AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK VALUE CONGRUENCE IN A DYAD AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AS MEDIATED BY ORGANIZATIONAL INFLUENCES

Dissertation

Presented to the Graduate Council of the University of North Texas in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements For the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

Kathleen M. Dale, B.S., M.B.A.
Denton, Texas
May, 1997
AN INVESTIGATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK VALUE CONGRUENCE IN A DYAD AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AS MEDIATED BY ORGANIZATIONAL INFLUENCES

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the University of North Texas in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

Kathleen M. Dale, B.S., M.B.A.

Denton, Texas

May, 1997
Dale, Kathleen M., *An Investigation of the Relationship Between Work Value Congruence in a Dyad and Organizational Commitment as Mediated by Organizational Influences*, Doctor of Philosophy (Management), May, 1997, 192 pp, 16 tables, 2 figures, references, 252 titles.

Researchers suggest that value congruence in superior-subordinate dyads results in positive outcomes for an organization (Kemelgor, 1980; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989; 1990; Parkington & Schneider, 1979; Senger, 1971; Weeks, Chonko, Kahle, 1989). Further, evidence is presented which suggests that commitment at the organizational level is achieved, in part, through value congruence at the individual level of analysis. Analysis at the individual level reflects the effect of shared values on interpersonal relations. Work value congruence in a dyad enhances the development of a high quality dyadic relationship. The subordinate in such a relationship perceives being allowed more participation in decision making, more positive work experiences, and less role stress (Turban & Jones, 1988). These items have been found to be predictor variables of commitment from Steer's (1977) framework of antecedents.
In this study, a research model was proposed which suggests that work value congruence in the subordinate-superior dyad leads to organizational commitment through its effect on subordinate perceptions of role stress characteristics, participation, and work experiences. The model integrates the organizational aspects of the Steer's (1977) framework for organizational commitment with the interpersonal effect of work value congruence.

A field study design using a sample of 96 subordinate-superior dyads at a large Midwestern manufacturing corporation was used for the study. The influence of dyadic work value congruence on organizational commitment as mediated by subordinate perceptions of role stress, participation, and initiation structure/consideration were tested using hierarchical regression.

The results of the study indicate that value congruence has a direct influence on OC rather than being mediated by perceptions of role stress characteristics, participation in decision making, and work experiences as predicted in the proposed model. Role stress characteristics and participation in decision making were also found to directly influence levels of OC, however, support was not found for the positive influence of work experiences.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my dissertation committee: Dr. Warren Watson, Dr. James D. Powell, Dr. Nancy Boyd, and Dr. Joseph Doster for their support on this project. Special thanks goes to my dissertation chairperson, Dr. Warren Watson. Dr. Watson guided me through my dissertation and was an excellent mentor throughout my Ph.D. program at the University of North Texas.

To my friends and family, thank you for having confidence in me. Thank you for supporting me and giving me the real opportunity to complete my Ph.D. You have been with me every step of the way.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGMENTS</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF FIGURES</td>
<td>viii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER I - STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defining Organizational Commitment</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral Commitment</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic Commitment</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affective Commitment</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Need to Expand Current Models of OC</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance of the Study</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Importance of Organizational Commitment</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purposes of the Dissertation</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition of Terms</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Summary</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER II - REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value Congruence as a Predictor of OC</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Values</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory of Similarity-Attraction</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studies of Attitude Similarity</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarity and Attraction</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarity and Evaluations</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Similarity and Interactions</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superior-Subordinate Value Congruence and Outcomes</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational-Individual Value Congruence and OC</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordinate-Superior Dyad Relationships</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value Congruence and Superior-Subordinate Dyad Relationships</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subordinate-Superior Value Congruence, Organizational Influences, and OC</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Stress Characteristics</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership Structure/Consideration</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Page</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiation Structure</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisory Consideration</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participation in Decision Making</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Model and Proposed Hypotheses</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hypotheses</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase I: VC and Organizational Influences</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II: Organizational Influences and OC</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III: VC and OC as Mediated by Organizational Influences</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Characteristics</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship Between Personal Characteristics and OC</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Summary</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER III - METHOD</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Measures</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Commitment</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Values</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Stress Characteristics</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structural Characteristics</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Experiences</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demographic Information</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Analysis</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Summary</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER IV - RESULTS</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlations</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tests of Hypotheses</td>
<td>104</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase I Analyses</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II Analyses</td>
<td>106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III Analyses</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chapter Summary</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER V - DISCUSSION</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of Results</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase I: Relationship Between Value Congruence and Organizational Influences</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase II: Relationship Between Organizational Influence and OC</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phase III: The Full Model</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Post Hoc Power Analysis 124
Theoretical Implications 126
Practical Implications 128
Directions for Future Research 130
Limitations of the Study 132
Chapter Summary 134

APPENDIX

A The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire 136
B Participation in Decision Making 139
C Role Stress Characteristics 141
D Leadership Initiation
   Structure/Consideration 144
E Comparative Emphasis Scale 147
F Demographic Questionnaire 154

BIBLIOGRAPHY 156
# LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Summary of Literature on Similarity-Attraction Paradigm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Summary of Literature on Attitude Similarity, Attraction, and Evaluations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Summary of Literature on Similarity and Interpersonal Interactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Outcomes of Superior-Subordinate Work Value Congruence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Value Congruence in Superior-Subordinate Dyads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Role Stress Characteristics and Outcomes That Influence Levels of Organizational Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The Influence of Leadership Initiation Structure On Level of Organizational Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Leadership Consideration and Outcomes That Influence Levels of Organizational Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participation in Decision Making</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Description of Scales</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Descriptive Statistics and Correlations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phase II - One Set Equation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phase II - Regression 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phase II - Regression 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phase II - Regression 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>112</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Phase III - Regression 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Organizational Commitment Model</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Revised Organizational Commitment Model</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Organizational commitment (OC) is considered to be a bond or linking of the individual to the organization (Alutto, Hrebinjak, & Alonso, 1973; Becker, 1960; Reichers, 1985; Salancik, 1977; Steers, 1977). In an effort to better understand the development of OC, researchers have focused on how this bond develops. As a result, much research has attempted to identify predictor variables which influence the process of OC.

Researchers credit Steers (1977) with the initial development of a theoretically-grounded framework from which predictor variables of OC are derived (Morris & Sherman, 1981; Flynn & Solomon, 1985). Steer's model proposes that the antecedents of OC can be divided into three categories: personal characteristics of members, job-related characteristics, and work experiences.

More recent research suggests the need to add a fourth category of antecedents, namely, structural characteristics which include variables such as formalization and participation in decision making (Morris & Steers, 1980; Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978). Overall, the four general
categories of variables seem to emerge as antecedents of organizational commitment. Much of the OC research to date focuses on investigating specific factors which comprise the four general categories (Stevens et al., 1978; Morris & Sherman, 1981; Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Wiener, 1982). While studied predictors of OC are related to only four general categories, there are many specific factors within these categories that are linked to commitment. This is partially true because many studies have simply examined the correlation of these factors to commitment, and many factors are linked to OC without any sound theoretical basis to support them. While some factors have consistently shown a strong attachment to commitment, others are inconsistent and show mixed results.

Differences in commitment determinants may be partially explained by the different measures of commitment employed by the researchers. Other researchers (Mowday et al., 1982) argue that the different sample types used in the various studies has the largest influence. Another explanation suggests that the problem in obtaining consistent findings on antecedents to commitment is due to the complexity of the commitment construct. This complexity stems from the existence of multiple dimensions within organizational commitment which, in turn, cause difficulties in arriving at a common definition acceptable to all researchers. Without
agreement on a "correct" definition, there have been problems in determining the best approach to use when measuring commitment. The result has been multi-directional efforts by researchers.

Defining Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has been defined and measured in several different fashions. The various definitions and measures share a common theme in that OC is considered to be a bond or linking of the individual to the organization. The definitions differ in terms of how this bond develops. Reichers (1985) identified three major categories of definitions for OC: behavioral, economic, and affective.

Behavioral Commitment

Behavioral commitment is concerned with attributions made by an employee as an attempt to maintain consistency between behaviors and attitudes. This type of commitment occurs when individuals attribute an attitude of commitment to themselves after engaging in certain behaviors. For example, when an employee works somewhere for a period of time, he or she may attribute this action to being committed to the organization. According to Salancik (1977), not all behaviors result in the same degree of commitment. He suggests that four characteristics of actions determine the amount of commitment. First, if an act is explicit by being
both observable and unequivocal, it serves to commit the person. Second, a behavior that is relatively irreversible has a stronger impact on commitment than one which can easily be revoked. Third, the perception of free will links the person and the act. Fourth, a public action in front of important others serves to solidify commitment.

**Economic Commitment**

Economic commitment is based on Becker's (1960) side-bet theory. This theory suggests that employees build up investments that will be lost if they leave the organization. Typically, these investment considerations are assumed to be economic and include such things as nonportable pension plans, tenure, and job security (McGee & Ford, 1987). As time passes, people become increasingly reluctant to change their course of action as their investment in an organization continues to grow. In this situation, an employee can become entrapped in a position as it becomes more and more costly to leave one job for another (Rusbult & Farrell, 1983).

Adding to the entrapment, employees perceive their specialized skills as being less applicable and, therefore, of less value to other organizations relative to the one in which they are currently employed (Scholl, 1981). This combination of lack of employment alternatives plus large
personal investments results in increased levels of commitment by workers. The "side-bet" approach to organizational commitment has been used in various studies (Alutto, Hrebinjak, & Alonso, 1973; Farrell & Rusbult, 1981; Grusky, 1966; Hrebinjak & Alutto, 1972; Rusbult & Farrel, 1983; Sheldon, 1971).

**Affective Commitment**

The third category of commitment, affective commitment, is perhaps the most researched, yet least understood category of commitment. Buchanan (1974) presented a definition of OC that appears to be the basis of many of the attitudinal definitions found in the literature. He defines OC as an individual's affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization, high involvement in work roles, and a loyal attachment to the organization apart from its instrumental worth. Similarly, Porter et al. (1974) defined commitment as (a) a belief in and acceptance of organizational goals and values, (b) the willingness to work hard in order to achieve organizational goals, and a strong desire to remain a member of the organization.

As both Buchanan (1974) and Porter et al. (1974) define commitment, its distinguishing characteristic is the individual's internalization of the organization's goals and values. Internalization occurs when influence is accepted because the induced attitudes and behaviors are congruent.
with one's own values. In such a case, the values of the individual and the group or organization would be the same (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).

This paper uses the description of affective commitment to define OC. The definition of affective commitment centers on employee attitudes toward the organization. Because the object of affective commitment is the organization, the terms affective commitment and organizational commitment will be used interchangeably throughout this paper.

A Need to Expand Current Models of OC

One criticism of commitment studies focuses on the lack of agreement regarding predictors of commitment. In all, at least 25 variables have been found to be related in some way with organizational commitment. These variables originate from various aspects of organizational life, including personal characteristics of the individual members, role-related characteristics of the work place, structural aspects of the organization, and the various work experiences encountered by employees (Steers, 1977).

While researchers (Morris and Sherman, 1981; Flynn & Solomon, 1985) have found evidence for the utility of Steer's theoretical framework as a guide to identifying potential influences on organizational commitment, they
contend that more research will be necessary before the commitment concept becomes useful for understanding employees' affective responses to the organization. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) recommend that future research be directed at investigating theory-based causal models that include mediated and/or moderated relationships as related to OC (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Variables to consider in such models may include the relationship between interpersonal influences as well as organizational influences on OC. There is evidence that commitment may be created retrospectively through the processes of rationalization and justification by the employee (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981). In addition to simply reporting the existence and/or correlational antecedents of OC, it may be as important to investigate how commitment develops (Luthans, Baack, & Taylor, 1987). Studies of this variety will begin to clarify the boundary conditions in which certain personal or situational characteristics will influence OC (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

In developing more complex models of OC, one important variable to consider is the level of value congruence among organizational members. There continues to be increasing evidence that dimensions of behavior and attitude are affected by value congruity (Apasu, 1986; Boxx, Odom, Dunn,
1991; Meglino, Ravlin, Adkins, 1989). Individuals who hold the same values are thought to share certain aspects of cognitive processing. These similarities are believed to foster a common system of communication and like methods of classifying and interpreting environmental events. Such qualities are essential to the success of interpersonal activities because they reduce or eliminate negative features of work interactions such as uncertainty and stimulus overload (Schein, 1985), thereby enhancing coordination and organizational commitment (Meglino et al., 1989). While studies show the importance of shared values (value congruence) for strong corporate culture, which has been linked to superior overall performance and positive organizational outcomes (Barney, 1986; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Kilmann, 1984; Peters & Waterman, 1982), there is a gap in the literature pertaining to the relationship between value congruence and OC at the individual level of analysis.

A model that expands Steer's (1977) model of OC to include the interpersonal impact of value congruence should build a clearer understanding of the commitment process. The revised model suggests that value congruence among individuals in the workplace leads to OC through its influence on subordinate perceptions of structural
characteristics, work experiences, and role stress characteristics.

Role stress characteristics, work experiences, and structural characteristics were chosen as mediators because each represents an organizational factor from the Steer's (1977) framework of antecedents to OC. Further, similarity in subordinate-superior dyads has been found to influence subordinate perceptions of role stress characteristics, structural characteristics, and work experiences (Turban & Jones, 1988; Liden & Graen, 1980). Therefore, the research question involves integrating the organizational aspects of the Steer's framework for OC with the interpersonal influence of work value congruence (similarity). The following research question guides the study:

What is the relationship between value congruence and organizational commitment as mediated by subordinate perceptions of role stress characteristics, work experiences, and structural characteristics?

The research question was explored using a field study. Superior-subordinate dyads completed questionnaires containing measures of work values, role ambiguity, role conflict, participation in decision making, leadership initiation structure/consideration, and OC. The influence of work value congruence on each of the variables was
Hierarchical regressions were used to analyze the data.

Significance of the Study

A clearer understanding of the impact of superior-subordinate value congruence (similarity of work values) on OC may illuminate how commitment to an organization is developed. If work value congruence at the individual level is found to be an important variable in the OC process, organizations desiring increased commitment from workers will profit from determining a method of developing similar perceptions of important work values in dyads.

There are various strategies and tactics that organizations may employ to enhance value congruence (similarity of work values). Two techniques used for enhancing value congruence include (1) the socialization of employees toward desired work values, and (2) the recruitment and selection of value-congruent candidates.

Organizations that tend to employ the socialization strategy to achieve value congruence will typically utilize selection processes that concentrate on the candidate's aptitudes and willingness to learn as opposed to personal work related values. Research indicates that when employing the strategy of socialization, it is more effective to socialize people at the time they enter the organization
rather than allow socialization to happen over time (McDonald & Gandz, 1992). Organizations using this alternative tend to develop and invest more resources in socialization programs such as training sessions, reward systems, and internal corporate communication programs that emphasize the work values important to the organization.

Some managers prefer to select employees on the basis of their skills and existing personal work-related values (McDonald & Gandz, 1992). Research indicates that when the selection strategy is used, organizations assess candidates' value compatibility using intuitive procedures during the interview process. These processes include an open/informal interview style, hypothetical questions and observations of nonverbal feedback, and observations of candidates' behavior during social gatherings.

Clearly, the purpose of this current research is not necessarily to suggest that it is best for organizations to hire people who most clearly match the work values of a superior. Rather, this research simply reports the potential outcomes of discrepancies in work values and alternatives for improving problems resulting from the discrepancies. As such, a third alternative would be to enact interventions aimed at improving the quality of subordinate-superior dyadic relationships when work values
are not congruent. Superiors might want, for example, to increase communication with incongruent subordinates to ensure that messages are received accurately. Further, interventions to enhance superior and subordinate awareness of how differences and similarities in work values can affect perceptions of each other and the work environment may be helpful.

These types of interventions may be particularly relevant in the work environment of the 1990s where increasingly diverse work forces are being employed. For example, Tusi and O'Reilly (1989) found that demographic similarity (gender, race, age, and education) was associated with attitudinal and value similarity, which enhanced interpersonal attraction and increased the frequency of communication in the dyad. Because demographic differences have been found to be associated with differing attitudes and values among individuals, managers can prepare diverse work forces with interventions aimed at improving communication and understanding individual differences.

The Importance of Organizational Commitment

Examining the relationship between value congruence and OC may help scholars and managers predict organizational outcomes. The commitment literature suggests that higher levels of OC among employees leads to desirable behaviors
and organizational outcomes. Commitment has been found to be negatively associated with such outcomes as turnover (Horn, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Porter, Crampon, & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Bulian, 1974) and other withdrawal behaviors such as absenteeism and tardiness (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bateman & Srasser, 1984; Horn et al., 1979; Koch & Steers, 1978; Larson & Fukami, 1984; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Steers, 1977; Van Maanen, 1975). Organizational commitment has also been found to be positively associated with performance (Mowday, Porter, & Dubin, 1974) and may represent one useful indicator of the effectiveness of an organization (Schein, 1970; Steers, 1975).

A number of hypotheses have been offered to explain the relationship between OC and organizational outcomes. Primarily, commitment is believed to influence organizational outcomes because employees who are committed to an organization are also committed to the realization of its goals (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). Consequently, performance is believed to be greater among highly committed employees because they exert more effort to achieve the organization’s goals. Lower absenteeism and tardiness among highly committed employees is believed to occur because they are motivated to attend work and pursue the organization’s goals. Committed employees will also
wish to continue their membership in an organization if they feel a strong commitment to its goals.

With the importance of these outcomes to organizational effectiveness, methods for increasing OC have been sought among managers and researchers. Much effort has been directed toward identifying variables that may influence levels of commitment (Brown, 1969; Buchanan, 1974; Hall & Schneider, 1972; Hrebiniaik & Alutto, 1972; Lee, 1971; Steers, 1977; Stevens et al., 1978). While these studies have provided valuable information about possible influences on OC, no single, widely accepted set of commitment antecedents has been found to adequately predict commitment (Morris & Sherman, 1981). It is necessary to look for more extensive models of OC in order to further our understanding of the construct.

Purposes of the Dissertation

The overall goal of this paper is to develop a more complex, literature based model for predicting OC and to test hypotheses derived from this model. Specifically, this paper has four purposes. First, the previous research on similarity, value congruence, and OC is reviewed. Second, value congruence and its link to OC is discussed. Third, this research is incorporated
into a model of OC which expands, modifies, and repositions an existing model of OC. Finally, a study to examine the relationship between value congruence and organizational commitment as mediated by perceptions of role stress characteristics, work experiences, and participation in decision making is conducted.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are given for key terms that will be used in this study.

1. Attitude
   A relatively enduring organization of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner (Rokeach, 1968)

2. Behavior
   Action/s resulting from motivation ranging from a single act to a whole set of acts

3. Belief
   An inference made by an observer about underlying states of expectancy (Rokeach, 1968)

4. Centralization
   Degree to which employees participate in setting the goals and policies of the entire organization (Aiken & Hage, 1966).
5. Consideration
   The degree to which a superior develops a work climate of psychological support, mutual trust and respect, helpfulness, and friendliness (Stogdill, 1963).

6. Formalization
   The presence of specific rules and procedures for employees to follow in performing their tasks (Aiken & Hage, 1966).

7. Initiation of Structure
   The degree to which a supervisor defines the role of subordinates by assigning tasks, specifying procedures, and scheduling work (Stogdill, 1963).

8. Organizational Commitment
   Degree to which an employee has a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values and a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization (Mowday, Steers, Porter, 1979).

9. Role Ambiguity
   Degree to which clear information, in terms of directives and policies, is lacking that would otherwise serve to guide behavior and provide knowledge that the behavior is appropriate (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970).
10. Role Conflict

Degree of incompatibly or incongruity among role expectations (Rizzo et al., 1970).

11. Value Congruence

The extent that two work-related values or sets of values are similar to each other (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1992).

12. Work Values

Preferences for various modes of work behavior that are socially desirable and thus should or ought to be displayed (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987).

Chapter Summary

This chapter was designed to provide a broad overview of the proposed study. First, the theoretical foundation for studying affective organizational commitment is presented. This section is followed by a discussion of the need to expand models of OC to include causal and mediated and/or moderated relationships. Work value congruence in a superior-subordinate dyad is discussed as being an important variable in expanded models of OC. The specific research question to be addressed and the methodology to be used in the study were presented. The significance of the research was then proposed in terms of both value congruence and OC followed by a section describing the purposes of the
dissertation. Last, definitions of terms that will be used throughout the study were presented.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter is a review of the literature on congruence and organizational commitment (OC). First a discussion is presented suggesting work value congruence between superiors and subordinates as a potential variable in expanded models of OC. This section is followed by a discussion of the theories which describe the potential affect of similarity between individuals. The next sections review the literature on various studies of congruence and suggest that perceived similarity between superiors and subordinates results in attraction and improved interpersonal relationships in the superior-subordinate dyad. This relationship is important in terms of who the superior chooses to perform the more critical tasks in the unit and those who are relegated to more routine work. Superiors tend to select subordinates for critical tasks who are viewed more positively (i.e., more similar) by the superior. In turn, the subordinate experiences being allowed more role latitude, higher levels of leadership initiation structure/consideration, and greater participation in decision making.
Role stress characteristics, participation in decision making, and leadership initiation structure/consideration all represent factors from Steer's (1977) framework of antecedents to OC. Therefore, the literature linking these variables to OC is reviewed. The final section of the chapter contains the research model and hypotheses for this study.

Value Congruence As a Predictor of OC

An important variable to consider in more complex models of OC is the level of work value congruence between a superior and a subordinate. Analysis at this level reflects the effect of shared values on interpersonal interactions. Researchers have become increasingly interested in the interpersonal relationships within superior-subordinate dyads. The quality of superior-subordinate interactions is important because in most organizations this dyad must interact effectively in order to accomplish organizational goals and objectives. The quality of these interactions can influence the attitudes workers have toward the work environment.

Value congruence is determined based on the similarity of work values among individuals in an organization. Work values are important for understanding and predicting the affective responses of individuals in an organizational
setting. People behave in accordance with their ideologies and values, and also in accordance with the ideologies and values of powerful superiors (Beyer, 1981).

**Work Values**

Values of individuals in the work place have been defined in many ways in the literature. In the present research, work values are defined as preferences for various modes of work behavior, in particular, modes of behavior which are socially desirable (Mirels & Garret, 1971; Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, & Smith, 1971) and thus should or ought to be displayed (Meglino et al., 1987). These values are both central and relatively stable because they are based on a person's experience (Jones & Gerard, 1967; Locke, 1982), as well as what he or she has been taught, particularly during periods of socialization. This centrality makes work values an important construct for understanding and predicting the affective reactions of individuals in an organizational setting (Epstein, 1979; 1980).

Work values are expected to influence broad modes of behavior over time (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987b), act as a perceptual screen, and influence the choices individuals make, what they respond to, and the way they invest their time (Schmidt & Posner, 1983). Ultimately, work values
indicate an individual's willingness to commit to organizational goals and responsibilities (Posner & Schmidt, 1992).

Rokeach (1973) concluded that values are determinants of all kinds of behavior that could be called social behavior--of social action, attitudes, ideology, opinions, and comparisons of self with others. Therefore, an attitude and other expressions result from the application of a general value to concrete objects or situations (Theodorson & Theodorson, 1969).

In addition to their hypothesized effect on behavioral choices and perceptions, work values sway various forms of affect when there is value congruence among individuals; that is, the tendency for people to express greater positive affect when they interact with others who display values similar to their own (Kluckhohn, 1951; Meglino et al., 1989; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1990). The following sections describe the literature pertaining to similarity between individuals and the resulting affect.

Theory of Similarity-Attraction

A number of investigators have found that perceived similarity is likely to be correlated with a subject's viewpoint toward another (Bronfenbrenner, 1958). One hypothesis is that the perception of similarity leads to
interpersonal attraction. Research suggests that a person who is perceived as similar to the evaluator is more attractive and that this attraction positively biases decisions and evaluations regarding that person (Byrne, 1961; Byrne, Young, & Griffitt, 1966). Experimental manipulations of similarity have generally supported this assumption. Persons seen as similar in attitudes and background were treated and evaluated more favorably than were those seen as dissimilar (Baskett, 1973; Golightly, Huffman, & Byrne, 1972; Griffitt & Jackson, 1970; Peters & Terborg, 1975; Rand & Wexley, 1975; Wexley & Nemeroff, 1974).

The similarity-attraction hypothesis can be derived from Heider's balance theory (1958). According to Heider, separate entities that are similar tend to be perceived as belonging together (having a unit relationship). Heider's balance theory proposes that people strive to make their sentiment relationships harmonious with their perception of the unit relationships. Therefore, positive unit formation (perceived similarity) should induce a harmonious sentiment relationship (attraction).

A great deal of research has focused on a specific subclass of similarity, attitudinal similarity. Attitudes are of particular importance because they reflect the
underlying values that an individual holds (Rokeach, 1973; Theodorson & Theodorson, 1969). It has been proposed that people will be attracted to those who possess attitudes similar to their own. Festinger's (1954) theory of social comparison processes provides insight into the processes that may underlie this attitudinal similarity-attraction relationship. According to Festinger, people learn early in life that holding incorrect opinions and attitudes can be punishing. Therefore, most people have a drive to evaluate the correctness of their attitudes. The correctness of an attitude can be tested against two sources, physical reality or social reality.

According to Festinger, social reality is provided by the attitudes of others. When two people have the same attitudes and opinions on an issue, support is given for the notion that the attitude is the correct one. Therefore, the attitude is given social validation. Assuming it is a nice feeling for individuals to feel that they have an objective and correct view, such social validation should be rewarding, resulting in a rewarding interaction and ultimately a positive relationship.

Byrne (1969, 1971) described the relationship between attraction and similarity as the similarity-attraction paradigm. Similar to Festinger, Byrne suggests that
similarity to another person increases the likelihood that an individual will obtain consensual validation for his/her own views and opinions from that person. Validation of a viewpoint is usually experienced as rewarding and therefore leads to an increase in positive feelings toward the other person. People tend to have well established, learned drives to be logical and to make a correct report of the environment. Those who seem deficient in this respect are generally categorized as being uninformed, of low intelligence, immoral, and/or as being out of contact with reality.

It is mainly through consensual validation that people determine whether they or anyone else is logical or correct in interpreting environmental events (Byrne 1969, 1971). Therefore, whenever another person offers validation by indicating that his/her perceptions and attitudes are congruent with another person, it makes for a rewarding interaction and, thus one element in forming a positive relationship between the two people. Any time that a person indicates dissimilarity between two notions, it makes for a punishing interaction and thus one element in forming a negative relationship. Disagreement raises the unpleasant possibility that an individual is to some degree ignorant, uninformed, immoral, or unstable.
Heider (1958), Festinger (1954), and Byrne (1969, 1971) offer theories to explain how and why perceptions of similarity among individuals leads to attraction for each other. Table 1 summarizes the attraction-similarity theories.

Studies of Attitude Similarity

A number of studies have investigated the effect of similarity between individuals. The following sections will discuss the research studies that used similarity as a variable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Theory</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Byrne (1969, 1971)</td>
<td>Similarity-Attraction Paradigm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Festinger (1954)</td>
<td>Theory of Social Comparison Processes</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heider (1958)</td>
<td>Balance Theory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarity and Attraction

Newcomb (1961) was among the first to investigate the proposition that attitude similarity produces interpersonal attraction. Newcomb examined the development of friendship among a group of male students at the University of
Michigan. All the men were strangers when they arrived at the residence hall that they had been assigned to share. Newcomb found that the more a man liked another resident, the more he tended to assume that the other would agree with him on important matters.

Newcomb also found that when individuals were given adequate opportunity to become familiar with the attitudes of each other, attraction was predictable from the level of attitude agreement. Further, the correlation between liking another individual and the extent to which they actually agreed with that person concerning the attractiveness of the other residents, increased with acquaintance. The positive relationship between attraction and agreement became statistically significant only in the final weeks of the study.

In the study, a similar relationship was found between attraction and similarity on other attitudes and values. By knowing how similar individuals were before moving into the residence hall, a prediction could be made regarding who would be attracted to whom after a long acquaintance, but not who would be friends initially. Apparently, it took students a certain amount of time to discover which residents held attitudes similar to their own and which held dissimilar attitudes.
Other studies of a more experimental nature have also supported the proposition that attitude similarity is a determinant of interpersonal attraction. Many of these experiments have been conducted by Byrne and his colleagues, who have developed from their work a precise view of the effect of attitudinal similarity on attraction. This view contends that the perceived similarity (or dissimilarity) of attitudes attributed to one individual by another is related to both interpersonal attraction and evaluations (Byrne, 1971; Clore, 1976).

In general, people are more attracted to and evaluate more highly others who appear to hold attitudes and beliefs similar to themselves (Byrne & Wong, 1962; Hastorf, Schneider, & Polefka, 1970; Latham, Wexley, & Pursell, 1975). For example, in a lab study using students enrolled in an introductory psychology course, Byrne (1961) found that a stranger who is known to have attitudes similar to those of the subject is better liked than a stranger with attitudes dissimilar to those of the subject. Secondly, he found that a stranger who is known to have attitudes similar to those of the subject is judged to be more intelligent, better informed, more moral, and better adjusted than a stranger with attitudes dissimilar to those of the subject.
Building on the Byrne (1961) study, Byrne and Nelson (1965) compared the effect on attraction of the proportion of similar attitudes expressed by a stranger with the effect of the number of similar attitudes expressed. To examine the relative effects of proportion and number of similar attitudes, each subject was asked to read an attitude scale that they believed had been filled out by an anonymous stranger. After completing this task, each subject was requested to evaluate the stranger along a number of dimensions, including that of attraction.

The attitude scales read by the subjects were developed by the researchers in such a way that the number of similar attitudes expressed was varied parametrically. Cross-cutting variation on the number of similar attitudes expressed was parametric variation of the proportion of similar attitudes expressed.

The results of this experiment indicated that attraction was significantly affected only by the proportion of similar attitudes expressed. The greater the proportion of similar, as opposed to dissimilar attitudes, the greater the liking for the stranger who purportedly had filled out the attitude scale. In addition, the results suggested that the functional relationship between proportion of similar attitudes and attraction was linear. Subsequent studies
conducted by Byrne and his associates have corroborated the finding that interpersonal attraction is a positive linear function of the proportion of attitude statements attributed to an individual which are in agreement with the attitudes of the subject (Byrne and Clore, 1966; Byrne and Griffitt, 1966).

Byrne & Wong (1962) found that the attitude similarity variable is of greater strength than prejudice and race variables in terms of attraction. The researchers found that similarity of attitudes resulted in positive attraction ratings of a stranger and dissimilarity of attitudes resulted in negative ratings regardless of the prejudice of a subject and the race of a stranger. In a lab setting using introductory psychology students, the researchers found that highly prejudiced Caucasian subjects rated a black with attitudes similar to their own in a positive way. Those low in prejudice tended to rate disagreeing blacks negatively. Within the limits of this experimental design, it would appear that the attitude similarity variable is of greater strength than the prejudice and race variables.

While a positive relationship between attitude similarity and attraction has been repeatedly demonstrated, a potential limitation to the theory was observed by Byrne (1961). Byrne hypothesized that an individual who shared
opinions on important issues would be better liked than one who held similar opinions on less important issues.

To test this hypothesis, Byrne asked his subjects to complete an attitude questionnaire and to indicate which issues mentioned in the questionnaire were most important to them and which were least important. Two weeks later, subjects were then given a questionnaire that had allegedly been filled out by a person in another class. The responses on the questionnaires were devised so that one group of subjects received questionnaires expressing exactly the same attitudes the subjects themselves had expressed when they filled out their questionnaires. A second group received questionnaires which expressed views opposite to their own. A third group received questionnaires which expressed similar opinions on issues subjects had indicated were most important, and dissimilar opinions on issues indicated as least important. The fourth group received questionnaires expressing similar opinions on the least important issues and dissimilar opinions on the most important.

Each subject indicated how much s/he liked the student who had filled out the questionnaire and how much s/he would enjoy working with the person in an experiment. In addition, the subject evaluated the other person on a number of other dimensions such as intelligence and morality.
Again, Byrne found that students liked the person who expressed views similar to their own very much more than the person who expressed dissimilar views. Regarding the relative influence of similarity on important as opposed to unimportant issues, Byrne found that the person who agreed with the subject on important issues was liked more and was felt to be more moral and better adjusted than was the person who agreed with the subject only on less important issues. Whether the other agreed on important or unimportant issues was found to have no effect on the subject's judgments about the other person's desirability as a work partner, intelligence, or knowledge of current events. Therefore, it appears that in a work environment similarity may be more important in terms of attraction than the relevancy of the issues on which individuals are similar.

**Similarity and Evaluations**

Evaluating other individuals and being evaluated by them are inescapable aspects of the workplace. Ideally, these evaluations would be made on the basis of objective predictor variables. In actuality it seems likely that extraneous variables, unrelated to occupational skills or ability play a sizable role in the evaluation process. To the extent that evaluative judgments reflect perception, the
results of various researchers suggest that attitude similarity and attraction can affect evaluative social perception. It has been found that the perception of similar attitudes affects evaluations of the other person's intelligence, knowledge of current events, morality and adjustment (Byrne, 1961).

For example, in a lab setting using college students, Smith, Meadow, & Sisk (1970) found that when all subjects were exposed to the same stranger and to identical task performance on his/her part, the high attitude similarity and attraction subjects consistently rated the stranger's performance more favorably. Additionally, the preobservation attraction differential in the two attitude similarity groups maintained itself even after the subjects were actually exposed to the stranger. This finding suggests that initial information regarding attitude similarity exerts an effect of some stability on attraction. The measure of attraction was found by examining the sum of the subject responses on three 7 point rating scales concerning probable liking of the stranger, probable enjoyment of working with him/her, and probable enjoyment of having the stranger as a roommate.

Baskett (1973) found that attitude similarity influenced an evaluator's decision to recommend a job
candidate for hire and also the level of salary that the candidate should be offered. The sample consisted of fifty-one college students. Subjects were asked to assume that they worked for a large company and that the president had asked them to evaluate a candidate for a vice president position. The job candidate's dossier and information concerning 10 of his attitudes was given to the subjects as stimuli for the evaluation. Three levels of the candidate's competency and two levels of attitude similarity between the subject and the candidate were varied in a 3 x 2 factorial design to examine their effects on subsequent job recommendations and suggested salaries. Attitude similarity tended to influence the recommendation for hire and significantly influenced the suggested level of starting salary. Further, attitude similarity resulted in the evaluator perceiving the job candidate as being higher in competency. Competency, in turn, was shown to influence both the recommendation for hire and level of salary.

Golightly, Huffman, & Byrne (1972) found that similar attitudes increased evaluator attraction toward loan applicants and the magnitude of the loan approved. In the study, fifty-three graduate business students were given relevant financial information concerning a loan applicant and irrelevant attitude information on 8 topics. The
subjects were then asked to indicate the amount of money to be approved for the applicant's loan. Analysis of variance indicated that the proportion of similar attitudes influenced attraction toward the applicant and the magnitude of the loan approved. Once again, an evaluative decision was found to be in part determined by the similarity of the attitudes of the evaluator and the individual being judged. In this instance, a relatively similar loan applicant was not only preferred but was considered to be a $2000 better financial risk than a relatively dissimilar loan applicant. This effect occurred in response to irrelevant attitudinal information despite the availability of detailed and relevant financial information.

Frank & Hackman (1975) studied evaluations in terms of assessments made by college admissions officers of student candidates. The effects of interviewer-interviewee similarity on officers' liking for and bias toward applicants was investigated. The researchers found that the more similar an interviewee is to an interviewer, the more likely it is that an assessment favorable to the interviewee will result.

Many of the reviewed research studies on the similarity-attraction hypothesis have used college students in simulated interview or work situations. Pulakos & Wexley
(1983) examined the effects of perceptual similarity on both superior and subordinate performance appraisals within 171 dyads in a variety of industries. They found that the similarity hypothesis, so often confirmed in laboratory and simulation studies, does generalize to field settings.

Likewise, Zalesny & Kirsch (1989) in a field study using supervisors and staff as a sample, found that similarity between raters and ratees in demographic characteristics, attitudes, and perceived supervisor work relationships were positively related to performance ratings. Some of the favorableness of the evaluation may be attributed to agreement between the supervisor and subordinate on what dimensions of the job are important.

By building on the social psychological findings of Byrne and others dealing with interpersonal attraction and evaluation, these studies found that perceptual similarity is related to superiors' evaluations of their subordinates and subordinates' evaluations of their superiors. Table 2 summarizes the literature on attitude similarity, attraction, and evaluations.

**Similarity and Interactions**

Previous research suggests that similarity affects evaluations through an attraction bias. An alternative explanation is that similarity affects evaluations not only
Table 2  
Summary of Literature on Attitude  
Similarity Attraction, and Evaluations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baskett (1973)</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Recommendation for Job, Salary, &amp; Level of Competency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Byrne (1961)</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Liking, Knowledge, Morality, Adjustment, Intelligence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Byrne &amp; Nelson (1965)</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Liking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Byrne &amp; Wong (1962)</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Prejudice and Race</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frank &amp; Hackman (1975)</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Bias in College Admissions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Golightly, Huffman, &amp; Byrne (1972)</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Loan Approval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newcomb (1961)</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Liking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pulakos &amp; Wexley (1983)</td>
<td>S-S Dyad</td>
<td>Performance Appraisal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smith, Meadow, &amp; Sisk (1970)</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>Performance Evaluations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zalesny &amp; Kirsch (1989)</td>
<td>S-S Dyad</td>
<td>Performance Ratings</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***S-S Dyad = Superior-Subordinate Dyad

through bias, but also partly because of differences in supervisor-subordinate interactions. The superior-subordinate dyad has been a useful sample for studying such a relationship.

Graen and his colleagues (Dansereau, Graen, and Haga, 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975) have suggested
that employees who are similar to their supervisor are more likely to have a higher quality relationship (e.g., more job latitude, greater mutual trust, loyalty, etc.) with their supervisor than employees who are less similar. Research supporting this perspective has also shown that the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship is positively related to employee evaluations of their superiors in terms of support and work facilitation (Dansereau et al., 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980; Zalesny & Kirsch, 1989).

When mutual perceptual dissimilarity takes place within a superior-subordinate relationship, superiors substantially reduce the frequency with which they exhibit behaviors that enhance their subordinates' feelings of worth and that facilitate the subordinate's ability to achieve work goals (Pulakos & Wexley, 1983). Based on an analysis of answers given by superiors and subordinates to an open-ended question regarding the quality of their dyadic relationship, it is speculated that a weak vertical dyadic linkage characterizes these particular sorts of dyads. Based on the work of Graen and his colleagues (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977), a strong linkage occurs when the superior accepts the subordinate into a consistent pattern of communication exchanges, whereas a weak linkage occurs when the superior does not. Some superiors are reluctant to
provide their subordinates with support and work facilitation, and this is especially true when the linkage is weak due to two-way perceptual dissimilarity. In fact, in one study, Graen, Orris, & Johnson (1973) found the vertical dyadic linkage (VDL) to be so weak that eventually superiors completely stopped giving relevant communication to their subordinates. These subordinates eventually resigned from the organization. Superiors continue to provide support and work facilitation as long as at least one individual within the superior-subordinate dyad perceives similarity. Presumably, the VDL remains fairly high when the superior, the subordinate, or both parties believe that there is some degree of similarity between them.

Turban and Jones (1988) found that when a superior and subordinate perceived themselves as similar to each other, the subordinate received a higher performance rating and reported less role ambiguity, more confidence and trust in the supervisor, and greater influence over the supervisor. Therefore, perceived similarity led to a more positive working relationship with the supervisor and perhaps produced greater insight into what was important in receiving a higher evaluation. Thus, insight might have led to the higher performance rating. This explanation is
consistent with findings that the quality and frequency of
supervisor-subordinate interactions are important influences
on subordinate performance (Dansereau et al., 1975; Liden &
Graen, 1980; O'Reilly, 1977).

Overall, the research on similarity and interactions in
a dyad suggests that perceived similarity leads to more
positive working relations between the superior and
subordinate. Table 3 summarizes the research on similarity
and interpersonal interactions. Future research is now
needed to determine the more specific kinds of similarity
that influence evaluations, interactions, and the
organizational consequences of similarity in subordinate-
superior dyads (Pulakos & Wexley, 1983).

Superior-Subordinate Value Congruence and Outcomes

Studies suggest that perceived similarity within
superior-subordinate dyads results in higher performance
evaluations and subordinate satisfaction. More
specifically, there continues to be increasing evidence that
similarity in work values (value congruence) between a
superior and subordinate affects dimensions of behavior and
attitude.

Value congruence offers much to the understanding of
relationships, particularly in the work arena (Brown, 1976).
The cause of many of the differences and disagreements between superiors and subordinates are issues of values.

### TABLE 3
Summary of Literature on Similarity and Interpersonal Interactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dansereau, Graen, &amp; Haga (1975)</td>
<td>Support, Work Facilitation, Communication Exchange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graen (1976)</td>
<td>Support, Work Facilitation, Communication Exchange</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graen &amp; Cashman (1975)</td>
<td>Job Latitude, Trust, Loyalty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graen &amp; Ginsburgh (1977)</td>
<td>Communication Exchanges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graen, Orris, &amp; Johnson (1973)</td>
<td>Communication, Support, Work Facilitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liden &amp; Graen (1980)</td>
<td>Support, Work Facilitation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turban &amp; Jones (1988)</td>
<td>Performance Ratings, Role Stress, Trust</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Herzberg (1974) suggests that most of the problems in organizations are not problems of personality but are problems of values. The failure to systematically examine and understand values or differences in values is probably one of the major causes of conflicts between managers and their subordinates. Achieving some understanding of specific value differences between supervisors and
subordinates may alleviate many of the conflicts experienced in this dyad (Brown, 1976).

It is becoming increasingly clear that similar value orientations do affect worker's responses to certain job characteristics. Posner & Munson (1979b), in a field study of 39 superior-subordinate dyads, found that the degree of subordinate-superior value similarity influences subordinate perceptions of interpersonal relationships in the dyad, evaluations of supervisor leadership effectiveness, satisfaction with work, and satisfaction with supervision. All of the variables were significantly higher for subordinates with similar value orientations to those of their superior than for dyads with dissimilar values.

Value congruence between the superior and subordinate has been empirically linked to job satisfaction and performance in a number of studies (Kemelgor, 1980; McMurry, 1963; Meglino et al., 1989, 1990; Parkington & Schneider, 1979; Senger, 1971; Weeks, Chonko, Kahle, 1989; Weiss, 1978). It is believed that values play a major role in subordinates' interactions with superiors and that the relationship of the value systems significantly affects employee satisfaction with work.

In a laboratory study (Meglino et al., 1990), subjects were presented with videotaped depictions of two different
leaders and asked to rate the extent to which each leader exhibited four different work values. Subjects were then asked to indicate with which leader they anticipated experiencing more job satisfaction. In three out of four experimental conditions, subjects anticipated greater satisfaction when the rated values of the leader were closer to their own.

Level of performance is another desirable organizational outcome to which value congruence has been positively related. Parkington & Schneider (1979) found that when bank tellers have a different orientation to service than they believe management has (which would indicate lack of shared values), they experience lower satisfaction and impressions that customers think the service quality of their branch is poor. Further, customer attitudes about service were strongly correlated with branch employee views of the service received. Thus, lack of shared values led to lower satisfaction, poorer employee attitudes, poorer customer attitudes about service, and ultimately lower levels of organizational success. The results of this study must be viewed with caution in terms of value congruence because measures of orientation to service were used to determine value congruency rather than actual work value measures. Further, since independent sources of measure for
supervisor and subordinate orientation were not used, common method variance may be a serious problem.

Value congruence has also been positively related to supervisor perceptions of subordinate competence. Senger (1971) asked supervisors to rank their subordinates in all-around competence after a semantic differential analysis was made of their respective value orientations. Subordinates with values similar to their supervising managers tended to be rated higher in competency. Apparently, the potential dissonance between a superior's values and a subordinate's values creates significant problems of motivation, communication, and productivity (Posner & Munson, 1979a).

Similarly, Turban and Jones (1988) investigated the relationship between similar work-related values and attitudes and job satisfaction, performance evaluations, and pay ratings. The researchers measured perceived similarity of work-related attitudes and values between superiors and subordinates as well as actual similarity of individual demographic characteristics. Perceived similarity yielded the strongest relationship with job satisfaction, performance evaluations, and pay ratings. Supervisor perceived similarity with the subordinate was measured with one item asking "How much like you in outlook, perspective, values, and work habits is this subordinate?" Subordinates
rated the extent to which "My supervisor and I see things in much the same way" and "are alike in a number of areas". These measures are probably minimally confounded with social desirability because the items ask directly how similar the other person is. Overall, this study indicates that congruent perceptions of work-related attitudes and values may be more important than actual similarity of personal demographic characteristics to a number of desirable organizational outcomes.

Enz (1988) investigated the relationship between perceived departmental power and the extent to which departments appear to share values with top management. Individual members of a department and their superiors were asked to answer a questionnaire containing measures of power and values. To arrive at departmental scores, the responses of individual departmental members were summed and averaged to arrive at departmental means. Perceived value congruence between top management and a department was believed to increase the probability that the department had greater access to information, communicated more often with executives, was trusted by and attractive to top management, and was thus in greater control and more secure in its organizational actions. All of these outcomes of the congruence of values were believed to suggest heightened
power. Overall, perceived value congruity between department members and top managers was found to account for unique variance in departmental power.

Researchers indicate that value congruence can affect job satisfaction, performance, power, and behavior. Based on this literature, it is logical to argue that value congruence may also affect other work-related outcomes such as OC. To date, however, only one study (Meglino et al., 1989) appears to have addressed this argument at the individual level of analysis. Meglino et al. (1989) found a positive relationship between value congruence and OC. Workers and supervisors completed a survey questionnaire containing measures of job satisfaction, OC, and work values. It was found that both satisfaction and commitment were higher when production workers' values were closer to those of their supervisors.

Overall, research suggests that value congruence in superior-subordinate dyads results in positive outcomes for an organization such as increased satisfaction, increased performance, positive relationships, and higher levels of organizational commitment. Table 4 summarizes the literature on outcomes of superior-subordinate value congruence.
TABLE 4
Outcomes of Superior-Subordinate Work Value Congruence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Enz (1988)</td>
<td>Perceived Power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kemelgor (1980)</td>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meglino et. al (1989)</td>
<td>Organizational Commitment, Job Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meglino et. al (1990)</td>
<td>Job Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parkington &amp; Schneider (1979)</td>
<td>Level of Performance, Job Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posner &amp; Munson (1980)</td>
<td>Relationships, Leadership Effectiveness, Satisfaction with Supervision and Job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senger (1971)</td>
<td>Perceived Subordinate Competency</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Organizational-Individual Value Congruence and OC

While little research has investigated the influence of value congruence on OC at the individual level of analysis, the importance of shared values in organizational functioning is in itself not new. Much of the recent literature on organizational culture discusses the guiding and directing role of shared values in the functioning of the organization. Shared values are considered a major
component of an organization's culture (Enz, 1988; Pettigrew, 1979; Sathe, 1983; Schein, 1985).

The above average performance of firms with strong corporate cultures has been associated with their use of socialization and other techniques to emphasize specific core values that, when shared by employees (Barney, 1986; Tichy, 1983), are thought to perform certain important functions. Holding these core values is believed to influence employees to behave in ways that are required for the organization to survive in its environment. In this manner, values are believed to have a direct effect on the behavior of individuals in the workplace (Meglino et al., 1987). One such behavior that has interested researchers is the individual's intent to commit to an organization. Thus many researchers have investigated the impact of congruence between individual and organizational values on commitment.

Research indicates that when the work values of an individual and an organization are congruent, the individual experiences increased organizational commitment. An early study that alluded to such a relationship was conducted by Posner, Kouzes, and Schmidt (1985). In a nationwide survey of 6000 American managers, the researchers found that managers who felt that their values were particularly congruent with those of the organization were significantly
more confident that they would remain with their current employer for the next five years. They were also more likely to be willing to work long hours for their employer. The strength of the congruence relationship positively influenced both the quality and character of managerial commitment and the direction of energy and effort on behalf of the organization. Also, as perceived value congruence increased, so did the reported clarity of understanding of the values of their superiors, colleagues, and subordinates.

Apasu (1986) also found a positive link between value congruence and dimensions of OC. Using the Rokeach instrument, salespeople were asked to indicate the degree of similarity between their values and the perceived values of the organization (value congruence). The results of the study indicate that the more similar salespersons' values are to those of the organization, the lower the tendency of the salespeople to quit and the more likely salespersons are to see the organizational climate as conducive to the attainment of their goals.

While the Apasu (1986) and Posner et al. (1985) studies sheds light on the relationship between value congruence and OC, methodologically, the implications must be viewed with caution. In order to measure value congruence, the researchers from both studies asked the respondents to
estimate the extent to which their personal values were compatible with the values of their organization. Therefore, value congruence was determined based on an individual's perception of what the organizational values are. Such perceptions may not necessarily be similar to the reality of shared organizational values. Ideally, true value congruence requires independent sources of measures of personal and organizational values. The link to intentions to leave may be influenced by common method variance associated with self-reports.

Boxx, Odom, & Dunn (1991), took a slightly different approach to examining the impact of value congruence between organizational and employee values on commitment. Value congruence was defined as a fit between professed organizational values and the values deemed appropriate by the employees. Results of the study indicate that commitment, satisfaction, and cohesion are enhanced when the organization adheres to a value system which the employee believes should exist. Respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they felt each of seven (7) values existed within their organization, and then the extent to which they felt each value should exist within their work environment. Each respondent's normative values were compared to the actual values assigned to his/her
organization. The difference scores were used to represent value congruency.

Methodologically, the results of this study must be viewed with caution because of the way value congruence was measured. Since independent sources of measure for personal and organizational values were not obtained, common method variance may be a serious problem in this study.

Focusing on the importance of being cognizant about organizational and personal work values, Posner & Schmidt (1993), in a nationwide cross-section of managers, had respondents identify the clarity of their personal values and the certainty to which they understood their organization's values. Managers who felt clear about both their personal and organizational values were considered to have high value congruency. This group experienced the highest levels of organizational commitment. The study also indicated that managers who reported clarity about their personal values but some lack of clarity about the organization's values were very similar to the high congruence managers in terms of commitment. This suggests that having clarity about personal values may be more important, in relation to attitudes about work, than being clear about organizational values. The reason for this relationship may be that it is people and not organizations
who bear responsibility for decisions (Posner & Schmidt, 1993).

Previous research has clearly established a link between value congruence and OC at the organizational level of analysis. There is evidence that OC at the organizational level is achieved, in part, through value congruence at the individual level of analysis. Analysis at the individual level reflects the effect of shared values on interpersonal interactions which in turn influence organizational outcomes. The following section discusses the way in which the interpersonal effect of value congruence between a superior and subordinate can lead to OC.

Subordinate-Superior Dyad Relationships

The relationship that evolves from value congruence between a superior and subordinate is important in developing internalization of organizational values by the subordinate. Graen and his colleagues (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975) have suggested that employees who are similar to their supervisors are more likely to have a higher quality relationship.

In turn, higher quality dyadic relations were found to impact agreement about the meaning of certain mutually experienced events and situations (Graen & Schiemann, 1978).
In a field study using 109 superior-subordinate dyads, two different measures of dyadic agreement were used. The results showed moderately high agreement within high and intermediate quality dyads and low agreement within low-quality dyads.

Dimensions on which agreement was investigated included job problems and the superior-subordinate relationship itself. If a superior and a subordinate have a high quality dyadic relationship, the superior should be more aware of the problems confronting the subordinate on the job. Therefore, their perceptions should be more similar regarding the severity of job problems than those of a superior and a subordinate in a low-quality relationship. Variables describing the dyadic relationship itself were also investigated. Such variables include sensitivity of the superior to the subordinate's job, and attention, information, and support given the subordinate by the superior. If the quality of interactions is high, superiors and subordinates agree more accurately about these variables than those locked into lower quality relationships (Graen & Schiemann, 1978).

A higher quality relationship can impact the kinds of activities that the superior perceives the subordinate as being trustworthy of and/or competent of performing. Liden
& Graen (1980) found that subordinates who had high quality exchanges with their supervisor were assigned tasks that went beyond the written job description, such as more activity in communicating with members of other units, more involvement in public relations, and direct contact with clients. These people were selected by the supervisor because she/he felt that they could be trusted in dealing with responsibilities going beyond the formal employment contract. In turn, subordinates of high quality dyads perceived being allowed greater participation in making administrative decisions, being given greater responsibility, greater amounts of job-related feedback, more support of actions, and more consideration.

When a positive relationship exists between the superior and subordinate (Noe, 1988), then it is through this agent that the employee begins identifying with the goals of the organization and internalizing its values. The actions of the agents (superiors, mentors) tend to be viewed as actions of the organization itself. These agents control symbolic/material resources, and it is through them that the organization is personified (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson, & Sowa, 1986). The interpersonal effect of value congruence at the individual level is what sets the stage for positive relationships.
Value Congruence and Superior-Subordinate Dyad Relationships

Work value congruence is helpful in fostering a positive superior-subordinate relationship. In their longitudinal investigation, Dansereau et al. (1975) found that differences in the vertical dyad linkages were identified in terms of the subordinate's initial ability to negotiate with the superior. These initial differences preceded the differentiation of the units into the workers who were selected to perform critical tasks and those selected for more routine tasks. Congruent work values between the superior and the subordinate may foster the initial ability of an individual to negotiate and communicate more effectively with the superior and ultimately develop a better quality relationship.

Individuals who hold the same values are thought to share certain aspects of cognitive processing. These similarities are presumed to foster comparable methods of categorizing and interpreting environmental events, and a common system of communication (Schein, 1985). Studies have emphasized the importance of categorization in perception (Hayek, 1952) and communication within the dyad (Triandis, 1956). If two persons, A and B, categorize events, objects, concepts, etc. in similar ways, they should be able to communicate more effectively.
Evidence presented by Newcomb (1953, 1956, 1958), Runkel (1956), and Homans (1950) suggests the following model: To the extent that A and B are cognitively similar (oriented towards significant aspects of their environment in similar ways) and there is an opportunity for communication, then communication should be effective, the relationship between A and B should be rewarding, and interaction should lead to increased liking of A for B and B for A. Increased liking should result in higher rates of interaction between A and B.

Triandis (1960), in a lab study using forty undergraduates as subjects, found that the greater the attribute (value) similarity, the greater the communication effectiveness in a dyad. Also, the greater the communication similarity, the greater the communication effectiveness. These results were also found in a field setting (Triandis, 1959). Using supervisors and subordinates in industry, Triandis found that cognitive similarity is a significant variable in liking and interpersonal communication. Better communication between persons with similar value structures results in less message distortion. Such qualities are essential to the success of interpersonal activities because they reduce or
eliminate uncertainty, stimulus overload, and other negative features of work interactions (Schein, 1985).

Value congruence also enables workers to more accurately predict the behavior and reactions of each other (Kluckhohn, 1951). This prediction is crucial to social interaction. Employees with congruent values are thought to interact more efficiently with each other, producing more coordinated behavior and positive interpersonal affect such as high morale, greater friendliness, and more cooperation (Carter & Haythorn, 1956; Schultz, 1955; Precker, 1952). Because the similarity between values of individuals is positively related to the strength of interpersonal attractions (Beech, 1966), it is reasonable to expect that the more similar individuals are in their value structures, the more appealing the work environment will become to the workers. The work environment will allow the worker to reinforce his/her own values and satisfy his/her individual needs. In return the employee will work hard to accomplish organizational goals (Steers, 1977), thus leading to increased OC.

In summary, the literature suggests that superiors differentiate among subordinates in terms of who is selected for the more critical tasks. The superior selects for these tasks those workers with whom he/she has built a higher
quality relationship and thus perceives as more trustworthy, responsible, and/or competent. Work value congruence enhances the development of a high quality dyadic relationship.

In turn, the subordinate in a high quality dyadic relationship perceives being allowed more participation in decision making, more responsibility, and more work facilitation and consideration from the supervisor. These items have been found to be predictor variables of commitment from Steer's (1977) framework of antecedents. Therefore, research suggests that when a subordinate perceives that he/she is allowed to participate in decision making, feels low levels of role stress, and high levels of leadership initiation structure/consideration, the subordinate exhibits higher levels of OC. Table 5 summarizes the literature on value congruence in superior-subordinate dyads. The following section will discuss the part that value congruence and perceptions of role stress characteristics, leadership initiation structure/consideration, and participation in decision making play in a subordinate's level of OC.
TABLE 5
Value Congruence in Superior-Subordinate Dyads

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beech (1966)</td>
<td>Interpersonal Attractions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hayek (1952)</td>
<td>Similar Categorization, Perceptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homans (1950)</td>
<td>Cognitive Similarity, Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kluckhohn (1951)</td>
<td>Prediction of Behavior and Reactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Runkel (1956)</td>
<td>Cognitive Similarity, Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Schein (1985)</td>
<td>Similar Cognitive Processing, Classification, &amp; Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triandis (1956)</td>
<td>Similar Categorization, Communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triandis (1959)</td>
<td>Cognitive Similarity, Communication, Liking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subordinate-Superior Value Congruence, Organizational Influences, and OC

Research indicates that subordinates who are more similar to their superiors perceive the work setting differently from those who are more dissimilar. High similarity subordinates report lower levels of role stress, higher levels of participation in decision making, and higher levels of leadership initiation structure/consideration (Turban & Jones, 1988; Liden & Graen, 1980). Each of these items represent factors from
the Steers (1977) framework of antecedents to OC and have been correlated with higher levels of commitment in past studies.

**Role Stress Characteristics**

Two factors in the role stress category that are of particular importance in terms of OC are role conflict and role ambiguity. By definition, role conflict is the degree of incompatibility or incongruity between job tasks, resources, rules or policies, and other people. Role ambiguity is the degree to which clear information is lacking regarding the expectations associated with a role, methods for fulfilling known role expectations, and/or the consequences of role performance (Graen, 1976; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, Rosenthal, 1964; Van Sell, Brief, Schuler, 1981).

A large body of literature indicates that OC is negatively related with both role ambiguity and role conflict (Fisher and Gitelson, 1983; Flynn & Soloman, 1985; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Mathieu and Zajac 1990). This negative relationship has been found across diverse vocational groups (Glisson & Durick, 1988; Welsch and LaVan, 1981; Organ & Greene, 1981; Podsakoff, Williams, & Todor, 1986; Morris and Koch, 1979; Michaels, Cron, Dubinsky, &
Role conflict can result from violations of two basic principles of classical organization theory, the principle of chain of command and the principle of unity of command and direction. According to these principles, a subordinate should know who answers to whom, receive orders from only one superior, and have one plan for a group of activities having the same objective. Adherence to these principles should keep a subordinate from being caught in the crossfire of incompatible orders or incompatible expectations from more than one superior (Rizzo et al., 1970). In many modern organizations, employees work in rapidly changing environments and perform complex tasks requiring direction from more than one authority figure. This complexity requires the violation of the basic principles of management and may result in role conflict for the subordinate.

Classical organization theory also applies to role ambiguity. According to classical theory, every position in a formal organization structure should have a specified set of tasks or responsibilities. Such specification of duties is intended to allow management to hold subordinates accountable for specific performance and to provide guidance and direction for subordinates. If employees do not know
what they have the authority to decide, what they are expected to accomplish, and how they will be judged, they may be reluctant to make decisions and instead rely on a trial and error approach in meeting the expectations of the superior (Rizzo et al., 1970). Thus, role ambiguity may decrease OC by reducing the perceived linkage between the member's role and the attainment of organizational goals (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Salancik, 1977; Shapiro & Doyle, 1983).

Role theory (Kahn et al. 1964) is also helpful in understanding the impact of role ambiguity on organizational outcomes. According to role theory, a lack of necessary information about a job or position may result in stress and anxiety for the employee. To alleviate this stress and anxiety, the employee engages in coping behavior which often takes the form of using defense mechanisms that distort the reality of the situation. Thus, according to role theory, ambiguity will likely increase the probability that people will experience stress and anxiety, will distort reality, and will ultimately respond to their situation with behavior that has unfavorable outcomes for the organization (Brief & Aldag, 1976; Greene, 1972; Rizzo et al., 1970).

A substantial body of empirical research on role stress has shown that high levels of role conflict and role
ambiguity do indeed result in unfavorable outcomes (House & Rizzo, 1972; Kahn, et al., 1964; Miles, 1975; Miles & Perreault, 1976; Morris & Koch, 1979; Morris, Steers & Koch, 1979; Rizzo et al., 1970; Schuler, 1977; Tosi, 1971).

Through meta-analysis, Fisher & Gitelson (1983) aggregated the results of 43 studies of role conflict and role ambiguity. The findings from the analysis indicate that both role conflict and role ambiguity have moderately strong negative relationships with organizational commitment.

In explaining the negative relationship, it is believed that role conflict reduces OC because its presence interferes with the individual's identification with the organization and leads to the perception of decreased responsibility (Reichers, 1986; Salancik, 1977). When perceived responsibility is lower, role involvement will be lower which results in decreased commitment. Similarly, role ambiguity may decrease commitment by reducing the perceived linkage between the member's role and the attainment of organizational goals (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Salancik, 1977; Shapiro & Doyle, 1983).

Researchers indicate that role conflict and role ambiguity are important intervening variables that mediate the effects of various organizational characteristics and a variety of individual behavioral and affective outcomes.
(Pearce, 1981; Rizzo et al., 1970). Both role conflict and ambiguity were found to be related to interpersonal variables (Nicholson & Goh, 1983).

The research using interpersonal factors is limited, but does suggest that the behavior of role senders influences the focal person's perceptions of role conflict and ambiguity (Van Sell et al., 1981). There is evidence that a positive relationship with a superior may actually result in lower levels of role stress for the subordinate, thus leading to OC. For example, Baird (1969), in a study of perceived role ambiguity and role conflict among graduate students, found that ambiguity concerning the payoffs for graduate work and person-role conflict were negatively associated with close faculty relationships. With another sample of graduate students (Baird, 1972), as well as with a large sample across 23 occupations (Caplan & Jones, 1975), the presence of supportive peer groups and supportive relationships with superiors was negatively correlated with role conflict (Van Sell et al., 1983).

Overall, prior research indicates that subordinate perceptions of role stress characteristics are negatively related to levels of OC. Additionally, positive interpersonal relations are related to lower levels of role
stress. See Table 6 for a summary of past studies involving role stress variables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Baird (1969)</td>
<td>RA</td>
<td>Positive Relationships Result in Lower Levels of RA and RC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baird (1972)</td>
<td>RC</td>
<td>Positive Relationships Correlate Negatively With RC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brief &amp; Aldag</td>
<td>RA</td>
<td>Stress and Anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1976)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caplan et. al</td>
<td>RC</td>
<td>Positive Relationships Correlate Negatively With RC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1975)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DeCotiis &amp; Summers</td>
<td>RA</td>
<td>Reduces Perceived Linkage Between Roles and Organizational Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1987)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greene (1972)</td>
<td>RA</td>
<td>Stress and Anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pearce (1981)</td>
<td>RA</td>
<td>Mediates Organizational Characteristics and Behavior &amp; Affective Outcomes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RC</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reichers (1986)</td>
<td>RC</td>
<td>Interferes With Organizational Identification, Reduces Perceptions of Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rizzo et. al</td>
<td>RA</td>
<td>Stress and Anxiety</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1970)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shapiro &amp; Doyle</td>
<td>RA</td>
<td>Reduces Perceived Linkage Between Roles and Organizational Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1983)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

RA = Role Ambiguity
RC = Role Conflict
Leadership Structure/Consideration

The work experience category as described by the Steer's (1977) framework includes various work experiences that occur over the course of an individual's employment with the organization. These work experiences can have a strong influence on the extent to which psychological attachments are formed with the organization (Mowday et al., 1982). Examples of work experiences would include all of the things which over the years reinforce the steady growth of commitment.

Morris and Sherman (1981) suggest that the quality of interpersonal exchange between the superior and a subordinate can make up an important element of the subordinate's work experience. The superior has the essential role of creating facilitating conditions that the subordinate needs for performing organizational roles. Two major supervisory factors, namely initiation of structure and supervisory consideration, have been used to enhance the psychological state of employees and thus produce positive attitudes and behaviors among them (Bass, 1981; Likert & Likert, 1976; Teas & Horrell, 1981; Yukl, 1981; Zahra, 1984).

Initiation of structure is the degree to which a supervisor defines the role of subordinates by assigning
tasks, specifying procedures, and scheduling work (Stogdill, 1963). Supervisory consideration is the degree to which a superior develops a work climate of psychological support, mutual trust and respect, helpfulness, and friendliness. The relevance of leader actions intended to establish clearer goals for the members to pursue (initiation structure) and/or create an atmosphere of openness and trust among the members of the group (consideration) have been investigated in commitment research. High structure/high consideration behavior mixes on the part of leaders tends to be associated with high levels of commitment among subordinates (Morris & Sherman, 1981).

Initiation Structure

Empirical evidence indicates that initiation of structure induces employees to perceive higher felt responsibility and thus have higher affective commitment (Agarwal & Ramaswani, 1993; Johnston et al. 1990; Luthans, Baack, and Taylor, 1987; Morris & Sherman, 1981). When subordinates perceive that the superior exhibits a high level of initiation structure, they may perceive that the superior is formalizing the work environment. Formalization refers to the presence of formal rules and procedures for employees to follow. When an organization provides its employees with operationally useful rules and procedures, it
helps to enhance employee perceptions of the organization's dependability (Morris & Steers, 1980), a characteristic that enhances commitment (Buchanan, 1974).

High levels of initiation structure may indicate that the superior is providing ample work information to the subordinate. A deficiency of information may result in subordinates experiencing unpredictability. In other words, organizational members experience unpredictability when they do not know what is expected of them and what the effects of their own behavior will be (Pearce, 1981; Nicholson & Goh, 1983). Therefore, when an employee perceives high levels of initiation structure from the superior, expectations and goals may be clarified. This clarity heightens efforts toward unity, teamwork, and identification with the goals of the organization. As a result, OC levels are increased (Luthans et al., 1987). It is also possible that employees who want to perform at higher levels welcome guidance on how to do so and commitment to the organization is an outcome (Luthans, Baack, Taylor, 1987).

Contrary evidence was found by a number of researchers who indicate that the expected link between initiating structure and OC is not supported (Agarwal & Ramaswami, 1993; Keller 1989; Schriesheim & Schriesheim, 1980). Salancik (1977) suggested that organizational relationships
which reduce one's feelings of responsibility will also result in less commitment. For example, a leader who is perceived to exhibit high levels of initiating structure would be providing a great deal of direction to employees. This, in turn, would reduce the employee's felt responsibility. By taking away the employee's autonomy the opportunity for potential organizational commitment would be reduced. The reason for the conflicting results on initiation of structure may be a matter of the selected sample. Studies have shown that professional subjects prefer to provide their own task structure rather than rely on supervisors (Zahra, 1984; Agarwal & Ramaswami, 1993).

While there have been varying results when considering initiation structure as a predictor of OC, overall, research indicates that it is an important variable to consider. See Table 7 for a summary of studies using initiation structure as an antecedent variable to OC.

Supervisory Consideration

Supervisory consideration is the degree to which a superior develops a work climate of psychological support, mutual trust and respect, helpfulness, and friendliness. Supervisory consideration lends congeniality to the work environment which enhances the development of social involvements. Social involvement is the degree of
interaction an individual has with other members of an organization. The social bond that is created through social interactions constitutes an important influence on OC (Mowday et al., 1982). Leaving the organization would mean leaving significant others with whom the worker has come to identify. A socially involved individual may be reluctant to break such social ties (Randall & Cote, 1991). Therefore, he or she may choose to remain in the organization (Kanter, 1968) and exert effort to achieve organizational goals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Influence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agarwal &amp; Ramaswami (1993)</td>
<td>Negative Relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Johnston et al. (1990)</td>
<td>Positive Relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luthans et al. (1987)</td>
<td>Positive Relationship</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A high degree of social interaction has been empirically linked to OC in various studies (Kornhauser, 1962; Lodahl, 1964; Sheldon, 1971; Buchanan, 1974; Rotondi, 1975; Morris & Sherman, 1982). Other researchers have found that social interactions are not only significantly linked
to OC, but account for a substantial portion of variance in the construct (Brooke, Russell, & Price, 1988; Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Kanter, 1968). According to Buchanan (1974), social interaction corresponds to group attitudes toward the organization experience. In turn, group attitudes toward the organization explained 52 percent of the commitment variance among senior level managers. As social relationships are believed to help shape the individual’s attitude toward the job (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965), a link between social involvement and job involvement may occur (Randall & Cote, 1991). This link is supported by other researchers who indicate that the most necessary condition for job involvement, a dimension of OC, is friendly, strong social relationships (Allport, 1947).

In some cases, interactions with superiors and coworkers have been cited as the most important sources of job stress and burnout (Gaines & Jermier, 1983; Leiter & Maslach, 1986). These findings suggest that contact with people can be a major source of distress, frustration, or conflict. Negative experiences such as these are important in influencing commitment to the organization. Leiter & Maslach (1988) found a direct relationship between unpleasant supervisor contacts and lower levels of OC. Ongoing negative interactions with supervisors may be
sufficient cause for a worker to dislike a work setting without experiencing burnout.

Overall, research indicates that employee perceptions of leadership consideration are an important factor for predicting OC. See Table 8 for a summary of studies linking consideration to OC.

**Participation in Decision Making**

Various researchers suggest that structural variations can affect job satisfaction and employee behavior (Cummings & Berger, 1976; Porter & Lawler, 1965). Based on this literature, a number of studies have investigated whether structural variations may also affect other work-related attitudes such as organizational commitment. The level of decentralization in an organization is a structural variable that has received attention in OC research. Decentralization means that employees participate in the decision making process.

Stevens et al. (1978) were among the first researchers to investigate the influence of participation on OC. In their study, four structural variables -- organization size, union presence, span of control, and centralization of authority -- were considered in relation to OC. None of the four variables were found to be significantly related to commitment.
TABLE 8  
Leadership Consideration and Outcomes That Influence Levels of Organizational Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors(s)</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brooke et al. (1988)</td>
<td>Positive Social Interaction linked to OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buchanan (1974)</td>
<td>Positive Social Interaction linked to OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kanter (1968)</td>
<td>Consideration Enhances Social Interaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kornhauser (1962)</td>
<td>Positive Social Interaction Linked to OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaines &amp; Jermier (1983)</td>
<td>Negative Interactions Related to Job Stress &amp; Burnout</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leiter &amp; Maslach (1986)</td>
<td>Negative Interactions Related to Job Stress &amp; Burnout</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leiter &amp; Maslach (1988)</td>
<td>Negative Interactions Leads to Lower Levels of OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lodahl (1964)</td>
<td>Positive Social Interaction Linked to OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morris &amp; Sherman (1982)</td>
<td>Positive Social Interaction Linked to OC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mowday et al. (1982)</td>
<td>Consideration Enhances Social Involvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Randall &amp; Cote (1991)</td>
<td>Social Involvement and Social Ties</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sheldon (1971)</td>
<td>Positive Social Interaction Linked to OC</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subsequently, Morris and Steers (1980) included participation in their study of the relationship between
structure and organizational commitment. Other structural variables included in the study were size, span of control, formalization, and functional dependence. This research also indicated that size and span of control were unrelated to commitment. However, formalization, functional dependence, and decentralization (participation) were found to be significantly related to commitment. Therefore, employees experiencing greater participation felt more committed to the organization than employees experiencing participation to a lesser extent.

The reason for conflicting results may, perhaps, be due to the sample used in the studies. There is evidence that not all individuals desire, nor respond favorably to personal control (Rodin, Rennert, & Solomon, 1980). As Hackman and Oldham (1980) point out, the desirability of participation in decision-making depends on the characteristics and needs of the individual.

While the results between participation and OC may be somewhat conflicting, overall, the literature on perceived participation tends to indicate an increase in employee involvement and attachment resulting from participation (Hall, 1977). Greater employee involvement can increase the influence an employee has in the setting of meaningful and motivating goals and the resulting criteria used for
evaluating performance. Further, when employees participate in making decisions, they may feel more responsible for the outcomes of their decisions. These feelings of responsibility make the employee more motivated to see that the decisions he or she participate in work out (Porter, Lawler, and Hackman, 1975). The employee also becomes more ego-involved in work and work-related outcomes (Vroom, 1960) and develops higher commitment to the organization (Salancik, 1977). Vroom (1960) suggests that participation in decision-making helps to achieve a desired integration between the employee and the organization. This participation enhances the sense of involvement in a job and is indicative of influence in affecting the decisions that pertain to the job and/or immediate work environment.

Many studies indicate that subordinate perceptions of being allowed to participate in decision making are important in influencing high levels of OC. See Table 9 for a summary of research that has investigated the impact of participation on commitment.

Research Model and Proposed Hypotheses

Based on the literature reviewed in this chapter, the research model shown in Figure 1 is proposed for the current study. The model suggests that work value congruence between superiors and subordinates leads to OC through its
TABLE 9
Participation in Decision Making

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Outcome</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hall (1977)</td>
<td>Perceived Participation Positively Related to Employee Involvement and Attachment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Morris &amp; Steers (1980)</td>
<td>Participation Positively Related to Organizational Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Porter et al. (1975)</td>
<td>Participation Increases Feelings of Responsibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stevens et al. (1978)</td>
<td>Participation Positively Related to Organizational Commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vroom (1960)</td>
<td>Participation Results in More Ego Involvement in Work and Outcomes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

effect on subordinate perceptions of role stress characteristics, initiation structure/consideration, and participation in decision making. The research model integrates the organizational aspects of the Steer's (1977) framework for OC with the interpersonal impact of work value congruence. In the current study, the following seven hypotheses are depicted in the model and will be tested in three phases.
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

CONFLICTION
- political structure
- work experiences

PARTICIPATION
- structural characteristics

ROLE STRESS
- role conflict
- role ambiguity

WORK VALUE
- congruence

Diagram 1
Hypotheses

Phase I: VC and Organizational Influences

The Role Episode Model (Kahn et al., 1964) depicts the interpersonal process between those sending expectations and those receiving expectations. By definition the received role is the perceived role. Value congruence among individuals can help enhance the accuracy with which perceived roles match sent roles.

Individuals who hold the same values are thought to share comparable methods of classifying and interpreting environmental events, and a common system of communication (Schein, 1985). These similarities enable workers to more accurately predict the behavior and reactions of each other (Kluckhohn, 1951). This understanding helps workers ensure that the sent role is perceived as it is intended. Intuitively, if individuals agree on roles, then role ambiguity and role conflict should be reduced (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983).

A common system of classifying, interpreting, and communicating also assists individuals in accurately assessing and agreeing upon the responsibilities and job requirements of each individual. An accurate understanding of the job requirements suggests that employees have clearer role expectations which have been shown to enhance people's
adjustment to their jobs (Wanous, 1977). With clearer role expectations, individuals experience less role ambiguity and conflict. Thus, the following relationship is hypothesized:

HI: There will be a negative relationship between value congruence and perceived role stress characteristics.

When participation in decision making increases, communication between the subordinate and the superior increases. Value congruency enhances the accuracy of this communication (Schein, 1985). Increased and enhanced communication implies that employees have more chances of accurately learning about the formal and informal expectations held by each other for work and the formal and informal policies and procedures of the organization, as well as the discrepancies between the two (Karasec, 1979).

Decision making is influenced by the values of those involved in the decision-making process. Drake (1973) reports that the perceived usefulness of group decisions was positively related to similarity of values between the decision makers. Therefore, subordinates in dyads with high value congruency may be given more opportunity to participate in decision making because their superior views their input as more useful. Thus the following relationship is hypothesized:
H2: There will be a positive relationship between value congruence and perceived participation in decision making.

A deficiency of information in the work place may result in feelings of unpredictability by the subordinate. In other words, organizational members experience unpredictability when they do not know what is expected of them and what the effects of their own behavior will be (Pearce, 1981; Nicholson & Goh, 1983). When superiors and subordinates share similar values, they categorize, communicate, and interpret stimuli in similar ways (Schein, 1985). This similarity should enhance the ability of employees to correctly interpret and understand rules and procedures and agree, collectively, on what behavior an employee should exhibit. Thus, the subordinate perceives the superior as facilitating working conditions.

Value congruence tends to enhance the interactions between superiors and subordinates, leading to perceptions of leadership consideration. When the quality of interpersonal interactions between the superior and a given subordinate proves satisfying beyond a purely task-instrumental level, social interaction takes place. Therefore, the following relationship is hypothesized:

H3: There will be a positive relationship between value congruence and perceptions of work experiences.
Phase II: Organizational Influences and OC

Reichers (1986) suggests that role conflict reduces OC because its presence interferes with the individual's identification with the organization and leads to the perception of decreased responsibility (Salancik, 1977). When perceived responsibility is lower, role involvement will be lower which results in decreased commitment. Similarly, role ambiguity may decrease commitment by reducing the perceived linkage between the member's role and the attainment of organizational goals (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Salancik, 1977; Shapiro & Doyle, 1983). Thus, the following relationship is hypothesized:

H4: There will be a negative relationship between perceived role stress characteristics and OC.

Greater employee involvement can increase the influence an employee has in the setting of meaningful and motivating goals and the resulting criteria used for evaluating performance. Further, when employees participate in making decisions, they may feel more responsible for the outcomes of their decisions. These feelings of responsibility make the employee more motivated to see that the decisions they participate in work out (Porter, Lawler, & Hackman, 1975). The employee also becomes more ego-involved in work and work-related outcomes (Vroom, 1960) and develops higher
commitment to the organization (Salancik, 1977). Thus, the following relationship is hypothesized:

H5: There will be a positive relationship between perceived participation in decision making and OC.

Morris and Sherman (1981) suggest that the quality of interpersonal exchange between the superior and a subordinate can constitute an important component of subordinate work experiences. Work experiences include all of the things which over the years reinforce the steady growth of commitment by the employee to the organization. The immediate supervisor has the critical role of creating facilitating conditions that the subordinate needs for performing organizational roles. Two major supervisory factors, namely initiation of structure and supervisory consideration, have been used to enhance the psychological state of employees and thus generate positive attitudes and behaviors among them (Bass, 1981; Likert & Likert, 1976; Teas & Horrell, 1981; Yukl, 1981; Zahra, 1984). Thus, the following relationship is hypothesized:

H6: There will be a positive relationship between perceptions of leadership initiation structure/consideration and OC.
Phase III: VC and OC as Mediated by Organizational Influences

Congruent work values between the superior and the subordinate may foster the initial ability of a member to negotiate and communicate more effectively with the superior and ultimately develop a better quality relationship.

Individuals who hold the same values are thought to share certain aspects of cognitive processing which foster comparable methods of categorizing and communicating (Hayek, 1952; Homans, 1950; Newcomb, 1953, 1956, 1958; Runkel, 1956; Triandis, 1959, 1960). Better communication between persons with similar value structures results in less message distortion. Such qualities are essential to the success of interpersonal activities because they reduce or eliminate uncertainty, stimulus overload, and other negative features of work interactions (Schein, 1985). The work environment will allow the workers to reinforce values and satisfy individual needs. In return the employee will work hard to accomplish organizational goals (Steers, 1977), thus leading to increased OC. Therefore, the following relationship is hypothesized:

H7: There will be a positive relationship between value congruence and organizational commitment as mediated by perceptions of role stress characteristics, participation in decision making, and leadership initiation structure/consideration.
Personal Characteristics

The relationships between various personal characteristics and OC have probably been more widely studied, and with consistently unimpressive results (the absolute value of the coefficients of correlations are typically less than .15), than any other category of antecedent variables (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987). An explanation for the disappointing results with respect to predicting commitment may be that they are not a part of the commitment construct. DeCotiis and Summers (1987) found that there was simply be no "commitment profile" of an individual.

Further, Posner (1992) found evidence that personal factors did not moderate the relationship between value congruence and work attitudes. The personal factors that were investigated in their study were age, gender, ethnic background, organizational level, management position, length of service and functional area.

Because the focus of this study is on the influence of value congruence on organizational influences, personal variables are not included in the model. Personal variables will, however, be measured as demographic variables and statistically controlled for. Therefore, personal characteristics as they relate to commitment are reviewed.
Relationships Between Personal Characteristics and OC

A range of personal characteristics have been found to be related to organizational commitment across diverse samples (Brown, 1969; Dubin, Champoux, & Porter, 1975; Steers, 1977). Personal characteristics that have shown positive links to commitment in previous studies include demographics such as age (Lee, 1971; Sheldon, 1971; Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972; Hrebiniak, 1974; Steers, 1977; Angle & Perry, 1981; Morris & Sherman, 1981) and tenure (Buchanan, 1974; Lee, 1971; March & Simon, 1958; Mowday et al., 1979; Sheldon, 1971).

Other researchers have considered demographic factors such as gender and level of education as predictors of OC. The results of these studies suggest that women have more commitment (Angle & Perry, 1981; Hrebiniak & Allutto, 1972), and people with higher levels of education have less commitment (Koch & Steers, 1978; Angle & Perry, 1981; Morris & Sherman, 1981). Interestingly, of the personal characteristics studied to date, only education level has been found to be negatively related to commitment (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987).

Chapter Summary

In this chapter a suggestion was made to include work value congruence as a variable in a model of antecedents to
organizational commitment. This suggestion was followed by a discussion of the theoretical foundation which builds support for such a claim. The similarity-attraction paradigm suggests that similarity to another person increases the chances that an individual will obtain consensual validation for expressed views and opinions from that person. Validation of an attitude is usually a rewarding experience and therefore leads to an increase in positive feelings toward the other person, and thus one element in forming a positive relationship between the two individuals.

A great deal of research has been conducted supporting the view that perceptual similarity between individuals results in attraction. Similarity has also been related to superiors' evaluations of their subordinates and subordinates' evaluations of their superiors, and also related to more positive working relations between a superior and subordinate.

Next, a more specific type of similarity was discussed, similarity in work values (value congruence). Research suggests that value congruence in superior-subordinate dyads results in positive outcomes for an organization such as increased satisfaction, increased performance, positive relationships, and higher levels of organizational
commitment. The link between value congruence and OC is further strengthened by a review of research conducted at the organizational level of analysis.

Next, evidence is presented which suggests that commitment at the organizational level is achieved, in part, through value congruence at the individual level of analysis. Analysis at the individual level reflects the effect of shared values on interpersonal relations. Work value congruence in a dyad enhances the development of a high quality dyadic relationship. The superior selects for more critical tasks those subordinates with whom he/she has built a higher quality relationship and thus perceives as more trustworthy, responsible, and/or competent.

In turn, the subordinate in a high quality dyadic relationship perceives being allowed more participation in decision making, more responsibility, and more consideration from the supervisor. These items have been found to be predictor variables of commitment from Steer's (1977) framework of antecedents. Therefore, research suggests that when a subordinate perceives that he/she is allowed to participate in decision making, feels low levels of role stress, and high levels of supervisory consideration, the subordinate exhibits higher levels of OC. The OC literature supporting this contention is reviewed.
Last, a research model for the current study is proposed which suggests that work value congruence between superiors and subordinates leads to OC through its effect on subordinate perceptions of role stress characteristics, initiation structure/consideration, and participation in decision making. The model integrates the organizational aspects of the Steer's (1977) framework for OC with the interpersonal effect of work value congruence. The chapter is concluded by describing seven specific hypotheses which will be tested in the proposed study.
CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter contains the methodology that was used in the current study. The sample is discussed followed by a description of the procedures that were used to conduct the study. Next, a summary of the variables that were examined and the instruments used to measure those variables are presented. Last, the statistical procedures that were used to analyze the data collected in the study are discussed.

Sample

The present study sampled 204 full-time employees of a large manufacturing corporation located in the Midwest. Of the 204 subjects that received questionnaires, 149 completed and returned usable surveys to the researcher, resulting in a response rate of 73%. Out of the 149 respondents, 96 superior-subordinate dyads were matched. Thus, the sample size for this study was 96 superior-subordinate dyads.

In order to ensure an appropriate level of statistical power for the study, the required sample size was determined using Cohen's power analysis procedure (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). The power of a statistical test is the probability
that the test will detect an effect in a sample when, in fact, a true effect exists in the population (Aiken & West, 1991). Using a target power of .80 and an effect size of .4 with an alpha of .05, the estimated sample size for the study was 99. Therefore, the sample of 96 dyads should be satisfactory.

Procedure

Initially, the researcher met with the Human Resources Director of the corporation to explain the study, procedures, and questionnaires used, and to request that participation by all full-time employees be encouraged. Upon approval for conducting the study, the Human Resources Director provided the researcher with a list of the names of full-time employees and an organization chart which illustrated superior-subordinate positions.

All full-time employees were administered a survey questionnaire containing measures of demographics, work values, organizational commitment, role stress characteristics, structural characteristics, and work experiences. The survey, along with a letter of support from the President of the firm, was distributed to employees through interoffice mail. Additionally, subjects were informed that their decision to participate in the study should be completely voluntary and that individual responses
would be held in strict confidence. Respondents were asked to supply their names to identify superior-subordinate dyads.

Subjects completed the questionnaire and returned it in a sealed envelope to a container in the main lobby of the firm. As the questionnaires were returned, they were collected by the researcher.

Measures

Two objectives guided measurement based on McGrath's (1986) recommendation for studying work groups. First, data was collected from multiple sources. Each subordinate and superior in a dyad completed the questionnaire. Thus, independent, multiple sources of measures were collected. Second, in the absence of multiple measures for each construct, an effort was made to control qualitatively for method bias in this study. This involved not providing information on the specific objectives of the research to respondents, negative ordering of some of the items, random structuring of scales within the questionnaire, and assuring confidentiality of responses.

Study measures were generated through established measurement scales for each of the variables. A summary of the source, reliability coefficients, and number of items for each scale are presented in Table 10. The appendices
provide a listing of the actual items used to measure the variables.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was measured using the Mowday et al. (1979) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The OCQ is a fifteen item scale with a response format that employs a 5-point Likert scale. Results are summed and divided by 15 to arrive at a summary indicator of employee commitment. Several items are negatively phrased and reverse scored in an effort to reduce response bias.

The authors of the OCQ intended for the instrument to provide a fairly consistent indicator of employee commitment levels for most working populations. In order to examine the psychometric properties of the instrument, they designed a validation strategy that used multiple and diverse samples. A number of studies were conducted using the OCQ among these samples. The results of these studies suggest that the OCQ exhibits sufficient validity and reliability to support its use in research on organizational commitment.
Table 10
DESCRIPTION OF SCALES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Reliability Reported in Previous Studies</th>
<th>Reliability in the Present Study</th>
<th># of Items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>INDEPENDENT VARIABLE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Value Congruence</td>
<td>Ravlin et al. (1987)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEPENDENT VARIABLE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organizational Commitment</td>
<td>Mowday et al. (1979)</td>
<td>.83-.91</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEDIATING VARIABLES</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Conflict</td>
<td>Rizzo et al. (1970)</td>
<td>.57-.89</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Ambiguity</td>
<td>Rizzo et al. (1970)</td>
<td>.74-.90</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Centralization</td>
<td>Vroom (1960)</td>
<td>.74-.85</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consideration</td>
<td>Stogdill (1963)</td>
<td>.82-.87</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiating Structure</td>
<td>Stogdill (1963)</td>
<td>.53-.93</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

More specifically, the researchers found reasonably strong evidence for the internal consistency and test-retest reliability of the OCQ. When internal consistency reliability was calculated, the coefficient alpha was consistently high, ranging from .82 to .93, with a median of .90 (Cronbach, 1951). The test-retest reliabilities also
demonstrated acceptable levels (from $r = .53$ to $r = .75$) over periods ranging from 2 months to 4 months. In addition to reliability, the studies also suggested moderately acceptable levels of convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity. The OCQ was generally found to be more highly related to measures of similar as opposed to different attitudes. Compared with the evidence for other measures, this pattern of results suggests the OCQ possesses acceptable, although not perfect, levels of convergent and discriminant validity. The percentage of common variance shared by OC and the other measures did not exceed 50% and generally was less than 25% for most relationships (Mowday et al., 1982).

Work Values

Work values were measured using the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES). The CES measures four work values: achievement, helping and concern for others, fairness, and honesty. These are work values that are believed to be relevant to modern corporations (Meglino et al., 1989).

The CES contains 24 pairs of different behavioral statements that were matched to control for gender bias, social desirability, and the extent to which each statement represents its specific value. For each pair of statements,
respondents are asked to choose the behavior that they feel should receive the greater emphasis.

The pairings of behavioral statements are arranged on the CES so that statements representing each particular value are matched with statements representing each of the other three values four times. Therefore, each value is represented on the instrument 12 times. A respondent receives 1 point for each value every time a statement representing that value is chosen in each of the pairs. The score for each value is calculated by summing the number of points assigned to that particular value. The maximum score for any particular value is 12, and the total score for all four values must equal 24.

When all items are scored, the values are rank ordered by the number of choices made for each. Tied ranks are assigned an average rank. In order to legitimately make between-subject comparisons with the ipsative measure, the CES was used to categorize respondents (Ravlin, 1986). Each individual was coded in terms of the value ranked as most important (their primary orientation). When the primary orientation of the superior and the subordinate in a dyad was the same, they were considered to be value congruent.

The authors of the CES indicate that validity is enhanced when the respondents are instructed to reflect on
their previous behavior when answering questions on the scale. Respondents should also be prepared to justify their responses by providing examples from their previous behavior (Ravlin, 1986). In order to examine the reliability of the CES, an ipsative scale, the authors administered the instrument repeated times and examined the inter-time period correlations.

The CES was chosen for use in this study because it uses a forced-choice format, contains specific behavioral incidents that were independently judged to eliminate ambiguity, and uses a measurement technique that is substantially different from those used to measure the other constructs in this study. Therefore, the results are not likely to be affected to any great degree by systematic variance due to response sets (Cronbach, 1946, 1950) or common methods (Campbell & Fiske, 1959).

**Role Stress Characteristics**

Both role conflict and role ambiguity were measured with scales developed by Rizzo et al. (1970). These scales employ a response format that utilizes a 5-point Likert scale. Results are summed and divided by 14 to arrive at a summary indicator of role stress characteristics. Several items are negatively phrased and reverse scored in an effort to reduce response bias. The Rizzo et al. (1970) scales were
selected based on previous evidence of their reliability, their factorial independence, and their extensive use in other studies (Van Sell et al., 1981).

As part of their validation strategy, Rizzo et al. (1970) used Cronbach's coefficient alpha to estimate the reliabilities of the measures. Reliabilities for role conflict ranged from .816 to .82, and role ambiguity ranged from .78 to .80. Additionally, the results of factor and item analyses tended to show that the two concepts of role conflict and role ambiguity emerged as separate dimensions, that scales derived on the basis of the factor analysis of sample A were relatively independent for both samples A and B, and that theoretical components of these concepts did not emerge as distinct factorial entities. The intercorrelations between the role measures was .25 (sample A) and .01 (sample B). Overall, these results indicate relative independence between the role measures.

**Structural Characteristics**

Participation in decision making was measured using Vroom's (1960) Psychological Participation scale. The scale employs a response format that utilizes a 5-point Likert scale. Results are summed and divided by 4 to arrive at a summary indicator of participation. While Vroom found only moderate test-retest reliability for this scale (.63), other
researchers have reported more acceptable reliability levels ranging from .74 to .85 (Agarwal & Ramaswami, 1993).

**Work Experiences**

The initiating structure and consideration subscales from the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) which was developed at Ohio State University (Halpin, 1966) was used to represent the work experiences category. With these scales, the subordinates are asked to rate the behavior of the superior on a five-point scale. The average sum of the item responses relating to each subscale provides the scores for each. The estimated Cronbach's alpha reliabilities of these two subscales are .93 and .86. Evidence of concurrent criterion validities has been provided in Halpin (1966).

**Demographic Information**

Subjects were asked to respond to questions assessing gender, age, education, number of years with the company, number of years in current position and race.

**Data Analysis**

Before analyzing the data, the reliability of the scales was assessed by computing Cronbach alpha coefficient. According to Nunnally (1978), the reliability coefficients should meet the acceptance criteria of 0.70.
Next, value congruence was assessed by comparing the rank order of values for each superior and subordinate in a dyad. When the primary orientation of the superior and the subordinate was the same, they were considered to have value congruence.

Once the value congruence was assessed, hierarchical regressions were conducted. This procedure is most appropriate when independent variables possess a causal priority grounded in existing theory. The regression analysis was conducted in three phases. In phase I of the analysis, hypothesis 1, hypothesis 2, and hypothesis 3 were tested in one equation rather than three separate equations so that the probability of committing a Type I error was not increased. In order to test the three hypotheses in one equation containing three dependent variables, MANOVA procedures were performed. Demographic variables were entered into the model as covariates to control for their influence on perceptions of role stress characteristics, participation, and work experiences. Value congruence, the independent variable, was entered as a factor.

In phase II of the analysis, hypotheses 4, 5, and 6 were tested. The variance in OC (i.e., the main dependent variable) was examined by entering demographics into the hierarchical regression model first. Role stress
characteristics, participation, and work experiences (i.e., independent variables) were entered next as one set of variables and the effects of demographics were partialed out so that only the marginal increase in variance explained by the three independent variables was reported. Again, the three hypotheses were initially tested in one regression equation rather than three separate equations so that the probability of committing a Type I error was not increased. Because this one set equation indicated significance, univariate analysis was conducted on each of the three variables (i.e., role stress characteristics, participation, and work experiences).

In phase III of the analysis, hypothesis 7 was tested by analyzing the full model. The variance in OC was examined by entering demographics into the hierarchical regression model first. Role stress characteristics, participation, and work experiences were entered next followed by work value congruence. The effects of all previous variables were partialed out at each stage. This procedure allows the direct influences of each variable to be assessed at each stage of the process. Once all of the variables were entered into the hierarchy, both the direct and mediating effects of the variables on organizational commitment could be determined.
Chapter Summary

The procedures and methodology for the study were presented in this chapter. A field study design was used to test the hypotheses with a sample of 96 subordinate-superior dyads from a large corporation. All respondents were surveyed with a questionnaire containing measures of work values, role stress characteristics, participation in decision making, leadership initiation structure/consideration, and OC.

Once the questionnaires were completed, the data was analyzed. The primary analysis used in this study to test the hypotheses was hierarchial regressions.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of the hypotheses tested in the study. A correlation matrix of the variables included in the research model is presented first, with the reliability coefficients for the variables listed on the diagonal of the matrix. The following sections describe the statistical procedures used to examine each of the proposed hypotheses and the results of the procedures on each hypothesis.

Correlations

Descriptive statistics and correlations among study variables are presented in Table 11 with the reliability coefficients listed on the diagonal of the matrix. A review of the reliabilities of the measures used indicates that all were within an acceptable range, according to Nunnally's (1978) criterion of .70, with the exception of role stress characteristics which fell slightly below the criterion at .68.

A reliability score for work values was not possible to calculate because of the ipsative nature of the measure.
Tests of Hypotheses

In the current study, seven hypothesized relationships were proposed in the research model and were tested in three phases. Hypotheses one, two, and three were tested in phase I of the analysis in which value congruence was the independent variable and role stress, participation, and work experiences served as dependent variables. The three hypotheses were tested in one equation rather than three separate equations so that the probability of committing a Type I error was not increased.

Hypotheses four, five, and six were tested in phase II of the analysis using hierarchical regressions. In this phase, role stress characteristics, participation, and work experiences, which were dependent variables in phase I of the analysis, became independent variables and were examined for a relationship with organizational commitment (OC), the main dependent variable in the model. Again, the three hypotheses were tested in one equation rather than three separate equations so that the probability of committing a Type I error was not increased. Because the one set equation indicated significance, univariate analysis was conducted on each of the three variables independently to determine the relationship of each with OC.
In phase III of the analysis, hypothesis 7 was tested by analyzing the full model. Demographics were entered into the hierarchical regression model first. Role stress characteristics, participation, and work experiences were entered next followed by work value congruence. The effects of all previous variables were partialled out at each stage allowing the influences of the variables on OC to be assessed at each stage of the process.

Phase I Analyses

Hypotheses one, two, and three were tested in Phase I of the data analysis. Hypothesis one predicted a negative relationship between value congruence in the superior-subordinate dyad and perceived role stress characteristics. Hypotheses two and three, respectively, predicted a positive relationship between value congruence in the dyad and perceived work experiences and participation in decision making. In order to test the three hypotheses in one equation containing the three dependent variables, MANOVA procedures were performed. Demographic variables were entered into the model as covariates to control for the influence of personal demographics. Value congruence, the independent variable, was entered as a factor.
The results of the MANOVA procedure ($F = .34$, $p = .80$) indicate that value congruence does not significantly help to explain the variation in the dependent variables. Based on the results from this one set equation, hypotheses one, two, and three should be rejected. There is not a significant relationship between value congruence and perceived role stress characteristics, participation in decision making, and work experiences.

**Phase II Analyses**

In Phase II of the data analysis, hierarchical regression procedures were utilized to test hypotheses four, five, and six. The variance in OC was examined by entering demographics into the hierarchical regression model first, followed by a one set equation of role stress, participation, and work experiences. The one set equation indicated a significant change in $R^2$ (see Table 12), therefore, univariate analysis was conducted on each of the three variables (i.e., role stress, participation, and work experiences) to determine the relationship of each separate variable with OC.
**TABLE 12**

**PHASE II: ONE SET EQUATION**

Dependent Variable = Organizational Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mode 1</th>
<th>Var</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig t</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>ΔR²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.34</td>
<td>-3.15</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EDUC</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-2.18</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RACE</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YWC</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YCP</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-2.43</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EDUC</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>-2.19</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RACE</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YWC</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YCP</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PART</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RS</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-1.59</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WE</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.60</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*  $p < .01$
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .10$

Hypothesis four proposes a negative relationship between perceived role stress and OC. The results of regression 1 provide support for this relationship. A $t$ value of -2.85 ($p < .01$) suggests that as perceived role stress decreases, an increase in OC occurs. The SPSS(1995) guideline regarding useful predictors suggests looking for $t$ values below -2 or above +2. Here the $t$ value is below -2, thus meeting the guideline. Further, there is a significant change in $R^2$ ($p < .01$) from model 1 to model 2, and the $F$-statistic increases significantly ($p = .000$), indicating that role stress increases the strength of the model in predicting OC. Based on the results of regression 1,
hypothesis 4 will not be rejected. There is a significant, negative relationship between perceptions of role stress and levels of OC. See Table 13 for the results of regression 1.

Hypothesis five proposes a positive relationship between perceived participation in decision making and OC. A $t$ value of 5.01 ($p = .000$) is well above the SPSS (1995) guideline of +2 regarding useful predictors, and thus provides strong support for the presence of a positive relationship.

### TABLE 13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Var</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>$t$</th>
<th>Sig $t$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>$\Delta R^2$</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig $F$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.34</td>
<td>-3.15</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EDUC</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-2.18</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RACE</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YWC</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YCP</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.30</td>
<td>-2.80</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EDUC</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>.96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>-.29</td>
<td>-2.85</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RACE</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YWC</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YCP</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RS</td>
<td>-.28</td>
<td>-2.85</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>4.54</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* $p < .01$
** $p < .05$
*** $p < .10$

Also, there is a significant change in $R^2$ ($p = .000$) from model 1 to model 2 indicating that participation helps in explaining the variability of OC. By adding participation to the regression model, the $F$ statistic ($F = 7.38$)
increased significantly \((p = .000)\) which suggests that participation increases the strength of the model in predicting OC. Based on the results of regression 2, hypothesis number five should not be rejected. There is a significant positive relationship between perceptions of participation in decision making and levels of OC. See Table 14 for the results of regression 2.

**Table 14**

**PHASE II: REGRESSION 2**

Dependent Variable = Organizational Commitment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Var</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig t</th>
<th>(R^2)</th>
<th>(\Delta R^2)</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.34</td>
<td>-3.15</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EDUC</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-2.18</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RACE</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YWC</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YCP</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-2.41</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EDUC</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>-1.78</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RACE</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YWC</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.79</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YCP</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-.25</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PART</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.18*</td>
<td>7.38</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* \(p < .01\)
** \(p < .05\)
*** \(p < .10\)

In hypothesis six, a positive relationship between perceptions of work experiences (i.e., leadership consideration/initiation structure) and OC is proposed. The results of regression 3 provide a \(t\) value of \(-2.91\) \((p = 1.00)\) which indicates a negative relationship rather than the proposed positive relationship. The change in \(R^2\) is
significant (p < .05) and the F statistic (p = .000) increases by adding work experiences to the model. The results of regression 3 indicate that work experiences do add predictability to the model, however, not in the direction proposed in the hypothesis. Therefore, hypothesis number six will be rejected. See Table 15 for the results of regression 3.

**TABLE 15**

**PHASE II: REGRESSION 3**

**Dependent Variable = Organizational Commitment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Var</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig t</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>AR²</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.33</td>
<td>-3.15</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EDUC</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-2.18</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RACE</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YWC</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YCP</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WE</td>
<td>-.28</td>
<td>-2.91</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Phase III Analyses

In phase III of the data analysis, hypothesis 7 was tested using hierarchical regression procedures. Hypothesis seven proposes a positive relationship between value congruence and OC as mediated by perceptions of role stress, participation, and work experiences. The variance in OC was examined by entering demographics into the hierarchical
regression model first. Role stress, participation, and work experiences were entered next followed by value congruence.

The results of model 2 in the regression procedure provide significant t values for participation (t = 3.6, p = .000) and role stress (t = -1.59, p < .10). The $R^2$ increased to .40 when role stress, participation, and work experiences were added to the regression equation in model 2. This change in $R^2$ is significant (p = .000) and the $F$ statistic ($F = 6.32$, p = .000) also increased which suggests that these variables increase the strength of the model in predicting OC.

When value congruence is added to the equation in model 3, a t value of 1.71 (p < .05) for value congruence suggests a positive relationship between value congruence and OC. Further, the addition of value congruence to the model increased the t values and significance levels of participation (t = 3.82, p = .000) and role stress (t = -1.73, p < .05). A marginally significant change in $R^2$ (p < .10) from model 2 to model 3 indicates that value congruence also helps in further explaining the variability of OC.

The results of the hierarchical regressions indicate support for a positive relationship between value congruence and OC (p = .05), however, this relationship appears to be direct rather than being mediated by participation, role stress, and work experiences. Further, results from the three phases of hierarchical regressions suggest that
participation and role stress have a direct relationship to OC rather than acting as mediators. Therefore, hypothesis number 7 would be rejected. See Table 16 for the results of regression 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 16</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHASE III: REGRESSION 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dependent Variable = Organizational Commitment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Var</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig t</th>
<th>R^2</th>
<th>AR^2</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig F</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.34</td>
<td>-3.15</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EDUC</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-2.18</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RACE</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YWC</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.92</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YCP</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-2.43</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EDUC</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>-.21</td>
<td>-2.19</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RACE</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YWC</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YCP</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PART</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RS</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-1.59</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WE</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-1.60</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>.20 *</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>AGE</td>
<td>-.26</td>
<td>-2.73</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>EDUC</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>GENDER</td>
<td>-.22</td>
<td>-2.34</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RACE</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YWC</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.48</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>YCP</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PART</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>3.82</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>RS</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>-1.73</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>WE</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-1.44</td>
<td>.99</td>
<td>***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>VC</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.42</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .01 ** p < .05 *** p < .10

Chapter Summary

The findings from the data analysis were reported in this chapter. After presenting the correlation matrix for the variables in this study, the specific results of each hypothesis were reported.
Hypothesis one, two, and three were not supported by the findings of the study. Hypothesis one proposed a negative relationship between value congruence and perceived role stress characteristics. Hypothesis two proposed a positive relationship between value congruence and perceptions of work experiences. Hypothesis three proposed a positive relationship between value congruence and perceived participation in decision making.

Hypothesis four was supported and demonstrated a negative relationship between perceived role stress characteristics and OC. Hypothesis five proposed a positive relationship between perceived participation in decision making and OC. This hypothesis was supported. Hypothesis six proposed a positive relationship between perceptions of work experiences and OC, but was not supported by the data.

Hypothesis seven proposed a positive relationship between value congruence and OC as mediated by perceptions of role stress characteristics, participation in decision making, and work experiences. The results of the data did not support this hypothesis. Rather, there appears to be a direct relationship between value congruence, participation in decision making, and role stress characteristics and OC.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The present chapter begins by summarizing and interpreting the results of the study. The second section discusses the theoretical and practical implications of the contribution made by these results, while the third section addresses possible directions for future studies. The limitations inherent in this research project conclude the discussion chapter.

Summary of Results

Phase I: Relationship Between Value Congruence and Organizational Influences

Hypotheses one, two, and three were examined in Phase I of the study. The first three hypotheses predict a relationship between value congruence in a dyad and subordinate perceptions of role stress (hypothesis one), work experiences (hypothesis two), and participation in decision making (hypothesis three). The results of the current study, however, do not support the predictions of the first three hypotheses.

There are a number of potential explanations for the lack of significant findings in hypotheses one, two, and
three. First, the lack of findings may be due to a measurement problem with the value congruence construct. The CES, which was used to measure work values, is a fully ipsative measure. Therefore, in order to legitimately make between-subject comparisons, data from the CES was used to categorize respondents. For example, each respondent was coded in terms of his/her primary orientation, or the value ranked as most important. Work values were deemed congruent in the superior-subordinate dyad when there was a match in the value ranked as most important. The dyad may have matched on other values, but this was not taken into consideration for assessing value congruence. Thus, the product of the CES, a “yes” or “no” categorization, is very rigid and not rich with information compared to measures which produce interval data.

The use of the CES is justified, however, in that it does overcome some of the potential problems that are inherent in measures which produce interval data. First, the forced-choice format of the CES provides for some control for socially desirable responses. Second, the problems associated with using difference scores to assess congruence are avoided. Work value measures which produce interval data generally assess value congruence by computing indexes of value congruence. Indexes are typically
calculated by determining the algebraic, absolute, or squared difference between the work value score obtained from the subordinate and the work value score obtained from the superior. With this method of assessing value congruence, a variety of responses to work value questions from members of the dyad may still produce significant findings in terms of value congruence. Measures using difference scores, however, are prone to methodological problems such as concealing the source of the difference between entities (Cronbach, 1958; Cronbach & Gleser, 1953; Edwards, 1993; Johns, 1981; Lykken, 1956; Nunnally, 1962), and procedures like polynomial regression analysis which may overcome such methodological problems (Cronbach, 1958; Edwards, 1993) have not been fully developed.

Another explanation for the lack of significant findings may involve the level of interpersonal and communication skills that the respondents possessed at the time of the study. Past research suggests that individuals with similar values share comparable methods of classifying and interpreting environmental events and a common system of communication (Schein, 1985). Therefore, congruent work values in the dyad should foster the ability of a subordinate to communicate more effectively with the superior. If the study respondents, however, possessed high
levels of interpersonal and communication skills, this could reduce the impact of value congruence. Communication skills could have been enhanced in a number of ways including corporate training sessions, community seminars, or formal education.

In terms of hypothesis one which predicts a negative relationship between value congruence in the dyad and perceptions of role stress characteristics, enhanced communication skills may help members of a dyad to accurately assess and agree on job responsibilities and requirements without having the common system of communication that goes along with value congruence. This will result in clearer role expectations for the subordinate. With clearer role expectations, the individual will experience less role ambiguity and conflict (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Wanous, 1977).

Similarly, with hypothesis two which proposed a positive relationship between value congruence and perceived work experiences (initiation structure/consideration), enhanced interpersonal and communication skills may heighten the quality of interactions in the dyad. Better quality interactions may improve the ability of employees to correctly interpret and understand rules and procedures and agree collectively on what behavior an employee should
exhibit. Thus the subordinate would perceive the superior as facilitating working conditions because of this better communication rather than because of the common system of communication that goes along with value congruence.

Enhanced interpersonal and communication skills could also reduce the impact of value congruence in hypothesis three which predicts a positive relationship between value congruence and perceived participation in decision making. Drake (1973) reports that the perceived usefulness of group decisions is positively related to similarity of values between the decision makers. Theoretically, subordinates in dyads with high value congruency may be given more opportunity to participate in decision making because their superior views their input as more useful. With training in interpersonal relations and communication, however, superiors and subordinates may acquire the skills needed to get employees involved and participating in decisions relating to their job, thus reducing the impact of value congruence on participation.

Other exogenous variables that were not identified or controlled for may also have masked the impact of value congruence. For example, perhaps the quality of co-worker relations reduced the impact of superior-subordinate value
congruence. Interactions with coworkers can be an important source of job stress (Gaines & Jermier, 1983; Leiter & Maslach, 1986) or support.

**Phase II: Relationship Between Organizational Influences and OC**

Hypothesis four proposed a negative relationship between perceived role stress characteristics and OC. Support for hypothesis four was found in this study. This finding is consistent with past research which has found that role stress characteristics reduce OC because its presence interferes with the individual's identification with the organization and leads to the perception of decreased responsibility (Reichers, 1986; Salancik, 1977). When perceived responsibility is lower, role involvement will be lower which results in decreased commitment. Role stress characteristics may also decrease commitment by reducing the perceived linkage between the member's role and the attainment of organizational goals (DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Salancik, 1977; Shapiro & Doyle, 1983). This finding suggests the beneficial aspects of making job expectations clear to subordinates, giving subordinates the responsibility needed to meet job expectations, and helping subordinates understand their role in attaining organizational goals.
The positive relationship between perceived participation in decision making and OC proposed in hypothesis five was also supported in this study. This finding supports past research which suggests that participation in decision-making helps to achieve a desired integration between the employee and the organization (Vroom, 1960). This participation enhances the sense of involvement in a job and is indicative of influence in affecting the decisions that pertain to the job and/or immediate work environment. Further, when employees participate in making decisions, they may feel more responsible for the outcomes of their decisions. These feelings of responsibility make the employee more motivated to see that the decisions they participate in work out. The employee also becomes more ego-involved in work and work-related outcomes and develops higher commitment to the organization.

The positive relationship between perceptions of work experiences and OC proposed in hypothesis 6 was not supported. Although not significant (p = 1.00), a negative relationship between work experiences and OC was found rather than the proposed positive relationship. A potential explanation is that the superior was seen as being too paternalistic, thus detracting from subordinate feelings of
involvement and control which lead to OC. For example, a superior who is perceived to exhibit high levels of initiating structure/consideration may be providing a great deal of direction and support to subordinates. This, in turn, may reduce the felt responsibility of subordinates. By taking away autonomy, the opportunity for potential organizational commitment is reduced.

Phase III: The Full Model

In hypothesis seven the full organizational commitment model was analyzed. It was proposed in hypothesis seven that there would be a positive relationship between value congruence and OC as mediated by role stress, participation, and work experiences. The results of the tests on hypothesis seven offer only partial support for the proposed model with two surprising findings.

First, there was support for the positive relationship between value congruence and OC, however, this positive relationship appears to be a direct relationship rather than being mediated by perceptions of role stress characteristics, participation, and work experiences. Thus, value congruence in the superior-subordinate dyad does not influence subordinate perceptions of the organizational influences tested in hypothesis seven. Congruence in the
dyad does, however, result in the outcome of increased organizational commitment.

There are a number of potential explanations for the finding that value congruence in a superior-subordinate dyad directly leads to positive feelings about committing to the organization. Perhaps when a superior and subordinate have similar values, then it is through the superior that the employee begins identifying with the goals of the organization and internalizing its values. The actions of the superior may be viewed as actions of the organization itself, thus the organization is personified through the superior. The subordinate may be attracted to and committed to the organization because they perceive it to have values similar with their own. Further, when there is value congruence in the dyad, the subordinate may have a more accurate understanding of the organization's values. An understanding of organizational values has been shown to enhance people's adjustment to their jobs (Wanous, 1977) and subsequently their level of organizational commitment (Meglino, Ravlin, Adkins, 1989).

The second surprising finding was that while the tests on hypothesis seven revealed that value congruence, role stress characteristics, and participation directly influence subordinate levels of organizational commitment, there was
not support for the positive influence of leadership initiation structure/consideration on OC. This finding may be partially explained by looking at the many changes in the nature of work and the workforce since the development of the Steer's (1977) model of OC. As McDonald and Gandz (1992) discuss in their article on shared values, there have been enormous gains in technology over the last twenty years. These gains have pulled organizations into a turbulent information age. Traditionally, in the typical organization, the majority of workers were engaged in physical labor and their output was clearly tangible. Today the majority of employees are information workers involved in working with intangible informational aspects of the job. Automation has greatly reduced the dependence of most organizations on physical work, allowing individuals to focus on informational or thinking work. Physical and informational work are very different and require different methods of motivation and control.

Along with the changes in the nature of work have come the changes in the work force. Workers of today indicate that they want more from their jobs than collecting a paycheck for going to work and performing their duties (McDonald & Gandz, 1992). They want a sense of involvement, shared meaning, and psychological attachment. They also
expect to feel comfortable with the existing values of the organization. Given the changes in the nature of work and the workforce, superiors with high levels of initiation structure/consideration may have been viewed as too paternalistic by the employees. Employees in the organizations of today may not desire a great deal of direction and support from their superior. Higher levels of leadership initiation structure/consideration may detract from subordinate feelings of involvement, control, and autonomy, thus reducing the opportunity for potential OC.

Overall, the results of the tests on hypothesis 7 indicate that value congruence, role stress characteristics, and participation have direct influences on levels of OC. These results suggest that a revised model of OC would appear as that found in Figure 2.

Post Hoc Power Analysis

Before beginning the study, the recommended sample size was determined using Cohen's power analysis procedure (Cohen & Cohen, 1983). Using a target power of .80 and an effect size of .4 with an alpha of .05, the estimated sample size for the study was 99. The actual sample size for the study was 96, slightly below the recommended number. Therefore, a post hoc power analysis was performed to determine the power of the actual sample size. The resulting power using $n =$
Figure 2

Revised Organizational Commitment Model

- Work Value Congruence
- Structural Characteristics (participation)
- Role Stress Characteristics (role ambiguity, role conflict)
- Organizational Commitment
96, $\beta_s = .4$, and alpha = .05, was approximately .78. Therefore, it seems logical to conclude that the sample size of 96 should have been sufficiently powerful to detect significance in the study.

Theoretical Implications

The main purpose of this study was to expand the Steer's (1977) model of OC to include the interpersonal impact of value congruence and thus build a clearer understanding of the commitment process. Like the majority of studies testing Steer's (1977) model, strong support was found here for a direct relationship between the organizational influences of perceived role stress and participation in decision making and OC. Additionally, the findings indicate support for a direct relationship between value congruence in a superior-subordinate dyad and OC. This finding suggests the beneficial aspect of including interpersonal factors in models of OC.

While the literature points to the importance of shared values for strong corporate culture, which has been linked to superior overall performance and positive organizational outcomes, there has been a gap in the literature pertaining to the relationship between value congruence and OC at the individual level of analysis. This study provides evidence that OC at the organizational level may be achieved, in
part, through value congruence at the individual level of analysis. Analysis at the individual level reflects the effect of shared values on interpersonal interactions. The quality of superior-subordinate interactions is important because in most organizations this dyad must interact effectively in order to accomplish organizational goals and objectives. The quality of these interactions can influence the attitudes workers have toward the work environment and influence organizational outcomes.

While support was found in this study for the direct relationship between perceived role stress and participation in decision making and OC, there was not support for the direct relationship between work experiences and OC as predicted in the Steer's (1977) model. Work experiences are viewed as a major socializing force and thus represent an important influence on the extent to which psychological attachments are formed with the organization (Mowday, et al., 1982). There may be other variables besides leadership initiation structure/consideration that are more relevant in terms of work experiences for the employees of today. Potential variables to represent the work experiences category could include the degree to which employee expectations were met in the organization, perceived pay
equity, and/or employee feelings of personal importance to the organization.

The research model for the current study could also be improved by investigating the role of communication as a mediating variable between value congruence and perceived role stress characteristics, participation in decision making, and work experiences. Past research suggests that individuals with similar values share comparable methods of classifying and interpreting environmental events and a common system of communication (Schein, 1985). Thus, congruent work values in the dyad should foster more effective communication within the dyad. If the individuals in the dyad, however, possess high levels of communication skills, this could reduce the impact of value congruence. By measuring levels of communication, the researcher can determine the role of communication in influencing the impact of value congruence on other variables.

Practical Implications

The results of the current study indicate that value congruence in a superior-subordinate dyad impacts subordinate levels of OC. This finding suggests that in addition to organizational influences, organizations desiring increased commitment from workers may benefit from employing interventions aimed at developing interpersonal
factors. An important interpersonal factor to consider is the level of value congruence in a superior-subordinate dyad.

Hiring individuals who are similar to each other in order to create a congruent work force is not recommended. Aside from the questionable legality of such personnel practices, research posits negative aspects such as increased levels of group think and decreased levels of creativity and innovation that may result from groups that are highly homogeneous. Organizations may, however, benefit from employing interventions aimed at developing similar perceptions of important work values. There are various methods which can be used to accomplish this development. One method is to socialize employees toward desired work values. Ways to socialize employees include developing and investing more resources into programs such as training sessions, reward systems, and internal corporate communication programs that emphasize the work values important to the organization. When employing the socialization method, managers should also keep in mind that research indicates it is more effective to socialize people at the time they enter the organization rather than allow socialization to happen over time (McDonald & Gandz, 1992).
Another approach organizations could employ is to enact interventions aimed at improving the quality of superior-subordinate dyadic relationships when work values are not congruent. Superiors might want, for example, to increase communication with incongruent subordinates to ensure that messages are received accurately. Further, interventions to enhance superior and subordinate awareness of how differences and similarities in work values can affect organizational outcomes may be helpful.

The study also supports the negative relationship of role stress characteristics and the positive relationship of participation in decision making with OC. These findings back past research which indicate the importance of developing organizational factors to improve employee levels of OC. Specifically, evidence suggests the importance of clear job expectations, job responsibility, and job involvement in developing subordinate levels of OC.

Directions for Future Research

There are a number of ways in which the research model for the current study could be improved in order to be re-tested. First, measures of communication and interpersonal skill levels should be added to the questionnaire. These measures will assist the researcher in assessing the level of communication and interpersonal skills that the
respondent possesses at the time of the study. Thus, the researcher can determine whether these variables are influencing the impact of value congruence on various outcome variables.

Second, it may be enlightening to investigate the influence of perceived value congruence as well as actual value congruence in the dyad on the various outcome variables. Research suggests that a person who is perceived as similar to the evaluator is more attractive and that this attraction positively biases decisions and evaluations regarding that person (Byrne, 1961; Byrne, Young, & Griffitt, 1966). Thus, the perception of value congruence in the dyad may be as important than the existence of actual value congruence.

Third, other variables besides leadership initiation structure/consideration should be used to represent the work experiences category. There are a number of potential variables such as perceived pay equity, feelings of importance to the organization, and/or the degree to which employee expectations were met by the organization that may be more relevant for the employees of today.

Fourth, using a measure for value congruence which produces interval data will provide richer information to the researcher. The data from the CES, with its "yes" or
"no" categorization, is very rigid. Using a work value measure which produces interval data will allow members of the dyad to have a variety of responses to work value questions and still be considered value congruent.

Finally, an investigation which measures the level of value congruence among coworkers as well as in the superior-subordinate dyad may improve the research model. Subordinates spend a great deal of time in contact with coworkers. It is possible that the influence of value congruence in a superior-subordinate dyad may be reduced by the level of value congruence among coworkers.

Limitations of the Study

There are a number of limitations in this study which should be noted. One potential limitation is the sample size. While there was an overall response rate of 73%, the respondents had to be matched into superior-subordinate dyads. If one member of the dyad did not respond, then the survey of the responding member was not usable. Due to the need to match respondents into dyads, a sample size of 96 dyads was obtained. Although this size had the statistical power estimated for the analyses conducted, more data points would have been preferable. A larger sample might have provided support for those hypotheses that were rejected here, as well as strengthening the findings.
A second potential limitation is that certain elements of the study may have skewed the results. For example, respondents were asked to put their names on the survey in order for the researcher to match superior-subordinate dyads. Even though participants were reassured that their responses would be confidential and that participation in the study was voluntary, they may have felt they should participate because of the strong encouragement from top management. This may have resulted in respondents answering surveys just to show participation without thoroughly and carefully thinking about their answer to the question. Also, respondents who had poor relationships with their superior may have elected not to participate in the study.

A third limitation concerns the generalizability of the findings to other populations. In this study all full-time employees at one corporation were sampled rather than performing random sampling within the corporation in order to insure heterogeneity. Further, it is questionable whether any discovery made in this one setting applies to another setting. The major solution to this generalization problem would be future research replicating this study in a variety of settings (Skinner, 1953; Hersen & Barlow, 1976).

A fourth limitation concerns the constructs used to represent the work experiences category. Leadership
initiation structure/consideration were treated as one construct in the work experiences category and should perhaps be considered as two distinct constructs. Furthermore, variables other than leadership initiation structure/consideration may be more relevant in representing the work experiences of employees in the organizations of today.

A final caveat that may be made concerns limitations relevant to the design of the study. The existence of mono-method bias may be present since all data was collected through a questionnaire format. Also, the study suffers from lack of control by the researcher and noise in the study setting both of which are inherent limitations in this type of research design.

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study was to expand the Steer's (1977) model of OC to include the interpersonal impact of value congruence and thus build a clearer understanding of the commitment process. Specifically, a model was proposed and hypotheses developed which investigated the relationship between value congruence and OC as mediated by perceptions of role stress characteristics, participation in decision making, and work experiences.
Two of the seven hypothesized relationships in the study were supported. These hypotheses indicated a negative relationship between perceived role stress characteristics and OC and a positive relationship between participation in decision making and OC. Another finding was a positive relationship between value congruence and OC. This was a direct relationship, however, rather than the mediated relationship which was predicted in hypothesis seven.

The first section of this chapter presented a detailed discussion of the findings of each hypothesis and possible explanations for why certain relationships were supported and others were not. Theoretical and practical implications of the results of the study were offered next, followed by a discussion of the sample size, the generalizability issue, and other limitations relevant to the design of the study. The chapter was concluded with recommendations for future research.
APPENDIX A

THE ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE
INSTRUCTIONS: Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the company or organization for which they work. For each of the following statements, circle the number below each item that most closely represents your own feelings of agreement or disagreement about the particular organization for which you are now working.

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.
   
   Strongly Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly
   Agree 1 2 3 4 5

2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.
   
   Strongly Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly
   Agree 1 2 3 4 5

3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. (R)
   
   Strongly Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly
   Agree 1 2 3 4 5

4. I would accept almost any type job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.
   
   Strongly Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly
   Agree 1 2 3 4 5

5. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.
   
   Strongly Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly
   Agree 1 2 3 4 5

6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.
   
   Strongly Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly
   Agree 1 2 3 4 5

7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work were similar. (R)
   
   Strongly Agree Neutral Disagree Strongly
   Agree 1 2 3 4 5
8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. (R)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over the others I was considering at the time I joined.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees. (R)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. I really care about the fate of this organization.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake for me. (R)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

PARTICIPATION IN DECISION MAKING
16. In general, I feel that I have a lot of influence on what goes on in my work unit.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17. I feel that I can influence the decisions of my supervisor regarding things of concern to me.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

18. My supervisor usually asks for my opinion on issues related to my work.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19. It is easy to get my ideas across to my supervisor on issues relating to improving my job or changing the set-up in some way.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Role Ambiguity

20. I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job. (R)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21. I know that I have divided my time properly. (R)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

22. I know what my responsibilities are. (R)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23. I know exactly what is expected of me. (R)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24. I feel certain about how much authority I have on the job. (R)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

25. Explanation is clear of what has to be done. (R)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Role Conflict

26. I have to do things that should be done differently under different conditions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

27. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
29. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

30. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

31. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not by others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX D

LEADERSHIP INITIATION STRUCTURE/CONSIDERATION
Leadership Initiation Structure

32. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

33. I work on unnecessary things.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

34. My supervisor decides what shall be done and how it shall be done.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

35. My supervisor explains the way tasks should be carried out.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

36. My supervisor schedules the work to be done by the subordinates.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

37. My supervisor asks that the work-unit members follow standard rules and regulations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Leadership Consideration

39. My supervisor is friendly and approachable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

40. My supervisor helps make my job more pleasant.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

41. My supervisor does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the work unit.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
42. My supervisor treats all people s(he) supervises as equals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

43. My supervisor looks out for the personal welfare of group members.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

44. My supervisor gives advance notice of changes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Seldom</th>
<th>Occasionally</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX E

COMPARATIVE EMPHASIS SCALE
INSTRUCTIONS: Sometimes people must choose between two things they feel they should do. In these choice situations they must place more emphasis on one activity over another. Below are pairs of statements which describe activities which people feel they should do. Read each statement carefully, and then place a check next to the statement which you feel you should emphasize more in your behavior at work.

Example:

- Always being in control of your emotions while under stress
- Looking forward to the future with a positive outlook

Both of the above statements represent activities many people feel are important and should be done. Imagine you're in a situation in which you can only do one of them. Your task is to select the one statement of the pair that you feel should be emphasized in your behavior. In the above example, this particular person felt the second activity should receive more emphasis than the first. Of course another person might feel just the opposite.

Please read the following 24 pairs of statements and indicate which one in each pair you feel should receive more emphasis. Some choices will probably be difficult for you, but please do the best you can. Do not leave any questions blank.

1. Taking care of all loose ends on a job or project
   - Being impartial in dealing with others
2. Taking actions which represent your true feelings
   - Trying to avoid hurting other people
3. Encouraging someone who is having a difficult day
   - Considering different points of view before taking action
4. Speaking your mind even when your views may not be popular
   - Working to meet job requirements even when your personal schedule must be rearranged
5. Making decisions which are fair to all concerned
   - Expressing your true opinions when asked
6. Continuing to work on a problem until it is resolved
   - Trying to help a fellow worker through a difficult time
7. Trying to help reduce a friend's burden
   - Admitting an error and accepting the consequences
8. Being impartial in judging disagreements
   - Helping others on difficult jobs
9. Taking on additional tasks to get ahead
   - Admitting to making a mistake rather than covering it up
10. Offering help to others when they are having a tough time
   Doing whatever work is required to advance in your career

11. Always being truthful in dealing with others
   Giving everyone an equal opportunity at work

12. Judging people fairly based on their abilities rather than only on their personalities
   Seeking out all opportunities to learn new skills

13. Trying to be helpful to a friend at work
   Being sure that work assignments are fair to everyone

14. Refusing to take credit for ideas of others
   Maintaining the highest standard for your performance

15. Being determined to be the best at your work
   Trying not to hurt a friend's feelings

16. Trying to bring about a fair solution to a dispute
   Admitting responsibility for errors made

17. Finishing each job you start even when others do not
   Making sure that rewards are given in the fairest possible way

18. Refusing to tell a lie to make yourself look good
   Helping those who are worried about things at work

19. Trying as hard as you can to learn as much as possible about your job
   Taking a stand for what you believe in

20. Sharing information and ideas which others need to do their job
    Always setting high performance goals for yourself

21. Refusing to do something you think is wrong
    Providing fair treatment for all employees

22. Allowing each employee to have an equal chance to get rewards
    Taking on more responsibility to get ahead in an organization

23. Correcting others' errors without embarrassing them
    Holding true to your convictions

24. Providing fair treatment for each employee
    Lending a helping hand to someone having difficulty

© 1986 University of South Carolina, Riegel and Emory Center
SCORING KEY

Comparative Emphasis Scale

Elizabeth C. Ravlin and Bruce M. Meglino

SCORING INSTRUCTIONS: Each statement in the following 24 pairs represents one of the following four general workplace values:

- **Ach** = Achievement / Working Hard
- **Con** = Concern for / Helping Others
- **Fair** = Fairness
- **Hon** = Honesty / Integrity

A respondent is given 1 point for each value every time a statement representing that value is chosen in each of the following pairs. The score for each value is obtained by summing the number of points assigned to that particular value. The maximum score for any particular value is 12, and the total score for all four values must equal 24. The values represented by each statement are shown below.

1. **Ach**  Taking care of all loose ends on a job or project
   **Fair**  Being impartial in dealing with others
2. **Hon**  Taking actions which represent your true feelings
   **Con**  Trying to avoid hurting other people
3. **Con**  Encouraging someone who is having a difficult day
   **Fair**  Considering different points of view before taking action
4. **Hon**  Speaking your mind even when your views may not be popular
   **Ach**  Working to meet job requirements even when your personal schedule must be rearranged
5. **Fair**  Making decisions which are fair to all concerned
   **Hon**  Expressing your true opinions when asked
6. **Ach**  Continuing to work on a problem until it is resolved
   **Con**  Trying to help a fellow worker through a difficult time
7. **Con**  Trying to help reduce a friend’s burden
   **Hon**  Admitting an error and accepting the consequences
8. **Fair**  Being impartial in judging disagreements
   **Con**  Helping others on difficult jobs
9. **Ach**  Taking on additional tasks to get ahead
   **Hon**  Admitting to making a mistake rather than covering it up
10. **Con**  Offering help to others when they are having a tough time
    **Ach**  Doing whatever work is required to advance in your career

© 1986 University of South Carolina, Riegel and Emory Center
11. **Hon** Always being truthful in dealing with others  
**Fair** Giving everyone an equal opportunity at work

12. **Fair** Judging people fairly based on their abilities rather than only on their personalities  
**Ach** Seeking out all opportunities to learn new skills

13. **Con** Trying to be helpful to a friend at work  
**Fair** Being sure that work assignments are fair to everyone

14. **Hon** Refusing to take credit for ideas of others  
**Ach** Maintaining the highest standard for your performance

15. **Ach** Being determined to be the best at your work  
**Con** Trying not to hurt a friend’s feelings

16. **Fair** Trying to bring about a fair solution to a dispute  
**Hon** Admitting responsibility for errors made

17. **Ach** Finishing each job you start even when others do not  
**Fair** Making sure that rewards are given in the fairest possible way

18. **Hon** Refusing to tell a lie to make yourself look good  
**Con** Helping those who are worried about things at work

19. **Ach** Trying as hard as you can to learn as much as possible about your job  
**Hon** Taking a stand for what you believe in

20. **Con** Sharing information and ideas which others need to do their job  
**Ach** Always setting high performance goals for yourself

21. **Hon** Refusing to do something you think is wrong  
**Fair** Providing fair treatment for all employees

22. **Fair** Allowing each employee to have an equal chance to get rewards  
**Ach** Taking on more responsibility to get ahead in an organization

23. **Con** Correcting others’ errors without embarrassing them  
**Hon** Holding true to your convictions

24. **Fair** Providing fair treatment for each employee  
**Con** Lending a helping hand to someone having difficulty

For instructions on administering the scale and information on how the scores should be used, please contact:  
Dr. Elizabeth C. Ravlin  
Director of Research  
Riegel and Emory Human Resource Research Center  
College of Business Administration  
University of South Carolina  
Columbia, South Carolina 29208  
(803) 777-5964

© 1986 University of South Carolina, Riegel and Emory Center
1. **What is the Comparative Emphasis Scale?**

The Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES) is a copyrighted instrument which is designed to measure four general workplace values: achievement/working hard, concern for/helping others, fairness, and honesty/integrity. It utilizes a forced choice format because of the high social desirability of values and the tendency for respondents to inflate responses to socially desirable Likert-type items. Single phrases, each describing behaviors reflecting one of the four values, are used in the choice items. Each value is compared to every other value four times, with each replication consisting of different behavioral statements. These statements were previously matched for social desirability, with male/female differences taken into account and for the extent to which they represented the value with which they are associated. Items were also rated for representativeness across all four values. Use thus far has indicated that individuals respond to the instrument in a generally transitive manner, that responses relate to decision making and ratings of performance, and that congruence on the measure between supervisors and subordinates is related to satisfaction, commitment, and other important work outcomes. For further information on the development and use of the scale, see:


2. **Scoring the Scale**

Each choice alternative on the CES relates to one of four basic values: achievement/working hard, concern for/helping others, fairness, and honesty/integrity. The attached sheet indicates the value categories for each item. Each time a respondent chooses an item from a particular value category, he/she scores one point on that value. When all items are scored, the values are rank ordered by the number of choices made for each. Tied ranks are assigned an average rank. Please note that the scale legitimately only produces a rank order of the four values, and is subject to the limitations of ipsative measurement. Some of our research has indicated that non-ipsative measurement is possible when the scale is used to measure only one value.
3. **Data Analysis Using the CES**

The CES is a fully ipsative measure. For this reason, items cannot be eliminated or added without substantially altering the integrity of the scale. The product of the scale is a rank order for a respondent of the four values measured. Ipsative measures are inherently within-subject measures, and special procedures must be used to legitimately make between-subject comparisons. Three possible approaches to making between-subject comparisons are the following:

a. Use of the CES to categorize respondents: Each individual can be coded in terms of their primary orientation, or the value ranked as most important.

b. Transformation of each rank to equal areas of the normal curve (see Feather, N. T., *Values in Education and Society*, Free Press, 1975).

c. Use of Fisher's $r$ to $z$ transformation by deriving within-subject correlation coefficients and cumulating them by transforming them to $z$ scores.

4. **Administering the CES**

Our experience indicates that validity is enhanced when, at the time they answer the scale, individuals are told to reflect on their previous behavior and be prepared to justify their individual responses by providing examples from their previous behavior.

5. **Using the CES**

The CES is available for use under the following guidelines:

a. The instrument must appear with the authors' names and the copyright symbol on all forms and/or in all methods of reproduction.

b. The instrument may be used without charge for research purposes only, provided that the investigators furnish the Riegel and Emory Center with each subject's response and corresponding demographic data, including job title. This condition is imposed in order to enhance the scale's utility in future scientific investigations. Further information on this reporting requirement can be obtained by contacting the Research Director at the address below.

c. When any part of an investigation is for the purpose of consulting, a fee is assessed for each administration of the CES. This fee applies whether or not copies of the scale are furnished by the Riegel and Emory Center or the scale is reproduced in any form. Information on the current fee schedule can be obtained by contacting the Research Director at the address given below.

Director of Research  
Riegel and Emory Human Resource Research Center  
College of Business Administration  
University of South Carolina  
Columbia, South Carolina 29208

Copyright 1986 University of South Carolina, Riegel and Emory Center
APPENDIX F

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE
INSTRUCTIONS: The questions asked below are important to the research being conducted. Please answer each question. Circle the letter to indicate your choice after you have read all of the choices.

45. How many years have you been with __________?
   a. Less than one year
   b. One to three years
   c. More than three years but less than five years
   d. Five to ten years
   e. More than ten years

46. How many years have you been in your current position?
   a. Less than one year
   b. One to three years
   c. More than three years but less than five years
   d. Five to ten years
   e. More than ten years

47. How many years of education have you completed?
   a. Less than 12 and no high school diploma or GED
   b. High school diploma or GED
   c. 13 to 14
   d. 15 to 16 but no bachelor's degree
   e. Bachelor's degree
   f. Graduate work

48. In which age range are you as of today's date?
   a. Under 21
   b. 21-25
   c. 26-35
   d. 36-49
   e. 50-59
   f. 60 or over

49. What is your gender?
   a. Female
   b. Male
BIBLIOGRAPHY


Baird, L. L. (1972). The relation of graduate students' role relations to their stage of academic careers employment and academic success. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 7*, 428-441.


Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations*. Wiley.


Ravlin, E. C. (1986). *Use of the comparative emphasis scale*. University of South Carolina, Riegel and Emory Center, Columbia, SC.


