JOURNAL OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, COMMUNICATIONS AND CONFLICT

Connie Rae Bateman

Editor

University of North Dakota

EDITORIAL BOARD MEMBERS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LETTER FROM THE EDITOR

Welcome to the *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict*. The journal is owned and published by the DreamCatchers Group, LLC. The Editorial Board and the Editors are appointed by the Allied Academies, Inc., a non profit association of scholars whose purpose is to encourage and support the advancement and exchange of knowledge, understanding and teaching throughout the world. The editorial mission of the *Journal* is to publish empirical and theoretical manuscripts which advance knowledge in the areas of organizational culture, organizational communication, conflict and conflict resolution. We hope that the *Journal* will prove to be of value to the many organizational scholars around the world.

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

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

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

Connie Rae Bateman
Editor
University of North Dakota

FACT OR FICTION? A STUDY OF MANAGERIAL PERCEPTIONS APPLIED TO AN ANALYSIS OF ORGANIZATIONAL SECURITY RISK

Richard G. Taylor, Texas Southern University
Jeff Brice, Jr., Texas Southern University

ABSTRACT

The underlying theme of this paper is to determine whether managerial perceptions of important organizational processes and competitive situations are based in fact or fiction. While it is known that manager's base decisions, largely, on their perceptions, our examination utilizes a unique observational investigative technique to ascertain the information necessary to answer this research inquiry.

Additionally, this paper will examine the variation between managerial perceptions of organizational security risks and the actual state of these risks while also exposing the unintended security vulnerabilities that occur due to routine employee behavior. In doing so, we employ the Perception of Risk Theory (Slovic et al, 1976) to argue that manager's perceptions of organizational risk are based mostly on (1) technology solutions to protect organizational assets and (2) their beliefs that employees habitually follow established organization security policies.

Utilizing a case study conducted in an existing financial institution, the research reveals that many of management's perceptual assumptions about organizational security are inaccurate. It is suggested that by increasing manager's awareness of the likelihood of perceptual inaccuracies, managers might make better informed decisions that may serve to, ultimately, increase organizational performance. Additional findings, limitations, and implications for research and practice are discussed.

INTRODUCTION

Perception may be defined as the process by which people translate external cues into a rational and integrated idea of the world around them (Lindsay & Norman, 1977). Even though these impressions are often based on deficient and/or unreliable information, perception is commonly accepted by initiating actors as reality and serves to direct human actions in general (Daniels, 2003). Business decisions are based, largely, on managerial perceptions. To this end, managers have been theorized to draw conclusions based on their inaccurate perceptions as opposed to critical review of all available environmental information (Starbuck & Mezias, 1996).

Although the situation described above seems ripe for further investigation, it is apparent that few management scholars have studied managerial perceptions over the past several decades

(Mezias & Starbuck, 2003). This apparent chasm in management knowledge has been attributed to a variety of reasons to include the difficulty of designing studies and instruments that accurately measure managerial perceptions (Starbuck & Mezias, 1996), the lack of interest in businesses supporting this type of investigation (Mezias & Starbuck, 2003), and a dispute in the value of this type of research among scholars (Das, 2003). Notably, one biting criticism of the study of managerial perceptions is that academicians themselves may harbor disconfirming preconceived notions (biases) about study subjects (managers) which causes them to interpret study results through a lens of criticism (Das, 2003). The conundrum has been aptly described as management researchers not being familiar enough with the actual practice of management to understand the subtle nuances of the craft. Accordingly, scholars have been directed to "engage in research only after they had acquired some semblance of the managerial world" (Das, 2003). Workable familiarity notwithstanding, the end result has been described as the construction of studies that are deemed to hold little utility for scholarly examination and even less for managerial practice (Das, 2003). In response, Mezias and Starbuck (2003) famously answered such criticisms and challenged the community of management scholars to "join the odyssey" in the pursuit of more definitive studies of managerial perceptions to address significant research and practice inquiries.

From this starting point, the research that we present here is designed to address the "lack of relevance" issue in the study of management perceptions. As with most studies of managerial perceptions, the challenge is to ascertain managers' perceptions about particular issues of consequence to practice and research, and then to contrast these cognitive beliefs with objective evidence of the situations to demonstrate either the congruence of held perceptions with reality or to highlight significant differences between what is believed and what is actually occurring. Since managers make decisions based on their perceptions of environmental stimuli, this type of investigation is useful to understand the rationale behind how managers formulate strategy, develop contingencies, and otherwise react to ever-changing market conditions.

One such important topic that managers should constantly reconsider is organization security. The value of an organization includes intellectual property, specialized processes, proprietary knowledge, and other information that must be protected from external competition and industrial thievery. To prevent breaches of security, management needs to understand and identify the vulnerabilities that exist within the organization, and then implement decisions that correct or eliminate those vulnerabilities (Rosenthal, 2003). Knowing the cause of security risks is vital to the development of an overall business security strategy (Whitman, 2003). In order for managers to do this well, there needs to be a clear assessment and understanding of technology-based threats, employee (behavioral) threats, and an accurate judgment of the firms' state of overall security. Therefore, in order for organizational value to be preserved (and possibly enhanced), managerial perceptions of organizational security risks need to be based in reality and not fiction.

Accordingly, we apply a qualitative research design to explore a genuine situation in the management of an existing financial institution to discover whether the perceptions of organizational risk and information security held by management reflects the reality of organizational operations or if they represent simplified cognitive biases toward a desired end state. Not only does this type of investigation hold obvious import for the actors involved but it clearly brings researchers closer to the milieu of managerial thinking and practices. Specifically, in the following section we describe the effect that manager's perceptions may have on organizational behavior and performance. Subsequently, we develop hypotheses and describe our empirical study. Last, we submit our findings and discuss their relevance for management practice and research.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Managerial Perception and Organizational Performance

Managers receive information cues from the environment and from within their own firm. However, this information is filtered by managers through the lens of their own perceptions (Mezias & Starbuck, 2003). Since every individual possesses unique cognitive processes and biases, no two individuals interpret the information cues in the very same manner. Therefore, managerial perceptions tend to be unique to each individual interpreting the cues (Fahey & Narayanan, 1989). This means that no two managers will draw exactly the same conclusions when presented with the same informational stimuli. For instance, previous research has demonstrated that various managers have difficulty concurring on the assignment of their firm's undertakings to operational categories (such as SIC Codes) because their cognitive biases have a tendency to be more exact (Boland et al., 2001). In other words, organizational activity may be initiated not based on real events or objective information; but, on the filtered perceptions of the particular manager highest in authority in relation to the situation to be rectified.

The emergence of cognitive biases in managers' development of perception is unavoidably associated to the concept of bounded rationality (Simon, 1957). The theory of bounded rationality states that decision makers construct simplified models to deal with the world. Simon argues that the decision maker "…behaves rationally with respect to this [simplified] model, and such behavior is not even approximately optimal with respect to the real world. To predict his behavior, we must understand the way in which this simplified model is constructed, and its construction will certainly be related to his psychological properties as a perceiving, thinking and learning animal" (p. 198). Hence, scholars must consider the constitution of the cognitive schema of managers if we are to ascertain the rationale behind organizational strategy and behavior.

While the limitations of a manager's schema and the inherent cognitive bias toward the information residing within it suggest that some organizational behavior may be based on erroneous managerial perceptions, few studies have been performed to investigate this possibility (Mezias & Starbuck, 2003). This is likely due to the difficulty of comparing managers' perceptions with those of external observers (Santos & Garcia, 2006). However, some researchers have studied the implied effects of cognitive bias on managerial decisions and, ultimately, organizational performance. Managers who make decisions in the fog of misleading perceptions have been theorized to initiate flawed organizational strategy (Bourgeois, 1985; Boyd, et al, 1993), misinterpret strategic representations (Barr & Huff, 1997; Boland et al, 2001), and misperceive environmental risks and industry threats (Barr et al, 1992; Starbuck, 1992). In short, managers who make decisions by relying on simplified mental models are likely to damage organizational performance. Therefore, research that measures the accuracy of managerial perceptions, and evaluates repercussions resulting from organizational activity initiated because of those perceptions, is useful to help elucidate fluctuations in organizational success.

Managerial Perception and Organizational Security Risks

Cyert & March's (1963) behavioral theory of the firm shows that management decisions are limited by bounded rationality. Bounded rationality proposes the view that managers endeavor to be rational but must cope with acute restrictions on their capacity to process information (Simon, 1956; Bromiley & Euske, 1986). They further indicate that managers make decisions without the availability of all necessary information. Starr (1969) and Slovic (1987) have utilized the theory of bounded rationality to research the effects of perceptions of risk. They have concluded that management is blind to the high risks posed by technology because of the perceived benefits of it. Their results indicate that rational decision making is not always used "when judging probabilities, making predictions, or attempting to cope with probabilistic tasks" (Slovic, 1987, p. 281). Instead, people tend to use judgmental heuristics or simplification strategies. The heuristics may sometimes be valid in certain circumstances, but in others they can lead to biases that are "large, persistent and serious in their implications for decision making" (Slovic et al., 1976 p. 36).

The psychological dimensions of risk can be distilled into two primary factors: (1) the severity of the consequence, and (2) the probability of its occurrence (Slovic et al, 1976). Initial research on perceived risks focused on hazards to include as earthquakes, nuclear power, and food preservatives. However other research has taken these theories and methods and applied them to more specific subjects such as the perception of risks toward using seat-belts (Slovic et al., 1978), adolescents' perceptions of risks from smoking (Slovic, 1998), and the risks of using a mobile phone while driving (White et al., 2004). This paper will use the perception of risk theory to investigate manager's perceptions of organizational security threats.

The two factors mentioned above can be applied to management's perception of employee behavior that may expose the organization to security risks. In consideration of the first factor, it is suggested that managers are primarily concerned with the severity of the consequences from technology-based threats and will not be concerned, or may not contemplate, unintentional threats posed by employee behavior. Regarding the second factor, management will consider organizational vulnerability based on employee actions to be rare occurrences, therefore posing little risk and needing no attention.

A long stream of research indicates that management's perceptions of risks have a direct impact on the decisions they make (Starr, 1969; Slovic, 1987; Slovic et al., 1974, 1976, 1979; Fischoff et al., 1978, 1979; Sjoberg, 1999; Siegrist et al., 2005) Applying this theory to organizational risk behaviors, the research indicates that management's perceptions of various organization security risks leads to strategic decisions that often result in inadequate safety measures. This has been referred to as "executive blindness" (Slovic, 1987). Key decision makers tend to misperceive events by ignoring probabilities and instead using heuristic-based mechanisms to measure uncertainty or avoid dealing with it. This leads to a reactive approach to organizational security threats (Slovic et al., 1974).

Misperception can lead to an "optimistic bias" (Helweg-Larsen and Shepperd, 2001) by top management. The optimistic bias refers to the tendency for people to believe that they are more likely to experience positive events and less likely to experience negative events. This has been demonstrated in events such as auto accidents (McKenna, 1993), earthquakes (Helweg-Larsen, 1999), and crime (Preloff & Fetzer, 1986). The optimistic bias can be defined at both the individual level and group level, and results in people rating their own risks as lower than other similar people or groups (Helweg-Larsen and Shepperd, 2001). People perceive that they are better prepared to deal with negative events than are others. This leads to the first hypothesis:

> *H1:   Managers perceive the level of organization security within their firm to be high.*

The optimistic biases may also interfere with the institution of preventive measures to address risks (Helweg-Larsen and Shepperd, 2001), such as organizational security policies and security awareness training. Managers may feel overly optimistic regarding their employees' awareness of organization security policies. This type of optimism can also be attributed to manager's perception that the organization's employees are part of a homogenous "in-group" whose behavior is based on a positive exemplar, which is often the manager themselves (Judd & Park, 1988). Therefore, since they read and adhere to organization security policies, they perceive that their employees will do the same. The leads to the second hypothesis:

> *H2:   Managers perceive that employees adhere to established organization security policies.*

When making decisions, managers do not always have sufficient knowledge regarding threats to their organizational information. The manager will use all information and experiences that are readily available; however this often leads to a technology-based approach to addressing organization security risks (Dhillon, 2001). Managers will often turn to trusted advisors whose opinions they value (Siegrist & Cvetkovich, 2000). These advisors are often so-called experts who share the same values that the manager believes are important in a specific situation (Earle & Cvetkovich, 1995). For example, when information security advice is sought, management typically turns to the Information Security Officer (ISO) or the Information Technology (IT) manager. This advice, though valuable in protecting the organizational from security breaches, is often mostly technological in nature. If management relies solely on this advice, the human element of organization security management may be entirely ignored. To make more informed decisions, managers must increase their awareness of their environment (Gigerenzer, 2001). This leads to the third hypothesis:

> H3: *Managers fail to perceive of routine employee actions that may unintentionally expose the organization to security risks.*

RESEARCH METHOD

A qualitative understanding of organization security can be advantageous because of the ability to research the phenomenon within the scope of the organization (Dhillon & Backhouse, 2001). Yin (2003) states "the distinctive need for case studies arises out of the desire to understand complex social phenomena" (p. 2). Therefore the case study is an ideal methodology for investigating the concerns of organizational security, allowing an in-depth investigation of a phenomenon in its original context (Benbasat et al., 1987).The case study methodology can be used both for the development of theory and for the testing of existing theory (Yin, 2003). Case studies may be exploratory, explanatory, or descriptive in nature and are especially effective when answering "how" and "what" questions that are exploratory in nature (Yin, 2003), which is the purpose of this study.

Construct validity was satisfied through data triangulation and having a draft of this research reviewed by a key informant (Yin, 2003). The multiple sources of data used in this case study are (1) interviews, (2) documents, and (3) direct observation. Because of the primary researcher's past experience within the local financial industry, and, by having established a positive rapport with the Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and Chief Information Officer (CIO), full access to all employees, all documents, and office locations was granted. Twenty-four (24) employees were interviewed from all levels of the organization. Documents, including emails, policies, examination reports, and the employee handbook were made available. In addition, access was given to observe employee behavior during office hours, and to explore the offices after hours. After-hours access allowed the researcher to roam the organization to look for

evidence of organization security risks. Permission was also granted to "dumpster dive" in an attempt to locate sensitive information that may have been thrown in the trash receptacles (instead of shredder bins).

To ensure reliability, the case study protocol proposed by Yin (2003) was followed. Employee interviews were conducted over a six month period. The interviews were focused, lasting about an hour each (Merton et al., 1990). The questions were semi-structured but allowed for open responses and discussion from the interviewees. The questions attempted to gain understanding from the employees regarding the following:

1) Their understanding of organization and information security,
2) Their perception of the information security level at their organization,
3)   Their understanding of organization security risks and the behavior that causes information security risks,
4) Their knowledge of consequences to the organization for security risks,
5) Their specific behavior or actions that have resulted in organization security risks,
6) The level of trust the employees have in their peers,
7)   The extent to which countermeasures are implemented within the organization to prevent security risks.

To further add to the reliability, a case study database was created which allowed the data to be analyzed by someone other than the researchers (Yin, 2003). The interviews were recorded on tape, and then transcribed indicating the date of each. (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The interview transcripts were combined with written documentation, and personal observations to form the entire case study database.

External validity involves the extent to which the results of this study can be generalized (Yin, 2003). The use of theory in a single-case study contributes to the external validity. The following case study is a theory-based interpretation of managerial perceptions that may unintentionally lead to security risks in a single organization.   External validity could be improved with studies in other organizations to corroborate the findings of this study (Yin, 2003).

Case study research also requires a high degree of ethical consideration (Roth, 2005), especially when the research involves a subject such as organization security. In any research, ethical considerations must remain on ongoing part of the research, well beyond the initial signing of a consent form (Malone, 2003). The CEO and CIO of the organization studied served as "gate-keepers" who allowed access to the organization and employees (Miller and Bell, 2002). It was important to keep these two individuals updated on a constant basis. Each staff interview was conducted with only the primary researcher and the subject employee present. Document review was conducted by the researcher alone after the documents were provided by the CIO. All other events, (dumpster diving and after-hours observations) were conducted with the CIO

present. After each phase of the research, the CEO was briefed on the findings, and additional consent was sought (and granted) for the proceeding phase of the research.

The Organization and Analysis

First South Savings (FSS) is a pseudonym for an existing financial institution located in a major metropolitan area in the southern United States. There are seven FSS branches throughout the metropolitan area, consisting of approximately 200 full and part-time employees. Of the seven branches, one branch is located at the FSS headquarters. At this location are the executive offices, the information technology (IT) department, accounting, credit card services, wire transfers, and other back-office and support services.   This organization was chosen for several important reasons. First, one of the authors served as an executive in this industry for over 10 years before entering the academic community, therefore providing additional insight into the organizational environment and the issues facing the industry. A continued involvement in the industry through speaking at various industry conferences and educational sessions, as well as publishing articles in the industry's journals, has established the author as an industry insider. Being considered an industry insider provided a high level of legitimacy with the FSS staff, resulting in employees' willingness to divulge information and greater access to organizational resources (Malone, 2003).

Second, FSS was chosen because it is in the financial services industry. This industry has been shown to be an important factor to be considered when conducting organization and information security research because of the nature of the assets to be protected (Straub & Nance, 1990). The financial industry deals with a greater amount of sensitive and potentially damaging information than other industries. Specifically, banking institutions have a lot at stake when it comes to organization security. Therefore, employee behavior that unintentionally (or intentionally) leads to security risks could have greater consequences. Employees in industries with high degrees of information sensitivity should be more concerned about security (Goodhue & Straub, 1991). Because of the potential for information loss, the financial industry faces strict regulatory requirements regarding the protection of information. The Graham-Leach-Bliley Act (GLBA) was instituted in 1999 to protect financial information. GLBA requires all financial institutions to secure customer data from unauthorized access (SBC, 1999).   Financial institutions also face regular federal examinations to ensure regulatory compliance. In the past few years, information security has been included in those examinations. Based on the requirements posed on FSS by GLBA and federal regulators, it was expected that FSS would consider organization security a high priority. This leads to the first hypothesis to be tested:

> *H1:   Managers perceive the level of organization security within their firm to be high.*

During the initial interview with the CEO and subsequent interviews with other executives of FSS, it was confirmed that they perceived that organization security was a top priority and that FSS had a significantly high level of security. The first question asked of each executive staff member was "how secure is your organization's information"? According to the CEO:

On a scale of one to ten I would say we're an eight. We have a lot of in-house expertise and I think we have devoted a lot of resources trying to provide good security. I think that we have had pretty good performance down the line; however that's more intuitive that data based.

Time and time again, similar answers were echoed, such as the following made by the Chief Financial Officer (CFO):

I believe our information security is solid. My opinion is not based on our IT department, but based on what the so-called experts have told me. That's where my decision is coming. Not that I have any concerns with our IT department, but if I hear it from an expert what else am I to believe.

FSS invested in yearly security audits from an outside firm to ensure the organization was providing adequate security. These outside security audits seemed to give the organization a high level of confidence in their organizational security. According to the VP of Operations:

We have the outside audit firm come in and hack around and whatever they do, then come back and I sat in exit interviews where they say they found some places we need to improve on…some of it is non-critical and some is a little more critical. Based on what I've seen and from what people have come up and told us I feel pretty good.

The CEO, as well as the other executives, perceived that the outside security audits and the federal examinations served more as a validation of their existing safety measures than a service that improved organizational security.

I think what a third-party does is either validate or invalidate your intuitive feelings about where you are. So I think that in the scope of how the world is sitting in this area I was pleased with what the third-party said. We also had an examination last year with regulators coming in. Again that was confirmation that compared to others in the industry we are in pretty good shape.

Predictably, reliance on the results of the third-party audit has led to a false sense of security by the executive staff. This reflects a typical technology-based approach to organization security. The objective listed in the audit report was as follows:

> *"We understand that the primary objectives of the project were to perform a comprehensive IS controls review of the automated controls within the existing computer environment and systems. In addition, we performed a firewall security review and internal and external intrusion testing. Our findings and recommendations will be useful in enhancing the systems and in providing cost-effective internal control improvements."*

Clearly, from reading the objective, it can be determined that the security audit consisted of an assessment of the technological controls of organizational security. However, when the report was presented to the executive staff informing them that no security vulnerabilities were discovered, management was convinced that organizational information was well protected from security threats.

Even without considering the results of the outside audit, managers felt the organization was secure based on their experience with the controls that existed on the system, again reflecting a technology-based view of organization security.

> *I'm comfortable with the system being secure. You have to have a password to get into everything, so whether it be just the email or the system itself...you have a user name and a password in order to get into it, so I'm fairly comfortable with security.*

Even after discussions to distinguish "systems security" from "information security", management's perception of the security level of the organization was unchanged.

> *I think it's pretty high, especially when it comes to customer data, that level of awareness has been raised over the last year, year and a half. People are reminded of it on a regular basis. Is it 100% effective?.., no, nothing is 100% effective. But I think the general awareness of protecting customer information is fairly high.*

Management did not perceive information security to be a problem, whether the information is in the form of electronic data within the computer-based system or hard-copy data. Some managers referred to the results of the recent federal regulatory examination, which included ensuring the protection of customer information. After reviewing the examination report and speaking to the CIO, it was discovered that the information security section of the examination consisted of a self-report questionnaire that was completed by the CIO. When questions regarding information security were asked, such as "has management established and documented an adequate information security policy to provide for the overall direction and

implementation of information security", the CIO simply answered "yes". Presumably because of a lack of expertise, the federal examiners who conducted the examination at FSS simply accepted the answers provided by the CIO. As a result, the examiners reported that information security at FSS was "satisfactory". This contributed to the overall perception of management that the organization was successfully providing adequate security.

The consensus of the executive staff was that FSS considered organization security a top priority and the organization has taken appropriate measure to ensure the protection of their information. The primary reason given for management's perception was the belief that FSS had sufficient policies in place to address security issues. A review of FSS employee handbook found policies addressing physical control to the buildings and specific areas within the branches, password creation and protection, information securing, and the disposal of customer and organizational information. Management perceived that employees were reading and following these policies. If organizational information was put at risk, they perceived it would be the result of an outside attack or an internal employee's deviant behavior. Employee behavior that would unintentionally put the organization at risk was perceived to happen on rare occasions; however not often enough to be concerned about. This leads to the second hypothesis:

> *H2:* *Managers perceive that employees adhere to established organization security policies.*

Organization security models have stressed the importance of the establishment and implementation of security policies (Segev et al.,1998). Security policies at FSS were posted on the company intranet and updated throughout the year as needed. All employees had access to the intranet and were encouraged to read the policies. Once a year, employees were asked to sign a document verifying that they had read the policies. Management was asked about their perception of three areas of employee behavior which were addressed in their organization security policies, which could unintentionally lead to security risks: (1) revealing/sharing system passwords, (2) leaving sensitive information unsecured, and (3) throwing sensitive information in the trash. Management perceived that these were not problems for FSS because of existing policies that prohibit such actions. When asked if they thought employees would give out or share their system password, management unanimously proclaimed that employees would not. Managers felt that employees were well aware of existing password policies at FSS, and fully understood the importance of protecting system passwords.

> *I wouldn't sit here and tell you that it would be 100%, depending on who was asking some people would probably offer it up, but overall most would not.*

Regarding leaving sensitive information unsecured, managers again felt that this rarely occurred at FSS. Each office had a lock on the door and every desk and file cabinet had locks. All employees were given keys to the locks for their work areas. The securing of information, as required by GLBA, had been stressed to all employees.

Employees understand the importance of securing information. Even those who have locks on their doors know they have to put information away at night and lock it in their desks or file cabinets because the cleaning crew still comes in and empties the trash. The information we have here is just too sensitive to leave out in the open so we make it a top priority to see that it doesn't happen. Graham-Leach-Bliley really opened our eyes to protecting the privacy of our customer's information.

Management also perceived that the FSS staff was quite effective at shredding sensitive information.

Anything dealing with customers' accounts goes to that shred bin and it's kept locked up in a back room with the door shut and the cleaning people don't go into. We are pretty good about putting things in shredder bins. Could I 100% say there is nothing in there [the trash], but all in all the chances of it happening are very slim.

Managers again pointed to the existence of a policy that stressed the importance of shredding sensitive information. They also pointed out that the number of shredder bins that were located throughout FSS made it very convenient for employees to use. To add to the convenience, each employee had an individual "shred can" at their desk in addition to their trash can. Employees were encouraged to keep the two receptacles separate to prevent accidentally throwing sensitive information into the trash can. A tour of the shredder bins located throughout the main branch was conducted. The shredder bins were large plastic garbage-can-like receptacles. Each bin had a large slit in the top approximately two feet long and five inches wide to allow employees to put large quantities of paper in at one time or to facilitate thicker green-bar reports. Each shredder bin was secured with a pad lock which required a key to unlock. The shredder bins did seem to be located in areas which made access easy for most employees. The "shred cans" at employees' desks were observed. These "shred cans" were clearly marked and kept very convenient for employee use.

I see them taking their shred each day over there [to the shred bins], but if they had something in the trashcan I don't go and check everybody's trashcan at night. Now on the teller line all of their shred is right there at their feet as they are working throughout the day and if they want to throw something in the trash it's back on the opposite side of

the wall where they would actually have to get up out of their chair and I don't think they would get up to throw something in that trash can other than their trash.

Because of the existence of policies that had been established to protect organizational information, management perceived that these policies were being followed by the staff. It was also perceived that department supervisors were effective in the enforcement of these policies. To verify the accuracy of management's perceptions, employees were interviewed. Because of their close proximity, employees have been shown to be the best source for understanding the behavior and actions of other peers (Murphy & Cleveland, 1991). Behavior that is observed by employees is different that those observed by management, because employees have opportunities to see diverse and disparate behaviors of which managers may not be aware. In addition to interviews, employee behavior was observed to help test the final hypothesis:

H3: *Managers fail to perceive of routine employee actions that may unintentionally expose the organization to security risks.*

System passwords

The first attempt to validate or invalidate the perceptions of management was through the interview process. The interview process began with six employees of the IT department. These employees ranged in length of employment at FSS from two weeks to several years. After reviewing the results of the outside security audit, expectations were quite high that the IT department was making every attempt to keep the organization's information secure (from a technological point of view). Throughout the interviews, it was validated that the employees of the IT department seemed effective in providing technology-based solutions to keep information secure. Interview results showed that the employees of the IT department would not share their personal passwords with other employees. However, interviews revealed that employees of the IT department were sharing administrator passwords. Each of the IT employees had an individual network ID with administrator access; however when logging on to perform networking functions, employees would use the generic "Administrator" ID and password, which all IT employees had knowledge of. By doing this, there was no record of which IT employee was accessing the system, making it possible for information to be put at risk without the possibility of detecting which employee caused the risk.

Password sharing was also found throughout FSS, including all branches visited. Two staff employees and one branch manager admitted they would give out their passwords if asked by people they trusted, such as management or IT personnel. One actually admitted she has allowed another employee to user her ID and password. Another example of password sharing is said to be common at FSS.

We had a situation where our computers went down and all of our work had to be hand written, so when the computer system came back up everything had to be logged in and so by giving my password to the branch manager and assistant branch manager they were able to go in and help post my work and other tellers' so we were just up here until 9pm instead of midnight. I can't remember if I changed my password the next day, but probably not, and I doubt that the other tellers did either.

Access to these system passwords would allow someone to perform financial transactions using another tellers identification (ID), preventing the detection of the act and identification of the abuser.

Even though most employees claimed that they would not reveal their system password, it was believed by the CIO (and from the primary researcher's past experiences in the industry) that employees were simply stating what they felt was the "appropriate answer". The CIO suggested that this should be verified by having his IT staff call employees and ask for their password. The IT staff contacted 60 employees randomly selected from the employee call list, being sure to select employees from every level of FSS, including executives. The employees were simply asked for their system password. Of the 60 calls made, 10 went directly to voice mail, therefore eliminating those employees from consideration. Of the 50 employees that were contacted, 50 passwords were surrendered, with only one employee providing any objection before eventually surrendering his password. All employees who surrendered their passwords had their passwords automatically reset, forcing them to change it immediately.

In follow-ups, many employees said that even though they knew it was against FSS policy to give out their password, they thought it was okay because they believed that IT personnel could access their password anytime through the system. Others claimed that they trusted the IT staff, believing that their password would not be used for any fraudulent activities. There was unanimous agreement among the employees who surrendered their passwords--there was no intention to put FSS's information at risk. (*Note: To prevent any negative effect on employee morale, after the analysis an email was sent to all employees stating that the organization had failed to properly educate employees about password procedures; thereby, eliminating any apparent blame on the employees for their actions.*)

The other two employee actions investigated were (1) throwing sensitive information in the trash and (2) leaving sensitive information unsecured. Both of these actions involve the protection of information that is no longer only contained within the computer-based systems, but now also resides in the forms of printed reports, customer receipts, loan applications, and other confidential information. To verify these other two actions that could unintentionally put the organization at risk, interviews were conducted and it was arranged to have access to the FSS headquarters and main branch after hours. The intent was to observe the existence of unsecured information and to perform "dumpster diving" to see if any sensitive information had found its

way into the trash. The CIO was ensured that this entire process would take no more than one hour and supervised the researcher during the investigation.

Discarded information

Employees were asked about throwing sensitive information in the trash. All employees interviewed proclaimed that this did not happen at FSS. They stated there were strict rules about using the shredder bins and they were adamant that those rules were strictly followed. An after-hours "dumpster diving" expedition contradicted the employee interviews. At the first stop, the marketing department, a discarded list containing the names and telephone numbers of the senior management and the Board of Directors of FSS was found. A stop in the office of the accounting manager resulted in finding documents containing FSS employee information, including employee name, FSS account number, and employee social security number. Also in the trash were copies of the accounting manager's personal checks, as well as confidential documents that had been manually torn, but were easily pieced together to identify names and account numbers. The next dumpster diving destination was the teller line, where several customer receipts, each containing customer name, account number, and account balance were found. The trash was also checked in a community printer room in the branch area. Inside this trash can were several completed loan applications and other documents that had been printed and discarded.

An interesting observation was also made regarding the "shred cans" that were at employees' desks. Many employees do not empty their "shred cans" into the shredder bins at the end of the day, instead choosing to wait until the "shred can" fills up. During the after-hours observation, the cleaning crew was observed emptying the "shred cans" into the trash, unbeknownst to employees or management.

Securing sensitive information

During interviews, employees were also asked if they left sensitive information unsecured. Many admitted that there were occasions when information was accidentally left on desks after hours, but according to them those occasions were rare. Each attributed this to the FSS policy that required employees to secure all sensitive information upon leaving every night. The results of after-hours observation found numerous violations which were potentially disastrous for FSS.

The marketing manager's office, loan manager's office, and the accounting manager's office were all unlocked. In the inbox on the marketing manager's desk were documents containing FSS employee information, including employee name, social security number, address, and salary for several employees. On the loan manager's desk were customer profiles and lending information containing customer names, address, telephone number, social security

numbers, account numbers, etc. There was a large locked filing cabinet in the office; however the key was left in the lock. Upon unlocking the cabinet it was found that the cabinet contained all the information on every loan currently at FSS. Also, unsecured in the office was a notebook containing the credit scoring formula for FSS. There was a green-bar report on the accounting manager's desk which contained general ledger numbers and descriptions. Also on the desk were loan charge-off reports which contained all the necessary information to steal a customers' identity. An open box containing confidential customer information was on a chair in the corner. Finally, a folder was observed in the inbox that contained the procedures for performing wire transfers at FSS.

The automated clearinghouse (ACH) room and the wire transfer rooms showed vulnerability. In the ACH room there was also a large locked file cabinet with the key still in the lock. Inside the file cabinet was all of the payroll information for every customer who currently had their payroll directly deposited at FSS. These records included customer name, address, telephone number, social security number, FSS account number, date of birth, place of employment, and salary. There were thousands of customer records left unsecured. The wire transfer provided completed copies of wire transfers containing customer information, sending and receiving financial institution routing and transit numbers, dollar amounts of transfers, and customer social security numbers. There were also binders containing many international wire transfers that been processed within the last week, showing all the pertinent information readily available. A binder containing the wire instructions was also found, with the ID and password to the wire transfer system written inside the front cover.

The Individual Retirement Account (IRA) area and credit card area also had significant violations. In the IRA area a file cabinet containing all IRA's at FSS was unlocked. IRA information was also found on the employee's workstation. At this workstation all of the overhead compartments were unlocked except for one. The CIO informed that this compartment contained FSS company checks which must be kept secure because they are preprinted with FSS's corporate account number. However, even if accessed, these checks must be signed, which is done using an automatic "check signer" which requires a key to operate. Upon opening a drawer at the workstation a set of keys was found that unlocked the overhead compartment containing the corporate checks. The "check signer" was found in the same area with the key still in the lock.

The credit card department contained many overhead compartments which were all locked; however there were several boxes on the floor throughout the room. These boxes contained reports detailing the credit card information of FSS customers, including credit card number, expiration date, customer name and address, and available balance; in short, everything needed to fraudulently use the credit cards.

The results of this one hour walk-around showed that, as an organization, FSS was not as secure as management perceived. This, along with the results of the employee password exercise, also indicates that management at FSS is "blind" to the security risks that are occurring

at FSS. Thus, there is a significant difference between management's perception of organization security and the actual levels of security that exists at FSS.

Reaction of the CEO

Upon the completion of the interviews, documentation review, and observations, a final follow up meeting was scheduled with the CEO. He was shocked at the level of security risks that were found at FSS.

It's surprising to the extent that we are open from the information side. I'm really amazed that you found it that easy. The stuff lying on the desk, there is some of that going on and…there is no punishment for that, but it's amazing that people are so fearless about giving away passwords and access.

He was also amazed by the findings regarding unsecured information and information being thrown away.

We don't have someone supervising every area to make sure we are doing a good job…make sure we are not putting important information in the trash can. We don't have someone coming around making sure the desk is clear of paperwork that has important information.

During the initial interview, the CEO ranked the FSS's security level an "eight" on a scale of one to ten. However, after reporting the findings of this study, his opinion changed significantly.

On the people side I guess it's more like a three. That's where the exposure is.

He also felt that the findings were so significant that immediate actions needed to be taken to correct the actions.

We need to get right on it. It's wide open. We are laying here wide open. It's not really an IT issue.

In summing up his thoughts, the CEO seemed to finally understand the significance of the organization security risks at FSS.

It's kind of like we are leaving the backdoor unlocked every night after night--nothing happens--eventually something does happen. From then on you are sure to lock you door.

DISCUSSION

This case provides support for the three hypotheses presented in this study. Management at FSS perceived their organization security level to high. The executives unanimously agreed that FSS had above average security and that they were doing everything possible to protect the organization. These perceptions were not based on the actual probabilities of security threats, but rather on simplification strategies developed as a result the technology-based audits and federal examinations (Slovic, 1987). Without personal technological expertise, managers were forced to rely on the reports of these third parties (Siegrist & Cvetkovich, 2000). The CIO understood that the reports focused on the technology aspect of security, for which he was responsible. Therefore, he was pleased with the findings. Management failed to consider the human element of organization security; "…we often overlook the human solution and instead opt for technology solutions, when in fact the human factor must be addressed first, with technology assisting in the enforcement of desired human behaviors" (Whitman, 2003). Strengthening their perceptions was the fact that FSS had not had any security incidents (of which they were aware). If often takes a security incident to open management's eyes to threats within their organization (Dhillon & Moores, 2001). Therefore, hypothesis 1 is supported.

Management did not perceive that employees were putting the organization risk because of the established organization security policies. Security policies have been identified by researchers as an effective deterrence to security threats (Whitman, 2003). However, policies only deter risk-causing behavior if employees read the policies and adhere to them. FSS did have what was referred to as 'security policies', however most were focused on physical security and the threat from robbery. There was a systems usage policy that addressed the creation and changing of passwords, as well as the importance of keeping passwords confidential. Another general policy addressed the usage of the shredder bins and the securing of information after hours. These policies were on the FSS intranet which was available to all employees. However, there was no monitoring to ensure these policies were being read. Furthermore, there was no monitoring to ensure these policies were being followed. Because of an overly trusting environment existing within FSS, monitoring was felt to be unnecessary. Therefore managers were unaware that organization security protocols were not being followed. This supports hypothesis 2.

People will respond only to the threats that they perceive (Slovic et al., 1980). Therefore management was unaware of the employee behavior that was occurring, and the frequency of occurrence, which unintentionally was putting their organization's information at risk. Because of these perceptions, management took an ethnocentric approach to organization security

management, focusing on the threats from untrusted outsiders and ignoring the potentially more dangerous threats from trusted insiders (Allport, 1954). Management perceived overall security at FSS to be high. They were comfortable with the technology countermeasures that had been implemented to minimize security incidents. They felt that the threats presented by employee behavior that could unintentionally put the organization at risk were minimal. By perceiving that employee behavior was not a threat, the issue was not addressed by management. Management put too much trust in their employees, resulting in a lack of supervision (Dhillon & Moores, 2001). This study showed that management's perception of this type of employee behavior and the actual occurrence and frequency of this behavior was quite different. Therefore, hypothesis 3 is supported.

CONCLUSION

In this case, the data from FSS revealed that a significant factor in the occurrence of risk-causing behavior was managerial perception. Therefore, to reduce unintentional security risks, management should not seek to condemn the employees. They should look towards the actions, or inaction, of the management staff. It is the manager's (mis)perception of risk causing behavior within FSS and organizational dependence on a technology-based approach that ignores the human element of risk compliance and needs to be addressed. It is this blindness that has led to insufficient countermeasures to protect organizational information from the unintentional risks caused by employee actions.

Adding to the possible severity of these inadvertent employee actions is management's perceptions of the frequency of these actions. Managers often fail to consider the actual probabilities of these types of employee actions or to monitor the occurrences of these actions. Instead, management's perception is based largely on heuristics, which can negatively affect their decision process (Slovic et al., 1976). Therefore, the gap between management's perceptions of the rate of recurrence of organization security risks and the actual frequency of risk causing behavior by employees can lead to serious threats to organizational security.

While these findings alone are important, another overriding focus of this research is to demonstrate, in general, how managerial perceptions might be analyzed in realistic organizational settings. Das (2003) complained that the study of managerial perceptions occurs without "even a modicum of appreciation of the real-world managerial environment." In this study, we analyze the perceptions of real-world managers who work in a real-world business which may face the real-world consequences of (in)activity based on those perceptions. So, not only were we able to provide perceptual clarity to the subject organization we were also successful in affirming Slovic's perception of risk theory (1978) as the theoretical foundation for this study. Specifically, managers did perceive organization security risk along two primary factors, severity of the consequence, and, the probability of its occurrence (Slovic et al, 1976). However, these perceptions were filtered through the lens of simplified cognitive heuristics

which resulted in their drawing inaccurate conclusions about the true level of potential threats to organizational security. This finding is in agreement with Mezias and Starbuck (2003) who theorized that "managers may have inaccurate perceptions regarding information that is central to their jobs as well as about information they believe is someone else's responsibility." It has been demonstrated that organizational behavior initiated because of misguided perceptions may sometimes have disastrous consequences (Nystron & Starbuck, 1984). Here, managerial inaction may have been disastrous as well. However, organizations can take action to indemnify themselves against such damage if they seek out, and correct, perceptual inaccuracies.

This research can prove to be valuable to the practitioner community by raising awareness of the existence of the insidious, yet significant, problem of inaccurate managerial perceptions. By understanding the problem, managers may seek better understanding of the limits of their cognitive biases and devise policies and practices to widen their perceptional base. Specifically, managers may need to undertake training that increases individual situation analysis skills, encourages shared situation analysis as a part of the normal working environment, and fosters development of comprehensive information sources from which to draw conclusions and make decisions (Endsley, 1995). Ultimately, the goal is to decrease erroneous managerial perceptions to improve organizational performance.

For the academic community, this research introduces another method to study questions about managerial perceptions. From studies in the past, managers from various industries usually complete questionnaires about variables that were objectively reported in industry and organizational reports. Then, these cognitive assessments from managers were compared to the objective data in those reports to gauge the manager's perceptual accuracy (Tosi, Aldag, & Storey, 1973; Downey, Hellriegel, & Slocum, 1975; Mezias & Starbuck, 2003). However, the design of this study obligated the researchers to obtain direct evidence of the situation utilizing a "hands-on" analytical approach instead of relying on second- or third-party business reports which might, or might not, be entirely accurate. While not practical for all research questions, this technique increased the validity of this effort because all of the information was generated and controlled completely by the investigating parties. Personal interviews of executives were performed to get precise information regarding their perceptions of the situation of concern; after which, the actual evidence to confirm, or contradict, those perceptions was personally rooted out by the investigating researcher. Akin to a police investigation, the chain of evidence in this case remained uncontaminated and, therefore, the findings led us to untainted conclusions. It is our desire that additional studies concerning managerial perceptions may also benefit from this approach. Last, other organization and information security studies utilizing Slovic's perception of risk theory could add to a greater understanding of management's perception of security risks.

Some limitations of this research must be pointed out. Researchers have argued that research conducted by someone considered an "insider" may result in subjects' willingness to divulge information (Malone, 2003); however, the role of an insider conducting research can also be very complex and situational (Sherif, 2001). An 'insider' familiarity with the industry can

lead to a biased interpretation of the information collected. Avoiding biased interpretations of information was given a great deal of consideration. Interview transcripts and observation notes were reviewed by the CIO; however, this is no guarantee that the researcher's line of questioning was not influenced by personal knowledge of the industry.

This research was also limited by some other ethical considerations. For example, employees were questioned about their knowledge of social engineering (the art of deception to gain information) and (after explaining the definition) if they would be susceptible to such tactics. Employees consistently believed that social engineering tactics would not work on them. Although the primary researcher and the CIO felt employees were naïve regarding social engineering, testing such beliefs was thought to be unethical since this would involve intentional attempts to deceive the employees. This scenario is regarded as substantially different from the password gathering exercise, which was conducted by the IT department of FSS and did not involve deception.

Regarding duplicity, there is the question of whether this type of research should be replicated. Although researchers must walk an ethical tightrope, there is a lot to gain from conducting research about managerial perceptions in this manner. Employees may feel reluctant to admit their actual (versus perceived) activities because of potential negative ramifications from managers. Because of this, surveys and interviews alone may not provide the necessary data to properly understand organizational problems. Conducting case research can give a more in-depth understanding of the phenomena; however, the researcher must walk a fine line between data gathering and the ethical considerations of research subjects. Thus, researchers are encouraged to proceed with caution, always keeping key individuals informed and constantly gaining consent for every phase of research.

REFERENCES

Allport, G.W.(1954). *The nature of prejudice.* Addison-Wesley, Cambridge, MA.

Barr, P.S. & A.S. Huff (1997). Seeing isn't believing: understanding diversity in the timing of strategic response. *Journal of Management Studies*, 34(3), 337-70.

Barr, P., J.L. Stimpert, & A.S. Huff (1992). Cognitive change, strategic action and organizational renewal. *Strategic Management Journal*, 13, 15-36.

Benbasat, I., D. Gldstein, & M. Mead (1987). The Case Research Strategy in Studies of Information Systems. *MIS Quarterly,* 11(3), 369-386.

Boland, R.J., P. Salipante, J. Aram, S.Y. Fay, & P. Kanawattanachi (2001). Knowledge representations and knowledge transfer. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44, 393-417.

Bourgeois, L.J. (1985), Strategic goals, perceived uncertainty, and economic performance in volatile environments. *Academy of Management Journal,* 28, 548-73.

Boyd, B.H., G.G. Dess, & A.M. Rasheed (1993). Divergence between archival and perceptual measures of the environment: causes and consequences. *Academy of Management Review*, 18, 204-26.

Bromiley, P. & K.J. Euske (1986). The use of rational systems in bounded rationality organizations: A dilemma for financial managers. *Financial Accountability & Management*, 2(4), 311-320.

Cyert, R.M., & J.G. March (1963). *A behavioral theory of the firm.* Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Daniels, K. (2003). Asking a straightforward question: Managers' perceptions and managers' emotions. *British Journal of Management*, 14 (1), 19-22.

Das, T.K. (2003). Managerial perceptions and the essence of the managerial world: What is an interloper business executive to make of the academic-researcher perceptions of managers? *British Journal of Management*, 14, pp. 23-32.

Dhillon, G. (2001). Violation of safeguards by trusted personnel and understanding related information security concerns, *Computer & Security,* 20(2), 165-172.

Dhillon, G., & J. Backhouse (2001). Current directions in IS security research: towards socio-organizational perspectives, *Information Systems Journal,* 11, 127-153.

Dhillon, G., & S. Moores (2001). Computer crimes: theorizing about the enemy within, *Computers & Security,* 20(8),715-723.

Downey, H. K., D. Hellriegel & J. W. Slocum Jr. (1975). Environmental uncertainty: The construct and its application', *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 20, 613–629.

Earle, T.C., & G. Cvetkovich (1995). *Social trust: Toward a cosmopolitan society,* Praeger, Westport, CT.

Endsley, M. (1995). Toward a theory of situation awareness in dynamic systems. *Human Factors*, 37(1), 32-64.

Fahey, L. and V.K. Narayanan (1989), Linking changes in revealed causal maps and environmental change: an empirical study, *Journal of Management Studies*, 26(4), 361-78.

Fischhoff, B., P. Slovic, S. Lichtenstein, Read, & B. Combs (1978). How safe is safe enough? A psychometric study of attitudes toward technological risks and benefits, *Policy Science,* 9, 127-152.

Fischhoff, B., P. Slovic, & S. Lichtenstein (1979). Weighing the risks: Which risks are acceptable? *Environment,* 21(4), 17-38.

Gigerenzer, G. & R. Selten, (2001). *Bounded Rationality: The Adaptive Toolbox*. Cambridge,MA: MIT Press.

Goodhue, D., & D. Straub (1991). Security concerns of system users. A study of perceptions of the adequacy of security, *Information & Management,* 20, 13-27.

Helweg-Larsen, M. (1999). (The lack of) optimistic biases in response to the Northridge earthquake: The role of personal experience. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology,* 29, 119-129.

Helweg-Larsen, M. & J. A. Sheppard (2001). Do moderators of the optimistic bias affect personal or target risk estimates? A rteview of the literature. *Personality and Social Psychology Review,* 5(1), 74-95.

Judd, C.M. & B. Park. (1988) Out-group homogeneity: Judgments of variability at the individual and group levels, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(5), 778-788.

Lindsay, P. H. & D.A. Norman (1977). *Human Information Processing: An Introduction to Psychology*. New York, Academic Press.

Malone, S. (2003). Ethics at home: informed consent in your own backyard. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education,* 16, 797-815.

McKenna, F. P. (1993). It won't happen to me: unrealistic optimism or illusion of control. *British Journal of Psychology,* 84, 39-50.

Merton, R., M. Fiske, & P. Kendall (1990). *The focused interview: A manual of problems and procedures (Second Edition)*. Free Press, New York.

Mezias, J.M. and W.H. Starbuck (2003). Studying the accuracy of manager's perceptions: A research odyssey. *British Journal of Management*, 14, 3-17.

Miles, M. & A. Huberman (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook.* Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Mitnik, K (2003). Are You the Weak Link?, *Harvard Business Review*, April, pp 3.

Miller, T. & L. Bell (2002). Consenting to what? Issues of access, gate-keeping and 'informed' consent. *Ethics in Qualitative Research*. M. Mauthner, M. Birch, J. Jessop and T. Miller. London, Sage Publications, 53-69.

Murphy, K.R., & J.N. Cleveland (1991). *Performance appraisal,* Allyn & Bacon, Needhan Heights, MA.

Nystrom, P. C. & W. H. Starbuck (1984). To avoid organizational crises, unlearn. *Organizational Dynamics*, 12 (4), 53–65.

Perloff, L. S. & B. K. Fetzer (1986). Self-other judgments and perceived vulnerability to victimization. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 50, 502-510.

Rosenthal, D.A. (2003). Intrusion detection technology: Leveraging the organization's security posture. *Information Systems Management,* Winter 2003, 35-44.

Roth, W. (2005). Ethics as a social practice: Introducing the debate on qualitative research and ethics. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research,* 6(1).

Santos, M.V. and M.T. Garcia (2006). Managers' opinions: Reality or fiction—A narrative approach. *Management Decision*, 44(6), 752-770.

SBC (1999). Conference Report and Text of Graham-Leach-Bliley Bill, S.B. Committee (ed.), Retrieved from http://banking.senate.gov/con.

Segev, A., J. Porra, & M. Roldan (1998). Internet security and the case of bank of america. *Communications of the ACM,* 41(10), 81-87.

Sherif, B. (2001). The ambiguity of boundaries in the fieldwork experience: Establishing rapport and negotiating insider/outsider status. *Qualitative Inquiry* 7, 436-447.

Siegrist, M., & G. Cvetkovich (2000). Perception of hazards: The role of social trust and knowledge. *Risk Analysis,* 20(5), 713-719.

Siegrist, M., C. Keller, & H.A. Kiers (2005). A new look at the psychometric paradigm of perception of hazards. *Risk Analysis,* 25(1), 211-222.

Simon, H.A. (l956). Rational choice and the structure of the environment. *Psychological Review*, 63, 129-138.

Simon, H.A. (1957). *Models of man.* Wiley, New York.

Sjoberg, L. (1999). Risk perception by the public and by experts: A dilemma in risk management. *Research in Human Ecology,* 2(2), 1-9.

Slovic, P. (1987). Perception of risk, *Science,* 236, 280-285.

Slovic, P. (1998). Do adolescent smokers know the risks? *Duke Law Review,* 47(6), 1133-1141.

Slovic, P., B. Fischhoff, & S. Lichtenstein (1976). Cognitive processes and societal risk taking, in: *Cognition and Social Behavior,* J.S.C.J.W. Payen (ed.), Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Potomac, MD,. 165-184.

Slovic, P., B. Fischhoff, & S. Lichtenstein (1978). Accident probabilities and seat belt usage: A psychological perspective. *Accident Analysis and Prevention,* 10, 281-285.

Slovic, P., B. Fischhoff, & S. Lichtenstein (1979). Rating the risks. *Environment,* 21,(3) 14-39.

Slovic, P., B. Fischhoff, & S. Lichtenstein (1980). Facts and fears: Understanding perceived risk, in: *Societal Risk Assessment: How Safe is Safe Enough?* R.C. Schwing and W.A.J. Albers (eds.), Plenum, New York.

Slovic, P., H. Kunreuther, & G.F. White (1974). Decision processes, rationality, and adjustment to natural hazards, in: *Natural Hazards: Local, National, Global,* G.F. White (ed.), Oxford University Press.

Starbuck, W. H. (1992). Strategizing in the real world. *International Journal of Technology Management, Special Publication on Technological Foundations of Strategic Management*, 8(1/2), 77–85.

Starbuck, W.H. & J.M. Mezias (1996). Opening pandora's box: Studying the accuracy of managers' perceptions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 17(2), 99-117.

Starr, C. (1969). Social benefit versus technological risk. *Science,* 165, 1232-1238.

Straub, D., & W. Nance (1990). Discovering and disciplining computer abuse in organizations: A field study." *MIS Quarterly,* 14(2). 45-60.

Tosi, H., R. Aldag & R. Storey (1973). On the measurement of the environment: An assessment of the lawrence and lorsch environmental uncertainty subscale. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 18, 27–36.

White, M.P., J. P. Eiser, & P.R. Harris (2004). Risk perceptions of mobile phone use while driving. *Risk Analysis,* 24(2), 323-334.

Whitman, M. (2003). Enemy at the gate: Threats to information security. *Communications of the ACM,* 46(8), 91-95.

Yin, R.K. (2003). *Case Study Research, Design and Methods* (Third Edition). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, WORK AND PERSONAL GOALS AS PREDICTORS OF EMPLOYEE WELL-BEING

Angeli Santos, University of Nottingham
Timothy Hayward, University of Nottingham
Hazel Melanie Ramos, University of Nottingham Malaysia Campus

ABSTRACT

This study explored whether congruence between individual work and personal goals and organizational culture predict employee well-being or whether goals and culture independently predict well-being among retail staff of a large supermarket chain. Analyses of focus group, interviews and questionnaire data suggest the existence of a four factor organizational culture construct including management practice, relationships at work, environment and control, and demands and expectations dimensions, and a single work and personal goals dimension. The study found that relationships at work and work goal congruence significantly predicted well-being. Management practice and personal goals together accounted for a larger proportion of the variance of well-being. Limitations are outlined along with proposals for further research.

INTRODUCTION

Whilst job characteristics have been identified as key components in employee well-being (see de Lange, Taris, Kompier, Houtman, & Bongers, 2003 for a review) and are seen in the contemporary risk management approach to work place stress (Cox, 1993; Cox, 2004; Cox et al., 2000; Griffiths, Randall, Santos, & Cox, 2003), they do not give the complete picture, as well-being has multiple antecedents such as personal goals (Brunstein, 1993; Elliot & Sheldon, 1998; Emmons, 1986; Sheldon & Elliot, 1999) and workplace goals (Harris, Daniels, & Briner, 2003; Kehr, 2003). Personal goals facilitated through work have been found to be positively related to job satisfaction and negatively related to emotional exhaustion and psychological and somatic symptoms (ter Doest, Maes, Gebhardt, & Koelewijn, 2006). Furthermore, as work characteristics are subsumed within organizational culture (MacKay, Cousins, Kelly, Lees, & McCaig, 2004), an understanding of organizational culture becomes paramount.

Organizational Culture

Studying organizational culture is not straightforward. Researchers take different ontological and epistemological standpoints leading to varying conceptualizations of culture (see Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000b). For example, organizational culture has been defined as senior management values expressed as eight factors (clarity of strategy/shared goals, systematic decision-making, integration/communication, innovation/risk-taking, accountability, action orientation, fairness of rewards, and development & promotion from within) (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992) differentially influenced by the industry of study (Gordon, 1991). Other questionnaire measures of organizational culture have defined it as organizational practices rather than values, for example, practice dimensions of autonomy, external orientation, inter-departmental coordination, human resource orientation, and improvement orientation (van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004). In contrast to quantifiable definitions, organizational culture has been defined as socially constructed shared norms, values, and assumptions that are only adequately delineated by observation rather than quantification (Schein, 1996, 2004).

The above approaches have differing advantages, for example quantifying and measuring organizational culture (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992; Hofstede, 1981, 2001; van den Berg & Wilderom, 2004) enables culture to be related to other variables (Ashkanasy, Broadfoot, & Falkus, 2000a). In contrast, Schein (1996, 2004) and Hatch (2000) advocate "thick" description (Geertz, 1973) to reveal participants' thoughts, feelings, and shared constructed meanings (Burr, 2003; Hatch, 2000; Schein, 2004). Whichever approach is taken, employees' attitudes and behavior are determined by their perceptions of reality rather than any objective reality; therefore any culture measure must focus on employee perceptions of where they work (Rentsch, 1990).

As such, measuring culture requires "a combination of a qualitative approach for depth and empathy with a quantitative approach for confirmation" (Hofstede, 2001, p.393) and statistical relation to other variables. Indeed, survey measures of organizational culture have shown that organizational culture can impact upon organizational performance and affects both work attitudes, such as job satisfaction, and well-being (Guerra, Martinez, Munduate, & Medina, 2005). Furthermore, taking this combined approach may allow measurement of culture at different levels (e.g. Schein's 2004 three-level typology), thus delineating a fuller picture of an organization's culture, and arguably facilitating an organization's understanding of its own cultural assumptions (Schein, 1996, 2004). Consequently, the first aim of this study is to uncover individuals' perceptions of the organizational (sub)culture where they work.

Employee Goals

One approach to studying goals is by examining goal orientation. For the purposes of this study, goals are defined as "what a person wants to achieve in his or her current life situation" (Brunstein, Schultheiss, & Grassman, 1998, p.495). This definition is consistent with various

strands of research on goals both within the work context (e.g. Harris et al., 2003; Kehr, 2003; ter Doest et al., 2006; Wiese, Freund, & Baltes, 2002; Wiese & Freund, 2005) and personal context (e.g. Brunstein, 1993; Elliot & Sheldon, 1998; Sheldon & Kasser, 2001). A multitude of authors have argued that individual perception of goal attainment or pursuit is an important predictor of well-being outside the work domain (Elliot & Sheldon, 1998; Emmons, 1998; Karoly, 1993; King, Richards, & Stemmerich, 1998). Within the work context however, fewer research has been conducted, although Christiansen, Backman, Little and Nguyen (1999) have shown that perceived progress towards personal goals showed a positive association with subjective well-being. Similarly, a diary study conducted by Harris et al. (2003) on call centre employees demonstrated that the attainment of work-related personal goals on a given day was positively associated with affective well-being at the end of the working day. A second aim of the present study therefore, is to explore employees' goals, both inside and outside of work.

In an attempt to marry the goal research literature with the organizational stress literature, ter Doest et al. (2006) in a study of healthcare employees, showed that personal goal facilitation through work accounted for a substantial variance in work attitudes and well-being, despite controlling for job characteristics. In essence, ter Doest and his colleagues demonstrated that in addition to discovering what the goals are, the congruence between goals and work characteristics impact well-being (Edwards, 1992; ter Doest et al., 2006). As work characteristics are supposedly subsumed within an organization's culture (MacKay et al., 2004), the third aim of the present study is to examine whether the congruence between organizational culture and work or personal goals and, predicts employee well-being or whether goals and culture operate independently in predicting well-being.

Well-being, Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

Well-being has been variously defined, as comprising positive affect and negative affect (Diener & Emmons, 1984). The General Well-Being Questionnaire (GWBQ) which measures level of anxiety (up-tight) and tiredness (worn-out) (Cox, Thirlaway, Gotts, & Cox, 1983; Cox & Gotts, 1987) is utilized in this study as a subjective measure of well-being in line with previous research exploring the relationships between goals and subjective well-being (Brunstein, 1993; Elliot & Sheldon, 1998; Harris et al., 2003; Kehr, 2003; King, Richards, & Stemmerich, 1998). The GWBQ has yet to be related to goals, and therefore this research may enhance its usefulness in organizational stress research.

Measures of job satisfaction and organizational commitment were taken because culture has been shown to moderate negative effects of conflict on job satisfaction (Guerra et al., 2005) and positive relationships have been shown between cognitive, affective and instrumental facets of organizational climate, job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & Deshon, 2003). Employee perceptions that work facilitates the achievement of goals have also been shown to be positively associated with job satisfaction (ter Doest et al., 2006). Therefore,

the final aim of the present study is to explore the nature of the various relationships between organizational culture, goals, well-being, organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

METHOD

The present study was a mixed methods research study conducted in two phases: a qualitative phase, followed by a quantitative phase. The rationale for using such a two-stage qualitative (interview) – quantitative (questionnaire) methodology is twofold: interviews embed the experience of work and personal goals into the overall experience of the employees' working lives therefore providing the subsequent questionnaire with a sense of ecological validity; second, a two-stage qualitative–quantitative methodology not only maintains the integrity and rigour of data sources, but provides interconnectedness for any inferences / conclusions that are subsequently drawn from the data (Santos, Leather, Dunn, & Zarola, 2009).

Participants

For the initial qualitative phase, a total of 14 volunteer members of staff from one large store in a national food retail chain took part in one of three focus groups. These groups contained employees of different ages, length of service, and represented all major departments within the store. In addition, four randomly selected members of management took part in individual interviews.

In the second phase, a total of 406 questionnaires were distributed to all employees. Despite offering a £100 voucher prize draw the initial response rate was 22.2% or 90 returned usable questionnaires, although this was not untypical of other studies within organizations (e.g. Cousins et al., 2004 reports 19.5%; Lee & Wong, 2004 reports 24.8%; and Petroni, 2000 reports 9.4%). Following additional advertisement of the prize draw, the final response rate increased to 24.6% (100 questionnaires).

Questionnaires were returned by 82 females with a mean age of 42.37 years (SD = 12.50), a mean length of store service of 9.5 years (SD = 7.69), and a mean number of contracted hours of 24.40 hours per week (SD = 10.16) and 18 males (M age = 34.17 years SD = 15.68, M service = 4.75 years SD = 4.32, M hours = 28.33 years SD = 11.15).

Procedure

For the qualitative phase of the study, focus groups were run at quiet trading times in the staff restaurant. Questions in the interview schedule were designed to uncover the store culture and individuals' goals until themes were repeated across groups. The researcher recorded the focus groups by noting key points and themes on a flipchart so all points were visible to the group and open to challenge and comment (as agreed in the ground rules). This method fits with

existing methodology designed to elicit shared cultural norms, beliefs and assumptions (e.g. Schein, 2004) and was utilized because employees refused to be audio recorded but allowed the researcher to make written notes during the focus group. Each group lasted between 100 and 120 minutes.

Semi-structured individual interviews were also conducted with four managers, lasting between 18 and 35 minutes, using the same interview schedule as the focus groups. Individual interviews were used because of the small number of managers and because any management focus group would likely include bosses and subordinates. These interviews were recorded on a digital voice recorder and subsequently transcribed. The transcriptions included all words, and other relevant non-verbal utterances such as laughter and murmurs of agreement, and were therefore fit for thematic analysis (Lapadat & Lindsay, 1999).

The thematic analysis utilized on both the interview transcripts and focus group notes involved 5 steps (Braun & Clarke, 2006):

1.   Familiarization with the text (primarily through transcription and repeated readings).
2.   Generating initial codes (systematically identifying and coding interesting features across all four interviews).
3.   Searching for themes (grouping appropriate codes together with provisional names).
4.   Reviewing themes (checking the above themes against the full transcripts and initial codes).
5.   Defining and naming themes (full definition of each theme and final determination of labels).

Steps 2 through 5 were conducted using NVIVO 7 software, which is specifically designed to assist in coding, grouping codes, and labeling themes.
Following this analysis, the key themes were turned into questionnaires, one on culture, and one each for work and personal goals. Distribution and collection of the questionnaires were conducted internally and circulated in a separate envelope attached to their wage/salary slips so that they could be collected by employees on their pay day (which occurs every fourth Friday). The questionnaire was accompanied by a covering letter reassuring participants of the anonymity and confidentiality of responses and instructions and contact details of the research team should they have any queries.

Completed questionnaires were returned in the envelope provided through the locked post box outside the personnel office. The six questionnaires were stapled together in one of 24 possible combinations, and randomly attached to wage slips to counter balance for order effects. Returned questionnaires were analyzed using SPSS 13.

Measures

During the initial qualitative phase, employees were asked questions regarding their perceptions of the organization's culture, work goals, and personal goals. Questions on organizational culture included employee perceptions on how they felt about working in that particular store, expectations of the job and their manager, relationships at work, roles, and acceptable and unacceptable behavior at work. Questions on both work and personal goals explored how employees felt about what was important to them, their work/home priorities, how they spent their time, expectations for the future, and how work supported their life and career goals. These questions were in line with previous work on organizational culture and goal research by Hofstede (Hofstede, 1981, 2001; Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, & Sanders, 1990), Schein (2004), ter Doest (2006), and Harris et al (2003).

Following thematic analysis bespoke measures were developed for Work Goals, personal goals, and organizational culture. A 23-item measure of culture asked participants to rate their agreement with items on a seven-point scale from one (*No, I strongly disagree*) to seven (*Yes, I strongly agree*). Examples of items included: "I know about any changes that affect my job", "my manager listens to my ideas about my work", "different managers demand different things from me that are hard to combine", and "some colleagues get away with not working hard". Similarly, a 20-item measure of workplace goals asked participants to rate their agreement with items on a seven-point scale from one (*No, I strongly disagree*) to seven (*Yes, I strongly agree*). The questionnaire was divided into two parts: items one to ten asked employees whether certain aspects of their job were important to them and the second part (items 11 to 20) asked about individual perception of their job. Example items included: "it is important for me to have good working relationships with colleagues" and "my job at ….. gives me a sense of achievement". The 20-item measure of personal goals asked participants to rate their agreement with items on a seven-point scale from one (*No, I strongly disagree*) to seven (*Yes, I strongly agree*). The questionnaire was divided into two parts: items one to ten asked employees about what personal goals were important to them and the second part (items 11 to 20) asked about the impact of their job on their life. Example items included: "it is important for me to have enough time with my family" and "my job at ….. enables me to have a good quality of life".

Well-being was measured using the General Well-being Questionnaire (GWBQ) of Cox, Thirlaway, Gotts & Cox (1983). The questionnaire was developed as a measure of two indices of sub-optimum health. The first factor, 'worn-out' is characterized by symptoms relating to tiredness, emotional lability, and cognitive confusion. The second factor, 'up-tight and tense' is defined by symptoms relating to worry, fear, tension, and physical signs of anxiety. Each item was scored in terms of the frequency with which each symptom is experienced in the past six months, by means of a five-point Likert scale ranging from zero (never) to four (all the time). Scores on each factor could range from zero to 48.

The nine-item measure of organizational commitment (Cook & Wall, 1980) comprised three sub-scales: identification (pride in and alignment with the organization), loyalty (wanting to stay), and involvement (extent of absorption in one's role), with coefficient alphas of $\alpha = .71$, $\alpha = .71$, $\alpha = .60$ respectively. These scales may be aggregated to form an overall commitment score with an $\alpha = .80$.

Finally, a three item seven-point measure of job satisfaction was included as a measure of overall job satisfaction with an $\alpha = .77$ (Cammann et al. and Seashore et al. as cited in Cook, Hepworth, Wall, & Warr, 1981).

RESULTS

To ensure clarity of presentation, the results are presented in subsections. Section one outlines initial data exploration, section two examines the thematic analysis, section three outlines the questionnaire measures of culture and goals, and section four explores the relationships between all measures, and examines relevant findings in relation to norms. The final section explores congruence between goals and culture as predictors of employee well-being, and culture and goals as independent predictors of well-being.

Data Exploration

Data were pre-screened and as no variable had more than 5% missing data missing values were replaced with the mean score for that variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Subsequently, reversed questions were recoded to ensure consistency of interpretation.

All variables were screened for normality prior to any analyses being carried out. A number of issues emerged. Due to a large problem with negative skew, every score for each variable was subtracted from a constant (the highest score +1), and the resultant score was subjected to square root transformation, and then subtracted from the constant again to ensure the scoring remained in the correct direction. Following this transformation there was improvement in the number of variables fitting a normal distribution for all items except the GWBQ up-tight scale.

All items on the questionnaires developed that did not fulfill multivariate normality post transformation were excluded from further analyses. Consequently, the GWBQ worn-out subscale, organizational commitment, and a single measure of job satisfaction (All in all, I am satisfied with my job) were retained.

Results of Thematic Analysis

The five step process of thematic analysis suggested by Braun and Clarke (2006) was followed for the data gathered from the focus groups and interviews. Following initial

familiarization with the text gained through transcription and several readings of the transcript (stage 1), initial codes were identified that summarized interesting features of the focus group notes and interview transcripts (stage 2). Once the text had been thoroughly analyzed, thereby enabling full delineation of codes, the codes were analyzed and grouped together under themes (stage 3). This led to four emergent culture themes (Management Practice, Environment and Control, relationships at work, and Demands and Expectations) and also, two goal themes (Work Goals, and personal goals). Following this initial coding and subsequent identification of themes, examples of text comprising each code, and the way the codes were grouped into themes were checked by an independent observer, and agreement reached on both codes and themes (stage 4). The following summary of the analysis and main findings are grouped under these theme headings, the codes falling under each theme are explained with the number of references to a specific code across the interviews and focus groups listed in [brackets]. This analysis therefore provides a full definition of each theme thus providing justification for the derivation of these thematic labels (stage 5).

Organizational Culture

Management Practice Theme.

This theme typified the way employees and managers expressed how they managed and were managed by their line manager. Managers viewed themselves as having a responsibility to coach and develop their staff [5] "I've spent time with coaching and developing and one in particular [h]as completely and utterly turned around", be a good role model for staff [11], and be approachable [4]. Whilst this appeared to complement the desire of staff to be recognized and rewarded [17], and appreciated [9], they generally reported that "managers…often completely ignore you", and "we never get any thanks".

The level and quality of communication was important to both staff and management [24] although the majority complained that "you never get the opportunities to discuss issues". Furthermore, some staff did not think they were kept well-informed: "we don't really know what he expects" and complain that "we never get any good mornings or good afternoons or good evenings."

Finally, managers emphasized that they "support [their] team" and had the desire to be supported in turn ("I just manage it but they do not support me"). Equally, however they expected their staff to always do their best [8], and stressed the importance of accountability [15]: "those colleagues that are not performing- they should make it clear cut what's going to happen to them".

Environment and Control Theme.

This theme accounted for the physical environment, the resources provided and the ability to control these. As such, it covered the structure and systems of the store [9] including staff dissatisfaction with faulty equipment and a shortage of working equipment. This theme included staff perceptions that "the store is rule-based not trust based" [5]. Staff also commented on their lack of control over their environment [21]: "we were informed that we were getting these tills, and we could go and look at them but we had no say as to whether we got them", and their manager's lack of power to change anything: "we are listened to by our line manager, who passes things on that hasn't really got the power to change anything."

Relationships at Work Theme.

This theme covered how staff and management described their relationships with their peers [17] and their managers [21], as well as the store atmosphere [9] and the teamwork within the store [12]. Analysis revealed that "staff get on well" and "help each other out" whereas managers said that they "get blinkered to what we're doing ourselves" and indulged in "interdepartmental rivalry." Some staff also indicated that "there are too many upstarts…[and] we seem to have lost respect for managers", yet others said that they have a "good line manager." All managers viewed themselves as lucky with their store manager. Despite these differences, both staff and managers described the store as having a "friendly atmosphere", and even as "the best store to work at" with good teamwork and staff who "enjoy working as a team."

Demands and Expectations Theme.

This theme explores how staff and managers view themselves as being put under pressure [40], and the way they talk about targets [13], and expectations [15], specifically those around workload [7], change [12] and new initiatives [10], and working hours [24]. In terms of pressure, staff reported that they "have conflicting demands; we have our own job to do, and help the customer." Managers on the other hand commented that "It's all targets" "and pressure of delivering targets now."

These expectations reflect staff and managers' working hours as staff note "you regularly end up doing extra time, but you never get any pay or lieu time" while managers comment that they work "sort of an hour and a half extra [per day]" but that "there's no sort of insistence of expectation over doing longer hours". Furthermore, staff report that they "have three weeks paperwork outstanding", with managers noting that there is "a helluva lot of paperwork". Both staff and managers complain of the frequency of change within the organization with managers indicating that "the job role changes, you see, and I think it's very difficult" while staff reporting

that they "get fed up with initiatives because we are told they are here for life but they never last".

Work Goals

Staff indicated that that they thought a comparable employer was better than the store where they worked "……. treats their staff well", whereas managers stated that, "I'm sure the grass isn't greener on the other side" and even that "it's a company that you can be proud to work for". Both staff and managers indicated it was important to take personal responsibility in their work, as "people care for their departments" and want "to feel like [they've] made a difference to someone". Only managers said they wanted to, "hopefully develop further" and that they enjoyed "the autonomy to deal with things".

Both staff and managers wanted to "work to the best of [their] ability" and "do a good job" and reported that "we do enjoy our jobs" and "you've got to be happy doing what you're doing". Finally, both staff and managers reported that they like to "know where [they're] going" and "[they] like to be challenged otherwise [they] get bored".

Personal Goals

Both staff and managers continually emphasized the importance of spending time with family and friends [30]. Similarly, staff valued the importance of leisure time, including "holidays [and] time for activities" and the importance of living in a "caring…bigger community…in physical security".

The second most important goal in terms of frequency of occurrence was to have financial security [17], with staff saying they wanted "to have financial security" and managers saying it was important they had "sorted [themselves] out financially". Both managers and staff saw the ability to be determined, "stop worrying" and "come across as confident" as important. Finally, there was a general goal "to be happy", "have a good work life balance" and enjoy "a good quality of life".

Questionnaire Study

The bespoke measures of organizational culture, work goals, and personal goals were subjected to exploratory factor analyses to verify the existence and nature of the themes. Pre analysis checks were performed on the scales and where variables did not meet the criteria for multivariate normality these were transformed using the method described earlier.

All items entered into each factor analysis conducted below exhibited communalities of less than .4 and anti-image correlations of less than .5 were deleted from the factor analysis, as recommended by Tabachnick & Fidell (2007). None of items retained exhibited significant

cross-loading between factors, the threshold for item-factor loading being set at .4, which is higher than the recommended value of .3 by Bryman & Cramer (2001). The number of factors to be retained was determined by Kaiser's criterion which selects those factors with eigenvalues greater than one (Bryman & Cramer, 2001). All of the factor analyses hereafter reported good factor stability scores which suggest that despite the relatively small sample size the latter was unlikely to have adversely impacted the results (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988).

Organisational Culture

Factor analysis of the organizational culture items produced a four factor solution with eigenvalues over one, accounting for 64.4% of the variance, and a KMO of 0.82. The items designed to measure Management Practice loaded as expected (see Table 1 for Factor Loadings and Communalities). The item 'this store has too many managers and too few colleagues however (C23)' loaded onto this factor, yet under the thematic analysis was grouped with the Demands and Expectations theme. This loading makes sense, however, if the item is taken to reflect a conscious approach to managing the store rather than being taken as an indication of the extent of resultant extra demands placed upon staff.

Table 1 : Item Means, Standard Deviations, Loadings, and Communalities for the Four Store Culture Scale Dimensions, Work Goals Scale, and Personal Goals Scale															
	Item	MP		RW		CE		DE		WG		PG		*M*	*SD*
		LD	CM	LD	CM	LD	CM	LD	CM	LD	CM	LD	CM		
C9	My manager appreciates me	.83	.8											6.31	.48
C20	My manager supports me if I make a mistake	.78	.6											6.32	.38
C12	Managers treat all colleagues fairly	.76	.7											6.12	.49
C19	My manager will support me if I stand up to a rude customer	.76	.6											6.31	.46
C8	My manager listens to my ideas about work	.74	.7											6.22	.46
C17	I have some say in the amount of work I have to do	.61	.5											6.16	.53
C23	This store has too many managers and too few colleagues	.61	.5											6.01	.50
C2	I know about any changes that affect my job	.58	.5											6.31	.48
C1	I have some say in my hours and breaks			.80	.7									6.25	.46
C11	Colleagues get on well together			.69	.6									6.57	.33
C14	My manager has authority to change things					.81	.8							6.41	.40
C21	I have all the working equipment I need to do my job					.74	.7							6.29	.53
C13	Different managers demand different things from me that are hard to combine							.84	.7					6.10	.43
C6	It is impossible to achieve everything expected of me							.68	.6					6.01	.51

		MP		RW		CE		DE		WG		PG		*M*	*SD*
Table 1 : Item Means, Standard Deviations, Loadings, and Communalities for the Four Store Culture Scale Dimensions, Work Goals Scale, and Personal Goals Scale															
	Item	MP		RW		CE		DE		WG		PG		*M*	*SD*
		LD	CM	LD	CM	LD	CM	LD	CM	LD	CM	LD	CM		
G18	My job at XXX gives me job satisfaction									.88	.8			6.29	.44
G11	My job at XXX gives me a sense of achievement									.85	.7			6.32	.39
G13	My job at XXX is one where manager's appreciate the work I do									.85	.7			6.20	.48
G17	My job at XXX rewards me sufficiently									.84	.7			6.09	.45
G16	My job at XXX means I am well looked after									.82	.7			6.25	.40
G12	My job at XXX enables me to make a difference to someone									.76	.6			6.38	.39
G15	My job at XXX is one where I am fully consulted and informed									.75	.6			6.18	.41
G14	My job at XXX gives me good working relationships with my colleagues									.74	.5			6.55	.36
G19	My job at XXX gives me job security									.74	.5			6.36	.41
P17	My job at XXX enables me to have a good quality of life											.92	.9	6.29	.46
P19	My job at XXX helps me live in physical security											.89	.8	6.32	.44
P18	My job at XXX enables me to have good health											.87	.8	6.29	.44
P12	My job at XXX gives me sufficient time with my family											.85	.7	6.47	.46
P13	My job at XXX gives me sufficient time with my friends											.83	.7	6.43	.44
P20	My job at XXX helps me be part of a caring community											.83	.7	6.34	.45
P16	My job at XXX enables me to maintain a close intimate relationship											.78	.6	6.35	.43
P14	My job at XXX gives me sufficient money for my lifestyle											.67	.4	6.10	.51
Note. LD = Factor Loading; CM = Communality. MP = Management Practice; RW = Relationships at Work; CE = Control and Environment; DE = Demands and Expectations. WG = Work Goals; PG = Personal Goals															

The remaining three factors only had two items loading onto each factor. The items all loaded in line with the thematic analysis with the exception of the item 'I have some say in my hours and breaks' (C1) which was expected to load onto Environment and Control rather than Relationships at Work. Although if this 'say in hours' is taken as a reflection of the strength of relationships with managers and colleagues, then it makes conceptual sense.

		M	SD	Y	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Table 2 : Means, Standard Deviations, Factor Stability (Y), Intercorrelations, and Coefficient Alphas (on the Diagonal) Among Dimensions																
1	Management Practice	49.74	2.72	.091	.89											
2	Relationships at Work	12.82	.66	.087	.39**	.53										
3	Control and Environment	12.70	.77	.097	.34**	.19	.53									
4	Demands & Expectations	12.11	.78	.085	.11	.25*	.23*	.52								
5	Culture Overall	87.38	3.61	NA	.92**	.57**	.55**	.39**	.84							
6	Work Goals	56.62	3.00	.080	.77**	.29**	.34**	.13	.73**	.93						
7	Personal Goals	50.58	3.00	.076	.46**	.29**	.28**	.12	.49**	.63**	.94					
8	Commitment	57.11	2.32	NA	.59**	.17	.34**	.13	.57**	.70**	.52**	.80				
9	Identification	19.14	1.02	NA	.60**	.19	.41**	.12	.60**	.75**	.56**	.89**	.74			
10	Involvement	19.60	.83	NA	.40**	.16	.18	.06	.38**	.43**	.28**	.75**	.57**	.68		
11	Loyalty	18.37	1.00	NA	.41**	.06	.23*	.14	.39**	.50**	.40**	.79**	.56**	.31**	.46	
12	Worn-out	37.95	2.47	NA	-.32**	.02	-.13	-.10	-.29**	-.28**	-.31**	-.28**	-.26*	-.19	-.23*	.89
13	Job Satisfaction	6.40	.42	NA	.55**	.20	.32**	.22*	.57**	.74**	.58**	.80**	.80**	.56**	.57**	-.33**

Note. $N = 100$. Y is the measure of factor stability proposed by (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988), and is acceptable for all factors as it is below the maximum recommended value of 0.1
*$p \leq .05$. **$p \leq .01$.

Table 2 presents the means of the participants' scores on each scale after summing their individual responses to each item comprising the scale, standard deviations, factor stability scores (Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988), intercorrelations, and the coefficient α for each factor. Whilst Factors 2, 3, and 4, have low coefficient alphas, Ferguson and Daniel (1995) argue that alpha is affected by scale length and that instead, mean inter-item correlations should be taken, and if these intercorrelations are between .2 and .4 for each scale then reliability is acceptable. Reliabilities for factors 2, 3, and 4.were .36, .35, and .36 respectively.

Work Goals

PCA produced a single factor solution which accounted for 64.5% of the variance, with a KMO of 0.91. Items G11-19 inclusive loaded as expected onto this Factor (item G20 was excluded from the analysis because more specific items covering this construct were included in the personal goal questions).

Personal Goals

PCA produced a single factor solution which accounted for 69.5% of the variance with a KMO of 0.89. Items, P12-14 and P16-20 were included in the analysis and loaded as expected onto this factor.

Relationships Between Measures

As conceptually expected Table 2 shows a negative relationship between the worn-out scale and organizational commitment including all of the commitment subscales except involvement, and the single item measure of job satisfaction. Furthermore, in line with expected findings the GWBQ worn-out scale is negatively related to Personal and Work Goals, with overall culture, and specifically Management Practice. In addition, the positive significant relationships between Work Goals, Personal Goals and all aspects of culture except Demands and Expectations are noteworthy and largely as expected.

Well-being, and Organizational Commitment

The non transformed data obtained in this sample was compared to established norm data for both the worn-out scale, and the overall measure of organizational commitment using one sample t-tests as reported in Table 3. Organisational commitment is compared to a combined sample including both males and females as there is no norm data broken down by sex. Whilst the GWBQ provides norm data for varying occupational groups, none of the groups are directly comparable to the current sample, therefore scores were compared to males and females taken from the general UK population. The results show that the females in this sample are significantly more worn-out than the norm group.

Table 3 : One Sample t-test Comparison for Organisational Commitment and the worn-out Scale Norms and Data from this Study						
		This Sample		*Norm Data*		*One Sample t-test*
		M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	
Organisational Commitment	Overall (n=100)	45.46	7.87	45.37	9.55	*t*(99) = 0.12, *p* = .91, *ns*
Worn-Out Scale	Female (n=82)	19.27	7.62	17.40	8.64	*t*(81) = 2.22, *p* < .05
	Male (n=18)	13.82	11.55	15.93	7.75	*t*(17) = -0.78, *p* = .45, *ns*

Culture and Goals as Predictors of Well-being

Culture-Goal Congruence and Management Practice-Goal Congruence

To ensure equivalence across scales, the mean-item scores were computed for each of the following scales: overall culture, individual culture subscales, work goals and personal goals. Congruence was then calculated between overall culture and personal goals, overall culture and work goals, and then each culture subscale and work goals, and finally each culture subscale and personal goals. The procedure employed involved subtracting the goal score from the relevant culture score. This led to 10 congruence scores; Overall Culture-Personal Goal Congruence (CPC), Overall Culture-Work Goal Congruence (CWC), Management Practice-Work Goal Congruence (MWC), Management Practice-Personal Goal Congruence (MPC), Relationships at Work-Work Goal Congruence (RWC), Relationships at Work-Personal Goal Congruence (RPC), Control and Environment-Work Goal Congruence (EWC), Control and Environment-Personal Goal Congruence (EPC), Demands and Expectations-Work Goal Congruence (DWC), and Demands and Expectations-Personal Goal Congruence (DPC).

To guard against the inappropriate application of linear techniques to non-linear data, the recommendation of Bauer (2005) was followed in that both residuals and predicted values, and actual scores on predictor variables and outcome variables were plotted on scatterplots with Loess fit lines interposed on top. This suggested that the presence of linear relationships in data were apparent, and as such, multiple regression was appropriate. The utilization of this technique was further supported by Field (2005).

Three separate multiple regressions were conducted, the first one used CWC and CPC as predictors and the worn-out scale score as the outcome, and the second one used MWC, RWC, EWC, and DWC, and the third, EPC MPC RPC, and DPC as predictors and the worn-out score as the outcome. As these measures had not been related to the worn-out scale, the recommendation of Field (2005) was followed in that both predictors were simultaneously put into the model using simultaneous regression against the worn-out score for each regression. This initial model was used to check which predictors were contributing to the outcome. If any predictor reached significance of ≤ 0.1 then the analysis would be rerun using only these predictors and the forward stepwise method of regression (Field, 2005).

Multiple regression requires a large number of participants, with different authors suggesting different determining criteria. For example, 15 participants per predictor has been suggested as a general rule of thumb (Field, 2000), alternatively the equation $N \geq 50+8m$ (where m is the number of predictors) has been suggested (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Based on these criteria, the sample size for the regression analyses performed in the present study was sufficient, as no single regression performed contained more than four predictors at a time. Based on these

criteria therefore, the number of participants in the presented study well exceeded the minimum of 60 or 74 participants.

Following the initial simultaneous regression described earlier, no predictor achieved a significance level of ≤ 0.1 for overall Culture Work-Goal congruence or overall Culture-Personal Goal congruence, therefore no forward regression was calculated. When performing the initial simultaneous regression with the individual culture subscales and Work Goal congruence scores, the Relationships at Work-Work Goal congruence, and Management Practice-Work Goal congruence both achieved significance at ≤ 0.1 (see Table 4). These variables were therefore entered into a second multiple regression, which led to a significant model ($F_{(1, 98)} = 6.88$, $p = 0.01$); standardized beta, errors, significance and R^2 for predictors for the model are shown in Table 5. Therefore, it can be seen that the less congruent employee's perceptions of good working relationships are with their work goals the higher their worn out score. When using the simultaneous regression with the individual culture subscales and Personal Goal congruence scores, no predictor reached significance of ≤ 0.1. No further analyses on culture (subscales) and Personal Goal congruence were therefore conducted.

Table 4 : Means and Standard Deviations of Predictor and Outcome Variables Entered into Regression Model		
Predictor Variable	*M*	*SD*
Management Practice – Work Goal Congruence	-0.073	0.229
Relationships at Work – Work Goal Congruence	0.122	0.395
Outcome Variable		
Worn Out Score	37.95	2.47

Table 5 : Beta's, Standard Error, Standardised Beta's, and Effect Size (R^2) for Regression Model Predicting worn-out Scores			
	B	*SE B*	*β*
Constant	37.76	.251	
Relationships at Work – Work Goal congruence	1.60	0.61	-.26**
Management Practice – Work Goal congruence	-.075	0.15	-.051
$R^2 = .07$ ($p \leq .01$) **$p \leq .01$			

Culture and Goals as Direct Predictors of Well-being

In this instance, rather than testing congruence, overall Culture, Personal Goals and Work Goal scores were used as predictors with the GWBQ worn-out scores as the outcome in a single multiple regression. Management Practice, Relationships at Work, Control and Environment, Demands and Expectations subscale scores, Personal Goal and Work Goal scores were used as predictors with worn-out scores as the outcome in the second multiple regression in order to test for the direct effects of culture and goals on well-being. In the first regression, Personal Goals

was the single predictor that achieved significance at ≤ 0.1. As Personal Goals was the only variable to be retained, it was entered into a simultaneous regression, which led to a significant model ($F_{(1, 98)}$=10.59, $p = 0.002$; β = -.31, B = -.026, SE B = 0.08, $p \leq .01$).

Therefore, Personal Goals accounts for 10% of the variance in worn-out scores, and an average three point rise in perception that Personal Goals are fulfilled by jobs leads to a 0.77 reduction in average worn-out scores.

In the second regression, Management Practice, Relationships at Work, and Personal Goals were the predictors that achieved significance at ≤ 0.1, and were therefore included in a second forward multiple regression (Field, 2005). This gave rise to a significant model ($F_{(2, 97)}$=7.62, $p = 0.001$). Standardized beta, errors, significance and R^2 are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Beta's, Standard Error, Standardised Beta's, and Effect Size (R^2) for Regression Model Predicting worn-out Scores			
	B	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Constant	52.27	4.33	
Management Practice	-0.29	0.09	-.32**
Step 2			
Constant	56.67	4.81	
Management Practice	-0.20	0.10	-.22*
Personal Goals	-0.17	0.09	-.21*
R^2 =.10 for step 1 ($p \leq .01$); ΔR^2 =.035 for step 2 ($p \leq .05$) *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$			

Management Practice accounts for 10% of the variance in worn-out scores with Personal Goals accounting for a further 3.5%. An average 2.72 rise in perception in Management Practice leads to a 0.54 reduction in average worn-out scores when the effects of Personal Goals are held constant; an average three point rise in perception in Personal Goals leads to a 0.52 reduction in average worn-out scores when Management Practice effects are held constant. Thus, it appears that Management Practice and Personal Goals together are the best predictors of well-being in this instance.

DISCUSSION

To facilitate clarity, this discussion is subdivided into several sections; organizational culture, personal and work goals, well-being, relationships between measures, limitations and future research, and summary and conclusions.

Organizational Culture

Thematic analysis and factor analysis elicited four store cultural components: Management Practice (the way managers were perceived to act, and their perceived values); Relationships at Work (the quality of relationships between colleagues and bosses, the store atmosphere and the level of teamwork); Control and Environment (suitability of the physical environment and equipment, and the perception of control over the working environment) and Demands and Expectations (the type and extent of the demands and expectations). The four dimensions of this store's culture appear to reflect the store's practices rather than underlying values thus supporting Hofstede (2001) who argued organizational cultures are determined by shared practices whereas national cultures are determined by shared values. Similarly, Van den Berg and Wilderom (2004) argued that organizational cultures are comprised of five practice dimensions of autonomy, external orientation, interdepartmental coordination, human resource orientation, and improvement orientation. The results of this study offer tentative support for this conclusion in that autonomy is a facet of Environment and Control while Relationships at Work encompasses interdepartmental coordination. External orientation and improvement orientation are largely subsumed within Management Practice and task/job components of the human resource orientation are subsumed within Demands and Expectations.

Alternatively, utilizing Schein's (2004) three levels of organizational culture, it could be argued that this study is neglecting underlying assumptions and espoused values and beliefs. Yet values do appear to be measured in this study as the values of accountability, fairness of rewards, and development and promotion from within (Gordon & DiTomaso, 1992) are encompassed within Management Practice. A further alternative explanation could be provided by Schein's (2004) recognition that subcultures often operate within the overall organizational culture and as this study focused on one store in a national chain, arguably it is only capturing one store's sub-culture.

These apparently contradictory explanations may be reconciled by recognizing that organizational culture and leadership are "two sides of the same coin" (Schein, 2004, p.1). Indeed, organizational culture at the deepest level may be initially determined by founding leaders' values, and subsequently shaped by current leaders' (Schein, 2004). Perhaps these cultural values are then manifested (to varying extents) through local sub-cultural practices and this is what is perceived by local employees. Therefore, it is this local manifestation of practices that has been measured in this study. Arguably, it can also be said that the measure of organizational culture utilized in this study is actually a measure of organizational climate-climate being the shared perceptions and experiences of the policies and procedures at work (Schneider, Bowen, Erhrhart, & Holcombe, 2000). The organizational culture-climate debate however is beyond the scope of the present study, and the term culture is preferred because of its common usage and ease of understanding.

In terms of the psychometric properties of the organizational culture measure, only the Management Practice factor demonstrated acceptable coefficient alphas. Therefore future research in the area requires the development of further items measuring the other factors. Despite this deficiency however, these findings represent a robust measure of organizational culture within this store because of the multi-method delineation of culture (Ashkanasy et al., 2000b; Hofstede, 2001).

Work and Personal Goals

As with organizational culture, both Personal and Work Goals were initially determined inductively through interviews and focus groups. The themes elicited through thematic analysis and resultant questionnaires included Work Goals relating to working relationships, communication and influence, good performance, status, and a sense of purpose, thus encompassing the work goals utilized by Harris et al (2003). Furthermore, the Personal Goals contained questions representing four personal goal dimensions of personal growth, physical well-being, social relationships, and self-confidence as suggested by ter Doest et al (2006). Therefore, both the personal and work goal measures support existing research, and are clearly important to the current sample as shown by the high means and low standard deviations reported earlier.

Despite some research reporting no effect of goal importance on well-being (ter Doest et al., 2006), the goals measures could perhaps have been further improved through measuring an individual's goal commitment and perception of goal attainability (e.g. Brunstein, 1993). Furthermore, following Brett and VandeWalle (1999) future research could attempt to integrate the goal orientation construct and specific goals into a goal hierarchy to try and predict well-being. Nevertheless, the measure of goals utilized in this study is reflective of participants' goals, and furthermore, these goals are similar to those reported in the literature.

Well-being

One important finding here is that the higher employees rate their job in facilitating their personal goals, and the more they perceive their manager as supportive, fair, and communicative (management practices) the less worn-out they are. This finding is important as firstly, it supports the validity of the worn-out scale, because this is the first occasion that the GWBQ has been predicted by personal goals. Secondly, this result supports the propositions that organizational culture impacts well-being (MacKay et al., 2004), and personal goals impact well-being over and above job characteristics (ter Doest et al., 2006). The second major well-being finding is that females participating in this study were significantly more worn-out than the UK female norm group, but there was no significant difference between males in this study and the UK male norm group. The third major finding here is congruence between employees'

perceptions of facilitation of work goals and their perceptions of their relationships at work predict well-being. Despite the limitations of the two item measure of Relationships at Work, this finding suggests there is a need for further research on culture-goal congruence.

Despite these important contributions there are several limitations to these findings. Firstly, due to lack of univariate and multivariate normality (even after data transformation) the up-tight scale could not be utilized, although the worn-out scale has been used in isolation elsewhere (e.g. Cox et al., 2002). Secondly, Work Goals were not predictive of well-being which is contrary to some existing research (e.g. Harris et al., 2003; Kehr, 2003). Perhaps exploring work goal commitment (as suggested above) would clarify this anomaly. Thirdly, the GWBQ measure of well-being only focuses on the negative components of well-being and there is good argument for including a measure that encompasses positive components (e.g. Ryff, 1989; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Finally, the difference in male and female worn-out scores is potentially problematic, although this could be accounted for by the comparatively small number of males taking part in this study. Despite these limitations, the prediction of well-being by both Management Practice and Personal Goals, and the fact that females are significantly more worn-out than the norm data, are both important.

Relationships between Measures

Despite the fact that overall job satisfaction could not be calculated due to lack of multivariate normality, the single item measure of job satisfaction, and overall measure of organizational commitment provide support for the measures of culture and goals used in this study because of logically expected relationships between these measures. For example, employees' perception that their manager is supportive, fair, and communicative (management practices), is positively related to both organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. Furthermore, this same positive relationship exists for work goals, job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and personal goals, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. These measures are further supported by the fact that management practices, personal goals, work goals, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment all show an expected negative relationship with GWBQ worn-out scores.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

Despite these findings there are several additional limitations that require addressing in future research. Firstly, this study cannot determine causality but a longitudinal design could overcome this. Secondly, whilst multiple methods are used to ascertain store culture, all of them suffer from potential self-report bias and shared method variance for the questionnaire measures (Grant-Vallone & Donaldson, 2001). Thirdly, as completion and return of the questionnaires were voluntary, there is no way of determining whether there are any differences between the

sample that returned questionnaires and those that did not. Finally, whilst important and conceptually logical relationships have been identified between measures, the exact nature of these relationships is not known and requires further investigation.

The earlier discussion on organizational culture as values at the senior management level and practices at the local worksite level, and findings from previous literature that stress and mood at work vary on a daily basis (Fuller et al., 2003), suggest the need for a longitudinal study to investigate whether goals and well-being are nested within the individual, and culture and practices within the organization, through the use of hierarchical linear modeling techniques.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The culture of this store is comprised of Management Practice, Relationships at Work, Control and Environment, and Demands and Expectations. Personal and Work Goals reflected previous findings on the content of goals in these domains and both the extent to which personal goals were facilitated by work, and the Management Practices within the store was predictive of employee well-being. Management Practice, Work and Personal Goals were related to other established measures of job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the conceptually expected direction.

These findings are important because they suggest ways in which the store can reduce the extent to which employees are worn-out, which is particularly important for female employees, who are significantly more worn-out than the norm group. Methodologically, the findings offer further support for the validity of the worn-out measure, and offer some support for the validity of the current measure of culture and goals.

REFERENCES

Ashkanasy, N. M., Broadfoot, L. E., & Falkus, S. (2000a). Questionnaire measures of organizational culture. In N.M.Ashkanasy, C. P. M. Wilderom, & M. F. Peterson (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate* (pp. 131-145). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Ashkanasy, N. M., Wilderom, C. P. M., & Peterson, M. F. (2000b). *Handbook of organizational culture and climate*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Bauer, D. J. (2005). The role of nonlinear factor-to-indicator relationships in tests of measurement equivalence. *Psychological Methods, 10*, 305-316.

Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*, 77-101.

Brett, J. F. & Vandewalle, D. (1999). Goal orientation and goal content as predictors of performance in a training program. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*, 863-873.

Brunstein, J. C. (1993). Personal goals and subjective well-being: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 65*, 1061-1070.

Brunstein, J. C., Schultheiss, O. C., & Grassman, R. (1998). Personal goals and emotional well-being: The moderating role of motive dispositions. Jo*urnal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*, 494-508.

Bryman, A. & Cramer, D. (2001). *Quantitative Data Analysis with SPSS Release 10 for Windows: A Guide for Social Scientists*. Hove, East Sussex: Routledge.

Burr, V. (2003). Social constructionism.2nd ed., Hove, UK: Routledge.

Carr, J. Z., Schmidt, A. M., Ford, J. K., & DeShon, R. P. (2003). Climate perceptions matter: A meta-analytic path analysis relating molar climate, cognitive and affective states, and individual level work outcomes. J*ournal of Applied Psychology, 88,* 605-619.

Christiansen, C.H., Backman, C., Little, B.R., & Nguyen, A. (1999). Occupations and well-being: A study of personal projects. *American Journal of Occupational Therapy,53*(91). 91-100.

Cook, J. & Wall, T. (1980). New work attitude measures of trust, organizational commitment and personal need non-fulfillment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 53*, 39-52.

Cook, J. D., Hepworth, S. J., Wall, T. D., & Warr, P. B. (1981). *The Experience of Work: A Compendium and Review of 249 Measures and their Use.* London: Harcourt Brace & Company.

Cousins, R., MacKay, C. J., Clarke, S. D., Kelly, C., Kelly, P. J., & McCaig, R. H. (2004). 'Management Standards' work-related stress in the UK: Practical development. *Work & Stress, 18,* 113-136.

Cox, T. (1993). *Stress research and stress management: Putting theory to work.* Sudbury, UK: HSE Books.

Cox, T. (2004). Work-related stress, risk management and Management Standards. *Work & Stress, 18,* 89-90.

Cox, T. & Gotts, G. (1987). *The general well-being questionnaire (GWBQ) manual.* Stress Research Unit, Department of Psychology, University of Nottingham.

Cox, T., Griffiths, A., Barlowe, C., Randall, R., Thomson, L., & Rial-Gonzalez, E. (2000). *Organizational interventions for work stress.* Sudbury, UK: HSE Books.

Cox, T., Randall, R., & Griffiths, A. (2002). I*nterventions to control stress at work in hospital staff.* Sudbury, UK: HSE Books.

Cox, T., Thirlaway, M., Gotts, G., & Cox, S. (1983). The nature and assessment of general well-being. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research, 27*, 353-359.

de Lange, A. H., Taris, T. W., Kompier, M. A. J., Houtman, I. L. D., & Bongers, P. M. (2003). "The very best of the millennium": Longitudinal research and the demand-control-(support) model. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 8,* 282-305.

DeShon, R. P. & Gillespie, J. Z. (2005). A motivated action theory account of goal orientation. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 1096-1127.

Diener, E. & Emmons, R. A. (1984). The independence of positive and negative affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 47*, 1105-1117.

Edwards, J. R. (1992). A cybernetic theory of stress, coping and well-being in organizations. *Academy of Management Review, 17*, 238-274.

Elliot, A. J. & Sheldon, K. M. (1998). Avoidance personal goals and the personality-illness relationship. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*, 1282-1299.

Emmons, R. A. (1986). Personal strivings: An approach to personality and subjective well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1058-1068.

Ferguson, E. & Daniel, E. (1995). The illness attitude scale (IAS): A psychometric evaluation on a non-clinical population. *Personality and Individual Differences, 18,* 463-469.

Field, A. (2000). *Discovering statistics: Using SPSS for Windows.* London: Sage Publications.

Field, A. (2005). *Discovering Statistics Using SPSS.* 2nd ed., London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Fuller, J. A., Stanton, J. M., Fisher, G. G., Spitzmuller, C., Russell, S. S., & Smith, P. C. (2003). A Lengthy Look at the Daily Grind: Time Series Analysis of Events, Mood, Stress, and Satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 1019-1033.

Geertz, C. (1973). The interpretation of culture. New York: Basic Books.

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

Gordon, G. G. & DiTomaso, N. (1992). Predicting corporate performance from organizational culture. *Journal of Management Studies, 29*, 783-798.

Grant-Vallone, E. J. & Donaldson, S. I. (2001). Consequences of work-family conflict on employee well-being over time. *Work & Stress, 15*, 214-226.

Griffiths, A., Randall, R., Santos, A., & Cox, T. (2002). Senior nurses: Interventions to reduce work stress. In M.F.Dollard, A. H. Winefield, & H. R. Winefield (Eds.), *Occupational Stress in the Service Professions* (pp. 169-190). London: Taylor & Francis.

Guadagnoli, E. & Velicer, W. F. (1988). Relation to sample size to the stability of component patterns. *Psychological Bulletin, 103*, 265-275.

Guerra, J. M., Martinez, I., Munduate, L., & Medina, F. J. (2005). A contingency perspective on the study of the consequences of conflict types: The role of organizational culture. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology, 14*, 157-176.

Harris, C., Daniels, K., & Briner, R. B. (2003). A daily diary study of goals and affective well-being at work. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 76,* 401-410.

Hatch, M. Jo. (2000). The cultural dynamics of organizing and change. In N.M.Ashkanasy, C. P. M. Wilderom, & M. F. Peterson (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate* (pp. 245-260). Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications Inc.

Hofstede, G. (1981). Culture and organizations. *International Studies of Management & Organization, 10*, 15-32.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations.* 2nd ed., Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.

Hofstede, G., Neuijen, B., Ohayv, D. D., & Sanders, G. (1990). Measuring organizational cultures: A qualitative and quantitative study across twenty cases. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 35,* 286-316.

Karoly, P. (1993). Mechanisms of self-regulation: A systems view. *Annual Review of Psychology, 44*, 23-52.

Kehr, H. M. (2003). Goal conflicts, attainment of new goals, and well-being among managers. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 8*, 195-208.

King, L. A., Richards, J. H., & Stemmerich, E. (1998). Daily goals, life goals, and worst fears: Means, ends, and subjective well-being. *Journal of Personality, 66,* 713-744.

Lapadat, J. C. & Lindsay, A. C. (1999). Transcription in research and practice: From standardization of technique to interpretive positionings. Q*ualitative Inquiry, 5,* 64-86.

Lee, S. H. & Wong, P. K. (2004). An exploratory study of technopreneurial intentions: a career anchor perspective. *Journal of Business Venturing, 19*, 7-28.

MacKay, C. J., Cousins, R., Kelly, P., Lees, S., & McCaig, R. H. (2004). 'Management Standards' and work-related stress in the UK: Policy background and science. *Work & Stress, 18*, 91-112.

Petroni, A. (2000). Strategic career development for R&D staff: A field research. *Team Performance Management, 6,* 52-62.

Rentsch, J. R. (1990). Climate and culture: Interaction and qualitative differences in organizational meanings. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*, 668-681.

Ryff, C. D. (1989). Happiness is everything or is it? Explorations of the meaning of psychological well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*, 1069-1081.

Ryff, C. D. & Keyes, C. L. (1995). The structure of psychological well-being revisited. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 69,* 719-727.

Santos, A., Leather, P., Dunn, J., & Zarola, A. (2009). Gender differences in exposure to co-worker and public-initiated violence: assessing the impact of work-related violence and aggression in police work. *Work & Stress, 23*(2), 137-154.

Schein, E. H. (1996). Culture: The missing concept in organization studies. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 41*, 229-240.

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

Schneider, B., Bowen, D.E., Ehrhart, M., & Holcombe, K. (2000). The climate for service. In Ashkanast, N.M., Wilderon, C.P., & Peterson, M.F. (Eds.). *Handbook of organizational culture and change.* CA: Sage.

Sheldon, K. M. & Elliot, A. J. (1999). Goal striving, need satisfaction, and longitudinal well-being: The self-concordance model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 76*, 482-497.

Sheldon, K. M. & Kasser, T. (2001). Goals, congruence, and positive well-being: New empirical support for humanistic theories. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 41*, 30-50.

Tabachnick, B. G. & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics: Pearson international edition.* 5th ed., Boston, MA: Pearson Education Inc.

ter Doest, L., Maes, S., Gebhardt, W. A., & Koelewijn, H. (2006). Personal goal facilitation through work: Implications for employee satisfaction and well-being. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 55*, 192-219.

van den Berg, P. T. & Wilderom, C. P. M. (2004). Defining, measuring, and comparing organizational cultures. *Applied Psychology: An International Review, 53*, 570-582.

Wiese, B. S. & Freund, A. M. (2005). Goal progress makes one happy, or does it? Longitudinal findings from the work domain. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 78*, 287-304.

Wiese, B. S., Freund, A. M., & Baltes, P. B. (2002). Subjective career success and emotional well-being: Longitudinal predictive power of selection, optimization and compensation. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 60*, 321-335.

LEADERS AS CATALYSTS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE: HOW POPULAR PRESS BUSINESS BOOKS ADDRESS THIS TOPIC

Reginald L. Bell, Prairie View A & M University
Nancy L. "Dusty" Bodie, Boise State University

ABSTRACT

This study investigates differences among means of 110 randomly selected popular press business books (b-books) from a population of 1,200, written by multiple authors, mixed-gender coauthors, male vis-à-vis female authors, and b-books published between 1954 and 2006. Leadership and change were the two dependent variables measured by examining the depth of each in the index of each b-book. Five null-hypotheses were tested, with a .05 level of confidence. None of the means tested differed statistically. Furthermore, there was enough consistency in the advice b-book authors gave to their readers that it emerged as a theme: leaders are the catalysts of organizational change. The "Leadership Change Model" demonstrates this theme.

INTRODUCTION

The pioneering management theorist Peter F. Drucker (1954) first raised the question "What is our business—and what should it be?" To Drucker, the aforementioned "is almost always a difficult question which can be answered only after hard thinking and studying. And the right answer is usually anything but obvious." A tidal wave of responses in the management literature to it and other such compelling questions followed. Drucker was a pioneering business philosopher whose writings helped show the promise of management as a field of research. In a study of management gurus' gurus, (Prusak & Davenport, 2003), where "guru" was defined as one of the 200 most influential living management thinkers and business intellectuals, and "gurus' guru was defined as a guru most chosen by the 200 gurus, Drucker headed the gurus' guru list, and was fourth on the original gurus' list. In many ways, he paved the way for others whose writings helped distinguish leadership from management by definition.

Although there are many definitions of leadership, James MacGregor Burns (1978) in his classic b-book *Leadership* provides a definition which is still relevant: "Leadership is the reciprocal process of mobilizing, by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political, and other resources, in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers." Apparently Burns perceived the ideal leader as "transformational." Appealing to the followers' values and a higher vision,

transformational leaders encourage the followers to exert themselves in the service of achieving that vision. By encouraging employees to become innovative problem solvers, transformational leaders are more positively oriented toward, and more likely to initiate change. (Bass, 1985; Waldman, Javidan, & Varella, 2004; and Bass & Riggio, 2006).

While transformational leadership has been positively related to employees' commitment to the organization (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Koh, Steers, & Terborg, 1995); and to the leader (Kark & Shamir, 2002), the literature has not clearly demonstrated the impact of leadership on organizational change (Burke, 2002). However, evidence seems to indicate that leaders affect organizational performance in general; therefore, it seems reasonable to conclude that it is likely that these leaders affect organizational change in particular (Burke, 2002). Although leadership theories still need a more clear alignment with the study of change management, Herold, Fedor, Caldwell & Liu's study (2008) suggests that transformational leadership plays an important role and is positively associated with individuals' commitment to specific change projects.

Kotter (1988) was among the first to provide a leadership definition that distinguishes it from management. He argues management is a process, the function of which produces consistent results; *leadership, however, and by contrast, is a process whose function is change.* Leadership involves a vision for the future and a strategy for achieving that vision.

Another contributor to the early literature, Bennis (1994) identified differences between managing change and leading change by stating that the leader (compared to the manager) innovates vs. administers, challenges the status quo vs. accepts the status quo, and asks why, not how and when. "Leaders foster change and create an environment where change is the norm whereas managers stabilize the organization and ensure that the changes are well implemented." (Moore, 2003).

While "…it is clear that, in the field of organizational change, there is no one agreed theory of change and that there is unlikely to be one," there are competing theories of change that arise from differing underlying metaphors which are often unknown and unacknowledged by the change agents using them." (Dunphy, 1996). More recent literature suggests that organizations should be careful not to overlook the importance of change agents, i.e. leaders who cut across the organization and its business units often outside of the traditional hierarchy, to lead and drive change (Arrata, Despierre, & Kumra, 2007). In a qualitative study of consultants, academics and writers on organizational change, Lucey (2008) found that one of the main reasons for failure of a major lean transformation in the unfreeze stage (Lewin, 1951) was a lack of clear executive vision and leadership. Leader vision can play an important role in influencing openness to change and subsequent change-oriented behaviors. (Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2010).

Leadership and its affect on sustainability of change should be addressed over time and as a part of a set of environmental influences in order to gauge its true impact (Pettigrew, 1987; Romanelli & Tushman, 1983). In Pettigrew's approach (1987), leadership behavior is considered "… a central ingredient but only one of the ingredients in a complex analytical, political and cultural process of changing the core beliefs, structure, and strategy of the firm."

In their study of 42 Australian firms, Rimmer and colleagues (Rimmer, et al, 1996) observed that in a search for catalysts of change, "the one most commonly singled out was the support of the Chief Executive Officer." Conversely, citing other studies (Pfeffer, 1977; Lieberson & O'Connor, 1972), as evidence for the inability of leaders to effect performance, Pettigrew (1987), suggests there is "…a tradition of writing on leadership which is skeptical of any link between leader behavior and firm performance." Buchanan and colleagues' review of the literature on sustaining organizational change suggests that sustainability is dependent on multiple factors, including leadership, contextual, and temporal factors (Buchanan, et al, 2005). In examining the impact of four change drivers (communication, leadership, participation, and training), rather than the impact of a single change driver such as leadership, Whelan-Berry, Gordon, and Hinings (2003), found statistically significant differences in the perceived average significance of change drivers to individual adoption of change initiatives.

Stanleigh (2008) suggests forming a powerful guiding coalition, of leaders throughout the organization, who can guide the transformational change process and create a shared vision for corporate change. Leaders can also use powerful narratives as change catalysts to stimulate desire and inspire enthusiasm for change (Denning, 2008). To counter the perception that change is always scary and fraught with negative consequences, an organization can develop change champions, leaders who provide ongoing support for change initiatives (Chrusciel, 2008).

THIS STUDY'S PURPOSE

Although the leadership/management distinction has existed for more than twenty years, it is still not known if these definitions have influenced b-book authors or whether there is any consistency in the advice b-book authors are giving to their readers, much different than the prescriptions on leadership. Despite so many business philosophers writing b-books, there is a lack of empirical evidence in the management literature on anyone systematically examining differences on leadership and change advice given in b-books written over the past fifty years. Possibly because b-books take a long time to read, it is not practicable to read 110 b-books for a typical scientific study whose focus is on leadership or change. Furthermore, b-books tend to organize themes around secondary information sources, already infused with a lot of anecdotal opinions. Does the advice on leadership and change in these books deviate completely from Kotter's (1988) assertion that the leadership process is a function of change? Without examination it is impossible to know if there is any consistency in the advice these b-book authors are giving to their readers on leadership and change.

Therefore, this study's purpose is to review a random selection of b-books in order to investigate empirically if leadership and change contents as dependent variables differed among demographic variables assumed to have some correlation with them. Several questions were generated from this main purpose.

THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

First, is there any difference in change or leadership content and the era in which a b-book was published? Second, do b-books written with multiple authors differ when at least one author is male or female (mixed-gender coauthors)? Third, do male vis-à-vis female authors differ in the amount of leadership and change content they cover? Fourth, does change or leadership content differ in terms of the number of authors? And, fifth, do authors who write on leadership write equally on change? In order to accomplish the aforementioned research purpose, five null hypotheses were tested.

NULL HYPOTHESES

H1   *Means of four publication eras (1954-1979, 1980s, 1990s, and 2000-2006) of b-books do not differ on the leadership and change content measures.*

H2   *Means of b-books with mixed-gender multiple authors (at least one male or one female amongst them) do not differ from books written by same-gender authors on the leadership and change content measures.*

H3   *Means for male and female b-book authors do not differ on the leadership and change content measures.*

H4   *Means for b-books with one, two, or three authors do not differ on the leadership and change content measures.*

H5   *Authors who wrote a b-book that included content on leadership also included an equal amount of change content.*

RESULTS

Methodology, Sample, and Descriptive Statistics

Methods common in the social science literature were used to analyze the data. All data were analyzed using the software SPSS 15.0. Furthermore, four of five null hypotheses were tested using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) which is a robust way to analyze variables when there is only one independent categorical variable with two or more levels being compared on one dependent variable measured at least on the interval or ratio scale (Kachigan, 1991).

None of the assumptions for ANOVA were violated. Hypothesis 5 was tested using a Paired Samples T-test. Furthermore, books purely on economics or marketing were excluded to delimit the scope of this study to general business and management. The statistical analyses presented in this study were based on 110 randomly selected b-books drawn from a population of

1,200 university library database business titles. The sample was assumed large enough to be normally distributed (Henry, 1990).

Depth of leadership and depth of change were measured by merely locating the word leadership and the word change in the index of each b-book. The word leadership and/or change were considered the main categories in the b-book index. Any word indented and located directly beneath the word leadership or the word change was considered a subordinate point in the respective category. Thus, the word was counted as a second layer. The next word was counted as a third layer, and so on thereafter. Therefore, the depth of leadership and depth of change measures were dependent measures easy to observe and count and record.

Far fewer books on business or management were published between 1954 and 1979 than after 1980 (Kotter & Heskett, 1992); the volume of published b-books is disproportionate from 1954 to 1979. Therefore, it was necessary to code b-books with publication dates between 1954 and 1979 into one group in order to make testing for mean differences on depth of leadership and depth of change across publication eras (Hypothesis $_1$) more practicable. A random sample was done by searching titles by "date", "business", and "management" and drawing a random sample from those b-books published in various eras.

The 1,200 b-book population was generated by pulling books by date and the terms "business" and "management." Excluding economics and marketing books, every one out of eight books was selected for the population, until roughly 300 were sampled in each period. Thereafter, b-books were pulled from their shelves and observations were then recorded directly into an Excel file, using a laptop personal computer. Descriptive statistics were compiled and frequencies and percents for the demographic variables are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for B-Books with Frequencies and Percents on Demographics			
B-Books = 110	Demographics	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Female Authors	16	14.5
	Male Authors	62	56.4
	Co-Authored B-Books	32	29.1
	Total	110	100.0
Mixed Gender	Same Gender Authors	103	93.6
	Mixed Gender Authors	7	6.4
	Total	110	100.0
Multiple Author Books	One Author	78	70.9
	Two Authors	23	20.9
	Three Authors	9	8.2
	Total	110	100.0
Publication Era in Years	1954 to 1979	14	12.7
	1980s	31	28.2
	1990s	40	36.4
	2000 to 2006	25	22.7
	Total	110	100.0

As can be seen in Table 2, 64 of the 110 b-books examined never mentioned the word change as content in their indexes. And, 41.8 percent of the b-books' had one or more layers of change content in their indexes. One b-book (*The Change Riders: Managing the Power of Change* by Gary D. Kissler) had 52 layers of change as content in its index. There were 7 b-books with only one layer of change content in their indexes. Ten b-books had 21 or more layers of change in their indexes. The mean for 110 b-books was 5.18 layers of change content with a standard deviation of 10.39.

Table 2: B-Books Listed by the Depth of Leadership and Change Measures							
Leadership Content Measure	*B-Books*	*Percent*	*Cumulative Percent*	*Change Content Measure*	*B-Books*	*Percent*	*Cumulative Percent*
0	46	41.8	41.8	0	64	58.2	58.2
1	18	16.4	58.2	1	7	6.4	64.5
2	3	2.7	60.9	2	2	1.8	66.4
3	5	4.5	65.5	3	2	1.8	68.2
4	1	.9	66.4	4	4	3.6	71.8
5	5	4.5	70.9	5	1	.9	72.7
6	1	.9	71.8	6	6	5.5	78.2
7	1	.9	72.7	7	1	.9	79.1
8	4	3.6	76.4	8	1	.9	80.0
9	1	.9	77.3	9	2	1.8	81.8
10	1	.9	78.2	11	5	4.5	86.4
11	1	.9	79.1	12	1	.9	87.3
13	2	1.8	80.9	14	1	.9	88.2
14	1	.9	81.8	15	2	1.8	90.0
15	3	2.7	84.5	17	1	.9	90.9
16	1	.9	85.5	21	3	2.7	93.6
17	1	.9	86.4	25	1	.9	94.5
18	2	1.8	88.2	32	1	.9	95.5
19	1	.9	89.1	37	1	.9	96.4
21	1	.9	90.0	38	2	1.8	98.2
28	3	2.7	92.7	50	1	.9	99.1
31	1	.9	93.6	52	1	.9	100.0
34	1	.9	94.5	Total	110	100.0	
39	1	.9	95.5				
43	1	.9	96.4				
45	1	.9	97.3				
48	1	.9	98.2				
55	1	.9	99.1				
61	1	.9	100.0				
Total	110	100.0					

Also shown in Table 2, the mode of 46 of the 110 b-books examined did not mention the word leadership in their indexes. And, 58.2 percent of the b-books' contain one or more layers of leadership content in their indexes. There were 25 b-books containing 10 or more layers of leadership content in their indexes. There were 18 b-books with only one layer of leadership content in their indexes. The mean for 110 b-books was 7.06 layers of leadership content, with a standard deviation of 12.67.

Table 3: B-Books Ranked by Change (Chg) Word Count with 10 or More Observations
Date	B-Book Titles with Authors' Names	Ld*	Chg
1991	*The Change Riders: Managing the Power of Change* by Gary D. Kissler	9	52
1988	*Change Agents: New Roles and Innovation Strategies for Human Resource Professionals* by Manuel London	1	50
1965	*The Rational Manager* by Charles H. Kepner & Benjamin B. Tregoe	1	38
2001	*The Change Monster: Human Forces that Fuel or Foil Corporate Transformation & Change* by Jeanie Daniel Duck	0	38
1996	*Deep Change: Discovering the Leader Within* by Robert E. Quinn	18	37
1992	*Organizational Culture and Leadership, 2/e* by Edgar H. Schein	39	32
1987	*The Leadership Challenge: How to Get Extraordinary Things Done in Organizations* by James M. Kouzes & Barry Z. Posner	28	25
1983	*The Change Masters: Innovation for Productivity in the American Corporation* by Rosabeth Moss Kanter	3	21
2002	*The Leadership Challenge* by James M. Kouzes & Barry Z. Posner	45	21
2001	*E-Leader: Reinventing Leadership in a connected Economy* by Robert Hargrove	28	21
2000	*Escape from Cluelessness: A Guide for the Organizationally Challenged* by Lee G. Bolman & Terrence E. Deal	1	17
1982	*Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate* Life by Terrence Deal & Allen A. Kennedy	13	15
1987	*The Dynamics of Taking Charge* by John J. Gabarro	0	15
2000	*Change is the Rule: Practical Actions for Change: On Target, On Time On Budget* by Winford E. "Dutch" Holland, Ph.D.	8	14
1996	*Maximum Leadership: The World's Leading CEOs Share Their Five Strategies for Success* by Charles M. Farkes & Phillppe De Backer	1	12
2000	*Surfing the Edge of Chaos: The Laws of Nature and the New Laws of Business* by Richard Pascale, Mark Millemann & Linda Gioja	1	11
1987	*Productive Workplaces: Organizing and Managing for Dignity, Meaning, and Community* by Marvin R. Weisbord	11	11
1997	*Creating You & Company: Learn to Think Like the CEO of Your Own Career* by William Bridges	0	11
1996	*The Art of the Long View: Planning for the Future in an Uncertain World* by Peter Schwartz	1	11
2000	*The Arc of Ambition: Defining the Leadership Journey* by James Champy & Nitin Nohria	3	11
*Ld denotes the number of leadership layers in the index of that same book.

The leadership and change measures were dependent variables considered ratio-scale data. Unlike temperature measured in Fahrenheit or Celsius, which easily shows an arbitrary zero-point when converting one scale to the other, there was a true zero value for the leadership and change content measures. An index where the word leadership or the word change was not found was simply coded as having zero amounts of those measures. Twenty b-books containing 10 or more layers of change content in their indexes are shown in descending order in Table 3. Twenty-five b-books containing 10 or more layers of leadership content in their indexes are shown in descending order in Table 4.

HYPOTHESES TESTING

Hypothesis $_1$ could not be rejected: an analysis of variance showed that the four publication eras (1954-1979, 1980s, 1990s, and 2000-2006) of b-books did not differ on the leadership measure, $F(3,109) = 1.544$, $p = .207$ and did not differ on the change measure, $F(3,109) = .230$, $p = .875$. The means for the 14, 31, 40, and 25 b-books published in eras 1954-1979, 1980s, 1990s, and 2000-2006, respectively, were statistically the same across all four eras of published b-books on both leadership and change measures. Shown in Tables 5a and 5b are the test statistics for both homogeneity of variance and equality of means for all four ANOVA tests for Hypotheses $_{1, 2, 3}$, and $_4$.

Date	B-Book Titles with Authors' Names	Ld	Chg*
2006	*The DNA of Leadership: Leverage Your Instincts to: Communicate, Differentiate, Innovate* by Judith E. Glaser	61	0
1983	*Executive Success: Making it in Management* by Eliza G. Collins (Editor)	55	0
1986	*Lead On!:Leadership That Endures in a Changing World* by John Haggan	48	0
2002	*The Leadership Challenge* by James M. Kouzes & Barry Z. Posner	45	21
1978	*Leadership* by James MacGregor Burns	43	0
1992	*Organizational Culture and Leadership, 2/e* by Edgar H. Schein	39	32
2001	*Good to Great: Why Some Companies Make the Leap…and Others Don't* by Jim Collins	34	3
1997	*Corporate Comeback: The Story of Renewal and Transformation at National Semiconductor* by Robert H. Miles	31	6
1992	*Visionary Leadership* by Burt Nanus	28	8
1987	*The Leadership Challenge: How to Get Extraordinary Things Done in Organizations* by James M. Kouzes & Barry Z. Posner	28	25
2001	*E-Leader: Reinventing Leadership in a Connected Economy* by Robert Hargrove	28	21
1988	*Why Work: Leading the New Generation* by Michael Maccoby	21	0
2000	*The New Art of the Leader* by William A. Cohen, Ph.D.	19	0
1996	*Deep Change: Discovering the Leader Within* by Robert E. Quinn	18	37
2003	*The Value Profit Chain: Treat Employees Like Customers and Customers Like Employees* by James L. Heskett, W. Earl Sasser, & Leonard A. Schlesinger	18	1
2006	*Peripheral Vision: Detecting the Weak Signals that Will Make or Break Your Company* by George S. Day & Paul J. H. Schoemaker	17	1
2002	*Execution: The Discipline of Getting Things Done* by Larry Bossidy & Ram Charan	16	1
2005	*Everybody Wins: The Story and Lessons Behind Re/Max* by Phil Harkins & Keith Holliham	15	0
1981	*Executive* by Harry Levinson	15	6
1990	*Megatrends 2000: Ten New Directions for the 1990s* by John Naisbitt & Patricia Aburdene	15	6
1993	*Untangling Organizational Gridlock: Strategies for Building a Customer Focus* by Michele L. Bechtell	14	7
1982	*Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life* by Terrence Deal & Allen A. Kennedy	13	15
1968	*The Functions of the Executive* by Chester I. Barnard	13	0
1987	*Productive Workplaces: Organizing and Managing for Dignity, Meaning, and Community* by Marvin R. Weisbord	11	11
2003	*CEO Capital: A Guide to Building CEO Reputation and Company Success* by Leslie Gaines-Ross	10	1

Table 4: B-Books Ranked by Leadership (Ld) Word Count with 10 or More Observations

*Chg denotes the number of layers of change in the index of the same book

.

Hypothesis $_2$ could not be rejected. An analysis of variance showed that the b-books with mixed-gender coauthors (at least one male or female amongst them) did not differ from books written by authors of the same gender on the leadership measure, $F(1,108) = .768$, $p = .383$ and did not differ on the change measure, $F(1,108) = .268$, $p= .594$. The means were statistically the same for 7 b-books with at least one male or one female compared to the 103 b-books with all authors of the same gender on both leadership and change measures.

Hypothesis $_3$ could not be rejected. An analysis of variance showed that male and female b-book authors did not differ on the leadership measure, $F(1,77) = .960$, $p= .330$ and did not differ on the change measure, $F(1,77) = .008$, $p= .930$. The means for the 16 female and 62 male (single authors only) b-books were statistically the same on both leadership and change measures.

Hypothesis $_4$ could not be rejected. An analysis of variance showed that the b-books with one, two, or three authors did not differ on the leadership measure, $F(2,109) = .374$, $p= .689$ and did not differ on the change measure, $F(2,109) = .888$, $p= .414$. The means for the 78 single authors, 23 dual authors, and 9 triple authors were statistically the same on both leadership and change measures.

Table 5a: Tests for Homogeneity of Variance on Leadership and Change		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Test of Homogeneity of Variance					
(Hypothesis 1: publication eras)	Leadership	2.353	3	106	.076
	Change	.201	3	106	.895
(Hypothesis 2: mixed gender)	Leadership	2.098	1	108	.150
	Change	1.356	1	108	.247
(Hypothesis 3: male vis-à-vis female)	Leadership	1.915	1	76	.171
	Change	.031	1	76	.861
(Hypothesis 4: number of coauthors)	Leadership	1.570	2	107	.213
	Change	1.879	2	107	.158

Table5b: Tests for Equality of Means on Leadership and Change		Welch Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Robust Tests of Equality of Means					
(Hypothesis 1: publication eras)	Leadership	1.208	3	42.462	.319
	Change	.239	3	45.711	.869
(Hypothesis 2: mixed gender)	Leadership	3.082	1	11.097	.107
	Change	1.250	1	11.845	.286
(Hypothesis 3: male vis-à-vis female)	Leadership	.557	1	18.093	.465
	Change	.009	1	24.845	.927
(Hypothesis 4: number of coauthors)	Leadership	1.350	2	29.239	.275
	Change	3.566	2	34.424	.039*
*Denotes equality of means on the change measure among coauthors is significant at the $p< .05$ level.					

Hypothesis $_5$ could not be rejected: a b-book author who wrote on leadership wrote equally on change. A Paired-Samples T-Test was used in order to ascertain whether or not the means differed for b-book authors' who wrote on leadership directly compared to what they also wrote on change in the same b-book. Among the 110 b-books examined, no mean difference resulted from the comparison. T-Test results can be found in Table 6 below.

Table 6: Paired Samples Statistics for Leadership Measure Compared to Change Measure*					
T-Test		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Leadership	7.06	110	12.667	1.208
	Change	5.18	110	10.394	.991

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	Leadership & Change	110	.152	.113

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences							
				Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation		Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Leadership - Change	1.882	15.113	1.441	-.974	4.738	1.306	109	.194

DISCUSSION

The Leadership Change Model

The paired samples t-test revealed authors who included leadership content also included an equal amount of change content. None of the demographic variables (gender, number of authors, four publication eras, and mixed-gender coauthors) assumed to be correlated to the dependent measures differed either. These findings can be interpreted as authors' who wrote on leadership—regardless of demographics—for some reason felt it equally important to include content on change. This empirical evidence supports Kotter's (1988) assertion that leadership process is a change function. Furthermore, several dozen b-book authors consistently wrote about change as a necessary function of leadership. With these findings, there is thematic consistency in the advice these authors gave to their readers on leadership and change.

Many years ago Bennis (1959) referred to leadership theory as one of the top nominations among the "hazy and confounding areas of social psychology." Years later, obviously convinced

that leadership theory was more compelling, Bennis and Nanus (1985) argued leaders shape social architecture by managing meaning through their communicative actions, through utilizing metaphors to share their visions. A few years after the publication of *Leaders: Strategies for Taking Charge (Bennis & Nanus, 1985),* an Evolutionary Tree of Leadership Theory was developed.

Van Seters and Field (1990) traced the term "leader" back to 1300 A.D. They introduced 10 eras of The Evolutionary Tree of Leadership Theory, from 1841, the beginning of the "Great Man Period" to 1985, the "Self-fulfilling Prophecy Period." The early eras are: 1) personality, 2) influence, 3) behaviour, 4) situation, 5) contingency, 6) transactional, 7) anti-leadership, 8) cultural, 9) transformational and 10) the integrative era. This, they called the "Tenth Era." In the b-books examined in this study, authors appear to discuss leaders' ability to communicate their visions for the change they seek from three of these eras mostly: transactional, cultural, and transformational.

Drucker (1954) attempted to teach managers lessons on leadership by means of how they use communication to make change happen one worker at a time. In this sense, managers can transform themselves into leaders of the change process through communicative actions they take when dealing with each individual worker at all levels.

B-book authors were consistent with the advice they gave to their readers. So much so, that it emerged as a theme. The advice authors gave suggests they believe leaders (as agents of change) are "catalysts" who use communication which provokes vision-oriented change. This provocation starts the necessary chain reactions of organizational actions leading to vision-oriented change.

Merriam-Webster's Online Dictionary defines catalyst as: 1) a substance that enables a chemical reaction to proceed at a usually faster rate or under different conditions (as at a lower temperature) than otherwise possible and, 2) an agent that provokes or speeds significant change or action (http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/catalyst). The second definition is more relatable to the emergent theme; leaders are catalysts whose shared vision provokes or speeds actions in organizational recipients that lead to vision-oriented change. Shown in Figure 1, *The Leadership Change Model* attempts to make plain, as an emergent theme, what the b-book authors are saying about leadership and change.

The leader is a catalyst who uses messages to provoke political, emotional, and logical actions in organizational recipients which lead to vision-oriented change. These provocations are the result of encoded messages which travel over all possible channels, to every organization member, and continue this process until desired change occurs. In the model, catalyst is the incremental feedback a leader needs to gauge if the organization is moving closer to desired change: it is the only way the leader will know if the vision strategy is working. The model is predicated on a transmissional perspective which views the leadership communication process as a linear relationship between the leader and everyone else. This model involves a vision for the future and a communicative strategy to achieving that vision.

Figure 1: The Leadership Change Model
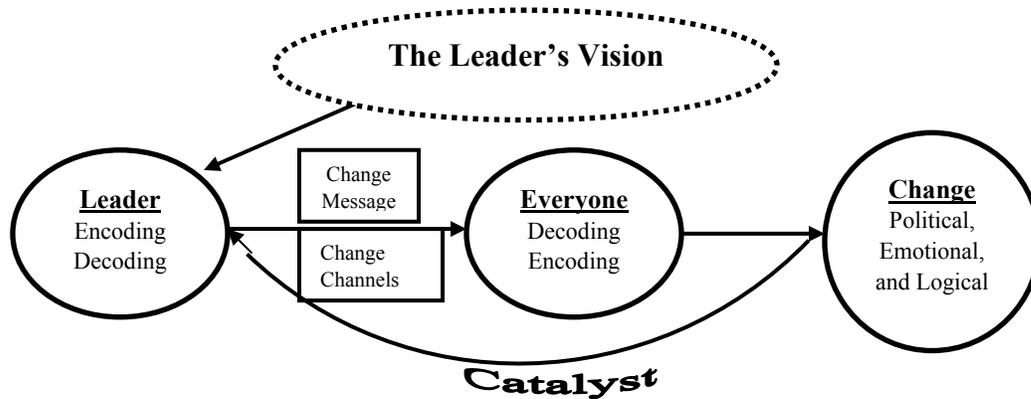
Although the leadership literature is enormous, a consistent message in the b-books examined in this study seems to be telling us that leadership is often related to getting the organization, as a whole, to work toward a single vision. This implies change! Sometimes, leaders were portrayed as task masters, but, more often, they were described in the b-books as agents of change with motivational speaker-like language skills. Several of these b-book authors discussed leadership in relation to the change function; several of the b-book authors appear to commingle the communicative actions leaders' adopt within the cultural, transactional and transformational eras in their discussions.

HOW COMMUNICATION AND LEADERSHIP ENCOURAGE CHANGE

In *The Change Monster* (2001), Jeanie Daniel Duck's term a "change curve" is a metaphor for a transformational roadmap to a successful change program. She described three metaphors for informal networks for change communication: Cassandras, Networkers, and Influencers. These are the people leaders should listen to and communicate with and through. Cassandras are usually middle managers and line supervisors, who can sound alarms and provide early warnings; Networkers know the organizational landscape and the right types of people; and Influencers can adjust and change the attitudes and opinions of the organization. Duck argued that the process of change required that one: first, communicate the message over and over and in many ways; second, know that the chief communicator becomes the de facto shaper of change; and third, rich content does not require endless detail. Leading change can also come through communicating the vision.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) argued leaders shape social architecture by managing meaning through communication. A leader is a social architect who understands the organization and shapes the way it works. There are three styles of social architecture: (1) collegial—universities, engineering firms, (2) personalistic—a founder's personality personifies the organization, and (3)

formalistic—explicit rules. When leaders use the *collegial* style, the dominant emphasis is on consensus, peer-group membership, and teamwork. When the dominant theme is *personalistic,* a legitimized anarchy exists; and the locus of decision making is within a given individual. A *formalistic* culture is derived from explicit rules and policies, and any deviation from the rules is frowned on. Each of these styles contains elements (organization's origin, basic operating principles, the nature of work, how information is managed, decision making, power, influence, and status). Two recent studies of popular press books, using similar content analysis methods, examined them for change communication and culture content.

First, Lewis, Schmisseur, Stephens, and Weir (2006) offer a thematic analysis "about implementation of change" and how popular press book authors "direct readers to communicate about those change programs." The knowledge they uncovered was largely delimited to advice readers were given by authors of popular press books concerning problems in communicating organizational change. The measure of the depth of leadership and depth of change content in popular press business books was not the scope of their study. Lewis et al (2006) also found communication to be inextricable with a change program. For them communication's role in change emerged as the dominant theme among the books they examined. The techniques of communication leaders use in implementing their change programs was common advice among a mixture of authors. And, second, Bell (2009) used content analysis to determine if differences existed in the culture content included in popular press business book. He was able to determine that number of coauthors (two or more authors included more culture content than a single author) on a "b-book" and the publication era (1980s had significantly lower culture content, p < .05, than b-books written after 1990s) differed in the amount of culture content they included. Bell (2009) developed a model called the Culture on Organization Outcomes Model, or COOM, which explains how hidden communications called metamechanisms can steer the direction of the entire organization towards an outcome of fortitude or turpitude. He argues this is why executives should always be dialed directly into the hidden hierarchy of informal networks within the organization.

Baldoni (2005) wrote on leadership's communication requirements across the organization. It is so integral to leadership that it must be practiced at every level of the organization. Leaders use communication to build relationships which, in turn, allow their people to fulfill personal, team, and organizational goals. Baldoni revealed great leaders use common communication approaches: (1) quest for authenticity; (2) speak as a leader; (3) listen for understanding; (4) learn from what they see and hear; and (5) act on what they have learned. Great leaders cited by Baldoni (2005) include Frances Hesselbein, CEO of the Girl Scouts; Peter F. Drucker, credited as father of the modern management; and Fredrick Herzberg, developer of hygiene theory. Leadership process as a function of change appears inextricable.

Quinn (1996) wrote in a brief chapter about managers and leaders, "What I find most interesting, however, is that there is another possible transformation that most senior executives, including CEOs, do not understand. That transformation is the shift from manager to leader." To

Quinn, leadership has four roles: *transformational*—1) vision setter and 2) motivator; *transactional*—3) analyzer and 4) task master. What is more, Quinn appeared convinced that managers transformed as leaders were the catalysts for making *Deep Change* happen.

Kissler (1991) explained the emerging role of leader/manager. In a humorous, yet, most important way, a "leadership litany" was explained: 1) leaders are their own source of reward and recognition; 2) their courage comes from deeply held values; 3) they despise inaction and bureaucracy; 4) their views of the situation are often removed from its nuances and; 5) they develop people. Both Kissler (1991) and Quinn (1996) appeared consistent with Drucker (1954) who argued managers motivate and communicate and develop people. This suggests Drucker's (1954) views on "the work of the manager" was decades ahead of more modern views on transactional and transformational leadership. In the *Practice of Management (1954),* Drucker helped to popularize Management by Objective. He also argued there are five basic operations in the work of the manager: 1) sets objectives, 2) organizes, 3) motivates and communicates, 4) has the job of measurement, and 5) develops people. Drucker was teaching managers how to transform into leaders who could be both task master (transactional) and motivator (transformational). Several of the b-books with extensive discussions on leadership also were equally heavy on discussions on change; these authors clearly viewed leaders as catalysts who trigger organizational reactions through what they do and say that eventually cause desired organizational changes to happen, including Schein (1992), and Kouzes and Posner (2002).

Schein (1992) asserted leaders create, manage and sometimes destroy culture in accordance with their vision of the culture. Deal and Kennedy (1982) whose discussion can be seen as rooted in the cultural era were still able to show how leaders inspire corporate change, especially through their explication of a hidden hierarchy or the other jobs people in corporations tend to do informally. Blake and Mouton (1964) were early to recognize the difference in management styles by creating a managerial grid where they elaborate on wide spectrum of extremes, from production oriented task masters to those managers who were more humanistic using communication to express concern and gauge employees' feelings.

Kouzes and Posner (1987), referred to communication pathways as the veins and arteries for new ideas. Leaders can start by aligning goals to the individual by forcefully using pronouns by saying the word "we" to communicate "our" goals. Keeping veins and arteries open and flowing produces clear pathways and keeps information flowing to promote teamwork and in turn promotes productivity. In an updated edition, Kouzes and Posner (2002) wrote extensively around their framework of the five practices of exemplary leadership: 1) Model the way; 2) Inspire a shared vision; 3) Challenge the process; 4) Enable others to act; and 5) Encourage the heart. They also advised their readers to follow 10 commitments of leadership. They believed leadership is a learned skill, almost artistic, that any manager could learn to do—and do well by following their prescriptions. The most revealing insight into their more recent perspective can be found in the preface of their b-book (xxiii):

What we have discovered, and rediscovered, is that leadership is not the private reserve of a few charismatic men and women. It is a process ordinary people use when they are bringing forth the best from themselves and others. What we've discovered is that people make extraordinary things happen by liberating the leader within everyone.

This quote from Kouzes and Posner (2002) might as well have come from a Peter F. Drucker field manual. It is hard to overlook the parallels between Drucker's (1954) view that managers "develop people" as one of the five basic operations of a manager and Kouzes and Posner's phrase "bringing forth the best in others." This is what a leader as catalyst does: in the purest sense the manager transforms into a leader to become a mechanism for triggering a chain reaction of events resulting in an achieved vision. Mostly this is what Kepner and Tregoe (1965) defined simply as change: something new or different.

The first African American to be elected President of the United States of American, Barack Obama, used a campaign theme of "Change!" And, his slogan was "Yes we can!" To young voters, this form of leadership communication was intoxicatingly vital and apparently struck to the very foundation of their American political beliefs. Even though using metaphors, analogy, simile, and personification is nothing new to political rhetoric, Obama repackaged his messages as reborn in an Internet era where millennial hearers were not used to such stylistic touches in political speech. Obama certainly triggered a chemical like reaction in millions of young voters, transformed college students into proactive campaigners, got them to the voting booths, and now he occupies the Whitehouse. Leaders don't need to look far to find salient examples of such rhetoric in political speech.

Examples of great speeches, impregnated with stylistic devices, that continue to inspire are Elizabeth Whiting's "The Meaning of Culture," Patrick Henry's "Liberty or Death," Booker T. Washington's "The Race Problem," George William Curtis's "The Puritan Principle: Liberty under the Law," Susan B. Anthony's "On Women's Right to Vote," Abraham Lincoln's "Gettysburg Address," and Winston Churchill's "Blood, Sweat and Tears" where he made famous the assonant phrase, "I say to the House as I said to ministers who have joined this government, I have nothing to offer but blood, toil, tears, and sweat." These great speeches contain examples of stylistic devices that corporate leaders seeking to trigger change in their organizations will benefit from reading. Managers who want to become leaders need to use language that can provoke vision-oriented actions that inspire desired organizational change.

To Prentice (1983) leadership can be defined as "the accomplishment of a goal through the direction of human assistants. The person who successfully marshals human collaborators to achieve particular ends is a leader." Leaders must be able to make tangible their visions through the use of language of a pictorial quality which aids them in sharing their desires for change. If this view on leadership is correct, President Obama certainly fits the bill.

In addition, Bennis and Nanus (1985) argued that managing meaning through communication means leaders change people through activities such as sharing vision by analogy, metaphor and vivid illustration. Many leaders use deeply textured rich agendas. It should be noted that leaders will realize nothing without communication. Their success requires the capacity to relate image compelling organizational members to work toward a desired state of affairs: leaders induce enthusiasm and commitment in others. Accordingly, leaders build trust and foster positive emotions through their communicative actions. These styles shape social architecture. They are necessary in any attempt to lead change.

Collins (1983) said: "The first task of a leader, perhaps the essence of leadership, is forming an organizational vision and making a commitment to it." Collins (1983) went further by saying "the final task of the leader is altering the way people think about things."

Collins (2001) expressed in a formula a method for identifying people at the top of a leadership pyramid: Humility + Will = Level 5 leadership. This person "builds enduring greatness through a paradoxical blend of personal humility and professional will." These level 5 leaders, more than anyone, seem to inherently understand how to accomplish the Big Hairy Audacious Goals (BHAG): "Bad BHAGs, it turns out, are set with bravado; good BHAGs are set with understanding. Indeed, when you combine quiet understanding of the three circles with the audacity of a BHAG, you get a powerful, almost magical mix". Leaders tend to know the perfect mix of what drives the economic engine, what their organizations can be the best in the world at doing, and what they are deeply passionate about. Moreover, one author argued leadership is the basic building block of organizational success.

Glaser (2006) with her title *The DNA of Leadership* foreshadowed her biologic parallel. Like deoxyribonucleic acid (DNA) is to all living things, leaders are the basic building blocks that shape their company's genetic code for success. She identifies seven vital leadership practices that can be used to reshape an organization, the result of which is the WE-centric culture that enables people to work effectively together during change. Using the acronym C-H-A-N-G-E-S, Glaser (2006) outlined her views on leadership practices and their corresponding cultures associated with fostering essential change: C-Community (open communications), H-Humanity (atmosphere that values uniqueness), A-Aspiration (avoid threats and marshal wonder), N-Navigation (share the road map for guidance), G-Generativity (nurture innovation), E-Expressing (encourage free speech), and S-Spirit (reward shared effort). Her advice seems consistent with London (1988) who wrote "The role of the leader as change agent can be described best by examples of corporate officers who, as key change agents, initiate change and directed their corporations through the implementation process."

Kanter (1977) wrote, "For the people called 'leaders,' power was supposedly an automatic part of their functioning." Explaining the contrary, Kanter carefully lay down her argument that leaders derive power from the more hidden political process. To Kanter (1977) leaders have power because they have the ability to "get things done, to mobilize resources, to get and use whatever it is that a person needs for the goals he or she is attempting to meet." It is

obvious from her perspective that not only is leadership counter intuitive to formal organization structure, but, the political nature of leadership actions are directly related to the ability to maneuver people with resources to trigger a chain reaction of change. In this sense, it becomes proper for others to become politically, emotionally, and logically proactive in the change process, once the change message (vision) is clearly understood and accepted.

CONCLUSIONS

The association between the demographic independent variables (gender, publication eras, etc.) and two dependent variables (leadership and change) was non-significant. None of the demographic variables can be construed as having a significant influence on the dependent variables. Gender, number of authors, mixed-gender coauthors (at least one male or one female amongst them), and four publication eras made no difference as to the depth of coverage on leadership or depth of change authors wrote about. Furthermore, the Paired Samples T-test showed authors who wrote on leadership wrote an equal amount on change; therefore, this empirical evidence is compelling. The b-book authors examined in this study appear to be saying the leadership process is a change function.

One good example is from Kepner and Tregoe (1965); in *The Rational Manager*, their goal was to demonstrate to managers "improving managerial performance through better uses of information." Nonetheless, they defined a change simply "as something new or different." This definition is still valid. B-books contain much wisdom. Examining them for their leadership and change contents has been fruitful. Publication dates for these b-books ranged from *The Practice of Management* by Drucker (1954) to *The DNA of Leadership* by Glaser (2006). Crainer (1997) argued: "*The Ultimate Business Library* is a collection of fifty of the greatest books of management." (p.1) Barnard (1968), Follett (1941), Mayo (1933), and McGregor (1960) wrote b-books considered among the greatest books of management (Crainer, 1997).

Gabor (2000) referred to some of them as "geniuses who helped shape modern business." These early perspectives continue to shape management thinking. Many of these business philosophers in their b-books, though covering broader business topics, found it necessary to offer readers advice on leadership and change. Leading is considered a main function of management and, today communication is also viewed as one of the main functions of management: leading, planning, organizing, staffing, controlling, and communicating. Often, it is a common thread tying all those other management functions together (Bell & Martin, 2008; Froschheiser, 2008).

The Leadership Change Model, showing leaders as catalysts, is the best way to explicate, as a framework, the consistent advice b-book authors' gave as these b-books were examined in this study. They have contributed much to leadership theory. They contain a lot of wisdom. Examining these b-books systematically helps to resolve some of the problems with moving beyond the Integrative era as outlined by Van Seters and Field (1990):

It must be realised that organizational effectiveness can be determined not from any one approach alone, but rather through the simultaneous interaction of many types of variables. Until we have the framework it will not be possible to understand the result. We need a "thick" theorizing which treats leadership more as it should be treated: a complex cognitive and political enterprise.

From this view, the Integrative era is an era where leaders as catalysts use messages to trigger the necessary reactions in every organizational member, which leads to the accomplishment of desired vision (change) which provides for a testable framework. Therefore, viewing leaders as catalysts is the best way to explicate what all these b-books are saying about the relationship of leadership and organizational change.

REFERENCES

Arrata, P, Despierre, A., & Kumra,G. (2007). Building an effective change agent team. *McKinsey Quarterly, 4,* 39-43.

Baldoni, J. (2005). *Great motivation secrets of great leaders.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations.* New York: Free Press.

Bass, B.M., & Riggio, R.E. (2006). *Transformational leadership.* Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Barnard, C.I. (1968). *The functions of the executive.* Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

Bell, R.L. (2009). Dialing in to the hidden hierarchy: An analysis of culture as content in popular press business books. *Journal of Leadership, Accountability, and Ethics, 7* (3), 41-60.

Bell, R.L., & Martin, J. (2008). The promise of managerial communication as a field of research. *International Journal of Business and Public Administration, 5*(2), 125-141.

Bennis, W. (1994). *On becoming a leader.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley

Bennis, W.G., & Nanus, B. (1985). *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge.* New York: Harper & Row.

Bennis, W.G. (1959, Dec.). Leadership theory and administrative behavior: The problem of authority. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 4*(3), 259-301.

Blake, R.R., & Mouton, J.S. (1964). *The managerial grid; Key orientations for achieving production through people.* Houston: Gulf Publishing Co.

Buchanan, D., Fitzgerald, L., Ketley, D., Gollop, R., Jones, J.L., Lamont, S.S., Neath, A., & Whitby, E. (2005). No going back: A review of the literature on sustaining organizational change. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 7(3), 189-205.

Burke, W. (2002). *Organization change: Theory and practice.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Burns, J.M. (1978). *Leadership, 1/e.* New York: Harper & Row.

Chrusciel, D. (2008). What motivates the significant/ strategic change champion(s)? *Journal of Organizational Change*, 21(2), 148-160.

Collins, E.C. (1983). Introduction. In Collins, E.C. (Ed), *Executive Success: Making It In Management.* (pp. 5-7). USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Collins, J. (2001). *Good to great: Why some companies make the leap…and others don't.* New York: HarperCollins Publishers Inc.

Crainer, S. (1997). *The ultimate business library: 50 books that shaped management thinking.* New York: AMACOM.

Deal, T., & Kennedy, A. (1982). *Corporate cultures: The rites and rituals of corporate life.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Denning, S. (2008). How leaders can use powerful narratives as change catalysts. *Strategy & Leadership*, 36(2), 11-15.

Dunphy, D. (1996). Organizational change in corporate settings. Human Relations, Vol. 49, No. 5, 541-552.

Drucker, P.F. (1954). *The practice of management.* New York: Harper & Row.

Drucker, P.F. (1974). *Management: Tasks, responsibilities, practices.* New York: Harper & Row.

Duck, J.D. (2001). *The change monster: The human forces that fuel or foil corporate transformation and change.* New York*:* Crown Business.

Follett, M.P., Metcalf, H.C., & Urwick, L. (1941). *Dynamic administration: The collected papers of Mary Parker Follett.* New York: Harper & Row.

Froschheiser, L. (2008). Communication, communication, communication: The most important key to success in business leadership. *SuperVision, 69*(10), 9-11.

Gabor, A. (2000). *The capitalist philosophers: The geniuses of modern business—their lives, times and ideas.* New York*:* Times Books.

Glaser, J.E. (2006). *The DNA of leadership: Leverage Your Instincts to: Communicate, Differentiate, Innovate.* Avon, Mass: Platinum Press.

Griffin, M.A., Parker, S.K., & Mason, C.M. (2010). Leader vision and the development of adaptive and proactive performance: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1), 174-182.

Henry, G.T. (1990). *Practical sampling: Applied social research methods series, volume 21.* Newbury Park: Sage Publications.

Herold, D.M., Fedor, D.B., Caldwell, S., & Liu, Yi. (2008). The effects of transformational and change leadership on employees' commitment to a change: A multilevel study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(2), 346-357.

Kachigan, S.K. (1991). *Multivariate statistical analysis.* New York: Radius Press.

Kanter, R.M. (1977). *Men and women of the corporation.* New York: Basic Books

Kark, R., & Shamir,B. (2002). The dual effect of transformational leadership: Priming relational and collective selves and further effects on followers. In B.J. Avolio & F.J. Yammarion (Eds.), *Transformation and charismatic leadership: The road ahead* (75-102). Oxford, England: JAI/Elsevier.

Kepner, C.H., & Tregoe, B.B. (1965). *The rational manager: A systematic approach to problem solving and decision making.* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Kissler, G.D. (1991). *The change riders: Managing the power of change.* Reading, Mass: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.

Koh, W.L., Steers, R.M., & Terborg, J.R. (1995). The effects of transformational leadership on teacher attitudes and student performance in Singapore. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16(4), 319-333.

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

Kotter, J.P. (1988). *The leadership factor.* New York: Free Press.

Kouzes, J.M., & Posner, B.Z. (2002). *The leadership challenge: The most trusted source on becoming a better leader, 3/e.* USA: Jossey-Bass.

Kouzes, J.M., & Posner, B.Z. (1987). *The leadership challenge: How to get extraordinary things done in organizations.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Lewin, K. (1951). In Cartwright, D. (Ed.), *Field Theory in Social Science*. NY: Harper Brothers, Shelfmark.

Lewis, L.K., Schmisseur, A.M., Stephens, K.K., & Weir, K.E. (2006). Advice on communicating during organizational change: The content analysis of popular press books. *Journal of Business Communication, 43*(2), 113-137.

Lieberson, S., & O'Connor, J.F. (1972). Leadership and organizational performance: A study of large corporations. *American Sociological Review*, 37, 117-30.

London, M. (1988). *Change agents: New roles and innovation strategies for human resource professionals.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., Publishers.

Lucey, J. (2008). Why is the failure rate for organisation change so high*? Journal of the Institute of Management Services*, Winter, 10-18.

Mayo, E. (1933). *The human problems of an industrial civilization.* New York: Macmillan.

McGregor, D. (1960). *The human side of enterprise.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Moore, R. (2003). Change: How do we manage it? *Plant Engineering*, 57(4), 22-26.

Pettigrew, A.M. (1987). Context and action in the transformation of the firm. *Journal of Management Studies*, 24 (6), 649-670.

Pfeffer, J. (1977). The ambiguity of leadership. *Academy of Management Review, 2*, 104-12.

Prentice, W. (1983). Understanding leadership. In Collins, E.C. (ed), *Executive Success: Making It In Management.* (140-150). USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Prusak, L., & Davenport, T. (2003). Who are the gurus' gurus? *Harvard Business Review,* 81(12), 14-16.

Rimmer, M., Macneil, J., Chenhall, R., Langfield-Smith, K., & Watts, L. (1996). *Reinventing competitiveness: Achieving best practice in Australia*. Melbourne: Pitman Publishers.

Romanelli, E. & Tushman, M. (1983). Executive leadership and organizational outcomes: An evolutionary perspective. Working Paper 508A: Columbia University.

Quinn, R.E. (1996). *Deep change: Discovering the leader within.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., Publishers.

Schein, E.H. (1992). *Organizational culture and leadership, 2/e.* San Francisco,CA: Jossey-Bass Inc., Publishers.

Stanleigh, M. (2008). Effecting successful change management initiatives. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 40(1), 34-37.

Van Seters, D.A., & Field, R.H.G. (1990). The evolution of leadership theory. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 3*(3), 29-45.

Waldman, D.A., Javidan, M., & Varella, P. (2004). Charismatic leadership at the strategic level: A new application of upper echelons theory. *Leadership Quarterly*, 15, 355-380.

Whelan-Berry, K., Gordon, J., and Hinings, C. (2003). The relative effect of change drivers in large-scale organizational change: An empirical study. In *Research in Organizational Change and Development*, 14, 99-146.

APPENDIX

110 B-Books with Titles and Authors' Names Used in this Study in Descending Order by Date	*Date*
1. *The Practice of Management* by Peter F. Drucker	1954
2. *The Organization Man* by William H. Whyte, Jr.	1956
3. *My Years with General Motors* by Alfred P. Sloan, Jr.	1963
4. *The Rational Manager* by Charles H. Kepner & Benjamin B. Tregoe	1965
5. *The Effective Executive* by Peter F. Drucker	1967
6. *The Functions of the Executive* by Chester I. Barnard	1968
7. *Motivation and Personality*, 2/e by Abraham H. Maslow	1970
8. *Up the Organization: How to stop the Corporation from Stifling People and Strangling Profits* by Robert Townsend	1970
9. *Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices* by Peter F. Drucker	1974
10. *Administrative Behavior: A Study of Decision-Making Processes in Administrative Organization*, 3/e by Herbert A. Simon	1976
11. *Men and Women of the Corporation* by Rosabeth Moss Kanter	1977
12. *Leadership* by James MacGregor Burns	1978
13. *Quality is Free: The Art of Making Quality Certain* by Philip B. Crosby	1979
14. *Quest for the Best* by Stanley Marcus	1979
15. *The Organizational Life Cycle* by John R. Kimberly, Robert H. Miles, & Associates	1980
16. *Executive* by Harry Levinson	1981
17. *Theory Z: How American Business Can Meet the Japanese Challenge* by William G. Ouchi	1981

110 B-Books with Titles and Authors' Names Used in this Study in Descending Order by Date	*Date*
18. *The Changing World of the Executive* by Peter F. Drucker	1982
19. *Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life* by Terrence E. Deal & Allen A. Kennedy	1982
20. *Megatrends: Ten New Directions Transforming Our Lives* by John Naisbitt	1982
21. *In Search of Excellence: Lessons from America's Best-Run Companies* by Thomas J. Peters & Robert H. Waterman Jr.	1982
22. *The Change Masters: Innovation for Productivity in the American Corporation* by Rosabeth Moss Kanter	1983
23. *Executive Success: Making it in Management* by Eliza G. Collins (Editor)	1983
24. *Managing* by Harold Geneen & Alvin Moscow	1984
25. *How to Measure Human Resources Management* by Jac Fitz-enz	1984
26. *Quality without Tears: The Art of Hassle-Free Management* by Philip B. Crosby	1984
27. *What they Don't Teach You at the Harvard Business School* by Mark H. McCormack	1984
28. *The Way of the Ronin: A Guide to Career Strategy* by Beverly A. Potter, Ph.D.	1984
29. *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge* by Warren Bennis & Burt Nanus	1985
30. *What is Total Quality Control? The Japanese Way* by Kaoru Ishikawa & Translated by David J. Lu	1985
31. *The Executive Course: What Every Manager Needs to Know about the Essentials of Business* by Gayton E. Germane	1986
32. *Lead On!:Leadership That Endures in a Changing World* by John Haggai	1986
33. *Made in Japan* by Akio Morita with Edwin M. Reingold & Mitsuko Shimomura	1986
34. *Productive Workplaces: Organizing and Managing for Dignity, Meaning, and Community* by Marvin R. Weisbord	1987
35. *The Corporate Warriors: Six Classic Cases in American Business* by Douglas K. Ramsey	1987
36. *Time Power* by Charles R. Hobbs	1987
37. *The Leadership Challenge: How to Get Extraordinary Things Done in Organizations* by James M. Kouzes & Barry Z. Posner	1987
38. *The Dynamics of Taking Charge* by John J. Gabarro	1987
39. *Change Agents: New Roles and Innovation Strategies for Human Resource Professionals* by Manuel London	1988
40. *American Business: A two-Minute Warning* by C. Jackson Grayson, Jr. & Carla O'Dell	1988
41. *Quiet Desperation: The Truth about Successful Men* by Jan Halper, Ph.D.	1988
42. *Confessions of a PR Man* by Robert J. Wood	1988
43. *Why Work: Leading the New Generation* by Michael Maccoby	1988
44. *In the Age of the Smart Machine: The Future of Work and Power* by Shoshana Zuboff	1988
45. *When Giants Learn to Dance: Mastering the Challenges of Strategy, Management, & Careers in the 1990s* by Rosabeth Kanter	1989
46. *Good Intentions Aside: A Manager's Guide to Resolving Ethical Problems* by Laura Nash	1990
47. *The Critical Path to Corporate Renewal* by Michael Beer, Russell A. Eisenstat & Bert Spector	1990
48. *The Icarus Paradox: How Exceptional Companies Bring about Their Own Downfall* by Danny Miller	1990
49. *Megatrends 2000: Ten New Directions for the 1990s* by John Naisbitt & Patricia Aburdene	1990
50. *The Borderless World: Power and Strategy in the Interlinked Economy* by Kenichi Ohmae	1990
51. *Managing on the Edge: How the Smartest Companies Use Conflict to Stay Ahead* by Richard Tanner Pascale	1990
52. *The Fifth Discipline: The Art & Practice of the Learning Organization* by Peter M. Senge	1990
53. *The Machine that Changed the World: The Story of Lean Production* by James P. Womack, Daniel T. Jones, & Daniel Roos	1990
54. *The Change Riders: Managing the Power of Change* by Gary D. Kissler	1991
55. *Becoming a Courageous Manager: Overcoming Career Problems of New Managers* by Ross Arkell Webber	1991
56. *The Power of Business Rapport* by Dr. Michael Brooks	1991
57. *Becoming a Manager: Mastering a New Identity* by Linda A. Hill	1992
58. *Visionary Leadership* by Burt Nanus	1992
59. *Liberation Management: Necessary Disorganization for the Nanosecond Nineties* by Tom Peters	1992
60. *Organizational Culture and Leadership,* 2/e by Edgar H. Schein	1992
61. *Untangling Organizational Gridlock: Strategies for Building a Customer Focus* by Michele L. Bechtell	1993
62. *Breaking the Mold: Women, Men and Time in the New Corporate World* by Lotte Bailyn	1993
63. *Developing the Leader Within You* by John C. Maxwell	1993
64. *Riding the Waves of Culture: Understanding Cultural Diversity in Business* by Fons Trompenaars	1993
65. *Reinventing Funeral Service: Volume 1. Product Merchandising* by Alton F. Doody, Jr.	1994
66. *The Rise and Fall of Strategic Planning* by Henry Mintzberg	1994
67. *Competitive Advantage through People: Unleashing the Power of the Work Force* by Jeffrey Pfeffer	1994

110 B-Books with Titles and Authors' Names Used in this Study in Descending Order by Date	*Date*
68. *business Think: Rules for Getting it Right--Now and No Matter What!* by Dave Marcum, Steve Smith & Mahan Khalsa	1995
69. *Reengineering Management: The Mandate for New Leadership* by James Champy	1995
70. *Beyond the Double Bind: Women and Leadership* by Kathleen Hall Jamieson	1995
71. *The Boundaryless Organization: Breaking the Chains of Organizational Structure* by Dave Ulrich, Todd Jick & Steve Kerr	1995
72. *Being Digital* by Nicholas Negroponte	1995
73. *The HP Way: How Bill Hewlett and I Built Our Company* by David Packard	1995
74. *Business Wisdom of the Electronic Elite* by Geoffrey James	1996
75. *Profit from Experience: The National Semiconductor Story of Transformation Management* by Gil Amelio & William Simon	1996
76. *Deep Change: Discovering the Leader Within* by Robert E. Quinn	1996
77. *Maximum Leadership: The World's Leading CEOs Share Their Five Strategies for Success* by C.M. Farkas & P. De Backer	1996
78. *The Art of the Long View: Planning for the Future in an Uncertain World* by Peter Schwartz	1996
79. *Corporate Comeback: The Story of Renewal and Transformation at National Semiconductor* by Robert H. Miles	1997
80. *Creating You & Co.: Learn to Think Like the CEO of Your Own Career* by William Bridges	1997
81. *The Innovator's Dilemma: When New Technologies Cause Great Firms to Fail* by Clayton M. Christensen	1997
82. *The Packer Way: Nine Stepping Stones to Building a Winning Organization* by Ron Wolf & Paul Attner	1998
83. *Maslow on Management* by Abraham H. Maslow with Deborah C. Stephens & Gary Heil	1998
84. *Business @ the Speed of Thought* by Bill Gates	1999
85. *Information Rules: A Strategic Guide to the Network Economy* by Carl Shapiro & Hal R. Varian	1999
86. *Surfing the Edge of Chaos: The Laws of Nature and the New Laws of Business* by R. Pascale, M. Millemann & L. Gioja	2000
87. *Peak Performance: Aligning the Hearts and Minds of Your Employees* by Jon R. Katzenbach	2000
88. *Change is the Rule: Practical Actions for Change: On Target, On Time On Budget* by Winford E. "Dutch" Holland, Ph.D.	2000
89. *The Social Life of Information* by John Seely Brown & Paul Duguid	2000
90. *Cracking the Value Code: How Successful Businesses are Creating Wealth in the New Economy,* R. Boulton, B. Libert, & S. Samek	2000
91. *The New Art of the Leader* by William A. Cohen, Ph.D.	2000
92. *The Arc of Ambition: Defining the Leadership Journey* by James Champy & Nitin Nohria	2000
93. *Escape from Cluelessness: A Guide for the Organizationally Challenged* by Lee G. Bolman & Terrence E. Deal	2000
94. *Good to Great: Why Some Companies Make the Leap…and Others Don't* by Jim Collins	2001
95. *The Change Monster: Human Forces that Fuel or Foil Corporate Transformation & Change* by Jeanie Daniel Duck	2001
96. *E-Leader: Reinventing Leadership in a connected Economy* by Robert Hargrove	2001
97. *Execution: The Discipline of Getting Things Done* by Larry Bossidy & Ram Charan	2002
98. *The Leadership Challenge* by James M. Kouzes & Barry Z. Posner	2002
99. *Leadership* by Rudolph W. Giuliani	2002
100. *The Power of Corporate Communication: Crafting the Voice and Image of Your Business* by Paul A. Argenti & Janis Forman	2002
101. *How Breakthroughs Happen: The Surprising Truth about How Companies Innovate* by Andrew Hargadon	2003
102. *The Value Profit Chain: Treat Employees Like Customers and Customers Like Employees* by James L. Heskett, W. Earl Sasser, & Leonard A. Schlesinger	2003
103. *False Prophets: The Gurus Who Crafted Modern Management and Why Their Ideas are Bad for Business Today* by J.Hoopes	2003
104. *CEO Capital: A Guide to Building CEO Reputation and Company Success* by Leslie Gaines-Ross	2003
105. *Everybody Wins: The story and Lessons Behind Re/Max* by Phil Harkins & Keith Holliham	2005
106. *Leadership Divided: What Emerging Leaders Need and What You Might Be Missing* by Ron A. Carucci	2006
107. *Peripheral Vision: Detecting the Weak Signals that Will Make or Break Your Company* by G.S. Day & P. J. H. Schoemaker	2006
108. *The DNA of Leadership: Leverage Your Instincts to: Communicate, Differentiate, Innovate* by Judith E. Glaser	2006
109. *Naked Conversations: How blogs are changing the way businesses talk with Customers* by Robert Scoble & Shel Israel	2006
110. *How to Talk So People Listen: Connecting in Today's Workplace* by Sonya Hamlin	2006

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE THREE COMPONENTS MODEL OF COMMITMENT, WORKPLACE STRESS AND CAREER PATH APPLICATION TO EMPLOYEES IN MEDIUM SIZE ORGANIZATIONS IN LEBANON

Linda Nasr, Lebanese American University

ABSTRACT

This study reports the results of 100 survey questionnaires with full-time and part-time employees working in medium size organizations in Lebanon. The researcher focused on the relationship between the three components model of commitment, workplace stress and career path. This research's aim was to determine what type of commitment is more vulnerable to stress and what type leads to a longer career path. The participants described their commitment type, the amount of workplace stress and the characteristics of their career path using a scale. The results of the correlation and regression showed that Affective Commitment is negatively related to Stress and has no correlation with Career Path. Continuance Commitment is positively related to Stress and has no correlation with Career Path. While, Normative Commitment has a negative relationship with Career Path and a positive relationship with Stress.

Keywords: Commitment, Workplace Stress, Career Path

INTRODUCTION

Work; previously defined as a series of duties to be fulfilled, is now regarded as an intense source of stress and a trigger for high physical and emotional pressure (Cohen, 2002).

The American Medical Association claims that ninety five million Americans take anti-stress medications. Businesses also suffer from increased stress in the workplace by loosing around two hundred billion dollars per year to stress caused productivity decline (Ornelas & Kleiner, 2003).

Between these two extremes, the question remains as to where does employee commitment resides? And within these circumstances, is it still possible to sustain a selected career path?

Some people might question whether the whole issue of commitment is still relevant in this ever changing environment. Definitely, there is enough evidence to prove that the relationships between the employees and the organizations are changing. However, this fact

doesn't challenge the importance of understanding how commitment is developed, and how it influences the type of the bond between the employees and the organizations. By understanding these complex relations, organizations are in a better position to predict the consequences of change and to be better prepared to manage them effectively (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

One of the major consequences of change is stress. Workplace stress is a well-known fact that is expressed differently with different employees in different work settings (Michael *et al.*, 2009). Findings about the levels of work related stress and organizational commitment have been diverse and doubtful.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Sheldon (1971, p.143) using the psychological approach defines organizational commitment as "... an attitude or an orientation toward the organization which links or attaches the identity of the person to the organization". Kanter (1968) and Buchanan (1974), both advocates of the psychological approach as well, believe that the emotional attachment of an employee to his organization has a positive relationship with organizational commitment.

The interest to study organizational commitment increased in the last decade because it is believed that it has a strong association with job performance (Angle & Perry, 1981), innovativeness (Katz & Kahn, 1978), absenteeism and turnover (Larson & Fukami, 1984), organizational productivity and effectiveness (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). It is important to differentiate between the different scopes of employee commitment, for it helps in shedding light on work related depended variables such as, motivation to perform a good job, determination to stay within the organization, turnover rate, and absenteeism (Lee *et al.*, 2000). Thus, organizational commitment has been viewed as a result (antecedent) and at the same time as a cause (outcome) of many organization related issues.

Despite the various approaches and conceptualization of commitment, John Meyer and Natalie Allen remain the pioneers in this field. They started their research in the early 1980's. Meyer and Allen believed that commitment is a "psychological state" that: "Characterizes the employee's relationship with the organization and has implications for the decision to continue membership in the organization." In order to be able to differentiate between the various psychological states, Meyer and Allen developed "The three components model of commitment: affective, continuance, and normative".

Affective Commitment

Affective commitment can be described as the emotional attachment an employee has for the organization he is working for. It is the degree to which an employee is identified and involved with the organization. It is related to employee's feeling of belonging, connection, and devotion (Mueller *et al.*, 1992). Affectively committed employees tend to remain within the

organizations (Meyer *et al.*, 1990). This type of commitment builds up from positive experiences in the organization, out of which the employees perceive themselves as being supported and treated fairly by the organization. In addition, affective commitment could build up from events which are psychologically rewarding. Such as making employees feel at ease, whether in satisfying their needs or in helping attaining their personal goals. Employees with high affective commitment levels remain with the organization because they *want* to (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Continuance Commitment

Continuance commitment is the degree to which an employee is aware of the costs related to quitting the organization. An employee with a high continuance commitment has a *need* to remain with the organization. The perceived cost results from two main causes: First, the loss of the side bets (Becker & Carper, 1956), such as payments, vacations, time, etc. Therefore, continuance commitment increase when the employee is well paid, compensated, rewarded, etc. The fear of losing these side bets is what keeps the employee in the organization. Second, the lack of job alternatives: employees remain within the organization because they realize that if they leave, they might not be able to find another job (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Normative Commitment

Normative commitment is the degree to which an employee has a feeling of obligation to continue working in the organization. Normative commitment comes from internal pressures caused by norms coming from the socialization processes in society such as the feeling of loyalty and belonging. Normative commitment can be increased when organizations invest in employees' training and tuition funding. Employees scoring high on normative commitment feel as if they *must* remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Meyer and Allen believe that "the three components of commitment" have different consequences on job related outcomes. An employee with elevated affective commitment would be much more motivated to work than an employee with low affective commitment. This is also supported by Wasti (2005) who believes that affective commitment is strongly related to positive work results, in particular when shared with low levels of continuance commitment. Thus, employees with high affective commitment will have low absenteeism. On the other hand, employees scoring high on continuance commitment might feel demotivated and frustrated because they are staying within their jobs simply because the cost of leaving is too high for them to handle. Thus, it is irrational to expect from such employees high work performance or accurate attendance. Employees with high normative commitment tend to act ethically and do what is asked to be done. They score high on job performance, attendance and organizational citizenship. However, they might not be innovative, or risk takers; they prefer to go with the flow, due to the feeling of obligation they have towards the organization.

Commitment has been also studied in relation with negative experiences that happen at work. Hirschman (1970) and Farrell (1983) found three responses to job dissatisfaction: "Voice, Loyalty and Neglect". Affective commitment is positively associated to voice (ideas to improve), to loyalty (accept the situation as it is), and negatively related to neglect (ignore the dissatisfying situation).

OCCUPATIONAL STRESS

For the last 40 years, research around stress has produced a multitude of conferences, books, articles… however, despite the popularity of "stress" as a research topic, experts still cannot agree on one common definition of this simple and at the same time controversial issue (Rees & Redfern, 2000). As Nelson and Quick mentioned (1994, p. 202): "Stress is one of the most creatively ambiguous words in the English Language, with as many interpretations as there are people who use the word."

The positive stress or what is known as good stress, is the one that inspires and encourages. This type of stress is called *Eustress*. While, *Distress* is the bad stress, the one that gets the person irritated, decrease the spirit and eventually shortens the life cycle. (Rees & Redfern, 2000). Other categorizations of stress are: Acute stress, it is a short term, immediate stress that happens on a one time basis and Chronic stress which is a long term, continuous stress caused by an uninterrupted situation such as job environment (Ornelas & Kleiner, 2003).

According to Mullins (1999) Stress can be perceived by someone as a burden while by another person as a source of excitement and energy. Nelson and Quick (1994, p.202) observe stress only from a positive perspective. They conclude that: "Stress is a great asset in managing legitimate emergencies and achieving peak performance." On the contrary, health and safety executives, portrays stress from a negative angle. Stress is considered to be a natural reaction to an excess of pressure, and the symptoms that accompany stress, are more than enough to show that it has a negative effect on people. Heilriegel *et al.* (1992, p. 280) believe that stress has both positive and negative effects. He defined stress as: "A consequence of or a general response to an action or situation that places special physical or psychological demands, or both, on a person". According to Victor Rojas & Brian Kleiner (2000. p. 103), stress is "desirable to generate enthusiasm, creativity, and productivity." However, they believe that if the level of stress is higher than needed in a particular situation, stress can become counterproductive. These two researchers also state that it is the responsibility of the organization to develop the ability of its own employees to control the intensity of stress.

Causes of Workplace Stress

Perrewe *et al.*, (2000) believe that the work environment enhanced by new technological advancements, organizational reformation, and the multitude of redesign options, etc. contributes

to the increasing stress level in the work environment. Workplace stress can be in direct relationship with the organizational structure. Work related stressors such as risk of layoffs (Leana & Feldman; 1990), work relocations (Martin, 1996), work overload (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998), augmented family work clash (Andesron *et al.*, 2002) increased inter-company politicking (Cropanzano *et al.*, 1997), and certain behaviors of the leader (Carlopio *et al.*, 1997) are all stressors rotating around the organizational structure. Other organizationally induced stressors could be job ambiguity and role conflict. Bacharach *et al.* (2002) took it a step further by claiming that the inconsistencies between the expectations of the employee on one side and the expectations of the organization on the other side are the main source of stress in any organizational environment. Conner & Douglas (2004) concluded that the ability to consider and combine both parties' expectations and characteristics is the key to reducing work related stress. Also the physical environment such as noise level, crowd in the workplace, lack of private space are all reasons that have been linked with stress (Burke, 1988).

Occupational outcomes of Workplace Stress

The effects of stress in the workplace can have a deeply negative impact on the employee. This impact can be divided into three categories: Employee psychological level such as "increased anxiety, and depersonalization" (Barnett & Brennan, 1995). Employee physiological level such as cardiovascular and gastrointestinal problems, increase breathing, heighten level of adrenaline, excess of coagulants in the blood (Rojas & Kleiner, 2000) and employee behavioral level or what is known as occupational outcomes of stress such as "increased absenteeism and turnover" (Lee & Ashforth,1996) "Lower Job Performance" (Longenecker *et al.*, 1999; Nelson & Burke, 2000), lowered efficiency, lessened ability to perform, reduced initiative and interest in work, augmented stiffness of thought , a lack of worry for the organization and colleagues and a loss of accountability (Greenberg & Baron, 1995).

CAREER PATH

Nowadays, individuals no longer follow a particular career path over several years. In the twenty first century, organizations are faced with extreme challenges caused by the rising complexity resulting from severe competition (Nelson & Quick, 2006). People's skills are becoming obsolete, and they struggle to "de-learn and re-learn" in order to remain valuable for the organizations they belong to. Hirsch (1987) believes that : "the corporate ladder is becoming unstable – the rungs are weakening and beginning to break" This whole process, in addition to other career challenges such as "career deadlocks and career plateaus" significantly raise the level of work related stress (Dolan & Garcia, 2002).

Miner and Robinson (1994) introduced the term "Boundaryless Career" which is a career that spreads out unrestrained by any kind of attachment or feeling of commitment to a particular

organization. This type of careerists tend to develop "meta-skills" instead of particular competencies, in order to work in various settings (Hall, 1986) and their ultimate goal becomes the development of their own careers, not the organization they are *temporary* working for (Hansen, 1993). Mirvis (1993) disagrees with the fact that "Boundaryless career" is encouraged by organizations. In fact, little is being done to encourage this type of career. Strategies such as optional scheduling, support of employees' education, varieties of pension plans, etc are rarely used. Organizational restructuring and the flattening of the organizational charts (Ornstein & Isabella, 1993) in addition to the increased number of employees with longer participation periods in the work force (Greenhaus & Callanan, 1994) lead to the shortening of innovation periods resulting in shorter product life cycles. "Career Plateauing" or career maturity occurs earlier during a selected career path (Mirvis & Hall, 1994). As a result, many employees opted for a new career path; some created their own organizations, others shifted to smaller enterprises, while others preferred to pursue a higher level of education (Modic, 1987). However, others are simply attached to their career paths and are unwilling or unable to change it (Osherson, 1980).

The indicators of career entrenchment might be as diverse as social pressures, fear of age related concerns, acknowledgment of personal skills limitations, and skepticism about future income. Fisher (1988) empirically proved that people who tend to change their career path have lower lifetime incomes then those who stick to the originally selected career path. The dilemma remains that if the entrenched careerist is satisfied with his/her job, he/she poses no problems to the organization, whereas, those who are not satisfied, might become an organizational liability.

Career research has always tried to shed light on the affective component of the employees. Subjects such as job satisfaction, work motivation, job commitment have been deeply studied. Accordingly, it is important to differentiate between commitment and entrenchment. If commitment is a sort of attachment to a chosen occupation, entrenchment is not a sole psychological state of mind. It is a sort of attachment based on a continuance approach, where employees stick to a job because of the extrinsic rewards they perceive receiving from a job, or because of the perceived loss caused by leaving the job (Carson, K. & Carson, P.1994). Career entrenchment is a multidimensional model composed of three components: Career investment, emotional cost and few career alternatives (Teger, 1980).

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT, WORKPLACE STRESS AND CAREER PATH

Due to the major impact organizational commitment has on work turnover and work performance in general, researchers deeply studied the effect of workplace stress on organizational commitment (Benkhoff, 1997; Brown & Peterson, 1993). Many studies proved that organizational change is very stressful for employees (Elrod & Tippett, 2002; Grant, 1996). While Lau and Woodman (1995) believed that a highly committed employee is more accepting of change than a none committed employee (if the change is believed to be favorable). Highly

committed employees, are ready to put more efforts into the change process, and are likely to have a favorable attitude towards this change (Iverson, 1996).

On the other hand, Montgomery *et al.* (1996) perceived intense job stress as dysfunctional. Mattson & Dubinsky (1979) research also showed that work related stress, negatively influence employee's commitment to the organization and the plan to quit the organization (Singh *et al.*, 1994). On the opposite side, work group cohesion decreases the effect of workplace stress on employees' commitment level, while the educational level of the employees safeguards the link between workplace stress and commitment (Michaels & Dixon, 1994).

According to Michael *et al.*, (2009), job stress negatively influences affective commitment. Michael *et al.* (2009) also found that role ambiguity and role conflict, which are direct causes of stress, had a positive relationship with continuance commitment. The third type of commitment, the normative commitment, was not found to be related to workplace stress (Michael's et al, 2009). This finding is not supported by Rousseau (1995) who claims that normative commitment grows based on a psychological agreement between the organization and the employee, creating a feeling of confidence and trust between both groups in relation to their common obligations. On the other hand, continuance commitment tends to decrease when the employees realize that there is no career path within the organization. If the organization doesn't guarantee a successful climb on the organizational ladder, the employee tends to leave the organization (Michael et al, 2009).

As previously mentioned, role conflict and role ambiguity, are considered to be two job stressors. It is believed that people who experience high levels of role conflict and role ambiguity tend to be less committed to their organizations (Addae *et al*, 2008).Matson and Dubinsky (1979) found that role ambiguity and role conflict are negatively related to organizational commitment which in turn increases the intention of the employees to abandon the job. This fact was also supported by Brown and Peterson (1993); they found a strong inverse relationship between commitment and intention to leave. Accordingly, high levels of role conflict and role ambiguity will lead to a decrease in affective commitment. As a matter of fact, various studies concluded that a negative relationship exists between affective commitment and role conflict and role ambiguity (Meyer et al., 2002; Yousef, 2002; Irvin and Coleman, 2003).

Yousef (2002) concluded that there is enough evidence to claim that role stressors are positively related to this particular type of commitment (Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Micheal *et al.,* 2009).

Addae *et al.* (2008) found that people who value job security are more likely to have high continuance commitment towards their organizations; these results came to support the finding of Meyer *et al.* (1998). While people who score high on affective commitment tend to leave the company they work for if they feel that the psychological contract between them and the organization has been breached (Addae *et al*., 2006).

The career entrenchment multidimensional model is in accordance with the continuance commitment component since the same dimensions of perceived cost are used. Career entrenchment is also associated with stress. Boredom and monotony caused by the over learning of a particular task or job create distress (Fisher, 1993). Employees faced with career entrenchment tend to isolate themselves from their colleagues at work, the result of such a behavior create stress in the form of depression and pessimism (Beehr & Newman, 1978).

Some employees feel committed (affective or continuance commitment) to their organizations because the job itself has the potential to develop them professionally (Meyer *et al.,* 1990). Employees withdrawal intentions from an occupation is the "employees' subjective assessment that they will be leaving their current occupation in the near future" (Carmeli & Gefen, 2004, p.70) which is a direct indicator of a shortening career path.

With respect to the relationship between the three component model of work commitment and withdrawing intention from an occupation (change of career path), Morrow (1993) considered that continuance commitment develop within employees due to their strong commitment to their career. The recent results of Lee *et al.* (2000) are in accordance with Morrow; a negative correlation was traced between these two constructs.

Thus, the researcher hypotheses are:

H1   *There is a negative relationship between Affective Commitment and Stress*

H2   *There is a slightly positive relationship between Continuance Commitment and Stress*

H3   *There is NO relationship between Normative Commitment and Stress*

H4   *There is a negative relationship between Normative commitment and Career Path.*

H5   *There is a negative relationship between Affective commitment and Career Path.*

H6   *There is a positive relationship between Continuance commitment and Career Path.*

METHODOLOGY

The researcher started with an exploratory research by gathering secondary data which helped in forming the literature review of this project. Accordingly, the literature review helped in defining the problem at hand as well as in formulating the various hypotheses. Afterwards, the

researcher used the explanatory research design. Consequently, the researcher selected the basic research method that is going to be used in this project, and opted for a survey. A self administered questionnaire was used. The source of the questionnaire is both valid and reliable. The printed questionnaire was distributed in person to Lebanese employees working in medium size enterprises.

The survey was conducted between January and March 2010. A non - sampling error technique was selected to ensure that only respondents working on full time or part time basis in middle size organizations in Lebanon fill out the questionnaire. In total, 100 questionnaires were distributed and filled out. The process happened in absolute anonymity, and this was assured to all participants in the survey.

Based on the findings, we can conclude that the tool selected proved its efficiency by fulfilling the objective of this research. The questionnaire consisted of twenty four questions, divided as follows:

- Three general demographic questions.
- Three sets of questions each made up of four questions. Each set rotated around a specific type of commitment based on "the three components model of commitment of Allen & Meyer (1997): Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment". The questions were measured on a five point Likert scale that ranged from strongly agree = 1 to strongly disagree = 5.
- A set of five questions to measure the career path selected from the Career Entrenchment Measure developed by Carson & Carson (1994). The questions were measured on a five point Likert scale that ranged from strongly agree = 1 to strongly disagree = 5.
- A set of five questions to measure the stress were selected from "The Perceived Stress Scale" (PSS) (Cohen's 1983). This scale was developed by Cohen to measure the degree of how stressful, subjectively perceived life situations are. A frequency category scale was used. 1 refering to Never, 2 to Almost Never, 3 to Sometimes, 4 to Fairly Often, 5 to Very Often.

"The Statistical Package for Social Sciences" (SPSS) was used for statistical analysis. SPSS is a user friendly package that performs statistical calculations and hypothesis testing for various types of data.

DATA ANALYSIS

Demographic analysis

Seventy-five percent (75 %) of the responded are full time employees working in medium size organization in Lebanon. Fifty-five percent (55 %) are female employees. Similarly, the majority

of the respondents have one to three years of work experience. The range of years of experience, proved to be very wide, ranging from half a year up to twenty one years of experience.

Statistical Analysis: Correlations and Regression

Table 1: Table of Correlations		c1	c2	c3	Career path	stress
Career path	Pearson Correlation	.166	.152	-.241*	1	-.005
	Sig.	.098	.131	.016		.961
stress	Pearson Correlation	-.328**	.179	.196	-.005	1
	Sig.	.001	.075	.051	.961	

Table 1 represents the results of the Correlation between

a. Stress and the three types of Commitment:

- Stress is negatively and significantly correlated with C1: Affective Commitment at a significance level of 0.001.
- Stress is positively slightly correlated with C2: Continuance Commitment. It is a positive slight correlation at a significance level of 0.075.
- Stress is slightly correlated with C3: Normative Commitment at a significance level of 0.051.

` b. Career Path and the three types of Commitment:

- There is no correlation between Career Path and C1: Affective Commitment. There is no correlation between Career Path and C2: Continuance Commitment.
- There is a negative and significant correlation between Career Path and C3: Normative Commitment at a significance level of 0.016.

Regression between Stress and C1: Affective Commitment:

Regression Equation I: Affective Commitment = 4.459 – 0.386 stress

The concluded regression equation I shows a negative relation between affective commitment and stress. Stress is said to predict Affective Commitment negatively by a coefficient of -0.386. The constant coefficient equal to 4.459 and the affective commitment is said to decrease by 0.386 when stress increase by 1 unit. *H1 is supported*

Regression between Stress and C2: Continuance Commitment

Regression Equation II: Continuance Commitment = 2.718 + 0.204 stress

The concluded regression equation II shows a slight positive relation between Continuance Commitment and Stress. Stress is said to predict Continuance Commitment positively by a coefficient of 0.204. The constant coefficient equal to 2.718 and the Continuance commitment is said to increase by 0.204 when stress increase by 1 unit. *H2 is supported*

Regression between Stress and C3: Normative Commitment

Regression Equation III: Normative Commitment = 2.637 + 0.167 stress

The concluded regression equation III shows a positive relation between Normative Commitment and Stress. Stress is said to predict Normative Commitment positively by a coefficient of 0.167. The constant coefficient equal to 2.637 and the Normative commitment is said to increase by 0.167 when stress increase by 1 unit.
H3 is rejected.

Regression between Career Path and C3: Normative Commitment

Regression Equation IV: Normative Commitment = 3.507 – 0.284 Career Path

The concluded regression equation IV shows a negative relation between Normative Commitment and Career Path. Career path is said to predict Normative Commitment negatively by a coefficient of 0.284. The constant coefficient equal to 3.507 and the Normative commitment is said to decrease by 0.284 when career path increase by 1 unit. *H4 is supported.*

Regression between Career Path and C1: Affective Commitment.

No correlation exists between Career Path and C1: affective Commitment. Therefore *H5 is rejected.*

Regression between Career Path and C2: Continuance Commitment.

No correlation exists between Career Path and C2: Continuance Commitment. Therefore *H6 is rejected.*

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The objective of this research was to study the relationship between the three component model of commitment of Allen and Meyer (1997) and Stress as well as to shed some light on the effect of this relationship on career path. These results would be of benefit to human resources' managers during the selection process of new job applicants as well as supervisors and managers when trying to control the effect of work related stress on the commitment level of employees, to reduce turnover rates and lengthen the career path.

Our results support the first Hypothesis (H1): There is a negative relationship between Affective Commitment and Stress. These results come in accordance to Michael *et al.*, (2009) studies. Michael *et al.*, (2009) proved that job stress negatively influences the affective commitment. Accordingly, during stressful periods, people put their emotions aside and focus on the tasks they need to perform. Conversely, when the stress level decreases, affective commitment tends to increase. Our results support as well Brown & Peterson (1993) findings that there is a strong inverse relationship between commitment and intention to leave. Consequently, high levels of role conflict and role ambiguity (work stressors) make the employees perceive the company as unsupportive, thus their affective commitment decreases. Our findings are in agreement as well with Yousef, (2002); Irvin & Coleman, (2003); and Meyer *et al.*, (2002); a negative relationship exists between affective commitment and role conflict and role ambiguity.

Similarly, the results of this research support our second hypothesis (H2): There is a slightly positive relationship between Continuance Commitment and Stress. This result agrees with Michael *et al.* (2009) who also found that role ambiguity and role conflict (direct causes of stress) had a positive relationship with continuance commitment. Our results also concur with Meyer *et al.*, (2002) and Micheal *et al.* (2009), that there is enough evidence to claim that role stressors are positively related to Continuance Commitment. Our results support as well the findings of Addae *et al.* (2006) that showed that people who value job security, which in itself reduces work related stress level, have high continuance commitment towards their organizations.

On the contrary, the results don't support the third hypothesis (H3): There is NO relationship between Normative Commitment and Stress. Our results showed a slight positive relation between Normative Commitment and Stress. This contradicts Michael *et al.* (2009), who found that normative commitment is not correlated with workplace stress. However our findings support Rousseau (1995) who claims that normative commitment grows based on a psychological agreement between the organization and the employee; this generates confidence and trust between the two parties as to their mutual obligations. Our results oppose as well the findings of Yousef (2002) who concluded that there exists a negative relationship between role ambiguity (a stressor) and normative commitment.

Hypothesis four (H4): There is a negative relationship between normative commitment and Career Path was supported. It is believed that committed employees tend to remain with their organizations since their career path will be enhanced.

Moreover, end results showed no significant relationship between affective commitment and career path. Accordingly, hypothesis five (H5): There is a negative relationship between Affective commitment and Career Path was rejected. Our findings contradict Carmeli & Gefen (2004) as well as Meyer & Allen (1997); who believed that a negative relationship exists between affective commitment and career path.

Concerning Hypothesis six (H6): There is a positive relationship between Continuance commitment and Career Path. Although supported through research such as by Michael *et al.*, (2009) who claim that continuance commitment tends to decrease when the employees realize that there is no career path within the organization. This wasn't supported by our findings. On the contrary, our findings showed no correlation between Continuance commitment and Career Path. The results contradict with Morrow (1993) and Lee *et al.* (2000); both believed that continuance commitment is negatively related to career commitment (longer career path). We explain this mismatch as a result of the various attitudes, values, and behaviors that govern Lebanese employees when compared to the employees in other cultures and countries.

CONCLUSION AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The results of this research confirmed some of the previously done research while contradicted other, and brought new insights into this field, by creating a link between commitment and stress on one side and career path on the other.

This research verified a negative relationship between affective commitment and stress, and a slight positive relationship between continuance commitment and stress. On the other hand, this study showed a positive relationship between normative commitment and stress. According to the researcher, there is no previous research proving these findings and not totally supported by the literature review.

The finding that a negative relationship exists between normative commitment and career path can be explained since people scoring high on loyalty are less inclined to change career path, they prefer to remain committed to their norms and values, which is most of the time dictated by society.

The present research paper has a series of limitations such as: Limitation of the research design, the researcher used a cross sectional design by selecting the questionnaire as the main tool for data collection, which doesn't involve further causal explanations. Future studies could be done by using longitudinal or experimental methodologies to cross validate the findings of the relation between workplace stress, commitment and career path. The findings of this research are based on a relatively small sample of respondents coming from middle size business organizations in Lebanon. Further research could be done on employees in non business

organizations (government, non professional employees…) to test whether these findings would match ours. In addition, since the findings cannot be generalized due to the small sample size, future research can undertake a bigger sample as well.

The researcher studied the commitment to the workplace in general. Literature review showed that people tend to develop commitment to various work- related domains (work groups, teams, unions…). Thus, the respondents might not be very accurate in their answers since they might have considered a special domain such as the department he/she belongs to, not the whole organization. Accordingly, this research can serve as a guide for future studies related to work commitment.

REFERENCES

Addae, H., Parboteeah, P., and Velinor, N (2008). Role Stressors and Organizational Commitment: public sector employment in St Lucia. *International Journal of Manpower*, 29 (6), 567-582.

Addae, H.M., Parboteeah, K.P., Davis, E.E. (2006), Organizational commitment and intention to quit: an examination of the moderating effect of psychological contract breach in Trinidad and Tobago, *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*,14 (3), 225-38

Anderson, S.E., Coffey, B.S., Byerly, R.T. (2002), Formal organizational initiatives and informal workplace practices: links to work-family conflict and job-related outcomes, *Journal of Management*, 28 (6), 787-810.

Angle, Harold, and James L. Perry. (1981). An Empirical Assessment of Organizational Commitment and Organizational Effectiveness. Administrative Science Quarterly, 26 (1), 1-14.

Bacharach, S.B., Bamberger, P.A., Sonnenstuhl, W.J. (2002), Driven to drink: managerial control, work-related risk factors and employee problem drinking, *Academy of Management Journal*, 45 (4), 637-58.

Barnett R.C., Brennan R.T. (1995), The relationship between job experiences and psychological distress: A structural equation approach, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16, 259 - 276.

Becker, H. S., and J. Carper. (1956), The Elements of Identification with an Occupation, *American Sociological Review*, 21, 341-347.

Beehr, T. A. & Newman, J. E. (1978). Job stress, employee health, and organizational effectiveness: A facet analysis, model and literature review. *Personnel Psychology*, 31, 665-699.

Beehr, T.A. and Franz, T.M. (1987), *The current debate about the meaning of job stress, in Ivancevich, J.M. and Ganster, D.C. (Eds), Job Stress From Theory to Suggestion*, Haworth Press, New York, 5-18.

Benkhoff, B. (1997), Ignoring commitment is costly: new approaches establish the missing link between commitment and performance, *Human Relations*, 50 (6), 701.

Buchanan, Bruce (1974) Building organizational commitment: the socialization of managers in work organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 19, 533-546.

Burke, R.J (1988), Some antecedents and consequences of work-family conflict, *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 3, 287-302.

Carlopio, J., Andrewartha, G. and Armstrong, H. (1997), *Developing Management Skills in Australia*, Longman, South Melbourne.

Carmeli, A & Gefen, D (2004). The relationship between work commitment models and employee withdrawal intentions. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 20 (2), 63-86.

Carson, Kerry D. & Carson, Paula Philipps (1994). Development and construct validation of a career entrenchment measure. *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, Dec95, 68 (4), 301.

Cohen, A. (1993b). Work commitment in relation to withdrawal intentions and union effectiveness, *Journal of Business Research*, 26, 75-90.

Cohen, Michael (2002). *Identifying, understanding, and solutions to stress*. Caxton Publication Group, London.

Conner, D. & Douglas, S (2004). Organizationally – induced work stress: the role of employee bureaucratic orientation*, Personnel Review*, 34 (2), 210-224.

Cropanzano, R., Howes, J.D., Grandey, A.A., Toth, P. (1997). The relationship of organizational politics and support to work behaviors, attitudes, and stress, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18, 159-80.

Dolan, S.L. and Garcia, S. (2002). Managing by values: cultural redesign for strategic organizational change at the dawn of the 21 century, *Journal of Management Development*, 2 (2), 101-17.

Elrod, P.D. II, Tippett, D.D. (2002), The 'Death Valley' of change, *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 15(3), 273-92.

Farrell, D. (1983). Exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect as responses to job dissatisfaction: A Multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26, 596-607.

Fisher, A. B. (1988). The downside of downsizing. *Fortune*, 23 May, 42.

Fisher, C. D. (1993). Boredom at work: A neglected concept. *Human Relations*, 46, 395-41.

Grant, R.M. (1996), Toward a knowledge-based theory of the firm, *Strategic Management Journal*, 17, 109-22.

Greenberg, J., Baron, R.A. (1995), *Behavior in Organizations: Understanding and Managing the Human Side of Work*, 5th ed., Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.

Greenhaus, J. H. & Callanan, G. A. (1994). *Career Management*. Fort Worth, TX: Dryden.

Hall, D.T. (1986), *Breaking career routines: Midcareer and identity development*. In D.T. Hall & Associates (Eds), Career Development in Organizations, pp. 120-159. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Hansen, L. S. (1993). Career development trends and issues in the United States. *Journal of Career Development*, 20 (1), 7-24.

Hellriegel, D., Slocum, J.W. and Woodman, R.W. (1992), *Organizational Behavior* (6th ed.), West Publishing Company, St Paul, MN.

Hirsch, P. (1987). *Pack Your Own Parachute: How to Survive Mergers, Takeovers, and Other Corporate Disasters*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Hirschman, Albert O., (1970). *Exit, Voice, and Loyalty: Responses to Decline in Firms, Organizations, and States*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Irving, G.P., Coleman, D.F. (2003), The moderating effect of different forms of commitment on role ambiguity-job tension relations, *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 20, 97-106.

Iverson, R.D. (1996). Employee acceptance of organizational change: the role of organizational commitment, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 7 (1), 122-49.

Kanter, R. M. (1968). Commitment and Social Organization: A Study of Commitment Mechanisms in Utopian Communities, *American Sociological Review*, 33, 499-517.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (2d ed). New York: Wiley.

Larson, E. W., & Fukami, C. V. (1984). Relationships between worker behavior and commitment to the organization and union. *Proceedings of the Academy of Management*, 222-226.

Lau, C., Woodman, R. (1995). Understanding organizational change: a schematic perspective, *Academy of Management Journal*, 38 (2), 537-54.

Leana, C.R. and Feldman, D.C. (1990). Individual responses to job loss: empirical findings from two field studies, *Human Relations*, 43, 1155-81.

Lee, K., Carswell, J.J. and Allen, N. (2000). A meta-analytic review of occupational commitment: relations with person- and work-related variables, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 5, 799-811.

Lee, R.T., Ashforth, B.E. (1996). A meta-analytic examination of the correlates of the three dimensions of job burnout, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(2), 123-33.

Lee, Seok-Hwan. (2000). *A Multidimensional View of Public Sector Employee Commitment and Willingness to Support Productivity Improvement Strategies: A Comparative Study of Public Employees at Managerial Level between the United States and South Korea*. Unpublished dissertation, Rutgers University, Newark, NJ.

Longenecker, C.O., Schaffer, C.J., Scazzero, J.A. (1999). Causes and consequences of stress in the IT profession, *Information Systems Management*, Vol. 16 No.3, pp.71-7.

Martin, R. (1996). A longitudinal study examining the psychological reactions of job relocation, *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 26, 265-82.

Mathieu, J. E., & Zajac, D. M. (1990). A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 108, pp. 171-194.

Mattson, B.E., Dubinsky, A.J. (1979). Consequences of role conflict and ambiguity experienced by retail salespeople, *Journal of Retailing*, 55 (4), 70-86.

Meyer, J. P. & Allen, N. J. (1984). Testing the 'side-bet theory' of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 372-378.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1997). Commitment in the workplace: Theory, research, and application. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Meyer, J. P., irving, P.G., and Allen, N. J. (1998). Examination of the combined effects of work values and early work experiences on organizational commitment, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19, 29-52.

Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J. and Gellatly, I. R. (1990). Affective and continuance commitment to the organization: Evaluation of measures and analysis of concurrent and time-lagged relations, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 710-720.

Meyer, J., Stanley, D., Herscovitch, L., Topolnytsky, L. (2002). "Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: a meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates, and consequences", *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61, 20-52.

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

Michael, 0. , Deborah, C. and Pnina, P. (2009). Job Stress and Organizational Commitment among Mentoring Coordinators. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 23 (3), 266-288.

Michaels, R.E., Dixon, A.L. (1994). Sellers and buyers on the boundary: potential moderators of role stress-job outcome relationships, *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, Winter, 62-73.

Minor, A. S. & Robinson, D. F. (1994). Organizational and population level learning as engines for career transitions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15, 345-364.

Mirvis, P. H. & Hall, D. T. (1994). Psychological success and boundaryless career. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15, 365-380.

Mirvis, P. H. (1993). *Building a Competitive Workforce: Investing in Human Capital for Corporate Success*. New York: Wiley.

Modic, S. J. (1987). *Is anyone loyal anymore?* Industry Week, 7 September, 75-82.

Montgomery, D.C., Blodget, J.G., Barnes, J.H. (1996), A model of financial securities sales persons' job stress, *The Journal of Services Marketing*, 10 (3),1-38.

Morrow, P.C. (1993), *The Theory and Measurement of Work Commitment*, JAI Press Inc., Greenwich, CT.

Mueller, C. W., Wallace, J. E. and Price, J. L. (1992). Employee commitment: Resolving some issues, *Work and Occupation*, 19, 211-236.

Mullins, L.J. (1999), *Management and Organizational Behavior* (5th ed.), Financial Times Management, London

Nelson and Quick (1994), *Organizational Behavior: Foundations, Realities and Challenges*, West Publishing Company, St Paul, MN.

Nelson, D.L. and Quick, J. C. (2006), *Organizational Behavior: Foundations, Realities and Challenges*, 5 th edition, Thompson South-Western, Mason, OH.

Nelson, D.L., Burke, R.I. (2000), Women executives: health, stress, and success, *Academy of Management Executive*, 14 (2), 107-21.

Ornelas, S. & Kleiner, B (2003). New Developments in Managing Job Related Stress, *Equal opportunities International*, 22 (5),64-70.

Ornstein, S. & Isabella, L. A. (1993). Making sense of careers: A review 1989-1992. *Journal of Management*, 19, 243-267.

Osherson, S. D. (1980). *Holding on or Letting Go: Mean and Career Change at Midlife.* New York: Free Press.

Perrewe, P.L., Ferris, G.R., Frink, D.D. and Anthony, W.P. (2000), Political skill: an antidote for workplace stressors, *Academy of Management Executive*, 14 (3), 115-23.

Rees, C. & Redfern, D. (2000). Recognizing the perceived causes of stress – a training and development perspective. *Industrial and commercial Training*. 32 (4), 120-127.

Rojas, V. & Kleiner, B (2000). The Art and Science of Effective Stress Management. *Management Research News*, 23, 103-106.

Rousseau, D. (1995). *Psychological Contracts in Organizations: Understanding Written and Unwritten Agreements*, Sage, Newbury Park, CA.

Sheldon, Mary E. (1971) Investments and involvements as mechanisms producing commitment to the organization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16, 142- 150.

Singh, J., Goolsby, J.R., Rhoads, G.K. (1994). Behavioral and psychological consequences of boundary-spanning burnout for customer service representatives, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 31 (4) , 558-69.

Teger, A. I. (1980). *Too Much Invested to Quit: The Psychology of Escalation of Conflic*. Elmsford, NY: Pergamon.

Yousef, D.A. (2002), Job satisfaction as a mediator of the relationship between role stressors and organizational commitment. A study from an Arabic perspective, *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 17, 250-66.

COPING TO REPAIR THE CAREER DAMAGE OF WORKPLACE WEIGHT DISCRIMINATION

Natasha Randle, Mississippi State University – Meridian
Christopher Mathis, Morgan State University
Dewaynna Cates, Texas Woman's University

ABSTRACT

At the center of the battle to overcome the obesity epidemic is a focus on achieving a socially acceptable body size. Often overlooked, however, are the interpersonal workplace implications. Discrimination against employees who are overweight is an increasingly prevalent form of employee devaluation which has varied negative impacts on career success, including income disparities, less attractive job assignments, and fewer promotions. Drawing on attribution theory, spillover theory, and the transactional stress model, we examine the moderating influence of coping on weight discrimination and career success. Using moderated hierarchical regression, we found support for the relationship between weight discrimination and career success and findings on the moderating affects of coping which should encourage employers to discontinue this form of workplace devaluation. Implications, limitations, and future research are presented.

INTRODUCTION

Discrimination in the workplace occurs when characteristics other than qualifications affect how an individual is treated. Unequal treatment, usually unfavorable, can take many forms. Since the early 1960s, the U.S. has passed several laws aimed at eliminating discrimination based on personal characteristics. Despite the most valiant of efforts, racial, gender, age, and sexual stereotypes, have crept into the behavior of even the most educated individuals within organizations (Orpen, 1995; Ragins & Cornwell, 2001; Sanchez & Brock, 1996; Shaffer, Joplin, Bell, Lau, & Qguz, 2000; Snape & Redman, 2003). Additionally, obesity stigmatization, a form of employee devaluation scarcely addressed legally, socially, or within organizations, is widespread (Andreyeva, Puhl, & Brownell, 2008). Rebecca Puhl, a leading obesity researcher, described weight discrimination as "…a very serious social problem that we need to pay attention to" (Shkolnikova, 2008). As social problems invariably become organizational challenges, it is necessary to expend significant effort examining workplace weight discrimination.

Weight discrimination may be obvious or subtle in work relationships, hiring, promotions, and layoff decisions. Studies have established that workplace discrimination does in

fact occur in the workplace in all phases of the employment process (Bellizzi & Hasty, 1998; Finklestein, 2007; Hebl, King, & Lin, 2004; Larkin & Pines, 1979; Maranto & Stenoien, 2000; M. V. Roehling, 1999; M. V. Roehling, Pichler, Oswald, & Bruce, 2008; P. V. Roehling, Roehling, Vandlen, Blazek, & Guy, 2008). How this weight discrimination affects employees has been discussed in the form of employee attitudes and behaviors (Wilkins, 2006). However, little research has been conducted on how employees actually cope with weight discrimination.

In this study, we explore how employees cope with perceived weight discrimination. The coping mechanisms generally serve as a way to overcome the devaluation and reduce the negative outcomes. Coping manifests itself in several forms, such as active or disengagement strategies (Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989). Puhl and Brownell (2006) found that common coping strategies for victims of weight discrimination include: heading off the negative comments; using positive self-talk, faith, religion, and prayer; eating excessively; dieting; seeking social support; ignoring the situation, and responding positively (being nice). Examining these multiple facets of weight discrimination may provide researchers and practitioners with more effective ways of managing diversity and interpersonal interactions in the workplace.

Drawing on attribution theory, spillover theory, and the transactional stress model, we propose and test a model of coping with workplace weight discrimination and its career outcomes. We seek to address two research questions: 1.) What are the career outcomes of workplace weight discrimination and 2.) What are the moderating influences of coping strategies on the effects of workplace weight discrimination?

LITERATURE REVIEW

Workplace Weight Discrimination

Workplace weight discrimination is surprisingly common, as over two thirds of Americans are overweight or obese (National Center for Health Statistics, 2007). Obese individuals are often perceived as being less competent (Lennon, 1992), less attractive (Clayson, 1989; Harris, Harris, & Bochner, 1982; Kalisch, 1972; Lerner & Gillert, 1969; Rothblum, Miller, & Garbutt, 1988), gluttonous (Hebl, et al., 2004), less desirable, less productive, less successful, less conscientious, less aggressive, less ambitious, disorganized, indecisive, mentally lazy, and lacking self-discipline (Larkin & Pines, 1979). A study found that 54% of respondents experienced weight stigmatization from co-workers or colleagues, 43% from employers or supervisors, and 25% experienced overall job discrimination (Puhl & Brownell, 2006). Essentially, denigration of the obese seems to be widely acceptable (Puhl & Brownell, 2001).

Weight discrimination may be explained by attribution theory. According to attribution theory, negative judgments of obese individuals surface among employers, co-workers, and society largely due to a belief that obesity can be controlled by individuals who are obese (Crandall & Martinez, 1996). These negative opinions are linked to a just world belief which

implies that people with negative characteristics should be treated in accordance to that characteristic (Crandall, et al., 2001). The outcome is generally workplace weight discrimination. This stigmatization of overweight employees occurs in selection (Finklestein, 2007; Sartore & Cunningham, 2006), compensation and income disparities (Averett, 1996; Kutcher & Bragger, 1999; Maranto & Stenoien, 2000; Register & Williams, 1990), promotions (Bordieri, 1997), discipline (Bellizzi & Norvell, 1991),   and discharge (Kennedy & Homant, 1984). Stigmatization of overweight employees also results in disparities such as less attractive job assignments (Bellizzi & Hasty, 1998; Bellizzi, L., & Belonax, 1989; Jackson, 2000), and negative perceptions of supervisory potential, self-discipline, professional appearance, personal hygiene, and the ability to perform strenuous jobs (Rothblum, et al., 1988).

Coping

So how does one deal with perceived weight discrimination? Consistent with a study by Puhl and Brownell (2006), we propose that individuals utilize coping mechanisms. Coping literature has evolved over the last several decades as pressures in both work and family life mount to create increased amounts of stress. Lazarus and Folkman (1985) offer the transactional stress model which proposes three processes for understanding stress; primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, and coping. Coping is the process of executing a response after one has perceived a threat (primary appraisal) and evaluated potential responses (secondary appraisal) (Lazarus, 1966). Coping strategies are described as the psychological and behavioral efforts by an individual to tolerate or minimize external and internal demands and conflicts (Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). Several dimensions of coping were identified in Compas et. al. (2001): problem-focused versus emotion-focused, primary versus secondary control, engagement versus disengagement coping, self-focus versus external focus, cognitive versus behavioral, and active versus passive coping.

Puhl and Brownell (2006) discovered that most frequently those experiencing weight stigma in the form of job discrimination coped via positive behaviors such as being nice, ignoring the situation, and dieting. However, based on a study by Diamond et. al. (2008), the two approaches to coping examined in this study are active coping and behavioral disengagement because of their focus on workplace discrimination.   Akin to Lazarus and Folkman's (1984) problem-focused coping, this notion of "active coping is the process of taking active steps to try to remove or circumvent the stressor or to ameliorate its effects. Active coping includes initiating direct action, increasing one's efforts, and trying to execute a coping attempt in stepwise fashion" (Carver, et al., 1989, p. 268). Conversely, behavioral disengagement refers to reducing effort to overcome a stressor, even to the point of abandoning goals which are being hindered by the stressor (Carver, et al., 1989).

It has generally been thought that disengagement coping serves to produce negative outcomes and active coping produces more positive outcomes in some instances (Carver, et al.,

1989), but more research should be conducted on perceived discrimination and coping. Therefore, Diamond et al. (2008) suggest that discrimination should be analyzed separately as a stressor for which coping is necessary because of power differentials between the discriminator and the victim. They suggest that victims may fall lowly in terms of organizational power and/or may fall in a minority group that removes even more power (Carli, 1999). As a consequence of this power differential, victims may benefit more from disengagement coping because the victim is unlikely to be able to be removed from the environment and behavioral disengagement allows them to avoid the discrimination, deny its existence, or just plain accept it (Carver, et al., 1989; Diamond, et al., 2008). Alternately, if the victim chose to actively cope, there is a likelihood of lower career success because of retaliation as in cases of sexual harassment.

This argument is valid for victims of weight discrimination however, there is a bit of a departure related to the mention of a minority group. Sixty-six percent of Americans are overweight (National Center for Health Statistics, 2007). Therefore, this is certainly not a minority group. However, overweight individuals do discriminate against others who are overweight and the distinction between those who are simply overweight and those who are obese and those who are morbidly obese can be made. Moreover, power differentials do apply when examining organizational levels. There are few overweight CEOs (P. V. Roehling, et al., 2008), which may imply that lower level employees may be fatter than higher level employees. This is further confirmed by disparities in promotions and income based on body size (Kennedy & Homant, 1984; Maranto & Stenoien, 2000; Register & Williams, 1990). Essentially, in situations of weight discrimination, behavioral disengagement may be a more effective coping strategy because of the helplessness that occurs when people expect poor coping outcomes (Carver, et al., 1989) which stems from the power differential present.

Coping and OCP

A relatively new phenomenon in organizational behavior research, citizenship pressure (OCP) occurs when an individual perceives that the performance of organizational citizenship behaviors (OCB) is either implicitly or explicitly required (Bolino, Turnley, Suazo, & Gilstrap, 2010). When perceived as a valuable resource, OCBs are viewed as something that can be used to support or help the organization or its stakeholders. Therefore, managers and employees begin to use it as a tool to be drawn on when needed. A study by Bolino et. al. (2010) revealed that citizenship pressure is related to the actual performance of OCBs.

OCP may help to explain the active coping of those who perceive weight discrimination. We argue that OCP falls consistent with "increasing one's efforts" when performed by a person who perceives devaluation. As OCBs have at one point been considered non contractual, unrewarded behaviors (Organ, 1988) that assist coworkers or promote the organization, there has been much argument over whether or not these OCBs are really non contractual and unrewarded, meaning that persons feel that they must perform these behaviors (Borman & Motowildo, 1997;

Organ, 1997) in order to be seen as a "team player" and to receive the best possible performance evaluations, promotions, and raises. As such, an employee who perceives discrimination, especially weight discrimination, may feel that they must perform OCBs to achieve equal footing with employees who are not devaluated. They are essentially actively coping with the situation and increasing their effort by performing above and beyond their prescribed duties.

In a study of perceived weight discrimination and employee attitudes and behaviors, it was found that the relationship between a one dimensional measure of perceived weight discrimination resulted in a non significant relationship with OCB (Wilkins, 2006). This study hypothesized that perceived weight discrimination led to decreased OCB; however, the hypothesis was not supported. Employees possibly did not decrease the level of OCB because they felt that the performance of discretionary behaviors was explicitly required of them. In fact, a respondent who perceived weight discrimination indicated that "As student radiology technologist I had an instructor tell me that because of my size I would have to work twice as hard and be twice as good to be acknowledged as equal to my thinner co-workers. He was an obese technologist and spoke from experience. He was very right" (Wilkins, 2006, p. 179). Essentially, employees may feel the need to succumb to citizenship pressure in order to be perceived favorably by managers for purposes of evaluation, promotions, raises, and the like (Cates, Mathis, & Randle, 2007).

In performance evaluations, performance of OCBs may be used by managers to differentiate between employees who meet performance expectations and those who do not. One of the prevalent biases in the performance management is the halo/horn effect (Jacobs & Kozlowski, 1985; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). For victims of weight discrimination, the horn effect may occur because the single personal characteristic, the obesity of the employee, may be perceived as negative, and therefore adversely drive the manager's evaluation of the employee. However, by performing OCBs (many times while under pressure), the halo effect may occur, meaning that the performance of the unrewarded, non contractual behaviors may be a single impressive factor that drives the performance evaluation positively. In effect, the negative attribute of obesity explained by attribution, may at least be neutralized by the performance of OCBs. Thus,

Hypothesis 1: *Perceived weight discrimination will be positively related to organizational citizenship pressure.*

Career Success, Perceived Discrimination, and Coping

Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory captures the essence of why most employees show up to work, the expectation that one's effort will lead to an attractive outcome or reward. Frequently, this outcome is career success. Career success has been defined from both an objective and subjective perspective. Objective career success describes culturally defined

external factors, such as hierarchical progression (Kotter, 1982), salary, and job title (Pfeffer, 1977). Subjective career success is internal and refers to one's own preference for development within an occupation based on one's individual perception of career experience (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986). Perceived discrimination has been found to influence career success. In a study of NCAA Division I-A assistant coaches, results demonstrated discrimination based on racial differences in career success measured as number of promotions received and organizational proximity to the head coach position (Sagas & Cunningham, 2005). As discussed above and drawing on attribution theory, perceived weight discrimination can be seen in the form of lower salaries, fewer promotions, and unattractive job assignments (Bellizzi & Hasty, 1998; Bordieri, 1997; Maranto & Stenoien, 2000). These are essentially characteristics of objective career success. This study, however, will explore the proposed relationships using subjective career success based on its implications related to mental well-being, quality of life, and performance (Peluchette, 1993). Thus, we conclude

Hypothesis 2:   Perceived weight discrimination will be negatively related to career success.

Coping has been determined as a key to employees experiencing favorable work attitudes and extrinsic rewards (Diamond, et al., 2008; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999). Foster (2000) even suggests that it is the coping mechanism executed that influences outcomes more so than the actual discrimination itself. Therefore, we will investigate how coping moderates the relationship of perceived weight discrimination and career success.

Drawing from Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson's (2003) work suggesting that devalued employees benefit from disengagement coping rather than active coping because of their low status in the workplace, Diamond et. al. (2008) tested the moderating effects of active coping and behavioral disengagement on the relationship between workplace discrimination and career success. They found that, in a study of ethnic minorities, active coping and behavioral disengagement moderated the relationship between perceived workplace discrimination and perceived career success and that only active coping moderated the relationship when testing an objective measure of career success, salary increase (Diamond, et al., 2008). Further, active coping of the devalued employee produced less career success, while higher levels of behavioral disengagement produced no negative impacts on career success and lower levels produced reduced career success.

Although we will test weight discrimination in similar relationships as Diamond et. al. (2008), as discussed above, we will add citizenship pressure as a form of active coping. However, based on the fact that citizenship pressure implies executing extra-role behaviors which are essential to effective performance, we propose that the moderating effect will be opposite that of active coping (as described by Carver, et al. 1989).

Hypothesis 3a: *Active coping will moderate the relationship between perceived weight discrimination and career success such that for participants with higher active coping, the negative relationship between perceived weight discrimination and career success will be stronger.*

Hypothesis 3b: *Organizational Citizenship Pressure will moderate the relationship between perceived weight discrimination and career success such that for participants with higher organizational citizenship pressure, the negative relationship between perceived weight discrimination and career success will be weaker.*

Hypothesis 3c: *Behavioral disengagement will moderate the relationship between perceived weight discrimination and career success such that for participants with higher behavioral disengagement, the negative relationship between perceived weight discrimination and career success will be weaker.*

METHODOLOGY

Procedure

Data for this study was collected using a Web survey instrument, which was sent via electronic invitation to US residents employed in diverse industries. Academicians and practitioners have demonstrated a growing interest in using Web-based survey administration (Burke, 2006; Dillman, 1999; Ray, Griggs, & Tabor, 2001).

Participants

This study resulted in 106 eligible (employed) responses, producing an overall response rate of 20%. Of the respondents, the majority were female (82.4%), married (55.3%), possessed at least an Associate's Degree (77.7%), worked full-time (89.6%), made less than $50,000 per year (59.4%), and were forty years of age or older (68%). Whites made up 53.4% and Blacks consisted of 42.7%. Respondents were distributed across the US. The largest number of respondents from individual states resided in Mississippi (46.2%), Illinois (12.3%), and Indiana (7.5%). The leanest state had a small representation, Colorado = 3.8%. Sixty-seven percent of the respondents indicated that they are obese or overweight, while, 75% of them were actually obese or overweight based on our manual BMI calculations using self-reported height and weight values. This 75% is a bit higher than the national average of 67% (National Center for Health Statistics, 2007), which may indicate that those of a larger carriage were more willing to participate in the study because they had a vested interest. Additionally 46.2% of the respondents resided in Mississippi, which may also explain the larger sample of overweight individuals.

Measures

The constructs were measured using a seven-point Likert scale, anchored from "Strongly Disagree" (1) to "Strongly Agree" (7). The constructs of the study include perceived weight discrimination, career success, coping, and organizational citizenship pressure.

Perceived weight discrimination

Perceived weight discrimination was measured as a modification of a tested 7-item scale created by James, Lovato, and Cropanzano (1994) for race/gender discrimination. This scale has also been used to measure perceived sexual orientation discrimination (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). Examples of questions in the instrument are: "Where I work, promotion and rewards are not influenced by body weight" and "There is weight discrimination where I work." Factor analysis resulted in the dropping of one question. The Cronbach alpha value is .890.

Career success

Career success was measured using 8-items from Gattiker and Larwood's (1986) scale of career success. The scale included the subjective career success dimensions of interpersonal success, financial success, and hierarchical success. Examples of questions in the instrument are: "I am reaching my career goals within the time frame I set for myself" and " I am getting good performance evaluations". Two questions were removed after conducting factor analysis (α = .951).

Coping

Coping was measured with the Carver et. al. (1989) active and behavioral disengagement scales. "I take additional action to try to get rid of the problem" is an example of one question from the 4-item active coping scale (α = .866). "I admit to myself that I can't deal with it, and quit trying" is an example of a question from the 4-item behavioral disengagement scale (α = .951.).

Organizational citizenship pressure

Organizational citizenship pressure was measured with 22 questions from two dimensions (individual initiative and helping) of the Bolino and Turnley (2005) scale. After conducting factor analysis, the resulting scale had an alpha of .858. Examples of questions in the instrument are: "I stay at work after normal business hours" and "I take on extra responsibilities in order to help coworkers when things get demanding at work".

Control variables

Control variables used were the background characteristics of gender/sex and race/ethnicity. Body mass index (BMI), a measure of body size, was also included, consistent with other weight discrimination studies (Averett, 1996; Maranto & Stenoien, 2000).

Figure 1. **Graphical Depiction of Perceived Weight Discrimination, Coping, and Career Success Model**
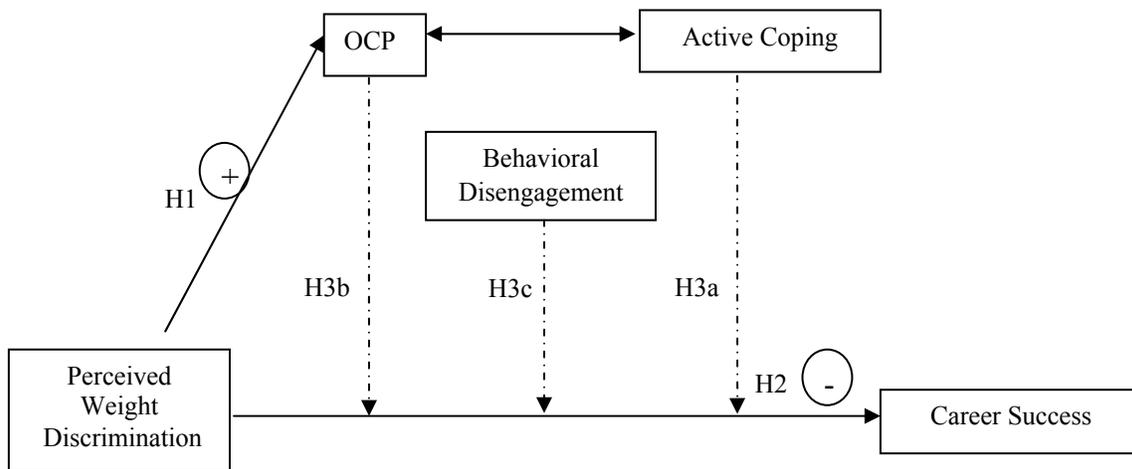
Note. OCP = Citizenship Pressure;   = moderation   ----▶

RESULTS

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, Zero-Order Correlations, and Reliability Estimates									
	Mean	S.D.	COP	BD	PWD	OCP	CS	SEX	BMI
COP	5.204	.689	(.866)						
BD	2.548	.844	-.356**	(.909)					
PWD	3.002	1.493	.170	.088	(.890)				
OCP	4.117	2.271	.253*	.225*	.281**	(.858)			
CS	3.233	3.233	.243*	.025	-.169	.063	(.951)		
SEX	1.82	.383	-.004	.092	-.010	.067	-.079		
BMI	31.32	9.473	-.152	-.051	.300**	.030	-.184	.130	
RACE	1.52	.654	-.017	-.083	-.010	-.069	-.026	-.104	-.164

Note. Reliability estimates are on the diagonals in parentheses. COP = Active Coping; BD = Behavioral Disengagement; PWD = Perceived Weight Discrimination; OCP = Organizational Citizenship Pressure. CS = Career Success. Sex = Gender/Sex. RACE = Race/Ethnicity. BMI = Body Mass Index
n = 106.
p < .05. **p* < .01.

Internal consistency via reliability was assessed for the scales used. All constructs in the final study had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient value of at least .70, which is considered internally consistent (Nunnally, 1978). All alpha coefficients were acceptable and ranged from .86 to .95. Significant correlations were found between several of the scales although none were highly correlated ($r \geq .8$). Table 1 shows means, standard deviations, correlations, and alphas.

We introduced citizenship pressure as a form of active coping. Based on Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient, a small, but significant amount of correlation does exist between active coping and citizenship pressure ($r = .253$, $p < .05$). See Table 1.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested using regression. Perceived weight discrimination was positively related to citizenship pressure ($\beta = .320$, $p < .01$) indicating support for hypothesis 1. Perceived weight discrimination was negatively related to career success ($\beta = -.155$, $p < .088$) but only at .10 level in significance, indicating marginal support for hypothesis 2.

Table 2: Regression Analyses for Perceived Weight Discrimination Predicting Citizenship Pressure, and Career Success (Hypotheses 1 and 2)		
	Standardized Beta	
	Citizenship Pressure	*Career Success*
Independent Variable		
Perceived Weight Discrimination	.320**	-.155⁺
R^2	.103	.029
Adj. R^2	.063	.019
F	2.573*	2.974⁺
Note. n = 106		
*p < .05. **p < .01. ⁺p < .10.		

Hypotheses 3a-c suggest that active coping, citizenship pressure, and behavioral disengagement will moderate the relationship between perceived weight discrimination and career success. The moderated relationship is generally signified by interaction terms in the regression equation (Aiken & West, 1991), therefore moderated hierarchical regression was used.

As a first step in the hierarchical regression analysis, all demographic (control) variables were entered. The main effect perceived weight discrimination was entered in the second step. The moderators, active coping, citizenship pressure, and behavioral disengagement, were entered in the third step and the interaction of perceived weight discrimination and active coping, citizenship pressure, and behavioral disengagement was entered in the fourth step. In order to test for the moderation of a variable on the relationship between X and Y, the main effects of the predictor and moderator on the outcome variable and the interaction between the predictor and the moderator must be tested (Aiken & West, 1991; Surrey, 2005). "If the interaction term is significant (i.e. c is significantly different from zero) then, with a few cautionary caveats, one

can claim to have demonstrated moderation. Whether the main effects (a and b) are significant or not isn't strictly relevant to whether one has demonstrated moderation" (Aiken & West, 1991; Surrey, 2005). After conducting the moderated hierarchical regression analysis, no support for the moderated relationships with career success were found, as none of interaction terms were significant. Results are presented in Tables 3, 4, and 5.

Table 3: Regression Analyses for Active Coping Moderating the Relationship Between Perceived Weight Discrimination and Career Success (Hypothesis 3a)				
Variables	β	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step 1 – Control Variables				
Race/Ethnicity	-1.238			
Gender/Sex	-.819			
BMI	-.199‡			
		.044	.044	1.409
Step 2 – Main Effects				
Perceived Weight Discrimination	-.144			
		.066	.022	1.614
Step 3 – Moderator				
Active Coping	.482*			
		.118	.052*	2.416*
Step 4 – Interactions				
Perceived Weight Discrimination X Active Coping	-.006			
		.119	.001	2.011‡
Note. BMI = Body Mass Index				
n = 106				
p < .05. **p* < .01. ‡p <.10.				

Table 4: Regression Analyses for Citizenship Pressure Moderating the Relationship Between Perceived Weight Discrimination and Career Success (Hypothesis 3b)				
Variables	β	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step 1 – Control Variables				
Race/Ethnicity	-1.204			
Gender/Sex	-.455			
BMI	-.200‡			
		.043	.043	1.324
Step 2 – Main Effects				
Perceived Weight Discrimination	-.276‡			
		.075	.032‡	1.774

Table 4: Regression Analyses for Citizenship Pressure Moderating the Relationship Between Perceived Weight Discrimination and Career Success (Hypothesis 3b)				
Variables	β	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step 3 – Moderator				
Citizenship Pressure	.050			
		.082	.006	1.529
Step 4 – Interactions				
Perceived Weight Discrimination X Citizenship Pressure	-.001			
		.082	.000	1.265
Note. BMI = Body Mass Index n = 106 *p < .05. **p < .01. ‡p <.10.				

Table 5: Regression Analyses for Behavioral Disengagement Moderating the Relationship between Perceived Weight Discrimination and Career Success (Hypothesis 3c)				
Variables	β	R^2	ΔR^2	F
Step 1 – Control Variables				
Race/Ethnicity	-1.845			
Gender/Sex	-2.616			
BMI	.197‡			
		.064	.064	1.942
Step 2 – Main Effects				
Perceived Weight Discrimination	-.172‡			
		.096	.032‡	2.227‡
Step 3 – Moderator				
Behavioral Disengagement	.026			
		.096	.000	1.765
Step 4 – Interactions				
Perceived Weight Discrimination X Behavioral Disengagement	.018			
		.110	.014	1.686
Note. BMI = Body Mass Index n = 106 *p < .05. **p < .01. ‡p <.10.				

DISCUSSION

We analyzed the ways in which active and disengagement coping affected the career success of those who perceive workplace weight discrimination. Based on the data analysis, we found only marginal support for the relationship between career success and perceived weight discrimination. While support at the .05 level of significance is most desirable, marginal

significance at the .10 level has been accepted more so by social psychology researchers (e.g., Hunter, Cohen, Rosenthal, etc.) in social psychology journals (e.g., psychological review, psychological bulletin, psychological science, etc.). The findings indicate that increased amounts of workplace weight discrimation result in lower levels of career success. This is consistent with the findings in studies measuring more objective measures of career success (Kennedy & Homant, 1984; Maranto & Stenoien, 2000; Register & Williams, 1990). Although only marginal support, this finding provides valuable implications for organizations related to employee devaluation in that weight discrimination can have detrimental effects on organizational success via its human resource.

Our limited results related to career success may be attributed to the subjective measure utilized. Generally studies of career and success have focused on the more external or objective measure (Gattiker & Larwood, 1986) because it provides "hard" data in the form of income, job title, promotions, and distance from top executive positions. Other scholars though, have argued that the subjective measures are a better assessment of one's thoughts on personal career success (Kotter, 1982) in that it is possible to have received promotions, an attractive salary and job title, yet still feel as if personal levels of career success have not been achieved. While the scholars present a compelling argument, we now think that surveying victims of discrimination using a subjective measure comes with unique challenges. Ruggiero (1996) indicated that disadvantaged individuals may minimize discrimination and its effects in order to maintain the perception of control over social and performance outcomes in their lives. Therefore, victims of weight discrimination may not report perceiving lower career success or even the weight discrimination itself in an effort to maintain control of their careers, even though their salary, job title, and promotions clearly indicate the negative effect of this devaluation. Interestingly, our post-hoc analysis even indicates that those individuals with higher BMIs have marginally lower career success (β = -.183, p < .10) and higher weight discrimination (β = .333, p < .05). Given this, a multidimensional measure of career success, which includes both the subjective and objective aspects, may be more appropriate.

The moderating influences of active coping, citizenship pressure, and behavioral disengagement, all produced insignificant findings, suggesting further investigation of the coping mechanisms with the measure of career success. Post hoc analysis though, does indicate that there is a marginally significant relationship between perceived weight discrimination and active coping (β = .079, p < .10). We also explored citizenship pressure, as a form of active coping and found a significant marginal correlation between OCP and active coping. The more one feels weight discrimination, the more citizenship pressure they feel, which may confirm that devaluated employees are performing these OCBs in an effort to achieve equal status with employees that are not devaluated. Overall, our findings indicate that victims do indeed attempt to deal with the discrimination by actively doing something about it. However, despite the devalued employee's best efforts, this weight discrimination still has a harmful effect on career success. Managers and HR practitioners should take notice of this. Employees are expending

mental and physical efforts to overcome this devaluation to no avail. These efforts could most certainly be better used in helping achieve organizational goals, as opposed to attempting to achieve organizational equality.

Managerial and Practical Implications

This study and previous studies reveal negative career success related to weight discrimination (Register & Williams, 1990; M. V. Roehling, 1999; M. V. Roehling, Roehling, & Odland, 2008; P. V. Roehling, et al., 2008). Workplace weight discrimination's effects far exceed just the employee though. It also impacts the company, which is further justification for organizations and their managers to focus on helping not hindering the career success of their employees. Moreover, as organizations craft human resource policy, this study illustrates that a renewed focus should be on the fair treatment of all employees regardless of personal characteristics. Seeing that the rate of weight discrimination has almost doubled in the last ten years (Andreyeva, et al., 2008), the personal characteristic, body size should be added to the EEO statement printed on many company documents, from employment applications, to websites, to annual reports.

Limitations and Future Research

As with any research study, limitations are present. The limitations can be interpreted as opportunities for future investigation. The sample in the study is a limitation. While a diverse sample was intended, the sample was overwhelmingly female (82.4%), The lack of responses from a men does not allow us to determine if the weight discrimination is really targeted more at white women or if this conclusion may be a result of nonresponse bias.

The subjective measure of career success proved to be a limitation. Only marginal support of the relationship between weight discrimination and career success was found, although there is an abundance of support for an objective measure of career success in the literature. As in Diamond et. al. (2008) future weight discrimination research should use both the subjective and objective measures of career success (e.g. income, number of promotions, distance from top level management). Additionally, differences in race and gender, and other life outcomes of workplace weight discrimination should be examined in future research.

The natural human reaction to discomfort is to try to stop the pain. If you place your hand on a hot stove, you will immediately withdraw the hand to stop any further burning or damage. Unfortunately, the reality in workplace devaluation is that immediately physically withdrawing oneself from the environment may not be an option. Personal, family, financial, and ethical responsibilities just may not allow it. So, coping may become the option for quelling the discomfort. Future research should explore coping and weight discrimination more in depth.

CONCLUSION

Organizations evolve with the changes and challenges in society. Conversations of this evolution will permeate discussions from boardrooms to mailrooms, but most importantly between the covers of HR policy books and weaved throughout acceptable best practices. It is, of course, the hope of most diversity researchers, human resource practitioners, activists, and equal opportunity advocates, that these policies and best practices will include an elimination of employee devaluation based on personal characteristics. Until such time, these conversations of weight stigmatization are very much relevant. This study extends research on workplace stigmatization based on body size by offering discussion of its effects on career success. As scholars (e.g. Brownell, Crandall, Hebl, King, Puhl, Roehling, Rothblum) have devoted considerable time and research effort to this literature stream, this study further confirms that there is still much work to be done.

REFERENCES

Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). *Multiple Regression: Testing and Interpreting Interactions.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Andreyeva, T., Puhl, R. M., & Brownell, K. D. (2008). Changes in Perceived Weight Discrimination Among Americans, 1995-1996 through 2004-2006. *Obesity Research, 16*, 1129-1134.

Averett, S., and Korenman, S. (1996). The economic reality of the beauty myth. *The Journal of Human Resources, 31*, 304-329.

Bellizzi, J. A., & Hasty, R. W. (1998). Territory assignment decisions and supervising unethical selling behavior: The effects of obesity and gender as moderated by job-related factors. *The Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, 18*, 35-49.

Bellizzi, J. A., L., K. M., & Belonax, J. J. (1989). Stereotypical beliefs about overweight and smoking and decision making in assignments to sales territories. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 69*, 419-429.

Bellizzi, J. A., & Norvell, D. W. (1991). Personal characteristics and salesperson's justifications as moderators of supervisory discipline in cases involving unethical sales force behavior. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, 19*, 172-201.

Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2005). The personal costs of citizenship behavior: The relationship between employee conscientiousness and role overload, job stress, and work family conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 740-748.

Bolino, M. C., Turnley, W. H., Gilstrap, J. B., & Suazo, M. M., (2010). *Citizenship under pressure: What's a "Good Soldier" to do? Journal of Organizational Behavior, 31, 835-855.*

Bordieri, J. E., Drehemer, D.E., and Taylor, D.W. (1997). Work life for employees with disabilities: Recommendations for promotion. *Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, 40*, 181-191.

Borman, W. C., & Motowildo, S. J. (1997). Task performance and contextual performance: the meaning for personnel selection research. *Human Performance, 10*, 99-109.

Burke, L. A., and J.K. (2006). Using online surveys for primary research data collection: Lessons from the field. *International Journal of Innovation and Learning, 3*, 16-30.

Carli, L. L. (1999). Gender, interpersonal power, and social influence. *Journal of Social Issues, 55*, 81-99.

Carver, C. S., Scheier, M. F., & Weintraub, J. K. (1989). Assessing coping strategies: A theoretically based approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 56*, 267-283.

Cates, D. A., Mathis, C. J., & Randle, N. W. (2007). *The Relationships among Citizenship Pressure, Job Engagement, and Work-to-Family Enrichment.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management.

Clayson, D., and Klassen, M. (1989). Perceptions of attractiveness by obesity and hair color. *Perceptual and Motor Skills, 68*, 199-202.

Compas, B. E., Connor-Smith, J. K., Saltzman, H., Thomsen, A. H., & Wadsworth, M. E. (2001). Coping with stress during childhood and adolescence: Problems, progress, and potential in theory and research. *Pschological Bulletin, 127*, 87-127.

Crandall, C. S., D'Anello, S., Sakalli, N., Lazarus, E., Nejtardt, G. W., & Feather, N. T. (2001). An attribution-value model of prejudice: Anti-fat attitudes in six nations. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 27*, 30-37.

Crandall, C. S., & Martinez, R. (1996). Culture, ideology, and antifat attitudes.*, 22*, 1165-1176.

Diamond, J., Sawyer, K. B., Shih, S., Unzueta, M., & Slay, H. S. (2008). *Does workplace discrimination influence career outcomes? The importance of coping mechanisms.* Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management.

Dillman, D. A., and Tortora, R.D., and Bowker, D. (1999). Principles for constructing Web surveys Retrieved November 28, 2005, from http://survey.sesrc.wsu.edu/dillman/papers/websurveyppr.pdf

Finklestein, L. M., DeMuth, R. L. F., & Sweeney, D. L. (2007). Bias against overweight job applicants: More explorations of when and why. *Human Resource Management, 46*, 203-222.

Folkman, S. (1984). Personal control and stress and coping processes: A theoretical analysis. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 46*, 839-852.

Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1980). An analysis of coping in a middle-aged community sample. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior, 21*, 219-239.

Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1985). If it changes, it must be a process: Study of emotion and coping during three stages of a college examination process. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 48*, 150-170.

Foster, M. D. (2000). Positive and negative consequences to personal discrimination: Does coping make a difference? *Journal of Social Psychology, 140*, 93-106.

Gattiker, U. E., & Larwood, L. (1986). Subjective career success: A study of managers and support personal. *Journal of Business and Psychology, 1*, 78-94.

Harris, M. B., Harris, J., & Bochner, S. (1982). Fat, four-eyed, and female: Stereotypes of obesity, glasses, and gender. . *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 6*, 503-516.

Hebl, M. R., King, E. B., & Lin, J. (2004). The swimsuit becomes us all: Ethnicity, gender, and vulnerability to self-objectification. . *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 30*, 1322-1331.

Jackson, J. A. (2000). *Weight discrimination toward women in the workplace and the application of the American with Disabilities Act. .*

Jacobs, R., & Kozlowski, S. (1985). A closer look at halo error in performance ratings. *Academy of Management Journal, 28*, 201-212.

James, K., Lovato, C., & Cropanzano, R. (1994). Correlational and known-group comparison validation of a workplace prejudice/discrimination inventory. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 24*, 1573-1592.

Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Pucik, V., & Welbourne, T. M. (1999). Managerial coping with organizational change: A dispositional perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*, 107-122.

Kalisch, B. (1972). The stigma of obesity. *American Journal of Nursing, 72*, 124-127.

Keltner, D., Gruenfeld, D. H., & Anderson, C. (2003). Power, approach, and inhibition. *Psychological Review, 110*, 265-285.

Kennedy, D. B., & Homant, R. J. (1984). Personnel managers and the stigmatized employee. *Journal of Employment Counseling, 21*, 89-94.

Kotter, J. P. (1982). *The general managers.* New York: The Free Press.

Kutcher, E. J., & Bragger, J. D. (1999). Selection interviews of overweight job applicants: Can structure reduce the bias? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 34*, 1993-2022.

Larkin, J. C., & Pines, H. A. (1979). No fat persons need apply: Experimental studies of the overweight stereotype and hiring preference. *Sociology of Work and Occupations, 6*, 312-327.

Lazarus, R. S. (1966). *Psychological stress and the coping process.* New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lennon, S. (1992). Categorization as function of body type. *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 10*, 18-23.

Lerner, R., & Gillert, E. (1969). Body build identification, preference, and aversion in children. *Developmental Psychology, 1*, 456-462.

Maranto, C., & Stenoien, A. (2000). Weight discrimination: A multidisciplinary analysis. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 12*, 9-24.

National Center for Health Statistics (2007). *Health, United States.*

Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric Theory.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Organ, D. W. (1988). *Organizational Citizenship: The Good Soldier Syndrome.* Lexington, Mass.: D.C. Heath and Company.

Organ, D. W. (1997). Organizational citizenship behavior: It's construct clean-up time. *Human Performance, 10*, 85-97.

Orpen, C. (1995). The effects of perceived age discrimination on employee job satisfaction, organizational commitment and job involvement. *Psychology: A Journal of Human Behavior, 32*, 55-56.

Peluchette, J. (1993). Subjective career success: The influence of individual difference, family, and organizational variables. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 43*, 198-208.

Pfeffer, J. (1977). Effects of an MBA and socioeconomic origins on business school graduates' salaries. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 62*, 698-705.

Puhl, R. M., & Brownell, K. D. (2001). Bias, discrimination, and obesity. *Obesity Research, 9*, 788-805.

Puhl, R. M., & Brownell, K. D. (2006). Confronting and coping with weight stigma: An investigation of overweight and obese adults. *Obesity Reviews, 14*, 1802-1815.

Ragins, B. R., & Cornwell, J. M. (2001). Pink triangles: Antecedents and consequences of perceived workplace discrimination against gay and lesbian employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 1244-1261.

Ray, N., Griggs, K., & Tabor, S. (2001). Web-based survey research workshop.

Register, C. A., & Williams, D. R. (1990). Wage effects of obesity among young workers. *Social Science Quarterly, 71*, 130-141.

Roehling, M. V. (1999). Weight-based discrimination in employment: Psychological and Legal Aspects. *Personnel Psychology, 52*, 969-1016.

Roehling, M. V., Pichler, S., Oswald, F. L., & Bruce, T. (2008). *The effects of weight bias on job-related outcomes: A meta-analysis of experimental studies.* Paper presented at the Academy of Management Annual Meeting.

Roehling, M. V., Roehling, P. V., & Odland, M. (2008). Investigating the validity of stereotypes about overweight employees: The relationship between body weight and normal personality traits. *Group & Organization Management, 33*, 392-424.

Roehling, P. V., Roehling, M. V., Vandlen, J., Blazek, J., & Guy, W. (2008). *Perceived obesity among top CEOs: Weight discrimination and the "Glass Ceiling" effect.* Paper presented at the Academy of Management.

Rothblum, E. D., Miller, C. T., & Garbutt, B. (1988). Stereotypes of obese female job applicants. *International Journal of Eating Disorders, 7*, 277-283.

Sagas, M., & Cunningham, G. B. (2005). Racial differences in the career success of assistant football coaches: The role of discrimination, human capital and socal capital. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 35*, 773-797.

Sanchez, J., & Brock, P. (1996). Outcomes of perceived discrimination among Hispanic employees: Is diversity management a luxury or a necessity? *Academy of Management Journal, 39*, 704-719.

Sartore, M. L., & Cunningham, G. B. (2006). Weight discrimination, hiring recommendations, person-job fit and attributions: Implications for the fitness industry. *Journal of Sport Management, 21*, 172-193.

Shaffer, M. A., Joplin, J. R. W., Bell, M. P., Lau, T., & Qguz, C. (2000). Gender discrimination and job-related outcomes: A cross-cultural comparison of working women in the United States and China. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 57*, 395-427.

Shkolnikova, S. (2008). Weight discrimination could be as common as racial bias. Retrieved 01/03, 2009, from http://www.usatoday.com/news/health/weightloss/2008-05-20-overweight-bias_n.htm.

Snape, E., & Redman, T. (2003). Too old or too young? The impact of perceived age discrimination. *Human Resource Management Journal, 13*, 78-90.

Surrey (2005). How do I test whether a variable moderates the relationship between two variables? Retrieved December 5, 2005, from http://www.psy.surrey.ac.uk/cfs/p4.htm

Tsui, A., & O'Reilly, C. (1989). Beyond simple demographic effects: The importance of relational demography in superior-subordinate dyads. *Academy of Management Journal 32*, 402-423.

Vroom, V. H. (1964). *Work and motivation.* New York: Wiley.

Wilkins, V. N. (2006). *The Moderating Effect of Generalized Self-Efficacy on the Relationship between Perceived Weight Discrimination and Employee Attitudes and Behaviors.* Unpublished Dissertation Jackson State University, Jackson, MS.

COMMUNICATION PRACTICES OF CERTIFIED PUBLIC ACCOUNTANTS

M. Wayne Rollins, Middle Tennessee State University
Stephen D. Lewis, Middle Tennessee State University

ABSTRACT

Certified Public Accountants in the four largest metropolitan areas in Tennessee were surveyed to determine the frequency of specific communication channels they used for communicating both within and outside their firms. Usable returns were received from 134 individuals. Data analyses showed that CPAs continue to use traditional communication channels such as written documents and telephone calls. Electronic mail is used frequently; however, many of the "latest" technologies are seldom if ever used by CPAs. For example, the vast majority of respondents indicated they never use Facebook, LinkedIn, Twitter, and chat rooms. Only a few significant differences were found when data were compared by gender, age, education level achieved, and number of employees in the firm.

INTRODUCTION

Rapidly evolving technology has revolutionized the way many businesspeople communicate. Business letters, memorandums, and telephone calls, once a staple means of communicating in business, today have almost become passé in some companies. Time and space considerations no longer seem relevant. Instantaneous interaction via the Internet means questions can be answered and information can be provided at a moment's notice. Business meetings involving two or even multiple individuals may be conducted without any of the participants leaving their offices, thus saving some companies untold thousands of dollars in travel costs. Likewise, businesses may realize substantial savings in supplies and storage costs since so many documents can be created, distributed, and stored electronically. But are all segments of business enthusiastic about various communication technologies and their applications to them personally or professionally? For example, is the technology popular among marketing managers but not so popular among more conservative business sectors, such as finance or accounting? Specifically, do Certified Public Accountants, many of whom are typically conservative by nature, use the latest technologies when communicating externally with clients or internally with associates?

Despite what might be the popular perception, Certified Public Accountants are not simply number crunchers. The CalCPA Education Foundation (2011) underscores the fact that CPAs are constantly in communication with other people, and communicating effectively can

help them develop and expand client relationships as well as become recognized as experts in their field.

Garen (2007) cited significant opportunities available for CPAs to modernize their communications. "The Internet has changed how CPAs and accounting firms do everything, from communicating with clients to hiring and retaining employees" (para. 2). He notes that technology has eliminated the need for hiring all employees locally. Employees are able to perform many of their assignments while living in locations distant from the company's office. Hood (2010) provided examples pertinent to CPAs and the accounting profession in general regarding technology's impact on communication. Working with AICPA leaders and staff, he helped develop a set of questions germane to accountants in 2010. One question, in particular, related to technology: "How do we balance member needs and business realities when using technology to our competitive advantage" (question 8)? Indeed, are there special situations where selecting the right communication technology is important or even critical?

Communication was mentioned frequently by CPAs responding to an online survey about what respondents suggested they should do more often with clients (Telburg, 2007). Not surprisingly, respondents advocated more contact with clients and better listening to client needs. Perhaps somewhat surprising, especially for the current era, was that telephone calls and face-to-face communications were mentioned but no explicit references were made to communication technology.

CPAs as well as other business professionals must utilize their communication and technology skills if they are to be successful. Brelsford (n.d.) emphasizes the importance of professionals communicating their differences from potential competitors. He further stresses the importance of CPAs using websites to communicate their services since "over 70% of adults begin their search for local services by searching the Internet" (para. 6).

Communication skills are essential for individuals seeking to become CPAs. The South Dakota CPA Society (n.d.) recommends on the "Students" page of its website that students become proficient communicators, both in writing and speaking. Knowing that CPAs must interact with clients, employers, associates, and various organizations and government entities, students whose goals include becoming a CPA are encouraged to hone their written and oral communication abilities. The Society stresses the importance of good listening skills since CPAs spend substantial time interacting with one or more individuals. Similarly, students are encouraged to perfect their technology skills as a means of progressing within the profession.

Garen (2007) stated that, despite its benefits, Internet access is still not accepted by all accounting firms. ". . . much like the green eyeshade and the quill pen, these firms will soon become relics of a nostalgic past" (para. 17). Of course, contemporary technology extends well beyond the Internet. As businesses become more global in nature, technology will play a major role in their operations. Results of this study should shed light on current communication practices of CPAs.

Watkins (2005) observed that requirements of the Sarbanes-Oxley Act have resulted in Certified Public Accountants ". . .making more oral and written presentations than ever before to more diverse groups, including audit committees and department gatherings" (para. 1). She emphasized the importance of CPAs having good writing and speaking skills and how these skills impact the perceptions of those people with whom they must interact. This research sought to determine how contemporary CPAs communicate orally and in writing to various stakeholders.

PURPOSE

Recognizing the necessity for effective communication in all types of businesses and at all levels within business, this study was conducted to discover how today's Certified Public Accountants communicate. More specifically, the purpose of this research was to determine the extent to which various communication channels are currently used by practicing CPAs and to identify the frequency that certain communication channels are used by CPAs to communicate both externally and internally.

METHODOLOGY

Current telephone directories were acquired for the four largest metropolitan regions in Tennessee, which included the Greater Chattanooga, Knoxville, Memphis, and Nashville areas. The researchers assumed that all viable CPA firms in those cities would have a telephone listing in the yellow pages. A total of 759 CPA firms or individuals were listed in the yellow pages of the four directories (C = 165, K = 126, M = 216, N = 252). Consultation with a statistician revealed that a minimum of 100 responses would be necessary to ensure representativeness. A list was developed with all firms included, and a systematic sample was taken with every third firm chosen to receive the survey. This resulted in a sample of 253 firms (C = 55, K = 42, M = 72, N = 84). The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board at the researchers' institution.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire was developed consisting of 31 statements related to channels CPAs might use to communicate within and outside their firms. Survey respondents were asked to indicate the frequency with which they communicated using each of the methods. The frequency of choices for each communication channel included *never, yearly, quarterly, monthly, weekly, and daily*. Individual demographic information was also requested. The survey instrument was mailed to three local CPAs for completion to determine if instructions and statements were clear. No issues were identified with the questionnaire.

Procedure

In an effort to maximize the number of responses, telephone calls were made to each of the 253 selected firms asking that a CPA complete and return the questionnaire. Several firms employed multiple CPAs and were asked to have more than one person complete a survey. A few firms had as many as three individuals who agreed to participate. Participants were given the choice of receiving the questionnaire by U.S. Mail, e-mail, or fax. Those who chose U.S. Mail were sent a questionnaire with a postage-paid return envelope. Telephone contacts and questionnaire mailings were completed in November 2010 through January 2011. Usable surveys were received from 134 CPAs. Statistical analyses of the data were completed using Minitab software.

FINDINGS

Table 1 presents the demographic data for all respondents. Interestingly, male CPAs outnumbered women CPAs by more than two to one; and approximately 70% were 41 years old or older. For the vast majority the highest education level attained was a bachelor's degree (85 or 64%), and respondents holding either a bachelor's and/or master's degree accounted for fully 95% of the total. Perhaps expectedly, the largest segment of firms employed only 1-3 people, and more than half employed 10 or fewer people. Quite amazingly, 13 firms (10%) employed over 100 people.

Table 1. Demographics of Respondents (N/%)*							
Gender	Female	Male	Total				
	40 (30%)	93 (70%)	133[a]				
Age	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	Over 60	Total	
	11 (8%)	30 (23%)	28 (21%)	37 (28%)	27 (20%)	133[b]	
Highest Degree Received	High School	Associate	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctorate	Total	
	2 (2%)	3 (2%)	85 (64%)	42 (31%)	1 (1%)	133[c]	
Number of Employees	1-3	4-10	11-25	26-50	51-100	Over 100	Total
	44 (33%)	23 (18%)	30 (23%)	19 (14%)	3 (2%)	13 (10%)	132[d]
*All percentages are rounded.							
[a]One respondent did not indicate gender.							
[b]One respondent did not indicate age.							
[c]One respondent did not indicate highest degree received.							
[d]Two respondents did not indicate number of employees.							

Table 2 provides statistics for communication tasks that respondents complete on a daily basis. A chi-square contingency test for each of the five statements in Table 2 showed a Z-value significant at the 0.001 level when testing the hypothesis that a majority of the population performed the tasks daily. The 95% Lower Bound provides the lower limit of the actual

population percentage. Interestingly, for *writing/receiving e-mails to/from persons outside your business/office*, 120 of 132 survey respondents indicated that they performed this task daily. Sample percentages (Sample p) for the five statements ranged from 64% for *providing feedback to co-workers, subordinates, or supervisors* to 91% for *writing/receiving e-mails to/from persons outside the business office*.

Table 2. Communication Tasks CPAs Complete on a Daily Basis						
Communication Activity	X	N	Sample p	95% Lower Bound	Z-Value	P-Value
Writing/receiving e-mails to/from persons outside your business/office	120	132	0.909091	0.867934	9.40	0.000
Writing/receiving e-mails to/from persons within your business/office	94	131	0.717557	0.652860	4.98	0.000
Listening to co-workers, subordinates, or supervisors	104	133	0.781955	0.723062	6.50	0.000
Providing feedback to co-workers, subordinates, or supervisors	86	134	0.641791	0.573661	3.28	0.000
Answering voice mail	109	134	0.813433	0.758078	7.26	0.000

A vast majority of the respondents cited seven communication activities from the survey that they *never* complete. Table 3 displays the results of the chi-square contingency test for the seven activities. The most dramatic responses resulted from statements regarding *twittering clients* and *twittering colleagues/subordinates/superiors*. Sample percentages for those activities were 99% and 98%, respectively. Z-values for all seven items indicated significance at the 0.000 level.

Table 3. Communication Tasks CPAs Never Complete						
Communication Activity	X	N	Sample p	95% Lower Bound	Z-Value	P-Value
Twittering clients	130	131	0.992366	0.979858	11.27	0.000
Twittering colleagues/subordinates/superiors	130	132	0.984848	0.967360	11.14	0.000
Using Facebook or other social networking tools for business purposes	107	132	0.810606	0.754511	7.14	0.000
Using LinkedIn to exchange information with colleagues/customers/clients	88	132	0.666667	0.599178	3.83	0.000
Using a chat room to obtain information from colleagues	124	132	0.939394	0.905234	10.10	0.000
Using a message board to obtain information from colleagues	116	132	0.878788	0.832062	8.70	0.000
Writing/speaking to individuals in another country/culture	94	134	0.701493	0.636470	4.66	0.000

No significant differences were found when frequencies of communication tasks were compared by gender. However, when certain frequencies were combined, significant differences were noted. For example, daily and weekly frequencies were combined for responses to *using Facebook or other social networking tools*, which resulted in a significant difference with men being more likely to use those tools for business purposes ($Z = 2.02$, P-Value = 0.044). Similar results were observed for *leading group meetings*, which showed men more likely to participate in this task on a quarterly or yearly basis ($Z = 2.70$, P-Value = 0.007. Data showed that women write significantly more reports when daily and weekly frequencies are combined ($Z = 2.06$, P-Value = 0.039).

As was found when communication task frequencies were compared by gender, likewise no significant differences were found when the data were analyzed by education level attained; but also as with gender, combining education level categories did show significant differences. For instance, CPAs with a master's degree or higher were more likely to write proposals to prospective clients than were those with bachelor's degrees or less ($Z = 2.00$, P-Value = 0.001). Those with a master's degree or higher were more likely to *lead group meetings* when meetings were held monthly or less often ($Z = 3.54$, P-Value = 0.000); they were also more likely to *participate in group meetings* held daily or weekly (P-Value = 0.013). Finally, CPAs with a master's degree or higher were more likely to *use teleconferencing or video conferencing* on a yearly basis ($Z = 2.23$, P-Value = 0.026), and spent more time *listening on a daily or weekly basis to co-workers, subordinates, or supervisors* than did those with a bachelor's degree or less (P-Value = 0.005).

REFERENCES

Brelsford, B. (n.d.). 9 marketing mistakes CPAs, accountants, and attorneys make. Professional Services Marketing Blog. Retrieved February 22, 2011, from http://www.rebarbusinessbuilders.com/2009/05/9-marketing-mistakes-cpas-accountants-and-attorneys-make/#comment-3933.

CalCPA Education Foundation. (2011, February). Beyond the numbers. Retrieved February 22, 2011, from http://www.calcpa.org/Content/yourcareer/numbers.aspx.

Garen, K. (2007, May). The Internet: revolutionizing how CPAs do business. *The CPA Journal* [online]. Retrieved February 22, 2011, from http://www.nysscpa.org/cpajournal/2007/507/perspectives/p12.htm.

Horn, T. (2010). Ten powerful questions for the CPA profession in 2010. Ledgerlink. Retrieved February 22, 2011, from http://ledgerlink.monster.com/benefits/articles/524-ten-powerful-questions-for-the-cpa-profession-in-2010.

South Dakota CPA Society. (n.d.). Retrieved February 22, 2011, from http://www.sdcpa.org/displaycommon.cfm?an=4.

Telberg, R. (2007, July). What do clients want? Mostly, "more." *AICPA Store*. Retrieved February 22, 2011, from http://www.cpa2biz.com/Content/media/PRODUCER_CONTENT/Newsletters/Articles_2007/CPA/July/want_more.jsp.

Watkins, K. (2005, April). Will they throw eggs: How to speak with professionalism and pizzazz. *Journal of Accountancy*. http://www.journalofaccountancy.com/Issues/2005/Apr/WillTheyThrowEggs, Retrieved 2/25/11.

THE PARADOX OF FOSTERING INDEPENDENCE THROUGH DEPENDENCE

Susan Sze, Niagara University
Peter Alexander Cowden, Niagara University

ABSTRACT

Self-dependence is a term that seems contradictory or absurd but in reality expresses a possible truth. Independence is a set of points along a dependency continuum where people strive to achieve. Different points on the dependency scale reflect different levels of independence. The less dependent a person is, the higher up the scale, therefore, the more independent and more freedom one perceives. This article examines this concept of conflict in relation to those who are of special need. Through this article it is hoped that a better understanding of how those involved in the culture of special needs individuals can better understand their needs through an understanding of conflicting yet meaningful terms.

Key Words:

Culture of Special Education, Communications and conflict, Self Dependency, Independence

INTRODUCTION

Paradoxes which are not based on a hidden error generally happen at the fringes of context or *language,* and require extending the context or language to lose their paradoxical quality (Merriam-Webster, 2010). Self-dependence is a term which cannot be consistently interpreted as true or false (Sze & Cowden, 2009). If it is known to be false then it is known that it must be true, and if it is known to be true then it is known that it must be false. This paper hopes to study the nature of this contradictory phenomenon. Therefore, it can be concluded that it is *unknowable* (Merriam-Webster, 2010).

BACKGROUND

Self-dependence is a term that seems contradictory or absurd but in reality expresses a possible truth. People with disabilities were viewed as abnormal forty years ago (Longmore, 2009). They were institutionalized rather than being able to go to school and take part in recreational activities (Kleinhammer-Tramill, Tramill, Brace, 2010). Society has changed since

then and wants teachers to foster independence. Individuals should take a lot of what society has done to heart. If it weren't for society changing their view on students with disabilities and their "definitions" it is unsure where these students would have been placed today. It is possible that most people would all know someone who would have been "institutionalized" forty years ago.

Independence is a set of points along a dependency continuum where people strive to achieve. Different points on the dependency scale reflect different levels of independence. The less dependent a person is, the higher up the scale, therefore, the more independent and more freedom one perceives. This is especially true with those with disabilities who live in a country which has laws that support the journey towards independence.

An example of this is the American with Disabilities Act (ADA) of 1990 brought about a definition that incorporates all individuals with disabilities. This act provides individuals with disabilities to not be discriminated against in public life (Zirkel, 2009). Those that are included under the ADA are individuals with physical, cognitive, psychological, or behavioral conditions that interfere with one or more daily activities. Not only are people with disabilities protected under ADA, but individuals are also protected in regards to race, gender, national origin, and religion. The ADA extends civil rights and nondiscrimination protection to some sectors of the American life (Zirkel, 2009). For example, transportation, employment, government activities/programs, etc. are all covered to protect individuals with disabilities under the ADA. The ADA is similarly defined to Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act; however Section 504 includes protection in public schools, while the ADA extends the protection out to private schools as well.

Thankfully, in America, disabilities are more widely accepted today, and laws such as the ADA have been developed to aid in the process of acceptance by protecting those individual rights. Without this act, it is possible that the public would still frown upon people with disabilities as they have in the past. The ADA lessens this kind of attitude and makes people with disabilities feel welcome and wanted. It allows their dependency to be seen as normal and just within the context of the new societal norms.

Without assistance or the dependence on the appropriate services to help them, how will they ever be able to get to the independence point on the dependency scale they seek? If we truly want people with disabilities to live an independent life, we must recognize where they fit on the dependency scale and strive to assist them to be able to move up the scale toward greater independence.

WHAT IS SELF- DEPENDENCY?

Self-dependency can be defined as being able to do any task on one's own. When one is self-dependent, they are able to rely on one's own and realize that at any given opportunity one will not have to depend on someone or something else to help complete a given task (Christensen, 2009). When someone is self-dependent, they have that freedom and ability to not

need outside assistance. Generally, self-dependent people are able to assist and volunteer their time and services to help those who are in need (Egilson & Traustadottir, 2009).

Factors Society Plays

There are different types of population who are unable to meet a specific need to successfully carry out their life. According to Barr and Bracchitta (2008), society does not keep people with disabilities from participating and becoming involved in society. This may be perceived as true in a society with laws protecting individuals with disabilities. People with disabilities may have some control over their participation and involvement in society. On the other hand, they may lack opportunities, or the skills they need to participate. This means that the skills may not have been taught. There are some factors that society plays in restraining people with disabilities to participate in different activities (Dowse, 2009).

Self-Dependence through Multiple Lenses

Rothman, Maldonado and Rothman (2008) pointed out that people who face adversity due to disabilities may often feel as though they have to be self-dependent across all domains of their life. As advocates for those individuals, it is important to look through the "multiple lenses" in which they may experience issues and struggles with attaining self-independence. A person's disability does not stop at the physical and/or often visibly seen impact of their disability (Schmidt, & Smith, 2007). For example, an individual in a wheelchair may not only want others to see them as being able to engage in physical activities independently through the help of modifications, but may also want those around them to see their wheelchair not as a barrier to academic, social, and psychological opportunities and experiences.

Sze and Cowden (2009) asserted that it is important for professionals working with individuals with disabilities to be cognizant of the issue of self-dependence and how it permeates all aspects of life. This is likely best attained by just asking an individual with a disability what areas of life they feel independent and what that means to them in their daily life. Ask them how they wished to be looked at by others, and specifically what they would like others to understand about their independence. Additionally, they should be asked when they do need some assistance from others to gain as much self-dependence as possible.

Throughout many societies, people with disabilities have been regarded differently. There are many views on people with disabilities. One outdated or a minority view is identified as the moral model. People who have this belief think that a disability is a punishment. They may feel that people who have a disability are demon possessed or impure. They may choose to institutionalize people who have a disability. This brings ignorance, fear, and/or prejudice towards those who have a disability or even those people who have a son or daughter who has a disability. The fear felt leads to people hiding the truth and feeling ashamed (Parsons, Lewis, &

Ellins, 2009). Some people believe that a disability is simply a pre-existing medical condition. Although in some instances that may be true, a disability cannot always be cured. Sometimes this leads to a person with a disability being over medicated. They have the view that people with disabilities are sometimes excused from the normal obligations of society (Shah, 2007). This holds a person with a disability at a disadvantage because they are never expected to strive for high expectations.

ISSUES WITH INDEPENDENCE IN STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

Beaulieu (2008) suggested that students with disabilities are made to feel that they must be dependent on others to succeed. They do not understand how to face situations on their own, or think for themselves. They become helpless. There are many areas that students need assistance in and if addressed correctly, students with disabilities can move from being dependent to independent. Accommodations are put in place and assistive technology may be used (Sze & Cowden, 2009). Individual Education Plan (IEP)s are established with reachable goals for students with disabilities. There has been numerous accommodation made for individuals to be able to participate and interact independently in society (Knight and Oliver, 2007). For example, ski resorts offer adaptive skiing for those who may not have the use of their limbs. Also, transition plans are put in place to assist students in preparing for the future. Societies that provide for those with disabilities have made it so that individuals can achieve regardless of their disability.

The stigma that society has placed on disabilities has made it difficult for those with disabilities to fully embrace independence. Due to this stigma, society has made the assumption that people who have an identified disability will lack productivity, pose as a safety concern or cost companies extra money for accommodations/accessibility. According to Moir & Alexander (2008), society views people with disabilities a certain way but it needs to be realized that their views on disabilities is the cause for the taboo. The disability itself does not cause the discrimination, it is the stigma that does. Those who have an identified disability have the right to be independent. Some disabilities prevent some to be less independent because of the care they require, but they still should have the same right. Society does not have the right to determine or label those who they think can succeed being independent or not. This stigma will only change if people extend more opportunities to those who have disabilities and let them be more independent (Bianco, Garrison-Wade, Tobin, & Lehmann, 2009). It is not fair that they get discriminated against, when they have no choice in the matter. Society needs to foster independence in individuals with disabilities and can start by lifting the stigma.

Society's perception of an individual with a disability does not change the fact that the individual has a disability. The fact that an individual has a disability is a trait in which he/she has come to know as a characteristic of their life. A disability does not define an individual. In fact, it has the ability to make them unique (Petalas, Hastings, Nash, Dowey, & Reilly (2009).

Normalizing a disability prevents oneself from learning and thinking openly. It is better to think about incorporating individuals with a disability, rather than excluding them which often times leads to them feeling as if they are being "singled- out" in society. Tufan (2008) stated that the more severe the disability the harder it is for the individual with a disability to make a decision for themselves. This is why disabilities needs to be understood and accepted rather than categorize them into a subgroup of society that does not allow them to function as an equal member of the community. Even though society recognizes the disability, it is important that society allow those individuals whom may have a disability to live and function like a person without a disability. As members of society, people need to educate themselves and become aware of the needs of individuals with disabilities so an environment can be created which is welcoming and understanding, not one which excludes individuals.

The wheelchair is an example of assistive technology that is designed to compensate a person with mobility difficult. The use of a wheelchair emphasizes the medical model (Judge, Floyd, & Jeff, 2008). The equipped wheelchair aids in the person with mobility difficulty the ability to be independent.

Complimenting this medical model is the social model which provides services to allow the medical accommodations to occur. In the case of the wheelchair, the society mandates a ramp constructed to accommodate the person with disability. The wheelchair ramp relates to the use of the social model, where as the society acts in reaction as well as to the acceptance of the disability (Parette, Blum, & Boeckmann, 2009). When the wheelchair and ramp are both in use the independency and accommodation of the person with disability will be met.

Accommodation deals with how individuals with disabilities can be aided in order to become more independent and less helpless (Egan & Giuliano, 2009). One stigma that is associated with accommodations that is will cause a lack of drive and ambition, thus causing a person to become motivationally challenged. This is not a desirable trait to learn or teach. Another point to make is that there are views that are overlooked when a disability arises. If a disability is not acknowledged, then the presence of the accommodation is not needed and appreciated. Salend (2008) pointed out that research needs to be done in order to correctly diagnose a disability to then aide in the assistance of the individual to become more independent and less dependent upon others.

People with little understanding about individuals with disabilities may feel sorry for people in wheelchairs or people who are missing limbs (Hodkinson, 2007). It is vital for people to accept others for who they are. People need to focus on their own lives and let others live their own lives. Sometimes people who are trying to do favors for others are really hurting their ability to function on their own, and are enabling learned helplessness. This statement is true for people with disabilities. Many individuals with disabilities feel comfortable with what life has handed them and they have high self-esteem (Sze & Hau, 2007). It is important for people to be aware that many people with disabilities have come to terms with the way their life has turned out, and have positive emotions about it.

Dependency management: Towards greater independence

Students who are given clear, concise directions and expectations are very successful. Students need to be taught, have the opportunity to practice, and see good modeling of the self-management skills that are expected from them (Hume, Loftin, & Lantz, 2009). Students are able to ask for help and ask questions when they are told to do so. Anger management skills are something that one sees on a daily basis in the classroom. The students with anger management need to work with a counselor on a weekly basis, take field trips together as a group, practice strategies that improve their reaction in tough situations, and have been praised by faculty when they handle their feelings appropriately. These students are successful when they are given the appropriate plan of action in these situations and practiced the appropriate reaction. According to Joseph & Konrad (2009), students that are unable to self-manage, often give up when they are confused. However, if the services provided and teachers are clear, then students will feel more comfortable and confident in themselves. They will be able to work and be successful. Teachers need to teach students self-management skills, allow them opportunity to practice these skills, and be good role models. These strategies will allow students to become more independent and continue to learn. One example is not building a ramp to go into a building or by not being invited. Focus needs to be placed on these people's strengths and teach them how to be dependent so that society cannot say that people with disabilities depend on them anymore. In a way, it is society's fault why some people with disabilities are not participating and involved with society. Reichle, Dropik, Alden-Anderson, & Haley (2008) asserted that independence looks different for each person with a disability and it is built over time with small steps. Each person's self-help skills are strengthened through their interactions with others who encourage them. It is important to help the "dependent" person feel a sense of accomplishment and help them build upon their successes (Schreiner, 2007). The ultimate goal when working with individuals with disabilities is to assist them in becoming independent. All members of society, to some degree, are dependent on others when making choices.

When people are dependent on others, such as a man who needs help getting from his wheelchair to the toilet, additional challenges are created for family members or staff who work with him. Unfortunately, a lack of independence can occur across all ages and disabilities, therefore it is very important to encourage independence from the beginning. To avoid being struck by a car, an individual that chooses to cross a busy roadway outside the crosswalk is depending on the driver of an oncoming vehicle to make the choice to slow down. The annoyed driver is not aware that the pedestrian is attempting to reach the bus stop as the bus is quickly approaching. Taking the chance to cross the road outside the designated crosswalk is based on the individuals' self-confidence to cross quickly without stumbling; and the past experience of receiving courtesy from other drivers. Although society attempts to create a barrier free environment (Boen, 2009), wheelchair ramps are incorporated into the crosswalks. If an

individual is wheelchair bound or otherwise restricted in quickly crossing a busy street; that person will have to wait for the next bus. A person with severe physical disabilities is dependant of the sidewalk ramps at the corner crosswalks. Thus, limiting the person with severe disabilities from gathering the meaningful experience (albeit through a dangerous choice) of crossing in front of moving cars that will yield the right away.

Although the person with the disability is unable to quickly cross the street, the support of the individual may be dependent on other bus riders to alert the bus driver to wait for the person with the disability. The person with the disability is receiving the support of the other riders, in turn, avoiding a missed ride. In today's fast paced society, maintaining a schedule is important to most. The irony in today's society is if a person without disabilities upsets other car drivers as he/she frantically crosses a street to catch the bus, most likely other bus riders will not recognize the individual's intentions and not receive the same support as an individual with a disability.

CONCLUSION

Social attitudes towards dependent students vary greatly. It appears that the variation in these attitudes might, in some cases, be related to levels of education and awareness, geographic and socio-economic factors, and cultural and/or societal influences. Those who are most informed regarding the abilities and needs of individuals with disabilities are most likely those who will approach them with support and encouragement and engage them with strategies and behaviors that will enable and encourage them to move from dependence to greater independence. At the opposite end of the spectrum, there are those who are lacking in self-awareness, knowledge and/or empathy regarding the needs of others, specifically those who are dependent due to their disabilities. These people will most likely become uncomfortable and/or fearful when in the presence of those dependent persons and, as a result, treat them with insensitivity, ridicule, and possibly malice or contempt. Most people, however, will fall in the middle of this continuum of the understanding and perception of dependent persons. They will often feel the desire to "do the right thing" or be "politically correct" and to treat those with disabilities with respect and empathy (or sympathy). Yet, often, their actions, while well-intended, may either serve to keep those individuals in a static position or hinder their chances and efforts towards a more independent lifestyle. Thus, it appears that perception or stigma of disability continues to be a great barrier to independence and participation in the community for those with disabilities.

REFERENCES

Barr, J., & Bracchitta, K. (2008). Effects of Contact With Individuals With Disabilities: Positive Attitudes and Majoring in Education. *Journal of Psychology,* 142(3), 225-244.

Beaulieu, A. (2008). Secondary Special Education Students' Perceptions of Self-Advocacy Instruction. Dissertation Abstracts International Section A, 68.

Bianco, M., Garrison-Wade, D., Tobin, R., & Lehmann, J. (2009). Parents' Perceptions of Postschool Years For Young Adults with Developmental Disabilities. *Intellectual And Developmental Disabilities*, 47(3), 186-196.

Boen, J. (2009, February 4). Fifth Freedom Helps People Gain Independence: Nonprofit Group Works to Remove Barriers for People with Disabilities. News-Sentinel, The (Fort Wayne, IN).

Christensen, K. (2009). In(ter)dependent lives. *Scandinavian Journal of Disability Research*, 11(2), 117-130.

Cowden, P. (in press, 2010). Teaching reading skills to students with mild educational handicaps. *Education,* 131 (1),

Dowse, L. (2009). 'Some People Are Never Going To Be Able To Do That'. Challenges for People with Intellectual Disability in the 21st Century. *Disability & Society,* 24(5), 571-584.

Egan, P., & Giuliano, T. (2009). Unaccommodating Attitudes: Perceptions of Students as a Function of Academic Accommodation Use and Test Performance. *North American Journal of Psychology*, 11(3), 487-500

Egilson, S., & Traustadottir, R. (2009). Assistance to Pupils with Physical Disabilities in Regular Schools: Promoting Inclusion or Creating Dependency? *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 24(1), 21-36.

Hodkinson, A. (2007). Inclusive Education and the Cultural Representation of Disability and Disabled People: Recipe For Disaster or Catalyst For Change? An Examination of Non-Disabled Primary School Children's Attitudes to Children with Disabilities. *Research in Education*, (77), 56-76.

Hume, K., Loftin, R., & Lantz, J. (2009). Increasing Independence in Autism Spectrum Disorders: A Review of Three Focused Interventions. *Journal of Autism & Developmental Disorders*, 39(9), 1329-1338.

Joseph, L., & Konrad, M. (2009). Have Students Self-Manage Their Academic Performance. Intervention in School & Clinic, 44(4), 246-249.

Judge, S., Floyd, K., & Jeffs, T. (2008). Using an Assistive Technology Toolkit to Promote Inclusion. *Early Childhood Education Journal,* 36(2), 121-126.

Kleinhammer-Tramill, J., Tramill, J., & Brace, H. (2010). Contexts, Funding History, and Implications for Evaluating the Office of Special Education Program's Investment in Personnel Preparation. *Journal of Special Education*, 43(4), 195-205.

Knight, A., & Oliver, C. (2007). Advocacy for Disabled Children and Young People: Benefits and Dilemmas. *Child & Family Social Work,* 12(4), 417-425.

Longmore, P. (2009). Making Disability an Essential Part of American History. *OAH Magazine of History*, 23(3), 11-15.

Merriam-Webster (2010). Merriam-Webster online dictionary. Retrieved from http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/paradox February 15, 2010.

Moir, V., & Alexander, T. (2008). Kicking Out 'Kicking Off': A Debate On Respectful Terminology. *Learning Disability Practice,* 11(10), 34-37.

Parette, H., Blum, C., & Boeckmann, N. (2009). Evaluating Assistive Technology in Early Childhood Education: The Use of a Concurrent Time Series Probe Approach. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 37(1), 5-12.

Parsons, S., Lewis, A., & Ellins, J. (2009). The views and experiences of parents of children with Autistic Spectrum Disorder about educational provision: Comparisons with parents of children with other disabilities from an online survey. *European Journal of Special Needs Education*, 24(1), 37-58.

Petalas, M., Hastings, R., Nash, S., Dowey, A., & Reilly, D. (2009). "I Like That He Always Shows Who He Is": The Perceptions and Experiences of Siblings with a Brother with Autism Spectrum Disorder. *International Journal of Disability,* Development & Education, 56(4), 381-399.

Reichle, J., Dropik, P., Alden-Anderson, E., & Haley, T. (2008). Teaching a Young Child WithAutism to Request Assistance Conditionally: A Preliminary Study. *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*, 17(3), 231-240.

Rothman, T., Maldonado, J., & Rothman, H. (2008). Building Self-Confidence and Future Career Success Through a Pre-College Transition Program for Individuals with Disabilities. *Journal of Vocational Rehabilitation,* 28(2), 73-83.

Salend, S. (2008). Determining Appropriate Testing Accommodations. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 40(4), 14-22.

Schmidt, M., & Smith, D. (2007). Individuals with Disabilities Perceptions on Preparedness for the Workforce and Factors that Limit Employment. *Work*, 28(1), 13-21.

Schreiner, M. (2007). Effective Self-Advocacy: What Students and Special Educators Need to Know. *Intervention in School & Clinic,* 42(5), 300-384.

Shah, S. (2007). Special or mainstream? The views of disabled students. *Research Papers in Education,* 22(4), 425-442.

Sze, S., & Cowden, P. (2010). Dependency Scale. Unpublished manuscript.

Sze, S., & Cowden, P. (2009). Assistive Technology in Special Education and Rehabilitation. *University Readers.*

Sze, S., & Cowden, P. (2009). *Educational Resources for Special Needs: 300 Inclusive Activities.* Pearson Merrill Publishing.

Sze, S., & Cowden, P. (2009). *What about My Child?* Trafford Publishing. Victoria: BC.

Sze, S., & Hau, K,T. (2007). What do we know about Self-Concepts and Children with Disabilities. Oklahoma Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 14(1), 46-48.

Tufan, İ. (2008). Prejudices Against, and Social Responsibilities Towards the Disabled.*Social Behavior & Personality: An International Journal*, 36(1), 67-75.

Zirkel, P. (2009). Legal Eligibility of Students with Learning Disabilities: Consider Not Only RTI But Also § 504. *Learning Disability Quarterly*, 32(2), 51-53.

Zirkel, P. (2009). What Does the Law Say? *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 41(4), 68-71.

AN EMPIRICAL EXAMINATION OF FACTORS AFFECTING THE INCOMES OF GAY MEN

Robin Church, Ryerson University

ABSTRACT

Numerous studies have demonstrated that gay men earn less than their heterosexual counterparts. This study explores some the factors associated with the incomes of gay men in the United States and tests some of the previously suggested explanations for the income disparity. This study found that age and education were strong predictors of the incomes of gay men. Controlling for age and education, gay men's incomes were inversely related to the proportion of gay men and lesbians coworkers. Although gay men's incomes were positively correlated with legislative protection and organizations policies and practices supportive of gay and lesbian employees and negatively correlated with perceived discrimination, their effects were not significant after controlling for age and education.

INTRODUCTION

Numerous studies have demonstrated that gay men earn less than their heterosexual counterparts (e.g. Allegretto & Arthur, 2001; Badgett 1995; Berg & Lien, 2002; Carpenter, 2004, 2005, 2008a, 2008b; Heller Clain & Leppel, 2001). These studies report gay men earn 2.4 to 22 percent less than similarly qualified heterosexual men and lesbians earn 3 to 30 percent more than similarly qualified heterosexual women. The mixed findings, in particular the results for lesbians, would suggest that there are a number of factors affecting income in addition to, or in conjunction with, discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation. These studies typically control for age, ethnicity, educational attainment, experience, organizational size, and job and organizational tenure. Researchers have offered a number of possible contributing factors to these income disparity findings. These factors include sexual orientation discrimination (Badgett, 1995), the greater likelihood that gay men work in traditionally female occupations (Blandford, 2003), or other as-yet unobserved labor-market traits (Zavodny, 2008). These studies compare gay men to their heterosexual counterparts rather than exploring factors affecting the range of incomes of gay men. Although determining the factors that affect lesbian's incomes is important, this study focuses on the factors that affect gay men's incomes.

Blandford (2003) suggests that some gay men may choose to work in traditionally female dominated occupations, or in organizations with a greater proportion of women. The incomes of both men and women has been shown to be inversely related to the proportion of women in that job (Elvira & Graham, 2002; England, Farkas, Kilbourne & Dou, 1988; Sorensen, 1990). Gay

men may choose these occupations or organizations because women, compared to men, tend to hold more positive attitudes toward gay men (Herek, 1988; Herek & Capitano, 1996). Gay men may also choose to work in occupations or organizations that employ greater numbers of other gay men and lesbians. Organizations with larger numbers of women and gay men and lesbians have been described as "safe havens" for gay men (Ragins, 2004). Within these "safe havens", gay men report do less discrimination. There is some evidence that gay men constrain their career choices in an attempt to avoid discrimination and other manifestations of heterosexism (Chung, 2001; Morrow, Gore & Campbell, 1996). This study assesses whether working in organizations with larger proportions of women and other gay men and lesbians is associated with lower incomes for gay men. This study will also assess whether gay men's incomes are associated with other manifestations of heterosexism.

Heterosexism

Heterosexism has been defined as valuing heterosexuality as superior to and/or more natural or normal than gay and lesbian sexual orientations (Morin, 1977). Heterosexism includes a much broader range of discrimination than homophobia The distinction is critical because it focuses on heterosexual privilege and draws attention to the constancy of the experience and not just episodic harassment or violence (Herek & Berrill, 1992). An analogy exists with racist behaviors which may be a result of fear or aversion or may be based on self-interests, beliefs, group norms or social institutions (Allport, 1954). As with racism or sexism, heterosexism may refer to the behaviors of individual or to institutions. Examples of institutionalized organizational heterosexism include the lack of policies that prohibit discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation and failure to provide gay and lesbian employees benefits equal to those provided to heterosexual employees. Examples of institutionalized societal heterosexism include lack of legislative protection against discrimination in the workplace. Organizations are embedded within society and individuals' heterosexist behaviors occur within and are affected by both the organization and the society. For the purposes of this research, institutional heterosexism will be referred to as heterosexism and individual heterosexist behaviors in the workplace will be referred to as perceived workplace discrimination. Perceived discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation within the workplace has been shown to be positively associated with the level of organizational heterosexism which, in turn, is negatively related to protective legislation (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). Causal directions are ambiguous, and possibly reciprocal, but one can conclude that workplace discrimination is less likely to be perceived in less heterosexist organizations in less heterosexist societies.

Heterosexist organizations are characterized by an absence of protective legislation, absence of supportive organizational policies and practices, and workgroup composition of majority heterosexuals, and each of these organizational heterosexism variables was significantly related to perceived workplace discrimination (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001). Organizational

heterosexism has been shown to be significantly related to lower disclosure of sexual orientation in the workplace, lower job satisfaction, lower organizational commitment, and higher turnover intentions (Button, 2001; Ragins & Cornwell, 2001, Waldo, 1999) for gay employees.

The presence of legislative protection against discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation has been shown to associated with lower levels of observed discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation in workplaces (Ragins & Cornwell, 2001) and with greater likelihood of the adoption of same-sex partner health benefits (Chuang, Church & Ophir, 2011). The presence of such a state law may indicate more positive attitudes towards gay men (Wald, Button & Rienzo, 1996), a greater degree of acceptance of equal treatment (Button, Rienzo & Wald, 2000), and a stronger commitment to equitable compensation (Chuang et al., 2011). The incomes of gay men should be less negatively affected in environments with less observed discrimination in the workplace, greater general positive attitudes towards gay men, and a greater degree of acceptance of equal treatment. Based on this research, I hypothesize:

H_1 *Income reported by gay men will be inversely related to the proportion of women in their organizations.*

H_2 *Income reported by gay men will be inversely related to the proportion of gay men and lesbians in their organizations.*

H_3 *Income reported by gay men will be positively related to the presence of state laws forbidding discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation.*

H_4 *Income reported by gay men will be positively related to the number of supportive organizational policies and practices.*

H_5 *Income reported by gay men will be will be inversely related to reported discrimination based on sexual orientation.*

METHODOLOGY

Studying gay men and lesbians, as a population, presents numerous challenges. Other demographic information is widely shared and tracked by organizations. Many gay men and lesbians have considerable interest in not being found or at the least, not having their sexual orientations known by their organizations. Probability sampling requires that all cases in the population are randomly selected and have a known probability of being included in the sample (Singleton & Straits, 1999). This is not possible with this population. Nonprobability sampling was therefore used. Nonprobability sampling introduces several problems: it does not control for investigator bias in the selection of units and the pattern of variability cannot be predicted from

probability sampling theory which makes calculation of sampling error or estimation of sample precision impossible.

Data Collection

A survey conducted on-line using a form of convenience sampling to develop the sampling frame. Consistent with Ragins & Cornwell (2001) and Day & Schoenrade (1997), the sampling procedure involved the members of gay and lesbian rights organizations and on-line communities. Using only the members of gay rights organizations introduces several important limitations and may limit the generalizability of the results. Members of "mainstream" gay rights organizations are disproportionately white and well educated (Croteau, 1996), may be more likely than nonmembers to be out at work, may be more likely to be sensitive to gay and lesbian issues in the workplace and may be more likely to seek employment in organizations that are supportive of gay and lesbian employees (Day & Schoenrade, 1997).

The sampling frame was also increased by snowball sampling. Snowball sampling involves identifying members of the target population and requesting that they assist in the identification of other members of the target population. Survey respondents were encouraged to send the survey's link to other gay men and lesbians. Snowball sampling rests on the assumption that members of the target population know each other. The sample included all those who self-identified as gay or lesbian regardless of the degree of disclosure of their sexual orientations in the workplace or within their personal lives, actual sexual behaviors, or current relationship status.

Measures

The survey instrument developed was pre-tested on a group of 15 persons including gay men, a number of persons for whom English is not a first language, and persons whose computer skills could be described as limited. These pre-tests helped ensure clarity of the instrument and the instructions. The first web page explained the purpose of the research, sought informed consent, provided instructions for completion, and provided assurances of anonymity. All analysis was conducted using SPSS 18.0 statistical package.

Demographic/Individual Characteristics were measured using single item measures. The characteristics included sex, age, ethnicity, sexual orientation, educational levels, employment status, income, state in which they worked, organization size, organization tenure, and job tenure. Income categories provided were as follows: 1= under $10,000, 2=$10,000-$19,999, 3=$20,000-$29,999, 4=$30,000-$39,999, 5=$40,000-$49,999, 6=$50,000-$59,999, 7=$60,000-$69,999, 8=$70,000-$79,999, 9=$80,000-$89,999, 10=$90,000-$99,999, and 11= Over $100,000. Organization size was measured using a 5-point scale with 1= "less than 10" and 5="over 10,000". Respondents were asked to indicate their organizational and job tenure for their

current job in years and months. These were converted to months for analysis. Respondents were asked the degree of disclosure of their sexual orientation in the workplace by asking "at work, have you disclosed your sexual orientation to: 1) no one, 2) some people, 3) most people and 4) Everyone.

To measure the sexual orientation composition of the work group, respondents were asked about the sexual orientations of their co-workers. They were given a 4-point scale with *0-25% gay or lesbian* and *75 - 100% gay and lesbian* as anchors and a *Don't Know* option which was coded as missing data. To measure the gender composition of the work group respondents were given a 4-point scale with *0-25% women* and *75 - 100% women* as anchors and a *Don't Know* option which was coded as missing data.

The presence of protective legislation was determined by the state of residence reported by the respondents and the statewide anti-discrimination laws and policies reported by the civil rights organization, Human Rights Campaign. At the time of the data collection, 14 states provided protective legislations against discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation.

A 6-item scale developed by Ragins & Cornwell (2001) was used to assess the supportiveness of organizational policies and practices for gay and lesbian employees. The scale includes the following items: Does your organization: 1) have a non-discrimination policy that includes sexual orientation? 2) include sexual orientation in the definition of diversity? 3) include awareness of gay/lesbian/bisexual issues in diversity training? 4) offer same-sex domestic partners benefits? 5) offer gay/lesbian/bisexual resource/support groups? and 6) welcome same-sex partners at company social events? Responses indicating the presence of the supportive policy were coded as 1; the absence of the policy as 0, and *Don't Know* was coded as missing. The items were then summed to create an overall scale of organizational policies and practices with values ranging from 0 to 6 with 0 representing the absence of all listed policies and practices and 6 the presence of all. For this study, principal component analysis yielded a single factor for organizational policies and practices with an eigenvalue of 2.90 accounting for 48.3% of the variance (coefficient alpha of .78).

Perceived workplace discrimination was measured using another scale developed and tested by Ragins & Cornwell (2001) which was based upon the 15-item Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory (James, Lovato, & Cropanzano, 1994). The original inventory measured racial discrimination in the workplace and was found to be single factor, reliable and valid (James et al., 1994). Ragins & Cornwell (2001) substituted references to race with references to sexual orientation. The Workplace Prejudice/Discrimination Inventory modified for sexual orientation includes items such as: "Prejudice against gays and lesbians exists where I work" and "At work I am treated poorly because of my sexual orientation". A 5-point Likert scale with *Completely Disagree* and *Completely Agree* as anchors was used. For this study, principal component analysis yielded a single factor with an eigenvalue of 6.88 accounting for 57.3% of the variance (coefficient alpha of .93).

RESULTS

The sample consisted of 264 individuals who self-identified as gay men, who live in the United States, and who reported being employed fulltime. Respondents reporting that they were unemployed, retired, or self-employed were eliminated from this analysis. The ethnicity of the respondents was 81.8% Caucasian (n=216), 6.1% African-American (n=16), 3.8% Asian (n=10), 3.0% Aboriginal (n=8), 8.0% Latino or Hispanic (n=21), and 1.1% Middle Eastern or North African (n=3) (percentages exceed 100 as some respondents reported multiple ethnicities). Because the proportions of most ethnicities were too low for analysis, the categories were combined creating the variable called Majority. Respondents indicating their ethnicity to be Caucasian only were coded 1 (n=209), all others (n=55) were coded 0.

When asked about the percent of gay or lesbians coworkers, 71.2% indicated 0-25%, 4.2% indicated 26-50%, 1.5% indicated 51-75%, 2.3% indicated 76-100% and 20.8% indicated they didn't know or didn't respond to that question. When asked about the percent of women coworkers, 14.7% indicated 0-25%, 13.6% indicated 25-50%, 30.3% indicated 50-75% and 15.5% indicated 75-100%.

Means, standard deviations, correlation coefficients, and reliability coefficients are displayed in Table 1.

		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	Age	38.7	10.23	-											
2	Majority	.79	.41	.11	-										
3	Education	5.95	1.68	.19**	.00	-									
4	Org Size	3.34	1.19	.02	-.07	.02	-								
5	O Tenure	79.6	87.8	.53**	.04	.08	.15**	-							
6	J Tenure	60.7	69.7	.50**	.07	.00	.00	.61**	-						
7	Protect	.44	.50	.13*	-.09	.05	.05	.04	.02	-					
8	Out	2.66	1.10	-.03	.11	-.08	-.08	-.02	.05	.03	-				
9	Women	3.55	.95	-.03	.00	.01	.04	-.07	-.03	.03	.13*	-			
10	LGB	2.21	.64	-.10	-.12	-.10	-.22**	-.16*	-.10	.01	.24**	-.05	-		
11	Policies	2.99	1.94	-.03	-.07	.17**	.19**	-.06	-.07	.21**	.30**	.12*	.21**	(.78)	
12	Discrim	2.45	.83	.10	-.01	.08	.26**	.18*	.13*	-.14**	-.35**	-.06	-.24**	-.32**	(.93)
13	Income	6.03	2.57	.32**	.01	.39**	.13*	.26**	.21**	.14**	.05	-.06	-.22**	.20**	-.08

Table 1 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlation Coefficients, and Reliability Coefficients

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The majority of respondents had completed some form of post secondary education. 0.8% of respondents had completed some high school, 11.7% had completed high school, 6.8% had completed technical or vocational training, 10.6% an Associate's degree, 41.3% a Bachelor's degree, 4.5% a professional degree, 19.3% a Master's degree and 4.9% a doctoral degree. Regarding disclosure of sexual orientation, 18.3% reported having disclosed their sexual

orientation to no one at work, 28.5% to some people, 22.4% to most people and 30.8% to everyone.

Quick inspection of the correlation tables shows that incomes is significantly correlated with age, education, organizational size, organizational tenure, job tenure, protective legislation, the proportion of gay and lesbian coworkers, and perceived discrimination. Ragins and Cornwell (2001) found that perceived discrimination was negatively correlated with protective legislation and supportive organizational policies and practices. This finding was confirmed with these data.

Multiple regression was used to test the hypotheses. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: Regression Predicting Income			
	β		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Step 1: Demographic Variables			
Age	.31***	.20*	.19*
Majority	-.04	-.05	-.06
Education	.30***	.29***	.26***
Step 2: Employment Variables			
Organization Size		.13	.08
Organization Tenure		.15	.17
Job Tenure		.01	-.08
Step 3: Heterosexism Variables			
Legal Protection			.03
Disclosure of Sexual Orientation at Work			-.02
Women Co-workers			-.09
Gay & Lesbian Co-workers			-.18**
Supportive Policies and Practices			.15
Perceived Discrimination			-.11
R^2	.22***	.26*	.32*
ΔR^2	.22***	.04*	.06*
Adjusted R^2	.21***	.23*	.26*
F	15.982	9.575	6.150
p < .05, **p< .01, ***p < .001			

On the first step, the demographic characteristics (age, ethnicity, and education,) were entered to isolate the effects that they may have on income. On the second step, the general employment-related variables (organizational size, organizational tenure, and job tenure) were entered to isolate their effects on income. On the third step, the heterosexism variables (the presence of legislative protection against discrimination on the basis of sexual orientation at state-level, disclosure of sexual orientation at work, percentage of women co-workers, percent gay or lesbian co-workers, supportive policies & procedures, and perceived workplace

discrimination) to determine their effects on income. Multicollinearity is not a problem as the highest correlation was .53 and the largest variance inflation factor was only 1.91.

Two of the control variables, age and education, were strong predictors of income for both gay men. For gay men, income was significantly related to age (β= .19, p<.05) and education (β= .26, p<.001). None of the other demographic or employment variables were significantly related to income. Of the heterosexism variables only the proportion of gay and lesbian coworkers was significant, therefore only hypothesis 2 was supported. There was a negative, statistically significant relationship between gay men's income and the proportion of gay and lesbian coworkers (β= -.18, p<.01).

DISCUSSION

Past studies have clearly shown that gay men's incomes are lower than their heterosexual counterparts. This study tested the effects of several heterosexism-related variables on the incomes of gay men. The effects of all but one of these heterosexism-related variables on income disappeared when controlling for the demographic and employment variables. This study does show that gay men's incomes are negatively related to the proportion of gay men and lesbian coworkers.

Past studies have suggested that gay men may choose to work in "safe haven" organizations with a high proportion of women or gay men and lesbians and that leads to lower incomes. This study did not confirm that gay men's incomes are related to the proportion of women coworkers but were related to the proportion of gay and lesbian coworkers providing some support to the "safe haven' hypotheses suggested by previous research. Whether or not gay men consciously choose organizations that are "safe havens" and accept lower incomes as part of the tradeoff or whether there are barriers to the hiring of gay men in organizations with lower proportions of other gay men and lesbians is beyond the scope of this study. Further research is required to determine the degree to which this is a conscious choice and the degree to which this choice is driven by the desire to avoid heterosexism.

REFERENCES

Allegretto, S.A. & Arthur, M.M. (2001). An empirical analysis of homosexual/heterosexual male earnings differentials: Unmarried and unequal", *Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 54*, 631-646.

Allport, G.W. (1954). *The nature of prejudice*. Cambridge: Addison-Wesley.

Badgett, M.V.L. (1995). The wage effects of sexual orientation discrimination. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 48*, 726-739.

Berg, N. & Lien, D. (2002). Measuring the effect of sexual orientation on income: Evidence of discrimination?, *Contemporary Economic Policy*, *20*, 394-414.

Blandford, J. M. (2003). The nexus of sexual orientation and gender in the determination of earnings. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 56*, 622−642.

Button, S. B. (2001). Organizational efforts to affirm sexual diversity: A cross-level examination. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86,* 17-28.

Button, J.M., Rienzo, B.A., & Wald K.D. (2000). The Politics of Gay Rights at the Local and State Level. In C.A. Rimmerman, K.D. Wald, & C. Wilcox (Eds.), *Politics of Gay Rights* (pp. 269-289). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Carpenter, C. (2004). New evidence on gay and lesbian household incomes. *Contemporary Economic Policy, 22*, 78-94.

Carpenter, C. (2005). Revisiting the income penalty for behaviorally gay men: Evidence from NHANES III. *Labour Economics*, *14*, 25-34.

Carpenter, C. (2008a) Sexual orientation, income, and non-pecuniary economic outcomes: New evidence from young lesbians in Australia. *Review of Economics of the Household*, *6*, 391-408.

Carpenter, C. (2008b) Sexual orientation, work and income in Canada. *The Canadian Journal of Economics, 41*, 1239-1261.

Chuang, Y.T., Church, R., & Ophir, R. (2011). Taking sides: The Interactive influences of institutional mechanisms on the adoption of same-sex partner health benefits by Fortune 500 corporations, 1990–2003. *Organization Science*, 22, 190-209.

Chung, Y. B. (2001). Work discrimination and coping strategies: Conceptual frameworks for counseling lesbian, gay, and bisexual clients. *The Career Development Quarterly*, *50*, 33-44.

Croteau, J. M. (1996). Research on the work experiences of lesbian, gay, and bisexual people: An integrative review of methodology and findings. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 48,* 195-209.

Day, N.E. & Schoenrade, P. (1997). Staying in the closet versus coming out: Relationships between communication about sexual orientation and work attitudes. *Personnel Psychology, 50,* 147-163.

Elvira, M.M. & Graham, M.E. (2002). Not just a formality: Pay system formalization and sex-related earnings effects. *Organization Science*, *13*, 601-617.

England, P., Farkas, G., Kilbourne, B.S. & Dou, T. (1988). Explaining occupational sex segregation and wages: Findings from a model with fixed effects. *American Sociological Review, 53*, 544-558.

Herek, G.M. (1988). Heterosexuals' attitudes toward lesbians and gay men: Correlates and gender differences. *The Journal of Sex Research, 25,* 451-477.

Herek, G.M. & Capitano, J.P. (1996). "Some of my best friends": Intergroup contact, concealable stigma, and heterosexuals' attitudes toward gay men and lesbians. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 22*, 412-424.

Huffman, M.L. & Velasco, S.C. (1997). When more is less. Sex composition, organizations, and earnings in U.S. firms. *Work and Occupations*, *24*, 214-244.

Heller Clain, S. & Leppel, K. (2001). An investigation into sexual orientation discrimination as an explanation for wage differences. *Applied Economics*, *33*, 37-47.

Herek, G. M. & Berrill, K. (1992). *Hate crimes: Confronting violence against lesbians and gay men.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

James, K., Lovato, C. & Cropanzano, R. (1994). Correlational and known group comparison validation of a workplace prejudice/discrimination inventory. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 24,* 1573-1592.

Morin, S. (1977). Heterosexual bias in psychological research on lesbianism and male homosexuality. *American Psychologist, 32,* 629-637

Morrow, S. L., Gore, P. A. Jr., & Campbell, B. W. (1996). The application of a sociocognitive framework to the career development of lesbian women and gay men. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *48*, 136-148.

Plug, E. & Berkhout, P. (2004). Effects of sexual preferences on earnings in the Netherlands. *Journal of Popular Economics*, *17*, 117-131.

Podskoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 879-903.

Ragins, B. R. (2004) Sexual orientation in the workplace: The unique work and career experiences of gay, lesbian and bisexual workers. *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management*, *23*, 37-122.

Ragins, B.R. & Cornwell, J.M. (2001). Pink triangles: Antecedents and consequences of perceived workplace discrimination against gay and lesbian employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 1244-1261.

Singleton, R. A. & Straits, B. C. (1999). *Approaches to social research.* NY: Oxford University Press.

Sorensen, E. (1990). The crowding hypothesis and comparable worth. *Journal of Human Resources, 25*, 55-89.

Wald, K.D., Button, J.W., & Rienzo, B.A. (1997). *All politics is local: Analyzing local gay rights legislation.* Washington, DC: National Gay and Lesbian Task Force Policy Institute.

Waldo, C.R. (1999). Working in a majority context: A structural model of heterosexism as minority stress in the workplace. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 46*, 218-232.

Zavodny, M. (2008). Is there a 'marriage premium' for gay men. *Review of Economics of the Household*, *6*, 369-389.

PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACTS IN ENTERPRISES

William T. Jackson, University of South Florida St. Petersburg
Detelin Elenkov, Angelo State University
Barbara Davis, University of Memphis
Peter Wright, University of Memphis

ABSTRACT

In this paper, by resorting to the concepts of identity orientations and forms of social exchange, we elaborate on the possibility that some enterprise members may especially value one currency of the psychological contract, while others may value multiple currencies. Moreover, the independence or the interdependence of the currencies is addressed with ramifications for the breach of the psychological agreement.

INTRODUCTION

The separation of ownership and control has been recognized from different perspectives as a potential major organizational problem (Berle & Means, 1932; McLean Parks & Schmedemann, 1994; Rousseau & Shperling, 2003; Veblen, 1923). From an economic perspective, it has been argued that the alignment of owners' and agents' interests via the nexus of formal contracts requires attempts in the resolution of the conflicts between the interests of the principals and their agents (Berle & Means, 1932; Jensen & Meckling, 1976). The problem of the separation of owners' and agents' interests refers to agents promoting their personal interests at the expense of principals whose interests are best served when their wealth is maximized through the efforts of the agents. For the principals, therefore, benefits are primarily relevant in economic terms. The agents, however, not only prefer enhancements of their wealth, but also enhancements of their non-economic utilities at the expense of principals. Note that agents' wealth may be enhanced with their employment rewards. Their non-economic benefits may encompass "the physical appointments of the office, the attractiveness of the secretarial staff, the level of employee discipline, the kind and amount of charitable contributions . . . etc." (Jensen & Meckling, 1976: 486). Effort reduction on the job may also increase the non-financial utilities of agents at the expense of principals. Both the economic and the non-economic benefits of agents are conceived to be driven by self-interest, and self-interest is anticipated to be promoted deceitfully. Hence according to economic scholars, in the absence of inducements or monitoring/intervention, managers or employees will deliberately and guilefully violate the terms of their formal employment contract (Alchian & Demsetz, 1972; Jensen & Meckling, 1976).

From an organizational behavior perspective, it has alternatively been contended what economists interpret as agents' propensity to enhance their economic and non-economic benefits at the expense of principals may actually occur because of limited information, misunderstanding, or miscommunication (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau & Shperling, 2003). Consequently, the problems that evolve from the separation of ownership and control can be traced to gaps in what employers expect and what employees perceive they should contribute. Rather than deliberately violating the terms of their employment agreements, organization behavior scholars propose executives and workers will honor their employment agreements, as they understand them. Accordingly, enhancing communication and mutual understanding among shareholders, managers, and employees may resolve the problem of the separation of ownership and control of corporate assets. Therefore, mutual benefits may be expected as mutual understanding is achieved among these stakeholders (Pierce, Rubenfeld, & Morgan, 1991; Rosen, Klein, & Young, 1986; Rousseau, 1995). What is recognized in the behavioral view is that individuals at the outset may seek jobs with organizations for an economic reason. Although economic exchange may initially characterize the relationship between the employee and the enterprise, behaviors of employees within the enterprise are motivated by more than an economic agenda. Hence, a person's decision to offer contributions to the firm cannot be explained by economics alone.

Whereas the economic perspective emphasizes the formal contract and the expectation that agents will seek selfish interests beyond the provisions of the formal contract, organization behavior theorists clearly emphasize the informal contract. More specifically, their argument is that the alignment of shareholders' interests with those of the firm's executives and workers may require a shared understanding of the informal psychological agreement that prevails in the employment relationship (McLean Parks & Schmedemann, 1994; Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Rousseau & Shperling, 2003). The psychological agreement or contract consists of employees' perceptions of the unwritten reciprocal promises and obligations between themselves and their employer (Robinson, 1996; Turnley & Feldman, 1999). In this vein, organization members' contributions and rewards exchanged in a psychological contract have pecuniary and non-pecuniary currency components. Specifically, managers or employees provide effort on the job not only in exchange for economic and socioemotional currencies (Macneil, 1985; Rousseau, & McLean Parks, 1993), but also for the ideological currency (Blau, 1964; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003).

Contrary to the economic perspective, which recognizes both the financial and nonfinancial components of agents' exchanges to be selfishly driven, the psychological perspective only recognizes the financial component of exchanges as self-interested in nature. The financial component is considered to be self-interested because each organizational member is expected to contribute efforts in exchange for receiving monetary or tangible rewards. The socioemotional component, however, is considered to be group-interested and based on reciprocity norms. Employees are expected to contribute loyalty and organizational citizenship

to the enterprise in exchange for security, human capital development, and membership in a desirable work group. The ideological component is understood as collective- or community-interested (i.e., finding a purpose in work that is meant to address a worthwhile cause). The perceived obligations within the psychological contract are more crucial to work-related behavior than the obligations specified in the formal contract in the view of organization behavior scholars (Rousseau & Tijoriwala, 1998; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003).

We suggest that the informal psychological contract, as a unit of analysis, provides a more useful theoretical framework for our understanding of the employment relationship than the formal contract and the stipulations emphasized by economists. The premise of related research has been that contributions and rewards exchanged in a psychological contract may be perceived as economic, socioemotional (Macneil, 1985; McLean Parks & Schmedemann, 1994), or ideological currencies (Blau, 1964; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Hence, the ramification is that different currencies may be associated with various responses to the perception that the contract has been upheld or breached (Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). In effect, although the psychological contract may possibly contain a combination of these distinct currencies, the currencies have often been considered independently of one another. In this work, we further elaborate on the independence of each currency by considering the possibility that for some individuals one currency may substitute for the others. Moreover, it has been argued that the potential interdependencies among these currencies have remained under-explored, and therefore, not well understood (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Consequently, we also strive to shed more light on this issue as we attempt to address some of the possible interdependencies among the currencies of the psychological contract.

The remainder of the paper captures our contributions that are organized as follows. First, by resorting to concepts of identity orientations and forms of social exchange, we will discuss the notion that some corporate members may particularly value one currency of the psychological contract over the others. For these members, our contention is that satisfied promises on the currency they value may compensate for limitations of the other currencies. Hence, we suggest a higher level of the currency they value may substitute for a lower level of the other currencies associated with the job. The substitution possibility is indicative of the potential independence of each currency. Second, we elaborate on breaches of the psychological contract that can occur when employees believe the currency they especially value is not supported by the employer. In Table 1 simple linkages are presented that will be discussed subsequently.

Our discussion is also broadened to encompass the possibility that other corporate members may adopt multiple identity orientations or prefer several forms of social exchange, thereby valuing more than one currency of the psychological contract. In this case, the currencies may be interdependent as they coexist in the psychological contract. Valuing several currencies, the organization could be perceived by employees as offering a means for receiving financial rewards, an environment for relational satisfaction, and a setting within which efforts

could be made toward a worthy ideal. For these individuals the psychological contract may also be breached, as will be discussed.

Table 1: Identity Orientations, Forms of Exchange, Valuation of Currencies, Breach, and Responses to Violation					
Personal	Negotiated	Economic	Transactional	Lack of Support for the Economic Currency	Negative Attitudes, Reduced Contributions, or Turnover
Relational	Reciprocal	Socioemotional	Relational	Lack of Support for the Socioemotional Currency	Negative Attitudes, Reduced Contributions, or Turnover
Collective	Generalized	Ideological	Principled	Lack of Support for the Ideological Currency	Organizational Dissent

SUBSTITUTION OF CURRENCIES RENDERED BY IDENTITIES AND EXCHANGES

Depending on the individual, our contention is that any one currency of the psychological contract may serve as a substitute for the others. Hence, satisfied promises on one currency of the psychological contract might compensate for shortcomings in the other currencies. We suggest substitution among currencies may be subject to identity orientations of individuals and their desired forms of social exchange in the organization. A number of scholars have argued that identity orientations assist employees in defining themselves relative to others (Alpert, Ashforth, & Dutton, 2000; Brewer & Gardner, 1996) and in preferring a particular form of social exchange (Flynn, 2005). Consequently, the implication is that employees tend to have specific identity orientations, and, therefore, may adopt distinct forms of social exchange. Emphasis should be made that identity orientation theory elaborates on how the need to maintain positive self-representation affects our perceptions of interactions with others (Hogg & Terry, 2000). Social exchange theory describes how we educe valued resources via interactions with others (Homans, 1958). To further clarify, we discuss below substitution of currencies rendered by identity orientations of people and their preferences for various forms of social exchange. It has been contended that organization members differently relate to one another (i.e., prefer different exchange forms - - negotiated, reciprocal, or generalized), depending on their identity orientations that may be personal, relational, or collective (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Flynn, 2005).

**Personal orientation eliciting negotiated exchange
and the dominance of the economic currency**

Executives and workers who have a personal identity orientation perceive themselves as unique individuals and derive their gratification from the evaluation of their own characteristics, such as superior abilities relative to others. Possessing "a personal identity orientation suggests the focal individual is motivated to act solely on behalf of his or her own interests rather than on behalf of others' interests" (Flynn, 2005: 739). Corporate members with personal orientations not only may prefer competition over cooperation, but might also find competition at work motivating. They may believe that self-improvement is more likely if they attempt to outperform one another. Consistent with this premise, Fama and Jensen (1983) have proposed that some individuals in seeking employment choose among firms partly on the basis of the potential for further development of professional skills in response to intra-firm competition. These organization members may likewise assume that job performance improves with more intense rivalry among peers.

Because people with personal orientations value self-serving exchanges, their concern is with gaining tangible benefits for themselves as they interact with others. If these individuals need to cooperate with colleagues on the job, their preferred mode is explicit negotiated social exchanges (e.g., "I assist you in your job if you assist me with mine"). In negotiated exchanges, individuals selfishly concentrate on the concrete value of the exchange, rather than relational benefits, positive affects, or ideological contentments. The promotion of selfish interests not only may encompass gaining convenience or utility via negotiated exchanges, but also potentially gaining further economically on the job (Guth & Tagiuri, 1965; Wright, Kroll, Lado, & Elenkov, 2005). Consequently, such individuals may value their employment primarily for obtaining higher economic currency. Put in other words, since these employees are not expected to be enticed by socioemotional or ideological currencies associated with the organization, they may instead be anticipated to be motivated by financial rewards or the economic currency.

Moreover, our contention is that for organization members with a personal orientation the economic currency may extend beyond gaining material well-being into augmented dimensions of the psychological domain. Indeed, if human beings are more satisfied with self-improvement or betterment (Whitehead, 1929), then receiving higher economic currency may promote further satisfaction by implicitly serving as a proxy for having been judged more productive or promotable relative to peers in the enterprise (Rosenbaum, 1984; Wright, et al., 2005). In effect, receiving greater economic currency may be interpreted by an individual with a personal orientation as having accomplished more and attained bolstered status or power in employment. Hence, ego satisfactions associated with financial rewards may be additional sources of motivation.

Receiving higher economic rewards may also be indicative of how organization members are evaluated in relation to their external counterparts in the relevant labor market. We recognize

that financial rewards offered to the personnel of one firm, relative to competing enterprises, may lead, match, or lag the market (Milkovich & Newman, 2002). A firm that leads the market in the economic currency, or offers higher than average financial compensation of the relevant labor market, may be signaling to its members that they are more valued than their external counterparts. Consequently, employees who receive higher pay may interpret such generous rewards as organizational expressions of further respect and worth for them, responding with superior levels of performance. Presumably, individuals with personal orientations expect that, by increasing their levels of performance, they are more likely to continue to receive greater future economic currency relative to their counterparts.

As noted, employees with personal orientations, preferring negotiated social exchanges, are less concerned with relational benefits, positive affects, or ideological contentments. Thus, for these employees, a higher level of economic currency may substitute for a lower level of socioemotional or ideological currencies associated with the job. The reason is, with respect to their employment, these individuals tend to derive satisfaction in promoting their own self-interests rather than group interests or collective interests. We do recognize, however, that human aspirations are not fulfilled by economic rewards alone. But non-economic aspirations need not be fulfilled within the enterprise as their fulfillment may take place outside of employment. Notwithstanding the latter consideration that is external to employment, we offer the following proposition.

> *Proposition 1:*   *The economic currency will substitute for socioemotional or ideological currencies for organization members who have a personal identity orientation, preferring negotiated exchanges.*

Relational orientation eliciting reciprocal exchange and the dominance of the socioemotional currency

Organization members with a relational identity orientation alternatively prefer implicit reciprocal social exchanges because they derive their satisfaction from return-in-kind exchanges. Implicit reciprocity in a relational setting normally consists of repayment of a good deed by the recipient to the provider. The dyadic exchange relations offer the means for individuals to enhance interactions within or across work groups in the absence of formal hierarchical authority. Furthermore, dyadic exchanges can spill over and encompass networks of reciprocities within or across groups. While concerned with their own needs, those with a relational orientation are likewise concerned with the needs of others (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Therefore, such persons ordinarily are motivated to act on behalf of mutual interests.

Managers and workers with a relational orientation tend to develop affective bonds (or emotional attachments) in their place of employment. These bonds are formed as individuals

seek mutual acceptance and camaraderie in the workplace (Alpert, et al., 2000). Affective bonding often enhances social harmony and cohesiveness (Blau, 1964; Deutsch, 1985). Moreover, organization members with relational orientations are prone to prefer cooperation over competition at work. Cooperation among these individuals could prevail beyond what is expected of their task assignments. Because for employees with relational orientations cooperation ordinarily is directed at increasing both self-interests and the interests of others (Brewer & Gardner, 1996), they may experience symbiotic interdependence (Barnett & Miner, 1992).

Having relational identity orientations and desiring reciprocal exchanges, such individuals may be predisposed to particularly value the socioemotional currency of the psychological contract. Rousseau and Shperling have proposed "workers with relational agreements demand less pay than their nonrelational counterparts, effectively giving that wealth premium to the firm and its investors" (2003: 563). The implication of this proposal is that organization members who have a dominant relational orientation may have a higher interest in the socioemotional currency, but a lower concern for the economic currency. Likewise, the employees who have a dominant relational orientation may have a lesser interest in striving for a cause. In this instance, the implication is that individuals with a higher interest in the socioemotional currency may have a lower concern for the ideological currency. Therefore, for individuals with relational orientations, preferring reciprocal social exchanges, a higher level of the socioemotional currency may substitute for a lower level of economic or ideological currencies associated with their employment.

> *Proposition 2:*   *The socioemotional currency will substitute for economic or ideological currencies for organization members who have a relational identity orientation, preferring reciprocal exchanges.*

Collective orientation eliciting generalized exchange and the dominance of the ideological currency

Executives and workers with collective identity orientations also desire implicit reciprocal exchanges but in a generalized manner. That is, reciprocity may consist of repayment of a good deed, but not axiomatically by the recipient to the provider (Yamagishi & Cook, 1993). Indeed, "reciprocation is indirect so that Paul may receive a benefit from Heather but may reciprocate by giving to Eric, rather than to Heather. Eventually, Heather can expect reciprocation from someone other than Paul" (Flynn, 2005: 740). Evidently, implicit reciprocity in a collective setting takes place among three or more people. Organization members with collective orientations have a general interest in others' welfare (Bearman, 1997; Sahlins, 1972). They frequently prefer cooperation over competition at work and are predisposed to sacrifice their own interests for the welfare of the collective. These individuals subscribe to the notion of

giving, without direct reciprocation, although they may expect indirect reciprocation in the future.

For individuals with a collective identity orientation, however, sacrificing their own interests for the benefit of the collective may occur even without anticipation of direct or even indirect reciprocation. These individuals might thrive by enhancing their usefulness to the collectivity (Spranger, 1928). Hence, they may be content with the role of primarily benefiting others in the organization or the broader community. Emphasis should be made that a collective identity orientation may correspond to various levels of abstraction, including the group, department, organization, profession, industry, nation, or the world (Flynn, 2005). Ordinarily, organization members with collective identity orientations tend to view their contributions to colleagues and the community as a reason for their employment (Conger, 1994; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Rather than concentrating on economic or socioemotional rewards, the focal employees may cherish ideological rewards. For these employees, pursuing a cause and advancing ideals are intrinsically rewarding (Blau, 1964; Conger, 1994). The ideological currency, therefore, may serve as a stronger inducement to elicit these employees' contributions than the other currencies. "When this is the case, employee perceptions about the organization's obligations are not grounded solely in personal entitlements but also in the promotion of a cause they highly value" (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003: 571). Organization members with collective identity orientations, preferring generalized exchanges, may have a greater value for the ideological currency relative to the economic or socioemotional currencies. Consequently, for such organization members, the former currency may substitute for the latter currencies.

> *Proposition 3:*   *The ideological currency will substitute for economic or socioemotional currencies for organization members who have a collective identity orientation, preferring generalized exchanges.*

SUBSTITUTION OF CURRENCIES RENDERED BY EXCHANGES AND IDENTITIES

Although identity orientations are rather stable and enduring, they are not permanently fixed. In the prior discussion, our understanding has been that identity orientations determine preferences for differing forms of social exchange. In this section, we alternatively discuss the premise that the form of social exchange may determine the adoption of an identity orientation. In effect, we elaborate on the notion that individuals may conceivably define themselves differently vis-à-vis others as circumstances vary (Flynn, 2005; Gardner, Gabriel, & Hochschild, 2002). Hence, people might not hold immutable identities, but rather their identity orientations could change with the situation. As discussed next, the reciprocity of identity orientation and exchange also has ramifications for the substitution of currencies of the psychological contract.

Negotiated exchange eliciting personal orientation
and the enhancement of the economic currency

Employees of the same organization may begin to have social exchange without having a history of interaction. These members of the organization are unlikely to immediately adopt a relational or collective identity orientation (Flynn, 2005), although they ordinarily may be predisposed to the adoption of either of such identity orientations. Because they are unfamiliar with one another or because they may have uncommon social categories other than common employment (Chatman, Polzer, Barsade, & Neale, 1998), they may initially adopt negotiated exchanges, and correspondingly, personal identity orientations. Unfamiliarity refers to not knowing the others involved in the interaction. Uncommon social category refers to the dearth of knowledge regarding potential commonality of interests, and hence, lack of perception of mutualism.

Evidently, what initially triggers the adoption of negotiated exchanges and personal identity orientation is the presence of unfamiliarity or the status of uncommonality of social categories. In such cases, there may be limited motivation to be responsive to others' needs; therefore, individuals may focus on their own needs. Thus, the presence of unfamiliarity or the status of uncommon social category, triggering negotiated exchanges and personal identity orientations, promotes interactions on behalf of one's own interests rather than others' interests. Given these considerations, select members of the organization might value the concrete dimension of the interaction, instead of valuing social utilities, positive affects, or ideological benefits. Presumably, rather than cooperation, competition could prevail in these circumstances. If necessary, however, employees may cooperate with each other but probably by way of negotiated exchanges.

Given our discussion, we anticipate the presence of unfamiliarity or the status of uncommonality of social categories, triggering negotiated exchanges and personal orientations, might enhance the value of the economic currency, but not the value of socioemotional or ideological currencies for employees.

> *Proposition 4:*   *The presence of unfamiliarity or the status of uncommonality of social categories, triggering negotiated exchanges and personal orientations, will render the substitution of the economic currency for socioemotional or ideological currencies for organization members.*

Reciprocal exchange eliciting relational orientation
and the enhancement of the socioemotional currency

Employees may change their identity orientation from personal to relational as circumstances change. Note that settings of unfamiliarity or uncommonality of social categories may change into circumstances of familiarity or commonality of social categories with the

initiation of ongoing interactions. Moreover, a greater frequency of social exchanges may culminate in enhancements of familiarity or recognition of commonality of social categories. On the one hand, in response to ongoing interactions, organization members may broaden their conception of worth as individuals to worth as members of relationships (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Markus & Kitayama, 1991). Hence, they might begin to perceive themselves less as unique individuals and more as persons fulfilling roles in valuable reciprocal exchange relationships (Flynn, 2005). In this case, adoptions of reciprocal exchanges and relational identity orientations are due to increased familiarity and the potential development of extending positive affects. On the other hand, employees may adopt reciprocal exchanges and relational identity orientations with the development of common identity and congruencies of interests. In effect, repeated social exchanges may work to further align the interests of those involved (Lawler & Yoon, 1993; Sheriff, Harvey, White, Hood, & Sheriff, 1954), promoting a perception of mutualism.

Ordinarily, instead of competition, cooperation may prevail in these settings. That is because individuals tend to cooperate where they find relationships composed of familiarity and positive affects (Markus & Kitayama, 1991) or relationships with congruencies of interests (Lawler & Yoon, 1993). Our elaboration indicates that, with the initiation of ongoing interactions, circumstances may change to those of familiarity or commonality of social categories, triggering reciprocal exchanges and relational orientations. Hence, the value of the socioemotional currency may rise, but not necessarily the value of the economic or ideological currencies.

> *Proposition 5:*   *Contexts of familiarity or commonality of social categories, triggering reciprocal exchanges and relational orientations, will render the substitution of the socioemotional currency for economic or ideological currencies for organization members.*

Generalized exchange eliciting collective orientation and the enhancement of the ideological currency

As circumstances change with the initiation of ongoing relationships, organization members alternatively may adopt generalized exchanges, and correspondingly, collective identity orientations. Given ongoing relationships, employees may develop common identities and alignments of interests, striving toward the achievement of something that benefits a broader collectivity than the intra-organization group or even the enterprise. In this case, individuals might broaden their perception of worth as members of intra-organizational relationships to worth as corporate contributors to an ideology or something truly worthwhile (e.g., as corporate members of a biotechnology firm whose mission is: "To improve the health of the world's citizens").

The desire to be a corporate contributor to an ideology is not only a theoretical notion. "Practitioners and the practitioner literature often explicitly invoke ideology in describing a fulfilling employment exchange" (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003: 572). The formation of a commonality of a cause should limit intra-firm competition, but further promote intra-organizational cooperation. Put in other words, "high ideals are the basis for the persistence of cooperation" (Barnard, 1938: 282). Circumstances that facilitate the formation of a commitment to an ideal bring forth altruistic roles. That is, individuals tend to value the role of benefiting others within the firm or in the broader community without necessarily an anticipation of reciprocation. The reason is that advancing a cause or an ideal is intrinsically rewarding.

> *Proposition 6:   Contexts facilitating the development of common identities and alignments of interests, triggering generalized exchanges and collective identity orientations, will render the substitution of the ideological currency for economic or socioemotional currencies for organization members.*

BREACH OF THE PSYCHOLOGICAL CONTRACT

Our discussion on the substitution of the currencies of the psychological contract revolved around the notion that individuals with distinct identity orientations, or in particular social exchange contexts, may value one currency over the other currencies. In this section of the paper, we elaborate on the possible breaches of the psychological contract that can occur when employees believe that the currency they especially value is not supported by the organization.

Breach due to lack of support for the economic currency

Evidently, employees who have a personal identity orientation, or in negotiated social exchange contexts, may value the economic currency. Consequently, these employees are likely to consider that the psychological contract is upheld, if they perceive their pecuniary rewards as satisfactory, compensating for possible shortcomings or limitations in the socioemotional or ideological aspects of the contract. In contrast, the psychological contract could be breached if they view their financial rewards as unsatisfactory. More specifically, an enterprise that begins to lag the external labor market in pay policies, or commences to offer lower than average compensation of the relevant external labor market, may be viewed by the employees with personal orientations as breaching the psychological contract. These employees might believe that they are progressively less valued by the employer than their external counterparts.

Individuals with personal orientations may also consider their psychological agreement as breached if they begin to be paid less than their counterparts in the relevant internal labor market. We shall remember when organization members perceive their inputs relative to rewards are similar to those of peers, they recognize that equity exists (Adams, 1965). In contrast, if

employees perceive that for the same level of input their peers are rewarded more, they will believe inequity exists. Nevertheless, individuals have greatly exaggerated perceptions of their own inputs relative to others. Put in other words, individual inputs are subject to self-enhancing perceptual biases that influence employees to give themselves more credit than is warranted, and others less than deserved (Cook & Yamagishi, 1983; Cowherd & Levine, 1992). With exaggerated self-assessments and discounted assessments of others, any higher reward given to peers might be related to inequity and possible breach of the psychological contract.

It has been argued that a breach of the psychological contract may lead to feelings of violation, promoting negative attitudes, reductions in employee contributions, or greater turnover (Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993; Turnley & Feldman, 2000). We agree, but speculate that feelings of violation may promote greater turnover of individuals with personal orientations, preferring negotiated exchanges, if their levels of financial rewards are less than the reward levels of the relevant external labor market. In contrast, our conjecture is that for these individuals feelings of violation may promote negative attitudes or reduction in contributions, rather than turnover, if their compensation remains more than the relevant external labor market, but lags the relevant internal labor market.

Proposition 7$_a$:   *For individuals with a personal orientation, preferring negotiated exchanges, the psychological contract will be breached if their compensation begins to lag the relevant external labor market. This will lead to feelings of violation, promoting higher turnover rates.*

Proposition 7$_b$:   *For individuals with a personal orientation, preferring negotiated exchanges, the psychological contract will be breached if their compensation begins to lag the relevant internal labor market, even if their compensation remains more than the relevant external labor market. This will lead to feelings of violation, promoting negative attitudes or reduced employee contributions.*

Breach due to lack of support for the socioemotional currency

Our anticipation is that organization members who have relational identity orientations, or in reciprocal social exchange contexts, tend to value the socioemotional currency. Hence, these individuals are likely to perceive that the psychological contract is upheld, if their socioemotional needs are satisfied, compensating for possible shortcomings in the economic or ideological currency components of the contract. The psychological agreement could be breached if they alternatively view that their socioemotional needs are not supported. Presumably, compared to transactional contract breach (involving the economic currency), relational contract breach (encompassing the socioemotional currency) may be more sensitive to subjective judgments (McLean Parks & Kidder, 1994; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003).

A number of scholars have concluded that psychological contracts change from relational to transactional, after the agreement is breached in response to lack of support in the socioemotional domain (Herriott & Pemberton, 1996; Rousseau & McLean Parks, 1993). This conclusion is intuitively appealing to us. Moreover, we suggest a changed psychological contract that begins to emphasize a transaction aspect (provision of employee effort in exchange for pecuniary rewards), rather than a return-in-kind aspect of the agreement, is unlikely to remain motivational for individuals with relational identity orientations, preferring reciprocal exchanges. Instead, such individuals may become dissatisfied with their employment in response to the changed contract. Therefore, we anticipate for these corporate members, the psychological contract may be breached, as their socioemotional needs are no longer supported. This may lead to feelings of violation, promoting negative attitudes, reduced contributions, and higher turnover.

> *Proposition 8:*   *For individuals with a relational orientation, preferring reciprocal exchanges, the psychological contract will be breached in response to lack of support for the socioemotional domain. With the breach, the agreement changes from relational (an emphasis on socioemotional currency) to transactional (an emphasis on economic currency). This will lead to feelings of violation, promoting negative attitudes, reduced contributions, and higher turnover.*

Breach due to lack of support for the ideological currency

We have discussed the proposition that corporate members who have a collective identity orientation, or in generalized social exchange contexts, may value the ideological currency. Consequently, they could consider the psychological contract as upheld if their pursuit of a cause is in congruence with the activities of the enterprise. Moreover, even if the enterprise pursues the relevant ideological goals, but with few realized victories, these corporate members might still be satisfied with the psychological agreement (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). The reason is that pursuing ideals is itself intrinsically rewarding. The satisfaction of such corporate members with the ideological currency may compensate for possible limitations in the economic or socioemotional currencies. This may explain why some individuals continue to be loyal to the enterprise despite shortcomings in the economic and socioemotional currencies of the psychological agreement.

In contrast, for employees who value the ideological currency, the employment agreement could be breached if the firm shifts its actions away from ideological pursuits. The breach of the psychological contract is more likely if the redirection of activities is not forced upon the enterprise by macroenvironmental trends (political-legal, economic, social, technological) or industry forces (customers, suppliers, rivals, substitute products, threat of new entrants). For instance, if redirection of energies away from the pursuit of ideals is not forced upon the organization by economic necessities (Morrison & Robinson, 1997) or customer

demands (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003), a breach of the psychological employment agreement becomes more probable. Axiomatically, the potential for breach is not due to personal mistreatments of employees, but rather due to abandonments of ideological obligations. It will be recalled that breaches of the psychological contract, because of lack of support for the economic or socioemotional currencies, led to feelings of violation, promoting negative attitudes, reduced contributions, or high turnover rates. These are reactive responses. A breach of the psychological agreement due to lack of support for the ideological currency, however, is anticipated to lead to feelings of violation, promoting more proactive responses (Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Indeed, such responses may be in the form of attempts to rectify the breach via organizational dissent.

Proposition 9:   *For individuals with a collective orientation, preferring generalized exchanges, the psychological contract will be breached if the enterprise redirects its activities away from ideological pursuits. This will lead to feelings of violation, promoting attempts to rectify the breach via organizational dissent.*

MULTIPLE IDENTITIES, EXCHANGES, AND CURRENCIES

Up to this point we have anticipated for individuals with personal orientations, or in contexts of negotiated exchanges, that values of socioemotional or ideological currencies may be of lesser concern, yielding prominence to the value of the economic currency. Thus, fulfilled obligations on the economic component of the psychological contract may compensate for possible unfulfilled obligations on the socioemotional or ideological currency components. In contrast, we have anticipated that the socioemotional currency may be important for people with relational orientations or in circumstances of reciprocal exchanges. In this case, fulfilled obligations on the socioemotional currency might compensate for unfulfilled obligations on the economic and ideological currency components. Alternatively, we have anticipated the ideological currency may be crucial for organization members with collective orientations or in settings of generalized exchanges. Here, fulfilled obligations on the ideological currency may compensate for unfulfilled obligations on economic and socioemotional currency components.
Our anticipations are consistent with the possibility that some individuals might adopt one identity orientation and prefer one form of social exchange. For these individuals a currency of the psychological contract ordinarily assumes high value. In this setting, the psychological contract may be breached if the currency valued by the individual is not acted upon or supported by the organization. Similar to Thompson, we realize that "organizations only act as the result of action taken by their members" (1967: ix).

The theme of our paper is that identity orientations and forms of social exchange can be conceived narrowly or more broadly with corresponding currency valuations. Some organization members may narrowly focus on themselves, adopting personal identity orientations, preferring

negotiated exchanges, and valuing the economic currency. Here, the psychological contract can be characterized as transactional. Others may more broadly focus on themselves as well as their peers. They may adopt relational identity orientations, prefer reciprocal exchanges, and value the socioemotional currency. In this case, the psychological contract can be characterized as relational. Yet other employees may focus still more broadly on an aggregation of people involving a cause. Such employees may adopt collective identity orientations, prefer generalized exchanges, and value the ideological currency. In this instance, the psychological agreement is principled in nature. Expectably, a narrow focus on the individual himself or herself may be associated with the economic currency, whereas broader foci may be progressively associated with socioemotional or ideological currencies.

The prior elaborations, however, do not rule out the possibility that other organization members may adopt more than one identity orientation or prefer several forms of social exchange. Perhaps these employees in addition to being associated with the firm economically and with colleagues relationally are also inclined to associate themselves by way of the enterprise with the broader collectivity ideologically (Guth & Tagiuri, 1965). This implies that more than one currency of the psychological contract may be valued by them. For such employees the enterprise may provide a means for deriving financial benefits, a setting for relational fulfillment, or a context in which contributions can be made to a worthy cause. Moreover, as stated subsequently, there may be interdependencies among the currencies.

Considering various possibilities that encompass organization members adopting multiple identity orientations, preferring more than one form of social exchange, and valuing several currencies of the psychological contract that may be interdependent is beyond the scope of our work. We only focus on the possibility of an interdependency that encompasses the economic currency activating the socioemotional currency, and the activated socioemotional currency triggering the ideological currency. Given these possibilities, the psychological contract also may be subject to breach, as discussed in a forthcoming section. Our approach is exploratory in nature as we attempt to address the issues of plurality and interdependency.

The psychological contract and interdependencies of currencies

We mentioned that defining the self as a unique being reflects a personal identity orientation and a self-interested predisposition (i.e., a predisposition of seeking self-interest in isolation of others' interests). This identity orientation tends to be especially compatible with receiving the economic currency based on individual effort. Here, the financial rewards of employees would be independent of one another. The economic currency, however, instead could involve receiving group commissions or group bonuses, based on group effort (Deutsch, 1949). In this case, corporate members' self-interests and group-interests become congruent. Congruencies of interests due to group rewards may promote ongoing interactions and a spirit of cooperation (Lawler & Yoon, 1993; Sheriff, et al., 1954). Ongoing interactions and a spirit of

cooperation may correspondingly be associated with recognition of commonality of social categories and enhancements of familiarity (Flynn, 2005). Our discussion indicates that the economic currency could activate the socioemotional currency where pecuniary rewards consist of group financial rewards. In effect, group compensation might serve as an impetus for employees to broaden their conception of self-interests to group interests.

Additionally, in some firms the economic currency may encompass ownership stakes (e.g., grants of options, restricted stock, matching of company stock in retirement plans). It has been proposed that grants of ownership stakes can extend beyond employees gaining economically into augmented dimensions of the psychological sphere (Pierce, et al., 1991; Rousseau & Shperling, 2003). The reason is that ownership not only denotes possession of wealth but also the right to gain information and influence decisions about what is owned. The rights of gaining access to information and participation in decision-making may encourage further interactions among employees. Interactions among employees because of ownership stakes may also culminate in enhancements of familiarity and recognition of commonality of social categories (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Flynn, 2005). Hence, what might be stated is that "ownership operates from both a formal and a psychological experience platform" (Pierce, et al., 1991: 126). Consequently, the economic currency in the form of ownership stakes could activate the socioemotional currency.

Viewed from another perspective, what may contribute to the activation of the socioemotional currency are the multiple roles that employees play in some enterprises due to holding ownership stakes. Playing multiple roles blurs the boundaries among shareholders, managers, and workers (Rousseau & Shperling, 2003). Approximately 40% of members of publicly traded corporations are holders of equity stakes in their employer (Rosen, Case, & Staubus, 2005). Accordingly, these organization members not only play the role of an employee, but also a shareholder. Furthermore, decentralized work practices within many of such enterprises have resulted in self-management. Because members of these organizations can self-manage, and since both executives and workers hold equity stakes, these individuals frequently assume multiple roles, potentially promoting recognition of commonality of social categories. In addition to group bonuses or group commissions, therefore, the economic currency, in the form of ownership stakes, may likewise activate the socioemotional currency.

Enhancements of familiarity or recognition of commonality of social categories, associated with intra-firm interactions and the activated socioemotional currency, may further broaden organization members' conceptions of worth as group members to worth as contributors to something truly worthwhile. Our statement is compatible with the proposal that some firms as organized groups of interacting people, by design or informally, socially also evolve to stand for certain moral values or causes (Barnard, 1938; Blau, 1964; Selznick, 1957). Apparently, within the business community, many successful enterprises tend to explicitly and by design subscribe to cause-driven missions in order to capture the moral imagination of their members (Collins &

Porras, 1996; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). In this setting, corporate members may enjoy relational as well as collective pursuits in their employment.

Moreover, we suggest that it is possible for the socioemotional currency to informally trigger the ideological currency because the viability of the former may be enhanced with the presence of the latter. We shall remember that identity orientation theory addresses how the need to maintain positive self-representation affects perceptions of interacting people. It is easier to positively convey one's own self-image if interactions with others are perceived to be in congruence with norms of reciprocity as well as with moral values. Also, conflicts between two individuals or among several people are less likely in the presence of reciprocity and moral values. Presumably, the integrity of interactions of socioemotionally related employees could be safeguarded with continued reciprocity and the prevalence of moral values. Indeed, actions of interacting employees that contradict moral values may pose a threat to interacting associates' self-concepts, reducing their desire to participate, thereby devaluing the socioemotional currency. Alternatively, actions that demonstrate moral values improve the interacting employees' mutually conveyed self-representations, enhancing the value of the socioemotional currency.

Additionally, it may be said that the good will and feelings of socioemotionally related employees represent the perceived reciprocal acts of these persons and the imputed intentions behind the acts. The augmentation of broader cause-related moral intentions that are imputed to the related acts of interacting employees may support the value of the socioemotional currency because the presence of moral values could be perceived as assurance that the quality of implicit reciprocation in the present and in the future will be maintained. This contention is based on the argument that people evaluate facts as well as render intentions to the others involved in any interaction (LaFave, 2000; O'Toole, 1993). Furthermore, the relevant facts of the interaction and the imputed intentions between two or among several persons are often more positively perceived if they are presumed congruent with moral or ideological concerns (Goffman, 1997).

> *Proposition 10:*   *The economic currency will activate the socioemotional currency, and the activated socioemotional currency will trigger the ideological currency for organization members subject to group rewards or corporate ownership stakes. These organization members will have multiple identity orientations, preferring several forms of social exchange, and valuing more than one currency of the psychological contract.*

Breach of the psychological contract and interdependencies of currencies

We have suggested that the economic currency in forms of group financial rewards and grants of ownership stakes might activate the socioemotional currency. Moreover, our contention has been that the activated socioemotional currency could trigger the ideological currency. The psychological contract may be considered as upheld if these currencies are

consistently supported by the enterprise. In contrast, the psychological contract may be breached if the firm begins to reduce its support of the currencies. Our expectation, however, is that, if organization members value more than one currency of the psychological contract, the ideological component may play a particularly crucial role with respect to possible breach of the employment agreement.

Following the tradition of common law, we suggest for breach of the psychological agreement to occur, it is necessary for a bad act and a bad mind to be present. A bad act may constitute a conduct that represents an infraction of an obligation. However, a bad act may not immediately lead to a breach, unless a bad mind is also presumed (Khanna, 1999; LaFave, 2000). The presumption that a breach may require a bad act and a bad mind is likewise in conformance with Aristotle's (1941) view that a bad act and a bad desire must coexist in order to constitute a breach. In contrast, a good act and a good mind are necessary to constitute virtue. We recognize that organizations are social or legal constructions (Jensen & Meckling, 1976; Ouchi, 1981; Weick & Roberts, 1993) and have no minds per se. They are, as fiction, conceived by people to better understand their arenas. But organizations do create volitions that can be construed as good or bad acts and intentions (Khanna, 1999; Werhane, 1985). Perhaps for a breach to occur, bad acts may need to be accompanied by bad intentions.

We shall remember enterprises that are prominently cause-driven may capture the moral imagination of their members (Collins & Porras, 1996; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003), amalgamating significant moral capital. Moral capital may provide some protection for possible breach of the psychological contract due to commencements of lack of significant support for the currencies. That is, for a period of time an enterprise with moral capital may be forgiven by its members for less than fully supporting the currencies of the psychological agreement. In this case it may be reasonable to assume, where the currencies are not fully supported, the employees may invoke the cognitive template that the lack of support is not due to bad intentions for firms with moral capital. In effect, moral capital might guard against a breach, or at least, postpone a breach of the psychological contract. In contrast, the psychological agreement may be immediately breached in response to bad corporate acts involving the currencies, if a bad corporate mind is simultaneously perceived by enterprise members.

> *Proposition 11:*   *The psychological contract will be immediately breached in response to bad corporate acts (involving the currencies), if a bad corporate mind is also perceived by employees. In contrast, the presence of the ideological currency and moral capital will mollify the effects of bad corporate acts because of a presumption of an absence of a bad corporate mind, guarding against a breach, or at least, postponing a breach of the psychological agreement.*

CONCLUDING REMARKS

We began this paper with the observation that from different perspectives the separation of ownership and control is recognized as a potential major organizational problem. From an economic perspective, the problem consists of employees promoting their personal interests at the expense of relevant others and the enterprise. In contrast, from the perspective of organization behavior scholars, the problem can be traced to gaps in what employers expect and what employees perceive they should contribute. The economists have emphasized the formal employment contract, whereas the behavioral scholars have focused on the informal psychological agreement. Our contention has been that the informal psychological contract proposed by behavioral scholars provides a more useful framework for our understanding of the employment relationship, or its problems, than the formal contract and the stipulations stressed by economists. In this final section of the paper, justifications are provided for our contention.

Agency theory within the economic framework holds that employment relationships can be studied as an interaction of a principal and an agent (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). The principal delegates authority to the agent to perform a function on behalf of the principal. The focus of analysis is on the individual. What is assumed in the economic paradigm is that agents or employees seek selfish personal utilities, but are effort-averse, similar to the anticipation of Theory X (McGregor, 1960). Hence, employees are considered to be opportunistic because, if possible, they attempt to maximize their utilities, but minimize their effort on the job.

The notion that agents shirk is inconsistent with the possibility that employees could be prone toward productivity because efficient job performance may lead to increases in the economic currency. Indeed, some employees may substantially exert themselves on the job in order to improve their economic status (Guth & Taguiri, 1965). Nor does the notion of shirking allow for the possibility that human beings are naturally happier with betterment (Whitehead, 1929). Thus, with improved productivity at work and the garnering of higher compensation, employees may perceive they are better off. In this view, if individuals are more satisfied with self-improvement, then receiving higher economic currency in response to efficient job performance may also be interpreted by them as having achieved more professionally (Rosenbaum, 1984; Wright, et al., 2005). Receiving an increased economic currency for greater effort on the job is also compatible with the reality that some organization members may exert themselves because they find their tasks intrinsically satisfying (McGregor, 1960). The economic perspective does not recognize these possibilities, but the organization behavior view allows for them.

The focus on the individual is also problematic regarding an economic analysis of the employment relationship. The reason is that only some employment relationships lend themselves to an association between one principal and one agent, in isolation of other employees. These relationships consist of the agent performing a task for the principal and receiving pecuniary compensation. The behavioral view allows for this possibility by

recognizing that for some enterprise members the psychological agreement is transactional. That is, the employee performs a job for a supervisor and receives the economic currency. The economic perspective, however, is silent on the relevance of the socioemotional and ideological currencies that could induce employee contributions. In contrast, the psychological contract, proposed by behaviorists, explicitly encompasses the reality that for some organization members the socioemotional and the ideological currencies may be especially prominent. Consequently, the employment contract not only may be transactional (with the focus on the individual agent or the principal), but also relational and principled in nature (with foci on a plurality).

Approached from a broader psychological contract perspective, it may be argued that, although firms purchase the employees' time, the more relevant factor for job performance may be the extent of effort expended by the employees. The amount of effort put forth may hinge on appealing to pecuniary as well as nonpecuniary rewards (Etzioni, 1988; Thompson & Bunderson, 2003). Moreover, organizational efficiency achieved through increased employees' efforts is not an end in itself, but the satisfaction of corporate members' aspirations may be interdependent with that efficiency (Barnard, 1938; Whitehead, 1929). In effect, corporate efficiency may be related to betterment of employees since efficiency may facilitate the achievement of economic, socioemotional, and ideological goals of firm members.

A significant vulnerability of the economic perspective continues to be its emphasis on self-interest and the expectation of zero-sum outcomes. Thus the separation of ownership and control, as an organizational problem, is not subject to resolution (Jensen & Meckling, 1976). The promise of the behavioral view is that it allows for self-interest as well as mutual interests and the possibility of nonzero-sum outcomes. Therefore, the resolution of the problem of the separation of ownership and control remains a hopeful possibility. In this work our attempt has been to further enrich the concept of the psychological agreement, as research continues on this vital topic.

REFERENCES

Adams, S. J. 1965. Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 2: 267-299. New York: Academic Press.

Alchian, A. A., & Demsetz, H. 1972. Production, information costs, and economic organization. *American Economic Review*, 62: 777-795.

Alpert, S., Ashforth, B., & Dutton, J. 2000. Organizational identity and identification: Charting new waters and building new bridges. *Academy of Management Review*, 25: 13-18.

Aristotle 1941. *Rhetoric*. New York: Random House.

Barnard, C. 1938. *The Functions of the Executive*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Barnett, W. P., & Miner, A. S. 1992. Standing on the shoulders of others: Career interdependence in job mobility. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37: 262-281.

Bearman, P. 1997. Generalized exchange. *American Journal of Sociology*, 102: 1383-1415.

Berle, A., & Means, G. 1932. *The Modern Corporation and Private Property*. New York: Macmillan.

Blau, P. M. 1964. *Exchange and Power in Social Life*. New York: Wiley.

Brewer, M.B., & Gardner, W. 1996. Who is this "we"?: Levels of collective identity and self-representations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71: 83-93.

Chatman, J., Polzer, J., Barsade, S., & Neale, M. 1998. Being different yet feeling similar: The influence of demographic composition and organizational culture on work processes and outcomes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 43: 749-780.

Conger, J. A. 1994. *Spirit of Work: Discovering the Spirituality of Leadership*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Collins, J. C., & Porras, J. I. 1996. Building your company's vision. *Harvard Business Review*, 74(5): 65-77.

Cook, K. S., & Yamagishi, T. 1983. Social determinants of equity judgments: The problem of multidimensional input. In Messik, D., & Cook, K. (Eds.). *Equity theory: Psychological and Sociological Perspectives*. New York: Praeger.

Cowherd, D. & Levine, D. 1992. Product quality and pay equity between lower-level employees and top management: An investigation of distributive justice theory. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37: 302-320.

Deutsch, M. 1949. A theory of cooperation and competition. *Human Relations*, 2: 129-152.

Deutsch, M. 1985. *Distributive Justice*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Etzioni, A. 1988. *The Moral Dimension: Toward a New Economics*. New York: The Free Press.

Fama, E. & Jensen, M.C. 1983. Separation of ownership and control. *Journal of Law and Economics*, 26: 301-325.

Flynn, F. J. 2005. Identity orientations and forms of social exchange in organizations. *Academy of Management Review*, 30: 737-750.

Gardner, W., Gabriel, S., & Hochschild, L. 2002. When you and I are "we," you are not threatening: The role of self-expansion in social comparison. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 83: 239-251.

Goffman, E. 1997. Self-preservation. In C. Lemert & A. Branaman (Eds.), *The Goffman Reader*. Oxford: Blackwell: 21-26.

Guth, W. D., & Taguiri, R. 1965. Personal values and corporate strategy. *Harvard Business Review*, 123-132.

Herriott, P., & Pemberton, C. 1996. Contracting careers. *Human Relations*, 49: 759-790.

Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. 2000. Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *Academy of Management Review*, 25: 121-140.

Homans, G. C. 1958. Social behavior as exchange. *American Journal of Sociology*, 63: 597-606.

Jensen, M. C., & Meckling, W. H. 1976. Theory of the firm: Managerial behavior, agency costs, and ownership structure. *Journal of Financial Economics*, 3: 305-360.

Khanna, V.S. 1999. Is the notion of corporate fault a faulty notion? The case of corporate mens rea. *Boston University Law Review*, 79: 355-415.

LaFave, W. R. 2000. *Criminal Law* (3rd ed.), St. Paul: West Group.

Lawler, E., & Yoon, J. 1993. Power and the emergence of commitment behavior in negotiated exchange. *American Sociological Review*, 58: 465-481.

Macneil, I. R. 1985. Relational contract: What we do and do not know. *Wisconsin Law Review*, 483-525.

Markus, H., & Kitayama, S. 1991. Culture and the self: Implications for cognition, emotion, and motivation. *Psychological Review*, 98: 224-253.

McGregor, D 1960. *The Human Side of the Enterprise*. New York : McGraw-Hill.

McLean Parks, J., & Kidder, D. L. 1994. "Till death do us part . . ." Changing work relationships in the 1990s. In C. L. Cooper, & D. M. Rousseau (Eds.), *Trends in Organizational Behavior*: 111-136. New York: Wiley.

McLean Parks, J., & Schmedemann, D. A. 1994. When promises become contracts: Implied contracts and handbook provisions on job security. *Human Resource Management*, 33: 403-423.

Milkovich, G. T., & Newman, J. M. 2002. *Compensation*. Chicago: Irwin.

Morrison, E. W., & Robinson, S. L. 1997. When employees feel betrayed: A model of how psychological contract violation develops. *Academy of Management Review*, 22: 226-256.

Ouchi, W. G. 1981. *Theory Z*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

O'Toole, J. 1993. *The Executive's Compass*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Pierce, J. L., Rubenfeld, S. A., & Morgan, S. 1991. Employee Ownership: A conceptual model of process and effects. *The Academy of Management Review*, 16: 121-144.

Robinson, S L., & Morrison, E. W. 2000. The development of psychological contract breach and violation: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21: 525-546.

Robinson, S.. 1996. Trust and breach of the psychological contract. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41: 574-599.

Rosen, C. M., Case, J., & Staubus, M. 2005. Every employee an owner. *Harvard Business Review*, 83: 122-130.

Rosen, C., Klein, K. J.& Young, K. M. 1986. *Employee Ownership in America*. Lexington, MA: Lexington Books.

Rosenbaum, J. 1984. *Career Mobility in Corporate Hierarchy*. New York: Academia Press.

Rousseau, D. M., & McLean Parks, J. 1993. The contracts of individuals and organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 15: 1-47.

Rousseau, D.M. 1995. *Psychological Contracts in Organizations: Understanding Written and Unwritten Agreements*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Rousseau, D. M., & Shperling, Z. 2003. Pieces of the action: Ownership and the changing employment relationship. *Academy of Management Review*, 28: 533-570.

Rousseau, D. M., & Tijoriwala, S. A. 1998. Assessing psychological contracts: Issues, alternatives and measures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 19: 679-695.

Sahlins, M. D. 1972. *Stone age Eeconomics*. Chicago: Aldine-Atherton.

Selznick, P. 1957. *Leadership in Administration: A Sociological Interpretation*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Sheriff, M., Harvey, O., White, B., Hood, W., & Sherif, C. 1954. *Experimental Study of Positive and Negative Intergroup Attitudes Between Experimentally Produced Groups: Robbers Cove Experiment*. Norman: University of Oklahoma Press.

Spranger, E. 1928. *Types of Men*. Halle, Germany: Niemeyer.

Thompson, J. D. 1967. *Organizations in Action*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Thompson, J. A., & Bunderson, J. S. 2003. Violations of principle: Ideological currency in the psychological contract. *Academy of Management Review*, 28: 571-586.

Turnley, W. H., & Feldman, D. C. 1999. The impact of psychological contract violations on exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. *Human Relations*, 52: 895-922.

Turnley, W. H., & Feldman, D. C. 2000. Re-examining the effects of psychological contract violations: Unmet expectations and job dissatisfaction as mediators. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21: 25-42.

Veblen, T. 1923. *Absentee Ownership and Business Enterprise in Recent Times: The Case of America.* New York: Viking.

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

Werhane, P. H. 1985. *Persons, rights, and corporations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Whitehead, A. N. 1929. *The function of reason*. Boston: Beacon Press.

Wright, P., Kroll, M., Lado, A., & Elenkov, D. 2005. Influences of relative rewards of top managers on firm performance. *Strategic Organization*, 3: 311-335.

Yamagishi, T., & Cook, K. S. 1993. Generalized exchange and social dilemmas. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 56: 235-248.