is no secret that the number of women working in the field of information technology has declined since 2000 (Cone, 2007). In the U. S., women make up a small percentage of employed IT professionals (Chabrow, 2007). According to Chabrow, “in 2000, 984,000 women worked in eight IT occupation categories tracked by the Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics: managers, computer scientists/systems analysts, programmers, software engineers, support specialists, database administrators, network/computer systems administrators, and network systems/data communications analysts. That year, women made up 28.9 percent of the nearly 3.41 million employed IT workers” (Para. 2).

Today's information technology's job conditions are completely different than the era of the nineties. IT professionals are no longer “job hoppers”; their job mobility is much lower now than it was in the nineties (Vu, 2006). According to the IT World Canada Salary Survey (2008), job satisfaction among IT professionals in Canada seems to be high. Similarly, Network World (2007) reported that only 22 % of their IT respondents were dissatisfied with their jobs overall. In the same survey, IT professionals rated family friendliness (i.e. work environment) as the most important factor in their satisfaction, followed by job security, flexible work schedule, proximity to home, and leave (vacation, holidays, etc.). In the same study, Information Technology professionals' least important factors were: (1) annual raises, (2) performance incentives/bonuses, (3) advancement potential, and (4) stock options (Network World, 2007). Similarly, Murphy (2007) indicated that job stability and security are not a major concern for IT pros. In Murphy's study, 40% of IT managers and 34% of IT staff indicated that creating innovative IT solutions is a most important factor (2007).

Ghazzawi (2008-a), concluded IT pros are generally satisfied. Their top satisfactions factors were: ability to keep busy all the time; ability to do things that don't go against their conscience; employment security; the chance to work alone on the job; the chance to try their own methods of doing the job; supportive co-workers; working conditions; chances to do things for other people; opportunities to do different things from time to time (71%); and the chance to do something that makes use of abilities. On the contrary, their key sources of job dissatisfaction were: company policies and practices; opportunities for advancement; pay, and amount of work.

In another study, Cummings (2007) indicated that working conditions/ work environment, the corporate culture, IT peers, and the challenge derived from the job itself are the top rated factors in job satisfaction. On the other hand, according to the same study, titled “The best and worst of working in IT”; Cummings (2007) found that the greatest source of frustration for IT pros stemmed from two factors: working long hours to resolve technical issues or to complete an implementation,

or being placed on call to take care of any technical issues at anytime; and dealing with politics and red tape when a decision needs to be made quickly.

In a recent survey by the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) of more than 210,000 federal workers, ninety-one percent of the survey participants indicated that the work they do is important, and 84 percent said they like what they do (Davidson, 2009). The objective of this OPM survey was to gauge federal employees' attitudes in four areas: leadership and knowledge management, results-oriented performance culture, talent management, and job satisfaction (Davidson, 2009). Additionally, that survey identified the highest job satisfaction in the following agencies: "Nuclear Regulatory Commission, Agency for International Development, Social Security Administration, Court Services and Offender Supervision Agency, Federal Energy Regulatory Commission and Justice Department" (Davidson, 2009: Para. 7).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study investigates the factors contributing to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction among men and women working in information technology professions in the United States. This research paper attempts to determine whether gender has an impact on job satisfaction.

The research method for this study was based on an empirical study and descriptive statistics-using the Chi-Square test with 95% confidence level to determine if differences in job satisfaction are impacted by IT professionals' gender and what are the factors that moderate such differences.

The major part of the study included a survey of 132 (33 women and 99 men) IT professionals from various U.S. Southern California organizations. Of the nearly 165 participants solicited from these organizations or their branches, 132 individuals volunteered to participate in the current study and actually completed and returned the survey (response rate of 80%).

Data were collected using the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire "MSQ", the general satisfaction scale "the short form". This general satisfaction scale consists of 20 items, one item from each of the original 20 scales (Lester & Bishop, 2000; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist 1967). MSQ's short form was used with a permission of Vocational Psychology Research, University of Minnesota.

IT Professional: An Empirical Definition

For this study, "IT professional" is defined as any employee who is involved in technical service and support, IT management, IT networks, system integration and development, application development, web design, project management, IT procurement, technical end-user support, IT solutions implementation, IT infrastructure, Internet Protocol, or IT solutions sales and support (Ghazzawi, 2008-a).

Procedure

Participation in this study was voluntary and survey responses were confidential. Participants were asked to sign a consent form identifying the purpose of this study and indicating their awareness that their participation in this study was voluntary and that they had the right to withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. In addition, respondents were given the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire “MSQ” short form containing the 20 question-general satisfaction scale to indicate their satisfaction or dissatisfaction with research variables along a five-point scale. Additionally, participants were asked to indicate their gender.

Participants returned their completed survey to the researcher in person or in a provided envelope. To ensure the validity and the confidentiality of the collected information, participants were guaranteed that all information would remain confidential and would be disclosed only with participant’s permission or as required by law. Confidentiality was maintained by means of separating the consent forms from survey questionnaires

Participants and Setting

The sample in this survey included 33 women (25% of survey’s sample) and 99 men (75% of survey’s sample). Fifty six percent of the participants (n=74) work for technology organizations, while the remaining forty four percent (n=58) work in IT departments in non-IT organizations that includes manufacturing, higher education, financial, non-profit, and service organizations. Respondents’ age distributions were as follows: (1), 11% (n=15) 25 or under; (2), 34% (n=45) 26-35; (3), 26% (n=34) 36-45; (4), 23% (n=31) 46-55; (5), 5% (n=6) 56; and (6), 1% (n=1) did not specify age. As far as respondents’ education; while 1% (n=1) did not answer this question; 17% of the respondents (n=23) have a high school education only; 20% (n=27) have an associate degree; 39% (n=51) have bachelors degree; 22% (n=29) have a graduate degree; and 1% (n=1) has a doctoral degree.

Respondents’ titles included service managers, technical support personnel, IT administrative support, engineers, system engineers, senior IT managers and directors, webmasters, program analysts, IT sales personnel, IT customer service personnel, application developers, system analysts, and IT procurement personnel. The median number of years respondents had worked for their organizations was 5.5 years. Table 1 summarizes the sample characteristics.

Table 1: Characteristics of Sample (N= 132)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage %	Variable	Frequency	Percentage %
Gender			Education		
Male	99	75	High school	23	17
Female	33	56	Ass. degree	27	20
			Bachelor's degree	51	39
Age			Graduate degree	29	22
25 and under	15	11	Doctoral degree	1	1
26 to 35	45	34	No response	1	1
36 to 45	34	26			
46 to 55	31	23	Organizational Type		
56 and over	6	5	Technology	74	56
No response	1	1	Education	15	11
			Non-profit	11	8
Org. Tenure*	5.5 years		Service	16	12
			Manufacturing	5	4
Title			Other	11	8
Service manager	7	5			
Tech. support	21	16	Organizational Size		
IT. Admin. Support	17	13	<100 employees	17	13
Engineer/Sys. Eng.	38	29	100-999	72	54
Sr. IT manager/Dir.	11	8	1,000-4,999	10	8
Other IT titles	38	29	5,000-9,999	16	12
			>10,000	16	12
			No response	1	1

* Years working for the same organization

CONSTRUCTS AND MEASURES

Scaling

Respondents to this study were asked to indicate their satisfaction or dissatisfaction along a five-point scale: Very dissatisfied = 1; dissatisfied = 2; neither satisfied or dissatisfied = 3; satisfied = 4; and very satisfied = 5. The survey that was used in this study is based on the 20-item

short form of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire “MSQ”. All sub-scales were used with their actual words.

Questionnaire Reliability

While the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire “MSQ” is one of the most popular and frequently used instruments for measuring job satisfaction (Lester and Bishop, 2000), its 20-item form “general satisfaction scale” was created by extracting the item with the highest correlation from each of the original 20 scales (Lester & Bishop, 2000; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist 1967). This survey is based on an MSQ that has the Hoyt reliability coefficients for 27 normative groups ranging from 0.93 in advancement and recognition to 0.78 in responsibility (Lester & Bishop, 2000; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist 1967).

Validity

The construct validity for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire “MSQ” is supported by the validation studies of the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire, which are based on the Theory of Work Adjustment of which “A detailed description is provided in the manual for the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire” (Lester & Bishop, 2000, p.154). According to Lester and Bishop (2000), the concurrent validity was established by way of studying group differences in satisfaction. Additionally, “one-way analysis of variance and Bartlett’s test of homogeneity of variance were performed on 25 occupational groups. Group differences were statistically significant at the 0.001 level for both means and variances on all 21 MSQ scales” (Lester and Bishop, 2000, p.154). In this study, while participation was voluntary, participating information technology professionals were randomly selected from various Southern California organizations.

Hypothesis 1

Null Hypothesis H0: There is no relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and gender among information technology professionals. IT men and women have same intrinsic job satisfaction.

Alternative Hypothesis H1: There is a relationship between intrinsic job satisfaction and gender among information technology professionals. IT men and women do not have same intrinsic job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 2

Null Hypothesis H0: There is no relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and gender among information technology professionals. IT men and women have same extrinsic job satisfaction.

Alternative Hypothesis H2: There is a relationship between extrinsic job satisfaction and gender among information technology professionals. IT men and women do not have same extrinsic job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3

Null Hypothesis H0: There is no relationship in overall job satisfaction and gender among information technology professionals. IT men and women have same overall job satisfaction.

Alternative Hypothesis H3: There is a relationship in overall job satisfaction and gender among information technology professionals. IT men and women do not have same overall job satisfaction.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

The primary focus of this study is on the impact of gender on IT professionals' job satisfaction through the use of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire "MSQ" -20-item short form that covers the intrinsic, extrinsic, and general job satisfaction.

Measures of intrinsic job satisfaction were derived from technology professional's responses to questions 1,2,3,4,7,8,9,11,15,16, and 20 of the study, and are presented in Table 2 and figure 2. These questions covered the following dimensions: Being able to keep busy all the time; the chance to work alone on the job; the chance to do different things from time to time; the chance to be "somebody" in the community; being able to do things that don't go against my conscience; the way my job provides for steady employment; the chance to do things for other people; the chance to tell people what to do; the chance to do something that makes use of my abilities; the chances for advancement on this job; the freedom to use my own judgment; and the feeling of accomplishment I get from the job.

On the other hand; to measure the extent of IT professional's extrinsic job satisfaction, responses to questions 5, 6,12,13,14, and 19 were used, and are presented in Table 2 and figure 4. These questions are: The way my boss handles his/her workers; the competence of my supervisor in making decisions; the way company policies are put into practice; my pay and the amount of work I do; the chances for advancement on this job; and the praise I get for doing a good job.

Finally, to measure their overall job satisfaction, all aforementioned moderators (intrinsic and extrinsic ones), in addition to factors affecting the working conditions and co-worker relationships, were measured. The overall job factors were covered in questions 1 thru 20, and are presented in Table 2 and figure 5 (see also Manual for Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss et al. 1967). Additionally, one more question was added in order to draw a correlation with the overall job satisfaction. This question was "indicate the extent to which you are satisfied with your current job".

Table 2: Statistical Summary: Mean, Standard Deviation, and a Summary of Respondents level of Job satisfaction or Dissatisfaction (N=132: 99 Males and 33 Females) Based on Gender.								
MSQ Scale*	Mean Male	Mean Female	Diss./V. dissatisfied Male	Diss. /V. dissatisfied Female	Neither Male	Neither Female	Satis./V. satisfied Male	Satis./V. satisfied Female
Being able to keep busy all the time	4.434	4.576	10.1%	6.06%	8.08%	9.09%	81.81%	84.85%
The chance to work alone on the job	4.354	4.515	8.08%	9.09%	16.16%	6.06%	75.76%	84.85%
The chance to do different things from time to time	3.990	4.455	19.19%	6.06%	12.12%	15.15%	68.68%	78.78%
The chance to be "somebody" in the community**	3.653	4.091	20.40%	9.09%	26.53%	27.27%	53.06%	63.64%
The way my boss handles his/her workers	3.444	3.788	30.30%	18.18%	17.17%	24.24%	52.52	57.57
The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	3.626	4.091	25.25%	12.12%	18.18%	21.21%	56.56%	66.66%
Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	4.414	4.758	9.09%	6.06%	11.11%	0.00%	79.79%	93.93%
The way my job provides for steady employment**	4.306	4.515	12.24%	9.09%	10.20%	6.06%	77.55	84.84%
The chance to do things for other people	4.131	4.636	11.11%	0.00%	21.21%	18.18%	67.67%	81.82%
The chance to tell people what to do	3.788	3.970	10.10%	6.06%	40.40%	39.39%	49.49%	54.54%
The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities**	4.000	4.333	16.32%	9.09%	17.35%	15.15%	66.33%	75.76%
The way company policies are put into practice**	3.020	3.303	34.69%	30.30%	29.59%	24.24%	35.71%	45.45%
My pay and the amount of work I do	3.263	3.667	33.33%	21.21%	20.20%	24.24%	46.46%	54.54%
The chances for advancement on this job	2.980	3.485	36.36%	24.24%	28.28%	27.27%	35.35%	48.48%

Table 2: Statistical Summary: Mean, Standard Deviation, and a Summary of Respondents level of Job satisfaction or Dissatisfaction (N=132: 99 Males and 33 Females) Based on Gender.

MSQ Scale*	Mean Male	Mean Female	Diss./V. dissatisfied Male	Diss. /V. dissatisfied Female	Neither Male	Neither Female	Satis./V. satisfied Male	Satis./V. satisfied Female
The freedom to use my own judgment	3.949	4.455	17.17%	0.00%	18.18%	27.27%	64.64%	72.72%
The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	4.091	4.758	17.17%	0.00%	11.11%	12.12%	71.71%	87.87%
The working conditions	4.111	4.455	15.15%	6.06%	14.14%	15.15%	70.71%	78.78%
The way my co-workers get along with each other	4.374	4.576	16.07%	3.03%	17.17%	15.15%	75.76%	81.81%
The praise I get for doing a good job	3.444	4.212	27.27%	9.09%	23.23%	21.21%	49.49%	69.69%
The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	3.889	4.455	18.18%	3.03%	19.19%	21.21%	62.62%	75.75%

*All variables were measured using a 5-point Likert scale where 1= "very dissatisfied", 2= dissatisfied, 3= neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, 4= satisfied, and 5= very satisfied.

** 1 person (i.e. 1%) did not answer this question.

FINDINGS

Using chi-square analysis, this study concluded that gender does not play a role in job satisfaction in the technology profession. This study only found two significant differences related to IT pros based on their gender. These differences are presented below.

Women IT Professionals are Intrinsically as Satisfied as Men IT Professionals

Generally speaking, IT professionals, regardless of their gender, are intrinsically satisfied. More than 50% of all the study respondents are either satisfied or very satisfied. As shown in figure 2, this study found that women showed relatively (albeit not statistically) more intrinsic satisfaction than their fellow male respondents on all intrinsic categories of job satisfaction (i.e. MSQ questions 1,2,3,4,7,8,9,10,11,15,16, and 20).

A very important finding in this study was that, for both genders, lowest intrinsic satisfaction was related to the question of whether IT pros are satisfied with the chance to tell people what to do (i.e. question #10). While half of the study's male respondents (49.49%) indicated that they are satisfied or very satisfied, 54.54% of the women respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they are satisfied on this category. An observation here is that 40% of respondents (of both genders) were neutral on this same question (question #10) "the chance to tell people what to do." This high percentage of "neither satisfied nor dissatisfied" is not surprising; it could be explained by the fact that the most of the study respondents (both males and females) hold non-supervisory positions (Ghazzawi, 2008-a). As it is presented in Table 1; 29% are engineers or system engineers, 29% hold different "other" IT support positions, 16% are technical support, 13% are IT administrative support,

8% are senior IT managers or directors, and 5% are service managers as shown in Table 3 and Figure 3.

Figure 2: IT Professionals Intrinsic Job Satisfaction by Gender

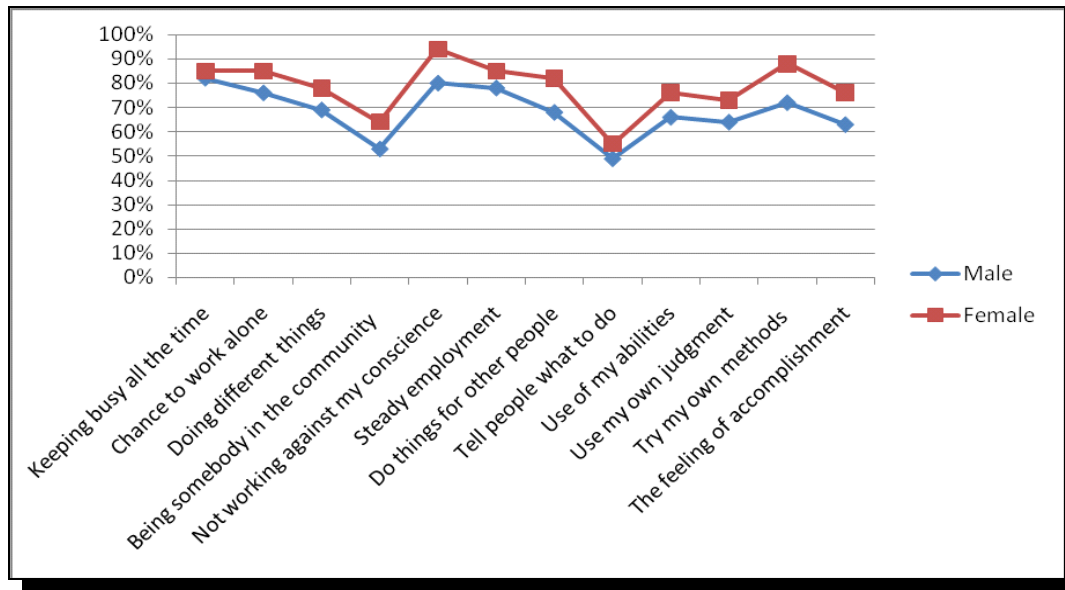


Table 3: Respondents IT Position (N=132: 99 Men and 33 Women)

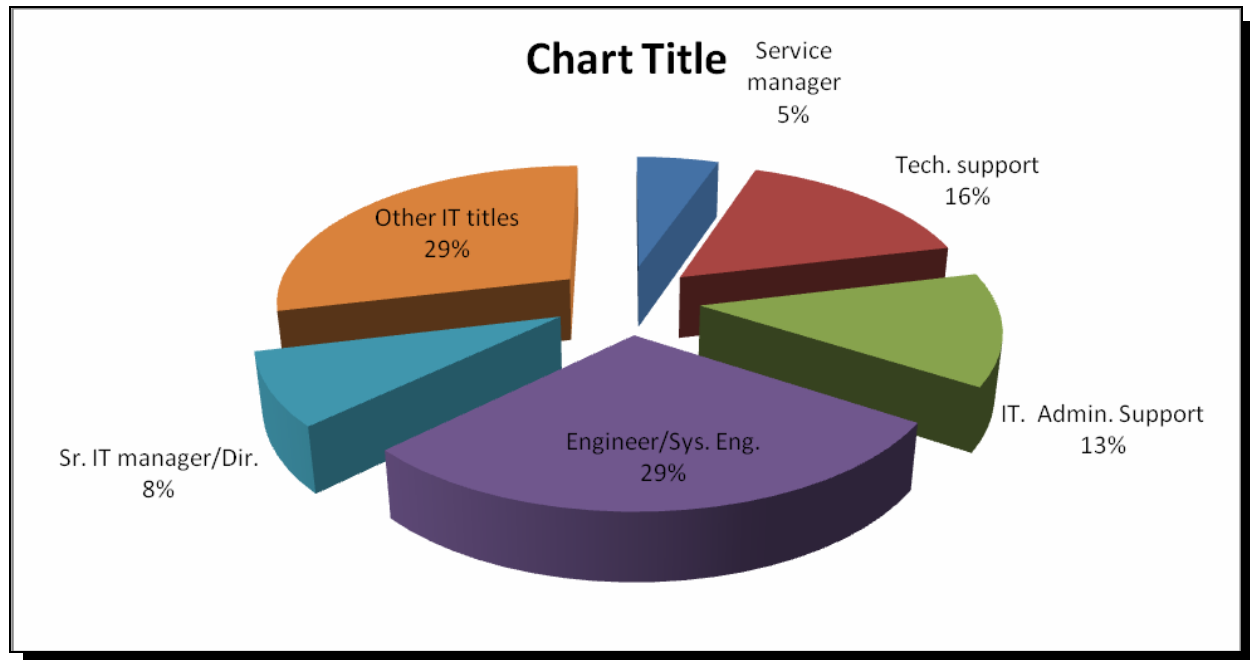
IT Position	Number	%
Service manager	7	5
Tech. support	21	16
IT. Admin. Support	17	13
Engineer/Sys. Eng.	38	29
Sr. IT manager/Dir.	11	8
Other	38	29

Contrary to that finding, while male respondents' highest satisfaction (either satisfied or very satisfied) is related to them being able to keep busy all the time (i.e. question #1), women are still more satisfied on this category (i.e. 85%).

However, the highest percentage of women respondents' intrinsic satisfaction was 94% on the question on of whether they are satisfied or very satisfied with their "ability to do things that don't go against their conscience" (i.e. question # 7) as compared to 80% of men who agreed or

strongly agreed. This shows that ethics and ethical behavior are extremely important in this profession.

Figure 3: Respondents Position in the Organization



Significant Statistical Gender Differences in IT Intrinsic Job Satisfaction

Utilizing Critical Chi-Square with a 95% confidence level to test significant statistically distributions' differences between male and female, the study found only two significant differences in relation to intrinsic satisfaction. These statistically significant differences are related to questions 15 and 16, "the freedom to use my own judgment" and "the chance to try my own methods of doing the job" respectfully. The study significantly concluded the following:

1. Using Critical Chi-Square=9.488 with a 95% confidence level, and degree of freedom=4; the result was that a Pearson Chi-Square = 11.690 > Critical Ch-Square. Based on that, women are significantly more satisfied than men on the factor related to "the freedom to use my own judgment". Accordingly; on this question "the freedom to use my own judgment", 64.64% of male respondents indicated satisfaction (either satisfied or very satisfied) with their freedom to use own judgment as compared to 72.72% of female respondents. On the same question, while 17.17% of male respondents indicated that they are dissatisfied or very dissatisfied; no female (i.e. 0% of female) indicated the same response. The most satisfied

groups on this question regardless of their gender were, respectively: service managers (86%), then IT administrative support people (82%), and then the least satisfied groups were the technical support people (48%).

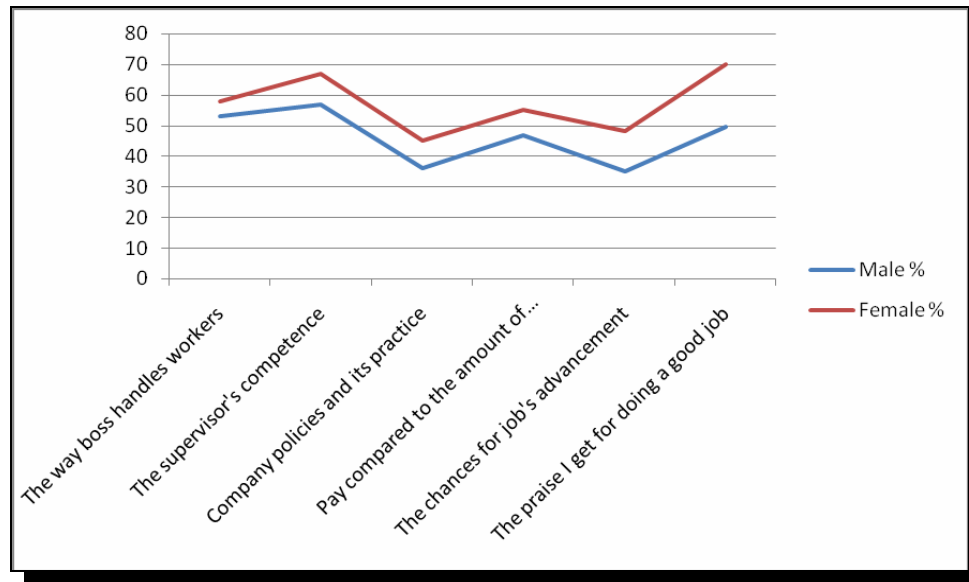
2. Using Critical Chi-Square=9.488 with a 95% confidence level, and degree of freedom=4; the result was that a Pearson Chi-Square = 9.595 > Critical Chi-Square. Based on that, women are significantly more satisfied than men on the factor related to “the chance to try my own methods of doing the job”. Based on that question “the chance to try my own methods of doing the job”; 72% of male respondents indicated satisfaction (either satisfied or very satisfied) with the chance to try their own methods of doing the job as compared to 88% of female respondents. While 17% of male respondents indicated that they are dissatisfied or very dissatisfied, no female (0%) indicated dissatisfaction on this category. On this question; the most satisfied groups regardless of gender were, respectively: administrative support personnel (94%), then senior IT managers/directors (91%); and the least satisfied groups were both (tie) service managers and the technical support people (57%).

Gender, Information Technology Professionals, and Extrinsic Job Satisfaction

Based on the study outcomes, IT professionals regardless of their gender are extrinsically satisfied overall. Based on the MSQ survey outcomes, IT pros’ highest extrinsic satisfaction (i.e. MSQ questions 5, 6, 12, 13, 14, and 19) pertains to the way the boss handles workers (53% male vs. 58% female), the competence of the supervisor in making decisions (57% male vs. 67% female), and the praise they get for doing a good job (49% male vs. 70% female). Overall, those same respondents are dissatisfied with how company policies are put into practice, their chances for advancement, and their pay as compared to the amount of work. Please see table 2 and figure 4.

A very important finding here is that the highest rating on the question of satisfaction with “the way the boss handles his/her workers” came from administrative support personnel (82%), while the lowest (most dissatisfied) people in this category were the technical support personnel (38%). Consistent with this finding, the highest satisfaction with supervisory decision-making competence came also from administrative support personnel (94%); and the lowest (least satisfied) people in this category were also the technical support personnel (43%). Another consistent finding is that administrative support personnel were the most satisfied with the praise they get for doing a good job (94%), while the lowest (least satisfied) group consisted of senior IT managers/directors (27%), followed by technical support personnel (29%).

Based on the aforementioned findings, it seems that technical support people, regardless of their gender, are the least satisfied people, while administrative support are the most satisfied group.

Figure 4: IT Professionals Extrinsic Job Satisfaction by Gender

While women are relatively more satisfied than men on all extrinsic categories of job satisfaction as shown in figure 4; utilizing Critical Chi-Square with a 95% confidence level to test significant statistically distributions' differences between male and female, the study concluded that there are no statistically significant distribution differences between males and females on extrinsic job satisfaction.

General Satisfaction, IT Professionals, and Gender

IT Professionals are Generally Satisfied

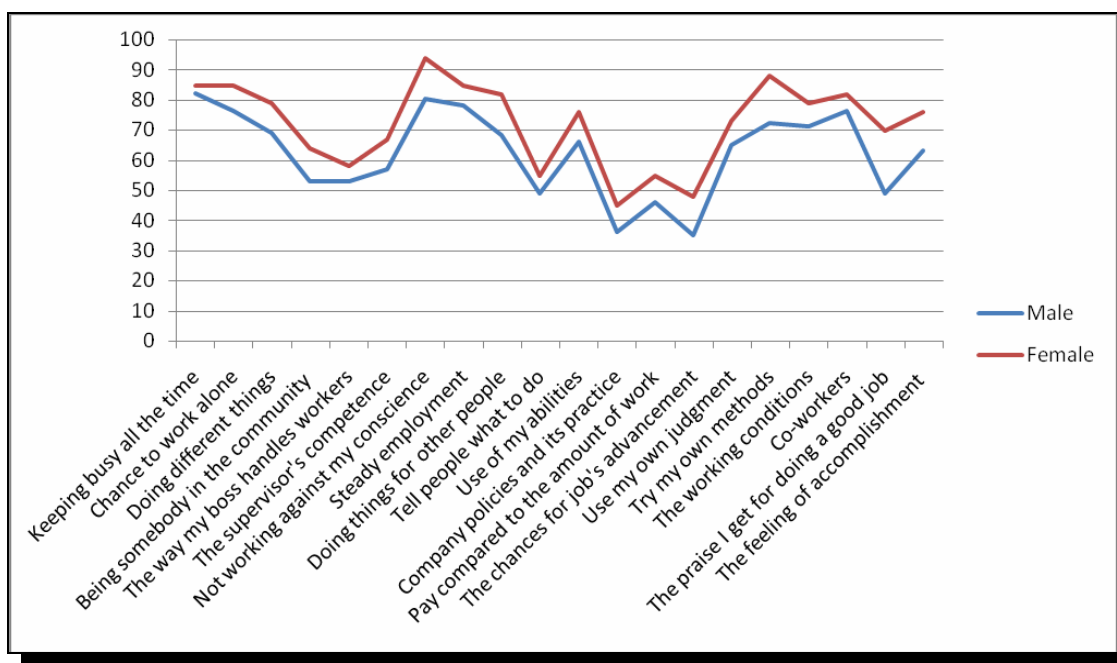
Based on the participants' response (as provided in Table 2 and Figure 5), this study concluded that technology professionals are generally satisfied regardless of their gender. Their highest satisfaction is on the question regarding their ability to do things that don't go against their conscience – question 7 (Male 80% vs. female 94%).

Consistent with their intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, the sources of male technology professionals' general satisfaction (i.e. the outcomes of questions 1 through 20) were: 1) Able to keep busy all the time (82%); 2) able to do things that don't go against my conscience (80%); 3) the way the job provides for steady employment (78%); 4) the chance to work alone on the job (76%) and the way co-workers get along with each other (76%); 5) the chance to try own methods of doing the job (76%); 6) the working conditions (72%); 7) the chance to do different things from time to

time (69%); 8) the chance to do things for other people (68%); 9) the chance to do something that makes use of abilities (66%); and 10) the chance to use my own judgment (65%).

On the other hand, female technology professionals' highest job satisfaction came from the following factors: 1) Able to do things that don't go against my conscience (94%); 2) the chance to try own methods of doing the job (88%); 3) able to keep busy all the time (82%), the chance to work alone on the job (85%), and the way the job provides for steady employment (85%); 4) the chance to do things for other people (82%) and the way co-workers get along with each other (82%); 5) the chance to do different things from time to time (79%) and the working conditions (79%); 6) the feeling of accomplishment (76%) and the chance to do something that makes use of abilities (76%); 7) the chance to use my own judgment (73%); the praise I get for doing a good job (70%); 8) The competence of my supervisor in making decisions (67%); 9) The chance to be "somebody" in the community (64%); and 10) the way my boss handles his/her workers (58%).

Figure 5: IT Professionals General Job Satisfaction by Gender



IT Professionals' Sources of Job Dissatisfaction by Gender

Based on the respondents' survey, IT professionals' key sources of job satisfaction stem from: 1) The chances for advancement (35% male vs. 48% female); 2) their company policies and

the way are put into practice (male 36% vs. female 45%); 3) pay and the amount of work (46% male vs. 55% female); and 4) the chance to tell people what to do (49% male vs. 55% female).

Although these factors are their lowest job satisfaction, 28% of male and 27% of female respondents indicated not being satisfied on the question of their chances for advancement on this job. In addition to that, 30% of male and 24% female respondents indicated not being satisfied on the question of company policies and the way are put into practice. On the question of pay as compared to the amount of pay, 20 of the male and 24% of the female respondents were neutral on this question. Finally, 40% of male respondents and 39% of female respondents indicated that they are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied with the chance to tell people what to do.

CONCLUSION, LIMITATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Conclusions

The purpose of this paper was to explore whether male and female technology professionals report different levels of job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, and general satisfaction) through the use of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire “MSQ”, the general satisfaction scale “the short form”. This research examined the factors that are purported to influence job satisfaction male and female professionals in the technology industry. By using a sample of 33 IT women and 99 IT men from various U.S. Southern California organizations, the current research adds to the knowledge on the effect of gender on job satisfaction among information technology professionals in the U.S.

The analysis tested the hypothesis that information technology professionals’ intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall job satisfactions are not influenced by an individual’s gender. The resulting analysis accepts the study’s null hypotheses that information technology professionals’ gender difference has no effect on their perceived job satisfaction (intrinsic, extrinsic, and overall). This conclusion is based on the use of a Chi-Square with a 95% confidence level and doing an inter-correlation of this study variable (i.e. gender) to all the 20 MSQ questions.

Additionally, this study concluded that major sources of job satisfaction of IT professionals regardless of their gender were: 1) able to keep busy all the time (male 82% vs. female 85%); 2) able to do things that don’t go against my conscience (male 80% vs. female 94%); 3) the way the job provides for steady employment (male 78% vs. female 85%); 4) the chance to work alone on the job (male 76% vs. female 85%) and the way co-workers get along with each other (76% male vs. 82% female); 5) the chance to try own methods of doing the job (72% male vs. 88% female).

On the other hand; the major sources of job dissatisfaction experienced by both male and female IT professionals were: 1) the chances for advancement (male 35 vs. female 48%); 2) the way company policies are put into practice (male 36% female 45%); and 3) pay and the amount of work (male 46 vs. female 55%) and 5) the chance to tell people what to do (male 49% female 55%).

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The current research adds to the knowledge of the role of gender on job satisfaction. The current study is limited by its focus on the information technology in one region of the United States (i.e. Southern California). Thus, caution is in order when generalizing results to other professions (private or public) or other countries. Another limitation of this study was that it used a convenient sample of IT professionals. Thus future research might produce different results with a different sample. As a result, further research with a larger sample is needed to extrapolate the validity of these findings to the general population of IT professionals.

The study also suggests that qualitative studies and semi-structured interviews with focus IT professionals groups are needed to further examine and validate the causal relationship between job satisfaction and gender. Finally, a major limitation of this study was that it only focused on information technology professionals; meaning that the generalization of its findings to other professions is not valid. To offset this limitation, the study recommends meta-analysis research studies among other professions.

MANAGERIAL IMPLICATIONS

This paper has several practical implications for managers in general and for those who work closely with information technology personnel. Managers can use data presented in this research paper showing gender differences in job satisfaction to help improve the work environments of their organizations. The following are the research implications.

First, it is apparent in this study that female representation in the information technology field is closer to parity as compared with male representation. For example, the study survey sample was comprised of 25% women (n=33) and 75% men (n=99); that is 3 men to 1 women. Our study validates other studies on gender differences in information technology by confirming that women are underrepresented in this field (Beyer, 2008; McKinney, Wilson, Brooks, O'Leary-Kelly, & Hardgrave, 2008; Rosenbloom, Ash, DuPont, & Coder, 2008). Based on that, females should be encouraged in secondary schools and higher educational institutions to pursue a major and intern a career in information technology. According to Beyer, 2008, "women's computer self-efficacy needs to be increased perhaps by offering research or teaching assistantship to qualified female students" (14).

Second, to reduce dissatisfaction with company policies and the way they are put into practice, managers need to promote transparency and consistency in applying rules and policies so that employees understand the bases of these rules or procedures. In addition to that, managers may want to make decisions in an unbiased manner to ensure equitable treatment of employees irrespective of gender.

Third, to reduce dissatisfaction with pay as compared to the amount of work, managers and employees need to discuss performance goals and clearly identify the amount of work needed to be performed by employees (Ghazzawi, 2007; Ghazzawi, 2008-a). As an effective way to satisfy employees in general and IT professionals (in our case), managers should tie agreed-upon employee performance goals to an effective reward system, thereby giving employees the types of job perks they most desire. (Ghazzawi, 2007; Ghazzawi, 2008-a; Greenberg & Baron, 2008). According to Ghazzawi (2007) it is important that managers involve employees in their goals' formulation process as these goals directly affect their performance. In addition to that, a timely performance feedback on employees' progress is essential to attain required performance and rewards.

Fourth, to enhance job satisfaction with opportunities for advancement for both genders, managers should practice job enlargement and job enrichment in the workplace; it is a very powerful tool to satisfy employees and make them happy (Ghazzawi, 2008-a; Greenberg & Baron, 2008). Accordingly, managers should always look for ways to provide employees with more tasks at the same level that require higher level of skills and responsibilities and grant them a higher degree of control of their work (Ghazzawi, 2008-a). In addition, it is imperative that managers discuss employees' career paths and provide policies that give employees opportunities to advance in the organization by internal promotion (Ghazzawi, 2008-a).

Additionally, developing employees and providing them with requisite skills and knowledge is very powerful and beneficial for both organizations and employees. Through training and development, employees can learn new skills and develop ideas on how to do the job. This enhances their chances of succeeding and being promoted, and helps the organization save overtime costs (Ghazzawi, 2007; Ghazzawi, 2008-a).

Fifth, to enhance satisfaction with the factor related to "the chance to tell people what to do", managers should not be afraid to empower their employees. They need to develop their employees and grant them the authority to make decisions, to follow-up on the decisions that they have made, and to be responsible for the outcomes of their decisions.

Finally; while the study suggests that there is a need to validate gender differences in job satisfaction by studying a larger sample of employees in various professions, the overall differences in levels of job satisfaction among genders warrant the creation of organizational policies, procedures, and practices that ensure fair treatment of people and create a equitable and healthy working environment for everyone regardless of gender and any other differences. Accordingly, an understanding of, and a sensitivity to, gender differences in the workplace enhances managers' chances to be more effective and successful. Thus managers need to understand and value individual differences in the workplace.

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NOTES

An earlier research titled "Job satisfaction among information technology professionals in the U.S.: An empirical study" was published in *The Journal of American Academy of Business*, Cambridge. Vol. 13, No. 1, pp. 1-15 (Ghazzawi, 2008). While this research is a continuation of the aforementioned paper, this paper focuses on the gender's effect on job satisfaction in the information technology profession.

THE IMPACT OF CORPORATE TAX EXECUTIVE CREDENTIALS ON PERSON-ORGANIZATION FIT

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ABSTRACT

Researchers have examined several factors that influence the extent to which the values of individuals are congruent with the values of the organizations in which they are employed. These factors include personal characteristics, satisfaction with corporate policies, and job/task competence. Additionally, recent studies have suggested the importance of such person-organization (P-O) fit measures in overall employee effectiveness and performance. This study examines the impact of a specific personal characteristic—certification and licensure (credentials)—on the person-organization fit between corporate tax executives and their work environments. Two hundred twenty-three corporate tax executives provided questionnaire information regarding P-O fit in four resource areas—staffing preferences, continuing professional education, availability of inside and outside tax guidance, and support for participation in professional organizations. Our overall finding is that tax executive credentials impact person-organization fit in terms of resource allocation and availability. A significant credential effect is found in three of four P-O fit areas—satisfaction with staffing levels of tax professionals, availability of outside tax consultants, and participation in professional organizations. Implications for tax executive performance and effectiveness are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Researchers in organization management and applied psychology have suggested that the ability of corporate executives to effectively manage and produce desired results is related to the extent to which their values match those of the organization in which they are employed (Anderson, Spataro & Flynn, 2008; Erdogan & Bauer, 2005). Person-organization (P-O) fit has been examined by researchers as a significant determinant of the ability of employees to manage complex tasks and to align their behavior with the expectations of their superiors (Kristof-Brown, Jansen & Colbert, 2002; Shaw & Gupta, 2004; Verquer, Beehr & Wagner, 2003). The job responsibilities of corporate tax executives provide a research context of complexity, rapid change, and executive decision-

making that allows for the examination of the determinants of P-O fit among high-level managers (Douglas & Ellingsworth, 1996; Epps & Cleaveland, 2009; Prow, 2005; Willis, Hoffman, Maloney & Raabe, 2008). Additionally, the lack of consistent qualifications for management of the corporate tax function suggests that analysis of potential outcome differences is warranted (Shevlin, 2007).

The study's overall purpose is to examine the impact of corporate tax executive certification and licensure (credentials) on the fit between the executive and his or her work environment. In the study, we utilize a detailed questionnaire to elicit information from corporate tax executives. The questionnaire gathers information regarding the P-O fit of tax executives in terms of staffing preferences, continuing professional education, resource availability, and support for participation in professional organizations.

We find that tax executive credentials impact environment fit in three of four areas—satisfaction with staffing levels of tax professionals, availability of tax guidance resources, and support for participation in professional organizations. We separate tax guidance resource availability into resources inside of the organization and resources outside of the organization. The significant result in the area of tax guidance resource availability lies in the reliance on outside consultants, and both groups (with certification or licensure credentials and without certification or licensure credentials) report satisfaction with the availability of in-house corporate tax resources. We also test for competing factors that may drive environment fit measures, and we find that both credential groups are similar in their knowledge of the tax function, influence over tax decisions, and educational achievement.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. The next section reviews the literature related to person-organization fit and the importance of relevant work credentials. Information about the potential significance of work credentials for tax professionals is emphasized. This section also presents the hypotheses. The third section describes the study methodology and summarizes the demographic characteristics of the study respondents. The fourth section discusses the results of the study, and the final section provides a summary and conclusion.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Psychology researchers examining person-organization fit have alternatively defined P-O fit in terms of the similarity (or congruence) of individual and organization characteristics, the ability of an individual to fill a void in an organization, and the match between the individual's skills and the demands of the organization (Morley, 2007). In the management literature, the congruence of individual and organization values has emerged as the operational definition of P-O fit (Kwantes, Arbour & Boglarsky, 2007; Silverthorne, 2004). Several manifestations of P-O fit in corporations have been examined by researchers. Ambrose et al. (2008) and Coldwell et al. (2008) examine the impact of P-O fit in terms of ethical values and find that an ethical P-O fit is related to higher employee commitment to the organization and its goals. Silverthorne (2004) finds that P-O fit

impacts the level of overall commitment to an organization, and Kristof-Brown et al. (2005) synthesize research findings related to P-O fit and its impact on attitude, behavior, length of employment, and work performance.

The factors that impact P-O fit have also been the focus of recent psychological and management studies (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman & Johnson, 2005; Kwantes, Arbour & Boglarsky, 2007). Morley (2007) discusses the importance of determining P-O fit factors in the selection and retention of employees and the assessment of performance. Likely determinants of P-O fit include personal characteristics, satisfaction with corporate policies, and job/task competence. In the corporate tax and accounting work environments, significant variation exists in the qualifications of tax executives in terms of education, professional certification, and licensure (Epps & Cleaveland, 2009; Metrejean, Metrejean & Stocks, 2008). This variation, coupled with the complex decision-making activity required of corporate tax executives, suggests that examination of the impact of qualifications on P-O fit is warranted.

The importance of credentials in the accounting and taxation profession has been examined for decades in the management literature (Burns & Haga, 1977; Coffee & Beegle, 1994; McGee, 1998). However, prior research has not analyzed the impact of such credentials on P-O fit and the resulting employee commitment and performance. We measure P-O fit as the alignment between the individual and the organization in terms of requisite and provided resources. Specifically, we analyze the fit between corporate tax executives and their organizations in the allocated resource areas of tax department staffing, continuing professional education, availability of inside and outside tax guidance, and support for participation in professional organizations. Erdogan et al. (2004) find that perceived organizational support is an important determinant of both P-O fit and job satisfaction. The extent to which tax executives report alignment between the provision of tax resources and their desired levels of such resources is an indicator of P-O fit in terms of resource allocation (Barnett & Bradley, 2007).

Chatman (1991) examines the similarity of traits between an individual in an accounting function and his/her team members and the impact of such similarity on P-O fit. In the context of corporate tax executives, it is likely that some corporate tax executives, while senior in terms of experience, may not hold the same credentials as others in the corporate tax department (Epps & Cleaveland, 2009). This scenario is the result of the relatively recent proliferation of advanced degrees in accounting and taxation and the encouragement among professional organizations for tax practitioners to obtain professional certification and/or licensure (Metrejean, Metrejean & Stocks, 2008). Thus, we examine the extent to which credentials impact the staffing resource P-O fit of corporate tax executives in the following hypothesis:

H1: Tax executives with credentials are more likely to report satisfaction with staffing levels than tax executives without credentials.

In a survey of professional accountants, Coffee and Beegle (1994) find that 91 percent of their participants believe that “mandatory continuing professional education is a good concept and should be continued”. Continuing education is mandatory for each of the certifications and licensures represented in this study. When investigating the deterrents to continuing education participation, Scalan and Darkenwald (1984) find that work constraints is one of the six principle factors. In other words, not having support at work for continuing professional education is a deterrent to seeking it. The second hypothesis focuses on the relationship between tax executive credentials and continuing professional education resource P-O fit:

H2: Tax executives with credentials are more likely to report adequate levels of continuing professional education than tax executives without credentials.

Dunbar and Phillips (2001) survey corporate executives to determine which factors affect firm decisions to outsource tax planning and tax compliance activities. They find a significant negative relationship between the tax executive’s status (proxied by whether or not the executive is an officer) and the amount of tax planning which is outsourced. This finding supports their prediction that “the greater the top tax professional status, the greater the firm resources allocated to his/her control, i.e., the lower the proportion of corporate tax function activities outsourced.” Further, they note that tax executives may fear that outsourcing may diminish the perceived importance of their role within the corporation. Epps and Cleaveland (2009) find that tax executives vary in their demand for outside expertise when faced with regulatory changes. Because the credentials examined in this study may result in advanced preparation for complex filing requirements, it is also possible that tax executives with credentials may seek and obtain requisite internal and external tax guidance more readily than tax executives without credentials. The third hypothesis examines the P-O fit of corporate tax executives in terms of internal and external tax guidance:

H3: Tax executives with credentials are more likely to report satisfaction with the levels of available inside and outside tax guidance.

Gruen et al. (2000) surveyed professionals in an insurance industry professional organization to determine what affected membership retention and participation. They found that core services, proxied by the number of meetings, professional education course credit hours earned, classes taught, published newsletters, and news releases, had the largest direct effect on membership retention and participation. Professional organizations exist that offer these types of services to certified and licensed tax professionals. While serving on a panel for the Tax Executive Institute entitled “How Can the Tax Function Best Satisfy Your Needs?”, Michael Cromer, Vice President and Chief Financial Officer of GATX Capital, stated that he looks at the extra-curricular activities

of the tax staff such as participation in Tax Executive Institute when evaluating the effectiveness of a tax department (Douglas & Ellingsworth, 1996). The fourth hypothesis examines the impact of credentials on P-O fit in terms of corporate support for tax executive participation in professional organizations:

H4: Tax executives with credentials are more likely to receive corporate support for participation in professional organizations.

METHODOLOGY

Questionnaire Design

A questionnaire was developed to examine the corporate tax environment. The first part of the questionnaire asked for opinions about factors potentially related to the corporate tax environment and the preparation of the federal corporate tax return (Bradley, 1994). While not the focus of this paper, other sections of the questionnaire solicited opinions regarding the impact of recent legislative and procedural updates and the level of compliance of the most recent corporate tax return (Epps & Cleaveland, 2009). The final part of the questionnaire requested demographic and descriptive information. The questionnaire was pilot tested with accounting and taxation professors, which resulted in minor modifications to the questions to ensure optimal comprehension by recipients.

The Tailored Design Method for mail surveys was utilized in determining the randomized selection of questionnaire recipients and points of contact with recipients (Dillman, 2007). The method prescribes sampling procedures to represent the population of interest and several points of contact with questionnaire recipients, including a mailed prenotice letter, a personalized questionnaire cover letter, a reminder postcard, and a personalized replacement questionnaire cover letter. The wording of notices and cover letters mailed to recipients is included in Appendix A.

Respondents

Eight hundred one corporate tax executives were sent mail questionnaires requesting participation. Two hundred twenty-three questionnaires were returned, resulting in a response rate of 27.8 percent. Table 2 summarizes characteristics of the respondents based on gender, age range, education level, professional certification/licensure, and years of tax experience. The majority of respondents who provided demographic information were male (76.9%), and the modal respondent age range was 46-50 years (21.3%). The majority of respondents have completed a master's degree in accounting or taxation (52.3%), and 14.9 percent of respondents have a juris doctorate. One

hundred seventy-nine respondents (80.3%) are certified public accountants. Of the respondents, 64.4 percent have more than twenty years of professional tax experience.

To ensure that the respondents held positions of influence over the tax compliance function at their respective corporations, the following two questions were asked in the questionnaire:

- ◆ *How familiar are you with your corporation's federal income tax compliance function? [answer choices from 1(not familiar) to 7(very familiar)]*
- ◆ *How much influence do you have on your corporation's federal income tax reporting decisions? [answer choices from 1(not influential) to 7(very influential)]*

Eighty-nine point two (89.2) percent of respondents answered "6" or "7" regarding familiarity with the tax compliance function, and 86.6 percent answered "6" or "7" regarding influence over corporate federal income tax reporting decisions. Thus, our respondent pool is very experienced and appropriate for the completion of the questionnaire and the identification of corporate tax environment fit measures.

Table 1. Respondent Characteristics			
		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female	51	23.1
	Male	170	76.9
Age Range	Under 30	1	0.5
	31—35	6	2.7
	36—40	17	7.7
	41—45	44	19.9
	46—50	47	21.3
	51—55	44	19.9
	56—60	39	17.6
	61—65	18	8.1
	Over 65	5	2.3
Education Level (Degrees Obtained)	Bachelor's Degree	220	98.7
	Master of Taxation or Accounting	116	52.0
	Other Master's Degree	44	19.7
	Juris Doctorate	33	14.9
	Other Degree	2	0.9

Table 1. Respondent Characteristics

		Frequency	Percent
Professional Certification or Licensure	CPA	179	80.3
	CMA	6	2.7
	CIA	3	1.3
	Licensed Attorney	32	14.3
	Other	8	3.6
	No Certification	25	11.2
Years of Tax Experience (Mean = 24.7)	0—10	6	2.7
	11—20	73	32.9
	21—30	100	45.0
	31—40	42	18.9
	Greater than 40	1	0.5
Corporation	Publicly Held	150	67.6
	Privately Held	72	32.4

RESULTS

In order to examine the impact of tax executive credentials on corporate resource person-organization fit, responses to questionnaire items related to P-O fit were examined for respondents with no certification or licensure (credential) and for respondents with at least one credential. As noted in Table 1, the most common credentials among respondent tax executives are Certified Public Accountant and Licensed Attorney. Table 2 reports the mean responses for all respondents to the seven questionnaire items that measured corporate resource P-O fit measures. Individual questionnaire items were utilized to test hypotheses related to staffing preferences, continuing education opportunities, inside and outside tax guidance, and involvement in professional organizations. The scale for each item was from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

Staffing Preferences

The first hypothesis was that tax executives with credentials are more likely to be satisfied with the staffing of their respective tax departments. The questionnaire item that measured P-O fit in terms of staffing preferences was “The number of tax professionals employed by my company is less than adequate for the workload”. There was a moderately significant difference in the mean response of respondents without certification or licensure and respondents with at least one credential (5.64 vs. 5.23, $p = .076$). Those respondents without credentials are more likely to believe

that they need additional tax professionals in their organizations. This suggests that tax executives with credentials may be able to utilize those credentials as a mitigating factor when faced with a staffing shortage of tax professionals. Thus, there is moderate support for H1.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for Tax Executive Responses Related to Person-Organization Fit Measures N = 222 Scale: 1 = strong disagreement; 7 = strong agreement		
Item:	Tax executive responses:	
	Mean	Standard Deviation
The number of tax professionals employed by my company is less than adequate for the workload.	5.28	1.58
I receive adequate continuing education in taxation.	5.49	1.27
My staff receives adequate continuing education in taxation.	5.11	1.36
I am unable to use outside consultants when needed.	2.73	1.61
The tax library at my company is adequate.	5.18	1.45
I can easily obtain information needed to file my corporation's tax return from my corporation's information systems.	3.63	1.60
My corporation does not support my participation in professional organizations.	2.12	1.43

Continuing Professional Education

The second hypothesis is that tax executives with credentials are more likely to report adequate levels of continuing education. Two questionnaire items measure P-O fit in terms of continuing professional education. The two items are "I receive adequate continuing education in taxation" and "My staff receives adequate continuing education in taxation". There was no significant difference in the mean responses of respondents without certification or licensure and respondents with at least one credential. Respondents with and without credentials are both likely to receive adequate continuing education. Similarly, both groups report satisfaction with the levels of continuing education received by staff members. The lack of support for H2 suggests that the credential status of tax executives is unlikely to impact consumption of continuing professional education in taxation.

Inside and Outside Tax Guidance

The third hypothesis is that tax executives with credentials are more likely to report satisfaction with available inside and outside guidance in support of the tax reporting function. One

questionnaire item measured the availability of outside resources, and two questionnaire items measured inside resources. The item “I am unable to use outside consultants when needed” measured the ability of tax executives to consult with outside experts as needed. The difference between the two groups was significant, though in the opposite direction than predicted ($p = .001$). Both groups disagreed with the questionnaire item, but tax executives with at least one credential are significantly more likely to report the need for more outside consultation. This may indicate that tax executives without credentials are more likely to seek and obtain outside consultation at a rate that fits with their needs. The two items that measure inside resource availability are “The tax library at my company is adequate” and “I can easily obtain information needed to file my corporation’s tax return from my corporation’s information systems”. There was no significant difference in the mean responses of respondents without certification or licensure and respondents with at least one credential on the two measures of inside resource availability. Thus, there is limited support for the hypothesis that resource availability differences exist based on credential status, and those differences lie in the consumption of outside, rather than inside, resources.

Professional Organizations

The last hypothesis was that tax executives with credentials are more likely to receive support for participation in professional organizations. The questionnaire item that measured P-O fit in terms of professional organization participation was “My corporation does not support my participation in professional organizations”. There was a moderately significant difference in the mean response of respondents without certification or licensure and respondents with at least one credential (2.72 vs. 2.04, $p = .085$). Those respondents without credentials are less likely to report support for participation in professional organizations. Thus, there is moderate support for H4.

The statistics for the significant indicators of person-organization fit by tax executive credential status are presented in Table 3. There are significant or moderately significant indicators in the resource P-O fit areas of staffing, availability of outside tax guidance, and professional organization participation.

Tests of Competing Explanations

To ensure that other differences between non-credentialed respondents and credentialed respondents were not driving the results, additional analysis examined the two groups in terms of experience, influence over the tax function, age, education, and public vs. private corporation status. Experience with the federal corporate tax compliance function was measured in two ways. First, the years of tax experience of respondents with no credentials was compared with the years of experience of respondents with at least one credential. The mean years of reported tax experience was 29 years for respondents with no credentials and 24.1 years for respondents with at least one

credential ($p = .002$). Additionally, responses to the question “How familiar are you with your corporation’s federal income tax compliance function?” were compared [answer choices from 1(not familiar) to 7(very familiar)]. There was no significant difference between the mean response of tax executives without credentials (6.68) and the mean response of tax executives with at least one credential (6.51). Thus, while tax executives without certification or licensure have more years of tax experience, both groups report very strong familiarity with the federal corporate tax reporting function.

Table 3. Significant Indicators of Person-Organization Fit by Taxpayer Executive Credentials Scale: 1 = strong disagreement; 7 = strong agreement				
Category:	Item:	Mean Response: no certification or licensure (n=25)	Mean Response: at least one certification or licensure (n=197)	<i>p</i>
Staffing	The number of tax professionals employed by my company is less than adequate for the workload.	5.64	5.23	.076
Resources	I am unable to use outside consultants when needed.	1.96	2.83	.001
Professional Organizations	My corporation does not support my participation in professional organizations.	2.72	2.04	.085

Similarly, both groups reported very strong influence over the corporate tax decision-making in their organizations. Responses to the question “How much influence do you have on your corporation’s federal income tax reporting decisions?” were compared [answer choices from 1(not influential) to 7(very influential)]. There was no significant difference between the mean response of tax executives without credentials (6.48) and the mean response of tax executives with at least one credential (6.43).

There was a significant difference between the age ranges of tax executives without certification or licensure and tax executives with at least one certification ($p = .002$). As reported in Table 4, the modal age range for respondents without credentials was 56 – 65 years, while the modal age range for respondents with at least one credential was 46 – 55 years.

Table 4. Comparison of Respondent Age Ranges by Taxpayer Executive Credentials

Age Range:	Percentage: no certification or licensure (n = 25)	Percentage: at least one certification or licensure (n = 197)
<25 – 45 years	16.0	32.7
46 – 55 years	24.0	43.4
56 – 65 years	52.0	22.4
>65 years	2.0	1.5

Both groups of respondents report similar levels of educational achievement and similar percentages of employment in public vs. private corporations. Almost all respondents have obtained a bachelor's degree (96.0% for respondents without certification or licensure, 99.5% for respondents with at least one credential), and the rate of Master of Accounting or Master of Taxation degree completion was 52% for both groups. There was no significant difference in the percentage of respondents employed by publicly-traded corporations for respondents without certification or licensure (72%) and respondents with at least one credential (67%). Based on the results of analysis of the work experience, education, and influence of tax executives with and without credentials, the significant person-organization fit differences between the two groups are unlikely to be a result of competing explanations.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This study has examined the impact of a specific personal characteristic—certification or licensure credentials—on person-environment fit in the corporate tax environment. The results of the study have several important implications for the P-O fit literature and for tax practice. First, studies examining P-O fit in the management literature have often defined fit solely in terms of values congruence. The overall finding of this study that credentials are important to P-O fit in terms of resource allocation indicates that it is also important to examine fit in terms of the demands of the organization and the qualifications of individuals to meet those demands. As discussed by Silverthorne (2004), P-O fit can impact commitment to an organization. Therefore, it is important for organizations to determine their needs from corporate tax executives and to support existing executives with agreed-upon levels of resources for the tax function. This study also examines the P-O fit of highly-specialized managers rather than the lower-level employees that are typically examined in the psychology and management literatures.

Morley (2007) discusses the conflicting findings of P-O fit studies regarding the performance implications of P-O fit. While the current study does not directly examine the performance of corporate tax executives, the implications of varying levels of satisfaction with staffing, outside

consultant availability, and support for professional organization activity based on executive credentials are significant for the tax profession. Specifically, corporations may need to consider the disparate needs of tax executives in order to adequately manage the tax function. Given the complex nature of corporate tax filing, researchers should directly examine the impact of credentials on tax executive performance measures in order to determine if credentials impact not only P-O fit, but also the completion of specific work and leadership responsibilities.

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APPENDIX A

Dear Tax Executive,

A few days from now, you will receive in the mail a request to fill out a questionnaire for an important tax compliance research project being conducted by XXXXX.

I am writing in advance because we have found that many people like to know ahead of time that they will be contacted. The study is an important one that will help government officials as well as corporations to understand the factors that positively and negatively impact tax compliance.

Thank you for your time and consideration. It is only with the assistance of professionals like you that our research can be successful.

Sincerely,

Recipient Name

Recipient Title

Address 1

Address 2

Address 3

Dear Mr./Ms. Recipient:

The tax compliance burden of corporations continues to be a matter of concern for policymakers and corporate tax professionals. I am writing to ask your help in a study of corporate tax executives being conducted at XXXXX. The study is part of an effort to learn the factors that either facilitate or impede a corporation's ability to comply with tax provisions. We believe that this information is vital to effective tax reform. The results of the research will be made available to the AICPA, TEI, the ABA and other interested groups.

You are one of a small number of corporate tax executives selected to give opinions on this subject. We are asking you to take a few minutes to complete the enclosed questionnaire. To ensure that the results truly represent the consensus of the tax professional community, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned. The questionnaire solicits your opinions only and does not require you to gather any additional information from your records.

Your answers are completely confidential and will be reported only as summaries in which no individual's answers can be identified. The questionnaire has an identification number for mailing purposes only, enabling us to check your name off of the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire itself.

In addition to me, the investigators on this research project are XXXXX, at XXXXX and XXXXX at XXXXX. If you have any questions or comments, please feel free to contact me at XXXXX or XXXXX.

Thank you for helping with this important study. We appreciate your time and effort.

Sincerely,

XXXXX

Project Director

The purpose of this research has been explained and your participation is entirely voluntary. The research entails no known risks and your identity will be known only to the researchers. Your responses are not being recorded in any individually identifiable form. Therefore, confidentiality will be maintained. By completing this survey, you are agreeing to participate in this research project.

Research at XXXXX that involves human participants is carried out under the oversight of an Institutional Review Board. Questions or problems regarding these activities should be addressed to XXXXX, Chairperson of the Institutional Review Board, XXXXX.

Dear Mr./Ms. First Last,

A few days ago, I sent you the Survey of Corporate Tax Professionals being conducted by XXXXX.

If you have already completed and returned it, I thank you very much. The study will help government officials as well as corporations to make important decisions about such issues as code interpretation and the impact of recent legislation. The information you provide is very important to the accuracy and success of the survey.

If you have not yet had time to complete the questionnaire, please do so as soon as possible. If you need another copy of the questionnaire or have any questions about the survey, please contact me at XXXXX or XXXXX. I will be happy to talk with you.

Sincerely,

Recipient Name

Recipient Title

Address 1

Address 2

Address 3

Dear Mr./Ms. Recipient:

About three weeks ago, I sent a questionnaire to you that asked for your opinions about corporate tax compliance. To the best of our knowledge, it's not yet been returned.

The opinions of people who have already responded include a wide variety of factors that impact a corporation's ability to comply with tax provisions. Many have commented on the impact of recent legislation. We think that the results are going to be very useful to policy makers.

We are writing again because of the importance that your questionnaire has for helping to get accurate results. It is only by hearing from nearly everyone who received a questionnaire that we can be sure that the results truly represent the consensus of the tax professional community.

A few people have written to say that someone else in their organization would be more appropriate to complete the questionnaire. If you feel that you are not familiar enough with the Federal income tax compliance function to complete the questionnaire, please forward the questionnaire to a more appropriate individual in your company.

Our survey procedures protect your confidentiality. A questionnaire identification number is printed on the back cover of the questionnaire so that we can check your name off of the mailing list when it is returned. The list of names is then destroyed

so that individual names can never be connected to the results in any way. Protecting the confidentiality of respondents is very important to us, as well as the university.

We hope that you will fill out and return the questionnaire soon, but if for any reason you prefer not to answer it, please let us know by returning a note in the enclosed stamped envelope. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at XXXXX or XXXXX.

Thank you for helping with this important study. We appreciate your time and effort.
Sincerely,

XXXXX
Project Director

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF ATTITUDES TOWARD RECOGNITION AMONG CIVILIAN MUNICIPAL EMPLOYEES IN A 'U.S.' CITY

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Satyanarayana Parayitam, University of Massachusetts Dartmouth

Vivek S. Natarajan, Lamar University

ABSTRACT

Motivating employees through the incentives and rewards is a fertile area of research. We investigated the relationship between rewards, recognition and employee behaviors in a Public Organization. The sample consisted of the employees of the City government of a mid-sized city. Multiple regression analysis was used to empirically test the relationships. Our findings indicate that type of recognition is positively related to preference for rewards and the source of recognition and Attitude towards recognition is positively related to source of recognition.

INTRODUCTION

Civil servants with a motivation to public service fulfill a portion of their personal goals and needs through such service. (Heinrich, 2007) Despite that, the 2003 Report of the National Commission on the Public Service pointed to inadequate incentive programs as a significant cause of poor government employee performance. Recognition offered with little clear linkage to individual performance are less involving than those clearly resulting from performance (e.g., Lawler, 1992) though persons motivated by public-service norms may be less responsive to monetary bonuses than their counterparts outside public service. (Heinrich, 2007)

The economic downturn experienced in 2008 has forced calls for getting more done with fewer people in governmental entities across the US. This raises the issue of how non-financial incentives might lead to greater performance among those individuals. Walker and Boyne (2006) found support for the efficacy of non-financial incentives for improving local performance of government in the United Kingdom. Group incentives encourage information sharing among group members (Libby & Thorne, 2009) and increase productivity in situations positively affected by group interaction. (Che & Yoo 2001; Ravenscroft & Haka 1996) Because the majority of municipal employees are nonmanagerial, group incentives come into play.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES

This study examines organizational recognition as experienced by a group of civilian employees of a southern U.S. municipality.

Preference for Rewards

Miner (2005) suggests that job satisfaction is an outgrowth of achievement, recognition (verbal), the work itself (challenging), responsibility and advancement (promotion). The individual's basic needs will be satisfied when these are present and positive feelings will accrue as a result. Dissatisfiers or hygiene factors (Herzberg, 2003) can be alleviated only to a point. (Miner, 2005) Research indicates that even in identical situations individuals can choose different reward distribution patterns. (King & Hinson, 1998).

Equity Theory (Adams, 1963) is perhaps most applicable where pay-for-performance is the norm. However, where equality or need-based norms dominate, equity theory is less applicable. (Miner, 2005) In that context, persons approach equity in different ways. (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987) The Benevolent is a giver and feels comfortable to outcome-input ratios that are lower than comparison persons. Equity Sensitive persons seek parity with comparison persons. The Entitled prefer outcome-input comparisons greater than those of comparison counterparts. (Miner, 2005) People from different backgrounds and operating in different contexts may develop different norms with regard to the appropriate distribution of rewards. Similarly, persons motivated by public-service norms may be less responsive to monetary bonuses than their counterparts outside public service. (Heinrich, 2007) Based on the above we suggest the following hypothesis:

H1: Type of recognition is positively related to preference for rewards

Source of Recognition

Equity Theory suggests (Adams, 1963) and research confirms (Miner, 2005) that people choose a wide range of comparisons to evaluate the efficacy of rewards received. The source(s) of recognition may be identified and used by municipal employees in this context. Therefore, we posit the hypothesis as follows:

H2: Type of recognition is positively related to the source of recognition.

Attitude Toward Recognition and Reward Preference

Chillemi (2008) contends that group rewards are optimal where individuals care about the well being of coworkers. Drake, Wong, and Salter (2007) have found that feedback and rewards affect feelings of empowerment. They concluded “that techniques that work to increase manager perceptions of empowerment may not work at lower organizational levels and, even if successful, the related increase in employee motivation may not be significant.” (p. 71) Both group and organization-wide rewards can be effective, but employees must see the link between their actions, performance, and those rewards to be effective. (Lawler, 1992)

The performing municipal employee does not necessary have a high need for recognition or achievement. (e.g., McClelland & Burnham, 2003) They put their own achievement and recognition first. Those with a high need for Affiliation want to be liked and they aimed at attaining popularity. Individuals with a need for Power seek influence before other things. Therefore, we speculate the following hypotheses:

H3: Type of recognition is positively related to attitude toward recognition.

H4: The attitude towards recognition is positively related to preference for rewards.

Source of Recognition

From an analysis of the daily diary entries of 238 professionals, Amabile and Framer (2007) found that as “people perceive the work, and themselves, as having high value, their motivation will be high. Just as important, if they perceive a clear path forward, with little ambiguity about what will constitute progress, motivation levels rise.” (p. 76) They identified two fundamental things contributing to work and performance: enabling people to move forward in their work and treating them decently as human beings. Specifically, praise without real work progress had little impact on the internal lives of workers. Conversely, good work progress with criticism about trivial issues engendered anger and sadness. Therefore, we hypothesize the following:

H5: The attitude towards recognition is positively related to source of recognition.

METHODOLOGY

Data collection

The respondents were the employees of a municipal government from across all the civilian departments. The sample size was 494 respondents.

Measures

Type of recognition

This is measured using eleven items. These are called recognition-worthy behaviors. The sample items include: "Exceptional performance on an on-going basis"; "General on-going contributions to my department/division"; "Extra responsibilities or special projects above and beyond my normal duties".

Attitude towards recognition

This is measured using five items on Likert's five-point scale. One of the sample items reads: "It is important to me to be recognized for my work".

Source of recognition

Source of recognition comes from six different people viz., immediate supervisor, department director, peers, city manager, public and mayor. This is measured using two items on Likert's five-point scale. One sample item is: "I believe that all staff should be equally rewarded".

Preference for rewards

This is measured using 13 items. The sample items include: "The opportunity to work on an interesting project outside of my department or division"; "An award, certificate, or gift from my department or division"; "A personal "thank you" or note from my director, manager, supervisor or co-worker".

RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations are reported in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive statistics

Variables	Mean	St dev	1	2	3	4	5
Attitude towards recognition	3.39	0.55	1				
Attitude towards rewards	3.03	0.58	0.23***	1			
Source of recognition	4.34	1.09	0.10	0.11	1		
Type of recognition	6.11	1.70	0.135**	0.10	0.27***	1	
Preference for rewards	6.73	1.94	0.14**	-0.05	0.226***	0.77***	1
*** p < .001; ** p < .05							

Our initial analysis of descriptive statistics table suggests that there is no problem of multicollinearity, as Kennedy (1979) suggests that correlations of .8 or higher may be problematic. We also include a statistical check for multicollinearity, the variance inflation factor (VIF) of each independent variable. The largest VIF was less than 2, thus, more support that multicollinearity should not be a problem (Kennedy, 1979).

Multiple regression analysis was used to test the hypotheses that type of recognition is positively related to preference for rewards, source of recognition, and attitude towards recognition. The results of regression analysis of type of recognition affects preference for rewards and attitude towards recognition affects source of recognition are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Results of hierarchical regression analysis predicting preference for rewards, source of recognition, and attitude towards recognition

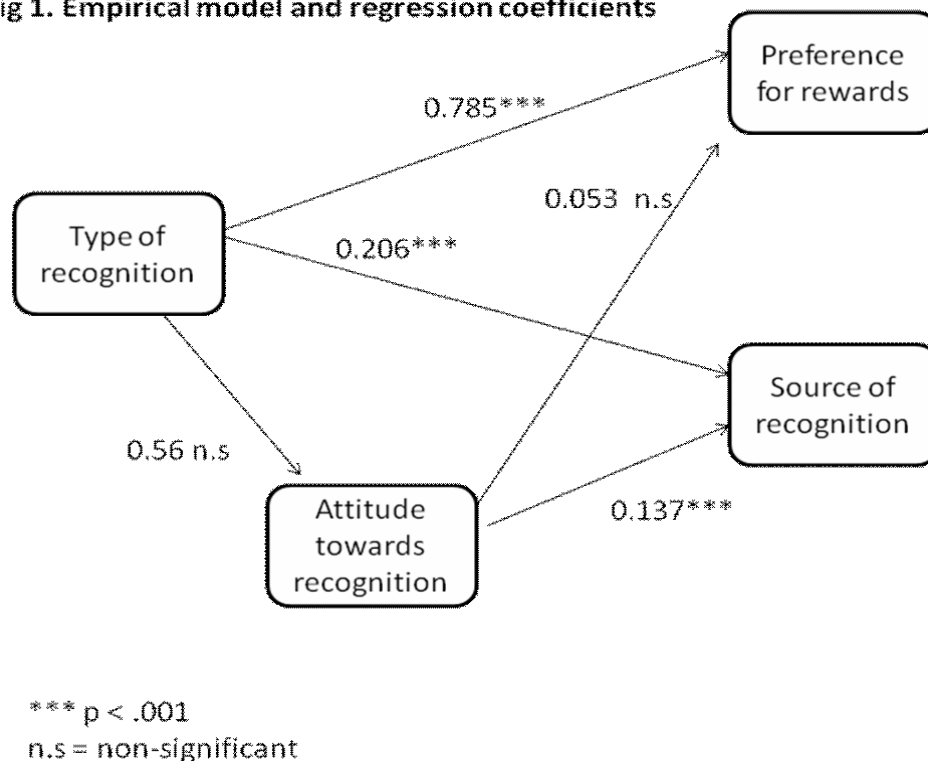
Variables	Preference for rewards ^a	Attitude towards recognition	Source of recognition
Type of recognition	.785*** (20.264; 0.000)	.56 (1.13; 0.256)	.206*** (3.79; .000)
Attitude towards recognition	.053 (1.36; 0.173)		.137** (2.558; 0.011)
Source of recognition			
R ²	.628	.003	.064
Adjusted R ²	.625	.001	.059
F- Value	211.26 ***	1.295	11.244***
df	2, 407	1,408	2,407
^a standardized regression coefficients reported, t-values and significance levels in parentheses *** p<.001, ** p<.01, * p<.05			

As shown in column1 of Table2, type of recognition ($b=.785$, $p<.001$) was a significant predictor of preference for rewards. Thus Hypothesis 1 is supported. The regression coefficient of attitude towards recognition to preference for rewards is ($b=.053$, $p > .01$) not significant. Thus, Hypothesis 4 is not supported. The model in column 1 explained 62.8 % of variance in the relationship and is significant ($F= 211.26$; $p<.001$).

Column2 of Table 2 shows the regression results of relationship between type of recognition and attitude towards recognition. The regression coefficient of type of recognition predicting the attitude towards recognition ($b=.56$, $p > .10$) was not significant and hence Hypothesis 3 was not supported.

The results of regression presented in Column 3 of Table 2 are particularly interesting. The regression coefficient of type of recognition predicting the source of recognition ($b=.206$; $p < .001$) was significant. Thus Hypothesis 2 is supported. Attitude towards recognition is also a significant predictor of source of recognition ($b=.137$; $p < .01$), thus supporting the Hypothesis 5. Empirical model and regression coefficients are summarized in Figure 1.

Fig 1. Empirical model and regression coefficients



DISCUSSION

Civil servants fulfill some of their personal goals and needs through their service. (Heinrich, 2007) This does not free city administrators from the responsibility to build in motivational programs into their operations. This paper considered attitudes of civilian municipal civilian employees in one US city to recognition on the job. The findings suggest: (1) the type of recognition is positively related to preference for rewards, (2) the type of recognition is positively related to the source of recognition, and (3) the attitude towards recognition is positively related to the source of recognition. A number of observations applicable to practice are in order.

Recognition is an important part of the municipal worker's job because their motivation goes beyond the rewards sought in other sectors. (e.g., Heinrich, 2007) As in other sectors, recognition needs to be clearly linked to performance over which the individual worker has control to be effective. (e.g., Lawler, 1992) City authorities would be wise to determine how satisfied employees are with their current recognition programs and implement those plans by design rather than default.

This analysis reveals that proximity to the source of recognition is important suggesting that the immediate supervisor's involvement in the evaluation and presentation of the reward would be important. Individual municipal employees closely identified with their immediate supervisors and departments. Persons involved in the work at hand can best evaluate the effort and ability necessary to produce desired outcomes. Therefore, recognition given by the ones who know best was appreciated most. Tangible and measurable tasks were seen as more worthy of reward than intangible tasks. Tasks associated with particular departments were seen of higher value and more worthy of recognition rather than those including multiple departments or the city at large. Tangible and extrinsic rewards were preferred over intangible and intrinsic rewards.

A related issue concerning dissatisfiers (hygiene factors) and motivators (Herzberg, 2003) is raised in the context of recognition programs. Dissatisfiers can only be alleviated to a point. (Miner, 2005) Similarly, individuals in identical situations can evidence different reward preferences. (e.g., King & Hinson, 1998) These things should be kept in mind where recognition is used to neutralize the effect of hygiene factors that are contributing to dissatisfaction.

Perhaps of greater interest is the suggestion by Miner (2005) that the needs for Achievement and Power (e.g., McClelland, 1965; McClelland & Winter, 1969) are amenable to educational processes. Miner (2005) suggests that needs for achievement and educative efforts would seem to have effect when:

- ◆ When the person has numerous reasons to believe that he can, will, or should develop the motive
- ◆ When developing the motive appears to be rational in light of career and life situation considerations

- ◆ When the individual understands the meaning and various aspects of the motive
- ◆ When this understanding of the motive is linked to actions and behavior
- ◆ When the understanding is closely tied to everyday events
- ◆ When the motive is viewed positively as contribution to an improved self-image
- ◆ When the motive is viewed as consistent with prevailing cultural values
- ◆ When the individual commits himself to achieving concrete goals that are related to the motive
- ◆ When the individual maintains progress toward attaining these goals
- ◆ When the environment in which change occurs is one in which the person feels supported and respected as an individual who can guide his own future
- ◆ When the environment dramatizes the importance of self-study and makes it an important value of the group involved in the change effort
- ◆ When the motive is viewed as an indication of membership in a new reference group (Miner. 2005, p. 52)

CONCLUSION

We investigated the relationship between rewards, recognition and employee behaviors in a Public Organization. Our findings indicate that type of recognition is positively related to preference for rewards and the source of recognition and Attitude towards recognition is positively related to source of recognition.

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TESTING MULTI-DIMENSIONAL NATURE OF “NEW LEADERSHIP” IN A NON-WESTERN CONTEXT: THE CASE OF MALAYSIA

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ABSTRACT

Past researchers in leadership studies have observed a shift in the dimensions of new leadership behavior such as transformational and transactional styles. For the past few decades, leadership styles continue to be one of the most exciting issues for organizations. Many studies have attempted to explore its effect on work outcomes such as employees commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and performances. Leadership styles exhibited by the managers have often been known as the essence of leaders' behavior which is the major driving force behind this continuous recognition of employees' behavior in the management literatures. Hence, a better understanding of the dimensionality of leadership styles is needed to facilitate further theoretical development and practical measurement of the construct. The purpose of the research reported here was to test empirically and to validate a conceptualization of two forms of leadership styles known as transformational and transactional that consists of four and five dimensions, respectively. Data was gathered through a survey using a structured questionnaire to employees in Malaysia with a total of 146 respondents. A series of tests such as factor analysis, correlation, and reliability analysis was conducted to confirm that the instrument is valid (content, construct, convergent, discriminant and nomological) as well as reliable. Implications regarding the value of conducting validity and reliability test for practitioners and researchers are discussed.

Keywords: leadership styles, goodness of measure, validity, reliability, multicultural society

INTRODUCTION

Leadership can be practiced by any organization members regardless of their status in the organizations, and leadership is generally understood as the ability to exert influence over others (Peabody, 1962). Past studies (Ansari, 1990; Farrell & Schroder, 1999; Rajan & Krishnan, 2002)

have conceptualized leadership as a social influence process from an organizationally designated superior to his or her subordinates.

In view of the fact that Malaysia's colonial heritage, coupled with more recent foreign direct investments by Japanese and Westerners, the traditional patterns of leadership and business management have been modified (Sin, 1991). It is evidenced that Malaysians' management styles and practices are being westernized especially in those working in manufacturing companies that reported directly to their foreign partners and/or bosses. In spite of the above statement, it has been found that Malaysian leaders are not expected to be self-serving such as placing their own interest ahead of the group, as they are still governed by their key cultural and religious values which underpin their behavior, beliefs, and attitude (Kennedy & Mansor, 2000). As revealed by Abdullah (1996), Malaysian managers are only familiar with one level of interaction; hence, it is time to learn through exposure to different work settings, social interaction, and observation of work related practices not only in intracultural levels, but at the intercultural levels, and cross-cultural levels.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leadership Styles

Past studies on leadership have not found conclusive evidence on Malaysian leadership style. For example, Gill (1998) suggested that Malaysian managers are found to be more direct, less delegate, and are more transactional. However, Govindan (2000) reported that Malaysian leaders lean more towards participative and consultative styles. This is in line with the assertion of Abdullah (1992) that the use of stronger tactics in Malaysian context is not likable as Malaysians generally are not in favor of overt display of anger and aggressive behavior. Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) have pioneered the study of leadership where an experiment study was designed to examine the relative effectiveness of democratic, laissez-faire, and authoritarian leadership styles. Later, trait, behavior, leader-member exchange, charismatic, transactional, transformational, and power-influence approach came into existence. Major researches in leadership can be classified into four approaches, namely, (i) trait approach, (ii) behavior approach, (iii) power influence approach, and (iv) situational approach (Yukl, 2005). In view of the complex nature of leadership effectiveness, researchers in the past have defined leadership based on their researched frame of reference. It is generally agreed that, leadership begins with trait approach, which emphasized on the personal attributes of leaders, followed by behavior approach, which examined leadership in terms of content categories, such as managerial roles, functions, and responsibilities (Yukl, 2005).

Other approaches including contingency approach, is known as the combination of trait and behavioral approaches to leadership. This approach deduced that effective leadership is based on the match between a leader's style and situational favorability (Fiedler, 1964). On the other hand, some researchers (e.g., Hersey & Blanchard, 1984) came up with other leadership theory known as

situational leadership theory that emphasized on leadership effectiveness as a function of leadership behavior and subordinates maturity. As compared to other theories, situational theory uses more contemporary approach to researching aspects of leadership (Bolman & Deal, 1997). Another contemporary approach, the integrative approach, focuses more on the dynamics between leaders and followers. The two most popular theories that fall under the integrative approaches are transformational and transactional leadership.

Transformational Leadership

Burns (1978) discussed leadership as transforming in which the leaders and the followers are often transformed or changed in performance and outlook. Further, the leader-follower interaction is known as the transformational influence process and it is also referred as transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Past studies have constantly reported that transformational leadership is more effective, productive, innovative, and satisfying to followers as both parties work towards the good of organization propelled by shared visions and values as well as mutual trust and respect (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Fairholm, 1991; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubrahmaniam, 1996; Stevens, D'Intino, & Victor, 1995). This implies that transformational leaders believed in sharing of formalized power and more often practice the use of personal power. In the same vein, other study has drawn a distinction between authentic transformational leadership and pseudo-transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). It was found that pseudo-transformational leaders would seek power and position even at the expense of their followers' achievements, thus their behaviors are inconsistent and unreliable (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). The next section presents power and influence in terms of transactional leadership.

Transactional Leadership

Another type of leadership which has been widely used to describe power and influence is transactional leadership. Burns (1978) who pioneered the study of transactional leadership indicated that transactional leaders are those who sought to motivate followers by appealing to their self-interests. Transactional leadership involves contingent reinforcement where followers are motivated by their leaders' promises, rewards, and praises. At the same time, the leaders react to whether the followers carry out what the leaders and followers have "transacted" to do (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). This implies that subordinates who work under transactional leaders would have a greater power and the ability to affect the strength of a leader's influence, style of behavior, and the performance of the group (Hollander, 1993).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The main focus of this paper is to assess the goodness of measure (validity and reliability) of the leadership styles, namely transformational and transactional measurement. Data was collected through survey questionnaires from targeted lecturers working in public universities in Malaysia using judgemental sampling method. 500 questionnaires were distributed to selected public universities. However, only 146 lecturers responded to the survey.

There are two main sections in this research. Section 1 requires the respondents to rate a total of 33 items on their superiors' leadership style using a 7-point Likert Scale as proposed by several researchers (e.g., Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Den Hartog, Van Muijen, & Koopman, 1997; Hinkin & Tracey, 1999) were used in this study as it still appears to be fairly representative and popular in application. Finally, Section 2 is used to collect the personal profile and demographic data of respondents.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Profile of the Respondents

Table 1: Demographic Characteristic of Respondents			
Demographics		Frequency	Percentage
Subordinates' Gender	Male	80	54.8
	Female	66	45.2
Superiors' Gender	Male	92	63
	Female	44	30.1
	Missing	10	6.8
Status	Permanent	117	80.1
	Contract	29	19.9
Position	Tutor	9	6.2
	Lecturer	75	51.4
	Senior Lecturer	37	25.3
	Associate Professor	17	11.6
	Professor	8	5.5
Superiors' Education Background	Bachelor local	7	4.8
	Bachelor overseas	2	1.4
	Master local	55	37.7
	Master overseas	21	14.4
	PhD local	27	18.5
	PhD overseas	33	22.6
	Missing	1	0.7

Table 1: Demographic Characteristic of Respondents

Demographics		Frequency	Percentage
University	UKM	52	35.6
	UPM	38	26
	UIA	33	22.6
	UM	18	12.3
	Missing	5	3.4
Faculty	Natural and Physical Science	32	21.9
	Engineering and Related Technology	3	2.1
	Architecture and Building		
	Agriculture, Environmental and Related	13	8.9
	Studies	6	4.1
	Health		
	Education	3	2.1
	Management and Commerce	9	6.2
	Society and Culture	18	12.3
	Missing	37	25.3
		25	17.1

The means and standard deviations among the study variables are contained in Table 2. As shown in Table 2, the standard deviations of the variables were either close to or exceeded 1.0, indicating that the study variables were discriminatory.

Table 2: Descriptive for the Major Constructs

	Mean	Std. Deviation
trancCR	5.4481	.90780
trancPA	5.7106	1.01612
trancAC	4.9829	.93295
transfII_IC	5.5178	.92358
transf_IM	5.0171	.91570
transf_IS	5.0023	.92102

Testing the Goodness of Measure for the Leadership Structure Construct

Content Validity

Content validity refers to the extent to which an instrument covers the meanings included in the concept (Babbie, 1992). In a similar vein, Rubio, Berg-Weger, Tebb, Lee, and Rauch (2003) refer to content validity as to the extent to which the items on a measure assess the same content or how well the content material was sampled in the measure. Essentially, the goals of content validity

are to clarify the domain of a concept and judge whether the measure adequately represents the domain (Bollen, 1989). Content validation results in a theoretical definition that explains the meaning of the variable in question (Bollen, 1989) and is guaranteed by the literature overview (Gomez, Lorente, & Cabrera, 2004).

Construct Validity

To validate the goodness of the proposed measurement by Luque-Martinez et al. (2000) we used the factor analysis and reliability analysis. Factor analysis can be defined as the process of identifying the underlying structure in a data matrix; analyze the structure of interrelationships among a large number of variables by defining a set of common underlying dimensions called factors (Hair et al. 2006). Researchers often use factor analytic techniques to assess construct validity of the scores obtained from an instrument (McCoach, 2002). In this study, an exploratory factor analysis with an orthogonal rotation of varimax was used to evaluate the construct validity of the instrument. In turn, to evaluate the construct validity, we performed a principal components analysis on the set of 33 items of the scale. The result of this analysis is summarized in Table 2.

The analysis extracted only a 3 factor solutions each for transformational and transactional, each with eigenvalues above one, which explain 67% and 65% respectively of the total variance. The KMO was 0.89 and 0.88 for transformational and transactional respectively, indicating a meritorious level based on Kaiser and Rice (1974) and the Bartlett's test for sphericity was significant with $\chi^2 = 3498.25$, $p < 0.00$ for transactional leadership style, and $\chi^2 = 1736.83$, $p < 0.00$ for transformational leadership style.

As shown in Table 2, for transformational styles, Factor 1 consists of a combination of Idealized influence and Individualized consideration was named as Idealized Consideration based on the common premise of the items, whereas Factor II was named as Inspirational Motivation. Factor III was renamed as Intellectual Stimulation. Based on the rotated component matrix, out of the 20 items, only 1 item was dropped either due to loadings less than 0.50 suggested by Hair et al. (2006) or cross loading in another component.

Table 3 presents the factor loadings of transactional leadership styles. The factor analysis yielded a 4 factor solution. Factor 1 was named as Contingent reward, Factor II is known as Passive Management by Exception, and Factor III was named as Active Management by Exception

Table 3 Factor analysis results for Transformational Leadership Style

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
displays a sense of power and confidence.	.745	.171	.219	-.064
specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	.743	.144	.251	-.030
considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	.727	.011	.334	-.180
helps me in developing my strengths.	.712	.366	-.024	.125
considers me as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others.	.709	.139	.203	.239
acts in ways that builds my respect.	.693	.326	.019	.119
re-examines critical assumptions to questions whether they are appropriate.	.662	.517	.040	.046
seeks different perspectives when solving problems.	.638	.176	.266	.151
spends time teaching and coaching me to improve my performance.	.631	.541	.130	.038
gets me to look at problems from many different angles.	.619	.507	.020	.027
treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.	.616	.470	.083	.211
talks about my most important values and beliefs.	.575	.193	.435	-.028
instils pride in me for being associated with him/her.	.279	.749	.090	.120
gives a convincing vision of the future.	.306	.731	.187	.052
talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	.126	.706	.308	-.003
emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	.138	.700	.289	-.106
talks optimistically about the future.	.029	.183	.860	.069
goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	.307	.264	.776	.116
suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	.322	.203	.759	.133
expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.	.092	.024	.184	.923

Table 4 Factor analysis results for Transactional Leadership Style

	Component		
	1	2	3
recognizes what needs to be accomplished.	.851	.088	.124
takes no action unless a problem arises.	.698	.274	-.074
arranges to provide the resources needed by followers to accomplish their objectives.	.685	.268	.253
remains alert for violation of non-compliance with the rules.	.628	.374	.076
follows up to make sure that the agreement is satisfactorily met.	.589	.427	.047
teaches followers how to correct mistakes.	.589	.359	.307
gives recognition to followers when they perform and meet agreed-upon objectives.	.549	.473	.246
provides support in exchange for required effort.	.200	.867	.185
enforces corrective action when mistakes are made.	.323	.801	.154
avoids unnecessary changes.	.283	.782	-.008
fixes the problem and resumes normal functioning.	.460	.606	.188
arranges to know if something has gone wrong.	.041	.039	.924
attends mostly to mistakes and variations from the original objective.	.297	.399	.526

Table 5: Intercorrelations of the major constructs

	trancCR	trancPA	trancAC	transfII_IC	transf_IM	transf_IS
trancCR	1.000					
trancPA	.733**	1.000				
trancAC	.467**	.464**	1.000			
transfII_IC	.872**	.840**	.572**	1.000		
transf_IM	.558**	.562**	.770**	.654**	1.000	*
transf_IS	.584**	.356**	.396**	.515**	.491**	1.000

*p<0.05, ** p<0.01

Convergent Validity

Further to the construct validity test using the factor analysis (between scales) another factor analysis but this time using the within scale was utilized to test the convergent validity. According to Campbell and Fiske (1959), convergent validity refers to all items measuring a construct actually loading on a single construct. Convergent validity is established when items all fall into 1 factor as theorized. Convergent validity was carried out through a within factor, factor analysis in order to obtain a more in-depth judgment of the dimensionality of the construct under study (Hair et al, 2006). All the four factors displayed unidimensionality with Contingent Rewards, KMO was 0.88

explaining 56 percent of the variation; Passive Management by Exception, KMO was 0.76 explaining 72 percent of the variation; Active Management by Exception, KMO was 0.50 explaining 67 percent of the variation; Idealized Consideration, KMO was 0.93 explaining 57 percent of the variation, Inspirational Motivation, KMO was .75, and Intellectual Stimulation with KMO of .73 and explained 78% of the variation. Thus, the analysis provided evidence of convergent validity.

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which measures of 2 different constructs are relatively distinctive, that their correlation values are neither an absolute value of 0 nor 1 (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). A correlation analysis was done on the 4 factors generated and the result is presented. Thus, all the factors are not perfectly correlated where their correlation coefficients range between 0 or 1. Hence, we can conclude that discriminant validity has been established.

Nomological Validity

Nomological validity which is another form of construct validity is the degree to which a construct behaves as it should within a system of related constructs called a nomological set (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). Cronbach and Meehl (1955) posited that in order to provide evidence that a measure has construct validity, a nomological network has to be developed for its measure. In essence what this means is that we have to develop a nomological link between the variable we would like to validate and another variable which has been proven theoretically to be related to this particular variable. For example, previous researchers (e.g., Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003) have found a meaningful relationship between the 2 types of leadership styles and organizational commitment to change. So when we validate the construct validity of a power measure, we will use commitment to change to test the nomological validity. As organizational commitment to change has been shown to be related to leadership styles, we used the Capacity Beliefs dimension of organizational commitment to change to be correlated with the 3 dimensions of transactional and transformational styles, respectively, and the result is presented in Table 6. As theorized, the 2 dimensions were significantly related to organizational commitment to change thus confirming nomological validity.

Table 6: Results of the nomological validity test

	Contingent Rewards	Passive Management by Exception	Active Management by Exception	Idealized Consideration	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation
Dependent Commitment to change			-.00	.18*	-.18*	.21**

**p< 0.01, *p< 0.05

Reliability

Reliability measures the degree to which the test score indicates the status of an individual item on the factors defined by the test, as well as the degree to which the test score demonstrates individual differences in these traits (Cronbach, 1947 as cited in McCoach, 2002). "A reliability coefficient demonstrates whether the test designer was correct in expecting a certain collection of items to yield interpretable statements about individual differences" (Cronbach, 1951, p. 297 as cited in McCoach, 2002). The reliability coefficient was 0.86 for Contingent Rewards, 0.87 for Passive Management by Exception, 0.50 for Active Management by Exception, 0.93 for Idealized Consideration, 0.81 for Inspirational Motivation, and 0.86 for Intellectual Stimulation. Hence, it can be concluded that these measures possess sufficient reliability for except Active Management by Exception as it consists only 2 items.

Table 7: Reliability coefficients	
Variable	Cronbach Alpha
Contingent Rewards	0.86
Passive Management by Exception	0.87
Active Management by Exception	0.50
Idealized Consideration	0.93
Inspirational Motivation	0.81
Intellectual Stimulation	0.86

Table 8: Descriptive for the major constructs		
	Mean	Std. Deviation
trancCR	5.4481	.90780
trancPA	5.7106	1.01612
trancAC	4.9829	.93295
transfII_IC	5.5178	.92358
transf_IM	5.0171	.91570
transf_IS	5.0023	.92102
Note: All items used a 7-point Likert scale with (1=Strongly disagree and 7=Strongly agree)		

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study has chosen universities' employees in Malaysia as respondents. It is believed that exploring the phenomenon of transformational and transactional leadership styles among higher education learning in Malaysia has certainly broaden the understanding of these two leadership styles. Without a doubt the research on these two leadership styles are still limited in its ability to

provide an unequivocal guideline and to advise on the best way to exercise their power. However, by drawing upon the diverse literatures, this study has inevitably developed some guidelines for scholars as well as leaders on the effective use of new leadership styles.

It has been propounded that, the progress of researches on leadership styles have been slow but steady (Bruins, 1999). Over the past few years, there has been a strong increased interest in these matters both in terms of theoretical thinking as well as empirical research. It is believed that an appropriate time to address the extent to which the progress about transformational and transactional leadership styles thus far could be applied to a variety of social issues.

Hence, it is timely to understand the importance of the dimensionality of leadership styles as it can be extremely useful for organizational behavior studies. Although the dimensionality of leadership styles has been studied in previous researches, no known researches have been found to empirically study the dimensionality of leadership styles in the Malaysia context. Hence, this study has added to the growing body of research in power by using a series of tests to test for validity and reliability of the constructs. Preliminary results demonstrated a valid (content, construct, convergent, discriminant and nomological) as well as reliable six dimension scale for measuring both transactional and transformational leadership styles.

It was found that only three dimensions each of transactional and transformational namely, Contingent Rewards, Passive Management by Exception, Active Management by Exception, Idealized Consideration, Inspirational Motivation, and Intellectual Stimulation. are capable of explaining sufficient variation in the construct being measured in Malaysia context. Hence, the results of this study show some interesting similarities and differences concerning the dimensionality of leadership construct between western context and eastern context. Thus, having a guide like the present study to follow can be very helpful to researchers in leadership structure related areas.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This research triggers the need for more research in power bases literatures as individuals holding powerful positions would normally act and present themselves in more idiosyncratic and variable ways (Guinote, Judd, & Brauer, 2002). Perhaps future researches should look at the consequences of various leadership styles and to investigate when the right time to exercise the right type of leadership.

Although the study has provided sufficient insights into the studied dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership styles, the results could not be generalized in view of the fact that all the variables were taken from the same source and there is a possibility of common methods variance. Thus, longitudinal studies are likely to provide a better insight into the dimensionality of leadership styles over a period of time. In addition, different cultural and international contexts may limit the generalizability of results. It is unclear whether the findings may

have the same implications for leadership styles in different cultural environment as the values of the participants in this current study might not accurately represent the values of other countries’.

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TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, CAMPUS CLIMATE AND IT'S IMPACT ON STUDENT RETENTION

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ABSTRACT

Higher education institutions are looking for ways to increase minority representation and retention. This article focuses on transformational leadership, campus climate, and its overall impact on student retention of African American college attending predominantly White Institutions (PWIs). African American students at PWIs were survey and results concluded a strong correlation between campus climate and student retention. African American students seek to be a part of a diverse body and through lens of transformational leadership and systematic approaches as it relates to campus climate graduation rates gaps can decrease among African American students at PWIs

INTRODUCTION

Transformational leadership fosters a collaborative approach to problem solving. Hallenger's transformational leadership focused on increasing the organizational or institutional capacity to develop collaborative approaches in student leadership. Rather than focusing on the pitfalls in academia, direct coordination control, and supervision of curriculum and instruction, transformational leaders increased the institutional capacity to select its purposes and to support changes in teaching and learning. Hallenger found that through innovative practices, the framework improved retention and academic success for minority groups at PWIs through shared vision and commitment to school change.

The transformational leadership model promoted a shared fluidity (Louis & Marks, 1998). The behavioral components, such as individualized support, intellectual stimulation, and personal vision, conceptualized change and focused on modeling change in understanding the needs of the learning community rather than in controlling institutional change (Louis & Marks, 1998; Ogawa & Bossert, 1995). The model persuaded people by building from the bottom-up rather than from the top down. Therefore, the educational change created a supportive college environment.

Transformational leadership theory could only be effective by including African-American students and getting them involved (Hallenger, 2003). Minority student enrollment increased by nearly 10% since 2000 (Wilds, 2000); however, gains for African-American in higher education enrollment showed the smallest increase among the nation's four leading minority groups (Terenzini, Yeager, Bohr, Pascarella, & Amaury, 1997). Research indicated that African-American students, who were not successful at PWIs, attributed one of the factors to campus climate (Lewis et al., 2000; Mow & Nettles, 1990).

CAMPUS CLIMATE

The exclusion from mainstream activities, access to academic networks, financial support, and isolation were several themes that continued to be problematic for African-American students. African-American students expressed their lack of access to campus networks that were available to their White peers. White students rarely associated with them or attempted to include them in study groups, in class activities, and other social networks. Ancis et al. concluded that African-American students viewed themselves as invisible and not a part of the broader culture.

African-American Awareness and Consciousness

Schwitzer et al. (1999) noted that African-American students at PWIs felt their race or ethnicity gained intensity on college campuses. African-American consciousness became the norm for African-Americans at PWIs. Their skin color, vernacular speech, nonverbal communication, and appearance produced negative or positive reactions (Douglass, 2000). Their cultural values gained acceptance only if their character, language, and outer appearance reflected a Eurocentric, conservative norm. The reflection mirrored a negative when their appearance appeared Afro centric (Sedlacek, 1998). These students faced many hidden presumptions due to their skin color, creating an overly conscious view of what it meant to be an African-American student in a predominantly White environment (Lewis et al., 2000).

Residence Halls

Sedlacek (1999) indicated that campus life in residence halls and fraternities was a problem for African-American students at PWIs. Studies indicated that African-American students experienced African-American consciousness in dormitories through racial microaggressions and through only pairing with other African-American students. Research revealed that a significant number of African-American students felt unconnected to the learning and living environment because the campus climate was unwelcoming to African-American and other minority students (Bristow, 2002; Gloria, Kurpius, Hamilton, & Wilson, 1999).

Acculturation

The assimilation and acculturation into the broader culture of the institution could be difficult for African-American students in White settings due to the long history of race relations (Holmes et al., 2000). African-American students felt pressured to conform to the dominant culture. They sacrificed their cultural values and accepted the dominant culture to fit into their respective institutional setting. Minority students expressed difficulty adjusting to White campus environments, while trying to remain true to their identity and cultural values. Students often conformed to survive and build social networks to progress through the college experience.

Assimilation

African-American students find it difficult to assimilate on predominantly White campuses due to cultural differences and learning styles. The American educational system mirrored the thoughts, attitudes, and beliefs of a European Anglo-Saxon culture. The dominant Anglo-Saxon culture used one primary method of delivery for teaching and learning, characterized as individualistic and competitive (Holmes et al., 2001). “Some minority groups, on the other hand, are characterized as noncompetitive collaborative learners” (Holmes et al., p. 45). Anderson (1988) noted there were cognitive learning style differences within minority groups that did not reflect traditional teaching methodologies, the primary instructional practice said to benefit all students. There was a distinct difference in the ways in which majority and minority students communicated and made meaning. Therefore, categorizing or developing one primary methodology or pedagogy to fit all cultural norms was impossible without considering all minority groups to benefit the entire learning community.

Holmes et al. (2001) reported the low retention of African-American students at PWIs “is a result or function of inadequate planning when combining people with difference cultures, values, and learning styles” (p. 46). The learning community became intolerable for African-American students when members of the dominant culture did not consider their culture or prepared to interact with others besides their dominant culture. Communication is critical for African-American and minority students. Holmes et al. found that these students wanted to be among a scholarly body that embraced diversity and personified an inclusive learning environment.

Adaptation

African-American students at PWIs have not reached the full intentions of *Brown v. Board of Education* related to student retention and student success. The academic and social learning networks pushed African-American students into isolation or creation of a homogenous culture (Fries-Britt & Turner, 2001). For many African-American students attending PWIs, simply being

a part of campus life created comfort (Austin, 1996). Many African-American students expressed feelings of alienation and isolation due to a lack of critical mass of African-American students, faculty, and administration (Allen et al., 1991). African-American students became comfortable and easily connected to the learning environment if they participated in programs designed with their needs in mind (Fries-Britt & Turner, 2001). Austin's (1999) theory of student involvement hypothesized that students, who devoted their time and energy to campus life, were more likely to develop and grow with the institution and succeed in their undergraduate programs (Holmes et al., 2001).

Identifiable triggers highlighted the intrinsic self-concept of African-American students who endured colorblind ideologies of race and ethnicity on college campuses. Assimilation and adaptation might, at times, create hostile environments, which led to higher dropout rates among African-American students attending PWIs. Wilds (2000) noted in American Council on Education statistics, the graduation rate for African-American students was 40%, while Asian American was 65% and Caucasian was 58% (Fries-Britt & Turner, 2001). The findings within this research study yielded significant findings linking student retention to campus climate.

Table 1: Overall Regression Coefficients for Student Retention to Predictor Variables					
Variable	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Campus Climate	1.382	.389	.485	3.526	.001
Racial Stereotypes	.348	.158	-.301	-2.207	.032
Faculty Relationships	3.900	.275	.192	1.419	.162
GPA	.033	.277	-.016	-.118	.907

Specifically, campus climate ($t(54) = 3.526$) was significant and positively related to student retention; racial stereotypes ($t(54) = -2.207$) was significantly and negatively associated with student retention.

Table 2 demonstrates there is a significant relationship between student retention and the perceptions of African-American students at an HBCU and PWI regarding campus climate, racial stereotypes, and faculty relationships.

The significant levels for African-American students at PWI fell under the $p < .05$ significance level for campus climate ($p = .028$) and racial stereotypes ($p = .042$). Faculty relationships were not significant ($p = .200$). On the other hand, racial stereotypes ($p = .939$) and faculty relationships ($p = .633$) were not significant predictors for HBCU students. Campus climate approached significance ($p = .056$). Although there was evidence of significant relationships between student retention and the perceptions of African-American students, the significant predictor variables differed for students at the PWI compared to students at the HBCU.

Table 2: HBCU and PWI Regression Coefficient for Student Retention and Predictor Variables					
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
HBCU					
Campus Climate	1.329	.643	.649	2.069	.056
Racial Stereotypes	-.033	.421	-.023	-.078	.939
Faculty Relationships	-.221	.454	-.121	-.488	.633
PWI					
Campus Climate	1.533	.665	.348	2.306	.028
Racial Stereotypes	-.424	.199	-.328	-2.129	.042
Faculty Relationships	.847	.346	.391	2.448	.020

CONCLUSION

Campus climate has been identified as a contributing factor as to why African-American students are unsuccessful at PWIs. African-American students want to be a part of the broader cultural climate on campus. Daily, African-Americans strive for equality at PWIs (Davis et al., 2004). The educational experience should be inclusive in nature and not exclude persons from the general body. Often, students lost their locus of control and internal motivation because their Afrocentric heritage was poorly received rather than being embraced.

The cornerstone of education is diversity and the equality of all involved in the educational process (Hallenger, 2003) and change builds through transformational leadership. Transformational leadership permits educational institutions to enact institutional change through a shared and authentic vision; it creates a learning environment that engages a shared community.

Institutional leaders, campus policy makers, and teachers can better understand how to develop and implement initiatives by looking at current and past research as well as taking active measures such as semiannual meetings, open forums, and student and faculty surveys regarding the academic and racial climate on college campuses. These types of ongoing dialogues and surveys explore possibilities and solutions to create harmonious learning communities. Open dialogue and ongoing evaluations provide awareness was the hallmark of Luhmann's social systems theory, which allowed educational leaders and institutions to craft training, educational programs and forums to create an educational ethos that is conducive, equitable, and fair for all minority students. Policymaking is about creating effective change for all minorities at PWIs who feel their campus climate is unwelcoming, who endure racial stereotypes, and feel a lack of satisfactory faculty relationships.

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WHY SO FEW MINORITY PROFESSORS IN HIGHER EDUCATION?

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ABSTRACT

The percentage of minority professors in higher education is extremely low. Several research studies were analyzed to try to discover some of the reasons behind this phenomenon. This paper focuses on problem areas with minorities as students and professors, the education of our public school teachers, and some institutional efforts aimed at alleviating the situation. Minorities require a great deal of social support when they are students as well as when they are instructors. Many teacher education programs need to be reformed in order for disadvantaged youth to get a quality education. Colleges and universities are building branch campuses to assist in eliminating some of the obstacles for minorities. The government may have to step in to try to assist. Progress toward a solution will continue to be slow until real changes are made in the social structure.

INTRODUCTION

In the United States minorities have long been underrepresented in many different areas. Since its infancy social inequities have been a part of this country with the majority building a structure that ensures things will always remain the same. The teaching field, specifically college professors, is one of those areas that have not seen much change over time. In 1980 Blacks made up 4.3% of full-time faculty in American universities, and by 2003, that figure had only risen to 5.5% (Cooper, 2009). In more than two decades (23 years) the numbers had only gone up by 1.2%. If change is to occur, this number has to be considered unacceptable and something must be done to rectify the situation.

This paper will investigate some of the reasons behind the lack of minority professors in higher education. It will discuss a few of the obstacles that minorities face not only as students, but also as professors. Then, it will analyze the education of our public school teachers, and end with some of the measures taken at private institutions to assist minority students in overcoming some of the obstacles they face. For a positive adjustment to take place, the first step would be to get to the root of the problem.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Not a lot of literature is devoted strictly to the minority professor, but a lot of research is devoted to studying the problems minorities face as students, the hardships experienced by professors of color, the education of our public school teachers because of the big impact they have on students and the actions taken by colleges and universities.

The studies will be discussed as each topic is addressed.

MINORITIES AS STUDENTS

Most minority students do not grow up thinking of becoming teachers, or even going to college. They may not always have parents that are able to be completely involved in their education, so they turn to their peers. This could be good or bad depending on who they choose to associate with. Teachers can also have a lot of influence on the educational choices of economically disadvantaged minority students. Whoever is influencing these kids needs to make sure they are influencing them in the right direction.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT

Adolescents' decisions can often be influenced by many different people or things. Parents can be a huge factor in determining if their kids will end up enrolling in college or not. Children from low-income families, which many minorities are, often have less parental involvement in their education than their wealthier counterparts. The low-income parents may not know anything about higher education. In fact, to many of them the high school diploma is still considered the sign of upward mobility. While a diploma is something to be proud of, the importance of a college degree in today's world cannot be ignored.

The minority students' parental involvement is at a disadvantage. Michael J. Smith (2009) argues that parental involvement in college choice can be a huge factor for underprivileged students. The study explains how access to selective colleges and universities has become a very competitive game where parents try to make sure their children attend the most prestigious schools possible. This can often work against students from low-income families because their parents lack the economic and social resources to help them compete (Smith, 2009). Many factors such as: inflexible work schedules, inconveniences in public transit, and resource inequities might work against low-income parents. Because these parents often work odd hours, they have less time to attend meetings at school. If they do not have at least one car, they will also have a difficult time attending meetings and activities at their kids' schools. Being limited to public transit is definitely inconvenient. Finally, resource inequities exist, also. These families may not have internet access making it nearly impossible to do any college research at home.

These barriers help to keep the low-income parent less involved, but that does not mean he/she does not support his/her child's education. They probably do not know much about college, and they have little to no knowledge of the many different higher education options. Attending a university is something that is expected in many middle and upper-middle class households, but is often looked at as an unrealistic option in low-income households. These families might perceive the cost as being too high, and they could be unaware of the different types of financial assistance that are out there. Once again in these households the focus is sometimes put on the high school diploma (Smith, 2009).

PEER INFLUENCE AND SCHOOL NETWORKS

The strong influences of peer pressure have been well documented over recent years. The negative side of peer influence is usually what is focused on, but there can be positive impacts as well. When kids are deciding whether or not to enroll in college their peers can be huge factors in their decisions. Sokatch's (2006) research on roles that peers play in the decision to go to college began establishing the importance of a college degree for economic reasons as well as social mobility. The 2004 U.S. Census Bureau reported that men with a bachelor's degree had a median income 64% higher than men who only completed high school. The difference between the women was even greater with a median income 70% higher (Sokatch, 2006). His research found that friends' plans were significant predictors of college enrollment for low-income, minority high school graduates. In fact, they were the best predictor by far of all the variables Sokatch used (Sokatch, 2006). If students see their friends trying to better themselves, then they will be more motivated to do the same. If their peers know about colleges and what it takes to get into them, then they will naturally be more aware as well. Some have argued that this may be explained by college-bound students choosing similar academically oriented classmates as friends. This might be the case in some instances, but surely it should not be generalized across the board.

While children are most definitely impacted by those closest to them, (parents and peers) schools can also take an active part in guiding and directing student choices. Many studies have shown the importance of school-based social capital for college-planning tasks and activities of students of color. As mentioned before, these children may not get as much guidance from their parents or peers, so the networks at schools might be even more important for them. College and/or guidance counselors can be a tremendous influence on kids from this group that end up going to college.

Experiential learning could include taking students on tours of college campuses. If they get to experience that atmosphere it is more likely that they will begin to consider it a very real option for their own futures, especially if they see college students they can identify with. Farmer-Hinton's research (2008) showed that many black students really opened up to the idea of college after visiting Historically Black Colleges and Universities. Students in the study felt that touring these

facilities raised their consciousness and widened their perspectives. This helped the idea of going to college seem less vague and raised their confidence about the viability of college access. This type of enrichment activity gives the kids a chance to see just what college is all about.

High expectations are also very useful when guiding the college choices of students of color. Many of these kids have had people expect little to nothing out of them in the past. When you expect more out of people, they will usually end up expecting more out of themselves as well. When more is expected the pupils translate that into the teacher or counselor believing in them. Having others believe in them will often help them find the power to actually believe in themselves. Staying on these students with the idea that they have the opportunity and they should go to college can be a major influence on their ultimate decisions. Wanting more out of each individual student might eventually help them realize that they really do want more out of their own life.

Finally, if they have the time and resources to search for colleges and fill out applications, they will have a much better chance of attending postsecondary school. Students in Farmer-Hinton's study (2008) were provided class time and space to do research on colleges. They were also required to submit applications to those colleges and use class time to draft those applications and personal statements (Farmer-Hinton, 2008). Giving students the opportunity to take care of these tasks at the school can be a big help to them. Students without access to these resources will have a harder time completing the college-planning process, which can be confusing and very time consuming.

TEACHER INFLUENCE

Teachers can also have a large impact on student's decisions on whether or not to attend college. Sometimes this is especially true for economically disadvantaged children. These kids deal with a lot more difficult situations than children of higher income families. Living in poverty can be very stressful and has the tendency to hamper educational development and achievement. These disadvantaged students, many of which are minorities, are often excluded from enrichment programs and extracurricular activities because of cost and limited mobility (Foster, 2008). They need teacher support more than others if they are to succeed in their educational aspirations.

The research shows that when students perceive teachers as caring it is associated with several positive results including higher attendance, more time spent studying, increased academic achievement, and a much lower drop-out rate (Foster, 2008). Lately, learner-centered teaching approaches have been getting a lot of publicity for their effectiveness in helping economically disadvantaged students. Different from the traditional method, the learner-centered method is based on a model of back and forth learning. With the old approach the teacher teaches and hopefully the student learns. The flaw with this is that some children learn differently than others, and individuality is not embraced with this method. With the learner-centered approach students are seen as active, knowledgeable, and individualized with an optimum speed and learning style (Foster, 2008).

Foster's study (2008) looked at a high school where teachers were using this new method in the classroom. This particular school started a higher education initiative that they called early college high school. This program was meant to encourage economically disadvantaged students to attend college. It featured an overlap in high school and college credit, and students could even earn an associate's degree by the time they graduated from high school. Proponents believed that the shorter time frames and lowered expenses would get more disadvantaged kids interested in continuing their educations beyond high school.

The structure of the early college high school courses featured smaller class sizes, individualized learning, high academic expectations, and much more experiential material, all of which are components of the learner-centered approach (Foster, 2008). Before the year began each student created a personalized learning plan with his or her advisor and parents. This plan was geared toward student interests, knowledge, and learning style, and was intended to keep the students actively involved in the learning process (Foster, 2008). This style of teaching seemed to create even higher expectations as pupils had to assume ownership and take control of their own learning.

Foster's study (2008) then looked at how the students felt about their teachers in the early college high school as compared to teacher they had before this experience. Most past experiences left students wanting more out of their instructors. Two common themes existed in many of the pupils' evaluations, teaching for the paycheck and the worksheet mentality. Instructors seen as teaching for the paycheck were characterized as not wanting to be there and giving very little effort. These teachers were not actively involved in the learning process, and they looked at school as more of a daycare. The worksheet mentality was more focused on the completion of short assignment instead of sequenced learning. Students either did their work or not, and a grade signaled the end of learning.

After a year in the early college high school program students praised their new teachers. They truly believed the instructors cared about them and were committed to their learning processes. The teachers were seen as very encouraging and supportive toward the children. Many kids came out and said that their former teachers were nowhere near as passionate as the ones at the early college high school (Foster, 2008). Instructors from the new school even made visits to the homes of students to make the planning process easier. This also established that they would both be learning from each other and were in the situation together. It showed students that they would be working together with teachers, instead of working for them or against them. Nearly every student in this program went on to attend college. This particular study showed how valuable teachers can be in influencing student decisions about college, as well as how effective a non traditional approach can be.

TEACHER EDUCATION AND PREPARATION

For minorities to accomplish more in this world they must have a good education. How they are taught during their early years could set them up for the rest of their lives. If they are encouraged and held to a higher standard by teachers that try and relate to them then they have a higher probability of achieving academic success. For this reason it is very important that teachers come equipped with effective ways to get through to economically disadvantaged children. How and what our teachers are taught during their own schooling is more important than ever if they are to do a good job with underprivileged youth.

Too often these education programs are not practical enough to be applied in the classroom. They sound good and nice during lecture, but they may have never been tested out in the real world. The achievement gap between white students and minority students has shown us that there is not one way to do things. Diverse students and mainstream students might not process or learn information in the same manner. This falls back on the colleges and professors of education. They must do a better job preparing future teachers for the classroom and its diverse issues.

It has been shown that teachers can have a huge impact on the achievement of minority students. They can also influence their ideas about themselves and their attitudes, which makes these types of pupils more dependent on the teacher than their white counterparts are. These teachers must get the proper instruction so they can meet the needs of these diverse students. Inexperienced teachers are often put in positions where they are teaching in urban areas, and too often they feel overwhelmed and unprepared. The classroom gets away from them before they know it, and they end up spending most of their time dealing with behavior issues. These students are more than likely acting out because the teacher is not meeting their instructional needs. It is no coincidence that these instructors often found their own education programs to be poor or mediocre at best (Talbert-Johnson, 2006). They also believed many of their professors seemed disinterested in the public school system and were detached from the realities of an urban school setting.

Talbert-Johnson (2006) contends that teacher education programs should provide more clinical experiences throughout the process. She also feels that emphasizing these experiences early on will give the future instructors a conceptual structure for them to organize and better understand the dynamics of the classroom (Talbert-Johnson). Colleges may even look at placing future teachers in nonschool programs that get them more acquainted with the type of diverse students and cultural differences they will face. Too often the instructors in an urban school setting are under-qualified and unprepared for the job, but this reflects back on their own education and training. Universities must create programs that are effective in both giving teachers the knowledge and the dispositions that will translate into them running successful classrooms, especially where the diverse student is concerned.

H. Richard Milner IV studied his own teacher education course where he attempted to introduce the relevance of race and racism in society and thus education. Through personal narrative

and self-study Milner found that it was very important for him to include personal experiences into his instructor material (Milner, 2007). He believed that this allowed the students to see him as not just a professor, but as a normal that they could empathize with. They were able to see that he experienced life, the good along with the bad just as they themselves did. Milner was able to get students to rethink some of their points of view and see things from a different perspective. Many of his pupils began in his class believing that racism did not exist much anymore, but after some time listening to his personal stories and discussing them they were able to look back and identify past incidents that might very well have been racist acts (Milner, 2007). Milner showed future educators that racism was still in the classroom, and he also showed them how to stop it.

Self-study is the teacher educator's examination of their own practice in an effort to improve their own work (Milner, 2007). This is a very important reflective process that can help instructors see what they are doing right and what they are doing wrong. Personal narratives are a great teaching tool, but they can only be considered effective if they improve teachers' practices with students. Milner argued that teacher educators should implore more self-study by checking up on their students in their own classrooms. Professors could decide if the teachers are doing a better job with the students, especially the minorities. Self-study will help professors see if the students are improving in their curricular and instructional decisions (Milner, 2007). Without self-study teacher educators will have a difficult time learning from their work and improving upon it.

MINORITIES AS PROFESSORS

Aspiring minority professors may find impediments to their success throughout their educational experiences. The few that make it to the end have probably gone through some tough and trying times to get there. This can be a good thing because it builds character, shapes who they become, and gives them life lessons to use in the classroom. However, this will likely not be the final test, as they will encounter more problems after they are hired to teach at a college or university. A couple of areas of concern for minority college educators are student resistance and a difficult or biased administration. Networking with other faculty and creating support groups can be excellent tools to help them deal with these situations.

STUDENT RESISTANCE

After overcoming the many obstacles just to get into the position, minority professors find a whole new set of road blocks once they are actually in the classroom. Individuals hired to teach diversity-centered courses may have it the worst. Mainstream or majority students may be extremely resistant to minority professors that are teaching on diverse issues. Student resistance will be defined as students challenging an instructor's credibility and authority by inappropriately opposing the instructor's presence in the classroom (Perry et al., 2009). Most teachers will experience student

resistance at some point, but for minority faculty, it can be experienced on a much larger scale, even daily. This is especially true for minority professors teaching diversity-centered courses. Student resistance can leave the educator with a “me against them” feeling, which makes the classroom a volatile place with a very negative atmosphere. One instructor even described her classroom as a battlefield: “I’m going into this place where it’s going to be me against them. It feels awful. It feels like you are before the class and you basically put on your fighting gear. You feel like you are putting your armor on and it’s only you” (Perry et. al, 2009). This type of environment is not conducive to learning.

Student behavior of this sort might be explained by the fact that many of these mainstream students have not encountered minorities, particularly blacks, in positions of authority. Also, racism and sexism are very delicate topics for many people, and they would rather not discuss them than have entire lessons on them. These topics can make many individuals, especially white students, very uncomfortable. Often when people get uncomfortable, they become very defensive. Programs that are implemented to cover Aboriginal, Black, and Asian issues are often met with a range of reactions from polite indifference, aloofness, disdain, and arrogance to open hostility from mainstream students (Samuel & Wane, 2005). This poses a major problem for minority educators hired to teach these perspectives not only in their pedagogy, but also in their careers.

In a study conducted by Samuel and Wane in 2005, diverse professors stated that white students were inattentive, rude, and indifferent to any lectures on racism (Samuel & Wane, 2005). These teachers perceived blatant resistance and hostility from the majority students, and when topics of race were discussed in class, they often felt disrespected by these students. Those who took part in the research felt that many of the students refused to learn about or discuss issues dealing with racism or sexism. Why is this so? White students may have been taking these issues personally. They may have felt somewhat guilty for the oppressions and injustices suffered by minorities throughout time even if they had nothing to do with them. Mainstream students often come from conservative households, and they may find minority professors much too extreme in their approaches. Then there is the supremacy factor. People that are raised to think they are better than other groups will exhibit that belief and behavior in the classroom. White students may feel that the minority professor is too extreme in his/her approach, or they might think the curriculum is biased and this information is being forced on them.

Another challenge that minority educators face is the questioning of their integrity. This happens when the students believe the instructor is biased and has his/her own personal motives and agendas. Part of the class may even call into question the credibility of the subject matter being taught. In Perry, Moore, Edwards, Acosta, and Frey’s study (2009), minority professors had students ask them if they were racist and where they got their information. Students openly questioned these professors about their lecture material and about the trustworthiness of the material. These were blatant attacks on the credibility of faculty of color inside the classroom.

To the participants in the study it seemed that the class members that acted in these ways were unable to look at the teacher as an outside party. This all goes back to these mainstream students thinking the teachers had their own personal motives and agendas. They may have felt that the instructor could not give an unbiased view on racial issues because of his/her own experiences. Part of the problem may also have been that the students were required to take a diversity-centered course. Many of them did not want to be in the class in the first place and were disinterested from the outset. This could have caused resentment. If the content is taught from a perspective far different from theirs, many students will wonder why they have to take this particular class. The resentment builds and builds and those students end up devaluing the minority professor along with all he/she has to say.

What makes it even more difficult for minority educators is that they perceive students as having the upper hand. Many diverse teachers actually see the students as having more power than they do. This might cause them to become less aggressive in their teachings for fear of losing their jobs. Students can complain to higher ups about the professor, the grading, or even the course content (Samuel & Wane, 2005). When students do this, they create a poor learning environment as well as an atmosphere that is very negative for the minority faculty member. Students can also get out of the course if they do not agree with the lectures and discussions. If this continually happens in large enough numbers, it will reflect poorly on the professor. This could lead the administration and even colleagues to jump to the conclusion that the teacher is too aggressive or even racist.

Students also carry a lot of power through their evaluations of the professor. Most schools give out teacher evaluations near the end of each semester. Those evaluations are an important factor in regard to tenure, renewal of contracts, and promotions. If students disagree with or show hostility toward the faculty member and his or her teaching methods, they will, more than likely, give that individual a poor evaluation. Because of this, minority educators sometimes feel that they are evaluated unfairly. Even poor-performing students or failing students get to share their opinions in these evaluations. This could obviously create a bias for many of the evaluation results. This doesn't seem fair that these students could comment on the ability of the instructor when they are not knowledgeable on the subject matter.

Being able to reach mainstream students and managing the classroom at the same time can be a difficult task to master. The teachers have to be aware of their environment. These minority professors must realize that they might be walking into a very hostile situation, and they should be fully prepared. Much of what they say could be challenged by unyielding students, making it imperative that they know what they are teaching and have the facts and statistics to back it up. Instructors have to anticipate challenges they could potentially face and be ready to deal with them. Teachers of diversity-centered education classes have to realize that they are asking students to challenge their own beliefs which may bring out some hostility and extreme reactions.

Minority professors may also want to try and establish a high level of credibility in the students' eyes from the beginning. Before starting to lecture, they may want to tell the class about their academic accomplishments. If they have contributed to research in the field, journal articles, or even books on the subject matter, they should disclose that information at the beginning (Perry et. al, 2009). This will make it less likely that students will devalue the instructor or the course content. Obviously this tactic will work much better for professors with more experience. A first-year teacher will have difficulty using this approach to his/her advantage.

DIFFICULTIES WITH ADMINISTRATION

Collegiate faculties depend on their administration and support staff. If biases exist within either or both of these groups, minority educators could be at risk. White administrative staff can delay work, do a poor job on work for the faculty members, or even "lose" files or documents in an effort to disrupt the work and credibility of these teachers.

In Samuel and Wane's study (2005), the minority faculty interviewed experienced a lack of administrative support from secretaries, colleagues, department chairs, and deans as compared to their white counterparts. The participants in this research believed that people of color were given place but not importance. Minority faculty or administrators were put in visible positions for public image reasons, but in many instances, their power did not match the position held. Minority educators at this particular institution also felt that research on nonmainstream topics was discouraged and not supported. One professor reported that it was extremely difficult to get funding for diversity projects. Without grants or some other form of funding, faculty is unable to do research. This poses a major dilemma to these teachers as many institutions require their faculty to do research and get published. Their jobs often depend on the quantity and quality of their research.

SUPPORTING EACH OTHER

While instructors in higher education settings are usually strong and very intelligent, they are still human. If things are not going well and they have no one to talk or listen to, these individuals can be very fragile. Professors need encouragement and support just as their students do.

Sharon Fries-Britt and Bridget Turner Kelly are African American professors who attended a predominantly White institution. They used each other for support and both achieved a great deal of success. Sharon and Bridget's relationship began as advisor and advisee. Bridget Turner Kelly was a first year doctoral student who happened to register for a class taught by Sharon Fries-Britt. Soon after this semester Sharon became Bridget's advisor, and they established a good working relationship as well as a great personal relationship. Together they went on to publish numerous studies in many top-tier journals. The two also biannually attended conferences and led roundtable

discussions on ways that black women could advance in their field (Fries-Britt & Turner Kelly, 2005).

These two worked so well together because they established trust very early, and they were able to escape their formal roles of teacher and student. Their identities as African American women helped to enhance the bond they shared as well as their productivity. Obviously Sharon and Bridget believe that universities should support networking, whether it is formal or informal, of minority faculty (Fries-Britt & Turner Kelly, 2005).

Fries-Britt and Turner Kelly (2005) showed people, through their own personal narratives, just how invaluable a support system can be. These two women leaned on each other during the hard times and celebrated together during the good times. They developed an unbreakable bond because of the similarities in their beliefs and backgrounds and are still close friends today.

Social networking at the workplace can be a very valuable tool for a minority educator. It is always easier to persevere through difficult times with someone giving support. Hardships are also made easier if one knows that others have been there before and gotten through it. Mentoring programs should be implemented at universities that lack them. Fries-Britt & Turner Kelly (2005) also feel very strongly about mentoring programs and think that institutions should recognize these contributions made by mentoring faculty. Professors of color would be wise to take advantage of these programs if they exist at their institution.

BRANCH CAMPUSES

College and universities are starting to set up branch campuses to make it easier for minority students to attend and obtain their college degree. Briscoe and Oliver (2006) studied the University of Texas at San Antonio, examining the main and branch campuses and their locations in terms of economic, ethnic, and situational geography. San Antonio was an excellent choice for this research because it is located right on an ethnic boundary between White and Hispanic Americans. Counties to the south of Bexar County (the county where San Antonio is located) are predominantly Hispanic, while counties to the north are predominantly White. Another reason to use this city is that it is a very large market with an economy that is dependent on marketing to Hispanics (Briscoe & Oliver 2006). San Antonio is the largest urban area in the country to be dominated by an ethnic minority.

The main campus of UTSA was built with the objective of putting the Mexican American into the mainstream of society, but it failed miserably (Briscoe & Oliver, 2006). A central location would have been best for accessibility to all groups, but private land interests got in the way, and the campus was constructed on the northwest end of the city. This area was and still is dominated by upper-middle class Whites, while the south and central areas of San Antonio was and still is where the majority of underprivileged minorities live. This made it more difficult on the group that would already have the hardest time making college fit into their world. The objective seemed bogus as the city was not serving the groups they set out to. The commute for someone living in the heart

of San Antonio would take a lot of time and money. These were just more road blocks for the people who already had enough obstacles to overcome. Many also argued that wealthier whites could easily manage a commute to the inner city, and that many of them would going off to the University of Texas at Austin or Texas A&M University anyway (Briscoe & Oliver, 2006).

The branch campus was built in downtown San Antonio to satisfy the original objectives of the main campus. The location, which adequately served the underprivileged population of the city, was an excellent choice. However, the disparities in educational offerings between the two campuses have led many to conclude that the branch campus is a failure. The classes and programs at the second site are not nearly as good as offerings at the main site. At the time of this study there were 52 different degrees offered at UTSA, but only three of them could be attained by students without having to go to the main campus. Sixty one percent of the students at the downtown site had to make the northbound commute to the main campus on a daily basis (Briscoe & Oliver, 2006). This is a major problem with many branch campuses around the country. With the extension only offering three degrees one could argue that it pushes underprivileged students in the wrong direction. This study shows that extension campuses just do not offer the same opportunities as the main campuses.

CONCLUSION

The number of minority professors in education is a social problem that needs to be addressed. Potential minority candidates struggle with many things from the start of their academic careers. These students may not get much academic involvement out of their parents or peers, so it is often critical that teachers step in and guide them. For this to happen, our colleges must do a better job of preparing future educators. For those non mainstream individuals that are in this profession, student resistance and difficulty with the administration can be impediments, making it very important to have a solid support system. Some colleges are trying to increase accessibility by offering branch facilities, but branch facilities haven't accomplished their intended goal which was to make it easier for minority students to attend a college or university to obtain their college degree.

Institutions of higher education are supposed to symbolize intellect and open mindedness, but the demographic makeup of our colleges' faculties does not support these themes and ideals. There are many reasons why the number of minority professors is not growing substantially, some of which are evident in the beginning of the academic process. To move forward the social structure in our country has to be altered. There are still far too many racial inequities present in our society. Obviously it will be challenging to turn this situation around and it will not happen over night, but we must come together to find a solution.

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SUBSTITUTES FOR LEADERSHIP AND JOB SATISFACTION: IS THERE A RELATIONSHIP?

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper was to examine the relationship between seven possible substitutes for leadership and overall job satisfaction. Data from 354 individuals working in multiple organizations in a large southern city were used to test the research question. The results of our analysis suggest that significant relationships do exist between five substitutes for leadership and job satisfaction. In this study, tasks characterized as intrinsically satisfying and tasks that provide direct feedback to the employee were associated with increases in job satisfaction. Organizational formality was also linked to increases in job satisfaction. The largest positive effect on job satisfaction was for intrinsically satisfying tasks. Tasks characterized as unambiguous, routine, and methodologically invariant were associated with decreases in job satisfaction. In addition, the presence of a close-knit and cohesive work group was associated with lower job satisfaction. The results of this study confirm the need for leaders to understand the environment in which they operate. Heightened awareness and deeper understanding of the working environment may make it possible for leaders to develop strategies for managing and perhaps for creating a dynamic which could produce greater job satisfaction for employees.

INTRODUCTION

This paper examines the relationship between selected substitutes for leadership (Kerr & Jermier, 1978) and the concept of job satisfaction. Previous research on leadership substitutes focused on identifying and explaining the basic effects of substitutes for leadership on various forms of leadership (Keller, 2006; Fuller, Morrison, Jones, Bridger, & Brown, 1999). In this study, we extend the inquiry into substitutes for leadership by examining potential links between leadership substitutes and job satisfaction. In this analysis, the focus was only on the potential for a main effects model (a substitutes only model) of the relationship between substitutes for leadership and job satisfaction.

SUBSTITUTES FOR LEADERSHIP

According to the path-goal theory of leadership, the role of a leader is the identification of those behaviors which are most likely to result in the attainment of desirable goals for subordinates (e.g., high levels of performance and increased satisfaction). Having defined the appropriate behaviors, the leader then engages in actions (behaviors) which will reduce or eliminate barriers to goal achievement. The relationship between leader behavior and subordinate motivation (path-goal instrumentality) can be moderated or influenced by the characteristics of subordinates and the structure of the environment. In a path-goal sense, the successful leader is the one who matches his or her behavior to the requirements of the situation and to the characteristics of his or her subordinates.

In general, the concept of substitutes for leadership represents an extension of the path-goal theory of leadership (Evans, 1970; House, 1971). The concept sought to identify specific factors or forces, which when present at high levels, act to interrupt the link between the behaviors of a leader and subordinate expectancies regarding desired outcomes. The central thesis of the substitutes for leadership construct is a belief that behaviors associated with traditional hierarchical leadership may not be important determinants of subordinate performance, commitment, and satisfaction in all cases.

Essentially, Kerr and Jermier (1978) argued that there are a series of characteristics which have the potential to either neutralize or substitute for the effects of leader behavior. The characteristics are three types: individual, task, and organizational characteristics. Individual characteristics suggested as potential substitutes included ability, experience, training and knowledge, need for independence, professionalism, and indifference towards rewards. Task characteristics identified as potential substitutes included unambiguous and routine tasks, methodologically invariant tasks, task provided feedback, and intrinsically satisfying tasks. Organizational characteristics proposed as potential substitutes included the level of formality, inflexibility, highly active advisory and staff functions, closely knit and cohesive work groups, lack of leader control over rewards, and spatial distance between leader and subordinates (Kerr & Jermier, 1978).

The key difference between traditional theories of leadership such as path-goal theory and the concept of substitutes for leadership is the idea that in certain situations, leader behaviors may be unnecessary. Although the concept of substitutes for leadership could be enormously appealing from a management perspective, the research evidence indicates mixed support for the substitutes construct. The initial work of Kerr and Jermier (1978) reported that intrinsically satisfying work and task provided feedback were substitutes for supportive leader behavior when predicting organizational commitment. The authors also found that routine tasks, organizational formality, intrinsic satisfaction, and task feedback significantly reduced subordinate perceptions of role ambiguity. However, these potential substitutes did not significantly reduce the effectiveness of

leader task and consideration behaviors that were intended to clarify subordinate roles. In addition, Howell and Dorfman (1981) reported that only the level of organizational formality could be considered a "strong" substitute for instrumental leader behavior when predicting subordinate job satisfaction and commitment.

The conceptualization, the operationalization, and the testing of the substitutes construct have been debated from the beginning. Dionne, Yammarino, Howell, and Villa (2005) provide a comprehensive review of the issues. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer (1996) conducted a meta-analysis of the relationships between substitutes for leadership and employee attitudes (job satisfaction), role perceptions, and performance. Their findings showed that the combination of substitutes and leader behaviors account for the majority on the variance in employee attitudes. Despite the debate or perhaps due to the debate, the concept continues to attract scholarly interest. For example, Keller (2006) examined transformational leadership, initiating structure, and selected substitutes for leadership as predictors of performance. He found that subordinate ability and intrinsically satisfying task predicted speed to market in research and development projects.

JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction has been defined as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Locke, 1976, p. 1300)." Job satisfaction is a global attitude that individuals maintain about their jobs based on perceptions of their jobs (Reilly, Chatham, & Caldwell, 1991). Studying job satisfaction aids in the understanding of those perceptions and their ultimate consequences. These investigations may help managers understand how employees form the attitudes that affect their job satisfaction (DeBats, 1982; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969; Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist, 1967).

Limited attention has been given to the relationship between job satisfaction and substitutes for leadership. Cordero, Farris, and DiTomaso (2004) report a positive relationship between the people skills of supervisors and the innovativeness, usefulness, promotability, and job satisfaction of subordinates. Pool (1997) reported that task and organizational substitutes were significant predictors of job satisfaction. In a study of stressors, leadership substitutes, and relations with supervision, Lapidus, Roberts, and Chonko (1997) reported that the stressor along with substitutes (organizational inflexibility, organizational formalization, and spatial distance from supervisor) were found to be significantly related to a salesperson's perceptions of stress with the boss. Podsakoff, et al. (1996) reported that on average substitutes for leadership uniquely accounted for more variance in criterion variables than did leader behaviors.

Substantially more attention has been given to the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and findings from that body of research may be useful in developing the understanding of the links between satisfaction and leadership substitutes. There have been several studies that questioned the causal ordering of these variables (e.g., Bateman &

Strasser, 1984; Williams & Hazer, 1986; Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller, 1986; Glisson & Durick, 1988; Huang & Hsiao, 2007). In a meta-analysis, Tett and Meyer (1993) reported that satisfaction and commitment contribute uniquely to turnover. Kacmar, Carlson, and Brymer (1999) found that the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational commitment was positive and statistically significant. However, Kacmar et al. (1999) reported that the links for affiliation, exchange, and identification commitment with job satisfaction were not significant. Whereas, Huang and Hsiao (2007) suggested that a reciprocal model explained the relationship. In an examination of performance of virtual workers, Golden and Veiga (2008) found that high quality superior subordinate relationships lead to higher levels of commitment and job satisfaction and performance for those who worked extensively in a virtual mode. In another study of the relationship between job attitudes and performance, Riketta (2008) confirmed the existence of a small but significant effect for attitudes (such as job satisfaction) on performance. Previous research reported a positive relationship between substitutes for leadership and job satisfaction (e.g., Pool, 1997; Jernigan, 1990).

METHOD

The sample for this study consisted of employees working in a large southern city. Respondents included the following groups: employees of the headquarters staff of a division of a multinational company, employees of regional production plants from two national consumer products corporations, employees of a multinational chemical firm, and employees of a regional financial services company. Questionnaires along with cover letters and addressed, postage-paid return envelopes were distributed through company mail to 640 potential study participants. Completed questionnaires were mailed directly to the researchers. Usable responses were received from 354 individuals for a response rate of 55 percent.

Demographic characteristics of the research subjects are summarized in Table 1. The mean age for the sample was 36 years, with 66 percent being male, 77 percent being white, and 22 percent being non-white. The education levels were as follows: (40 percent) college graduates, (11 percent) graduate degrees, (29 percent) completed some college, and (19 percent) high school graduates or less. The mean tenure with the current employer was 8 years, in the current job was 4.5 years, and with the supervisor was 2.3 years.

Table 1: Sample Characteristics	
Total number of usable responses	354
Non-managers	252
Managers	102

Table 1: Sample Characteristics	
Gender:	
Male	234
Female	117
Education	
High School or Less	69
Some College	104
College Graduate	141
Graduate Degree	40
Race/Ethnicity	
Non-white	79
White	272
Mean Age	36
Mean Job Tenure (years)	4.5
Mean Length of Employment (years)	8
Mean Tenure with Supervisor (years)	2.3

Variables, Measures, and Methodology

The relationship between the following variables was studied:

Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Independent Variables: Substitutes for Leadership

Individual Characteristics

1. Ability, Experience, Training & Knowledge
2. Professional Orientation

Task Characteristics

3. Unambiguous, Routine, Methodologically Invariant Task
4. Task Provided Feedback
5. Intrinsically Satisfying Task

Organizational Characteristics

6. Organizational Formality
7. Close-knit, Cohesive Work Group

Job satisfaction was measured using the Index of Job Satisfaction developed by Brayfield and Rothe (Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981). The index consisted of eighteen items of which half were reverse scored ($\alpha = .87$). Originally formulated with a 5 point agree-disagree scale, the index was modified to a 7-point (very strongly agree to very strongly disagree) scale in order to make it consistent with the other measures employed in this study. Sample items from the index include: "My job is like a hobby to me," "I am often bored with my job (R)," and "I find real enjoyment in my work."

Substitutes for leadership were measured with the Leadership Substitutes Scale by Kerr and Jermier (1978). Thirty-two items were selected from the scale. Seven point scales ranging from 1 strongly disagree to 7 strongly agree were used. Data were collected for seven potential substitutes. Two individual characteristics were measured: ability, experience, training, and knowledge (3 items, $\alpha = .75$) and professional orientation (3 items, $\alpha = .60$). Three task characteristics were measured: unambiguous, routine, methodologically invariant task (6 items, $\alpha = .67$), task provided feedback (3 items, $\alpha = .57$), and intrinsically satisfying task (3 items, $\alpha = .51$). Two organizational characteristics were measured: organizational formality (9 items, $\alpha = .83$) and close-knit, cohesive work group (5 items, $\alpha = .70$). An item for an individual characteristic was: "Because of my ability, experience, training, or job knowledge, I have the competence to act independently of my immediate supervisor." An item for a task characteristic was: "There is really only one correct way to perform most of my tasks." An item for an organizational characteristic was: "In this organization, performance appraisals are based on written standards."

The research question, "Is there a relationship between substitutes for leadership and job satisfaction?" was tested using multiple regression analysis. Although some of the alphas reported for the Substitutes for Leadership Scale are problematic, all items were retained in the analysis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the analysis of the data are included in Table 2. Five of the seven leadership substitutes included in the analysis were significant. Only the two substitutes classified as individual characteristics were not significant. As suggested by previous research, our results indicate a mostly positive relationship between leadership substitutes and job satisfaction. This study suggests that individuals who perceive their work as intrinsically satisfying are significantly more satisfied with their jobs ($\beta = .466$, $p = .000$) than individuals who do not express such a belief. Similarly, individuals who perceive their organizational work environment as comparatively high in formality also express higher job satisfaction ($\beta = .141$, $p = .008$). Individuals who characterize their jobs as routine and those who characterize their immediate work group as close-knit and cohesive express significantly less satisfaction with their job ($\beta = -.157$, $p = .004$; $\beta = -.106$, $p = .026$) than other respondents. In the context of the substitutes for leadership concept, an intrinsically satisfying task and organizational formality could be categorized as leadership "enhancers" in that they act to

increase satisfaction with the supervisor. Conversely, a routine task and a close knit, cohesive work group would be characterized as leadership neutralizers in that the perceived existence of such substitutes could act to decrease satisfaction with the job.

Table 2: Regression Results			
	Standardized Coefficients		
Selected Substitutes for Leadership Regressed on Job Satisfaction	Beta	t	Significance
Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction			
Individual Characteristics:			
Ability, experience, training, and knowledge	-.013	-.279	.781
Professional orientation	-.001	-.025	.980
Task Characteristics:			
Unambiguous, routine, and methodologically invariant task	-.157	-2.865	.004
Task provided feedback	.181	3.587	.000
Intrinsically satisfying task	.466	9.100	.000
Organizational Characteristics:			
Organizational formality	.141	2.680	.008
Close-knit cohesive work group	-.106	-2.236	.026

The effect found for intrinsically satisfying task was predicted by the long stream of work in the area of satisfaction and motivation such as Herzberg. Likewise, organizational formality creates a stronger sense of consistency between what the individual may hear from their supervisor and the information provided by the organization such as through policies and procedures. In the case of the close-knit, cohesive work group, research on the strength of group norms provides a possible explanation. For example, in a cohesive group or team, the group could provide the support subordinates may expect leaders to provide in other settings.

The results of this study suggest that substitutes for leadership may impact both the potential for leader effectiveness as well as subordinates' satisfaction with the job. Furthermore, in today's environment of continuing emphasis on empowerment, and the emergence of autonomous work groups and teams, managers may want to use the existence of substitutes for leadership to their advantage. Effectively manipulating the environment in order to take advantage of leadership substitutes can free up the manager to do other things. While it might be acceptable to take advantage of positive leadership substitutes and enhancers, leaders should minimize or avoid situations involving leadership neutralizers. The result reported here for close-knit, cohesive work group is an example of such a situation. It is widely understood and accepted that group norms can at times run contrary to the interests of the organization. In this study, the existence of a close-knit,

cohesive work group reduced employees' satisfaction with their job. This result could act as a barrier to leader communication with the group that translates into increased expressions of dissatisfaction with the organization. Managers and leaders may be obligated to act to reduce group cohesion in order to avoid such potential problems.

The limitations of this study include the cross sectional design and common method variance issues. We also did not examine the impact of leadership style on the relationships analyzed in this research study. Future research could include an examination of leadership variables.

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WORK LOCUS OF CONTROL AND THE MULTI-DIMENSIONALITY OF JOB SATISFACTION

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ABSTRACT

This study furthers the research on work locus of control (WLC) and job satisfaction by examining the relationships between these variables using multiple dimensions of job satisfaction. In particular, we employ Herzberg Two-Factor theory to hypothesize WLC as a predictor of satisfaction with work on present job, predictor of satisfaction with present pay, predictor of satisfaction for opportunities for promotion, predictor for satisfaction with supervision, predictor for satisfaction with people at work, and predictor for the job in general. Further, we suggest WLC will have impact differences on the WLC-job satisfaction dimensions relationships. We examine these proposed relationships in a sample of 114 accountants in the southeastern part of the United States. In general, our results provide strong support for the proposed associations. Limitations, managerial implications, directions for future research, and conclusion are offered.

INTRODUCTION

At no point in history have there been more people in the workforce than there are today. These individuals are constantly faced with new expectations, goals and other pressures in our modern organizations. This social milieu and other circumstances that arise in an individual's daily transactions comprise an environment where individuals find job satisfaction as a focal point in their being. Job satisfaction has been defined as the extent to which individuals like their jobs or as a pleasurable, positive emotional state that can result from a individual's appraisal of their job or job experiences (Levy, 2003; Tanriverdi, 2008). Stated more simply, job satisfaction can be considered an individual's negative or positive feelings about their job. Research has indicated that job satisfaction can encompass as many as twenty different dimensions which include: recognition, compensation, supervision, job security, and advancement on the job, etc. (Weiss, England, & Losquist, 1967). Despite the various approaches to the study of job satisfaction, most researchers suggest the concept be viewed multidimensionally (Bell & Weaver, 1987).

The study of job satisfaction is not a new focus for researchers; however, it is helpful to take a brief review of its origin into organizational studies. The phenomena of job satisfaction and

motivation has been of interest to organizational researchers since the 1930s. Elton Mayo and the famous Hawthorne studies (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939), which focused mainly on the effects of supervision, incentives, and working conditions fueled the interest in large part. Mayo and his associates assumed that organizations that experienced success would generally have satisfied employees, concluding satisfaction was at least one predictor of organizational outcomes (Gortner, Mahler, & Nicholson, 1987).

Over the past five decades, job satisfaction has been an extensively researched topic in the organizational studies literature (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Hackman & Oldham, 1975). The central question and the most crucial volleying in the ongoing debate continues to surround the relationship between job satisfaction and performance (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Petty, McGee, & Cavender, 1984; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985). Results of a meta-analysis conclude there is a strong relationship between the two variables (Petty et al., 1984). Despite these results, there continues to be mixed empirical support among researchers. Modern organizations are constantly focused on gaining and maintaining competitive advantages in the marketplace, thus understanding as many variables as possible that lead to improved individual and organizational performance and job satisfaction are of special interests. Subsequently, today's hypercompetitive environments, force researchers and practitioners alike to look for these definitive answers.

One of the factors that has been found to be closely related to job satisfaction is locus of control (Spector, 1982; Spector & O'Connell, 1994; Chen & Silverstone, 2008). Locus of control has been defined as the belief that an individual has the necessary behavioral skills and the individual will receive their determined reinforcements (Lefcourt, 1982; Phares, 1978). Additionally, meta-analysis have supported that an individual's perceived control and ability to participate in work related outcome decisions were positively related to job satisfaction (Spector, 1986). However, while extant research has gleaned this and much else about the antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction in the workplace, it may have left some areas with opportunity for further consideration. Extending the previous arguments to work locus of control, with research indicating there is indeed a relationship between satisfaction and locus of control, the primary purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between work locus of control and various dimensions of job satisfaction to investigate the influence. By uncovering specific information related to the various dimensions, researchers are able to better align the relationship of various personality factors to specific facets of satisfaction. An understanding of these facets may provide more information to researchers and practitioners concerning the satisfaction dimensions that are proximal antecedents to motivation, performance in the workplace, and spill-over effects.

Towards this end, the study investigates the perceived control beliefs of an individual and the relationship to various attitudinal outcomes in the workplace. As work locus of control is thought to measure this generalized perceived control belief in the workplace, it is important to understand the variability of its impact to the dimensions of job satisfaction. A theory that seems appropriate to help researchers explain the intimate relationship between this perceived control belief and the

dimensions of job satisfaction is Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (House & Wigdor, 1967; Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005). The theory posits that hygiene factors must be present in the job before motivators are used to stimulate the individual. Thus, motivators are unavailable for use until the hygiene factors are in place. Herzberg's needs are specifically job related and reflect some of the distinct features that people want from their work.

THEORETICAL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

In the 1960's, Frederick Herzberg developed the two-factor content theory of motivation during his investigation of 200 accountants and engineers. Herzberg asked subjects to recall an occasion in which they were satisfied and motivated and occasions when they were dissatisfied and unmotivated (Herzberg, 1987). Incidents involved in initiating job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were themed as motivators and hygiene factors respectively. Traditionally, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were thought to be flip sides of the same coin. However, Herzberg proposed that "The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but rather no job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no job dissatisfaction" (Herzberg, 1987, p. 4). Herzberg's findings challenged the status quo that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction were a unidimensional concept. The two-factor theory posits that factors producing job satisfaction are different than those producing job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1987).

Herzberg's theory concludes that the motivators are predominantly in the job content whereas the hygiene factors are primarily in the job context (Sachau, 2007). Job content is indicative of the activities that are essential to the job and are directly related to the general nature of the task. In like manner, job context describes the physical environment (i.e. physical demands, working conditions, degree of accountability and responsibility, consequences of error, and the extent of supervision required or exercised) within which the job is performed and the demands imposed on the employee. The presence of motivators provided opportunities for employees to experience achievement, recognition, interesting work, increased responsibility, and growth or advancement (Herzberg, 1987). If these opportunities are unavailable, it is likely that job satisfaction will be low. The hygiene factors are related to experiences with company policies, supervisors, interpersonal relations, working conditions, salary, status, and job security (Sachau, 2007). According to Herzberg, these factors do not generally satisfy employees for extended periods, but they do prevent them from being dissatisfied. Although some factors are dominant on either the job satisfaction or the job dissatisfaction continuum, many of the hygiene factors lie equally on both. Specifically, working conditions, salary, supervision, and relationship with peers are dominant on the job dissatisfaction continuum, but can lead to job satisfaction. "Given that human needs are

either so irrational or so varied and adjustable to specific situations, one must be as pragmatic as the occasion demands” (Herzberg, 1987, p. 9). Simply stated, under the right circumstances, and given employees perception of control in the work environment, factors once attributed to dissatisfaction can gain momentum in providing more than just temporary satisfaction. Particularly, if employees have the perception of control with regards to their relationship with supervisors and peers, as well as pay, it’s likely that these factors could lead to increased job satisfaction.

Herzberg’s Two-Factor Theory of Motivation has been met with insurmountable opposition. Oversimplification and lack of representation of the general population have been among the criticisms (Smerek & Peterson, 2006; Sachau, 2007). Other criticisms include subject retrospection and inconsistency (Sachau, 2007). Despite the numerous criticisms to the theory, it is important to note the contribution of enhanced performance in many organizations across diverse cultures.

Work Locus of Control

There is a plethora of evidence to suggest that employees worldwide possess a fundamental desire to wield control or influence over decisions made by their superiors, coworkers, or subordinates; the relationship they have with them, and the level of responsibility they have in the organization. To understand this need for control, Spector (1988) designed the work locus of control scale to measure generalized control beliefs in the workplace. The WLCS was written equally in the internal direction and the external direction (Spector, 1988). Internality is the perception of control that employees have over various outcomes in the workplace. Externality is the perception that work outcomes are controlled by luck or powerful others. Numerous studies have been conducted to analyze the relationship between locus of control and workplace behaviors (Bernardi, 1997; Brownell, 1982; Renn & Vandenburg, 1991). Particularly, the results indicate that employees who are considered internals reportedly were more intrinsically motivated, experienced higher levels of job satisfaction and greater satisfaction with supervisors. Similar studies reported that internals had greater levels of autonomy and had lower turnover intentions experienced (O’Brien, 1981; Spector, 1982).

To fully appreciate work locus of control, it is important to understand it’s origin. Work locus of control was derived from Rotter’s (1966) I-E scale of general locus of control. Locus of control has been defined as a person’s general perception regarding forces that determine rewards and punishments (Rotter, 1966). Rotter’s premise is that locus of control is a stable personality trait that describes the extent to which people attribute the cause of control of events to themselves or to external environmental factors such as fate or luck. More specifically, some people believe that they are the masters of their own fate and have personal responsibility for what happens to them and are said to have an internal locus of control. Contrariwise, people who consider themselves to be pawns of fate exhibit an external locus of control. Although the literature on locus of control is voluminous,

the depth of information that it provides to the workplace is limited and requires further study into the specific work domain.

Employee locus of control is important because it has been linked to a number of job performance criteria. Specifically, internally oriented employees earned higher salaries, had higher status occupations and were more satisfied with their jobs (Andrasani & Nestel, 1976). Similarly, employees with high internality showed more initiative in the workplace and their work behavior was not confined by their job responsibilities (O'Brien, 1981). However, the limitation of locus of control is that it does not key in on a particular domain. To overcome the limitation of the I-E scale of general locus of control developed by Rotter, the WLCS was designed to measure control beliefs in a specific domain and has been proven to be a better predictor of work behaviors than the generalized measure of locus of control.

Hypotheses

In an era of increasing global competition, the need to attract and retain high quality employees is paramount. One of the most elusive challenges that continue to perplex managers is how to maintain a level of satisfaction that will lead to peak performance. Research has aptly concluded that high levels of satisfaction are significant contributors to exceptional performance. In the face of massive layoffs, mergers, and turbulent change, job satisfaction can be a lurid differentiator between employee commitment and a high turnover rate, impassioned or tepid customer service. Job satisfaction is a determining factor in whether a business will fail or succeed and for this reason, plays a pivotal role in shaping behavior and influencing work performance in organizations. Given the direct correlation between job satisfaction and organizational performance, it's imperative that managers understand how to satisfy employees in a diverse and unpredictable workforce in the context of their specific roles (Herzberg, 1982).

Quite a few studies have investigated work locus of control and found that it has been linked to job satisfaction (Andrasani & Nestel, 1976; Blau, 1993; Furnham & Drakeley, 1993; Lu, Kao, Cooper, & Spector, 2000; Orpen, 1992; Ross, 1991). A review of the studies revealed that employees who were considered internals experienced higher levels of job satisfaction. Similarly, externals experienced lower levels of job satisfaction.

The general facets of Herzberg's theory include the duality of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. The basic tenets of the theory suggest that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not on a uniscalar continuum. (Smerek & Peterson, 2006). Towards that end, the level of job satisfaction is related to the presence of job content factors, which include growth, work itself, responsibility, achievement, advancement, and recognition. When these factors are not present on the job, workers don't tend to be dissatisfied, they are simply "not satisfied." Similarly, job dissatisfaction is related to the presence of job context factors, which are related to the quality of supervision, interpersonal relationships, company policies and procedures, job security, salary, and

status. As long as these factors are maintained at an acceptable level, employees will experience low job dissatisfaction. As noted previously, some factors lie equally on both the job satisfaction continuum as well as the job dissatisfaction continuum. Particularly working conditions, salary, supervision, and relationship with peers are confirmed to be sources of job dissatisfaction, but given the right set of conditions, these same factors could lead to job satisfaction. It is within this context, that Herzberg's Two Factor Theory will be used to explain the relationship between work locus of control and several job satisfaction characteristics.

Satisfaction in employees is gained from motivators that are intrinsic to the organization (Herzberg, 1987). One of the key motivators is the work on the present job. Work on the present job is characterized as the actual content of the job. Employees who perceive their work on the present job to be meaningful and contribute to the overall functioning of the organization are likely to be more satisfied (Schwepker, 2001). In like manner, employees who believe that they control whether their work is satisfying, challenging, dull, or uninteresting are considered to have high internal work locus of control. Thus, the following hypothesis is presented:

H1: There will be a positive relationship between work locus of control and satisfaction with work on present job.

Existing research maintains that the manifestation of satisfaction is imbedded in salary. If employees perceive that the pay received is adequate for normal expenses, fair, and they are well paid, satisfaction is likely. In some instances, money can serve as a motivator. Specifically, "If a job is boring and cannot be made interesting through job enrichment, it is reasonable to use money as a motivator to get employees to perform boring jobs" (Herzberg, 1982, p.286). However, Herzberg maintains that because the hygiene factors escalate over time, employees will continue to demand increased compensation. If Spector (1988) is accurate, then employees with internal control beliefs will feel they can influence their outcomes and subsequently experience increased levels of job satisfaction. Thus, the following hypothesis is presented:

H2: There will be a positive relationship between work locus of control and satisfaction with present pay.

Satisfaction by employees can be derived if they believe there is opportunity for growth in the organization. Herzberg's (1987) theory revealed that the change in upward status in the organization was extremely important. Opportunities for promotion included being promoted on the basis of ability, having a good chance for promotion, and fair promotion policies and provide encouragement and motivation for employees and enhance satisfaction. If the research on work locus of control is accurate, employees will see this in their control and when placed in the context of

Herzberg's duality theory, the employees are likely to be more satisfied. Thus, the following hypothesis is presented:

H3: There will be positive relationship between work locus of control and satisfaction with opportunities for promotion.

One aspect of job satisfaction is supervision. Supervision, focused on competency and technical ability, willingness to teach or delegate authority, fairness, and job knowledge. According to Herzberg (1987), supervision is a hygiene factor that lies predominantly on the job dissatisfaction continuum. Employees that perceive their ability to influence relations with supervisors are likely to experience job satisfaction. Thus, the following hypothesis is presented:

H4: There will be a positive relationship between work locus of control and satisfaction with supervision.

A review of the literature suggests that quality social and job related interactions in the workplace can be a major determinant of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1987). The interpersonal relationships are characterized as having good exchanges with peers, superiors, and subordinates. These exchanges are also exemplified through collaboration among workgroups, feelings of trust, a high degree of unity, mutual respect, and teamwork. These factors play an important role in an individual's feeling of satisfaction (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). Employees who perceive control of workplace interactions tend to be more satisfied. Individuals who have high control beliefs will feel they can influence the quality of these relationships. Thus, the following hypothesis is presented:

H5: There will be a positive relationship between work locus of control and satisfaction with people at work.

The fundamental underpinning of Herzberg's duality theory is that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not opposites. Therefore, factors that influence job satisfaction are not the same factors that influence job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1987). However, it is probable that given the right set of circumstances, factors known to lead to job dissatisfaction can potentially be satisfiers. Adopting the principles of work locus of control, if employees believe they have control over the work itself, present pay, promotion opportunities, relationship with supervisors, and relationship with the people whom they meet in connection with their work, then job satisfaction is a likely outcome. Thus, the following hypothesis is presented:

H6: There will be a positive relationship between work locus of control and satisfaction with job in general.

METHOD

Sample and Procedure

Participants were qualified accountants who have passed the Uniform Certified Public Accountants Examination and have met additional state education and experience requirements for certifications as CPAs. The participants were located in the southeastern part of the United States. The sample consisted of 71 females (52.6%), 47 (34.6%) fell in the 42-51 year old range. A majority of the sample was white 109 (80.1%) and 101 (75.4) were married. 71 (52.2%) of the individuals had completed undergraduate studies, while 56 (41.2%) had graduate level degrees or higher. Finally, 69 (51.5%) of the respondents had 10 or more years with their current organization.

Data were collected through the use of an Internet survey. A list of e-mails were randomly selected from a database of members and the total of usable e-mail addresses was unavailable to the researchers to protect anonymity. These e-mails contained an offer to participate in the study, which could be accessed by following a link in the e-mail. The nature of the survey guaranteed the respondents complete anonymity in both their responses and their decision to participate. The net result of this effort yielded a sample of 136 respondents. Listwise deletion of missing data because of missing values on some of the study variables resulted in a usable sample of 114.

One survey instrument was used in the study. In responding to the items, respondents were asked to think about their general beliefs about work and jobs and to consider their current job and work environment. The survey included the measures of work locus of control, satisfaction with work on the present job, satisfaction with pay, satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, satisfaction with supervisors, satisfaction with people at work, and overall global satisfaction or satisfaction with the job in general.

Measures

Work locus of control (WLC)

We assessed WLC using the 16-items from the Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) (Spector, 1988). The items were measured using a 6-point scale, with response categories ranging from 1 (*disagree very much*) to 6 (*agree very much*). A statement allowing respondents to think about their beliefs about work settings and outcomes comprised the items. Sample items include "A job is what you make of it," and "Getting the job you want is mostly a matter of luck." The items were double reverse coded such that high scores represent internal locus of control.

Job Satisfaction

The Abridged Job Descriptive Index (aJDI) and The Abridge Job in General Scale (aJIG) was used to assess the respondent's level of job satisfaction (Smith, Kendall, & Hullin, 1969). The aJDI consists of five subscales with a total of 25-items that assess respondents' satisfaction with separate facets of their work environment: the work itself, their supervisor, pay promotion opportunities, and co-workers. The aJIG consist of 8-items reflecting the respondents' overall rating of their job satisfaction. These items consist of a list of short phrases and adjectives of five or less words of low reading difficulty and presented in a triadic scoring system. For each item presented, the respondent is asked to indicate whether the short phrase or adjective describes his or her current work by indicating a "Y" if it does and a "N" if it does not. If the respondent is unable to decide whether a given item accurately describes his or her work environment, he or she is instructed to indicate a "?". Sample items include "Makes me content," and "Undesirable."

Control Variables

Because various demographic variables have been shown to explain variance in job satisfaction, they were included as control variables in the analyses. Specifically, age has been shown to be a predictor of job satisfaction and many researchers have found that older people report slightly higher levels of job satisfaction than younger people (Tanriverdi, 2008). Past research has shown that women report higher levels of job satisfaction than men, thus gender was included (Hodson, 1989). A positive but more often weak relationship is found between race and job satisfaction, thus the researcher also controlled for race (Mau & Kopischke, 2001). Though the results of current research is inconsistent and provide mixed empirical support for the relationship between income or salary levels and job satisfaction, it was included as a control variable in this study (Lovett, Coyle, Banerjee, & Hardebeck, 2008; Tillman & Tillman, 2008). The researcher gathered self reported information on each of the variables and converted them to categories for purposes of testing. Age ($< 40 = 0$, $\geq 40 = 1$); Gender (male = 0, female = 1); Salary ($< \$49,999 = 0$, $\geq \$50,000 = 1$); Race (non-white = 0; white = 1).

Results

Prior to testing the hypotheses, discriminant properties of our measures were evaluated with confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using LISREL 8.8 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996, 2006). Specifically, the hypothesized seven-factor model were examined with items loaded on their respective scales: Work Locus of Control, Work on Present Job, Present Pay, Opportunities for Promotion, Supervision, People at Work, and Job in General. This seven-factor model was compared with tenable alternative nested models, including (a) six-factor model, with pay-opportunities for

promotions reflected in a single factor (b) a five-factor model, with pay-opportunities for promotion and supervision-people at work represented in respective factors, and (c) a four-factor model with pay-opportunities for promotion, supervision-people at work, and work on present job-job loading on the factors.

The model was tested further using the technique proposed by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), comparing a series of nested models through sequential chi-square difference tests. Comparisons were made between the seven-factor hypothesized model and the “most likely constrained alternatives (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). A change in the chi-squares between the seven-factor hypothesized models and the likely alternatives reflects the effect of removing paths and therefore test the significance of the paths to the model. Significant change in chi-square suggest the constrained paths were important, providing the support for the seven-factor hypothesized model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). First, the seven-factor hypothesized model was compared with a six-factor model, difference in the chi-square $\Delta\chi^2(6, N = 114) = 40.2$; then relative to a five-factor model, difference in the chi-square $\Delta\chi^2(11, N = 114) = 216.7$; and to a four-factor model, difference in the chi-square $\Delta\chi^2(15, N = 114) = 266.64$. As shown in Table 2, difference in the chi-squares were significant, indicating the seven-factor hypothesized model represented a improvement in fit. Further, fit indices indicated that the model fit the data reasonably well, $\chi^2(1088, N = 114) = 1618.73$, $p < .001$; , $\chi^2/df = 1.49$; incremental fit index (IFI) = .90; root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = .07; comparative fit index (CFI) = .90, and normed fit index (NFI) = .80 (*Tucker Lewis index*). Good model fit is typically inferred when χ^2/df falls below 3 and IFI, CFI, or NFI rise above .90 (Kline, 1998). RMSEA is interpreted as follows: Greater than .10 is poor fit, .08 to .10 is mediocre fit, .05 to .08 is reasonable fit, and less than .05 is good fit (Browne & Cudeck, 1993).

Finally, before analyzing the data, the reliability of the scales was assessed by computing Cronbach's alpha coefficients. According to Nunnally (1978), the reliability coefficients should meet the acceptance criteria of .70. A review of the reliabilities indicates they were all within acceptable range of Nunnally's (1978) criterion of .70.

Descriptive statistics for the study variables are presented in Table 1. The zero-order correlations were in the proposed directions, including satisfaction with supervision ($r = .25, p < .01$) satisfaction with people at work ($r = .22, p < .01$), and satisfaction with work on the present job being significantly related to internal work locus of control. Results indicate support was found for Hypothesis 2 ($r = -.35, p < .01$), and Hypothesis 3 ($r = .33, p < .01$) indicating the stronger correlations between internal work locus of control and satisfaction with present pay and internal work locus of control and satisfaction with opportunities for promotion. Because of relationship between pay and opportunities for promotion, support was also found for Hypothesis 6 ($r = .33, p < .01$), indicating strong correlations between internal work locus of control and the satisfaction with the job in general.

Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1

It was predicted that work locus of control would be positively related to satisfaction with an individual's work on their present job. Significant zero-order correlations between work locus of control and satisfaction with work on the present job provide support for Hypothesis 1. Additionally, results of regression analysis provide support for the positive relationship between work locus of control and satisfaction with work on the present job. Table 3 shows that after entering age, gender, race, and salary as control variables, work locus of control explains an additional 4.2% of the variance in an individual's satisfaction with work on their present job ($F(5, 103) = 4.989, p < .001$) and produces a significant final beta weight ($\beta = .21, p < .05$). Thus, hypothesis 1 is supported.

Hypothesis 2

It was predicted that work locus of control would be positively related to an individual's satisfaction with their present pay. Significant zero-order correlations between work locus of control and satisfaction with work on the present job provide support for Hypothesis 2. Additionally, results of regression analysis provide support for the positive relationship between work locus of control and satisfaction with present pay. Table 3 shows that after entering age, gender, race, and salary as control variables, work locus of control explains an additional 7.9% of the variance in an individual's satisfaction with their present pay ($F(5, 103) = 9.027, p < .001$) and produces a significant final beta weight ($\beta = .29, p < .001$). Providing additional support for hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3

It was predicted that work locus of control would be positively related to an individual's satisfaction with their opportunities for promotion in the workplace. Significant zero-order correlations between work locus of control and opportunities for promotion provide initial support for Hypothesis 3. To further validate this support, results of the regression analysis indicate that after entering age, gender, race, and salary as control variables, work locus of control explains an additional 8.1% of the variance in an individual's satisfaction with their opportunities available for promotion ($F(5, 103) = 3.195, p < .01$) and produces a significant final beta weight ($\beta = .30, p < .01$). See Table 3.

Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 5

It was hypothesized that work locus of control would be positively related to satisfaction with one's supervisor and satisfaction with other people at work, respectively. Significant zero-order correlations between work locus of control and supervisor satisfaction and work locus of control and satisfaction with others at work provide initial support for Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 5, respectively. Additionally, results of regression analysis provide support for the positive relationship between work locus of control and both satisfaction with supervisors and other people at work. As shown in Table 3, after entering age, gender, race, and salary as control variables, work locus of control explained an additional 3.2% of the variance in supervisor satisfaction ($F(5, 102) = 4.660, p < .001$) and an additional 1.3% of the variance in satisfaction with others at work ($F(5, 102) = 5.922, p < .001$). Results of the regression analysis produces final beta weights of ($\beta = .19, p < .01$) and ($\beta = .12, p < .001$), respectively. Thus, hypothesis 4 and hypothesis 5 are supported.

Hypothesis 6

It was predicted that work locus of control would be positively related to an individual's overall satisfaction with their job. Significant zero-order correlations between work locus of control and overall satisfaction provide support for Hypothesis 6. Providing additional support for hypothesis 6 was gained through regression analysis. Table 3 shows that after entering age, gender, race, and salary as control variables, work locus of control explains an additional 5.4% of the variance in an individual's overall satisfaction with their job ($F(5, 103) = 8.098, p < .001$) and produces a significant final beta weight ($\beta = .24, p < .01$).

Treatment of Common Method Variance

All of the data for the current study was collected from the same source. Given the way the data were collected, one of the concerns of the researchers was the effect of common method variance. Common method variance has the ability to cause measurement error and bias the true relationships in the study. Therefore, because of the possibility that method variance can inflate or deflate the necessary relationships between the constructs and cause either a Type I or Type II error, it was necessary to examine this possibility (Doty & Glick, 1988, 1998; Podsakoff et al., 2003). To empirically investigate the extent to which CMV was a concern in the current study, the researcher conducted Harman's one factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986; Podsakoff et al., 2003) on all the items for the study variables.

All 49-items were entered into an exploratory factor analysis, using principal component analysis and a varimax rotation to determine the number of factors that were necessary to account for the variance in the variables. To determine if common method variance is present, a single factor

will emerge, or one general factor will account for most of the covariance among the data (Andersson & Bateman, 1997; Podsakoff et al., 2003). The unrotated principal component factor analysis, principal component analysis with varimax rotation shows 12 distinct components with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, rather than a single factor. The 11 factors accounted for 87.3% of the total variance; the first or largest factor did not account for the majority of the variance (24.9%). There was no general factor present, therefore method variance did not appear to be a concern.

Table 1														
<i>Zero-Order Correlations and Descriptive Statistics</i>														
Variable	M	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1 Age	0.66	0.48												
2 Gender	0.53	0.50		-.28**										
3 Race	0.78	0.42		0.18	-.23*									
4 Salary	0.84	0.36		.28**	-.30**	.63**								
5 Control	4.57	0.67	0.86	0.10	-.21*	.20*	0.14							
6 Job	2.55	0.84	0.88	0.16	-0.18	.33*	.36**	.28**						
7 Pay	4.03	2.00	0.82	0.16	-.30	.19*	.43**	.37**	.37**					
8 Promotion	3.77	2.06	0.85	-0.04	-0.13	0.18	0.16	.52**	.52**	.28**				
9 Supervisor	2.19	0.98	0.86	0.11	-0.09	.38**	.32**	.28**	.28**	.25**	.46**			
10 Co-Worker	2.58	0.72	0.80	.20*	-.35	.34**	.36**	.32**	.32**	.23*	.32**	.38**		
11 General	2.38	0.78	0.86	.28**	-.23	.41**	.39**	.70**	.70**	.53**	.52**	.51**	.34**	

Note. $N = 114$. Two-tailed zero order correlations.
 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.
 Control=Work locus of control. Job=Satisfaction with work on present job. Pay=Satisfaction with present pay.
 Promotion=Satisfaction with opportunities for promotion. Supervisor=Satisfaction with supervisor.
 Co-Worker=Satisfaction with people at work. General=Satisfaction with job in general

Table 2									
<i>Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results</i>									
Model	Description	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	NFI	RMSEA	Change from Model 1	
								$\Delta \chi^2$	Δdf
1	Seven factor model	1618.73	1088	1.49	0.9	0.8	0.07		
2	Six-factor model	1658.93	1094	1.52	0.9	0.8	0.07	40.2	6
5	Five-factor model	1835.43	1099	1.67	0.88	0.78	0.08	216.7	11
6	Four-factor model	1885.37	1103	1.71	0.88	0.78	0.08	266.64	15

Note. $N = 114$. All χ^2_{diff} test are significant at $p < .001$
 CFI = Comparative Fit Index. NFI = Normed Fit Index. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

Table 3 <i>Regression Analysis Results</i>						
	Satisfaction with Work on Present Job	Satisfaction with Present Pay	Satisfaction with Opportunities for Promotion	Satisfaction with Supervision	Satisfaction with People at Work	Satisfaction with Job in General
Variable	β	β	β	β	β	β
CV						
Age	0.045	-0.011	-0.123	0.015	0.047	.152**
Gender	-0.025	-0.141	-0.064	0.046	-.221***	-0.037
Race	0.132	-.191**	0.07	.249***	0.144	.218**
Salary	.225**	.467****	0.088	0.151	0.174	.164*
IV						
Work Locus of Control	.213***	.291****	.295****	.185**	0.119*	.241***
R ²	0.195	0.305	0.134	0.184	0.223	0.282
Adj R ²	0.156	0.271	0.092	0.145	0.186	0.247
F(df)	4.989(5, 102)****	9.027(5, 102)****	3.195(5, 102)***	4.660(5, 102)****	5.922(5, 102)****	8.098(5, 102)****
Note. N = 108. Standardized regression coefficients from the last step are reported.						
CV = Control Variable. IV = Independent Variable.						
*p < .10. **p < .05. ***p < .01. ****p < .001						

DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current study was to examine the relationship between work locus of control and various dimensions of job satisfaction such as satisfaction with work on present job, satisfaction with present pay, satisfaction with opportunities for promotion, satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction people at work, and overall satisfaction with the job in general. Accordingly, the study addressed six hypotheses. The results of the regression analysis provided support for a positive relationship between work locus of control and the dimensions of job satisfaction. Support for Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 2, Hypothesis 4 and Hypothesis 5, although significant, had a weak relationship. Hypothesis 3 showed a more moderate relationship. Hypothesis 6 showed a moderate to strong positive relationship. The findings suggests that individuals with an internal work locus of control corresponds better to global satisfaction rather than the basic facets of job satisfaction, which implies that there could be other contributing variables. The findings that work locus of control and job satisfaction are strongly correlated are consistent with results of previous studies (Andrasani & Nestel, 1976; Blau, 1993; Furnham & Drakeley, 1993; Lu et al., 2000; Orpen, 1992; Ross, 1991).

Limitations

The contributions above should be interpreted in light of this article's limitations. There are two limitations to this study that should be noted. First, a self-reporting methodology was employed for this study. A likely challenge when assessing information through self-reported measures is that participants may fail to accurately report their behaviors and the variables may show a relationship because of common method bias. Participants, in general, respond to the questions in a way that

depicts them in a favorable manner. The trend is that they overemphasize positive behaviors and they underemphasize less desirable behaviors (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). Given that work locus of control is a personality factor, the researchers assumed that the direction of causality was that work locus of control would influence the outcome variables. To that end, we were unable to conclude that other variables were not responsible for the relationship that exists between work locus of control and the dimensions of job satisfaction.

Managerial Implications

Despite its limitations, this study has practical implications for managers. The findings of this study highlight the factors that are known to promote satisfaction in the workplace. It would be wise for management to incorporate this knowledge in a manner that will help to identify, recruit, employ, train, and retain a productive workforce. In the organizational setting, managers can increase levels of job satisfaction by paying employees fairly, providing clear paths for professional growth and advancement, and ensuring that work is rewarding and meaningful through job enrichment. Managers can also increase satisfaction by making sure that they have put quality people in leadership positions. Another implication for managers is to consider selecting potential employees who are considered internals. As stated previously, internals tend to be more intrinsically motivated to their jobs, they are more committed to the organization, and they are likely to remain with the organization (O'Brien 1981; Spector 1982). So, it would be prudent to include a way to assess an individual's perception of their control beliefs as part of the selection process.

Directions for Future Research

Considering that the study only employed self-reporting data, it is important for future research to augment self-reports with data from multiple sources to minimize exposure of the findings to interpretation of common method variance. Future research should also include larger sample sizes that would improve the generalizability of the findings. Another avenue for future research would be to carry out longitudinal studies that would determine the direction of causality between work locus of control and the dimensions of job satisfaction. An additional direction for future research is to employ other variables that will assist in determining the true relationship that exist between work locus of control and the dimensions of job satisfaction. To extend the study further, future research should examine the potential spillover of outcome variables in the work domain, as well as other areas outside of work.

CONCLUSION

In sum, this research contributes to the literature on control ideology and its impact on the dimensions of job satisfaction. The findings are consistent with prior research showing that employees who believe they can control their reinforcements through their own behavior experience higher levels of job satisfaction. The findings call for additional studies that will help determine the direction of causality and uncover other variables that are better predictors of job satisfaction in the workplace.

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