

THE RELATIONSHIP OF VALUES TO PERFORMANCE:
A CASE STUDY OF THE WASHINGTON STATE
CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRAINING
COMMISSION

By

JENNIFER GAIL PARSONS

Bachelor of Arts
University of Central Oklahoma
Edmond, Oklahoma
1993

Master of Education
University of Central Oklahoma
Edmond, Oklahoma
1993

Submitted to the Faculty of the
Graduate College of the
Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of
the requirements for
the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
May, 1999

COPYRIGHT


By

Jennifer Gail Parsons

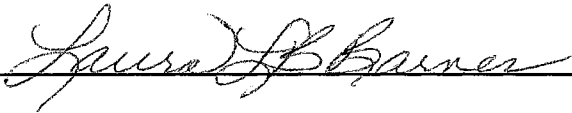
May, 1999


THE RELATIONSHIP OF VALUES TO PERFORMANCE:
A CASE STUDY OF THE WASHINGTON STATE
CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRAINING
COMMISSION

Thesis Approved:

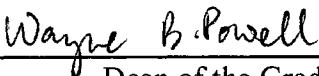


Thesis Adviser









Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

First of all for their support, effort and concern as I worked through this dissertation, I would like to thank my committee: William Venable, Chair, and committee members Harjit Sandhu, Kathy Goff, and Laura Barnes.

A special thanks to my loving husband Michael who patiently assisted and sustained me in this academic adventure. A man who completed his dissertation in ninety days was able to give the tender nudges needed to complete this process. Without his love and kindness, constructive criticisms and supportive patience I would not have reached such a lofty dream. Additionally, I offer a special tribute to the three most exceptional women I know Tamara, Marcia, and Sasha, my three daughters. The individual love and understanding from each of them and as well as their tenacious minds have been the inspiration that kept me upright and focused on this journey of life. I was proud to have them as my friends and I am blessed having had them in my life.

A special acknowledgment was bestowed upon my cousin Cheryl, my anchor which began in childhood. Her humourous nudges pushed me forward on this quest and were most helpful as well as her continuously positive approach to life.

For my Nana, who graduated from college in 1918, when women did not even dare to dream of an advanced education and who survived the death of eight children, her husband, and only love, with grit, tenacity, and a positive outlook, spent her honeymoon in a barn, became a multimillionaire only to die penniless 95 years later. To her I bestowed

my deepest respect, admiration and undying love as she was my most remarkable angel,
mentor and grandmother.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Background of Problem	2
Problem Statement	5
Purpose	5
Research Questions	5
Assumptions	6
Scope and Limitations	6
Definition of Terms	7
Summary	8
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	9
Introduction	9
Theoretical Construct	9
History of Washington State Criminal Justice Training	
Commission	13
Growth Problems	17
Problematic Management	19
Workload Increase Beyond Capacity	20
Personnel Problems	21
Values in the Literature	23
Organizational Values	30
Organizational Culture	37
Leadership	43
Demographics	45
Ethical Behavior and Whistle-Blowing	50
Organizational Change	55
Financial Costs and Negative Implications	57
Employee-Organizational Fit, Public Sector, Commitment and	
Turnover	59
Congruence Studies	68
Communication	84
Performance	90
Workplace Stress	94
Summary	100

Chapter	Page
III. PROCEDURES	106
Instrument Selection	106
Instrument Development	111
Population	115
Research Design	115
Data Collection Procedures	117
Data Analysis Techniques/Statistical Method	120
Summary	124
IV. RESULTS	126
Summary	136
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	137
Introduction	137
Summary of the Study	137
Limitations	149
Limitation 1	149
Limitation 2	149
Limitation 3	150
Limitation 4	150
Conclusions	150
Recommendations for Further Research	153
Recommendation 1	153
Recommendation 2	153
Recommendation 3	154
Recommendation 4	154
Recommendation 5	154
Recommendations for Practice	155
Recommendation 1	155
Recommendation 2	155
Recommendation 3	156
Recommendation 4	156
Recommendation 5	156
Recommendation 6	157
Implications	157
REFERENCES	159
APPENDIXES	194

Chapter	Page
APPENDIX A - SURVEY PACKET	195
APPENDIX B - CES SCALE	200
APPENDIX C - EMPLOYEE TERMINATION RECORD	210
APPENDIX D - 1999-01 STRATEGIC PLAN	212
APPENDIX E - EVALUATION COMMITTEE REPORT - 1986	214
APPENDIX F - PATTERSON INVESTIGATION - 1995	226
APPENDIX G - KING TRANSITION REPORT - 1997	230
APPENDIX H - CUSTOMER SURVEY - 1996	234
APPENDIX I - INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY SERVICES REPORT	248
APPENDIX J - SHEILA EMORY MEMORANDUM	254
APPENDIX K - A RELOCATION FEASIBILITY STUDY - 1988	257
APPENDIX L - TRAINING AND CONFERENCE MASTER PLAN	259
APPENDIX M - POLICE TRAINING AGENCY ACCUSED OF BIAS ...	261
APPENDIX N - JULY 29, 1988 - DISCRIMINATION ARTICLE	264
APPENDIX O - SICK LEAVE HOURS TAKEN	267
APPENDIX P - INSTITUTION REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL FORM	277

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. Summary of Dependent Variables, Independent Variables, Control Variables, and Variables of Secondary Interest	127
II. Effects on Current Stress of Value Congruence Within Levels of Stress Change	130
III. Relationships to Meeting the Missions By Congruence for Levels of Performance Change	133

FIGURE

Figure

Page

I. Relationship of Congruence at Levels of Stress Change 131

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

There were many theories concerned with the motivations and stimuli that draw people to and repel them from certain career types and environments (Maslow, 1943; McGregor, 1960; Herzberg, 1966; McClelland, 1971; Adams, 1965; Vroom, 1970). Some individuals seemed to thrive and accomplish work tasks more productively than others. Those who did not perform well were usually considered non-motivated, burned-out, or dissatisfied, and frequently struggled with completion of tasks at work. Research has been undertaken to better understand why certain people perform well while others do not. Countless performance enhancement training and development programs have been developed to that end.

While much literature existed, uncertainty still remained concerning the motivators and detractors of human work performance. Various theoretical speculations suggest strategies for performance enhancement yet few build upon a universal principal or foundation. Many theories derived specificity from personality types or certain work environments but seldom reached consensus about core characteristics that stimulated or inhibited productivity in universally accepted terms.

The study explored the importance of values in the workplace, how employees perceived the values of the organization in which they work, and what association these perceptions had upon their individual performance on the job.

Background of the Problem

The Washington State Criminal Justice Training Commission (WSCJTC) was a state agency which had statutory authority to establish training standards and provided training for the criminal justice agencies in the State of Washington. The only exception to that mandate was the Washington State Patrol. From 1974 until 1996, the WSCJTC provided training for an increasingly complex customer base. This extensive training was accomplished with minimal resources and little change in the way the agency conducted its business. The demands to meet customer needs and develop adequate policies led to problems for the agency. Simultaneously, the agency became mired in controversy by virtue of law suits, grievances and mistrust between the commissioners and staff leadership. These actions, as noted in full in Chapter II, led to the early resignations of the founding director and the founding deputy director. The transition of an interim director to the hiring of the new director, and subsequent changes, led to this study of an organization in transition.

During the transition of leadership in the 18 months after the new executive director was hired, a trend became apparent regarding the staff. Many of the newer employees, with less than three years of employment, voiced approval of the organizational changes and became more productive and participatory in their positions. Longer tenured employees, those with five or more years of employment, voiced

disapproval of the changed working environment and appeared to be more dissatisfied. Problematic performance issues emerged, according to their managers. They were taking three times the number of sick leave hours as were newer employees (Appendix O). In the first 18 months of leadership of the new director, 18 employees left the agency. Ten of those employees who left were full-time with more than five years of tenure, six employees were temporary, and the remaining two were full-time with less than three years of tenure (Appendix C). According to Schein, leadership directed change in a conscious way in order to attain concrete changes in the organization (1985). Therefore, it could be said that these changes were expected.

With the current public philosophy of conservatism toward criminals, the desire to “get tougher” on crime by locking up greater numbers of criminals, and increased legal complexities, there has been a need for more training. These increased pressures resulted in public referenda to control tax costs in the face of added legislative statutes to control crime. Increased productivity and performance from all public sector employees within the reality of dwindling budgets were required. These realities affected existing performance levels within the agency. The projections were that performance would continue to decline within the WSCJTC.

While most of the aforementioned performance issues were external to the agency, many threats to performance existed internally. Approximately 18 months ago the leadership changed at the WSCJTC which brought a new set of values and a new philosophy to the organization. Both the organizational philosophy and the leadership changed from the previous administration and affected the employees overall.

The employee value systems, as they interacted with organizational value systems, comprised an important factor which may not have been considered in determining performance cohorts within the WSCJTC. If values between the employee and the organization were determined to be in conflict, then organizational performance may have suffered.

Internal reviews of data measuring productivity within the WSCJTC were reviewed. These extant data included the strategic plan for the agency, actions taken by the commissioners, lawsuits filed by employees, customer complaints, independent investigations of personnel, numbers of sick leave hours taken, disciplinary action taken against employees, customer satisfaction surveys, and personnel file profiles which included employees who left the agency.

Research by Parsons, et al. (1996) supported the presumption that when individual value systems are not congruent with the organizational values, alienation and conflict occur which may affect productivity. Private sector employment research suggested that values affected performance in many ways (Balfour & Wechsler, 1990; Choudhry, 1989; Herzberg et al., 1959). However, little research was available addressing the public sector.

Historically, the public sector has been more concerned with service than with cost benefit (Pfeffer, 1991, p.xviii). The measures utilized by the WSCJTC to determine productivity may also have been inadequate. With increased responsibility and higher expectations of the WSCJTC as an organization, research was needed to determine the importance values played within the agency regarding productivity. If value conflict did exist, such conflict could have been addressed by clarifying and creating a more

compatible organizational value system and enriching individual value systems. This effort could have included the importance of team work, tolerance of diversity, and awareness of divergent values within the agency, which could have increased work performance and cohesion.

Problem Statement

Employee performance measures may be substantially affected by opinions about the value congruence between employees and the organization.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to measure congruence between the employee values and the organizational values within the WSCJTC.

Research Questions

- 1) Were the organizational values of the WSCJTC congruent with the personal values of the employees of the WSCJTC?
- 2) Was there a relationship between work place stress and value congruence within the agency?
- 3) Was there a relationship between performance levels, workplace stress, and value congruence in WSCJTC?
- 4) Were the employees' perceptions of the organizational values different from the actual organizational values determined by the executive staff?

Assumptions

- 1) Employees and management staff of the WSCJTC responded in a truthful manner.
- 2) All respondents understood that they were able to withhold their participation without the fear of retaliation.
- 3) Respondents possessed a minimum of a high school education and understood the definitions, terms, and concepts of the study.
- 4) Respondents were interested in improving their work environments and their individual performance.

Scope and Limitations

The scope of the study was public sector criminal justice work. It was demonstrated that this type of work attracted conservative personality types (Parsons & Parsons, 1995) which typically shared certain work values which had a limiting effect on outcomes and generalisability (Travisano, 1990). Stress factors in law enforcement environments were somewhat more elevated than in other work types (Dollard & Winefield, 1994). The study was conducted in a public sector work environment which may limit the generalisability of findings to private sector work (Pfeifer, 1991. P.xviii).

The study was conducted in the Pacific Northwest, which demonstrated a liberal culture overall with the exception of attitudes toward crime, which remained highly conservative. Examples of these conservative attitudes were seen in lengthy sentence

terms, harsh sanctions, a lack of rehabilitation programs for inmates, and a tolerance for poor treatment of inmates, as in triple celling. These conservative attitudes were also demonstrated by the high salaries for law enforcement employees and low levels of unemployment in the criminal justice industry overall. These issues may have affected the potential outcomes of value interactions between employees and the organization.

Other limits to the study included the reality that public sector employment varied from private sector employment and therefore might limit the generalizability of the study. An additional factor was the large number of employees who were on loan from other agencies or who contracted with the agency on a temporary basis. Such individuals were not as likely to be as affected by the organizational values as the full time employees. Washington State was a collective bargaining state which gave labor unions some influence on workplace issues, which can also affect organizational values. The WSCJTC was governed by commissioners, most of whom were appointed by the governor. These appointed commissioners may have tended to espouse the values of the governor more than their own. Since these appointed positions changed more frequently than did those of other commission members, there was a greater likelihood that the commission value structure was in flux.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions applied to these terms as used in the study.

Values were "beliefs about the way an individual ought to behave" (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a, p.155).

Employee Values – Beliefs about how an employee ought to behave on the job (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a).

Organizational Values – Beliefs about how the organization ought to behave (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a).

Performance – The measure by which employed members of the WSCJTC met the goals of the mission statement for the organization. (See Appendix D)

Stress – A "substantial imbalance between an environment demand and the response capability of the focal organism" (McGrath, 1970, p. 17).

Value Congruence – An agreement on belief, between two entities, concerning how one ought to behave (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a).

Value Incongruence – A difference of belief, between two entities, concerning how one ought to behave (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a).

Summary

The study examined the importance of values in the workplace, how employees perceived the values of the organization in which they work, and what relationship these perceptions had on their individual performance on the job. The purpose of this study was to measure value congruence between the employee values and the organizational values within the WSCJTC. The objectives were to ascertain the relationships in values within an organization. The assumptions were that those participating in the study did so honestly, with the capacity to understand the study. The scope of the study was limited to a criminal justice public sector agency. Chapter II presents the relevant literature for the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of the literature included the following items: theoretical construct, history of the WSCJTC, values, organizational values, organizational culture, leadership, demographics, ethical behavior and whistle blowing, organizational change, financial costs and implications, employee organizational fit, public sector commitment and turnover, congruence studies, communication, performance, and workplace stress.

Theoretical Construct

One of the largest bodies of work in sociological research originated with conflict theory. When one entity, such as a business, operated in direct opposition to the goals and needs of another entity, such as employees, conflict results. The primary component of this theory was well established in the literature and has numerous applications within the study of group dynamics in general.

The evolution of conflict theory was derived from the antecedents of classical theorists such as Marx, Weber and Dahrendorf. These individuals were not concerned with the philosophical predecessors of their time, and focused largely on the substantive issues of theory building. These theorists did not create schools of thought or attempt to

divide the sociological territories for their own. Instead, they focused on finding solutions to topics that they thought were critical, making use of whatever intellectual and empirical tools they found useful in the job (Collins, 1988, p.1).

To clarify the understanding and applicability of conflict theory for the study, it was best to complete a mapping of the theory through macro implications of the founding theorists to a micro view of the theory as it related to contemporary literature. Within organizational theory, conflict theory had functional utility. Dean, (1995a); Schein, (1985); Chatman, (1989,1991); Deal & Kennedy, (1982); Karp & Abramms (1992) all provided convincing arguments that in organizations which had conflicting cultures, unethical practices, limited autonomy, and unclear communication capabilities, value incongruence between workers and management had a negative result on productivity as well as increased stress and conflict. To understand these potential detriments in the workplace, additional research was needed to determine whether value congruence between employees and organizations added or detracted from the levels of conflict which ultimately affected productivity. The degree to which individual workers felt that they were able to meet organizational goals and not violate their individual values might be worth researching. This was especially true because existing research indicated an inverse relationship between stress levels and productivity (May, 1992; Crouter & Manke, 1994; Brott, 1994). Senior managers in many organizations were aware that changes in the organizational mission and strategy produced frustration, if not failure, unless concomitant consideration was given to modifying the organizational culture such that the norms and values supported the change, according to Schein (in Sashkin & Burke, 1987).

Karl Marx wrote that conflict resulted from the core issue of “class struggle” accompanying the basic needs to survive. His belief was that history was divided into several major periods of economic organization, such as: Asiatic, ancient, feudal, and bourgeois. These major periods also had a particular mode of production. Each of these periods contained its unique type of class relations and exploitation. In the Asiatic period, workers were subordinated to the state. The ancient, feudal and the bourgeois periods were characterized respectively, by slavery, serfdom and wage earning (Marx & Engels, 1848, p.7). Marx theorized that antagonism was becoming increasingly evident in modern industrial society, dividing the culture into two hostile camps: capitalist and wage labor. He believed that “the major factors of this polarization created a constant revolution of production and an uninterrupted disturbance of all social conditions, everlasting uncertainty and agitation (Marx & Engels, 1848, pp.7-10).”

Max Weber, while sharing many of Marx’s theories of conflict, separated what Marx had conjoined in his theory of class conflict. For Marx, power, wealth, and status were elements strictly joined together in the distinction between classes. The differences between the classes created conflict. Weber found this source of conflict was contradictory when viewing the clergy. While priests possessed status and even power, they seldom had individual wealth. Weber theorized that conflict was not a result of class differences but the consequence of conflicts among status groups. He did not believe that all power was traced to economic factors. However, he believed that high status was related to the acquisition of economic gain. Weber said that status groups were organized around values, such as the conduct of an occupation, literary education, military service to

the state, and religiosity. Weber drew the generalization that, in defending and extending individual values, people came into conflict with another (Bendix, 1960).

Ralf Dahrendorf's work on conflict moved away from Weber in Dahrendorf's agreement of status. He believed that the individual values of people who associated and identified with each other created organizations of mutual values. The diverse nature of values revealed the true potential of how conflict occurred. The more diverse organizations became, the more potential existed for conflict between these organizations. For Dahrendorf, social conflict arose from the distribution of authority, while Marx believed that power was created from the ownership of property which created social classes and conflict. Dahrendorf concluded that control over property stemmed from the possession of authority. Those individual members of societies who lacked authority had conflict with those members who exercised their authority to serve their value interests, which were relationships between groups of individuals who involved an incompatible difference of objectives. Dahrendorf recognized the potential for conflict as immense when he considered the complex nature of value laden organizations such as: economic enterprises, churches, labor unions and political organizations (Dahrendorf, 1959).

A pattern began to develop from Marx, Weber and Dahrendorf. Marx addressed conflict theory as problems which originated from class distinctions. Weber served to narrow the focus of the theory by assigning causes of conflict in society as artifacts of status. Dahrendorf compacted the theory further by suggesting that social conflict resulted from the absence of authority.

Conflict theory, in its pure and original sense, ceased to exist almost immediately. Just as a single drop of water is hard to recognize when it gathers strength and grows into

a river, so conflict theory has long since departed Marx's boundaries, and now meanders through every aspect of human life. There was a thread of conflict theory woven into all contemporary theories relating to the interactions between humans.

A substantial body of contemporary literature regarding work environments, training, research, organizational cultures, leadership, and performance enhancement addressed the implications of conflict and its effect on every aspect of humans at work (Schein, 1985; Deal & Kennady, 1982; Meglino et al., 1989, 1992; Adkins, 1992; Dean, 1995; Karp & Abramms, 1992; Gilbert, 1978).

History of Washington State Criminal Justice

Training Commission

The WSCJTC began out of a need for training in the area of law enforcement within the State of Washington. A commission was formed by the legislature in 1974 under RCW 43.101. with the mandate to provide training for all law enforcement within the State of Washington with the exception of the Washington State Patrol. A listing of the commissioners was noted in RCW 43.101. (See Appendix D)

The first director of the WSCJTC was Jim Scott, had a background in community college education as well as law enforcement. Scott continued as the director for the WSCJTC until the fall of 1996 when he was replaced with an acting director pending the founding director's retirement in August of 1997. Additionally, this history must include Garry Wagner, who was Scott's assistant director during the past twenty years.

The WSCJTC has a broad mandate as noted by a listing of the programs: academies for law enforcement and corrections, leadership training for both law

enforcement and corrections, monitoring of all off facility academies, in-service and advanced speciality courses, training for coroners and prosecuting attorneys, supervision classes for law enforcement, state wide D.A.R.E. program, 911 emergency operators training, Community Oriented Policing, Police Corp, firearms certification for private detectives and security guards, sexual assault training and community-police partnership efforts. The WSCJTC offered hundreds of courses each year throughout the State of Washington and trained thousands of individuals.

There was an organization in Washington which was unique among states called the Washington Association of Sheriffs and Chiefs of Police (WASPC). It was an organization made up of Sheriffs and Chiefs of Police with a full time executive director and other staff. The funding for WASPC, in large part, came from the legislature through the WSCJTC. WASPC was instrumental in working with the WSCJTC. However, even that relationship suffered during the last few years of turmoil within the WSCJTC. Commitments were made by WSCJTC and were not followed through thereby creating more distrust. When the WSCJTC was not able to produce enough revenue to function, they would turn to WASPC for assistance with the legislature. As noted by Erickson, this was certainly an acceptable practice with the exception that it was used for very minor budget concerns and was used more often than necessary (Erickson, 1998).

A study was initiated by the commissioners in July of 1984 with the final report completed in November of 1986. (See Appendix E) The study included 300 completed questionnaires, site visits, a review of internal and external documents and interviews by commissioners. Only a few of the findings of the research study were stated here:

- The WSCJTC should develop an evaluation process for the executive director.
- Paramount importance was placed upon developing a long-range plan.
- Review and expand the policies and procedures' manual.
- Since the administration was physically removed from the facility, there was the perception that no one was in charge at the Training Center and the relationships were very difficult because of the split in location of the staff between Lacey, WA. and Burien, WA.
- There were no agency wide meetings or systems for internal communication.
- Customers were not pleased with the product or the responses by the WSCJTC. (See Appendix E)

None of the recommendations were dealt with and the deficiencies failed to be corrected. In 1994, only eight years after the above stated evaluation, a major investigation was initiated and completed in 1995 into issues of bias, both sexual and racial in nature. (See Appendix F) A manager was demoted, a subordinate was promoted and a settlement was made (Parsons, 1998). In 1995 a series of problems developed within the agency with sexual harassment cases filed, hostile workplace issues and poor customer satisfaction. As these problems continued within the agency, the founding director assumed a position at the Lacey office as over seer for new construction on a half-time basis until his retirement. The founding deputy director tendered his resignation effective in July 1997 (Parsons, 1998).

An interim director, on loan from the Attorney General's Office, was appointed until a new director could be selected. The interim director provided the agency with leadership which resulted in a transition report for the commissioners which reflected the findings from September 1996 until February 1997. (See Appendix G)

A survey of all of the customers of the WSCJTC was completed in 1996 which included a response of 415 entities from law enforcement and corrections. This information was compiled and reviewed. (See Appendix H) In this survey it was noted that WSCJTC needed to become more sensitive to its customers while increasing cooperation within the work environment.

In 1997 a new executive director was selected to undertake the task of turning the negative aspects of the agency around. During the transition of leadership and the during following months a trend seemed to become apparent regarding the staff. While many of the newer employees (less than three years of employment) voiced approval of the organizational changes and became more productive and participatory in their positions, other older employees (more than five years of employment) voiced disapproval of the changed workplace and appeared to have more dissatisfaction at work developing problematic performance issues or left the agency.

There were four areas which accounted for the problems of the agency: the lack of growth necessary to meet the current needs of the agency, management, increased workload, and personnel issues (Parsons, 1998).

Growth Problems

The history of the WSCJTC has been that of an organization in need of growth and maturity. There were four areas which were noted in this lack of growth: policy, physical plant, budget, staffing. Each of the four areas was at a deficit which was part of the problem which led to a dysfunctional agency (Parsons, 1998).

For more than ten years there was a lack of policy formulation within the agency.

The study instituted by the commissioners concluded in 1986:

The current policies and procedures manual be reviewed and expanded. That the policies and procedures manual include specifics pertinent to individual programs and projects, reporting procedures, assigned areas of responsibility, etc. It is also recommended that a process be established to assure that the manual be regularly updated and that each staff member should be provided with a copy of the agency's manual. (See Appendix E, p. 18)

There was no response to these recommendations for development of policy as a review of the current policy noted. Two examples illustrated this point. The policy on Accident Prevention Program was initiated in 1987 and updated for the last time in 1993. Secondly the policy on Human Resource Development Plan was initiated in 1979 and last revised in 1987.

In a memorandum from the human resources manager to the acting interim director (See Appendix J), the following observation was made: "The agency does have a policy manual. Confusion continues to exist as to the most recent version. One fact is clear, policies and practices have been inconsistently applied." (See Appendix J, p.1) An independent research study performed by the Office of Information technology in 1997 noted that one of many recommendations should be to "Establish and document policies

to ensure consistent business practices and establish a standard set of metrics designed to measure critical success factors.” (See Appendix I, p. 6) The agency failed to maintain adequate policies, review procedures or sufficiently distribute existing policies to staff.

The second growth problem for the agency was the physical plant. Again, in the commissioner’s study of 1986, it was pointed out that “the agency had outgrown both facilities and that conditions such as cramped quarters or deteriorating facilities had a negative effect upon operations.” (See Appendix E, p. 25) The administrative offices were described as “portable building which is 13 years old and needs extensive renovation. Renovation efforts would not be cost effective since the original structure is of relatively poor quality and could not be improved much beyond its original construction.” (See Appendix K, p.5) The administrative offices were not moved until January 1998 or almost ten years later. The main facility at Burien was in an old high school and was described as follows:

This facility has accommodated training needs in often less than desirable conditions-many structures are aged and not soundproofed, the location is under the flight path of Sea-Tac Airport, there is no air conditioning, and there are awkward room/building configurations. This building complex was originally designed for high school uses, despite WSCJTC space adaptations throughout the facility. As training needs became more specialized and enrollment increased, the facility has become inefficient for the training center. (See Appendix L, p. 1)

The facility did not move until 1990 but even that space proved to be inadequate as noted in the Information Technology report “Facilities and classrooms are ill-equipped and outdated.” (See Appendix I, p. 5) The legislature initiated a study in 1987 which determined what could be done and how it could be accomplished. (See Appendix K) The move to the new facility did not take place until 1990. The Master Plan called for a firing

range which was not completed until 1998, a mock scene building which was not completed until 1998 and a third dormitory which has not begun construction and even so will be smaller than needed. There was no renovation of classroom space, updating of technological equipment or even adequate computer systems.

The third area of lack of growth was that of the budget. Findings in the commissioners study of 1986 reflected inadequate resources, lack of ability to sufficiently lobby the legislature for more funding and a lack of planning to garner more resources for training. This was also noted in the 1997 Information Technology research study in two of the findings: "CJTC does not have the human or technical resources to provide sufficient information to support funding from the Legislature." And "Executive financial and information technology leadership is lacking." (See Appendix I, p. 5)

The final area of lack of growth was that of the number of staff. In the 1987-89 Biennium Report there were 31 full time state employees and in 1998 there were only 31.5 full time state employees. The work loads increased due to new programs and mandates but there were no additional staff.

Problematic Management

Problems with management began prior to the 1986 research study of the commissioners. A sample of several of the problems in management at that time included: few, if any, staff meetings, no review of the performance of the director by the commissioners, distancing of the director from the main operation, no goals or objectives for the future, limited planning and poor communication between management and staff.

(See Appendix E)

An independent investigation completed in 1995 made the following observations:

The communication patterns and practices throughout the organization reveal the following: (a) many examples of lack of understanding by employees about the reasons for decisions; (b) poor supervisor-employee communication, particularly around performance issues; (c) frequent failure to deal with employees and issues directly and honestly; and (d) a lack of understanding or respect for the feelings and concerns of a diverse employee group. Executive management is viewed as too distant and out of touch but, at the same time, too controlling and rigid in its views and approach. (See Appendix F, p. 32)

The latter problem continued to exist as noted in the interim acting director's report of 1997 which stated that "Because the Commission's various training centers always have been located in the King County area, the bifurcation of staff and operation is long-standing. It has, however, become the subject of some concern by the Commission and will be subject to forthcoming review." (See Appendix G, p. 11)

The complexity of the organization increased but the leadership did not make the necessary changes

The Criminal Justice Training Commission operations are similar to a 'mom and pop store' due to the size and limited interaction with diverse organizations. As an organization it has had little exposure to those issues facing diverse public/private agencies. Recent lawsuits have brought about the kind of attention that is needed to prepare the organization for the future. (See Appendix J, p.1)

Leadership allowed the organization to stagnate and fall behind contemporary philosophies of management and leadership.

Workload Increase Beyond Capacity

The third factor was that the work load increased beyond the capability of the agency. The first illustration was that of the Mangan study in 1986 which stated that

nearly all users felt that the amount of training should be expanded and that the Training Commission needed more resources to do its job effectively. Specific concerns surfaced in the area of corrections, where the majority of corrections agencies felt that the basic corrections academy needed to be extended and expanded so as to accommodate additional curriculum. (See Appendix E, p. 9)

The Informational Technology report of 1997 noted that

The assessment recognizes that WSCJTC is faced with a challenge. The demand for criminal justice training services continues to escalate, while revenue to support those services is not increasing at the same rate. The public and the Legislature expect WSCJTC to meet increased demand for services, while keeping the number of public employees to a minimum. (See Appendix I, p.4)

A final point which illustrated the over expansion of work load was the result from a survey (See Appendix H) conducted in 1996. The two areas which showed as inadequate in both the corrections area and law enforcement were the availability and accessibility of courses for in-service and supervisors. Many agencies funded their own training to meet their needs. The ultimate challenge was issued by the previous Secretary of Corrections in Washington at a WSCJTC meeting by noting that if the Department of Corrections needs could not be met then they would go elsewhere for their training.

Personnel Problems

The final area was that of personnel. One of the problems in the agency was the lack of adequate and current policies and procedures in areas such as discrimination, sexual harassment and the American with Disabilities Act. Compounding that problem was the fact that the policies that were in force were not followed by administration nor enforced for the remainder of the staff.

The inconsistencies, personnel issues and problems noted in the Mangan study in 1986 continued to increase and became much more flagrant in nature until the year 1995 when the Patterson study was initiated. Two of the conclusions from that report helped to understand the problems of the time. "Many women and employees of color perceive an environment that is frequently not comfortable for them and is sometimes outright 'hostile'" (See Appendix F, p.32) and again

The organization has engaged in some personnel management practices that appear inconsistent and subjective. This is particularly reflected in hiring and termination practices, grievance management, and communication between supervisors and subordinates. (See Appendix F, p. 32)

A summary of a newspaper article provided the necessary insight into the problem at that time:

A Seattle policewoman has a lawsuit pending against the Washington State Criminal Justice Training Commission, alleging she was forced out of her teaching position after she became pregnant. Four other current or former employees of the academy operated by the commission have filed separate civil-rights complaints that range from pay discrimination to sexual harassment. In addition, two black King County police officers, say they left the staff before their two-year contracts expired, in part because of the working atmosphere. (See Appendix M)

Demonstrated in the above historical account was the disruption, dysfunction and chaos in a state organization which resulted in staff problems. The problems between management and staff, the stress caused by abusive treatment of staff and the concomitant problems discussed above led to the forced resignation of Scott and Wagner. The problems were not removed by the resignations mentioned above because the pervasive culture was still one of mistrust, irresponsibility and in general poor self image. As of

October 1, 1998, (14) employees voluntarily left the agency according to personnel records. (See Appendix C)

The process of change was slow and was based upon the structure of the past. Although the circumstances were different, there continued, among some staff, the attitude that the problems of the 1994-1997 era were still present. The corrections manager, who was one of the original litigants in 1995 and won her law suit against the agency again sued the WSCJTC. The headlines in the newspaper article were as follows "Manager sues police academy, alleging discrimination." (See Appendix N)

According to Levinson, (1965) employees view the behavior and actions of the organizational agents as the actions of the organization itself. Therefore, individual staff may have seen organizational style as demonstrated by the current leadership as good while the leadership of the previous managers as bad or vice versa. The longevity of the staff and their preference of management was also expected. What was not so obvious was the conflict in ethical situations which was the basis of the difference in the two management systems. The values which were integral in making good policy, positive personnel decisions, supporting open communication were clearly delineated and different in the two administrations.

The above clearly pointed to an organization in chaos and fraught with problems in the area of policies, leadership, budget, personnel, physical plant and structure.

Values in the Literature

Values have been a topic of resurgent interest throughout much of the history of organizational behavior and human resources research (Allport et al., 1960; Kluckhohn,

1951) and have assumed greater importance in motivational theories (Locke & Henne, 1986). Parsons (1951) argued that a cultural tradition emerged around values, defined as elements “of a shared symbolic system which serves as a criterion or standard for selection among the alternatives of orientation which are intrinsically open in a situation” (pp. 11-12). This section deals with a general introduction to values as found in the literature.

American psychologist Milton Rokeach (1973) defined values as “an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence” (p.5). In this vein, basic values were thought of as internalized normative beliefs that guide behavior. He argued that there were two types of values: terminal and instrumental. Terminal values were values that led to a desirable end-state of existence (e.g., a world of peace, wisdom) whereas instrumental values described preferred modes of conduct (e.g., honesty, love). He then argued that within a given culture, people shared the same values (Rokeach, 1973).

Values were intrinsic, enduring perspectives of what was fundamentally right or wrong (Rokeach, 1973). Work values represented these perspectives as applied to work settings. England (1967) suggested that individual value orientations affected how people behaved at work by demonstrating that managers with strong value orientations tended to act in accordance with what they thought was “right,” whereas managers with more pragmatic orientations tended to behave in ways that they thought were “successful.” Among individual work values, the work ethic described by Weber, (in Bendix, 1960) had received considerable research attention (Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, & Smith, 1971).

Some suggested that a deteriorating work ethic has negatively affected both how the people feel about their jobs and their commitment to their organizations (Spence, 1985). Other individual value orientations were examined in the work setting. Cornelius, Ullman, Meglino, Czajka, and McNeely (1985) used a critical incident technique to elicit the work values of almost 1,000 employees in a variety of organizations. Subsequent work by Ravlin and Meglino (1987a) revealed that achievement, concern for others, honesty, and fairness were the most salient work values for individuals.

Bandura (1986) emphasized the role of value preferences which “give direction to their lives and to derive satisfactions from what they do” (p.323). He indicated that learning from others was a central basis for developing and modifying values and standards. Values were socially desirable constructs (Fallding, 1965; Kluckhohn, 1951) that guided attitudes and actions. Individual attitudes and beliefs were sanctioned by one’s value system (Feather, 1982). Values may be defined as “beliefs about the way an individual ought to behave”(Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a, p. 155). Values represented core beliefs about what should be done and are related to a broad network of more specific beliefs, perceptions and attitudes (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a; Rokeach, 1973). Feather saw values as:

organized summaries of experience that capture the focal, abstracted qualities of past encounters, that have a normative or oughtness quality about them, and that function as criteria or frameworks against which present experience can be tested But they are not effectively neutral abstract structures. They are tied to our feelings and can function as general motives (Feather, 1982, p.275).

Values can be conceptualized as part of the class of general motives just as needs also fell within this class (McClelland, 1985). McClelland believed that motives were

distinct from values and that values were more important for determining what an individual cognitively decided should be done (McClelland, 1985, p.536). Needs and values had some distinctive characteristics but also had a degree of functional and conceptual overlap (Feather, 1986). Posner, et al. (1987) stated that values are “general standards by which we formulate attitudes and beliefs and according to which we behave” (p. 376).

Individual values within an organization were relatively enduring beliefs that a specific mode of conduct or end-state was preferable to its opposite. Values transcended any particular situation. “Therefore, values guide actions, attitudes, and judgments beyond immediate goals to more ultimate goals (Rokeach, 1973, p.18).” Social values represented general modes of behavior that an individual “should” or “ought” to exhibit (Fallding, 1965; Kluckhohn, 1951; Rokeach, 1973; Schein, 1985; Williams, 1968) which were established on the basis of experiences of pleasure and pain (Locke, 1975).

Another issue concerned the relationship of values on individuals. Values can be linked to choice behavior (England, 1967). In the work place, work values were preferences for various modes of work behavior, in particular, modes of behavior which were socially desirable (Mirels & Garrett, 1971; Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, & Smith, 1971) and therefore “should” or “ought” to be displayed. Values were therefore expected to influence broad modes of behavior over time while exerting less of an influence at any point in time (Epstein, 1979; 1980). These social values were believed to be internalized and act as a perceptual screen (England, 1975) as well as predicted patterns of behavior over time. Brown and Hernstein (1975) discussed observed discrepancies between

verbally expressed moral values and actual behavior, or what Brown and Herrnstein term “talking on the high road and living on the low road” (p. 289).

Values were shown to influence both corporate strategy decisions (Guth & Tagiuri, 1965) and managerial decisions (England, 1975). Values also differentiated between successful and unsuccessful managers (England & Lee, 1974).

Values played an important role in the understanding of job satisfaction, emotion (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Locke, 1976), and the behavior of individuals at work (England, 1967). Individual values were identified as manifestations of organizational culture (Schein, 1985), which in turn, were linked to an organization’s success (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Staw (1984) observed that although “Western models of motivation emphasize individual gain and self-interest, the Japanese system relies more heavily on motivation for collective welfare and appears to be more altruistically based” (p. 651). Important constructs for understanding behavior were not directly based on striving to maximize pleasure or individual gain (Locke, 1975) but they assumed a more prominent role in future theories of motivation (Locke & Henne, 1986). Values as motivational elements were generally conceptualized in order or hierarchically (Locke, 1976, 1982; Rokeach, 1973), and so implied that individuals had a preference order of values to which they refer in making behavioral choices.

Job attitude research led to the belief that the attitudes of people at work were caused by the conditions of the work place (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). From this perspective a person’s job attitudes were social constructions of reality and people’s attitudes were a reflection of the social milieu in which they worked. The problem with the above noted approach on job attitudes was that it assumed a group phenomenon wherein

the group took over the minds of individuals and caused them to see things differently than they would if alone. Individuals were seduced into thinking that organizational processes and structures were the causes of the attitudes, feelings, experiences, meanings, and behaviors that were observed there (Schneider, 1987). Cause was attributed not to the people attracted to, selected by, and remaining with organizations, but to the signs of their existence in the organization such as structure, process, and technology. Therefore an explanation should be sought in people not in the results of their behavior. The people made the place.

There were only a few authors who explored value congruence in the work environment (Meglino et al., 1989, 1992; Ravlin & Meglino 1987, 1989; Adkins et al., 1992, 1994, 1996; Chapman 1989, Bretz et al., 1989; Parsons et al., 1996). One has studied the direct effect of value congruence as it relates to productivity (Parsons et al., 1996).

The majority of literature concerning values was conducted in a variety of fields in the past one hundred years (Marx & Engels, 1848; Barnard 1938; Parsons & Shills 1951; Weber in Bendix 1960; and Darhendorf 1959). In the past fifty years the emphasis on values was applied to business research (Meglino et al., 1989, 1992; Ravlin & Meglino 1987, 1989; Adkins et al., 1992, 1994, 1996; Chapman, 1989; Bretz et al., 1989; Parsons et al., 1996).

When human resource development professionals and corporate decision makers determined value to mean “bottom line” or economic value alone, a choice was made to adhere to a philosophy defined by early classical economists and Marxist philosophy, where “labor and only labor is seen as the true origin of value” (Janowski, 1993, p. 43).

"Western society is so enamored of the efficiency and productivity of its space age technology that any activity that is not efficient and productive simply does not, literally, measure up, and so is of little or no value" (Guy, 1991, p.287).

It was Karp and Abramms (1992) who stated, "in organizations, clear values drive mission statements, strategic plans, and effective result-orientated behavior" (p.38).

Values were not attitudes in coats-of-armor that identify human differences; they provided a framework on which all things were placed. When an organization was found operating in chaos, probably the value system of the organization was colliding with the values of groups and individuals who comprised the organization.

Values drive beliefs, desires, self image and allow or disallow individuals to become a part of any community including commerce. Maslow, Piaget, and Kohlberg theorized about the nature of values in human development. Maslow's hierarchy of needs, Piaget's life stages and Kohlberg's moral development demonstrated how individuals progressed through stages of value development. These theories explained how individual attainment and maturity varied among individuals. Understanding that values of individuals varied widely, it was a challenge to understand values from the group perspective.

Abbarno, (1993) as Kohlberg and Piaget (in Wallwork, 1972, p. 67) illustrated the importance of values when "considering the role of an individual and the moral character that is acted out by individuals in their life roles." Abbarno (1993) noted "your identity as a moral character permeates your conduct and establishes expectations among members of the community" (p. 311).

Deal and Kennedy (1982) stated that "values are the bedrock of any corporate culture" (p.21). "These values constitute a philosophy position on what the organization

thinks is important. In a way, the values can be considered the organizational personality, and this can set one institution apart from another” (Caffarella & O'Donnell, 1987, p. 4).

Values embraced a cost which were analyzed when evaluating performance.

“Ethical people can be brought down by serving in a bad organization, just as people with questionable ethical integrity can be uplifted, or at least held in check, by serving in a good one” (Brown, 1987, p.68).

Values research existed which demonstrated the implications of values at work such as: organizational development, culture, leadership, demographics, ethical behavior and whistle-blowing, organizational change, financial costs and negative implications, employee-organization fit, public-sector commitment, turnover, congruence, communication, performance, and stress. The remainder of this chapter will deal with the above subjects.

Organizational Values

In 1945, The Research Center for Group Dynamics was established at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology under the direction of Kurt Lewin to explore the dynamics of humans at work. In 1946 the New Britain Workshop developed from the work of the Research Center for Group Dynamics and the interest of the Connecticut Interracial Commission, for a collaborative understanding of people and work. For the first time a systematic approach to understanding the applicability of group behavior at work was launched. This research evolved into the National Training Laboratory in Group Behavior in 1947 which evolved into the National Training Laboratory. The National Training Laboratory developed contemporary training centers known as

T-groups sponsored by universities. These T-groups expanded on discoveries made from the earlier work of the initial research center. Experts such as John Dewey developed concepts about learning and change and the transactional nature of humans and their environment. Management theory concerning problems in organizations emerged at this time through the above efforts (Lewin, 1951).

During this same period, the Survey Research Center founded by Rensis Likert at the University of Michigan came into existence to develop new methods and techniques and approaches for workplace research. The Survey Research Center developed the survey-feedback method to improve management and performance as well as developed a method called Action Research. Action Research consisted of four components which were participant, diagnostic, empirical and experimental. In 1948 the Survey Research Center and the Research Center for Group Dynamics combined to form the Institute for Social Research with Likert as director. This new organization developed attitude questionnaires as survey tools. The results of these surveys demonstrated that discussion groups initiated by the Research Center for Group Dynamics were very positive. Survey and group discussion were proven empirically to be effective in understanding group work dynamics. The associations created between laboratory-training and survey-feedback evolved both disciplines into the contemporary theories of organizational development with a focus on improving organizational performance and the "human condition." (Argyris, 1973)

In the 1980s Faucheux, et al. (1982) found that "North American organizations were destined to fail because they had become more focused upon task orientation than on the social intricacies of human collectives" (p.365). Burke (1982, 1987) supported the

contention that organizations benefitted from understanding human behavior through social and behavioral sciences. For Tannenbaum & Davis, (1969), a more traditional approach of organizational improvement included both “people” as well as “performance.” These insights into the importance of human values at work sharply contrasted with Beer and Walton (1987), who insisted that performance was the primary concern for business and should remain the focus, dropping the worker and societal viewpoints to a secondary level of concern.

The philosophy of Deming’s 14 principles, Juran’s Trilogy, and Crosby’s 14 steps developed an understanding of the factors needed to create a successful quality program for American business. These developments shifted the foci to “people issues.” What businesses learned was that an understanding that total quality management extended far beyond the philosophies and practices of quality assurance and quality control. Indeed total quality management was a strategy concerned with changing the fundamental beliefs, values and culture of any organization. The cost benefits to any organization were realized if one predicted, engineered, or reinforced a set of values into an organizational culture which had the ability to positively influence productivity. With the focus changing, more interest was generated in human behavior. Moliere noted in *Les Precieuses Ridicules*, “things are worth what you make them worth” (Rawson & Miner, 1988, p. 389) and therefore it might be concluded that as businesses focused on human behavior, the behavior became of worth both in perception and reality.

Value systems provided justifications both for appropriate behavior of the member and for the activities and functions of the system (Enz, 1988). “Organizational values are often considered a group product” (Schein, 1985 p. 7), and although all members of the

group did not hold the same values, a majority of active members were aware of the support given to various values. "A central value system is said to exist when a number of key values concerning behaviors and the way things are in an organization are shared across units and levels" (Weiner, 1988 p. 535). Strong organizational values are those that were both intensely held and widely shared (Van Maanen & Barley, 1994).

One issue of disagreement was the level at which values were meaningful to individuals. Enz, (1988); Schneider, (1983); Tom, (1971); Super, (1957); Hofstede, et al. (1990) conceptualized and measured values at the subunit level, while O'Reilly, et al. (1991); Chatman and Jehn (1994); Meglino, et al. (1992) and Weiner (1988) focused on the organization level.

Organizations devoted resources which established and maintained a good fit between people and their jobs because they assumed that certain people were better suited to perform their jobs than others (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990). Numerous fit theories were advanced, focusing on careers (Holland, 1985), job choice (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), and organizational climate (Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Adkin et al., 1994).

Organizational values were identified as central for understanding the structure, functioning, creation and change of organizations and their cultures (Rousseau, 1990; Trice & Beyer, 1993). O'Reilly, et al. in Sheridan, (1992) found that better fit between individuals' and organizations' values predicted higher levels of satisfaction and commitment and lower turnover resulting from voluntary departures. Ouchi and Price (1993) suggested that organized effort could be managed through one of three basic social mechanisms which were markets, bureaucracies (hierarchies), and clans. In a market, one

basic mechanism of control was price. If prices were properly set, each individual would seek to maximize personal wealth (therefore relying on selfish motives). The result coordinated decisions or acts that satisfied both the individual and the organization. A bureaucratic hierarchy also rested on the use of legitimate authority. The hierarchy had to have employees who willingly granted to their superiors the right to tell them what to do (within some zone of indifference). Mayo, Argyris, McGregor and Likert all agree that the bureaucratic hierarchy was here to stay. The negative effects of hierarchy were due largely to its creation of dependency and extreme task specialization.

A clan was a culturally homogeneous organization, one in which most members shared a common set of values or objectives plus beliefs about how to coordinate efforts in order to reach common objectives. As Mayo noted, a clan, like a market, had few problems of employee alienation unlike the modern bureaucratic organizations (Ouchi & Price, 1993).

All organizations were alike in some ways. They all faced the problems of internal social control, designing work, and managing relations with the environment. Every organization had certain measurable attributes such as a demographic structure, a physical design, and a technological configuration. Organizations in this respect were like individuals. Every human being shared certain attributes as a consequence of being a person as well as each individual had a particular genetic make-up and a unique set of life experiences. Like individuals organizations do “learn,” their cultures gave them a distinctive “personality,” and they often had a clear “identity.” Organizations were like

individual people in one other respect: Yesterday's events shape today's behavior (Ouchi & Price, 1993).

Interactional psychology, a sub-field of contemporary personality theory, grew out of debates in the late 1960s and early 1970s between Mischel (1968, 1973) and Bowers (1973). For almost 100 years more individual or trait-oriented psychologists pursued their person-based theories of behavior while the situationalists, followed in the traditions of Watson and Skinner and focused on environmental determinants of behavior.

Mischel's social behaviorist position argued, for example, that:

Although it is evident that persons are the source from which human responses are evoked, it is situational stimuli that evoke them, and it is changes in conditions that alter them. Since the assumption of massive behavioral similarity across diverse situations no longer is tenable, it becomes essential to study the difference in the behaviors of a given person as a function of the conditions in which they occur (Mischel, 1968 p.295).

Bowers (1973), in contrast, presented the interactionist's perspective which was influenced both by cognitive psychology and the developmental epistemology of Jean Piaget. This position argued for the inseparability of person and situation. Bowers showed that Mischel's conclusion that situations dominate traits and cause behavior was based almost exclusively on experimental studies conducted in laboratory settings. Bowers noted that the major feature of the experiment, random assignment of participants to treatments, violated a basic reality in understanding real-time human behavior. Humans, at least in Western societies, were not randomly assigned to settings, because humans selected themselves into and out of settings. Finally, Bowers presented some logic to suggest that persons caused environments at least as much as environments caused persons. This meant

that persons were inseparable from environments because environments only existed through the people behaving in them and knowing them. In the field of human resource development, Weick (1979) argued a similar point.

Schneider (1987) supported the theme that attributes of people, not the nature of the external environment, or organizational technology or organizational structure, were the fundamental determinants of organizations. This was unlike his previous works that supported the idea that situations determine behavior (Schneider, 1983; Schneider & Reichers, 1983; Staw & Ross, 1985). It was the people behaving in the organizations that make those organizations what they were. Schneider (1987) suggested that Kurt Lewin overstated the case when he hypothesized that behavior was a function of person and environment. Using values, individuals managed their lives in ways that helped them choose congruent roles, occupations, and organizations. Schneider (1987) noted that individuals may be attracted to organizations they perceived had values similar to their own. In addition, organizations attempted to select recruits who were likely to share their values. Schneider (1983, 1987) argued that forces within an organization operated to attract, select, and retain a homogeneous group of employees.

According to Murray, (1938) when given a choice, a person activated by a particular need or set of needs sought out environments that offered opportunities for fulfillment of these needs and avoided the environments that stifled such fulfillment. Murray noted the need for achievement and needs for affiliation. Keon, et al. (1982) examined the relationship between self-image and organizational choice. Previous research suggested that occupational choice and self-image were related (Korman, 1966). Burke and Deszca (1982) investigated the relationship between Type A behavior in graduating

students and preference for particular organizational climates. Personality attributes used to describe type A individuals included ambition, competitiveness, hostility, needs for achievement and impatience. Type A behavior scores were related to working environments characterized by high performance standards, spontaneity, ambiguity, and toughness. Schneider (1987) suggested that personality measures “should be useful for identifying the types of people who cluster in different organizations (p.447).” Schneider (1987) also suggested that organizations described themselves in terms of what they reward, support and expect.

Organizational Culture

Interest focused on how cultures develop, who influenced organizational meaning, and what relationship cultures had on organizational behavior and performance. Proponents of the “strong culture” perspective viewed the construction of social realities that contributed to shared values as the core of culture and central to high organizational performance (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Others suggest that this relationship between high performance and cultural strength was overly simplistic (Schein, 1984). Schein (1984) proposed, for example, that “young groups strive for culture strength as a way of creating an identity for themselves, but older groups may be more effective with a weak total culture and diverse subcultures to enable them to be responsive to rapid environmental change” (p.7) which suggested that a strong culture was not always central to performance. Wilkins and Ouchi (1983) concluded that the relationship between high performance and the clan or “strong culture” held true when organizations exhibited ambiguity, complexity, and interdependence of transactions.

Many of the empirical studies of organizational cultural values focused on the individual or group and department level of analysis (Chatman, 1991; Enz, 1986; Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins, 1989; Rentsch, 1990). These within-organization analyses were limited since they failed to consider the macro-level effects of varying cultural values across firms (Dansereau & Alutto, 1990). Other researchers (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988; Hofstede et al., 1990; Kerr & Slocum, 1987) examined variation in cultural values across firms but sampled organizations from widely different industries. Some of these authors noted that such a design had a potential problem of confounding variation in organizational culture values with what may be broad industry-wide differences in organizations' strategies and management practices. With few exceptions (Rousseau, 1990b), there was little evidence as to what cultural values distinguished one organization from another in a particular industry. To explain this phenomenon it would be necessary to conduct analyses both within the same kinds of industries as well as diverse industries.

This limitation was important since others (Gordon, 1991; Joyce & Slocum, 1990; Martin et al., 1983; Woods, 1989) argued that there may be only minor within-industry variation in organizational culture values because firms applied similar standards and similar environmental constraints to shape the range of corporate strategies. Saffold (1988) suggested that researchers inferred macro organization-level effects on employee behavior only to the extent that they demonstrated that particular cultural values were unique to certain organizations and qualitatively different from the values found in other organizations.

Goodstein (1983) suggested that the most important implication regarding organizations as cultures is that "organizations, like persons, have values and that these

values are integrated into some coherent value system . . . In any organization, the members generally have a set of beliefs about what is appropriate and inappropriate organizational behavior” (pp. 203-204). “Shared philosophies, ideologies, values, assumptions, beliefs, expectations, attitudes and norms” (Kilmann et al., 1985, p.5) knit an organization together, and, acted as “the human invention that creates solidarity and meaning and inspires commitment and productivity”(Deal, 1986, p.301).

The role of corporate culture as expressed in rituals, ceremonies, heroes, stories and symbols was designed to contribute to the creation of unitary feelings. Proponents of the “strong culture” perspective view communication that contributed to the construction of social realities and shared values to be at the core of culture and central to high organizational performance (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Others suggested that the relationship between high performance and the clan or “strong culture” communication was over emphasized. (Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983).

Corporate culture promoted symbolic identification with the company as a countermeasure to “confusion” in the work place. There was a mobilizing against hostile environments by creating a feeling that it was we against the world (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). The inner order was seen as a defense against the outer disorder.

Values were fundamental in most definitions of organizational culture and played an important role in determining how well an individual fits into an organizational context (Rousseau, 1990). The advantage of a strong corporate culture presumed that positive outcomes resulted when peoples’ values were congruent with those of others. Results showed that workers were more satisfied and committed when their values were congruent with the values of their supervisor. Findings supported a strong culture with

superior performance (Barney, 1986; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Kilmann, 1984; Peters & Waterman, 1982).

Van Maanen and Schein (1979) pointed out, although socialization was most intense following organizational entry, it was a process that continued throughout the individual's career in the organization. These effects may be independent of the influences of corporate culture and its associated value congruence. If workers brought stable predispositions in the form of values and expectations to the job situation, then they were not likely to be passively shaped by socialization (Arvey et al., 1989). What was called "practices" was also labeled "conventions," "customs," "habits," "mores," "traditions," or "usages." They were already recognized as part of culture by Edward B. Tylor (1924): "Culture is that complex whole including knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, customs and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (p. 1).

The greatest risk involved with a corporate value system was that of managerial hypocrisy, the lip-service disaster. Whether real or perceived by the workforce, if managerial actions contradict the values preached by the same, the workforce not only failed to "buy into" the value system but became cynical and viewed all managerial pronouncements with distrust. The resulting organization not only lacked ability to react quickly to the market, but ran inefficiently due to the lack of trust.

An organization can affect the degree of innovation demonstrated by people. Shallcross (1981) described an organization as "taking on a life of its own, dehumanizing its members and making them feel individually insignificant" (p. 57). An individual can be made to feel that it was immoral if he or she deviated from the norm or even appeared to

differ from the written and unwritten laws of the organization. Negative reactions to creative expression destroyed the risk-taking involved in creativity.

When a social unit's members shared values, they formed the basis for social expectations or norms. Should these be more widely shared throughout a larger social grouping, an organizational culture or value system existed (Rousseau, 1988). O'Reilly, (1989) studied social expectations that were based on underlying shared values. Others who studied culture through rituals, stories, or myths were examining communication that reflected the underlying beliefs and values (Trice & Beyer, 1984).

The pervasiveness and importance of values in organizational culture were linked to the psychological process of identity formation in which individuals appeared to seek a social identity that provided meaning and connectedness (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Deal and Kennedy (1982) said of culture:

A strong culture is a system of informal rules that spells out how people are to behave most of the time. By knowing what exactly is expected of them, employees will waste little time in deciding how to act in a given situation. In a weak culture, on the other hand, employees waste a good deal of time just trying to figure out what they should do and how they should do it (p.15).

Ouchi (1981) suggested that when employees came to understand and believed a management philosophy, it was like having a general theory from which specific solutions can be derived. Managers did not have to tell employees what to do in each case but treated the employees as adults. By treating them as partners, with dignity and respect and modeling the management philosophy, the employee was able to use the solutions derived. It was vital to understand that management must treat the individual as the primary source of productivity gains. "Genuine people orientation is in marked contrast to the major

alternatives all too often in companies: the lip service disaster, and the gimmicks disaster” (Peters & Waterman, 1982, pp. 238-9).

Organizational cultures were characterized as a university of “shared realities” which contributed to a uniqueness of behavior expectations (Schall, 1983). Part of the “unique sense of a place” which was called organizational culture developed from the values held in common by organizational members. Goodstein (1983) suggested that the most important implication regarding organizations as cultures was that “organizations, like persons, have values and that these values are integrated into some coherent value system...In any organization, the members generally have a set of beliefs about what is appropriate and inappropriate organizational behavior”(pp.203-204).

One way to assess culture quantitatively was to focus on the central values that were important to an individual’s self-concept or identity as well as relevant to an organization’s central value system. Weiner (1988) suggested that “when a number of key or pivotal values concerning organization-related behaviors and state-of-affairs are shared across units and levels---by members of an organization, a central value system is said to exist” (p.535). To characterize an organization’s culture in terms of its central values required first, that the range of relevant values be identified and then that an assessment be made of how much intensity and consensus there was among organizational members about those values (Enz, 1988; Saffold, 1988).

O’Reilly (1989) noted two important characteristics of strong cultures. One was intensity on the part of the organization members which means displayed approval or disapproval to those who acted in certain ways; the second, was the presence of crystallization, or widespread agreement on values, among members. If there was no

agreement that some limited sets of values were important in a social unit, a strong culture could not exist.

Recent interest centered on the idea that organizations had cultures that were more or less attractive to certain types of individuals (Wilkins & Ouchi, 1983). If members' values depended on their demographics, the way values entered the organization was via the hiring process. A company hired people of a certain nationality, age, education, and sex and, therefore, with certain values. Their socialization in the organization was a matter of learning the practices, symbols, heroes, and rituals. Values were acquired in early youth, mainly in the family and in the neighborhood, and later at school. By the time a child is ten, most of his or her basic values were probably programmed into his or her mind. Organizational practices were learned through socialization at the workplace (Pascale, 1985), which was usually entered as adults, with the bulk of values firmly in place.

The popular literature on corporate cultures, following Peters and Waterman (1982), insisted that shared values represented the core of corporate culture. However, empirically Pascale (1985) showed shared perceptions of daily practices were the core of an organization's culture.

Leadership

Employees viewed the actions of the organizational agents as actions of the organization itself. These leadership values triggered or amplified organizational crisis, and created impressive corporate turnarounds (Nystrom & Starbuck, 1984). Values aided people to make sense of behaviors or justify those behaviors (Sathe, 1985; Sproull, 1981;

Nystrom, 1990). Barnard (1938) argued that executives had a key responsibility to instill a shared value system within their organizations. A corporation's top management established the ethical tone for its employees (Nystrom, 1990; Selznick, 1957). Bennis (1986) also supported the importance the powerful actor influenced on culture. He stated:

I believe that the single most important determinant of corporate culture is the behavior of the chief executive officer. He or she is the one clearly responsible for shaping the beliefs, motives, commitments, and predispositions of all executives--from senior management to the operators of the organization (p.64).

Organizational leaders communicated their values and standards through their actions, and subsequently, through how they directed their attention, responded to problems and formulated organizational strategies (Trevino, 1990). Additionally, management values were related over time to both management and employee perceptions of organizational rules (Shockley- Zalabak & Morley, 1994).

It was the founder's personality that determined organizational structure and strategy (Miller & Droge , 1986) and was a critical influence upon behavior, including the decisions or actions of managers (England, 1967; Christensen, Andrews, Bower, Hamermesh, & Porter, 1987). Kimberly and Bouchikhi (1995) conducted an analysis of the 14-year history of a single organization. That single organization illustrated how the influence of the firm's founder and CEO had, in conjunction with both external and internal forces, shaped the firm's developmental trajectory. As Kabanoff (1991a) observed, "Leadership has a paradoxical or dualistic quality it both glorifies inequality and the differences between the leader and the led, while at the same time it creates identification and cohesiveness between the leader and his or her followers" (pp. 433-434).

Organizations were systems that were activated and directed by goals (Aldirch, 1979; Katz & Kahn, 1978). These goals were not actively chosen or consciously dictated goals. They emerged from the kind of person or persons who established the organization (Schein, 1985). Founders brought to the organizations they created a set of personal values that resulted in the development of the initial organizational rules specifying the way organizations should be and should not be. Those who join the organization are likely to exhibit values and beliefs held by founding management. In organization theory, this process of a transfer of the “founder’s values into the members practices” were already recognized by Weber (1948). “When the organization of authority becomes permanent, the staff supporting the charismatic ruler becomes routinized.” (Weber, 1948, p. 297). Weber (1948) contended that core organizational values were derived from either organizational tradition or charismatic leadership. Values derived from tradition were transmitted from one generation to the next on the basis of their time-tested manner for organizational acceptance. Wiener (1988) believed that traditional values were generally more stable than those anchored in charismatic leadership. According to Wiener, (1988) values derived from charismatic leadership “potentially are less stable and permanent than traditional ones; their life spans may not outlast the leader’s” (p. 537).

Demographics

Labor market trends indicated that older workers played an increasingly important role in the workforce. Younger workers comprised a decreasing share of the civilian labor force and, if 1947 was considered the beginning of the baby boom, the first baby boomers will reach the age of 55 in 2002. The changes in age affecting work categories from 1990

to 2000 will be as follows: ages 18-24 will decrease by 3%, ages 25-34 will decrease by 15%, ages 35-54 will increase 28%, ages 55-64 will increase 13% and ages 65-74 will decrease by 1% (Eichar et al., 1991).

Individual life-orientation changes during different life stages were sometimes more home and family oriented and sometimes more work-oriented. Schein (1985) suggested that the functions of culture differed by growth stages of organizations.

If prior work shaped current experience through its influence on work values, the highest satisfaction was among those in congruent positions and the lowest satisfaction among those in incongruent positions. Individuals in this incongruent situation should have experienced low satisfaction. Conditioned not to expect autonomy, its demands were felt as overwhelming (Zierden, 1980). It was the group that seemed never to have had experienced autonomy that was satisfied least. The lack of previous autonomy did not seem to condition one to accept its absence, but instead seemed to reinforce the negative consequences of work that allowed for little, if any, decision latitude.

In light of these findings, it was possible to see a mismatch between an occupational niche and those who were expected to occupy it. On the one hand there was a growing number of part-time jobs, especially in the service sector, that were, at best, modestly challenging, and at worst, stultifying. These types of jobs were once filled primarily by younger workers, and especially teenagers, who viewed the jobs as temporary. Since the last of the baby-boomers had come of age, the number of these workers declined. On the other hand, there were a growing number of older workers willing to do part-time work, but who desired and derived the greatest satisfaction from meaningful work. The problem was that employers were seeking to fill the occupational

niche with workers who were not well-suited for the type of work being offered (Zierden, 1980), thereby created problems in the workplace.

One consistent finding in the literature on work was the positive relationship between age and job satisfaction: Older workers were more satisfied with their jobs than younger workers. It was argued that in today's culture, younger workers were socialized to expect more from their jobs. Unfortunately, there were not enough challenging jobs to fulfill these expectations, which resulted in frustrated workers (Aronowitx, in Eichar et al., 1991). Satisfaction tended to increase through the age group of the 30s, leveled off in the age group of the 40s, and increased again during the age group of the 50s. The leveling off in the age group of the 40s was explained by the questioning reappraisal of social roles during mid-life, leading to enhanced expectations. These elevated expectations tended to be unfulfilled, resulting in dissatisfaction (Kalleberg & Loscocco, in Eichar et al., 1991).

A last group of demographic data focused on life-cycle factors. Because older workers typically built up considerable seniority and experience, they had better jobs, both in terms of intrinsic factors like autonomy and skill, and extrinsic factors like pay. Better contentment in jobs and rewards, in turn, promotes greater satisfaction (Wright & Hamilton, in Eichart et al., 1991). That many of these older workers were part-time and not rewarded in the aforementioned ways contributed to some of their problems in the workplace

Many factors influenced the ethical values of people, and socio-demographic variables in particular were investigated as correlates of the ethical values of employees. Hodgkinson (1971) found little relationship between the age, sex and seniority of

administrators and their value orientations. Kidwell, et al. (1987) reported similar attitudes between males and females about the giving of gifts and favors, the use of confidential information, and abuse of an organization's time, services or goodwill to the advantage of employees. The sexes also did not differ in their attitudes toward fraud or the improper use of coercion and influence, although it appeared that females are less supportive of behavior that involves self-interest and cronyism (Harris, as cited in Posner & Schmidt, 1987).

A research study on gender and ethics in the workplace noted that women's special traits could be seen as improving the ethical climate of a firm in numerous ways: More sensitive and caring treatment of customers, more creative approaches to problem solving, more effective relationship building, created greater trust in interpersonal affairs, more supportive and understanding supervisory styles.

Porter (1963) reported that workers from large firms placed higher importance on social needs than did workers from small firms. Ingham (in Porter 1963) examined the effects of intrinsic versus extrinsic rewards in the size-satisfaction relationship and argued that while small firms offered more intrinsic rewards and large firms offered more extrinsic rewards, overall satisfaction levels were about the same because workers had correspondingly different expectations in the two environments. Small firms tended to provide intrinsic rewards through more varied work tasks, greater autonomy, and more social interaction (Ingham, in Porter, 1963). On the other hand, large firms usually paid more (Bailey & Schwenk, in Porter, 1963) and provided higher levels of other extrinsic rewards (Bluestone, et al.; Rebitzer in Porter 1963). Large firms were more bureaucratic, formalized, and routinized (Blau & Schoenherr; Scott, in Porter, 1963), which certainly

made it easy to resort to extrinsic rewards rather than intrinsic rewards. Ingham (in Porter, 1963) argued that smaller organizations typically relied on identification and informal controls to accomplish their objectives, while larger organizations often favored coercive and remunerative power. Therefore, smaller firms used the “moral involvement” of workers for goal achievement more often than did larger firms (Ingham, in Porter, 1963). Intrinsic rewards, generally considered to be intangible benefits such as prestige and personal growth, stemmed from job performance; external rewards were outside of the work itself and included pay and benefits (Steers, 1988).

Larger companies committed more illegal actions than did smaller ones, and larger companies more often avoided prosecution by regulatory agencies (Dalton & Kesner, 1988; Finey & Lesieur, 1982). Moral values were inversely related to company size. Some evidence suggested that moral values were seen as more important to managements of smaller companies and less important to managements of larger companies (Nystrom, 1990).

The length of service of an employee in an organization affected values. One explanation, argued by Posner and Schmidt, (1987) was that the personal and organizational values of individuals became more similar the longer an individual was associated with an organization. For individuals who were with an organization a long time, the corporate culture played a role in determining whether their personal values were expressed (Chatman, 1989).

In a strong corporate culture, where people agreed on the basic organizational values and “how things ought to be done”, it was likely that an individual’s personal

values merged with those of the corporation. In fact as Chatman (1989) pointed out, individuals in these cultures either took on the values of the corporation or left.

Ethical Behavior and Whistle-Blowing

The most important psychologist in the field of moral development was Lawrence Kohlberg. Importantly, Kohlberg did not concern himself with what an individual was doing. Rather, he studied the reasons which were given why certain actions were perceived as morally just or preferred. These reasons, for Kohlberg, were the indicators of a person's stage of moral maturity. As Kohlberg's research proved, when one looked at the reasons people gave for their moral judgments or moral actions, differences in their moral outlook became apparent. These differences were captured in Kohlberg's "Stages of Moral Development" (1981a; 1981b, 1984):

Stage 1. The Punishment and Obedience Orientation: Physical consequences of action determine goodness or badness; Avoidance of punishment and unquestioning deference to power were valued.

Stage 2. The Instrumental Relativist Orientation: Interest in satisfying one's own needs was key; Elements of fairness, reciprocity, and equal sharing were present, but they were always interpreted in a physical or pragmatic way.

Stage 3. The "Good Boy-Nice Girl" Orientation: Good behavior was that which pleased or helped others and was approved by them; Conformity to stereotypical images of what was majority or "natural" behavior was a common guide.

Stage 4. The Law and Order Orientation: The perspective of a generalized member of society, reasoning relies upon a conception of the social system as a consistent set of codes and procedures that applied impartially to all members in a society.

Stage 5. The Social-Contract Legalistic Orientation: Right was a matter of personal values and opinion, which resulted in an emphasis upon the possibility of changing law based upon rational considerations of social utility.

Stage 6. The Universal Ethical Principle Orientation: Right was defined by decisions of conscience, in accord with self-chosen ethical principles appealing to logical comprehensiveness, universality, and consistency.

Research conducted by Kohlberg and his associates showed that the majority of adults in Western, urban societies typically reason at stage three or stage four, but some developed to stage five.

Over the past 20 years numerous criticisms were lodged against Kohlberg's stage theory (Sullivan, 1977; Gilligan, 1982; Cortese, 1984). Kohlberg's stage theory was clarified or refined to withstand these challenges and was widely used and accepted in the field of moral development.

Research consistently discovered a relationship between higher stages of moral reasoning and fewer incidents of cheating (Forsyth & Scott, 1984; Malinowski & Smith, 1985), or a tendency toward helpfulness (Schwartz & Feldman, 1969; Brown, & Heingartner, 1975), or ethical whistle blowing (Brabeck, 1984). Ethical decision making and intended ethical behavior generally increased as individuals utilized higher stages of moral reasoning (Stratton et al., 1981; Trevino et al., 1985; Trevino & Youngblood, 1990; Weber & Green, 1991).

Another aspect of organizational structure which affected ethical conduct pertained to how individuals were held responsible for the consequences of their decisions or actions (Trevino, 1986). There was considerable evidence that an employee's position in the organizational hierarchy influenced his or her ethical values (Harris, 1990; Hodgkinson, 1971). Employees in higher levels of management were more concerned about ethical practices than staff at lower levels in the organization, and they were generally more disapproving of fraudulent and questionable business practices than lower level or less experienced staff. Top managers reported feeling less pressure than junior staff to compromise their personal values in order to be more successful in the organization (Harris, 1990; Posner & Schmidt, 1987).

When people went to work for an organization, they were asked to merge their values with its values. When the individuals were comfortable with that merger, then they considered the organization to be ethical. When the individual values and the values of the organization conflicted, the individual considered the organization to be unethical (Parsons et al., 1996).

There has been tremendous growth in employer involvement with issues that had a link to an employee's life and interests away from the job. Drug testing, child and elder care, AIDS testing and education, smoking policies, employee assistance, and health and fitness programs were examples of increased organizational influence on personal lifestyles of employees. Employers often contended that these policies enhanced productivity and reduced labor costs due to reduced absenteeism and insurance costs, and fostered the development of a commonality of interest between the employee and employer (Walker,

1992). Some observers asserted that such personnel policies provided a subtle means of controlling the work force (Edwards, 1979).

Trevino (1986) proposed a person-situation interactionist model in which moral judgments, influenced by individual and situational factors, affected ethical behavior.

Another model by Brommer, et al. (1987) also suggested that individual and environmental factors were relevant to ethical decision-making.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors were defined as on the job behaviors which were discretionary, not formally or directly recognized by the organizational reward system, and yet promoted the effectiveness of the organization (Organ, 1990). Citizenship behaviors were performed by employees that supported the interests of the group or organization even though they may not have directly led to individual benefits. Organ noted that his original conceptions grew from Barnard's description of a "willingness to cooperate" (Barnard, 1938). Models were suggested linking Organizational Citizenship Behaviors to job attitudes such as job satisfaction (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Williams & Anderson 1992), organizational commitment (Becker, 1992), and perceptions of fairness (Moorman, 1991). Organizational Citizenship Behaviors were found to be related to task characteristics (Farh et al., 1990; Moorman & Sayeed, 1992), and interpersonal trust (Podsakoff et al., 1990). A more recent work of Karambayya (1991) suggested that certain contextual factors such as work unit size, stability of unit membership, and interpersonal interaction influenced an individual's decision to perform citizenship behaviors. Additional aspects included whistle-blowing. In a research study by Mickli and Near (1994) it was noted that retaliation to whistle-blowing was more likely when the whistle-blower's values were less congruent with those of top management.

Parsons and Shills (1951) suggested that individualism-collectivism was a way to distinguish between individuals who were oriented more toward self-interest and reached their own goals and individuals who were oriented toward the collective and focus more on the social system rather than self. Individualism-collectivism was a bipolar construct where an individual considered his or her personal interests more important than the interests of a group. Each individual looked out for their self, and considered the attainment of personal goals of primary importance (Earley, 1989; Wagner & Moch, 1986). On the other hand, a collectivist allowed the interests of the group to take precedence over those of the individual. A collectivist valued membership in a group and looked out for the well-being of the group even at the expense of his or her own personal interests (Wagner, 1992; Wagner & Moch, 1986). Hofstede (1980) had suggested this dimension as a fundamental distinction between cultures. Results of research by Moorman and Blakely (1995) suggest that if an individual held collectivistic values or norms, he or she was more likely to perform citizenship behaviors.

Somers and Casal (1994) studied the relationship between organizational commitment (OC) and whistle-blowing. The reformer was the individual who was more likely to report company wrongdoing by wishing to put the organization back on course (Hirschmann, in Somers & Casal, 1994) than the organizational man who was less likely to report organizational wrongdoing. Organizational commitment affected the likelihood that observed organizational wrongdoing was reported to people within the organization. Commitment was unrelated to the reporting problems to those outside the organization. Employees with moderate levels of commitment were most likely to participate in whistle-blowing, whereas high and low levels of commitment inhibited whistle-blowing.

Organizational Change

Organizations adopted different patterns of structures, processes, and values. However, meeting the dual goals of cohesion and performance created a dilemma involving the kinds of structures, processes, and values they had (Sheppard et al., 1992). The cohesion requirement led organizations to adopt solidaristic, egalitarian values and practices, but the need for productivity led them toward efficiency-and equity-based ones (Deutsch, 1985; Meindl, 1989). The more that systems adopted an efficiency orientation, the more equity values predominated the organizational resources and rewards were differentially or unequally allocated. Therefore, inequality and consequent threats to social cohesion or integration become problematic in the system (Kananoff, 1991).

The value's concept was a powerful one because it was employed at all levels of social analysis---cultural, societal, institutional, organizational, group, and individual. Williams, (1951) for example, defined an institution as "a set of institutional norms that cohere around a relatively distinct and socially important complex of values" (p. 29). The concept of values was also applied to the area of organizational change as noted throughout this section.

French and Bell (1984) have suggested that feedback, education, awareness of changing sociocultural norms, increased interaction through communication, and confronting differences between organizational members' belief and value systems were the major causal factors in organizational change. Current organizational values were likely to influence the kinds of change in goals and meanings (Trice & Beyer, 1993). These values also influenced kinds of shared values and themes to which change agents

appealed to create a motivation for change among organization members (Shamir et al., 1993).

Value structures gave organizations their coherence, strength, and stability, and their particular character. Shamir, et al. (1993) suggested that a key aspect of leading large-scale change as making followers aware of their deeply held values so that other members of the group shared those values. If organizations had value structures which were demonstrative of their characters, then the research study of Cartwright and Cooper (1993) must be considered. Cartwright and Cooper (1993) contended that one possible explanation for the high failure rate of company mergers and acquisitions was “culture incompatibility.”

Unless organizations consciously fought restriction in the range of the kinds of people they contained, when the environment changed they were not aware that it had changed and probably were not capable of changing (Schneider, 1975). The organization could fail because, over time, it had attracted, selected, and retained persons with service inclinations whereas the need in the culture may well have been for a different orientation. A tendency in situations like this was to seek new “right types” (Argyris, 1957). This was a serious mistake if the new “right types”, those who were brought in to change the old culture, did not have secondary or tertiary inclinations that fit the old “right types.” Without some sharing of inclinations, ways of viewing the world, and so forth, the newcomers did not fit and the old-timers forced them out (Alderfer, 1972). It was therefore important to be sure that newcomers brought in to turn around an organization shared some attributes with those they were expected to change.

Organizational climate referred to the ways by which organizations indicated to organizational participants what was important for organizational effectiveness. By what they rewarded, supported, and expected, organizations indicated that customer service or safety or product quality was an organizational imperative (Schneider & Bowen 1985). According to research by Kabanoff, et al. (1995) organizations classified as having different value structures varied in a theoretically consistent way in how their members described organizational change. The understanding which employees had of the ingredients necessary for organizational effectiveness determined their perception of the organization and their place therein.

Financial Costs and Negative Implications

In the rush to quantify the universe to meet the corporate cost accountants need for simplicity, the most basic element of the human experience was often overlooked or possibly never even considered, values. Senge (1990) pointed out that the perception that the world was created of separate, unrelated forces was an illusion. Not to consider the human element along with the basic dollar was to deal with an illusion.

Business management and reason, outside the marketing department, were slow to accept the power that values exercised in the workplace (Parsons et. al, 1996). To the cost accountant, speaking the language of business, values were too difficult to quantify with a consistent factoring power capable of having figured in a business equation. Because of these difficulties, accountants considered these terms used by the human resource development professional as simple “babble” and “touchie- feelie nonsense.” The ability to

quantify this term "value" was slow in development, but new value measures surrounding work were added to the existing psychological batteries.

Parsons (1997) noted that traditional cost benefit analysis tools were highly value prejudiced by the authors of those instruments. For example, Thomas Gilbert (1978) demonstrated that the only way to obtain worthy performance in business was to measure the production costs against the estimated value of the end product. He contended that the building of pyramids did not represent worthy performance because they cost too much to produce, and in contemporary terms should not be built. In this narrow and ironically value laden opinion, he excluded the intangible importance that the pyramids played to commerce, history, or art (Parsons, 1997).

Taylor (1994) pointed out that most ideas about work and organization were born in the Age of the Machine and did not apply in the Age of Information Technology. Understanding the promises and challenges of work in today's economy required radically new models and metaphors that went beyond the stale rallying cries of teamwork or empowerment.

The core values of the workers were important indicators of performance and must be identified and addressed. In a research study of team process within organizations, Cox (1991) discovered that truly value-added teams shared a core set of values and these values ensured quality performance.

Employee-Organizational Fit, Public Sector

Commitment and Turnover

Wanous (1980) noted the importance of recruitment, selection, and socialization to achieve matching of the individual and organization. In discussing socialization, Wanous (1980) noted that such matching was viewed as involving both (1) the organization's socialization of the individual and (2) the individual's personalization of the organization. Selection processes served as the subtle function of selecting individuals whose values were compatible with organizational values and screening out those whose values were incompatible (Chatman, 1991).

Holton (1995) found that there was a wide variability in socialization experiences and adaptation success and the need for human resource interventions for new employees. Research supported the notion that employee preferences influenced their reactions to their jobs (Fried & Ferris, 1987; Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Hulin & Blood, 1968). Furthermore, the literature on person-organization fit suggested that individuals who matched job or organization values to their own were more satisfied and less likely to leave the organization. Organizational work values had an important influence on job seekers' decisions when information about organizational value systems was known (Chatman, 1991). Tom, (1971) for example, showed that people's most preferred environments were environments that had the same "personality" profile as they did. Public sector jobs or those in not-for-profit organizations (e.g. the Peace Corps) were perceived as possessing higher levels of particular values but also offered lower pay. However, the preference and personalty were congruent.

Organizational work values largely affected job choice decisions. Individuals were more likely to choose jobs whose value content was similar to their own value orientation. Judge and Bretz (1992) used the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES), a values instrument to examine relationships between work value congruence and job choice. College graduates were asked to complete the CES and job scenarios incorporating the values of the CES. Individuals tended to prefer jobs with dominant work values consistent with their own.

Therefore, one proposed facet of the theory underlying person-organization fit was work value congruence. The general notion of fit, or congruence, was important in psychology and organizational behavior (Nadler & Tushman, 1980). In studying person-situation fit, organizational behavior researchers took one of two broad paths. One led to the exploration of the interaction of individual characteristics and broad occupational attributes, the other to exploration of the fit between specific characteristics of an organization and the people in it. Holland (1985) and Super (1957) both postulated that an individual selected a career or occupation similar to, or that fits with, that person's self-concept. Empirical results supported the hypothesis that there was congruence between individuals' personalities and the demands of their occupations. Vroom (1966) showed that people chose organizations to work in which they believed were most instrumental in obtaining their valued outcomes. According to Premack and Wanous, (1985) the better the fit between individual expectations and the reality of organizational life, the higher the job satisfaction and the longer the tenure.

These orientations between person and job fit increased performance and satisfaction (O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1981). The degree to which individuals were suited to a

job depended on their motives and needs, as well as the job's requirements (Hackman & Oldman, 1980). People chose to join organizations and organizations hired individuals on the basis of already-formed characteristics (Schwab, et al., 1987). When people did not fit their environment, they experienced feelings of incompetence and anxiety. When they did fit, they experienced more positive and less negative effect, and they were likely to choose to stay in that environment (Pervin & Rubin, 1967; Emmons et al., 1986). Therefore, higher person-organization fit was likely to lead to greater satisfaction, intentions to remain longer, and a longer stay with the organization.

Adkins, et al. (1994), in Judgments in the Selection Process: The Role of Work Value Congruence, conducted a research study that measured the effect of corporate recruiters values and their perceptions concerning the judgments of applicant fit with the organization. Forty-four recruiters from 37 companies were surveyed two months prior to their recruiting efforts at a major university. The recruiters were asked to complete two CES Scales (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a, 1987b) which measured the four general work values of: achievement, fairness, honesty, and helping and concern for others. These values were previously identified by a large cross-section of employees.

Each recruiter was asked to take the CES to determine value preferences. The recruiters took the CES a second time answering the questions with their perception regarding the values of the organization they represent. Of the 534 students who were interviewed, 69% provided answers on all questionnaire measures by the recruiter.

All applicants were rated on a survey for their general employability such as did the applicant receive multiple offers and did the applicant have good qualifications. The instrument also measured organizational fit which in this instance meant how likeable was

the applicant. Demographic data on the applicant was also gathered including grade point average, gender, and race.

It was assumed that applicants who rated high on fit would correlate positively with high employability. Each applicant was given the CES to measure his or her individual work value preferences. Each applicant was also asked to complete the behavioral friendship subscale of the Effective Interpersonal Behavior Scale (Ford et al., 1984; Ford & Tisak, 1983). Four months after the recruiter interviews, the organizations were contacted to determine which applicants were invited for a second interview. Twenty-five of the 37 organizations invited applicants for a second interview, eight were not hiring due to economic conditions, and four others did not respond.

To determine the value congruence of the applicants and the organization fit, two rank order correlations were conducted. The first compared the recruiter's personal CES scores with the client's. The second measured the recruiter's perception of the organizational values with the actual values of the applicants. These correlation scores were transformed using Fischer z to distribute the rank-order values for the two profiles.

A series of t-tests was computed to compare the mean ratings on these two scales which determined if perceptions of person-organization fit were distinct from perceptions of general employability. The demographic data served as control variables. The results replicated existing literature regarding the nature of recruiter ratings of person-organization fit and employability.

Work value congruence between the recruiter and the applicant was found to be related to judgments of general employability and organization-specific fit. The recruiter's perceptions concerning the values of the organizations they represented as they compared

to those of the applicant did not affect person-organization fit. Work value congruence was not related to second interview decisions.

It was concluded that if work values and judgments of applicant fit influenced the personnel selection process, they were more likely to do so at a later stage when job offer decisions were made. Work values and judgments of fit seemed to have minimal affect on decisions to retain the applicant for additional consideration after the original stages of the selection process.

The interactionist perspective had attempted to resolve the old “nature-nurture” behavioral controversy (Pervin, in Lang & Johnson, 1994). “. . . attitudes and behavior in organizations result from an interaction of personal traits and organizational factors” (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989, p. 6). In contrast to Davis-Blake and Pfeffer, technology, structure, and the larger environment of organizations were the outcomes of, not the causes of, people and their behavior (Schneider, 1983). Moos (1987) concluded that the person-environment fit was critical because “we need to help people select environments not just to maximize congruence, but to promote their personal maturation” (p. 242). Further, “work milieus that value independence and initiative are likely to promote employee performance and personal competence” (p.242).

The relationships among career experiences, perceptions of company employment practices, and psychological commitment to the firm were explored by Gaertne & Nollen (1989). Psychological commitment was defined as non-instrumental attraction to and identification with the goals and values of the organization, excluding the propensity to stay in the organization. Employee perceptions of the organization’s adherence to career-oriented employment practices, including internal mobility, employment security, and

training and development, was more strongly related to psychological commitment than other characteristics of the work context were related to psychological commitment, including participation, supervisory relations, and instrumental communication (Gaertner & Nollen, 1989).

Employee commitment to a firm was investigated extensively, both as a desired end in itself and as a predictor of absenteeism and turnover (Bluedorn, 1982; Mowday & Steers, 1979; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). Affective attraction to a firm by the employee was consistent with Buchanan (1974). Commitment, in this instance, referred to identification with company goals and values and even internalization of these values (Angle & Perry, 1981; DeCotiis & Summers, 1987; Kidron, 1978; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986). This understanding of commitment was supported in a research study which noted a clear connection between employee perceptions of employment practices and psychological commitment in this company (Gaertne & Nollen, 1989).

Rather than fostering a strong work ethic, management too often thwarted it by taking actions that created the impression that management did not care about employees welfare (Deming, 1986). This explained decreased motivation and performance, because employees were less satisfied, productive, creative, involved at work, and more frequently absent when they perceived that their organization was not committed to them (Eisenberger et al., 1990). Employee work attitudes were a function of actual human values, mediated by perceptions of organizational commitment to human resource efforts. Employee attitudes were related to perceptions about a company's commitment to human resource programs. Attitudes toward company values and job satisfaction were highly

associated with attitudes toward general supervision, pride in working for the company, communication from the human resources department, and self-rated motivation.

The impetus for redefinition of public sector and private sector roles was coming from both sides. New public policy constrains federal action on social problems, and both the federal and state governments were contracting with private sector firms to perform many functions that were carried out by government. There was a blurring of the boundaries that traditionally defined the roles of the private sector, as well as individual versus institutional responsibilities (Cortese, 1990). The question of fit and values was called into question the more that these boundaries were removed.

In a research study by Zeffane (1994) of public sector employees, the socio-demographic characteristics of employees proved to be quite consistent predictors of their ethical values. Top management were more likely to have attitudes against cronyism and giving advantage to others. Individuals higher in the organizational hierarchy and female employees were more likely to believe that discriminatory practices were an ethical concern. Lower status employees wanted more autonomy about decisions in the area of ethics and believed that those who judged themselves to be less powerful were more likely to agree about giving advantage to others. Persons who had more contact in their jobs with clients believed that discrimination was a concern, as did respondents employed for a shorter time in the organization. Older respondents were more concerned about the need to maintain ethical standards about strict confidentiality of official information. Each of the above categories were referenced with the concept of individual fit and the organization.

Public employees, in particular, were repelled by and attracted to the organization. Their desire to serve important values was undercut by low or negative feelings of affiliation (Balfour & Wechsler, 1990). Contradicting the findings of the above studies, Choudhry (1989) reported no difference in job attitude scores of public and private sector employees, and suggested that there was no relationship between employee attitudes and occupational level within both sectors. Similarly, Kline and Peters (1991) reported no relationships between behavioral commitment and perceived publicness.

Zeffane (1994) found when comparing private to public sector workers that public sector individuals had a higher commitment than private sector employees. Employees' motives for work in both sectors tended toward the intrinsic or motivator factors of employment. However, public sector employees tended to value the extrinsic factors more than those in the private sector. A larger majority of satisfied employees were in the public sector. Given the difference between the employment conditions of the public and private sectors, those seeking certain obvious factors were attracted to the public sector. Furthermore, this research study indicated that the public sector employees were more satisfied overall with their jobs than the private sector employees. The public sector placed a substantially higher value on the extrinsic factors. In conclusion, the findings showed that the motivating factors were sources of satisfaction rather than dissatisfaction. The extrinsic factors were also a source of satisfaction rather than dissatisfaction. This was a reversal of the Herzberg, et al. (1959) research study which concluded that extrinsic factors were greater sources of dissatisfaction than satisfaction.

Employee turnover and its associated costs posed problems for the productivity and competitiveness for firms of all sizes (Mirvis & Lawler, 1977; Phillips, 1990). For

more than 35 years, the ideas of March and Simon (1958) were the basis for most of the theory and research on voluntary employee turnover, or departure from an organization. Much of this work focused on the empirical validation of conceptual models that described the intermediate links between job attitudes and employee turnover. Job satisfaction was shown to have an affect of reducing turnover (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986) and pro-union voting (Heneman & Sandver, 1983), and slightly affected absenteeism (Hackett & Guion, 1985) and job performance (Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985).

In a research study by O'Reilly, et al. (1991), employee turnover between employees who were congruent with their organization and those who were not, indicated no turnover effects before 20 months of employment. Effects of turnover after 20 months were statistically significant. This supported other research which found that people who did not fit an environment well tended to leave it (Mobley, 1982). Kline and Peters (1991) reported that highly committed clerical employees in a national retail organization had a median survival time nearly three times longer than those having lower commitment.

Kerr and Slocum (1987) and Kopelman, et al. (1990) argued that the variation in employee retention across organizations was related to organizational culture values. The importance of person-organization fit stemmed from finding an interaction effect between job performance and organizational culture. Presumably, new employees who fit performed better. Nevertheless, both strong and weak performers stayed much longer in the organizational culture, emphasizing interpersonal relationships more than in the less social culture. This explanation suggested that employee retention was a result of interpersonal relationships within an organization more than the organizational values. Values were more attractive to professionals than a culture emphasizing work task values.

Managers were well advised to foster cultural values that were attractive to new employees than to be concerned with the selection and socialization of particular individuals who fit a specific profile of cultural values (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989).

Sheridan (1992) and Peters (1992) indicated that new employees' job performance was substantially related to their retention rates. The relationship between the employees' job performance and their retention also varied substantially with organizational culture values. McEvoy and Cascio's meta-analysis of another 23 turnover studies indicated that an organization's stronger performers tended to have lower turnover rates than their weaker performers did (McEvoy and Cascio, 1987).

Congruence Studies

Values were relatively stable constructs that affected broad modes of behavior over time. Concern for the influence of values in organizations represented somewhat of a departure from conventional management wisdom. Recent trends, particularly those that grew out of the Japanese management system (Ouchi, 1981; Pascale & Athos, 1981), depicted employees as long-term assets and emphasized the need for long-term commitments between employer and employee.

Value congruence was presumed to reduce negative aspects of interpersonal interactions (Kluckhohn, 1951; Schein, 1985). Value congruence was found to indicate overall happiness and satisfaction with the organization (Feather, 1979). It was correlated with employee performance, commitment, intention to remain with the organization, and actual turnover (Chatman, 1989). When the values considered were those of potential employees or applicants, evidence suggested that congruence with the values of an

organization influenced whether individuals chose to join that particular organization (Tom, 1971).

An alternative view of workplace values by Salanick and Pfeffer (1978) suggested that behavior was driven not by internal values, but by external pressures for social desirability. Observed relationships between stated values and behavior may therefore be caused by cognitive restructuring rather than by a causal relationship between values and behavior. Research on these assumptions established a linkage between individual values and organizational goals and outcomes (Hage & Dewar, 1973; Senger, 1970); organizational commitment (Kidron, 1978); and perceptual, attitudinal, and behavioral outcomes at the individual level (Blood, 1969; England & Lee, 1974; Merrens & Garrett, 1975; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a).

In the current climate of increasing concern for discretion on the part of employees (Kanter, 1990; Mintzberg & Quinn, 1991), interest in the fit or congruence of employees' values with those of their organizations (e.g., Adkins, Russell & Werbel, 1994; Chatman, 1991), supervisors (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989), and jobs (Judge & Bretz, 1992) rose dramatically. Research showed that value congruence between employees and their supervisors was related to employee satisfaction and commitment (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989) and supervisory ratings of employees (Senger, 1971). Value congruence was even thought to be an important factor in determining whether people's lives were altered by chance encounters with others (Bandura, 1982).

When the values or sets of values being compared in an organization were obtained for different levels of the same organization (e.g., top management vs. various units), value congruence indicated which organizational units possessed greater amounts

of power and which were most able to define the critical uncertainties for the organization (Enz, 1988). In going beyond the structure of the organization itself to look at different organizational units, it must be noted that value congruence determined the extent to which a successful merger can take place between the units (Buono et al., 1985).

The role of intrinsic rewards such as growth, achievement, and competence to individual development, was recognized (Lewin, 1936; White, 1959). Early research focused on the conceptualization of these constructs as needs or stable traits, where the focus was on various personality dispositions. Similar individual and organizational values (as evidenced through “rules”) reflect shared values. Dissimilar values reflected increasing levels of rule-value discrepancy. The assumption then was that the more similar organizational and individual values were, the more likely the individual was to positively identify with the organization. Indirect support for this assumption was articulated by Argyris (1977) when he described the negative effect of discrepancies between “espoused organizational values” and “organizational values-in-use.” Feather (1979) found that value congruence between school children and their schools was related to the children’s happiness and satisfaction. Weiss (1978) showed that value congruence was associated with supervisors’ consideration, and ratings of supervisors’ success and competence.

Congruence research indicated that supervisors received higher scores on the Protestant ethic value than did subordinates (Cherrington et al., 1979). It was also shown that Protestant ethic scores were correlated with job satisfaction for a broad range of people (Blood, 1969; Orpen, 1978).

Value congruence either had positive or negative relationships to organizations, depending on the levels of job interdependence and task routine. Because of these,

managers must be careful to avoid the easy logic of the corporate culture literature that value congruence was always positive (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Weick, 1985). Rather than assume that the organization benefitted from a workforce with high congruence on core values, they must analyze whether co-workers value congruence was a benefit in their particular situation across the broad range of work outcomes that were of interest. When job interdependence was high, value congruence was positively related to ratings of work habits and personal characteristics. This suggested that value congruence led to better patterns of dependability, punctuality, and getting along with others at work. Worker dependability, punctuality, safety, and cooperation were all essential behaviors for productivity and, ultimately, the profitability of the organization. When task interdependence spanned work unit boundaries, value congruence led to greater coordination among work units, a function Schein (1985) labeled internal integration. This, in turn, led to increased organizational efficiency. Conversely, when individuals were independent from one another for task performance, value congruence was negatively associated with performance ratings. Differences in perspectives were also found to enhance performance on decision-making tasks (Thomas et al., 1994), although not on routine tasks (Ravlin & Meglino, 1993).

Diverse value perspectives stimulated management members to question their assumptions and consider alternate information about customer desires with respect to each of their objectives. This led to more accurate perceptions, more effective effort, and better performance. This explanation was consistent with previous research on techniques for stimulating conflict and controversy in strategic decision making (Schweiger et al., 1986; Schwenk, 1982; Tjosvold, 1985). These studies demonstrated that the presence of

diverse views about a strategic problem opened discussion on these views improved the process of decision making that led to higher performance.

Value consensus was the most important variable in explaining objective performance. One possible explanation for this was that value similarity was actually more important than strategic consensus in producing differences in performance. Since values dealt with situationally independent fundamental premises people held about the way they should behave with each other, diversity of values led to deeper and more fundamental questioning of assumptions about company objectives according to Ouchi and Price (1993).

Ouchi and Price (1993) indicated that the Type Z organization, like a clan, incorporated some weaknesses. Because it was so homogeneous with respect to values and beliefs, it was hostile to deviant views, including those that were important for future adaptation and survival. Employees who were culturally dissimilar, such as women and minorities, who were regularly excluded from the mainstream, experienced relatively greater alienation.

Bourgeois (1980) suggested that management teams prized agreement on objectives and sought to enforce or strengthen them. The result was a kind of “group think” which led them to believe that they were performing at a higher level than they were. This same “group think” might reduce performance by reducing the diversity which stimulated debate, more thorough analysis of problems, and the generation of a greater number of creative alternatives for dealing with them. The effect of this consensus might be a bifurcation between an operating unit’s actual performance and management’s evaluation of its performance.

The belief that values incongruence and strategic disagreement must be resolved or controlled fits a common view that conflict was destructive. It was possible that unit cooperation was based on the mutual adjustment of differences, the challenge of assumptions, or compromise. The performance edge may be the result of organizational units that fostered tolerance for differences in strategic and value factors, so producing an adaptive unit with a greater appreciation of multiple perspectives.

The following three research summaries, in addition to the previously cited research study by Adkins, et al. (1992, 1994), contained the substantive resources available in the specific area of value congruence: Meglino et al., (1989); Parsons et al., (1996); and Adkins et al., (1996). As previously indicated, the field of value congruence was a new and somewhat limited field involved in considerable pioneering interest

While these authors produced considerable publications on related areas to value congruence, such as value measurement tools, the relationship of values to cost benefit analysis, and personal values in the workplace; they were part of an exclusive group of authors specializing in this field.

In Meglino, et al. (1989) A Work Values Approach to Corporate Culture: A Field Test of the Value Congruence Process and its Relationship to Individual Outcomes a study was conducted to determine measures of job satisfaction, organizational commitment and work value congruence. The applicants were from a fortune 200 company. One hundred ninety-one production workers (87 men and 104 women) and 17 supervisors (16 men and 1 woman) as well as 13 selected managers (all men) were selected to participate. The average age was 44 years. All participants were full time employees.

Workers and supervisors completed a survey questionnaire containing measures of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, measures of their work values, and measures of the work values they felt were emphasized by management of the plant.

Company records were examined to obtain data on the performance and work records of the production workers. Management participants completed a brief questionnaire containing measures of their work values and measures of the work values they felt was characteristic of plant managers in general. Overall facet and job satisfaction were measured using the satisfaction scales from the short version of the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldman, 1975).

Two additional scales were constructed to measure specific satisfaction with coworkers and with management. The coworker scale included two items that assessed satisfaction with the people at work and with others on the job; the management scale consisted of three items that assessed satisfaction with the plant management, plant management's expectations of employees, and the way management ran the plant. All items measuring satisfaction with job facets were rated on a five-point scale (1 = extremely dissatisfied, 5 = extremely satisfied).

Commitment was assessed using a 15-item Porter and Smith (1970) Organizational Commitment Scale. Measures for work values were the last items to appear on the survey. The CES was utilized to measure four general work values of achievement, concern for and helping others, fairness and honesty. This within subject scale, produced purely ipsative scores.

Data on employee performance was obtained from company personnel records at the time the survey was conducted. These data were available for 174 production workers

and included the employees' most recent performance evaluation. The evaluation contained subjective supervisory ratings of (a) the quality of performance; (b) quantity of performance; (c) work habits (an overall rating of attendance, dependability, orderliness, safety, and care of equipment); and (d) personal characteristics (a rating of attitude, cooperation, and ability to get along with others). Ratings were made on a 10-point scale (1 = poor and 10 = distinguished).

Three objective measures of attendance were collected that included the number of times an employee was late, absent, or sick during a six-month period. One year after the survey performance data was collected and employee records were again examined to evaluate the stability of performance measures over time. These follow-up measures were available for two additional six-month reporting periods on 161 of the original respondents.

Correlation coefficients obtained in this manner were correlated for skewness by converting them to z scores using Fisher's r-to-z transformation (Fisher, 1921). Because each z score was an index of value structure similarity, a higher z score was indicative of greater value congruence. To investigate various value congruence relationships, correlations were conducted on each worker's z score with the outcome measures by using product-moment correlations. The results revealed that workers were more satisfied and committed when their values were congruent with the values of their supervisors. Value congruence between workers and supervisors was not correlated with workers tenure, however, its effect on organizational commitment was more pronounced for longer tenured employees.

This research study supported the relationship between value congruence and both job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The object of congruence, however, did not appear to be the values of the culture of the organization, but the values of each worker's supervisor (Parsons, et al. 1996).

The superior performance of firms with strong corporate cultures was attributed to their use of socialization and other techniques which emphasized specific core values that, when shared by employees (Barney, 1986; Tichy, 1983), were thought to perform certain critical functions. Schein (1985) described these functions as external adaptations and internal integration. In fostering external adaptation, the holding of these core values was thought to influence employees to behave in ways that were necessary for the organizational survival. In this way values were thought to have had a direct effect on the behavior of the individuals in the workplace.

The role of values in internal integration was different in that it related to the effect of shared values on interpersonal interactions. Specifically, individuals who held the same values were thought to share certain aspects of cognitive processing. These similarities were presumed to foster comparable methods of classifying and interpreting environmental events, and a common system of communication. Such qualities were essential to the success of interpersonal activities because they reduced or eliminated uncertainty (Schein, 1985).

Value similarity was also assumed to affect coordination, satisfaction, and commitment. When employees shared similar values, they had clearer role expectations because they more accurately predicted each other's behavior (Kluckhohn, 1951).

Individuals who experienced less role ambiguity and conflict were therefore more satisfied and committed to their organizations (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983).

There were a number of important reasons to believe that congruence had an important influence on individual and job related outcomes (Jackson, 1992). Individuals may have interacted with a high level of efficiency and were extremely satisfied and committed to their organizations while at the same time performed behaviors that were inconsistent with the success and survival of those organizations (Janis, 1972).

In Parsons, et al. (1996), When Perceived Organizational Values Collide with Employee Values in a State Department of Corrections, there was an evaluation of employee perceptions of organizational values. A large Southwestern state department of corrections was selected to conduct a values study of employee perceptions concerning the interaction of their individual values and the perceived values of the organization. The research method utilized in this project was the in-depth interview.

Three correctional facilities were visited to conduct in depth interviews and obtain a sense of the facilities' organizational environments. A sample pool was selected from all of the major job categories, such as clerical/business, correctional officer, probation and parole officer, manager/supervisory, and support personnel. Four numbers were drawn from a hat (the number's 4, 7, 14, 19). Those numbers were used to draw subjects from the department's alpha list. The sample included four correctional officers, seven probation and parole officers, four members of management and four support personnel. Eight respondents were between the ages of 25 and 35, nine were between the ages of 36 and 45, and two were more than 45 years old. There were eight males and 11 females. Thirteen were married and six were not. Sixteen were parents and three were not. Twelve

were members of clubs or organizations and seven were not. Fifteen attended religious services and four did not.

Approximately two hours were spent with each of the 19 employees at their individual work sites. Open-ended questions were created and validated by an expert in the field of qualitative research for appropriateness. All employees were asked ten questions regarding personal values and what they perceived the values of their immediate supervisor and the values of the organization. The employees were invited to share examples of situations they experienced for each question and to describe values they claimed were present in themselves, their supervisor and the organization. Interviewees were recorded and notes were also taken during the interviews. Interviewees were given the opportunity to ask questions and share feelings regarding their general impressions about, or problems with, the study. The subjects' identities were changed in several ways to protect their anonymity.

Experienced employees tended to be mistrustful of the tape recorders and of personal questions about their work and personal lives. Several employees wondered if this process was a management spying effort. A district supervisor even stated that the research study was feared to be a type of executive fact-finding project for "digging up dirt" on certain employees.

Twelve weeks were needed to select subjects, schedule and conduct interviews, and to analyze the data and report the findings. By using in-depth qualitative methodology, it was possible to see subtle forms of body language and to read environmental issues like peer pressure placed on the interviewees not to participate. Some probation officers made remarks to discourage participation, such as, "This will end

up in your jacket (e.g., personnel file), just you wait and see,” or, “Remember, there is no such thing as confidentiality in the Department of Corrections (DOC).” These comments implied a lack of trust of anyone who appeared to be from management. In-depth interviews also provided the opportunity to explore the style and personality types of the respondents.

There were three research questions. 1) How did employees describe their personal values? 2) How did employees describe the values of their organizations? and 3) How did the employees compare their personal values to values of their organization? The employees' responses to question one in descending order of frequency were family, honesty/loyalty, spirituality, responsibility, career, respect, happiness, integrity, caring for and helping others, openness, discipline, financial security, and retaining the middle-class American way of life. The employees responded to the second and third questions with a perception that the organizational values were dishonesty and self promotion.

Characteristics of the organizational values included dishonesty, protecting personal interests, preoccupation with public image, pandering to politicians, protecting the public, ignoring the powerless, preferential treatment for managers, following the law, rigidity, offender rehabilitation, cultivating confusion and controlling others.

Question Three compared the employee values with those of the organization. Approximately three-quarters of the employees communicated organizational values which were substantially different from their own. Twenty percent identified values which were relatively congruent with those of the department. The responses further indicated that the employees saw themselves differently from the organization in that they that felt that their value systems were substantially different.

There were substantial indicators of conflict between employees values and their perceptions of the organizational values. To suggest that this conflict was totally the fault of the organization would understate the complexity of the situation. However, the respondents felt that the primary responsibility for the incongruence of values rested within the agency.

The personal values of the interviewed employees were placed into three groups by frequency. Nearly all (17 out of 19) identified family and honesty and loyalty. Seven out of 19 mentioned each of the values of spirituality, responsibility, respect, happiness, career, integrity, and caring for and helping others. Three individuals identified discipline, financial security, and retaining traditional American values and opportunities.

These values were heavily oriented toward ethical behavior, the building of community, and service to others. The emphasis upon self oriented issues like career and financial security was relatively low.

The values which the respondents perceived to be held by the organization were, by contrast, primarily self serving and unsupportive of employees. Only "protect the public," "follow the law," and "rehabilitation of the offender" did not appear to be self-serving. "Protect the public" constituted the first three words of the department's mission statement and might have been expected to have been identified by all. "Rehabilitate the offender," identified by only one fourth of the employees, was the public's general perception of a primary purpose of the department. Overall, 14 employees were incongruent with the organizational values, four were congruent, and 1 was undecided.

Extremely high levels of stress were reported by the employees who had incongruent values with the organization. Additionally, all of the employees whose values

were incongruent reported that their performance for the organization was substantially diminished and that their use of sick leave was far beyond their medical need. Overall 60 percent of the employees indicated that their supervisors appeared to have values congruent with the employees. It was reported by four sampled probation and parole officers that almost half of the officers in their respected field were on some form of antidepressant medication associated with their work related stress and frustration. It was found that value incongruence between the organization and the employees resulted in increased levels of stress, reduced performance and heightened levels of distrust, and dissatisfaction of the organization in which they worked. The levels were most severe for employees who had the longest tenure.

The final research study of value congruence was conducted by Adkins, et al., Value Congruence Between Co-Workers and its Relationship to Work Outcomes (1996). This research study was designed to evaluate value congruence between co-workers and its relationships to work outcomes. This research study focused on members of dyads who were engaged in job-related interactions and who identified a person with whom they worked closely. One hundred ninety-one production workers, together with their supervisors (n = 17), completed a survey instrument. The survey included measures of work values, facet satisfactions, and perceptions of the job and work environment. Performance and attendance data were gathered from company records for these individuals. To identify the dyads, workers were asked to name up to seven individuals with whom they worked most often. The focal point was individuals in this research study who were members of dyads in which each individual named the other person. Ninety-eight mutually named dyads, composed of 115 individuals, were so identified. The final

members of the research study consisted of 60 men and 55 women. The median age of the respondents was 44 within a range of 25 to 64 years. In some cases, individuals were members of multiple dyads.

Work values were measured by the CES (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a; 1987b; 1989). The CES measures four work values (achievement, fairness, honesty, and helping and concern for others) that had been previously identified by a large cross-section of employees at all organizational levels and in a broad variety of types of jobs to be of importance in work settings (Cornelius et al., 1985).

Work value congruence was assessed by computing correlations between the dyad members' value rankings. The resulting correlations were then converted to z scores using Fisher's r to z procedure (Fisher, 1921) to correct for skewness and adjustment. This procedure resulted in a score in which larger values were indicative of greater value congruence.

Tenure with the organization was used as a moderator in the cross-sectional research study to determine whether the relationship of value congruence to social and job related dimensions of satisfaction and attendance behavior was different for long than for short-tenured individuals. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which the quality of their work depended on them alone in order to assess job interdependence (e.g., the extent to which the job required interaction with others).

Satisfaction with the social dimensions of the work environment was assessed with the three-item social satisfaction subscale of the short form of the job diagnostic survey (Hackman & Oldman, 1975). Respondents were asked to indicate how satisfied they were with "the people I talk to and work with on my job," "the chance to get to know other

people on my job,” and “the chance to help other people while at work.” Responses were made on a 5-point scale (1 = extremely dissatisfied, 5 = extremely satisfied). Satisfaction with the job-related dimensions of the work environment (e.g., putting effort into the job and improving quality) was assessed with a two-item questionnaire specifically developed for the research study. Individuals were asked, “How satisfied are you when you are working to improve the level of quality in your work?” “Did your efforts appear to be beneficial?” These items were rated on the same 5 - points described above.

Performance appraisals were conducted every six months based on the individual's date of hire. Performance appraisal data for two time periods were examined: the first was approximately three months following the collection of the survey date (Time1), and the second approximately nine-month post survey (Time 2). Two measures of supervisor-rated performance were used. One measure (work habits) was an overall rating of performance consisting of attendance, dependability, orderliness, safety, and care of equipment. A second measure (personal characteristics) was a rating of attitude, cooperation and ability to get along with others. These ratings were made on a 10 - point scale (1 = poor, 10 = distinguished).

Attendance measures were tardiness (number of part days absent) and absence (number of full days absent). Measures of nondiscretionary absences (e.g., sick days, bereavement days) were not used because they theoretically were unaffected by co-worker value congruence.

The results of this research study suggested that there were systematic moderators for effects of value congruence within mutually named dyads on work outcomes. Tenure was found to moderate the relationship between value congruence and social satisfaction,

satisfaction with job-related dimensions (effort and quality), tardiness, and days absent. The finding regarding tenure was that high-tenured employees were less likely to be absent when their values were congruent with those of their co-workers at both Time 1 and Time 2.

Job interdependence was found to moderate the relationship between value congruence and the supervisor-rated performance dimensions of work habits at Time 1 and Time 2. For those whose job required them to interact with others, value congruence was associated with higher performance ratings.

These findings were consistent with the idea that this type of value congruence may enhance interpersonal interactions in the workplace through increasing the predictability of the behavior of others and agreement about what behaviors were important. Value congruence as a dimension of similarity facilitated communication (Zenger & Lawrence, 1989), or, as was more likely with regard to more routine tasks, it reduced the need for communication to foster agreement about how to perform tasks (Schein, 1985). This enhanced agreement about what behaviors were important led to increased satisfaction with the day-to-day aspects of the job (Adkins et al., 1996).

Communication

For many decades, dominant work values in the U.S. and in other Western countries stemmed from the Protestant Work Ethic, with its advocacy of individual achievement, personal responsibility and independence (Buchholz, 1989; Triandis et al., 1988; Weber, 1930). The motivational theories of work behavior that were developed in the U.S. were shaped by the values of individualism and achievement motivation. In

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, the need for self-esteem and self-actualization ranked above that for affiliation (Maslow, 1970). Hackman and Oldham's model of job design focused mainly on the individual employee and that person's needs for self-growth (Hackman & Oldman, 1980). The expectancy theory of motivation examined personal utilities, (Vroom, 1964) and the goal-setting theory was mainly concerned with individual goals (Locke & Latham, 1990).

Eisenberg and Riley (1988) suggested that "most research and theory on organizational symbolism and sense-making presupposes shared meaning and, to some extent, values" (p.142). They contended, however, that a careful review of research suggested that sharing can never be complete and was variable from organization to organization; that shared realities were not always positive; that understanding of rules or contexts was not equated with agreement or consensus about issues; that organizations frequently had multiple subcultures; and that cultures were characterized as serving both cohesive and divisive functions.

Organizational cultures were characterized by "shared realities" that contributed to unique behavioral expectations (Kinnunen, 1990; Schall, 1983). Barnett (1988) suggests, "It is through its shared symbol system that an organization communicates its values, behavioral expectations, common experiences, and self image among its members" (p.107). Part of the "unique sense of a place" that was called organizational culture developed from the values held in common by organizational members.

Individuals with congruent values also had a common system of communication. This tended to facilitate interactions by decreasing communication "noise" and reducing stimulus overload (Schein, 1985). Value congruence may also have affected how often

people chose to communicate with each other. Zenger and Lawrence (1989) found that similarity in age and tenure was positively related to frequency of communication, and this effect may well have extended to value congruence. Alternatively, value congruence may have reduced the need for communication in the workplace. As noted earlier, it increased the predictability of the behavior of others (Kluckhohn, 1951) and fostered agreement about what behaviors were important in the workplace (Schein, 1985). Increased predictability and agreement may actually have decreased the need for communication in the process of task accomplishment.

Value congruence also affected interpersonal relationships through its influence on the perception of environmental cues. In a research study of perception, Ravlin and Meglino (1987a) found that individuals' work values had an effect on their interpretation of environmental stimuli. It was therefore likely that employees with congruent values may have placed similar interpretations on events in their immediate work environment. Schall (1983) argued that a communication rule-based approach was particularly appropriate for the research study of "shared realities" and values which influenced organizational behavior expectations.

The Schall (1983) and Goodstein (1983) perspectives suggested that cultural messages "teach" organizational members about what they should expect from others and what was likely to be expected from them. Based on the values and beliefs of the organization, these organizational expectations were theorized to influence all organizational communication processes by becoming the context for assigning meaning to all that occurred (Geertz, 1973). Schall's research study in an organizational setting demonstrated the viability of rule synthesis in order to develop cultural descriptions of

organizations (Schall, 1983). Thematic rules were implicit in organizational value, belief, and assumption statements identified and evaluated by organizational members as guides for day-to-day behavior expectations. The degree of difference between thematic rules as reflections of organizational values, and beliefs and individual value systems, was described as a rule-value discrepancy i.e. the difference between the way the organization espouses or practices values and the way an individual believes it should.

The interrelatedness of communication and culture was attested to in a variety of ways. "Culture is communication and communication is culture" (Hall, 1959, p. 191).

According to Shockley-Zalabak and Morley, (1989)

cultural messages become the active concern and responsibility of managers and diverse organizational members. Both formal and informal in nature, cultural messages are exchanged in supervisor and subordinate interactions, in group meetings, in training programs, and in all forms of written communication. The shared realities generated from these exchanges become the operating reality of the organization. (p. 485).

Explicit mission and value statements circulated throughout an organization communicate the issues top management considered of greatest importance (Burke, 1982). Morey and Luthans (1985) defined themes as recurrent and important principles which occurred in a number of cultural domains. As Agar (1979) explained, themes dealt with important beliefs, values, and rules of behavior that crossed boundaries and context. Morey and Luthans (1985) proposed that cultural themes reflected beliefs about the realities of interpersonal relations within the organizations which were used to examine the congruence of the organization with the broader environment as well as to establish the homogeneity or heterogeneity of its members.

Beginning with the work of Chester Barnard, (1938) a variety of communication activities were associated with organizational commitment. Visible cultural elements such as celebrations and stories were used to socialize members, thereby transforming individual values into an institutionalized business ethic (Coye, 1986; Bird & Waters, 1987). Although some scholars defined corporate cultures in terms of shared values (Davis, 1984; Lorsch, 1985; Tunstall, 1985), others saw values as only one aspect of culture (Allaire & Firsirotu, 1984; Schein, 1985; Smircich, 1983).

When attributions of cause were shared with others, they became the very stories and myths by which culture was transmitted (Bolman & Deal, 1984). Rokeach (1979) considered information about the values attributed to organizations by their gatekeepers to be important. It was likely that organizations varied in the extent to which their values were universal (Trice & Bever, 1993).

Rokeach explored various means for measuring organizational values, one of which was content analysis. The core assumption underlying the use of content analysis for describing organizational values was that organizations left traces of their distinctive value pattern in their documents and that these traces could have been observed and measured. Measurement was accomplished by counting the frequency with which different values were referred to in the text being analyzed. Frequent references were interpreted as an indication of the values' importance or centrality (Huff, 1990).

Documents such as annual reports were likely to represent the value consensus among an organization's senior managers more so than the personal values of individuals. Sections in the documents that referred to organizational goals and values, such as human resource management policies, statements of corporate philosophy, management

overviews, CEOs' annual reports or letters to shareholders, were identified, including any "human interest" stories that made mention of "what it meant to work for this organization" (Rokeach, 1979).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) proposed that communication was the only way any group could become aligned behind the goals of an organization. Kotter (1982; 1988) identified network building as one of the two major factors in leadership effectiveness. Leader-member exchange was the essence of leadership behavior, suggested by Graen and Scandura (1987). This certainly represented a combination of the subjects of leadership and communication.

The research study of interpersonal communication (Monge & Eisenberg, 1987) demonstrated that it was closely related to culture, which in turn could be viewed as a function of an implicit organizational communication system (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Schall, 1983; Schein, 1985; Smircich, 1983; Sypher et al., 1985). Culture referred to a shared system of values, norms, and symbols. The relationship between culture and communication was reciprocal. The communication network formed the connecting links among group members, transmitted the social values and facilitated their sharing. Conversely, shared meaning and values facilitated the flow of communication.

The intensity of a value system was mainly determined by the level of agreement among all members. A strong culture was therefore homogeneous, stable, and coherent (Weiner, 1988). On the organizational level, a strong culture was reflected in the high degree of coherence between management and employee goals.

Performance

“Our inner life has something like a double center of gravity. On the one hand is our individuality --and, more particularly, our body in which it is based; on the other it’s everything in us that expresses something other than ourselves . . . (These) mutually contradict and deny each other” (Durkheim, 1973, p. 152). Durkheim, (1966) unlike Weber, drew a radical distinction between the goals and character of the group and the goals and characters of the individuals within the group, and argued that “social psychology has its own laws that are not those of individual psychology” (p. 312). Further, “the interests of the whole are not necessarily the interests of the part” (Durkheim, 1973, p.163). Indeed, they might have been, and often were, completely at odds. But the group imposed its own will upon the hearts and minds of its members and compelled them to act in ways that run against their own subjective interests. These actions were later rationalized to “make sense”, and the rationalizations then became the value systems of a particular human society.

The WSCJTC was a training organization that functioned within a series of interrelated groups. Each group, however, worked independently from the other. In the work of Mayo, McGregor, and Likert, there were consistent assertions that the development of internally cohesive small groups that were linked to each other led to organizational success (Ouchi & Price, 1993). According to Bourgeois (1985), the diversity of views on objectives, competitive methods, and values were positively related to objective measures of performance. “Consensus” was defined as the degree of agreement among members of a management team about the relative importance of

individual objectives, competitive methods, or organizational values. The term “objectives” referred to the basic goals of a business such as profits, and sales growth.

Two additional studies by Bourgeois (1985) suggested that consensus on objectives may be negatively related to performance. Other studies addressed the relationship between value consensus and performance. Superior performance is the result of strongly held shared values (Barney, 1986; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982). Others suggested that the values-performance connection in their accounts of the success of the Japanese system of management (Ouchi, 1981; Pascale & Athos, 1981). Still others noted that values played a dominant role in strategic choices and decision making (Barnard, 1938; Child, 1972; Enz, 1989; Hambrick & Mason, 1984). Guth and Tagiuri (1965) concluded that top managers’ value systems strongly influenced their organizations’ performance.

In spite of the frequent suggestion that agreement on values influenced organizational performance, researchers did not empirically link value consensus to financial performance (Saffold, 1988). However, Parsons, et al. (1996) contributed a convincing argument which supported the relationship between value congruence and productivity.

Attempts to specifically focus on shared values, and empirically examine the relationship between value consensus and performance, were few and limited primarily to dyadic relationships (Atkins et al., 1998; Meglino et al., 1989) and personal values (Parsons, 1997).

When employees were essentially independent in performing their jobs, the attraction of interaction with congruent co-workers (Shaw, 1976) may have interfered

with job performance. Group cohesiveness that was socially oriented may have negative effects on performance (Goodman, et al, 1987). Conversely, Enz and Swenk (1991) determined that values were positively related to objective measures of performance when sub units work independently but share values in common with the individual subunit participants.

Ostroff (1992) collected data from 298 schools on employee satisfaction and attitude data. Employee satisfaction and attitude data were collected from 13,808 teachers within these schools. Correlation and regression analyses supported a strong relationship between employer satisfaction/attitudes and performance. Gross and Etzioni (1985) noted that “organizational rationality and human happiness go hand and hand” (p.4). So, causality may work in both directions.

A related issue was whether employee satisfaction and well-being were a measure of organizational performance, or a determinant of performance. In one model of organizational effectiveness, Pickle and Friedlander (1967) focused on employee satisfaction as one measure of organizational success. Research showed relationships between individuals commitment and performance (Meyer et al., 1984), commitment and turnover (Porter et al., 1974), stress and performance (Beehr & Newman, 1978), and stress and turnover (Parasuraman & Alluto, 1984).

Locke (1976) suggested that job satisfaction was partially determined by the degree to which the work environment allowed or encouraged value attainment. This implied that organizational work values, the work values emphasized within an organization, influenced the attractiveness of work environments to individuals. Ravlin and Meglino (1987b) examined the relationships among job satisfaction, organizational

commitment, and value orientations of workers and their supervisors. They reported greater job satisfaction and commitment when worker values were congruent with the values of their supervisors. If satisfaction was derived from a match between individuals' values and those emphasized in the organization (Meglino et al., 1989), presumably each individual made job choices to maximize his or her anticipated affect (Naylor et al., 1980).

Lower performance was just one possible response to dissatisfaction. Dissatisfied employees could also file a grievance, try to improve their performance, ask for a transfer, or beat their dog (Locke, 1984). Organizations that alienated workers through their practices might have been less effective and efficient. Satisfied employees usually worked harder and better than frustrated ones (Etzioni, 1964; Gross & Etzioni, 1985). These predictions were somewhat similar to those made regarding group cohesiveness and norms (Cartwright & Zander, 1968). Satisfied employees were more likely to engage in collaborative effort and accept organizational goals that could increase productivity, whereas dissatisfied employees either failed to work collaboratively or worked collaboratively but diverted effort away from the achievement of organizational goals. The bulk of evidence showed the correlation between satisfaction and performance was relatively low (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Locke, 1976; Vroom, 1964).

As set forth by Vroom, (1964) Expectancy Theory stated that the motivation to perform depended on (1) the momentary belief concerning the likelihood that a particular act resulted in a particular outcome (expectancy), (2) the perceived probability that a given level of performance resulted in the attainment of outcomes (instrumentality), and (3) the attractiveness or anticipated satisfaction derived from these outcomes (valences).

Because the cost of turnover and absenteeism was high, the effective functioning of the organization required prevention of such behaviors (Lawler, 1973). However, others have argued that turnover produced a higher level of output when unproductive employees were replaced with more productive employees (Mobley, 1982). Likert (1961) and McGregor (1960) determined that whether or not an employee gave his or her services wholeheartedly to the organization and produced up to potential, depended, in large part, on the way the worker felt about the job, fellow workers, and supervisors. Satisfaction and positive attitudes were achieved through maintaining a positive social organizational environment, such as by providing good communication, autonomy, participation, and mutual trust (Argyris, 1964; Likert, 1961).

Workplace Stress

Stress carried a negative connotation for some as though it were something to avoid. However, stress was a great asset in managing legitimate emergencies and achieving peak performance. Increased stress can provide a fight or flight response necessary to escape danger (Cannon, 1935). Additionally, the Yerkes-Dodson law (1908) indicated that stress led to improved performance up to an optimal point. Beyond the optimal point, further stress and arousal had a detrimental effect on performance. Therefore, healthy amounts of stress were desirable to improve performance by arousing a person to action. Extreme levels of stress proved detrimental, whereas moderate stress was necessary for biological and psychological function.

Occupational stress was a fairly contemporary topic with regard to the published literature. May (1992) and Burke (1986) reported the literature on occupational stress

prior to 1973 were of such limited volume that it was not listed as a key word in the Psychological Abstracts. In subsequent years, however, the body of literature devoted to occupational stress and coping resources for stress was greatly enhanced with numerous studies (Burke, 1986).

Stress researchers did not agree upon a definition for stress. May (1992) suggested that generalizations about stress were difficult because different people reacted in different ways and at different times to stress. Due to this perceived complexity with regard to the study of stress, many diverse disciplines and approaches were represented in the literature.

McGrath (1970) defined stress as a “substantial imbalance between an environmental demand and the response capability of the focal organism” (p. 17). Cox (1990) defined stress as a “psychological state derived from the person’s appraisal of the inability to cope with a demand” (p. 14). Lazarus and Launier (1978) regarded stress as any type of event “which strains or exceeds an individual’s ability to cope” (p.455). Lazarus and Folkman (1984) and Buunk, et al. (1993), viewed stress as a particular relationship between the person and the environment which was appraised by the person as taxing or exceeded his or her resources and endangered his or her well-being. Lazarus (1966), McGrath (1970), Cox (1978), and Lazarus and Folkman (1984) described stress as an interaction of the individual and the environment in which he lived.

One contribution to the study of occupational stress was conducted by the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan. Research was conducted by the Institute for the National Institute for Occupation Safety and Health, and published in 1975 as Job Demands and Worker Health. The research study developed a basis for exploring occupational stress and individual variables. This research study examined more

than 2000 men working in 23 occupations in terms of stress experienced and health consequences. Stress was negatively associated with health and positively associated with various other manifestations of strain such as boredom, job dissatisfaction, and attrition (Caplan et al., 1975). The National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health reported that stress was among the top ten leading work related problems.

Occupational stress affected job satisfaction, job performance, absenteeism, worker alienation (burnout), and attrition, as well as physical and psychological well being (May, 1992; Crouter & Manke, 1994; Brott, 1994). Research also established a strong link between occupational stress and health concerns (Balick & Herd, 1986; Fleming & Baum, 1986; Quick, Horn & Quick, 1986; Miller, 1988).

Since the compensability of mental or physical disorders due to on-the-job stress was established, stress claims have become the fastest growing category of worker compensation cases in the U.S. Mulcahy (1991) reports that between 1985 and 1990 the incidence of disabling stress more than doubled, and seven out of every 10 employees experienced stress illnesses often. "Hidden costs", which included legal fees, administrative costs, worker compensation, employee turnover, accidents and illness, increased actual costs by an estimated \$150 billion to the cost of stress in the workplace (Cooper & Cartwright, 1994).

Recent interest in the topic of stress increased with the linking of stress to such health related issues as mental illness, heart disease, stroke, immune system response, and possibly, cancer (Taylor, 1986). According to Marcus (1991), a typical stress claim was likely to be twice as costly as the average industrial injury claim. Gilbert (1991) also suggested that when a person uses energy to adapt to work stress, the aging process

became more rapid and serious illness developed because of immune system breakdown. He also stated that physical injuries increased as a byproduct of such mental stress.

Stress research identified three sources of stress which affected individual and group performance (Ianni & Ianni, 1983). These sources were the individual, the sociocultural environment, and the relationship between the individual and the organization in which he or she organized the work role. The ways in which members of an organization interacted with one another and coped with the inevitable conflicts of work life were derived from a set of shared views which shaped the ways members work with and treat one another (Ouchi, 1981; Schein, 1985).

The role of individual qualities in occupational stress was important on both political and legal grounds because of the burden of responsibility for its cost. Workers with high trait anxiety were expected to be more vulnerable to work demands than workers with low trait anxiety (Parkes, 1990). They were also reported to show higher overall levels of distress (Richardson, Burke & Leiter, 1992). Trait anxiety was found to be a direct predictor of strain, as shown by Morrison, et al. (1992) and Parkes (1990).

Burke (1992) recently pointed out that, despite the voluminous research literature on anxiety, "the organizational stress field has been relatively oblivious to both this body of work and the concept itself" (p. 3). It was widely recognized that a lack of stimulation and growth opportunities on the job was distressing (Alderfer, 1972; Maslow, 1943). Most models of occupational stress emphasized the role of the psycho-social work environment in the development of strain. For example, Karasek's Demands-Control model postulated that high demand combined with low decision making latitude had a

deleterious effect on well-being (Karasek, 1979). Some studies showed that social support acted as a buffer between work stressors and strain (Bromet et al., 1988).

Employee attitudes of job satisfaction (Kinicki et al., 1990) and organizational commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990) were positively related to supervisor ratings of performance and negatively related to intention to leave, turnover, and stress. Committed employees acted as they did because of their internalization of organizational norms and values (Buchanan, 1974), while less committed employees were viewed as less integrated into their organizations (e.g., alienated from them). Employees with high levels of commitment were termed fully socialized and were viewed as having internalized organizational values and as supporting organizational activities. Randall (1987) argued that high levels of commitment were dysfunctional for both individuals and for organizations. Kanungo (1979) suggested that alienation from, and involvement in, work activities were opposite faces of the same coin because when a person becomes too committed to a job that individual loses perspective on life outside of work.

As first noted by Adam Smith (1963, originally published in 1776) and later expanded upon by Karl Marx (1848), the employment relationship was essentially an exchange transaction. An employer was buying labor power (both mental and physical) in exchange for compensation and benefits. Indeed, a key aspect of Marxian economic theory was the breakdown of the working day between “necessary labor”, that working time necessary for the worker’s subsistence, and “surplus labor”, that period of the working day that produced economic surplus for the employer. Therefore, in a Marxian context the employer had some control over the employees’ time during the working day in order to

maximize the percentage of the working day which produced surplus labor (Marx, 1848; Gotthiel, 1963).

In support of Dahrendorf's Conflict Theory, French and Raven (1993) devised a model to reduce the basis of power: rewards, coercion, legitimate, expert, referent and persuasion. Kurt Lewin's conception of power was defined as "the possibility of inducing forces of a certain magnitude on another person" (p. 16). Such power extended over a broad span of that other person's potential activities, what Lewin would call the "power field" (Lewin, 1951). Huxley said that every great advance in natural knowledge involved the absolute rejection of authority (in Rawson & Miner 1988). There was a metamorphic effect of power upon the power holder, which help explained Lord Acton's observation that "power corrupts and absolute power corrupts absolutely" (Acton, 1948 originally published in 1887). Dahrendorf (1948) argued that conflict arose when power was exerted by leaders over subordinates. The term "Legitimate Power" originated from Max Weber, (1948) who implied that after all, "I am your supervisor, and you should feel some obligation to do what I ask" (p.267).

There was evidence that employees who were required to alter their behavior at work felt a loss of freedom and experienced attitude and behavior changes (Brehm, 1966). This response was true even if those actions were in line with guidelines for acceptable ethical behavior. In the work of Argyris, McGregor, and Likert, there was a consistent assertion that hierarchical organizations were naturally and inevitably hostile to the growth needs of individuals (Ouchi & Price, 1993). Complex organizations presented managers with tensions and conflicts that too often were resolved through an arbitrary use of power. Menzel (1993) discovered that ethics related stress in the workplace occurred when an

individual's ethics or standards differed from the ethics or ethical standards of the organization in which he or she was employed. This finding was consistent with the argument advanced by Peters and Waterman (1982) that high performing organizations were also highly ethical organizations. Absenteeism was portrayed as withdrawal from the stress of work, which allowed employees to adapt or cope more adequately with their social surroundings (Manning & Osland, 1989).

Job "burnout" became a defined health factor, with traceable relationships to performance and legal recognition as a cause of job disability (Koeske et al, 1993; Marcus, 1991). Burnout occurred after prolonged periods of high stress. In 1990, 12% of all job disability cases were stress-related. This was an increase from the 6% reported in 1982. Such cases translated into losses for employers, with the average cost for rehabilitating a stress-disabled worker of \$1,925 according to a study conducted for the period between 1982 and 1990. Additional stress-related losses were incurred because of employees who quit their jobs (14 percent); those who were less productive on the job as they reported it (17%); and those who had multiple stress-related illnesses (25%) (Northwestern National Life Insurance Company, 1991). The personal and financial costs of stress in the workplace were staggering.

Summary

Conflict Theory was the theoretical basis of the study. The theories of Marx, Weber, and Dahrendorf demonstrated the link between stress and the workplace. While their individual beliefs concerning the sources of conflict varied, their basic philosophies agreed that conflict resulted from various factors associated with people in working

relationships with others. These factors produced potentially negative consequences for worker and employer.

The literature review demonstrated a lengthy history of research regarding values. Much of the early research originated in psychology, sociology, political science, anthropology, and theology. Only within the past fifty years has the inquiry expanded into the world of business.

Values research transcended most every aspect of human business transactions today, expanding exponentially through the “information age” with recommendations for more.

Most authors agree that values play a role in the workplace, yet many disagree as to definition, theoretical construct or universal methods to analyze them. While much has been discovered about group values and the interplay of those values with individuals, little progress was made on designing or manifesting value change in workers or organizations.

A section dedicated to the development of a history for the target population of the study was explored. The associations of years of unresolved issues such as lack of budget, clear rules and expectations for the employees as well as leadership problems gave rise to the motivation for the study. Many factors associated with these problems stimulated complaints from the customers and increased stress levels, frustration, sense of safety, and desire to stay for many employees.

The review demonstrated various areas of interest of scholars as it related to values. A brief overview of the areas of interest follow.

Organizational values, were traced through its earliest days at the Research Center for Group Dynamics which created methods to help better working environments and established methods to measure human performance at work. This early research group inspired others to study to expand on the effects developed and subsequently expanded from this original project. Contemporary authors such as Deming, Schein, and Schneider continuously explored ongoing issues associated with values and the organization.

Organizational culture, was another area of study associated with values. Authors, Deal and Kennedy, Schein, Wilkins and Ouchi believed that to have a productive culture, employees needed to share the values of the organization. Others such as Chatman, Enz, Meglino, Ravlin and Adkins believed that cultures who had members who were similar to each other tended to be less creative and tolerant of newcomers or change.

Leadership research suggested that organizations tended to duplicate the values of the founding leader or that the values of most organizations were created and reinforced by the values held by upper management. These values seemed to perpetuate the hiring of those who closely resembled those leadership values.

Demographic issues were explored regarding the changes in values imposed by demographic changes in the population as a whole. The face of the worker in the 21st century will become older, more female, and more ethnically diverse. Personal experience of the workforce and cultural diversity will present challenges new to the field of organizational values research.

Ethical behavior and whistle-blowing, was explored through the work of Kohlberg by understanding the basic moral development levels which humans progress. The complexities of contemporary times have moved ethical dilemmas into new areas not

previously considered such as elder care, AIDS testing, drug testing and other areas considered personal in nature. Corporations have become caretakers of social reform. Theories associated with Organizational Citizenship Behavior defined why certain individuals feel the need to report the wrong doing of their individual organizations.

Organizational Change was evaluated to determine the association values were played on the structure, strategy and process of organizations. French and Bell suggested that values were an element of a successful change process. It was thought that values gave organizations their coherence, strength, and stability during times of change. Shamir indicated that most organizations unable to successfully adjust to change were often the result of a lack of common values. In contrast to those beliefs, Argyris argued that if organizations did not fight the tendency to hire newcomers with the same values they would be destined to fail because they did not develop tolerance to alternative ideas.

Costs and negative implications are associated with values in the workplace because of the difficulty in converting a value, which was an intangible variable into a tangible formula. Often business discounts the relationships from these intangibles to the bottom line.

Employee-organization fit, public sector commitment, and turnover were directly influenced by value congruence in the literature according to Wanous, Holton, Hackman and Oldman, Hulin and Blood. Research suggested that values played an instrumental role in the way people were chosen for employment as well as the motivation that drew individuals to a particular organization. A study by Adkins was examined in detail. Controversy in the literature suggested that values may or may not be different between private and public sector organizations. Some arguments differentiate between the value of

commitment in large versus small organizations. Value congruence appeared to affect turnover rates in employees only after the first two year initiation period. Those individuals who stayed with an organization were thought to share the values of the organization and worked harder because they felt more associated to the organization. Prior to the initiation period value congruence proved insignificant. Several aspects of productivity associated with congruence were carefully explored within the studies of Meglino, Parsons et al., and Adkins.

Communication and values were shared through the symbols, stories and language expressed in the workplace. These values were communicated through environmental cues and help to control confusion in an organization. It was believed that studying the communications of organizations enabled an individual to determine the organizational values. The statements shared by leadership through memos, handbooks, mottos, and mission statements contain the elements necessary to determine these values.

Performance measures were mixed regarding value congruence and productivity. Some authors suggested that congruence enhanced performance such as Waterman and Peters, Schein and Ouchi and Price. Others such as Bourgeois, Meglino, and Adkins suggested that congruence had the potential of restricting performance if job interrelatedness existed. It was thought that like values stimulated conversation and social time at the cost of performance. It appeared important to performance to determine the type of job duties an employee had before determining the benefits or detriments of value congruence.

Workplace stress has often been considered a negative overall. However evidence supported that stress must also be viewed as an enhancement to productivity, and to

stimulus to people. On the other side, stress in the workplace accounted for the largest growing number of workman compensation cases in business. The implications of workplace stress were wide reaching into the emotional, physical and spiritual makeup of workers. Research suggested that stress was reduced when employees were congruent with their supervisors and peers. Chapter III presents the procedures portion of the study.

CHAPTER III

PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to measure congruence between the employee values and the organizational values within the WSCJTC. There was also a focus on determining whether existing values in the agency were individually congruent with those of the employees, and the relationships of these values upon individual employee productivity and stress.

Instrument Selection

While a variety of psychological instruments surveyed many of the human values in the context of psychological development and adjustment, few limited their focus to values at work. People varied greatly between the values they preferred. Age and status, religion and education, as well as numerous personal and situational variables affected personal values. Despite the value overlap, occupations varied widely in the degree to which workers found opportunity for the realization of their individual values (Centers, 1949).

Many studies were conducted that indicated that values influenced a variety of work variables. Holland (1985), for example, described six types of individuals who sought out six types of environments that allowed them to exercise their skills and abilities, express their attitudes and values, and take on agreeable problems and roles.

Yates (in Nevill & Super, 1989) discovered that military personnel who possessed physical prowess were considered to be more valuable than enterprising personnel, demonstrating the effect of organizational values in employee selection. Research by Casserly (1983) concerning the values of different cultures within Canada demonstrated that differences in the two primary cultures were not due to some special genetic coding, or even to some unique process of socialization, but to what was required of a group to live successfully with the cultural majority. In studies of values and life changes, Baltes and Brim (1983), as well as Yates (in Nevill & Super, 1989), found that values varied with changing developmental tasks. Values inherent in the establishment stage were different from those in the growth stage. The former style might stress economic security while the later might value economic rewards.

Having an understanding of the vastness of values research and the associated application in utilitarian terms, it was easy to understand that finding an instrument that clearly measured specific values in a specific environment was difficult. Research concerning social interactions of values had the potential for confusion since many values shared similar definitions and meanings.

One contribution of a values measure was the light it shed on “what” a person wanted from life, including work, as distinct from “how” he or she directed energy to the attainment of those goals and needs (Nevill & Super, 1989).

An exhaustive review of value survey instruments was conducted by initially reviewing the literature with regard to instruments used in past research. Following this, a search of reference materials was conducted for the purpose of evaluating the test critiques of various instruments by a variety of academics. Once this process was

completed, a variety of methods were utilized and evaluated to obtain copies of the actual instruments for further review. In several cases instruments were proprietary and required purchasing before questions or manuals could be completed.

Numerous communications via e-mail and telephone were conducted with authors of these instruments and researchers who used them. Additionally, several university research directors and graduate students who conducted current research with these instruments were contacted. Once all instruments of interest were obtained and reviewed, a process of elimination began. Some were discarded because of theoretical construct problems, inappropriate questions for use in the current study, or vague reliability and validity in the instruments themselves. This narrowed the pool of eligibles to the following instruments: The Values Scale (Super and Nevill, 1986), Survey of Personal Values (Gordon, 1984), Survey of Work Values (Wollack, Gooddale, Wijting, Smith, 1970), Rokeach Values Survey (Rokeach, 1978), Temperament and Values Inventory (Johnansson & Webber, 1976), and the Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES) (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). Considering all these instruments, the CES was selected as the most appropriate measure.

Discussion between authors and researchers on the subject of “values measures” repeatedly raised disputes over a single definition for the term “value.” The differences associated with defining the term had the potential to negatively affect construct validity. Additionally, since no single instrument was developed that conquered the definition consensus issues, few authors have tried. As a result, only a small number of value instruments were available.

In a conversation Patricia Smith (1998), coauthor of the Survey of Work Values, she said that the definitions of the term “value” varied greatly. Some authors argued that values were needs, traits, feelings, behaviors, or even philosophical mind sets. Smith contended that theory, such as the one utilized in her instrument, Max Weber’s Protestant Work Ethic, provided the greatest aid for construct validity concerns. By linking value questions to existing theory, the task was made much easier. In this vein, Nevill and Super (1989) utilized this method by linking The Values Scale to a variety of career counseling theories. While their instrument suffered similar negative critiques concerning the definition of the term “value”, they were successful in developing construct validity through a series of links to counseling theory. This further supported Smith’s contention that,

When it comes to value instruments, there are few to choose from and unfortunately you are sometimes stuck with what is out there. Sometimes the construct validity problems cannot be resolved directly because of disagreement in definition of the terms. Some will even argue that the results of any research in this field of ‘values’ may be limited to the working definition you assign in the research design. Therefore you must restrict your definition to certain values and select one which measures those values to defend construct validity (Smith, 1998).

For help with this issue of definition, Super (1983) proposed bringing together the varied definitions of values, including traits, interests, and needs. He defined traits, interests, and values to be derivatives of needs. Needs become the actions necessary to meet interests, and actions became behaviors, such as how one conducted oneself, which may be called traits. These traits were manifested in certain activity to reflect interest. Values then, were the visual manifestations of a person’s needs.

Many of the values instruments reviewed for the study were ipsative scales. These ipsative scales were designed to force individual subjects to select one value at the cost of another value. Ipsative scales were appropriate measures to determine individual value preferences. Data from these scales cannot be used to produce comparisons between subjects since each subject is evaluated only against his or her individual scores.

Bruce Meglino, (1998) coauthor of the CES, argued that the selection of an ipsative measure over a normative measure was totally justified if preferences were for what was being measured, since ipsative forces a subject to select one item at the exclusion of the other. He provided an example for consideration. If a researcher wanted to measure television viewing selections for a group of people to develop a rank order of preferences, certain considerations would need to be determined. If the viewer was making a preference selection based on the "specific" content of what each television show provided, e.g. humor, educational benefits, or whether a particular show was suitable for young children, then the best instrument to measure this type of preference was normative. According to Meglino, if research is concerned with how an individual viewer makes a "general" preference choice, such as choosing a western over a drama, then an ipsative measure would be more appropriate. So the argument which circulated among value theorists, who insisted that ipsative or normative were always the appropriate measures, must have a clear understanding of which application was most appropriate for a research study. Since the current study was more interested in measuring a respondent's individual preference between two competing values, then the most appropriate choice for the research design was an ipsative measure. Considering the potential construct validity

issues concerning all values instruments and the theoretical framework of the current study, the CES was selected.

Instrument Development

The CES scale was developed by Bruce Meglino, Ph.D. and Elizabeth Ravlin Ph.D., of the Riegel and Emory Human Resource Research Center, Darla Moore School of Business, University of South Carolina. The CES measured four general work values of achievement, fairness, honesty, and helping and concern for others. These values were developed from the values research of Cornelius and others in 1985. The initial research was funded by a dozen corporations in America to create a sound empirical basis for the development of measuring instruments capable of assessing the extent to which personal and organizational values affected business outcomes. The research study focused on an analysis of 966 usable critical incident responses to an open-ended survey. The subjects were asked to focus on a co-worker that they knew well, then to name a value about life in general that they felt this person held, and finally, to describe an episode (the "critical incident") at work involving this person who illustrated why they think this person held this value.

Because the values, and the incidents used to measure them, were chosen on the basis of descriptions given to an unstructured, open-ended questionnaire administered in various work settings, and were therefore unlikely influenced by the effects of priming (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978).

Content analysis was conducted through two panels of judges who sorted out the responses by value categories. Seven categories were identified in descending order of

importance: achievement, concern for others, honesty/integrity, working hard, positive outlook, helping others, and fairness.

This research targeted more than 40 organizations throughout the United States which consisted of (43%) government, (5%) private nonprofit, (42%) private sector manufacturing, and (10%) private sector service organizations.

In the development of the CES scale, Ravlin and Meglino (1987a; 1987b) combined the critical incident questions obtained from the Cornelius, et al. (1985) survey with similar incident statements written by the authors to arrive at a number of behavioral statements which reflected each of the four values.

These incidents were edited into single-sentence items describing a specific behavior e.g. achievement: "doing whatever work is required to advance in your career." Additional questions were added to generate 25 items for each value. These items were developed by substitution of synonyms, changes in reference and intensity, and shifts in gender emphasis from the original behavior incidents. The 100 items were then rated for desirability by two separate expert panels for the extent to which each represented the value category in question. Forty-eight items were selected by the expert judges for inclusion in the forced-choice values questionnaire. To be selected, an item had to be assigned a score of at least a 3.5 based on a 5-point scale by the judges. Only those statements which were unambiguously classified under the appropriate value were used. This was done in order to obtain statements which matched in social desirability, helping respondents to select more independently. Other judges rated the statements for social desirability. For each pair of the 48 statements, judges were asked to choose the behavior that they felt should receive the greatest emphasis. Judges, therefore, could score a

maximum of 12 points on any particular value (1 point each time a particular value was chosen over another), but the total score for all four values could not exceed 24 points. Because each value was scored at the expense of another value in the pair, this measured yielded an ipsative rank ordering of the four values for each subject (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987b).

The hierarchical nature of values drove discussion regarding the work value construct and the appropriate manner in which the work values were assessed (England, 1975; Locke, 1976; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a, 1989; Rokeach, 1973). Specifically, it was argued that, although it was not difficult to order values by preference because they tended to be highly socially desirable, preference ordering was required (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a, 1987b, 1989). Additionally, social values may actually be very difficult for individuals to preference order transitively, i.e. at any given time for a specific situation, because they were all highly socially desirable. Because of this social desirability, many or all may be similarly positive, causing a respondent to be resistant to selecting one as more important than the other. Therefore, when making a compacted set of decisions, using values that seemed equally important, the decision maker attempted to balance his or her choices by selecting different values at different times.

The CES produced a transitive preference ordering of values, i.e. those values that were selected for a specific situation at a specific time, and were consistent with the theoretical approach that conceptualizes individual values as hierarchically organized (Locke, 1982; Ravlin & Meglino, 1989; Rokeach, 1973). Values research conducted by Hicks, 1970; Korsgaard, et al. (1996, 1997); Adkins, et al. (1994, 1996); McNeely and Meglino (1994); Bretz and Judge (1994); Judge and Bretz (1992); Meglino, et al. (1989,

1992); Ravlin and Meglino (1987a, 1987b, 1989) reported that their research subjects had responded in a generally transitive manner.

The CES was a forced-choice measure which yielded an ipsative rank-ordering of work value scores which were within subject measures. Ipsative scores presented unique problems if the desired observations needed to be manipulated in a normative manner because they produced only within respondent scores. Such raw scores cannot be utilized in between subjects applications without substantial difficulty (Hicks, 1970). In ipsative interpretation, the score (raw or standard) that the employee made on any of the four individual values scales of the instrument was compared with his or her scores on the other value scales of the same instrument. Ipsative interpretation therefore makes it possible to identify an individual's strong and weak values by comparing the person with him or herself, regardless of how others score. According to Hicks (1970) and Ravlin and Meglino (1989), if there was a need to utilize ipsative scores in normative research, a transformation had to be done by one of four methods: 1) Comparisons can be made from the scores obtained for a single variable, (Respondents of a certain age reported which of the four CES values to be their preference). 2) Scores can be transformed to standard scores, (Individuals can be coded in terms of their primary value preference of the four values tested, or each group of subject scores can be coded in terms of the primary value preference of the group of respondents sampled). 3) Conduct a Fisher's r to z transformation by deriving within-subject correlation coefficients and cumulating them by transforming them to z scores (Fisher, 1921). 4) Conduct a transformation of each rank order score into equal areas of the normal curve (Feather, 1975).

The CES instrument determined no right or wrong answers but only descriptive answers. Comparisons, often in the form of the profile of scores, permitted the analyses of the internal strength of the values measured. In this way the CES made it possible to ascertain the relative strength of the four values for the individual employee. Since ipsative instruments were within-measure scales they did not have the capacity to measure between-subject comparisons without some manner of transformation. Reliability derived from ipsative measures was not an issue, according to Ravlin (1998), because these scales were not looking for similarities or differences between subjects, but rather were concerned with preferences of values within the same individual. According to Ravlin (1998), a simple method to predict internal consistency of the instrument was to compute Cronbach's alpha each time the instrument was given (Cronbach, 1946).

Population

This was a population study (μ) of the employees of the WSCJTC with the total number of respondents being 58. Of this population, 44 participated in the survey process.

Research Design

The study was designed to examine the relationships of certain work values as they contributed to levels of productivity and stress in a public sector agency. The study did not pretend to exhaust the definitions of work values or attempt to explore the many potential values of social interactions.

The relationships of recent organizational change was built into the research design as a control variable. In order to determine the employee work values of the WSCJTC, a

population of 13 executives and 45 employees was asked to participate in the study. Ten out of 13 of the executive staff and 34 out of 45 employees agreed to participate. The 34 employees were administered two CES instruments and one demographic questionnaire. These surveys were conducted during a regularly scheduled monthly meeting held at the Burien, Washington campus location on January 22, 1999.

The ten executive staff members who participated were measured to determine the actual organizational values. According to Argyris, (1973), the actions of the chief operating authority were driven by the individual values of those leaders who constituted the organizational value structure understood by the employees. Therefore, in order to determine the organizational values of the WSCJTC, the CES needed to be administered to the executive director and the commissioners. The survey was conducted during a regularly scheduled commission meeting. While the commissioners were not paid, they influenced the direction of the organization by hiring the executive director and monitoring the mission and goals of the organization. The commissioners responded to the CES based upon their individual values. They did not complete a demographic questionnaire because they were not employees of the organization.

It was understood that this was a population case study and no inferences can be made beyond this specific study (Borg & Gall, 1983). The relationships between the variables were actual and not inferred. The relationship of a recent change in leadership was controlled in the design by adding questions, which pertained to changes in leadership, to the demographic survey.

Data Collection Procedures

The survey was administered during a regular monthly organizational meeting at the Burien Washington campus on January 22, 1999. An independent research assistant (IRA) administered the survey and proctored the collection procedure. The IRA read aloud the materials in the packet, assisting respondents who may have had reading or comprehension difficulty.

Each respondent randomly selected a sealed unmarked survey packet from the IRA. Inside each sealed packet, several attachments were coded with a unique number exclusive to the individual packet in order to insure that all instrument scores were sorted together. These coded numbers acted as a protective measure for confidentiality for the respondents. No specific identifying information such as name, social security number, or date of birth was requested of the respondents. Each packet contained a letter explaining the purpose of the study, including the right to refuse participation and the method used to protect the individual identity of the person: two consent forms, two copies of the CES instrument with instructions, and a separate demographic questionnaire. The demographic questionnaire asked for length of service, gender, age, employment status, employment type, stress and performance levels, the relationships which change in leadership contributed to individual stress, performance and satisfaction levels, and employee appraisals of values for themselves, the current organization, and the previous organization.

The IRA made no recommendations or suggestions, but reread any portion of the instructions that were requested for clarification. The contents of the packet were listed by the IRA to insure that all copies were present.

The IRA read the introduction letter, release form and “right to refuse participation” form. After the completion of the orientation portion of the packet, one copy of the release form was completed and collected by the IRA. The instructions were then read aloud concerning how to complete the first CES survey. Each employee was asked to determine his or her personal preferences for each of the 24 questions. Each question was read by the IRA and each respondent was given a few moments to answer. This process was followed for each of the 24 questions. The second CES survey was conducted similarly, except that the employees were asked to answer for the organization rather than for themselves.

Finally, the demographic sheet was completed in the same manner for each employee. Respondents answered a demographic questionnaire by marking the answer which best represented their situation. The questions asked for:

- 1) Length of service (less than 1 year, 1 thru 3 years, 3 thru 10 years, more than 10 years);
- 2) Gender (male, female);
- 3) Age (18 thru 25, 26 thru 35, 36 thru 45, 46 or more);
- 4) Current employment status (manager/supervisor, line officer/ trainer, administrative/clerical);
- 5) Employment type (full time or contract);
- 6) Current stress level at work (low, moderate, high, extremely high);

- 7) Self reported performance rating (Unsatisfactory performance = meeting the goals of the mission statement less than 70% of the time, Acceptable performance = meeting the goals of the mission statement 71-80%, Good performance = meeting the goals of the mission statement 81-90%, Excellent performance = meeting the goals of the mission statement 91-100%).
- 8) Organizational rating of your performance (Unsatisfactory, Acceptable, Good, Excellent).
- 9) Relationships of Leadership Change upon stress (decreased levels), (no change whatsoever), (increased levels), or Relationships of Leadership Change on productivity (increased levels), (decreased levels), or (no change whatsoever); Relationships of Leadership Change on satisfaction (decreased levels), (no change whatsoever), or (increased levels).
- 10) Self appraisal of value preference: (achievement), (fairness), (concern for others), or (honesty); Appraisal of value preference of current organization: (achievement), (fairness), (concern for others), or (honesty); Appraisal of value preference of the previous organization: (achievement), (fairness), (concern for others), or (honesty).

The respondents placed their completed materials into a manila envelope provided.

The respondents sealed their individual envelopes and placed them into a box, outside of the exit door. The IRA transported the box, unopened, to the primary investigator. The raw data from the CES were scored according to the manufacturer's key.

A process similar to that utilized with employees was conducted with the executive director and the commissioners. Since the commissioners met on a regular basis, the survey was conducted at the regular January 1999 meeting. A letter was sent to each member, in advance of the meeting, which explained the purpose of the study and the reason for the requested participation. Each commission member was given a sealed survey packet including a duplicate letter of the one previously mailed which explained the purpose of the study; two copies of a release form, including the right to refuse participation; one copy of the CES survey; and an unmarked manila envelope in which to place the responses. The IRA asked the respondents to open their packets, read the purpose letter, sign the release form, and forward the release form to the IRA. All participating commissioners answered the CES based upon their individual value preferences. No demographic information was given or collected. At the end of the meeting, the commissioners deposited their sealed surveys in a box provided outside of the exit door. The organizational CES surveys were coded uniquely from the employee codes in order to separate the organizational scores from the employee scores. The IRA transported the box, unopened, to the primary investigator for tabulation. The raw data from the CES were scored according to the manufacturer's key.

Data Analysis Techniques/Statistical Method

The answers to the demographic questions were converted to numerical codes. For example, stress scores were coded by number: no answer = 0, low = 01, moderate = 02, high = 03 for all questions.

This was a population case study using descriptive statistics to answer the research questions. The statistical methods utilized included comparing means, standard deviations, plots, and graphs. A consistency index (Barnes, 1999) was used to estimate reliability from the internal consistency of the scores obtained from the employees and executive staff members. No sampling error existed since this was a population study.

The scoring procedures were explained in this section. Each forced choice item required respondents to select one value over another. As there were four values (honesty, concern for others, achievement, and fairness), there were six possible pairings of items (honesty/concern for others; honesty/achievement; honesty/fairness; concern for others/achievement; concern for others/fairness; achievement/fairness). Since the CES was a 24-item scale, this resulted in four items per pairing (e.g., four items required the respondent to choose between honesty and concern for others; another four items forced a choice between honesty and achievement, and so on). Each item appeared in a pairing with every other value, and all values appeared an equal number of times. To enable an inter-individual comparison, a nominal scoring procedure was selected for this study (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987; Cattell, 1944). The procedure was to count the number of times each value was selected by a respondent and totaled. The value selected most by a respondent became that respondent's preferred value. The cumulative individual scores from the executive staff were averaged to create a single preferred organizational value.

To measure reliability a consistency index (Barnes, 1999) was constructed by isolating six indexes with four questions each within the CES questionnaire. Index one consisted of questions 1, 12, 17, and 22 concerned with achievement and fairness; index two consisted of questions 2, 7, 18, and 23 concerned with honesty and concern for

others; index three consisted of questions 3, 8, 13, and 24 concern for others and fairness; index four consisted of questions 4, 9, 14, and 19 honesty and achievement; index five consisted of questions 5, 11, 16, and 21 concerned with fairness and honesty; index six consisted of questions 6, 10, 15, and 20 concerned with achievement and concern for others. For each set of four values there were sixteen possible outcomes: two ways to have 100% consistency (i.e., all four the same), eight ways to have 75% consistency (3 the same), six ways to have 50% consistency (2 of each). Based on this there would be a .125 probability of marking all four the same (that is, 2 out of 16); .50 probability of marking 3 the same (that is 8 out of 16); .375 probability of marking 2 the same (that is 6 out of 16). Multiplying the probabilities by the percentage agreements and adding: $[\.125 \times 100] + [\.50 \times 75] + [\.375 \times 50] = 68.75$. Therefore, 68.75 was the percentage agreement which was expected by chance alone. According to Carmines and Zeller, (1979) using percentages to validate internal consistency was appropriate. The CES scores for the six indexes needed to exceed 68.75 to be reliable. The higher the consistency the greater the reliability.

The following were specific methods conducted in order to answer the research questions.

Research Question #1 - *Were the organizational values of the WSCJTC congruent with the personal values of the employees of the WSCJTC?* The overall organizational value preference score was compared with each employee's individual highest value preference score to determine if they were congruent. A frequency distribution of the employees' preferred values along with a frequency distribution of the

executive staff values was given. Then the executive staffs' individual scores were averaged and the value with the highest average was reported as the organizational value preference. Finally the organizational value preference was compared with the individual employee preferred values which reported the percentage of employees whose values matched, were congruent with, the organization's preference value.

Research Question # 2 - *Was there a relationship between work place stress and value congruence within the agency?* To determine whether workplace stress and value congruence were related, the following methods were utilized. A two by three factorial design was conducted. The dependent variable was the stress levels associated with change in leadership from the demographic survey. The independent variables were value congruence from the CES. Tables of means and standard deviations and interaction plots were presented to evaluate the main interaction relationships of these variables.

Research Question #3 - *Was there a relationship between performance levels, workplace stress, and value congruence in the WSCJTC?* To determine whether performance, and value congruence were related, the following methods were utilized. A two by three factorial design was conducted. The dependent variable was the performance levels associated with change in leadership from the demographic survey. The independent variable was value congruence from the CES. Tables of means and standard deviations were presented. Differences in group means were plotted which evaluated the main interaction relationships of these variables.

Research Question #4 - *Were the employees' perceptions of the organizational values different from the actual organizational values determined by the executive staff?*

To determine whether the employees' perceptions of the organizational values differed from the actual organizational values, the following methods were utilized. The overall organizational value preference score was compared with each employees' perception about the organizational value preference score to determine if they were congruent. A frequency distribution of the employees' preferred values along with a frequency distribution of the employees' perception about the organizational value preference was given. Finally the percentage of employees whose values matched were congruent with, the organization's preference value was reported.

Summary

When construct validity issues were considered on all values instruments and the theoretical framework of the current study, the CES was selected. The CES scale was developed by Bruce Meglino, Ph.D. and Elizabeth Ravlin Ph.D., (1987) of the Riegel and Emory Human Resource Research Center, Darla Moore School of Business, University of South Carolina. The CES measured four general work values of achievement, fairness, honesty, and helping and concern for others. The CES produced a transitive preference ordering of values by utilizing a forced-choice measure yielding an ipsative rank-ordering of work value scores which were within-subject measures. The study was designed to examine the relationships of certain work values as they contributed to levels of productivity and stress in a public-sector agency. A variety of descriptive statistical methods was used, including comparing means, standard deviations, plotting, and

graphing, rank ordering. There were four fundamental research questions which were examined and referenced in detail above. Chapter IV presents the findings of the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of the study was to measure the relationships of value congruence between the employees and the organization. Furthermore, the study looked at the relationship the four values measured by the CES instrument had contributed to various work measures at the WSCJTC with specific interest in performance and stress levels.

The demographic data were collected on employees only and not executive staff. A total of 34 employees and 10 executive staff members participated in the study. The mean scores for each variable of the population were noted in Table I. There were 18 women and 16 men who participated in the study. Twenty-two out of 34 employees had completed three years or less of employment. Twenty-seven out of 34 were full time employees and the remaining seven were independent contractors from other agencies. Thirteen employees were managers, seven were trainers, and 14 were administrative/clerical.

Each participant completed a CES value instrument (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987), which measured four general work values: achievement, fairness, concern for others, and honesty. The ten individual executive staff scores from the CES were averaged and reported as an aggregate organizational value preference, which was fairness.

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF DEPENDENT VARIABLES, INDEPENDENT
VARIABLES, CONTROL VARIABLES, AND VARIABLES
OF SECONDARY INTEREST

Variables	N	Label
<u>Independent</u>		
03	34	CES Organization by CES Employee
<u>Dependent</u>		
11	34	Current Employee Stress Level
12	34	% Meeting Mission
13	34	% of Time the Employee Meets the Mission
<u>Control</u>		
14	34	Stress Levels Related to Change in Leadership
15	34	Performance Levels Related to Change in Leadership
<u>Secondary</u>		
00001	10	Executive Staff Values
01	34	Actual CES Organizational Value
02	34	Actual CES Employee Value
04	34	Perceived Organizational CES Value
05	34	Actual Employee CES vs Perceived Organization
06	34	Actual Organizational CES vs Perceived Organization
07	34	Length of Service of Employees
08	34	Gender
09	34	Employment Type
10	34	Employment Type
16	34	Satisfaction Levels Related to Change in Leadership
17	34	Employee Appraisal of Self
18	34	Employee Appraisal of Previous Organization
20	34	Actual Employee CES vs Employee Appraisal
21	34	Perceived Organization vs Employee Appraisal
22	34	Employee Self Appraisal vs Employee Appraisal
23	34	Employee Self Appraisal vs Employee Appraisal
24	34	Employee Appraisal of Current Organization

The reliability of the CES instrument was determined by the use of a consistency index. The following were the results for the six sub-scales: #1 = 72% for questions 1,12,17, 22, achievement and fairness; #2 = 68.47% for questions 2, 7, 18, 23, concern for others and honesty; #3 = 73.72% for questions 3, 8, 13, 24, concern for others and fairness; #4 = 72.73% for questions 4, 9, 14, 19, honesty and achievement; #5 = 72.73% for questions 5, 11, 16, 21, fairness and honesty; and finally, #6 = 77.70 % for questions 6, 10, 15, 20, concern for others and achievement. All scales exceeded the probability of 68.75% expected for chance, except scale # 2 which reached 68.47%. The reason that scale # 2 failed to meet the probability standard was not determined. The average score for all six scales was 72.89%. The reliability for the instrument was acceptable.

The purpose of this study was to measure the relationship of value congruence between the employees and the organization. The four research questions were: 1. Were the organizational values of te WSCJTC congruent with the personal values of the employees of the WSCJTC? 2. Was there a relationship between workplace stress and value congruence within the WSCJTC? 3. Was there a relationship between performance levels, workplace stress, and value congruence in the WSCJTC? 4. Were the employees' perceptions of the organizational values different from the actual organizational values determined by the executive staff?

In order to determine if the organizational values were congruent with the employee values, the scores of the organization and the employees were compared. This was accomplished by counting the CES scores of the executive staff. Seven of the executive staff selected fairness, two selected honesty, and one selected concern for

others, zero selected achievement. The modal response for the executive staff was determined to be fairness.

The employee scores on the CES were counted with the following results: Seven employees were achievement oriented, 11 were fairness oriented, five were concern for others oriented, and 11 were honesty oriented. These employee scores were then compared to the organizational value preference of fairness. This was done by taking the mean scores of the employees and comparing those to the mean score for the organization. Only those employees who selected fairness were congruent, all others were incongruent.

Based upon the above analysis of this small population, 23 of 34 employees scored incongruently with the values of the organization, and 11 scored congruently. Approximately 66% of the employee values were incongruent with those of the organization. The results were that the majority of the employee values were not congruent with the values of the organization.

The second research question for this small population was whether or not value congruence related the stress levels of the employees. In order to determine the effects of value congruence on current stress levels at the WSCJTC, a comparison of means was completed. Employees who identified themselves as having values congruent with the organizational values and employees who identified themselves as having values incongruent with those of the organization were compared at the decreased, unchanged, and increased levels of stress. (See Table II).

In Table II, employees who identified themselves as congruent with the organizational values were compared with employees who identified themselves as

incongruent with the organizational values. This comparison was done at three levels which was associated with the change in leadership: decreased, unchanged, and increased. The method utilized was the comparison of the mean scores for those employees who identified their values as congruent with the organizational values and those who identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values at three change levels. Those employees who identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values scored

TABLE II
EFFECTS ON CURRENT STRESS OF VALUE
CONGRUENCE WITHIN LEVELS OF
STRESS CHANGE

Stress	Congruent			Incongruent			Overall		
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n
Increased	.50	.58	4	1.27	.65	11	.89	.62	15
Decreased	2.0	.82	4	2.20	.45	5	2.10	.63	9
Unchanged	2.67	.59	3	2.49	.53	7	2.55	.53	10
Overall	1.72	.64	11	1.97	.54	23	1.84	.59	34

higher current stress at the decreased (2.20) and increased (1.27) levels than did those employees who identified their values as congruent with the organizational values. Those employees who identified their values as congruent with the organizational values had higher current stress at the unchanged (2.67) level than did those employees who

identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values. However, the difference was small.

In Table II, the simple effects for stress and congruence were noted. The overall mean scores of employees who identified their values as congruent with the organizational values (1.72) were compared to the overall mean scores of employees who identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values (1.97). The greatest relationship was noted for those employees who identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values. These data supported the position that values have a relationship with the stress levels of employees at the WSCJTC.

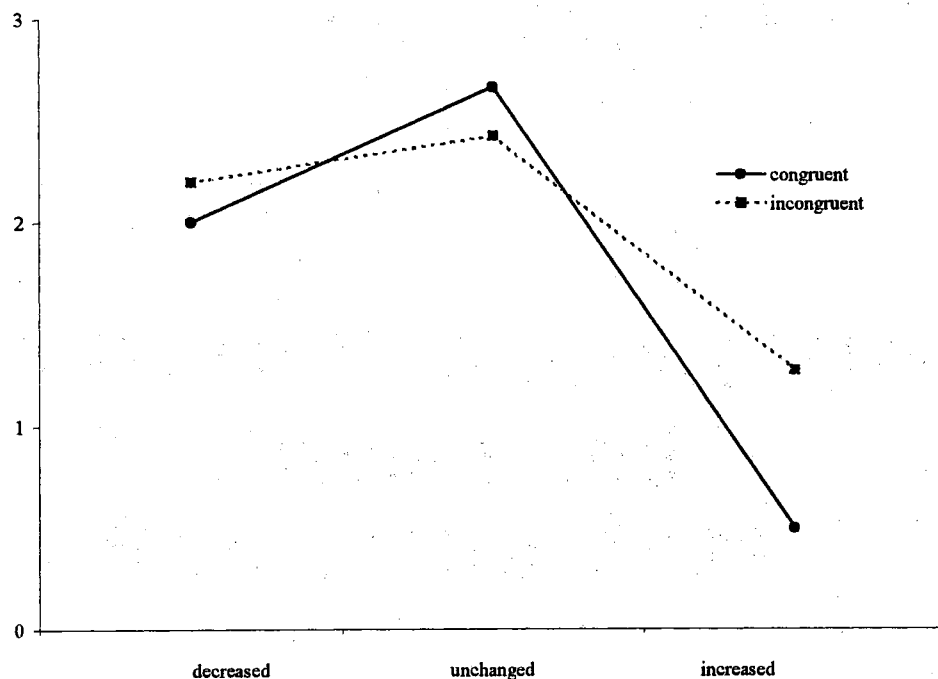


Figure 1. Relationship of Congruence at Levels of Stress Change

The third research question for this small population concerned the association of value congruence on performance at the WSCJTC. To analyze the data, the mean scores for employees who identified their values as congruent with the organizational values were compared with the mean scores of employees who identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values at the three change levels: decreased, unchanged and increased (See Table III).

In Table III, the employees who identified themselves as incongruent with the organizational values met the mission more often than employees who identified their values as congruent with the organizational values. The employees who identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values met the mission at the decreased levels (4.00) and the increased (3.67) levels associated with change than did employees who identified their values as congruent with the organizational values.

Employees who identified their values as congruent with the organizational values met the mission at the unchanged level (4.00) associated with change. The largest goal attainment of meeting the mission was for those employees who reported that their job performance had not changed as a result of the change in leadership. The results of the analysis of the data were that the performance levels of the employees of the WSCJTC had a relationship with value congruence.

TABLE III
 RELATIONSHIPS TO MEETING THE MISSION BY
 CONGRUENCE FOR LEVELS OF
 PERFORMANCE CHANGE

Stress	Congruent			Incongruent			Overall		
	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n
Increased	3.33	.58	3	4.00	.00	1	3.67	.29	4
Decreased	4.00	.00	2	3.00	.82	4	3.50	.41	6
Unchanged	3.67	.52	6	3.44	.62	18	3.56	.57	24
Overall	3.67	.37	11	3.48	.48	23	3.58	.42	34

The fourth and final research question for this small population was whether the employee perceptions of the organizational values were congruent with the employee values. It was necessary to compare the scores from the CES for the employees to the scores from the employee perceptions regarding the organization.

The results were that 16 employees appraised the organization as achievement oriented, two as fairness oriented, one as concern for others oriented, and 15 honesty oriented. Only two employees perceived the organizational values as what they were. The results of employee CES scores were as follows: Seven were achievement oriented, 11 were fairness oriented, five were concern for others oriented, and 11 were honesty oriented. A comparison of the employee perceptions and the employee CES scores was noted. A results was that 23 out of 34 employees perceived the organizational value

preferences as incongruent with their individual value preferences. The employees did not perceive the organizational values as congruent with their individual values.

Having looked at the four primary research questions, six supporting findings were reported. These supporting findings were not the original purpose of the study but were added as they were discovered in the study.

The first finding was noted by counting the frequency of the mean scores associated with crossing the variables of tenure and current stress. Employees who experienced the most extreme level of stress within the organization were also employees who had the longest tenure. Of those employees, two had length of service of 10 years or more, one had length of service from three to ten years. Those employees who scored extreme stress also had the longest tenure and were managers.

The employee appraisal scores regarding the value preference of the organization were counted. Sixteen employees selected achievement, two selected fairness, one selected concern for others, and 15 selected honesty. Two out of 34 employees appraised the organization as it was. Employee appraisals were incongruent with the value preference orientation of the organization as it was determined by the CES instrument.

The employee appraisal scores regarding their personal value preferences were counted. These employee appraisal scores were compared with the employee value preference scores from the CES. Twenty-six employees selected honesty, two selected fairness, and six selected achievement. The employee value preference scores from the CES were as follows: Seven selected achievement, 11 selected fairness, five chose concern for others, and 11 chose honesty. The employee CES scores and the employee appraisal scores were incongruent with each other.

The fourth supporting finding compared satisfaction levels with tenure, stress, and goal attainment. The length of service for each employee was counted. Eleven employees had less than one year of service, 11 employees had between one to three years of service, six employees had between three and five years of service, and six employees had more than 10 years of service. Seventeen employees with less than three years of service and five employees with more than three years of service scored increased satisfaction levels. Five employees with three years of service scored decreased satisfaction. Five employees with three years or less service scored unchanged satisfaction.

Employee satisfaction levels were compared with current stress levels. For those employees who reported increased satisfaction, five reported low stress, 12 reported moderate stress, and five reported high stress. Among those employees who reported unchanged satisfaction, two reported low stress, three reported moderate stress, and two reported high stress. For those employees who reported decreased satisfaction, two reported high stress and three reported extreme stress.

Employee satisfaction levels were compared with the percentage of time the employees met the mission statement. For those employees who scored increased satisfaction, one reported meeting the mission 71-80% of the time, nine reported meeting the mission 81-90% of the time, and 12 reported meeting the mission 91-100% of the time. For those employees who scored a decrease in satisfaction, three reported meeting the mission 81-90% of the time, and two reported meeting the mission 91-100% of the time. For those employees who reported unchanged satisfaction levels, one reported meeting the mission 71-80% of the time, two reported meeting the mission 81-90% of the time, and four reported meeting the mission 91-100% of the time.

Summary

This chapter stated the results of the descriptive statistics which were observed. The purpose of the study was to determine what relationships the four values, measured by the CES instrument, contributed to workplace measures of performance and stress. There were four major findings of the study. The first finding was that the organizational values were incongruent with the employee values. The second finding was that value congruence related to the stress levels of the employees of the WSCJTC. The third finding was that values related to the performance levels of the employees. The fourth finding was that employee perceptions about the organization were incongruent with the employee values. Other supportive findings were reported for informational purposes.

Chapter V presents the summary of the study, the conclusions, the recommendations for further research, the recommendations for professional practice and implications.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Employee productivity measures may be substantially related to opinions about the value congruence between employees and the organization. The purpose of this study was to measure congruence between the employee values and the organizational values within the WSCJTC.

Summary of the Study

There were four major findings for the study. The first finding was that organizational values were incongruent with the values of the employee. The second finding was that value congruence had a relationship with the stress levels of the employees of the WSCJTC. The third finding was that values related to the performance levels of the employees. The fourth finding was that employee perceptions about the organization were incongruent with employee values.

The first finding was that the values of the employees of the WSCJTC were incongruent with the values of the organization. At the time of data collection, two thirds of the employees in the organization were new hires. One third worked for the agency three years or more. The value congruence levels of the organization were still crystalizing

(Holton, 1995; Chatman, 1991; Adkins et al., 1994) and the majority of the employees were still in the socialization period following entry (Van Maanen and Schein 1979). The literature supports the idea that the values of the employees were incongruent with the values of the organization.

There were other possible explanations found in the literature for the incongruence in values. Values were socially desirable constructs (Fallding, 1965; Kluckhohn, 1951; Mirels & Garrett, 1971; Wollack et al., 1971). The newer employees with three years or less of service, and who identified themselves as having values congruent with the organization, felt better about their socialization process with the organization than did employees who were newer and identified themselves as having values incongruent with the organization. Schein (1984) described this incongruence as a negative socialization process or a lack of cultural unity. Durkheim described the incongruence as “anomie,” the lack of a consensus about certain values or goals (Durkheim, 1966). Both Schein’s and Durkheim’s comments were illustrative of differences in the stress levels between these newer employees and the differences in satisfaction (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Deal and Kennedy, 1982) for these newer WSCJTC employees. Often employees felt disconnected as a result of a lack of cultural unity, met their need for affiliation in other areas of their lives (Ouchi & Price, 1981).

Employees who identified themselves as having values which were incongruent with the values of the organization often left the organization, looking for a better fit (O’Reilly and Caldwell, 1981; Chatman, 1991). While it is not understood why 18 employees left the organization, it could be extrapolated from those who remained that

employees who identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values left the organization looking for a better fit (See Appendix C).

O'Reilly, et al. (1991) found that new employees who identified themselves as having values either congruent or incongruent with the organizational values left the organization at about the same rates in the first 20 months. After 20 months, the employees who identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values left the organization six times more often than those employees who identified their values as congruent with the organization. Many of the newer employees at the WSCJTC who had not reached this 20-month mark may not have understood the need to find more compatible surroundings.

Many organizations like the WSCJTC have assigned negative performance and satisfaction ratings when employees felt a lack of cultural unity. This fact was demonstrated by the management literature on the subject. Authors such as Meglino, et al. (1989; 1992), Ravlin & Meglino (1987; 1989), and Adkins, et al. (1994) discovered that those employees who worked in independent job tasks produced better than employees who worked in more dependent job tasks. Independent job tasks presented new challenges to the cultural unity of an organization and so threatened to increase the turnover rates. This turnover did not allow the social structure to crystallize as noted by Holton (1995), Chatman (1991), Adkins, et al. (1994), and Van Maanen and Schein (1979). This lack of crystallization with the new employees led to incongruence in the values.

According to Workplace 2000, the location and maintenance of qualified employees is the single greatest challenge (Eichar et al., 1991). Finding methods to hold qualified workers would require new approaches from social and behavior science to deal

with job independence and the isolation associated with these job tasks (Burke, 1982, 1987). The costs associated with hiring and training new employees at the WSCJTC were a concern for the agency.

Additional cost concerns were: In the previous administration the lack of attention to hiring and the failure to adequately train staff resulted in a variety of costs. The agency continues to be plagued by litigation originating from the problems of the previous administration. Litigation costs associated with poor management decisions, tolerance of sexual harassment and discrimination issues, widespread gender biases, a lack of policy, the abusive treatment of the staff, the unsafe working conditions, and a lack of accountability for both management and staff were a primary cost concern. The new director was appointed with a clear directive to clean house and address these workplace issues. The new leadership established a policy of "no tolerance" to perpetrators of these abuses. Many of the litigants named in these employee law suits left the agency almost immediately after the new director arrived. Since then many policies have been created that have established guidelines for the treatment and protection of staff as well as behavior and performance guidelines for staff.

Research indicated that value congruence between employees and the organization increased job satisfaction (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Parsons et al., 1996; Chapman, 1989; 1991; Weick, 1985), and reduced stress (Caplan et al., 1975), but was negatively associated with performance in certain job types (Meglino et al., 1989 1992; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987, 1989; and Adkins et al., 1994). It was apparent that with the lack of value congruence in the WSCJTC, it would be necessary to take some action if job satisfaction and stress are to be reduced.

The second finding was that value congruence had influenced stress levels at the WSCJTC. Most employees who identified themselves as having values incongruent from those of the organization reported higher levels of current stress than did employees who identified themselves as having values congruent with those of the organization. The exceptions were those employees who identified themselves as sharing values congruent with those of the organization or as unrelated to the change in leadership. Such employees demonstrated the highest current stress levels for the agency. Stress reaction, according to Yerkes and Dobson (1908), was the catalyst for peak performance. It was thought that those employees who demonstrated high stress and high performance were experiencing such a stress reaction.

According to Nystrom and Starbuck (1984), manager values triggered or amplified organizational crisis and stress. Managers who identified their values as incongruent with the organization triggered stress reactions in their subordinates. Manager values over time influenced the employee perceptions concerning the organization (Schockley-Zababak, Eisenberg & Riley, 1988).

According to Bowers (1973), persons caused environments at least as much as environments caused persons. If the employees at the WSCJTC, with the longest lengths of service, felt the most stress and the least amount of satisfaction, it could be said that these employees were creating their own misery. But Schein (1987) argued that dissatisfaction increased frustration, which resulted in elevated stress. Employees may have created an environment for themselves that restricted their abilities to perform and to maintain a good work attitude. It was assumed that value incongruence led to this dissatisfaction, and the resulting stress was self generated. The fact that persons caused

environments and environments caused persons illustrated the interrelatedness of employee stress within an organization.

The number of sick leave hours taken by employees who had more than ten years length of service was twice the number of hours taken by all other tenure categories (See Appendix O). Generally, employees who took increased levels of sick leave demonstrated higher stress and used that time to escape feelings of stress and anxiety associated from the workplace according to May (1992), Crouter and Manke (1994), Brott (1994), Kinicki et al. (1990), and Kanungo (1979). Since this second finding noted that value congruence influenced stress, this was a reinforcement of the position that the individuals who had longer lengths of service and identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values experienced the most stress.

Posner and Schmidt (1987) argued that personal and organizational values of individuals became more similar the longer the individual was associated with an organization. Meglino et al. (1989, 1992), Ravlin and Meglino (1987, 1989), and Adkins et al. (1994) argued that this was true only if the job tasks were interdependent. All of the employees with the longest lengths of service, and who thereby had experienced the greatest exposure to the previous administration, currently work exclusively in independent job tasks, according to personnel records. This limited interdependence did not create similar values over time, as Posner and Schmidt (1987) eluded because these employees spend little time with the administration or other employees. These same employees also identified themselves as having values incongruent with the previous administration. In review of the personnel records for that time the same employees also worked independent job tasks then. This further supported Meglino et al. (1989, 1992),

Ravlin and Meglino (1987, 1989), and Adkins et al. (1994) contention that job task independence does not create similar values over time as Posner and Schmidt (1987) argued. These employees had high levels of stress and identified themselves as having values incongruent with both the current and the previous organization.

The current stress levels associated with longer tenured employees were the result of value congruence associated with job independence. The extreme levels of current stress reported by longer tenured employees was attributed to placing these employees into closer contact with newer employees as well as the new administration. Although these employees were not congruent with the previous administration, they were incurring greater stress because of the changing organizational philosophy and increased work demands. This new philosophy was perceived to limit their autonomy and resulted in increased stress for these employees.

Since departures could be the result of turnover associated with value conflicts (Bluedorn, 1982; Mowday & Steers, 1979; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986) and associated stress, it was concluded that these factors led, in part, to the exodus of a number of employees at the leadership change. During the initial 18 months of the new administration, 18 employees left the organization. Ten of these employees had a length of service of five years or more, two had less than three years, one had less than one year and six were temporary (See Appendix C).

The increased stress levels associated with employees who identified their values as incongruent with the organization often resulted in communication difficulties (Trice & Beyer, 1984), or in operating in a conflicted culture (Dean, 1995a; Schein, 1985; Chatman, 1989; 1991; Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Karp & Abramms, 1992). Sometimes stressed

individuals worked in a negative organizational climate associated with increased job demands (Joyce & Slocum, 1984; Adkins et al., 1994) or suffered from an inequitable distribution authority (Dahrendorf, 1948), or simply struggled with being new (Holton, 1995). All of those factors related to value incongruence and stress.

Since the majority of the employees at the WSCJTC identified themselves as having values that were incongruent with the organizational values, the potential for high levels of stress always existed (Rousseau, 1990; Trice & Beyer, 1993). The results of this finding show that the levels of stress and value incongruence were present at WSCJTC.

The third finding was that value congruence related to performance. The customers' satisfaction ratings and the employees' performance levels were poor prior to the change in leadership in 1997 (See Appendix H). To better understand the results of the study. Further explanation of the variables was needed. The dependent variable was performance associated with change in leadership (decreased, unchanged and increased). The independent variables were (a) the percentage of time employees met the mission (less than 70%, 71-80%, 81-90%, and 91-100% of the time) and (b) value congruence between the employees and the organization (congruent, or incongruent). The examinations of the variables support the finding that value congruence had an influence on performance.

Since the hiring of a new executive director, employees who identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values reported the largest percentage of meeting the missions. The employees who identified their values as incongruent with the organization and reported that their individual performance levels were unchanged or increased as a result of the change in leadership met the mission a high percentage of time. Those employees who identified their values as congruent with the organizational values

and reported that their personal performance was less than usual because of the change in leadership, were still able to achieve a high percentage of meeting the missions.

According to the corporate culture literature of Deal and Kennedy (1982), Peters and Waterman (1982), Chapman (1989; 1991), and Weick (1985) value congruence between the organization and employees produced increased performance because satisfied employees usually worked harder and better than frustrated employees (Etzioni, 1964; Gross & Etzioni, 1985). Since finding three noted that value congruence related to performance, this indicated that employees who identified their values as incongruent with their organization were possibly frustrated.

Ravlin and Meglino (1989; 1992), Adkins et al. (1992; 1994; 1996), and Parsons et al. (1996) pointed out that value congruence between the employee and immediate supervisor was reliable in determining performance levels of employees. When the employees identified with the values of their supervisor they performed better. Since the relationship between the supervisor and the employee was not explored in the study, it was not possible to make the linkage of performance to value congruence with the employee and the immediate supervisor. Only if the immediate supervisor shared the values of the employee could that have been supported.

According to the corporate culture literature cited above, the performance levels at the WSCJTC would be expected to have been higher for those employees who identified themselves as sharing the organizational values and lower for the employees that identified themselves as not sharing the organizational values. Since the performance levels were high for both groups these explanations were doubtful. The findings of Ravlin and Meglino (1989; 1992), Adkins et al. (1992; 1994; 1996), and Parsons et al. (1996)

explained these mixed findings by indicating that the employees shared the values of their supervisors and therefore performed better. These employees may or may not have shared the values of the organization in this instance.

An alternative view held by Meglino et al. (1989; 1992), Ravlin and Meglino (1987; 1989), Adkins et al. (1992; 1994; 1996), Bretz et al. (1989), and Enz and Swenk (1991) seemed appropriate. These authors demonstrated that job performance levels that were associated with value congruence, was dependent upon what type of job task dependence the employee had. When job interdependence was high, value congruence was positively related to ratings of work habits and personal characteristics. When task interdependence spanned work unit boundaries, value congruence led to greater coordination among work units.

Even so, close interaction held potential for negative consequences. When employees worked closely, they tended to spend more time on social interaction which took time away from work duties (Goodman et al., 1987). These close relationships reinforced intensely held beliefs about how work should be done (Van Maanen & Barley, 1994), and often perpetuated intolerance to change (Kabanoff, et al., 1995). Often newcomers, or those who did not appear to be "right types" according to Argyris (1957), were often forced out if they did not alter their behavior to conform to the existing culture (Alderfer, 1972; Brehm, 1966). These tightly linked values restricted alternative thinking, and restricted the ability of an organization to change or create new ideas according to Cartwright and Cooper (1993), and Ouchi and Price (1981). So, while the values may have been more congruent if employees worked closely together, there were other negative problems which resulted.

When employees had independent job tasks and worked separately from others, the value incongruence between the employee and the organization enhanced performance by allowing the employee to experiment with new methods, and skills and challenge ideas without the restrictive influence of others. Independent work tasks required the employee to depend upon their own judgements and draw from their own initiative and creativity to meet the job demands. The ability to deal with crisis, change and unique and diverse situations allowed these employees to function quickly and independent of external input (Argyris, 1973; Schneider, 1975).

While many of the job tasks at the WSCJTC required employees to be flexible, creative and independent, often working at home or in the field, these independent skills were positively associated with performance measures and negatively associated with characteristics of value congruence. Training officers and management positions had highly independent job tasks while administrative and clerical positions were largely dependent job tasks.

Since performance levels were high for employees who identified their values as both congruent and incongruent with the organization, it was determined that value congruence was related to performance levels according to the employee job dependence. These results were consistent for the WSCJTC and supported by the literature.

Employees who reported high performance and identified their values as incongruent with the organizational values were those employees with independent job tasks such as the managers and the trainers. Those employees who reported high performance and identified their values as congruent with the organizational values were

employees who had more dependent job tasks such as clerical and administrative employees.

The fourth finding was that the majority of employees at the WSCJTC identified themselves as having incongruent values with the values which they ascribed to the organization.

Schneider (1987) noted that individuals were more attracted to organizations they perceived were similar to their own values, and exited quickly after they discovered that their perceptions were inaccurate (Sheridan & Peters, 1992).

Employees were asked to appraise their personal value preference 25 out of 34 considered themselves to be honest. These employees appraised themselves with value preferences that were inconsistent with values determined from the CES instrument. These findings were consistent with what Kluckhohn (1951) called the human need for social desirability or acceptance. The employee did not give an accurate assessment of their values because of the desire for social acceptability. Employee self appraisals may also be the result of what Kohlberg (1981a; 1981b; 1984) described about stage three in the "Stages of Moral Development." Individuals have the need to be considered a "Good Boy" or a "Nice Girl" by others. Understanding this need, employees claimed to prefer one value when they actually identified with another value. This allegiance to a value that appeared socially desirable was an effort to conform with the majority. Ironically since the majority of the employees of the WSCJTC appraised themselves as oriented toward the honesty value preference, this may have been the result of self deception noted by Kohlberg.

As in finding one, the majority of employees identified their values as incongruent with the organization whether the organizational values were obtained from the employees' perceptions or the CES instrument.

Limitations

Four limitations to the study were noted which could have influenced the results of the study. Each limitation was pointed out below with an explanation as to the possible effect of that item.

Limitation 1

The study was conducted as a population case study. Because of this the findings cannot be generalized beyond this particular organization.

Limitation 2

Recommendations for action in organizations which consisted largely of new members were ineffective since new employee values change quickly and frequently in the early socialization period. More than 50 percent of the employees of the WSCJTC were new. They had been employed for less than three years. Corrective action during this period may have proven to be ineffective and unnecessary. Attempts to adjust the balance of value congruence between the employees and the organization could have retarded socialization or added undue stress and increased turnover rates.

Limitation 3

During the first 18 months of new leadership, 18 employees exited the organization. Ten of those who left had more than five years of service, six were temporary, and two had served for three years or less. Exit interviews were not conducted for these employees so their motivations for leaving were unknown. It would have been valuable to have determined if value congruence, stress, or performance issues were the underlying motives for their desires to leave.

Limitation 4

A design error was discovered after the data were collected. The WSCJTC consisted of both dependent and independent job tasks. Each employee defined having congruent or incongruent values within those job tasks. As a result, the findings were mixed. Since performance measures were linked to values as well as to job task dependence, these findings were difficult to interpret and understand. These employees should have been separated into job tasks groups that were dependent and those that were independent. This should have been accomplished prior to being measured against value congruence and the work measures of performance and stress.

Conclusions

There were four conclusions which were:

1. The majority of the employees identified themselves as having values that were incongruent with the organization.
2. For those employees who identified their values as incongruent with the organization

also demonstrated elevated stress levels. 3. Value congruence related to performance levels of the organization. 4. The employees' perceptions concerning the organizational values were incongruent with both the CES scores and the employee appraisals concerning the organizational values. The conclusions were formulated upon the findings of the study and explained what those meant.

The first conclusion was that since the values of the employees of the WSCJTC were incongruent with the values of the organization, there were factors at work which contributed to that value incongruence and that the incongruence in values was relevant. Additionally, there were results of the value incongruence for the employee as well as the organization. This means that there was a need to examine values of employees and values of an organization. The need to evaluate those values was pronounced in the WSCJTC as noted in turnover, conflict within the agency and similar concerns.

The second conclusion was that since the stress level of the employee at the WSCJTC was elevated when there was incongruence between the values of the employee and those of the organization, this became an area of contention for the employee and the organization. The increased stress level of the employee had an impact upon their health (sick leave use), dissatisfaction with the organization and other matters of concern. If the value incongruence could be diminished between the employee and the organization, then that would help to alleviate the stress within the individual and by implication within the organization.

Three methods that could benefit the organization in the reduction of stress would be the establishment of a physical recreation program for all staff. Since the agency has two fully operational gymnasiums, a weight room and running track as well as experts in

the field of physical development on staff. It would be a valuable and cost efficient method to reduce the current stress levels of the employees. Another program that is cost efficient would be to initiate a working nap program. Napping on the job has proven benefits in the reduction of stress in some Fortune 200 companies. Employees would be given 15-20 minutes each day to take a nap. Signs would be posted on the employees' office door to announce that a working nap is in progress or a napping area could be set up within the facility to accommodate those who work in cubical spaces. Finally a soundproof closet could be dedicated as a stress room to vent tension and anxiety. A variety of media would be available for employees to vent with. Large blocks of clay, soft bats and pillows would be available to hit against a mannequin or the wall. A stress closet is a safe and economical method to release tension appropriately.

The third conclusion was that since values affected the performance levels of the organization, it was important to focus on those values if the performance levels were to be enhanced. Since values congruence levels were directly associated to job tasks within the WSCJTC it was important to reinforce the value preferences that were appropriate to those job tasks. Employees who identified value incongruence with the organization and worked in independent job tasks needed to have their values reinforced. Those employees who identified their values as congruent with the organization and worked in dependent job tasks needed to have those values reinforced. Reducing that value differences within specific job tasks could lead to higher performance by the employees and therefore an overall increase in performance in the agency.

The final conclusion was that since the employee perceptions about the organization values were incongruent with the values identified by the employees, it is

important to recommend to the WSCJTC that they spend more effort in communicating the values of the organization to the employees. Being consistent in portraying the values of the agency and soliciting feedback from the employees on their perception of the organization would help to overcome this communication problem.

Recommendations for Further Research

Five recommendations were proposed for further research.

Recommendation 1

A study should be done to understand the relationship of job tasks and value congruence. Limited research is available concerning the nature and associated problems and benefits of isolated work environments for both the worker and the organization. Why is there a correlation between the effects of job tasks, dependent or independent, and value congruence?

Recommendation 2

Additional research is needed to determine how the negative associations of stress can be reduced for independent workers while reinforcing the independent nature of those workers who perform best at independent job tasks. The study would focus upon those efforts needed to assist employees who have independent job tasks.

Recommendation 3

Research is needed to develop strategies and training programs that deal with the characteristics of unique organizations. Such a study is needed to determine which organizations would benefit from which training programs. Perhaps methods to deliver training at a distance with more non-traditional approaches would be beneficial to some unique organizations.

Recommendation 4

A study would be helpful in developing alternative methods to enhance goal achievement without the use of team work or close interaction. The majority of organizational research supports the use of team work and cooperation. Yet current trends move further away from social interaction and closer to dependence on computers. There is a great need to focus research in the direction of non-traditional work. This would assist organizations to develop methodology more appropriate for achieving goals in the technology era.

Recommendation 5

Additional research is needed to help organizations develop better methods to work with resistant employees in a changing organization. This study would try to understand what makes employees resistant to change would be beneficial for the training and development of programs that reduce resistance. Since longer tenured employees are

more susceptible to loss of satisfaction associated with change, better understanding of these employees would be useful.

Recommendations for Practice

Several recommendations were proposed for practice.

Recommendation 1

Organizations should focus more attention on the values of potential employees before they hire those employees to insure that employees who are expected to perform certain tasks are able to do those tasks. For example, if the organization is filling a position which has independent job tasks, then it would be beneficial if the employee held values which were incongruent with the organization because that employee would function better in the organization. The reason for this recommendation is that those individuals who function well with independent job tasks seem to have values which were incongruent with the values of the organization and therefore function better independently of the organization.

Recommendation 2

Organizations need to utilize stress management programs for those employees whose values are incongruent with the organization. The purpose of this recommendation is not to change the values of the employee but to assist that employee in coping with any stress caused by the value incongruence between the employee and the organization. Managing stress for these employees which was caused by values which were incongruent

with the organizational values would help prevent high turnover and negative health issues associated with distress.

Recommendation 3

Organizations need to develop programs which incorporate both incongruent and congruent employees into more social interaction. This would benefit the emotional well being of the employees who identify themselves as having values incongruent with those of the organization and help prevent turnover.

Recommendation 4

Employees and managers would benefit from more diversity training regarding the relationships associated with changing work environments. By understanding changing work environments, employees and managers would be able to react with less stress to that environment. Hiring employees with more tolerance for alternative approaches to tasks and job design would be positive for most organizations.

Recommendation 5

Organizations should foster cultures that demonstrate tolerance for conflicting values. Such tolerant cultures would act as a link to protect organizations from chaos during rapid growth.

Recommendation 6

Organizations need to become more sensitive and patient with employees who experience displacement as a result of management turnover. Employees who suffer from confusion, frustration and fear associated with these changes need to be understood and assisted with the transition . . . Efforts to transform employees, who were deeply congruent with the previous administration, into “buying into the new value system” could prove beneficial.

Implications

While the above has dealt with limitations, conclusions and recommendations, there must be a statement or two regarding the implications of this effort in both a value perspective and research assessment.

Several value instruments are available that measure value preferences, however much can be lost in exploring such a personal issue in a paper and pencil format. The volume of questions needed in a quantitative instrument to gather a similar amount of information available with a qualitative interview would be larger than most subjects would tolerate. Because of this, the quantitative instruments are restricted to a limited amount of questions and result in a limited amount of information available. This could have negative implications on instrument validity. The inability to face a subject restricts the ability to read non-verbal messages or evaluate body language and intonation. This can prove to be an important limitation for accurate interpretation. Humans are very difficult to understand. A great deal of insight and skill is required to break through barriers such

as social desirability, self deception and even complacency. People are frequently unaware of these barriers and the resistance they associate with strong beliefs. Qualitative methods offer greater tools to filter out these screens and measure values more accurately. While quantitative measures were more economical and easier to interpret, they exact a high price on reliability and validity. It very important to measure these costs against the benefits when selecting measurement methodology.

The most important consideration in the selection of instrumentation should be the purpose of the study and not ease or economy. If the purpose of a study is to evaluate highly emotional or personal information such as values it might prove more effective to utilize less objective measures.

This research contributed an alternative view from the available body of literature and explored the changing social roles of various job types and the associated influences that technology contributed to increased isolation and job independence for employees. The working environment of the twentieth century gathered people for eight hours to meet a common goal. The twenty-first century will disburse employees throughout the world with their computers to meet missions and build profit. This move toward greater job task independence and less human interaction will present new challenges for the social nature of work and mankind while creating new challenges for the HRD professional. Substantial research, alternative philosophies and training methods, as well as challenging established theories will be necessary to support these changing times for both the employee and the employer.

REFERENCES

- Abbarneo, J. M. (1993). Role Responsibility and Values. The Journal of Value Inquiry, (27), pp. 305-316.
- Acton, J.E.E.D. (1948). Essays on power and freedom. (originally published in 1887). Boston, MA: Beacon.
- Adkins, C. L. (1992 August). The stability of work values during organizational socialization. Paper Presented at the Academy of Management Annual Meeting, Las Vegas, NV.
- Adkins, C. L., Russell, C. J., & Werbel, J. D. (1994) Judgments of fit in the selection process: The role of work value congruence. Personnel Psychology, (47), pp. 605-623.
- Adkins, C. L., Ravlin, E. C., & Meglino, B. M. (1996). Value congruence between co-workers and its relationship to work outcomes, Group and Organizational Management, (21), pp. 439-460.
- Agar, M. (1979). Themes revisited: Some problems in cognitive anthropology. Discourse Processes,(2), pp. 11-31.
- Alderfer, C. P. (1972). Existence, relatedness, and growth: human needs in organizational settings. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Aldrich, H. E. (1979). Organizations and Environments. Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Allaire, Y., & Firsirotu, M. E. (1984). Theories of organizational culture. Organization Studies,(5), pp. 193-226.
- Allport, G. W., Vernon, P. E., & Lindzey, G. (1960). Allport-Vernon-Lindzey study of values. (3rd ed.). Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Angle, H. L., & Perry, J. L. (1981). An empirical assessment of organizational commitment and organizational effectiveness. Administrative Science Quarterly,(26), pp. 1-14.

- Argyris, C. (1957). Personality and Organization. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Argyris, C. (1964). Integrating the individual and the organization. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Argyris, C. (1973). The CEO's behavior: Key to organizational development. Harvard Business Review, 51, (2), pp. 55-64.
- Argyris, C. (1976). Problems and new directions for industrial psychology. In Dunnette, M.D. (Ed.). Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology, (pp. 151-184). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Argyris, C. (1977). Double loop learning in organizations. Harvard Business Review, (55), 115-125.
- Arnold, H. J., Feldman, D. C., & Purbhoo, M. (1985). The role of social-desirability response bias in turnover research. Academy of Management Journal, (69), pp. 58-62.
- Arvey, R. D., Bouchard, T. J., Segal, N. L., & Abraham, L. M. (1989). Job satisfaction and turnover. Journal of Applied Psychology, (75), pp. 467-476.
- Ashford, B., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. Academy of Management Review, (14), pp. 20-39.
- Balfour, D. L., & Wechsler, B. (1984). Commitment, performance, and productivity in public and private organizations. Human Relations, 37, (11), pp. 923-940.
- Balfour, D. L., & Wechsler, B. (1990). Organizational commitment: A reconceptualization and empirical test of public-private differences. Review of Public Personnel Administration, 10, (3), pp. 23-40.
- Balick, L. R., & Herd, J. A. (1986). Assessment of physiologic indices related to cardiovascular disease as influenced by job stress. Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, 8, (2), pp. 103-113.
- Baltes, P. B., & Brim, O. G., Jr. (Eds.). (1983). Life-span development and behavior (Vol.5). New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Bandura, A. (1982). The psychology of chance encounters and life paths. American Psychologist, 37, pp. 747-755.
- Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action. Englewood-Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Barnard, C. L. (1938). The functions of the executive. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Barnes, L. (1999). Barnes Consistency Index Method.

Barney, J. B. (1986). Organizational Culture: Can it be a source of sustained competitive advantage? Academy of Management Review, 11, pp. 656-665.

Barnett, G. A. (1988). Communication and organizational culture. In G. M. Golhaber & G. A. Branett (Eds.). Handbook of organizational communication. (pp.101-130). Norwood, NJ.: Ablex.

Bateman, T. S., & Organ, D. W. (1983). Job satisfaction and the good soldier: The relationship between affect and employee citizenship. Academy of Management Journal, 26, pp. 587-595.

Becker, T. E. (1992). Foci and basis of commitment: Are they distinctions worth making? Academy of Management Journal, 35, 232-244.

Beer, M., & Walton, A. E. (1987). Organizational development. In M. R. Rosenzweig & L. W. Porter (Eds.). Annual Review of Psychology. (pp. 339-367). Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews, Inc.

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

Bendix, R.. (1960). Weber's image of society. In Max Weber: An intellectual Portrait, Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Company.

Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). Leaders: The strategies for taking charge. New York: Harper Aldrich, H.E. (1979). Organizations and Environments. Englewood Cliff, NJ: Prentice-Hall. & Row.

Bennis, W. G. (1986). Leaders and visions: Orchestrating the corporate culture. New York: The Conference Board.

Bem, D. J., & Funder, D. C. (1978). Predicting more of the people more of the time: Assessing the personality of situations. Psychological Review, 85, pp. 485-501.

Beyer, J.M., & Trice, H.M. (1978). Implementing Change. New York, NY: Free Press.

Bird, F.B., & Waters, (1989). The moral muteness of managers. California Management Review, 32, pp. 73-88.

- Blood, M. R. (1969). Work values and satisfaction. Journal of Applied Psychology, 53, pp. 456-459.
- Bluedorn, A. C. (1982). A unified model of turnover from organizations. Human Relations, 35, pp. 135-153.
- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1984). Modern approaches to understanding and managing organizations. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. Bolman, L.G., & Deal, T.E. (1984). Modern approaches to understanding and managing organizations. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Borg, W. & Gall, M. (1983). Educational research: An introduction. White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Bourgeois, L. (1980). Strategic goals, perceived uncertainty, and economic performance in volatile environments. Academy of Management Journal, 28, pp. 548-573.
- Bourgeois, L. (1985). Performance and Consensus. Strategic Management Journal, 1, pp. 227-248.
- Bowen, D. E., Ledford, G. E. Jr., & Nathan, B. R. (1991). Hiring for the organization, not the job. Academy of Management Executive, 3, (4), pp. 35-51.
- Bowers, K. S. (1973). Situationalism in psychology: An analysis and critique. Psychological Review, 80, 307-336.
- Bowman, E. H. (1984). Content analysis of annual reports for corporate strategy and risk. Interfaces, 14, (1), pp. 61-71.
- Brabeck, M. (1984). Ethical characteristics of whistle-blowers. Journal of Research in Psychology, 18, pp. 41-53.
- Brehm, J. N. (1966). A theory of psychological reactance. New York, NY: Academic Press.
- Bretz, R. D., Ash, R. A., & Dreher, G. F. (1989). Do people make the place? An examination of the attraction-selection-attrition hypothesis. Personnel Psychology, 42, pp. 561-581.
- Bromet, E. J., Dew, M. A., Parkinson, D. K., & Schulberg, H. C. (1988). Predictive effects of occupational and marital stress on the mental health of a male workforce. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 9, pp. 1-13.
- Brott, A. A. (1994). New approaches to job stress. Nation's Business, 82, (5), pp. 81-82.

- Brown, A. (1987). Is Ethics Good Business? Personal Administrator, 32, pp. 67-70.
- Brown, R. & Herrnstein, R. J. (1975). Psychology. London, UK: Methuen.
- Buchanan, B. (1974). Building Organizational Commitment: The Socialization of Managers in Work Organizations. Administrative Science Quarterly, 14, pp. 346-355.
- Buono, A., Bowditch, J. L., & Lewis, J. W. (1982). When Cultures Collide: The Autonomy of a Merger. Human Relations, 38, pp. 477-500.
- Burke, W. W. (1982). Organizational development: Principles and practices. Boston, MA: Little, Brown.
- Burke, R. J., & Deszca, E. (1982). Preferred organizational climates of Type A individuals. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 21, pp. 50-59.
- Burke, R. J. (1986). The present and future status of stress research. Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, 8, (2), pp. 249-262.
- Burke, W. W. (1986). Leadership as empowering others. In S. Srivastva & Associates (Eds). Executive Power. (Pp.51-77). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Burke, W. W. (1987). Organizational development: A normative view. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Buunk, B. P., Doosje, B. J., Jans, L. G. J. M., Hopstaken, L. E. M. (1993). Perceived reciprocity, social support, and stress at work: The role of exchange and communal orientation. Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 65, (4), pp. 801-811.
- Caffarella, R. S., and O'Donnell, J. M. (1987). The Culture of Adult Education Institutions. Life-Long learning: An Omnibus of Practice and Research. 11, pp. 4-6.
- Caldwell, D. F., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1990). Measuring Person-job fit with a profile-comparison process. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75, pp. 648-657.
- Campbell, D. P., & Hanser, J. C. (1985). Manual for the SVIB-SCII. Palo Alto, CA.: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Cannon, W. B., (1935). Stresses and Strains of Homeostasis. American Journal of the Medical Sciences, 189, pp. 1-14.
- Caplan, R. D., Cobb, S., French, J. R. P., Jr., Van Harrison, R., & Pinneau, S. R. (1975). Job Demands and Worker Health. DHHS (NIOSH) Publication No. 75-160.

Carmines, E. G., & Zeller, R. A. (1979). Reliability and Validity Assessment. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Cartwright, D., & Zander, A. (1968). Group Dynamics: Research and Theory. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Cassery, M. D. (1984). Effects of differentially structured career counseling on the decision of quality of subjects with varying cognitive styles. Dissertation Abstracts International, 44, (4-A), pp. 987-988. (University Microfilms No. 1984-51224-001).

Cattell, R. B., Psychological Measurement: normative, ipsative, interactive. Psychological Review, 51, pp. 292-303.

Cartwright, S., & Cooper, C.L. (1993). The role of culture comparability in successful organizational marriage. Academy of Management Executive, 7, (2), pp. 57-70.

Centers, R. (1949). The psychology of social classes. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Chatman, J. A. (1989). Improving Interactional Organizational Research: A Model of Person-Organization Fit. Academy of Management Review, 14, (3), pp. 333-349.

Chatman, J. A. (1991). Matching people to organizations: Selection and socialization in public accounting firms. Administrative Science Quarterly, 36, pp. 459-484.

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

Cherrington, D. J., Condie, S., & England, G. W. (1979). Age and work values, Academy of Management Journal, 22, pp. 617-623.

Child, J. (1972). Organizational structure, environment, and performance: The role of strategic choice. Sociology, 6, pp. 2-22.

Choudhry, S. (1989). Occupational job level and satisfaction: A comparative study of public and private sector organizations. Indian Journal of Applied Psychology, 26, (2), pp. 1-5.

Christensen, C. R., Andrews, K. R., Bower, J. L., Hamermesh, R. G., & Porter, M. E. (1987). Business Policy: Tests and Cases. Homewood, IL: Irwin.

Collins, R. (1988). Theoretical Sociology. (p.1). San Diego, CA: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

Connor, P. E., & Becker, B. W. (1975). Values and the organization: Suggestions for research. Academy of Management Journal, 18, pp. 550-561.

Cooke, R. A., & Rousseau, D. M. (1988). Behavioral norms and expectations: A quantitative approach to the assessment of organizational culture. Group & Organization Studies, 13, pp. 245-273.

Cooper, C. L., Cartwright, S. (1994). Healthy organizations: A pro-active approach to occupational stress. Human Relations, 47, (4), pp. 455-471.

Cornelius, E. T., Ullman, J. C., Meglino, B. M., Czajka, J., McNeeley, B. (1985, November). A new approach to the study of worker values and some preliminary results. Paper presented at the meeting of Southern Management Association, Orlando, FL.

Cortese, A. J. (1984). Standard issue scoring of moral reasoning: A critique. Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 30, pp. 227-246.

Cortese, A. (1990). Ethics, Ethics. Albany, NY.: Sunny Press.

Cotton, J., & Tuttle, J. (1986). Employee turnover: A meta-analysis and review with implications for research. Academy of Management Review, 11, pp. 55-70.

Cowherd, D. M., & Levine, D. I. (1992). Product quality and pay equity between lower-level employees and top management: An investigation of distributive justice theory. Administrative Science Quarterly, 37, pp. 302-320.

Cox, T. (1978). Stress, coping and problem solving. Work and Stress, 1, (1), pp. 5-14.

Cox, A. (1991). The Homework Behind Teamwork. Industry Week, 240, pp. 21-22.

Coye, R. (1986). Individual values and business ethics. Journal of Business ethics, 5, pp. 45-49.

Cronbach, L. J. (1946). Response sets and test validation. Educational and Psychology Measurement, 6, pp. 475-494.

Crouter, A. C., & Manke, B. (1994). The changing American workplace: Implications for individuals and families. Family Relations, 43, (2), pp. 117-124.

D'Aveni, R. A., & MacMillan, I. (1990). Crisis and the content of managerial communication: A study of the focus of attention of top managers in surviving and failing firms. Administrative Science Quarterly, 35, pp. 634-657.

Dahrendorf, R. (1959). Class and Class Conflict in Industrial Society. (pp. 159-65). Stanford, CA.:Stanford University Press.

Dalton, D. R., & Enz, C. A. (1987). Absenteeism in remission: Planning, policy, culture. Human Resource Planning, 10, (2), pp. 81-91.

Dalton, D. R., & Kesner, I. F. (1988). On the dynamics of corporate size and illegal activity: An empirical assessment. Journal of Business Ethics, 7, pp. 861-870.

Dansereau, F., & Alutto, J. A. (1990). Level of analysis issues in climate and culture research. In B. Schneider (Ed.), Organizational Climate and Culture. (pp.193-236). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Davis, S. M. (1984). Managing Corporate Culture. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

Davis-Blake, A., & Pfeffer, J. (1989). Just a mirage: The search for dispositional effects in organizational research. Academy of Management Review, 14, pp. 333-349.

Deal, T. E., and Kennedy, A. A. (1982). Corporate Cultures. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Deal, T. (1986). 'Cultural change: opportunity, silent killer or metamorphosis'. In Kilmann, R., Saxton, M.J., and Serpa, R. (Eds.), Gaining control of corporate culture. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Dean, P. J. (1995). Examining the practice of human performance technology. Performance Improvement Quarterly, 8, (2).

DeCoitiis, T. A., & Summers, T. P. (1987). A path analysis of a model of the antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment. Human Relations, 40, pp. 445-470.

Deblieux, M. (1995). Workplace Ethics: Why be Concerned? Human Relations Focus, November, pp. 3-8.

Deming, E. (1986). Out of the Crisis. Boston, MA.: Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Center for Advanced Engineering Study.

Dollard, M. F. & Winefield, A. H. (1994). Organizational response to recommendations based on study of stress among correctional officers. International Journal of Stress Management, 1, pp. 81-101.

Drucker, P. F. (1988). Management and the world's work. Harvard Business Review, 66, pp. 65-76.

Duetsch, M. (1985). Distributive Justice: A social psychology perspective. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Durkheim, E. (1965). The elementary forms of the religious life. New York, NY: Free Press.

Durkheim, E. (1966). Suicide. New York, NY: Free Press.

Durkheim, E. (1973). The dualism of human nature and its social conditions. In Robert Bellah, (Ed.). Emile Durkheim on morality and society. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

Earley, P. C. (1989). Social loafing and collectivism: A comparison of the United States and the People's Republic of China. Administrative Science Quarterly, 34, pp. 565-581.

Edwards, J. O. (1980). Comparative analysis of enlisted job satisfaction as measured by the Occupational Attitude Inventory. Catalogue of Selected Documents in Psychology, 9, (37), p.1858.

Eichar, D. M., Norland, S., Brady, E. M., & Fortinsky, R. H. (1991). The job satisfaction of older workers. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 12, pp. 609-620.

Eisenberg, E. M., & Riley, P. (1988). Organization symbols and sense-making. In G.M. Goldhaber, & G.A. Barnett (Eds.). Handbook of organizational communication. pp. 131-150. Norwood, NJ.: Ablex.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Perceived Organizational Support. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, pp. 500-507.

Emmons, R. A., Diener, E., & Larsen, R. J. (1986). Choice and avoidance of everyday situations and the effect congruence: Two models of reciprocal internationalism. Personality and Social Psychology, 4, pp. 815-826.

England, G. W. (1967). Organizational goals and expected behavior of American managers. Academy of Management Journal, 10, pp. 107-117.

England, G. W., & Lee, R. (1974). The relationship between managerial values and managerial success in the United States, Japan and England and Australia. Journal of Applied Psychology, 59, pp. 411-419.

England, G. W. (1975). The manager and his values: An international perspective from the United States, Japan, Korea, and Australia. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger.

- Enz, C. A. (1986). Power and Shared Values in the Corporate Culture. Ann Arbor, MI.: UMI Research Press.
- Enz, C. A. (1988). The role of value congruity in intra organizational power. Administrative Science Quarterly, 33, pp. 284-304.
- Enz, C. A. (1989). The relationship between organizational value sharing and influence over strategic decisions. International Journal of Value-Based Management, (1), pp. 10-15.
- Enz, C. A., & Schwenk, C. R. (1991). The performance edge: Strategic and Value dissensus. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal 4, (1) pp. 75-85
- Epstein, S. (1979). The stability of behavior I: On predicting most of the people most of the time. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 37, pp. 1097-1126.
- Epstein, S. (1980). The stability of behavior II: Implications for psychological research. American Psychologist, 35, pp. 790-806.
- Erez, M. (1992). Interpersonal Communication Systems in organizations, and their relationship to cultural values, productivity, and innovation: The Case of Japanese Corporations. Applied Psychology Review, 41, (1), pp. 43-64.
- Erickson, L. (1997 October) Interview concerning legislative issues. Olympia, WA.
- Etzioni, A. (1964). Modern Organizations. Englewood Cliffs, NJ.: Prentice-Hall.
- Fahr, J., Podsakoff, P. M., & Organ, D. W. (1990). Accounting for organizational citizenship behavior: Leader fairness and task scope versus satisfaction. Journal of Management, 16, pp. 705-722.
- Fallding, H. (1965). A proposal for the empirical study of values. American Sociological Review, 30, pp. 223-233.
- Faucheux, C., Amado, G., & Laurent, A. (1982). Organizational development and change. In M.R. Rosenzweig & L.W. Porter (Eds.), Annual Review of Psychology pp.343-370. Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews, Inc.
- Feather, N. T. (1975). Values in education and society. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Feather, N. T. (1979). Human values in work situations: Two studies. Australian Psychologist, 14, pp. 131-141.

Feather, N. T. (1982). Expectations and actions: Expectancy-value models in psychology. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum Associates.

Feather, N. T. (1985a). Beliefs, attitudes and valences: Trends in Australian research. In N.T. Feather (Ed.) Australian Psychology: Review of Research, pp.187-217. Sydney: Allen & Unwin.

Feather, N. T. (1986). Human values, valences, expectations and affect: Theoretical issues emerging from recent applications of the expectancy-value model. In D.R. Brown & J. Veroff (Eds.) Frontiers of motivational psychology: Essays in honor of John Atkinson pp. 146-172. New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.

Feather, N. T. (1995b). Attitudes, values, and attributions: Explanations of unemployment. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 48, pp. 876-889.

Feldman, D. C. (1981). Multiple socialization members. Academy of Management Review, 6, pp. 309-318.

Festinger, L. (1954). A theory of comparison processes. Human Relations, 7, pp. 117-140.

Finney, H. C., & Lesieur, H. R. (1982). A contingency theory of organizational crime. In S.B. Bacharach (ed.) Research in the Sociology of Organizations, (1). Greenwich, CT.: JAI Press.

Fisher, C. D. (1921). On the probable error of a coefficient of correlation deduced from a small sample. Metron, 1, pp. 1-32.

Fisher, C. D., & Gitelson, R. (1983). A meta-analysis of the correlates of role conflict and ambiguity. Journal of Applied Psychology, 68, pp. 320-333.

Fleming, I., & Baum, A. (1986). Stress: Psychobiological assessment. Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, 8, (2), pp. 117-136.

Forsyth, D. R., Scott, W. L. (1984). Attributions and moral judgments: Kohlberg's stage theory as a taxonomy of moral attributes. Bulletin of the Psychonomics Society, 22, (4), pp. 321-323.

Forsyth, D. R., & Scott, W. L. Attributions and moral judgments: Kohlberg's stage theory as a taxonomy of moral attributes. Psychonomics Society, 22, (4), pp. 321-323.

French, W., & Bell, C. (1984). Organizational development: Behavioral science interventions for organization improvement. Englewood Cliffs, NJ.: Prentice-Hall.

Fried, Y., & Ferris, G. R. (1987). The validity of the job characteristics model, Personnel Psychology, 40, pp. 287-322.

Friedman, M. (1970). The social responsibility of business is to increase profits. New York Times Magazine, September, 13.

Gaertner, K. N., & Nollen, S. D. (1989). Career Experiences, Perceptions of Employment Practices, and Psychological Commitment to the Organization. Human Relations, 42, (11), pp. 975-991.

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

George, J. M. (1991). State or trait: effects of positive mood on prosocial behaviors at work. Journal of Applied Psychology, 76, pp. 299-307.

Gerhart, B. (1990). Voluntary turnover and alternative job opportunities, Journal of Applied Psychology, 75, 467-476.

Gilbert, T.F. (1978). A Leisurely Look at Worthy Performance. In Human Competence. New York, NY: McGraw Hill.

Gilbert, E. (1990). Job Stress reflected in comp claims. National Underwriter, 94, (19), pp. 32-33.

Gilligan, C. (1982). In a different voice: Psychological themes and women's development. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Goldhaber, G., Yates, M., Porter, D., & Lesniak, R. (1978). Organizational communication: 1978 state of the art. Human Communications Research, 5, pp. 76-96.

Goldstein, L. D. (1983). Managers, values, and organizational development. Group and Organization Studies, 8, pp. 203-220.

Goodman, P. S., Ravlin, E. C., & Schminke, M. (1987). Understanding groups in organizations. Research and Organizational Behavior, 9, pp. 121-173

Gordon, L. V., (1984). Survey of Personal Values. Chicago, IL: Science Research Association, Inc.

Gordon, G. G. (1991). Industrial determinants of organization culture. Academy of Management Review, 16, pp. 396-415.

Gotthiel, A. (1963). Marx economic predictions. Evanston, IL.: Northwestern University Press.

Graen, G. P., & Scandura, T. A. (1987). Toward a psychology of dyadic organizing. In L.L. Cummings & B.M. Staw (Eds.). Research in organizational behavior, 9, pp.175-209. New York, NY: JAI Press.

Gross, E. & Etzioni, A. (1985). Organization and Society. Englewood Cliffs, NJ.: Prentice-Hall.

Guth, W. D., & Taguiri, R. (1965). Personal values and corporate strategy. Harvard Business Review, 43, (5), pp. 123-132.

Guy, A. (1991). The Role of Aristotle's *praxis* today. The Journal of Value Inquiry, 25, pp. 287-289.

Hackett, R., & Guion, R. (1985). A reevaluation of the absenteeism-job satisfaction relationship. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 35, pp. 340-381.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldman, G. R. (1975). Development of the job diagnostic survey. Journal of Applied Psychology, 16, pp. 159-179.

Hackman, J. R., & Oldman, G. R. (1980). Work redesign. Addison-Wesley.

Hage, J., & Dewar, R. (1973). Elite values versus organizational structure in predicting innovation. Administrative Science Quarterly, 18, pp. 279-290.

Hall, T., & Schneider, B. (1972). Correlates of organizational identification as a function of career pattern and organizational type. Administrative Science Quarterly, 17, pp. 340-350.

Hall, E. (1959). The silent language. Garden City, NY.: Anchor Books.

Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. (1984). Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. Academy of Management Review, 9, (2), pp.193-206.

Harris, J. R. (1990). Values of individuals at different levels in the organizational hierarchy of a single firm. Journal of Business Ethics, 9, pp. 741-750.

Hedge, J. W., Teachout, M. S. (1992). An interview approach to work sample criterion measurement. Journal of Allied Psychology, 77, pp. 453-461.

Heneman, H., & Sandver, M. (1983). Predicting the outcome of union certification elections: A review of the literature. Industrial and Labor Relations Review, 36, pp. 537-559.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Synderman, B.S. (1959). The motivation to work. New York, NY: Wiley.

Herzberg, F. (1966). Work and the Nature of Man. Cleveland, OH: World.

Herzberg, D. C. (1991). Comparative study of Herzberg's Two-factor Theory of Job Satisfaction Among Public-Sectors. Public Personnel Management, 20, (4), pp. 448-461.

Hicks, L. E. (1970). Some properties of ipsative, normative, and forced-choice normative measures. Psychological Bulletin, 74, pp. 167-184.

Hodgkinson, C. (1971). Organizational influence on value systems. Educational Administration Quarterly, 7, 46-55.

Hofstede, G. (1980). Motivation, leadership, and organization. Organizational Dynamics, 9, (1), pp. 42-62.

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

Holland, J. L. (1985). Making vocational choices: A theory of vocational personalities and work environments (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Holton, E. F. III. (1995). College Graduates' Experience and Attitudes During Organizational Entry. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 6, (1) pp. 14-20.

Huff, A. S. (1990). Mapping Strategic Thought. Chichester: Wiley.

Hulin, C. L., & Blodd, M. R. (1968). Job enlargement, individual differences, and worker responses. Psychological Bulletin, 69, pp. 41-55.

Iaffaldano, M., & Muchinsky, P. (1985). Job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. Psychological Bulletin, 97, pp. 251-273.

Ianni, F. A. J., & Ianni, R. E. (1983). Take this job and shove it: A comparison of organizational stress and burnout among teachers and police. In B.A. Farber (Ed.). Stress and Burnout in the Human Service Professions. pp. 82-96. New York, NY: Pergamon Press.

Jackson, S. E. (1992). Team composition in organizational settings: Issues in managing an increasing diverse work force. In S. Worchel, W. Wood, & Simpson (Eds.), Group process and productivity. pp.138-173. Newbury Park, CA: Sage

Jackson, S. E., Brett, J. F., Sessa, V. I., Cooper, D. M., Julin, J. A., & Peyronnin, K. (1991). Some differences make a difference: Individuals dissimilarity and group heterogeneity as correlates of recruitment, promotion, and turnover. Journal of Applied Psychology, 76, pp. 675-689.

Janis, I. L. (1972). Victims of groupthink. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.

Janowski, W. K. (1993). Discoveries as the origin of modern economic values. The Journal of Value Inquiry, 27, pp. 43-48.

Johansson, C. B., & Webber, P. L. (1976). Temperament and Values Inventory. Minneapolis, MN: National Computer Systems Inc.

Johns, G. (1981). Different score measurement of organizational behavior variables: A critique. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 27, pp. 443-463.

Joyce, W., & Slocum, J. (1984). Collective Climate: Agreement as a basis for defining aggregate climates in organizations. Academy of Management Journal, 27, pp. 721-742.

Joyce, W. F., & Slocum, J. W. (1990). Strategic context and organizational climate. In B. Schneider (Ed.). Organizational Climate and Culture. pp. 130-150. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Judge, T. A., & Bretz, R. D. (1992). Effects of work values on job choice decisions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 77, pp. 261-271.

Kabanoff, B. (1991). Equity, equality, power and conflict. Academy of Management Review, 16, pp. 416-441.

Kabanoff, B., Waldersee, R., & Marcus, C. (1995). Espoused values and organizational change themes. Academy of Management Journal, 34, (4) pp. 1075-1104.

Kalimo, R. (1980). Stress in work; conceptual analysis and a study on prison personnel. Scandinavian Journal of Work and Environment Health, 3, pp. 124-128.

Kalimo, R., Olkkonen, M., & Toppinen, S. (Eds.). (1993). People in progressing production: Research and development project in industry. (English summary). Tyo jaihminen, 7, (4), 219.

Kanter, R. M. (1990). Values and economics. Harvard Business Review, (4). May-June.

Kanungo, R. (1979). The concepts of alienation and involvement revisited. Psychological Bulletin, 86, pp. 119-138.

Karambayya, R. (1991). Work unit characteristics with the implications for organizational citizenship behavior. Unpublished manuscript. York University, North York, Ontario, Canada.

Karasek, R. A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude, and mental strain: Implications for job redesign. Administrative Science Quarterly, 24, pp. 285-308.

Karp, H. B., & Abramms, B. (1992). Doing the Right Thing. Training and Development. August, 41, pp. 168-192..

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

Keon, T. L., & Wanous, J. P. (1982). Image congruence and the treatment of difference scores in organizational choice research. Human Relations, 35, pp. 155-166.

Kerr, J., & Slocum, J. W. (1987). Managing corporate culture through reward systems. Academy of Management Executive, 1, (2), pp. 99-108.

Kidron, A. (1978). Work values and organizational commitment. Academy of Management Journal, 21, 239-247.

Kilmann, R. (1984). Beyond a quick fit. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kilmann, R., Saxton, M. J., & Serpa, R. (Eds.).(1985). Gaining control of corporate culture. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Kimberly, J.R., & Miles, R.H. (Eds). (1980). The organizational life cycle. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kimberly, J. R., & Bouchikhi, H. (1995). The Dynamics of Organizational Development and Change: How the Past Shapes the Present and Constrains the Future. Organizational Science, 6, (1), pp. 266-292.

Kinicki, A., Carson, K., & Schriesheim, C. (1990). The construct validity of the job descriptive index (JDI). Review critique, and analysis. Unpublished manuscript.

Kinnunen, J. (1990). The importance of organizational culture development activities in a primary health care organization. International Journal of Health Planning and Management, 5, pp. 65-71.

Kline, C. J., & Peters, L. H. (1991) Behavioral commitment and tenure of new employees: A replication and extension. Academy of Management Journal, 34, (1), pp. 194-204.

Kluckhohn, C. (1951). Values and value-orientations in the theory of action. In T. Parsons & E. Shils (Eds.), Toward a general theory of action. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Koeske, G. F., & Koeske, R. D. (1993). Stress-Strain-Outcome Model for Reconceptualizing. Journal of Social Service Research, 17, (3-4), pp. 107-135.

Koeske, E. E., & Block, R. N. (1993). The employer as a social arbiter: Considerations in Limiting involvement in off-the-job behavior. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 6, (2), pp. 136-142

Kohlberg, L. (1969). Stage and Sequence: The cognitive Development Approach to Socialization. In D. Goslin (Ed.). Handbook of Socialization: Theory and Research. New York, NY: Rand McNally.

Kohlberg, L. (1971). Stages of moral development as a basis for moral education. In C.M. Beck, B.S. Crittenden, & E.V. Sullivan (Eds.). Moral education: Interdisciplinary approaches. pp. 86-88. New York, NY: Newman Press.

Kohlberg, L. (1981a). Essays in moral development: The philosophy of moral development, (Vol.1). New York, NY: Harper and Row.

Kohlberg, L. (1981b). Essays in moral development: The philosophy of moral development, (Vol. 2). New York, NY: Harper and Row.

Kohlberg, L., Levine, C., & Hewer, A. Kohlberg, L. (1983). Moral stages: A current formulation and a response to critics. New York, NY: Karger.

Kohlberg, L., & Candee, D. (1984). The relationship of moral judgment to moral action. In L. Kohlberg (Ed.) The psychology of moral development: The nature and validity of moral stages. pp. 498-581. San Francisco, CA: Harper & Row.

Kopelman, R. E., Brief, A. P., & Guzzo, R. A. (1990). The role of climate and culture in productivity. In B. Schneider (Ed.). Organizational Climate and Culture, pp. 282-318.

Korman, A. K. (1966). Self-esteem variable in vocational choice. Journal of Applied Psychology, 50, pp. 479-487.

Korsgaard, M. A., Meglino, B. M., & Lester, S. W. (1996). The effect of other-oriented values on decision making: A test of propositions of a theory of concern for others in organizations. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 68, pp. 234-245.

Korsgaard, M. A., Meglino, B. M., & Lester, S. W., (1997). Beyond helping: Do other-oriented values have broader implications in organizations? Journal of Applied Psychology, 82, pp. 160-177.

Kotter, J. P. (1982). What effective general managers really do? Harvard Business Review, 60, pp. 156-167.

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

Lang, J. R., & Johnson, N. B. (1994). Job satisfaction and firm size: An internationalist's perspective. Journal of Socio Economics, 23, (4) pp. 405-423.

Lawler, E. E. (1973). Motivation in Work Organizations. Monterey, CA.: Brooks and Cole.

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

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). Stress appraisal and coping. New York, NY: Springer Publishing Co.

Lazarus, R. S., & Launier, R. (1978). Stress related transactions between persons and environment. In L.A. Pervin, & M. Lewis (Eds.). Perspectives in Interactional Psychology. pp 287-327. New York, NY: Plenum Press.

Lee, T. W., & Mitchell, T. R. (1994). An alternative approach: The unfolding model of employee turnover. Academy of Management Review, 19, pp. 51-89.

Lee, T. W., Wise, L., & Freeman, S. (1996). An unfolding model of voluntary turnover. Academy of Management Journal, 39, (1) pp. 5-36.

Levinson, H. (1965). Reciprocation: The relationship between man and organization. Administrative Science Quarterly, 9, pp. 370-390.

Lewin, K. (1936). The psychology of success and failure. Occupations, 14, pp. 926-930.

Lewin, K. (1951). Constructs in field theory. In K. Lewin (D. Cartwright), (Ed.). Field theory in social science: Selected theoretical papers. (pp.30-42). New York, NY: Harper.

Likert, R. L. (1961). The human organism. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Likert, R. (1973). Human Resource Accounting: Building and assessing productive organizations. Personnel, 50, pp. 8-24.

Likert, R., & Bowers, D. G. (1973). Improving the accuracy of P&L reports by estimating the change in dollar value of the human organization. Michigan Business Review, 25, pp. 15-24.

Lindstrom, K. (1994). Environmental Health. Scandinavian Journal of Work, 20, pp.123-133.

Locke, E. A. (1975). Personnel attitudes and motivation. Annual Review of Psychology, 26, pp.457-480.

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and consequences of job satisfaction. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.). Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology. pp.1297-1349. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

Locke, E. A. (1982). A new look at motivation: Theory V. College Park: University of Maryland, College of Business and Management. (Tech. Rep. GS-12).

Locke, E. A. (1984). Job satisfaction. In M. Gruneberg & T. Wall (Eds.). Social Psychology and Organizational Behavior. pp.93-117. New York, NY: Wiley.

Locke, E. A., & Henne, D. (1986). Work motivation theories. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.). Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology. pp. 1116-1123.

Locke, E. A., & Latham, G. P. (1990). A theory of goal setting and task performance. Englewood Cliffs, NJ.: Prentice Hall.

Lord, R. G., & Hohenfeld, J. A. (1979). Longitudinal field assessment of equality effects on the performance of major league baseball players. Journal of Applied Psychology, 64, pp. 19-26.

Lorsch, J. W. (1985). Strategic Myopia: Culture as a Invisible Barrier to Change. In R.H. Kilmann, M.J. Saxton, & R. Serpa (Eds.). Gaining Control of Corporate Culture. (pp. 84-102). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Malinowski, C. I., & Smith, C. P. (1985). Mo Koeske, E. E., & Block, R. N. (1993). The employer as a social arbiter: Considerations in Limiting involvement in off-the-job behavior. Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 6, (2), pp. 136-142 moral reasoning and moral conduct: An investigation prompted by Kohlberg's theory. Journal of personality and Social Psychology, 49, (4), pp. 1016-1027.

Manning, M. R., & Osland, J. S. (1989). The relationship between absenteeism and stress. Work & Stress, 3, pp. 233-235.

March, J. E., & Simon, H. A. (1958). Organizations. New York, NY: Wiley.

Marcus, E. H. (1991). Coping with stress claims. Defense Counsel Journal, 58, (2), pp. 250-253.

Marsella, A. J. (1984). An interactional model of psycho pathology. In W.A. O'Connell, & B. Lubin (Eds.). Ecological Approaches to Clinical and Community Psychology. New York, NY: Wiley.

Martin, J. & Siehl, C. (1983). Organizational Culture and Counterculture: An uneasy symbiosis. Organizational Dynamics, 12, (2), pp. 52-64.

Marx, K. & Engels, F. (1848). Manifesto of the Communist Party. In Lewis S. Feuer (Ed.), Marx and Engels, Basic Writings on Politics and Philosophy. p.7. Garden City, NJ: Doubleday and Company, Anchor Books.

Maslow, A. H. (1943). A Theory of Human Motivation. Psychological Review, 50, pp. 370-396.

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

May, D. F. (1992). Occupational stress and coping resources for stress among respiratory care practitioners. (Doctorate dissertation, Georgia State University, 1990). Dissertation Abstracts International, 32, Z5001.

McClelland, D. C. (1971). Motivational Trends in Society. Morristown, N.J.: General Learning Press.

McClelland, D. C. (1985). Human motivation. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman & Co.

McEvoy, G. M., Ashford, S. J., Walsh, J. P., & Mowday, R. T. (1985). Strategies for reducing employee turnover: A meta analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 70, pp. 342-353.

McGregor, D. M. (1960). The Human Side of Enterprise. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

McGrath, J. E. (1970). A conceptual formulation for research on stress. In J.E. McGrath (Ed.). Social and Psychological Factors in Stress. pp. 10-21. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart, & Winston.

McNeeley, B. L., & Meglino, B. (1994). The role of dispositional and situational antecedents in prosocial organizational behavior: An example of the intended beneficiaries of prosocial behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, (6), pp. 836-844.

McNemar, Q. (1962). Psychological Statistics. New York, NY: Wiley.

Meglino, B. M., Ravlin, E. C., Adkins, C. L. (1989). A work values approach to corporate culture: A field test of the value congruence process and its relationship to individual outcomes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, pp. 424-432.

Meglino, B. M., Ravlin, E. C., & Adkins, C. L. (1992). The measurement of work value congruence: A field study comparison. Journal of Management, 18, pp. 33-43.

Meglino, B. (1998, October). Phone discussion [12 minutes]: Why choose ipsative over normative when measuring values.

Meindl, J. R. (1989). Managing to be Fair: An exploration of values, motives and leadership. Administrative Science Quarterly, 34, pp. 252-276.

Menzel, D. C. (1993). Ethics induced stress in the local government workplace. Public Personnel Management, 22, (4), pp. 528-538.

Merrens, M. R., & Garrett, J. B. (1975). The Protestant Work Ethic scale as a predictor of repetitive work performance. Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, pp. 125-127.

Metheny, K. B., Aycock, D. W., Pugh, J. L., Curlette, W. L., & Cannella, K. A. S. (1986). Stress coping: A qualitative and quantitative synthesis with implications for treatment. The Counseling Psychologist, 14, (4), pp. 499-549.

Meyer, J. P. and others. (1989). Organizational commitment and job performance: It's the nature of the commitment that counts. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, (1), pp. 152-156.

Mickli, M. P., & Near, J. P. (1994). Relationships among value congruence, perceived victimization, and retaliation against whistle-blowers. Journal of Management, 20, (4), pp. 773-794.

Miller, D., & Droge, C. (1986). Psychological and traditional determinants of structure. Administrative Science Quarterly, 31, pp. 539-560.

Miller, A. (1988, April 25). Stress on the Job. Newsweek, pp. 40-45.

Miller, K. I. (1988). Cultural and role-based predictors of organizational participation and allocation preferences. Communication Research, 15, (6), pp. 699-725.

Miller, V. D., & Jablin, F. M. (1991). Information seeking during organizational entry: Influences, tactics, and a model of process. Academy of Management Review, 16, pp. 92-120.

Mintzberg, H., & Quinn, J. B. (1991). The strategy process. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Mirels, H. L., & Garrett, J. B. (1971). The protestant work ethic as a personality variable. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 36, pp. 40-44.

Mirvis, P. H., & Lawler, E. E., III. (1977). Measuring the Financial Impact of Employee Attitudes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 62, (1), pp.1-5.

Mischel, W. (1968). Personality and Assessment. New York, NY: Wiley.

Mobley, W. H. (1982). Employee turnover in organizations. Reading, MA.: Addison-Wesley.

Monge, P. R., & Eisenberg, E. M. (1987). Emergent communication networks. In F.M. Jablin, L.L. Putnam, K.H. Roberts, & L.W. Porter (Eds.). Handbook of organizational communication: An interdisciplinary perspective. pp.304-341. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Moorman, R. B. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence citizenship? Journal of Applied Psychology, 76, pp. 845-855.

Moorman, R. B., & Blakely, G. L. (1995). Individualism-collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 16, pp. 127-142.

Moos, R. H. (1987). Person-environment congruence in work, school, and health care settings. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 31, (3), pp. 231-247.

Morey, N. C., & Luthans, F. (1985). Refining the displacement of culture and the use of scenes and themes in organizational studies. Academy of Management Review, 10, pp. 219-229.

Morrison, D. L., Dunne, M. P., Fitzgerald, R., & Cloghan, D. (1992). Job design and levels of physical strain among Australian prison officers. Work and Strain, 6, pp.13-31.

Mowday, R. T., Steers, R. M., & Porter, L. W. (1979). The measurement of organizational commitment. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 14, pp. 224-247.

Mulcahy, C. (1991). Workplace stress reaches "epidemic" proportion. National Underwriter, 95, (20), pp. 4-20.

Murray, H. A. (1938). Explorations in personality. New York, NY: Oxford Press.

Nadler, D., & Tushman, M. (1980). A model for diagnosing organizational behavior: Applying a congruence perspective. Organizational Dynamics, 9, (3), pp.35-51.

National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health. (1995). Report on occupational safety and health for FY 1985. (DHHS) [NIOSH] Publication no. 91-596). Washington, DC: U.S. Printing Office.

Naylor, J. C., Pritchard, R. D., & Ilgen, D. R. (1980). A theory of behavior in organizations. San Diego, CA.:Academic Press.

Nevill, D. D., & Super, D. D. (1989). The Values Scale: Theory, Application and Research Manual. (2nd ed.). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Northwest National Life Insurance Company. (1991). Employee burnout: America's newest epidemic. Minneapolis, MN.: Northwest National Life Insurance Company.

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

Nystrom, P. C. (1990). Difference in moral values between corporations. Journal of Business Ethics, December, (9), pp. 971-979.

O'Reilly, C.A., III. (1977). Personality-job fit: Implications for individual attitudes and performance. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 18, pp. 36-46.

O'Reilly, C. A., & Caldwell, D. M. (1981). The commitment and job tenure of new employees: Some evidence of post decisional justification. Administrative Science Quarterly, 26, pp. 597-616.

O'Reilly, C. A., & Chatman, J. (1986). Organizational commitment and psychological attachment: The efforts of compliance, identification, and internalization on prosocial behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 71, pp. 492-499.

O'Reilly, C. A., III. (1989). Corporations, culture, and commitment: Motivation and social control in organizations. California Management Review, 31, (4), pp. 9-25.

O'Reilly, C. A., Chatman, J., & Caldwell, D.F. (1991). People and Organizational Culture: A Profile Comparison Approach to Assessing Person-organization Fit. Academy of Management Journal, 34, (3), pp. 487-516.

O'Reilly, C. A., Caldwell, D. F., & Mirable, R. (1992). A profile comparison approach to person-job fit: More than a mirage. Academy of Management Best Papers Proceedings, pp. 237-241.

Organ, D. W., & Konovsky, M. A. (1989). Cognitive versus affective determinants of organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, pp. 157-164.

Organ, D. W. (1990). The motivational basis of organizational citizenship behavior. In Staw, B.M., & Cummings, L.L. (Eds.). Research in Organizational Behavior. (12), pp.43-72, Greenwich, CT.: JAI Press.

Orpen, C. (1978). The work values of Western and Tribal black employee. Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology, 9, pp. 99-112.

Osteroff, C. (1992). The relationship between satisfaction, attitudes, and performance: An organizational level analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 77, 6, pp. 963-974.

Ouchi, W. G. (1981). Theory Z: How American business can meet the Japanese challenge. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Ouchi, W. G., & Wilkins, A. L. (1985). Organizational Culture. Annual Review of Psychology, 11, pp. 457-483.

Ouchi, W. G., & Price, R. L. (1993). Hierarchies, clans, and theory Z: a new perspective on organization development. (Excerpt from an Organizational Dynamic Classic). Organizational Dynamics, 21, (4), pp. 9-62.

Owens, W. A., Schoenfeldt, L. F. (1979). Toward a classification of persons. Journal of Applied Psychology Monograph, 65, pp. 569-607.

Parasuraman, S., & Alluto, J. A. (1984). Sources and outcomes of stress in organizational settings: Toward the development of a structural model. Academy of Management Journal, 27, pp. 330-350.

Parkes, K. R. (1990). Coping, negative affectivity, and the work environment: Additive and interactive predictors of mental health. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75, pp. 399-409.

Parsons, M. D., & Parsons, J. G. (1995). Change in the Conservative Personality Equals Change in the Offender with the Resultant Reduction in Recidivism. The Oklahoma Criminal Justice Research Consortium, 2, pp. 98-103.

Parsons, J. G., Venable, W., & Parsons, M. D. (1996). When Perceived Organizational Values Collide with Employee Values in a State Department of Corrections. Proceedings of the Academy of Human Resource Development, USA, 3, pp. 758-764.

Parsons, J. G. (1997). Values as a Vital Supplement to the Use of Financial Analysis in HRD. Human Resource Development Quarterly, Spring, 8, (1), pp.5-13.

Parsons, M. D. (December, 1998). Interview {4 hours} History of the Washington State Criminal Justice Training Commission.

Parsons, T., & Shils, E. A. (Eds.). (1951). Toward a general theory of action. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Pascale, R. T., & Athos, A. G. (1981). The Art of Japanese Management: Applications for American Executives. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.

Pascale, R. T. (1985). The paradox of corporate culture: Reconciling ourselves to socialization. California Management Review, 27, (2), pp. 26-41.

Pervin, L. A., & Rubin, D. B. (1967). Student dissatisfaction with the college and the college dropout: A transactional approach. Journal of Social Psychology, 72, pp. 285-295.

Peters, T. J., & Waterman, R. H. (1982). In search of excellence. New York, NY: John Wiley.

Peters, T. J., & Austin, N. (1985). A Passion for Excellence. New York, NY: Random House.

Pfeffer, J. M., & Langton, N. (1988). Wage inequality and the organization of work: The case of academic departments. Administrative Science Quarterly, 33, pp. 588-606.

Pfeiffer, J. W. (1991). Strategic Planning. San Diego, CA: Pfeiffer and Company.

Phillips, D. (1990). The price tag on turnover. Personnel Journal, 69, pp. 58-62.

Pickle, H., & Friedlander, F. (1967). Seven societal criteria for organizational success. Personnel Psychology, 20, pp. 165-178.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leadership behaviors and their effects on trust, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior. The Leadership Quarterly, (1), pp. 107-142.

Porter, L. W. (1963). Job attitudes in management: Perceived deficiencies in fulfillment as a function of size of a company. Journal of Applied Psychology, 48, pp. 31-36.

Porter, L. W., & Smith, F. J. (1970). The etiology of organizational commitment. Unpublished manuscript, University of California at Irvine.

Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M. (1973). Organization, work and personal factors in employee turnover and absenteeism. Psychological Bulletin, 80, pp. 151-176.

Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T., & Boulian, P. V. (1974). Organizational Commitment, job satisfaction and turnover among psychiatric technicians. Journal of Applied Psychology, 59, pp. 603-609.

Posner, B., Randolph, W., & Schmidt, W. (1987). Managerial values across functions: A source of organizational problems. Group and Organizational Studies, 12, (4), pp. 373-385.

Pratt, K. H. & Kleiner, B. H. (1989). Towards managing a richer set of organizational values. Leadership and Organization Development Journal:10, (6), pp. 10-16

Premack, S. L., & Wanous, J. P. (1985). A meta-analysis of realistic job preview experiments. Journal of Applied Psychology, 70, pp. 706-719.

Quick, J. D., Horn, R. S., & Quick, J. C. (1986). Health consequences of stress. Journal of Organizational Behavior Management, 8, (2), pp. 19-33.

Randall, D. M. (1987). Commitment and the organization: The organizational man revisited. Academy of Management Review, 12, pp. 460-471.

Raven, B. H. (1993). A glossary of terms related to interpersonal influence and social power. Unpublished manuscript, University of California at Los Angeles.

Ravlin, E. C., & Meglino, B. M. (1987). Comparative Emphasis Scale. University of South Carolina, Riegel and Emory Center.

Ravlin, E. C., & Meglino, B. M. (1987a). Issues in work values measurement. (Research in corporate social performance and policy, 9). Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Ravlin, E. C., & Meglino, B. M. (1987b). Effects on perception and decision making: A study of alternative work value measures. Journal of Applied Psychology, 72, pp. 666-673.

Ravlin E. C., & Meglino, B. M. (1989). The transitivity of work values: Hierarchical preference ordering of socially desirability stimuli. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 44, pp. 494-508.

Ravlin, E. C., & Meglino, B. M. (1993). The influence of value congruence on performance of routine and non-routine tasks. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management, Atlanta, GA.

Ravlin, E. (1998, October). Phone conversation [10 minutes]: Discussion regarding content validity and reliability.

Rawson, H. & Miner, M. (1988). The New International Dictionary of Quotations. (Eds.). New York, NY: Signet.

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

Richardson, A. M., Burke, R. J., & Leiter, M. P. (1992). Occupational Demands, Psychological Burnout and Anxiety Among Hospital Personnel in Norway. Anxiety, Stress, and Coping, 5, pp. 55-68.

Rokeach, M. (1973). The Nature of Human Values. New York, NY: Free Press

Rokeach, M. (1978). Rokeach Values Survey. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press Inc.

Rokeach, M. (1979). From individual to institutional values: With special reference to the values of science. In M. Rokeach (Ed.). Understanding Human Values. (pp. 47-70) New York, NY: Free Press.

Rosow, I. (1965). Forms and function of adult socialization. Social Forces, 44, pp. 35-45.

Rousseau, D. M. (1990). Assessing organizational culture: The case for multiple methods. In B. Schneider (Ed.). Organizational Climate and Culture. pp.153-192. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Russell, C. J. (1987). Person characteristics versus role congruency explanations for assessment center ratings. Academy of Management Journal, 30, pp. 817-826.

Ryan, A. M., & Schmit, M. J. (1993). Assessing organizational fit in employee selection. Paper presented at the Eight Annual Conference of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, San Francisco, CA.

Rynes, S. L., & Gerhart, B. (1990). Interviewer assessments of applicant "fit": An exploratory investigation. Personnel Psychology, 43, pp. 13-35.

Saffold, G. S. (1988). Culture traits, strength, and organizational performance: Moving beyond "strong" culture. Academy of Management Review, 13, (4), pp. 546-558.

Salancik, G. R., & Pfeffer, J. (1978). A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. Administrative Science Quarterly, 23, pp. 224-252.

Sashkin, M., & Burke, W. W. (1987). Organizational Development in the 1980's. Journal of Management, 13, (2), pp. 393-417.

Sathe, V. (1985). How to decipher and change corporate culture. In Kilmann, R.H., Saxton, M.J., Serpa, R. et al. (Eds). Gaining control over corporate culture. pp.260-261. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schall, M. S. (1983). A communication-rule approach to organizational culture. Administrative Science Quarterly, 28, pp. 557-581.

Schwab, D. P., Rynes, S. L., & Aldag, R. J. (1987). Theories and research on job search and choice. In K.M. Rowland & G.R. Ferris (Eds.). Research in Personnel and human resource management. pp.129-166. Greenwich, CT.: JAI Press.

Shallcross, D. J. (1981). Teaching Creative Behavior. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Schein, E. H. (1984). Coming to a new awareness and organizational culture. Sloan Management Review, 25, pp. 3-16.

Schein, E. H. (1985). Organizational culture and leadership. San Francisco, CA: Jossey Bass.

Schneider, B. (1975). Organizational climates: An essay. Personnel Psychology, 28, pp. 447-479.

Schneider, B. (1983). An internationalist perspective on organizational effectiveness. In Cameron KS, Whetten D.A. (Eds), Organizational effectiveness: A comparison of multiple models. pp. 27-54) Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Schneider, B., & Reichers, A.E. (1983). On the etiology of climates. Personnel Psychology, 36, pp. 19-40.

Schneider, B., & Bowen, D. E. (1985). Employee and customer perceptions of service in banks: Replication and extension. Journal of Applied Psychology, 70, pp. 423-433.

Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. Personnel Psychology, 40, pp. 437-453.

Schwartz, S. H., Feldman, K. A., Brown, M. E., & Heingartner, A. (1969). Some personality correlates of conduct in two situations of moral conflict. Journal of Personality, 37, pp. 41-57.

Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M.P. Zanna (Ed.). Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 25. pp. 1-65. Orlando, FL.:Academic Press.

Schweiger, D., Sandberg, W., & Ragan, J. (1986). Group approaches for improving strategic decision making: A comparative analysis of dialectical inquiry, devil's advocacy, and consensus. Academy of Management Journal, 29, pp. 51-71.

Schwenk, C. (1982). Effects of inquiry methods and ambiguity tolerance on prediction performance. Decision Sciences, 13, pp. 207-221.

Selznick, P. (1957). Leadership in administration. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.

Senge, P. M. (1990). The Fifth Discipline: The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization. New York, NY: Doubleday Currency.

Senger, J. (1971). Manager's perception of subordinates' competence as a function of personal value orientations. Academy of Management Journal, 14, pp. 415-423.

Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. Organizational Science, 4, pp. 577-593.

Shaw, M. E. (1976). Group dynamics: The psychology of small group behavior. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Sheppard, B. H., Lewicki, R. J., & Minton, J. W. (1992). Organizational justice: The search for fairness in the workplace. New York, NY: Lexington.

Sheridan, J. E. (1992). Organizational Culture and Employee Retention. Academy of Management Journal, 35, pp. 1036-1056.

Shockley-Zalabak, P., & Morley, D. D. (1989). Adhering to Organizational Culture: What does it mean? What does it matter? Group and Organizational Studies, 14, (4), pp. 483-500.

Shockley-Zalabak, P., & Morley, D. D. (1994). Fundamentals of Organizational Communication, Knowledge, Sensitivity, Skills and Values. (4th ed.). New York, NY: Longman.

- Smircich, L. (1983). Concepts of culture and organizational analysis. Administrative Science Quarterly, 28, pp. 339-359.
- Smith, C.A., Organ, D.W., & Near, J.P. (1983). Organizational citizenship behavior: it's nature and antecedents. Journal of Applied Psychology, 68, 653-663.
- Smith, A. (1963). An inquiry into the nature and causes of wealth of nations. (originally published in 1976). Homewood, IL.: Irwin.
- Smith, P. C. (1998, September). Phone conversation [20 minutes]: Discussion regarding the difficulty of construct validity in measures of values.
- Somers, M. J., & Casal, J. C. (1994). Organizational commitment and whistleblowing: The test of the reformer and the organizational man hypothesis. Group and organizational Management, 19, (3), pp. 270-284.
- Spence, J. T. (1985). Achievement American Style: The rewards and costs of individualism. American Psychology, 40, pp. 1285-1295.
- Sproull, L. S. (1981). Beliefs in organizations. In P.C. Nystrom and W.H. Starbuck (Eds.). Handbook of Organizational Design. (2), pp. 203-224. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Staw, B. M., McKechnie, P. I., & Puffer, S. M. (1983). The justification of organizational performance. Administrative Science Quarterly, 28, pp. 582-600.
- Staw, B. M. (1984). Organizational behavior: A review and reformation of the field's outcome variables. Annual Review of Psychology, 35, pp. 627-666.
- Staw, B. M., & Ross, J. (1985). Stability in the midst of change: A dispositional approach to job attitudes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 70, pp. 469-480.
- Steers, R. M. (1977). Antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment. Administrative Science Quarterly, 22, pp. 46-56.
- Steers, R. M. (1988). Organization behavior. Glenview, IL.: Scott Foresman.
- Stratton, W. E., Flynn, W. R., & Johnson, G. A. (1981). Moral development and decision making: A study of student ethics. Journal of Enterprise Management, 3, (1), pp. 35-41.
- Super, D. (1957). The Psychology of Careers. New York, NY: Harper & Row.
- Super, D. E. (1983). Assessment in career guidance: Toward truly developmental counseling. The Personnel and Guidance Journal, 61, pp. 555-562.

Super, D., & Nevill, D. (1986). The Values Scale. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press Inc.

Sullivan, E. A. (1977) A study of Kohlberg's structural theory of moral development: A critique. Human Development, 20, pp. 352-376.

Sypher, B. P., Applegate, J. L., & Sypher, H. H. (1985). Cultured communication in organizational contexts. In W. B. Gudykunst, L. P. Stewart, & S. Ting-Toomey (Eds.). Communication, culture, and organizational processes. pp.13-29. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Tannenbaum, R., & Davis, S. A. (1969). Values, man, and organizations. Industrial Management Review, 10, (2), pp. 67-86.

Taylor, S. E. (1986). Adjustment to threatening events: A theory of cognitive adaption. American Psychologist, 38, pp. 1161-1173.

Taylor, W. C. (1994). Control in an age of chaos. Harvard Business Review, 72, (6), pp. 64-76.

Tichy, N. M. (1983). Managing Strategic Change: Technical, Political, and Cultural Dynamics. New York, NY: Wiley.

Tjosvold, D. (1985). Managerial implications of controversy research. Journal of Management, 11, pp. 221-238.

Tom, V. R. (1971). The role of personality and organizational images in the recruiting process. Organizational and Human Performance, 6, pp. 573-592.

Travisono, A. P. (1990). Corrections' crystal ball looking at the future. Corrections Today, 52, p. 4.

Trevino, L. (1986). Ethical decision making in organizations: A person-situation internationalist model. Academy of Management Review, 11, pp. 607-617.

Trevino, L. K., Sutton, C. D., & Woodman, R. W. (1985). Effects of reinforcement contingencies and cognitive Moral Development on ethical decision making behavior: An experiment. Paper presented in the Academy of Management Meetings. Boston, MA.

Trevino, L. (1990). A cultural perspective on changing and developing organizational ethics. Research and Organizational Change and Development, 4, pp. 195-230.

Trevino, L., & Youngblood, S. A. (1990). Bad apples in bad barrels: A causal analysis of ethical decision-making behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 75, pp. 378-385.

Triandis, H. C., Bontempo, R., Villareal, M. J., Asai, M., Lucca, N. (1988). Individualism and collectivism: Cross-cultural perspectives on self-grouping relationships. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54, pp. 328-338.

Trice, H. M., & Beyer, J. M. (1993). The cultures of work organizations. Englewood Cliffs, NJ.: Prentice-Hall.

Tunstall, W. B. (1985). Disconnecting Parties. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Tylor, E. B. (1924). Primitive Culture. Gloucester, MA: Smith.

Van Maanen, J., & Schein, E. H. (1979). Toward a theory of organizational socialization. In B. Staw (Ed.). Research in Organizational Behavior, pp. 209-264. Greenwich, CT.: JAI.

Van Maanen, J., & Barley, S. (1984). Occupational communities. Culture and Control in organizations. In Staw, B. and Cummings, L. (Eds.). Research in Organizational Behavior, pp. 287-365, (6). Greenwich, Conn.: JAI Press.

Vardi, Y., Wiener, Y., & Popper, M. (1989). The value content of organizational mission as a factor in the commitment of members. Psychological Reports, 65, (1), pp. 27-34.

Vroom, V. H. (1964). Work and Motivation. New York, NY: Wiley.

Vroom, V. H. (1966). Organizational Choice: A study of pre and post decisions processes. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1, pp. 212-226.

Vroom, V. H. (1970). Work and Motivation. New York, NY: Wiley.

Wagner, J. A., III. (1992). Individualism-collectivism and free riding: A study of main and moderator effects. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Meeting. Las Vegas, NV.

Wagner, J. A., & Moch, M. K. (1986). Individualism-collectivism: Concept and measure. Group and Organizational Studies, 11, pp.280-304.

Walker, M. M. (1993). The impact of career orientation on relationship support and conceptual stress: A cross-racial study. Dissertation Abstracts International, 53, (2-A) 410. (University Microfilm No. 1993-72463-001).

Wallwork, E. (1972). Durkheim: Morality and Milieu. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wanous, J. P. (1980). Organizational entry: Recruitment, selection and socialization of newcomers. Reading, MA.: Addison-Wesley.

Waters, J. A., & Bird, F. (1987). The moral dimension of organizational culture. Journal of Business Ethics, 6, pp. 15-22.

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1984). Negative affectivity: The disposition to experience aversive emotional states. Psychological Bulletin, 96, pp. 465-490.

Weber, M. (1930). The protestant ethic and the spirit of capitalism. New York, NY: Scribner.

Weber, Max (1948). Essays in Sociology. In H.H. Gerth and C. Wright Mills, trans. and (Eds.). London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Weber, J., & Green, S. (1991). Is it a viable approach to promote ethical integrity? Journal of Business Ethics, 10, 325-333.

Weber, R. P. (1985). Basic Content Analysis. Beverly Hill, CA.: Sage.

Weick, K. S. (1979). The social psychology of organizing. (2nd ed.). Reading, MA.: Addison-Wesley.

Weick, K. (1985). The significance of corporate culture. In P. Frost, L.F. Moore, M. R. Louis, C. C. Lundberg, & J. Martin (Eds.). Organizational Culture. pp. 381-389. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage

Wiener, Y. (1988). Forms of value systems: A focus on organizational effectiveness and culture changes and maintenance. Academy of Management Review, 13, pp. 534-545.

Weiss, H. M. (1978). Social learning of work values in organizations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63, pp. 711-718.

White, R. (1959). Motivation reconsidered: the concept of competence. Psychological Review, 66, pp. 297-323.

Whitehead, J. T. (1989). Probation officers job burnout: A test of two theories. Journal of Criminal Justice, 15, pp. 1-16.

Whitehead, J. T., & Linquist, C. A. (1989). Determinants of correctional officers' professional orientation. Justice Quarterly, 6, pp. 69-87.

Williams, L. J. (1988). Affective and non-affective components of job satisfaction and organizational commitment as determinants of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN.

Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1992). An alternate approach to method effects using latent variable models: Applications in organizational behavior research. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Meetings, Las Vegas, NV.

Williams, R. M., Jr. (1951). American Society: A Sociological Interpretation. New York, NY: Knopf.

Williams, R. M., Jr. (1968). The concept of values. In D. Shils (Ed.), International encyclopedia of social sciences. (pp. 283-287). New York, NY: Macmillan.

Wilkins, A., & Ouchi, W. (1983). Efficient cultures: Exploring the relationship between culture and organizational performance. Administrative Science Quarterly, 28, pp. 468-481.

Wolfe, R. A., Johnson, T. A., & Gephart, R. P. (1993). Computer-facilitated qualitative data analysis: Potential contributions to management research. Journal of Management, 19, pp. 633-660.

Wollack, S., Goodale, J. G., Wijting, J. P., Smith, P. C. (1970). Survey of Work Values. Bowling Green, OH: Bowling Green State University, Department of Psychology.

Wollack, S., Goodale, J. G., Wijting, J. P., Smith, P. C. (1971). Development of the Survey of Work Values. Journal of Applied Psychology, 55, pp. 331-338.

Woods, R. H. (1989). More alike than different: The culture of the restaurant industry. Cornell Hotel & Restaurant Administration Quarterly, 16, 82.

Yerkes, R. M. & J. D. Dodson. (1908). The Relation of Strength of Stimulus to Rapidity of Habit-Formation. Journal of Comparative Neurology and Psychology, 18, pp. 459-482.

Zeffane, R. (1994). Patterns of Organizational Commitment and Perceived Management Style: A Comparison of Public and Private Sector Employees. Human Relations, 47, (8), pp. 977-1010.

Zenger, T. R., & Lawrence, B. S. (1989). Organizational demography: The differential effects of age and tenure distributions on technical communication. Academy of Management Journal, 6, pp. 353-376.

Zierden, W. F. (1980). Congruence in the work situation: effects of growth needs, management style, and job structure on job related satisfactions. Journal Of Occupational Behavior, 1, pp. 297-310.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
SURVEY PACKET

Dear WSCJTC Participant,

You are being requested to participate in a research study being conducted, in cooperation with Oklahoma State University, designed to measure and compare employee values within the Washington State Criminal Justice Training Commission.

Method:

If you participate you will be asked to complete two questionnaires and one demographic sheet. You will answer the first questionnaire and the demographic sheet for yourself. Then you will complete a second questionnaire but this time you will answer as if you were speaking for the organization (such as the Board of Commissioners and the Executive Director).

The process should only take approximately thirty minutes and your efforts will be appreciated.

The results will be compiled and reported in the aggregate. This process is intended to assist the organization in developing a better understanding of the employees values and needs.

Thank you again for you participation.

Consent Form

- You are being asked to fill out two questionnaires and one demographic sheet.
- This is part of a research study being conducted, in cooperation with Oklahoma State University, designed to measure and compare employee values within the Washington State Criminal Justice Training Commission.
- The time expected to complete the questions will be approximately 30 minutes.
- Your confidentiality will be protected. **DO NOT PLACE YOUR NAME ON ANY OF THE FORMS!!!**
- Your participation is very important and appreciated, However it is totally voluntary. There is no penalty for refusal to participate.
- The results are intended to assist the organization in developing a better understanding of the employees needs.

If for any reason you feel you are being treated unfairly, you are welcome to contact Gay Clarkson, IRB Executive Secretary, 203 Whitehurst, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Ok. 74078; telephone number: (405) 744-5700.

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign freely and voluntarily. A copy has been given to me.

Thank You For Your Participation

Your Signature _____ Date _____

Project Director or her authorized representative.

9. In the last two years what effects have the change in leadership had on your personal levels of stress, performance and satisfaction at work?

- OVERALL MY STRESS LEVEL HAS Increased
 Decreased
 Unchanged
- OVERALL MY PERFORMANCE LEVEL HAS Increased
 Decreased
 Unchanged
- OVERALL MY SATISFACTION LEVEL HAS Increased
 Decreased
 Unchanged

10. The following is a description of four values.

Achievement/Working Hard = To be most concerned with good work and getting ahead.

Concern for others = To be most concerned with the feelings well being of others

Fairness = To be most concerned with the fair treatment of others

Honesty/Integrity = To be most concerned with behaving in an honest manner

Please rank these values in the order in which you believe they are most important to **YOU**. (1) = most important (4) = least important

- Achievement/Working Hard
 Concern for others
 Fairness
 Honesty/Integrity

Please rank these values in order in which you think they are most important to the **CURRENT ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP**.

1) = most important (4) = least important

- Achievement/Working Hard
 Concern for others
 Fairness
 Honesty/Integrity

Please rank these values in order in which you think they are most important to the **PREVIOUS ORGANIZATIONAL LEADERSHIP**.

1) = most important (4) = least important

- Achievement/Working Hard
 Concern for others
 Fairness
 Honesty/Integrity

APPENDIX B

CES SCALE

Use of the Comparative Emphasis Scale

Bruce M. Meglino
The Darla Moore School of Business
University of South Carolina
Columbia, SC 29208

1. What is the Comparative Emphasis Scale?

The Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES) is a copyrighted instrument that is made available free of charge for research purposes (see "Using the CES" below). The CES is designed to measure four general workplace values: achievement/working hard, concern for others/helping others, fairness, and honesty/integrity. For information on the nature of values and their measurement see:

Meglino, B.M., & Ravlin, E.C. (1998). Individual values in organizations: Concepts, controversies, and research. Journal of Management, (Yearly Review Issue, in press).

Ravlin, E.C., & Meglino, B.M. (1987a). Issues in work values measurement. In W.C. Frederick (Ed.) Research in Corporate Social Performance and Polycs Vol.9, (pp. 153- 183).

The CES 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. Statements were also matched based on the extent each represented the value with which it was associated (see Ravlin & Meglino, 1987a, b). Use thus far has indicated that individuals respond to the instrument in a generally transitive manner, that responses relate to decision making, prosocial behavior and ratings of performance, and that congruence on the measure between supervisors and subordinates is related to satisfaction, commitment, and other important work outcomes. Findings also indicate that scores on the concern for others subscale are inversely related to individuals' tendency to respond to information in terms of personal costs and benefits. Information on the development of the scale, and examples of its use can be found in:

Korsgaard, M. A., Meglino, B. M., & Lester, S. W. (1997). Beyond helping: Do other-oriented values have broader implications in organizations? Journal of Applied Psychology, 82, 160-177.

Korsgaard, M. A., Meglino, B. M., & Lester, S. W. (1996). The effect of other-oriented values on decision making: A test of propositions of a theory of concern for others in organizations. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 68, 234-245.

Adkins, C. L., Ravlin, E. C., & Meglino, B. M. (1996). Value congruence between co-workers and its relationship to work outcomes. Group and Organizational Management, 21, 439-460.

Adkins, C.L., Russell, C.J., & Werbel, J.D. (1994). Judgments of fit in the selection process: The role of work value congruence. Personnel Psychology, 47, 605-623.

McNeely, B.L., & Meglino, B.M. (1994). The Role of dispositional and situational antecedents in prosocial organizational behavior. Journal of Applied Psychology, 79, 836-844.

Bretz, R.D., & Judge, T.A. (1994). The role of human resource systems in job applicant decision processes. Journal of Management, 20, 531-551.

Judge, T.A., & Bretz, R.D. (1992). Effects of work values on job choice decisions. Journal of Applied Psychology, 77, 261-271.

Meglino, B.M., Ravlin, E.C., & Adkins, C.L. (1992). The Measurement of work value congruence: A field study comparison. Journal of Management, 18, 33-43.

Ravlin, E.C., & Meglino, B.M. (1989). The transitivity of work values: Hierarchical preference ordering of socially desirable stimuli. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 44, 494-508.

Meglino, B.M., Ravlin, E.C., & Adkins, C.L. (1989). A work values approach to corporate culture: A field test of the value congruence process and its relationship to individual outcomes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 424-432.

Ravlin, E.C., & Meglino, B.M. (1987a). Issues in work values measurement. In W.C. Frederick (Ed.) Research in Corporate Social Performance and Policies Vol.9, (pp. 153- 183).

Ravlin, E.C. & Meglino, B.M. (1987b). Effect of values on perception and decision making: A study of alternative work values measures. Journal of Applied Psychology, 72, 666-673.

2. Versions of the Scale

We have used two versions of the scale. The original version of the CES is designed to be used with populations of working individuals. A more recent version, the CES(S), contains some reworded items that make the scale more appropriate for use with student populations. The CES(S) was used in the previously cited studies by Korsgaard, Meglino, and Lester (1996; 1997).

3. Scoring the Scale

Each choice alternative on the CES relates to one of four basic values: achievement/working hard, concern for others/helping others, fairness, and honesty/integrity. The value categories for each item are shown on the Scoring Key for the CES. 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 may be 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 research by us and others has indicated that non-ipsative measurement is possible when the scale is used to measure only one value. That is, subjects' scores on a single value have been used in a variety of parametric statistical procedures.

4. 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. Four possible approaches to making between-subject comparisons are the following:

- a. As previously noted, comparisons can be made using the scores obtained for a single value.
- b. 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.
- c. Transformation of each rank to equal areas of the normal curve (see Feather, N.T., Values in Education and Society Free Press, 1975).
- d. Use of Fisher's r to z transformation by deriving within-subject correlation coefficients and cumulating them by transforming them to z scores.

5. Administering the CES

Our experience indicates that the validity of the CES is enhanced when respondents are told to reflect on their previous behavior as they answer the scale and to be prepared to justify their individual responses by providing examples from their behavior. We never actually ask respondents to furnish such justifications. We believe that this admonition tends to cause subjects to focus more attention on the scale.

6. Using the CES

We wish to encourage use of the CES and CES(S) by both researchers and practitioners. The CES is made 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 all methods of reproduction.
- b. The instrument may be used without charge for research purposes provided that, at the conclusion of the investigation, the investigator(s) furnish the Riegel and Emory Center with each subject's response and any demographic data obtained, including, whenever possible, job title. This requirement respects any confidentiality agreement between the investigator(s) and the subjects and no names or other personal identifying information should ever be furnished. This condition is imposed in order to enhance the scale's utility in future scientific investigations. These data can be furnished in either paper, disk, or electronic form. If you would like further information, you should contact the Research Director at the address below.
- c. When 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

Use of the Comparative Emphasis Scale

<http://www.business.sc.edu/comparusc.htm>

Riegel and Emory Human Resource Research Center
The Darla Moore School of Business
University of South Carolina
Columbia, SC 29208

Copyright © 1995-98. The Board of Trustees of the University of South Carolina
<http://www.business.sc.edu/comparusc.htm>
Last update: 10/26/98 by

Comparative Emphasis Scale

Elizabeth C. Ravlin and Bruce M. Meglino

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 when 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

Comparative Emphasis Scale

<http://www.badm.sc.edu/comparscale.htm>

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

Copyright © 1995-98, The Board of Trustees of the University of South Carolina
<http://www.business.sc.edu/comparscale.htm>
Last update: 10/26/98 by

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
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
 The Darla Moore School of Business
 University of South Carolina Columbia, South Carolina 29208
 (803) 777-5964

APPENDIX C

EMPLOYEE TERMINATION RECORD

EMPLOYEE NAME	TERM DATE	REASON
Addleman, Deborah	09/15/97 .	Reversion - Out of Agency, Voluntary
Alloway, Robin	12/31/97 .	Dismissal - Other
Bagley, Ruth	04/05/98 .	Demotion - Out of Agency, Voluntary
Beaumont, Kathleen	06/30/97	Resignation - No Reason
Braunstein, Marvin	04/18/97	Retirement
Brinson, Debi	06/16/97	Termination - Voluntary Physical/Mental Disability
Can-Thuy, Kim	02/11/98 .	Termination of Intermittent Employee
Chapman, Yvette	09/30/98 .	Transfer - Out of Agency, Same Pay
Damitio, Mark	07/18/97 .	Resignation - To Accept Other Employment, Outside of State Government
Gibson, Karen	10/01/98 .	Resignation - Other
Guerrero, Amadeo	09/12/97 .	Termination of Temporary Employee
Kuchman, Virginia	04/11/97	Resignation - To Accept Other Employment in Another Agency
Larson, Janice	02/28/98 .	Movement from Executive Brach Exempt to Classified
Logan, Patti	08/23/98 .	Transfer - Out of Agency, Different Class, Same Pay
Morgan, Robin	03/11/98 .	Termination of Temporary Employee
Paradise, Jean	01/23/98 .	Resignation - To Accept Other Employment, Outside of State Government
Rolfs, Tom	03/18/98 .	Termination of Temporary Employee
Scott, Jim	07/31/97 .	Retirement
Thomas, Roy	04/18/97	Reversion - Out of Agency to Reversion Register
Waters, Bettina	06/26/97	Resignation - To Accept Other Employment Outside of State Government
Watson, Shelley	10/15/97 .	Termination of Temporary Employee
Wegner, Garry	07/15/97 .	Retirement
Williams, Cynthia	05/25/98 .	Transfer - Out of Agency, Same Class
Willis, Dion	03/19/98 .	Termination of Temporary Employee

APPENDIX D

1999-01 STRATEGIC PLAN

MISSION STATEMENT

TRAIN CRIMINAL JUSTICE PERSONNEL
TO DELIVER THE HIGHEST QUALITY
SERVICE TO THE CITIZENS OF
WASHINGTON STATE.

STATUTORY AUTHORITY REFERENCES

Chapter 43.101 of the Revised Code of Washington sets forth the purpose, responsibility, and authority of the Criminal Justice Training Commission. Specific mandated training for state, county, and municipal law enforcement and corrections personnel is contained in RCW 43.101.200, RCW 43.101.220 and RCW 43.101.350.

APPENDIX E

EVALUATION COMMITTEE REPORT - 1986

of the evaluation process helped focus the teams efforts in such a fashion that both findings and recommendations could be formulated in the 12 specifically identified areas of review.

The 12 areas of review dealt with in the report are:

1. The organization's environment and its impact.
2. Defining the mission of the agency.
3. Developing goals and objectives.
4. A review of policies and procedures.
5. Current command structure and organizational effectiveness.
6. Communications both within and without the agency.
7. Staff training and career development for agency personnel.
8. Accountability and performance evaluation.
9. A review of people resources, including contract instructors.
10. The Criminal Justice Training Center as a physical plant: condition, needs, and future plans.
11. Equipment and procurement.
12. An assessment of current funding: strengths and weaknesses.

The majority of agencies queried by questionnaire with respect to the Training Commissions effectiveness and quality of programing responded in a positive vein: i.e., they were generally pleased with the scope and quality of training presently being provided, although nearly all users felt that the amount of training should be expanded and that the Training Commission needed more resources to do its job effectively. Specific concerns surfaced in the area of corrections, where the majority of corrections agencies felt that the basic corrections academy needed to be extended and expanded so as to accommodate additional curriculum.

The majority of those queried also indicated that the Training Commission should continue to provide expanded services in areas such as management assistance, uniform crime reporting (through contract with WASPC), loaned executive assistance, and crime prevention programing. While a number of respondents indicated a belief that the mission of the Training Commission was clearly defined in terms of its training role, nearly all of those queried felt that clarification was important as to the full scope of Training Commission services.

evaluation team received the impression that policies and procedures were developed and promulgated more in reaction to specific questions or problems than in some consistent and planned format. The majority of employees had not been given a policies and procedures manual and many had never even known that one existed. The one provided to the team largely consisted of excerpts from the State Employees' Manual and appeared to have been specifically assembled for the purposes of the evaluation and review process, although it contained a number of memoranda and other items issued over the past several years. This document may serve as a good starting point for the development and/or improvement of a Commission manual which could be used by commissioners and employees alike.

B. General Recommendations:

That the current policies and procedures manual be reviewed and expanded. That the policies and procedures manual include specifics pertinent to individual programs and projects, reporting procedures, assigned areas of responsibility, etc. It is also recommended that a process be established to assure that the manual be regularly updated and that each staff member should be provided with a copy of the agency's manual.

III. 5 Command Structure and Organization:

A. General Observations:

This is one of the areas in which there was almost unanimous agreement among all employees that significant improvements would be desirable. The team was provided an opportunity to review several different tables of organization and command charts. All of them list reporting relationships that are either obsolete or made difficult by virtue of the fact that much supervision seems to take place directly from the main

formally budgeted item with its staff demands clearly identified and measured. As is the case with any agency, we must constantly be looking for ways to be more efficient and effective through such things as personnel assignment and training, and the use of better technology. The Training Commission staff are generally a very talented, dedicated and hardworking group which has managed to accomplish much in spite of sparse resources and structural obstacles. A number of specific and detailed recommendations appear in the main body of the report which attempt to address some of these concerns.

In the area of contract personnel, there is a definite need for the Commission to take whatever steps are necessary to provide the agency with more direct control over the selection, assignment and utilization of such personnel. This may involve significant restructuring of contract relationships with major providers such as the Seattle Police Department, but is imperative if the Commission is going to fulfill its responsibilities and minimize its liabilities.

III. 10 Physical Plant: Condition/Needs/Future Planning:

A. General Observations:

The evaluation team received a lot of input from both Commission and contract staff as well as client agencies regarding the agency's physical plants, both at Burien and at Lacey. There was a general feeling that the agency had outgrown both facilities and that conditions such as cramped quarters or deteriorating facilities had a negative impact upon operations. While the specifics of this are dealt with in greater detail in the main body of the report, the general observations could be summarized as follows:

SPECIFIC RECOMMENDATIONS

I. The Organization's Environment and Its Impact:

- I. 1. Specific orientation and training should be provided members of the Commission itself. Such training and orientation should cover all aspects of Commission operations and responsibilities.
- I. 2. The Commission should continue to strongly encourage participation in all Commission meetings by all commissioners and by the Chair of any advisory committee or the Chair's representative.
- I. 3. A training and orientation program should be developed regarding the Commission programs and services so that members of our client agencies could gain a better overview of Commission activities and responsibilities.
- I. 4. The Commission members and staff should increase where possible their liaison with other units of State government in general as well as with those associations and organizations with which the Commission has a specific relationship.
- I. 5. The Commission should seriously consider a marketing strategy to ensure that the services it provides are understood and supported.

II. Definition of the Mission of the Agency:

- II. 1. The Commission should develop a contemporary mission statement based upon a review and analysis of current and future projects and programs. This mission statement should serve as the guideline for agency planning and prioritization efforts.
- II. 2. The development of the mission statement should be a process involving the Commission, its staff, and its client agencies.
- II. 3. An auditing mechanism should be established by Commission policy to ensure that programs and activities are reviewed on a regular basis to see that they conform to the mission statement and general plan.
- II. 4. Current and future contractual arrangements undertaken by the Commission should be reviewed to ensure that they are in accord with those policies formulated by virtue of the mission statement.
- II. 5. Once the mission statement is determined, the agency should develop an overall general plan which would serve as the framework for the identification of goals and objectives by units and sub-units of the agency.

III. The Development of Goals & Objectives:

- III. 1. The Commission should develop a specific set of goals for each general program and service area. These goals should be based upon and in harmony with the mission statement.
- III. 2. Staff should develop specific objectives for the implementation of goals for each program, service and project. These should be reviewed for approval by the Executive Director and the Commission.
- III. 3. The Goals and objectives in each area should be prioritized and assigned an implementation strategy.
- III. 4. The goals and objectives together with their implementation strategies should be printed and disseminated to all Commission members with specific reference as to commissioners' responsibilities where appropriate.
- III. 5. Staff responsible for each program should prepare and submit a time frame for the implementation strategy that can serve as a measurement as program objectives are carried out.

IV. Review of Policies & Procedures:

- IV. 1. The existing manual should be expanded to include specific job descriptions and responsibilities and to set forth more clearly and coherently internal Commission activities, procedures linkages.
- IV. 2. The development of the expanded manual should be done with input of staff at all levels. The manual format should be consistent and easily updated (e.g., loose-leaf format on word processor).
- IV. 3. A personal copy of the completed manual should be provided to each Commission employee and sufficient copies should be made available for contract personnel to access.
- IV. 4. New Commission staff members and contract employees should be given a specific orientation acquainting them with Commission policies, procedures and expectations.
- IV. 5. A distribution process should be set up to insure that manuals can be updated on a regular basis.
- IV. 6. A standardized format should be adopted which clearly indicates when communications are policies or procedures and from whence they emanate. All general policies should be submitted to the Commission for its approval.

V. Command Structure & Organization:

- V. 1. The chain of command within the Commission staff should be clearly defined and adhered to.
- V. 2. The Executive Director should see that authority is delegated downward appropriately so that the discretionary responsibility for making decisions is present at the most effective levels.
- V. 3. When decisions are made within the organization the information should be disseminated in such a way that all of those affected by them become aware of them in a timely fashion.
- V. 4. The current chain of command structure should be reevaluated in terms of program needs and emphasis.
- V. 5. The interrelationship of Commission staff and contract personnel at the Training Center should be addressed. It is important that both categories of personnel operate under the guidance and control of whomever is in charge of the Training Center itself and conform to Commission policies.
- V. 6. The Commission should initiate a thorough audit of staffing and assignments in order to ensure effective use of resources and to plan for future needs.

VI. Communications:

Within the Agency:

- VI. 1. A policy should be established which would require regular (at least monthly) staff meetings at both the Lacey and Burien sites. Staff should have the opportunity to submit agenda items and to learn of their disposition.
- VI. 2. Agency-wide, command-level staff meetings should be instituted on a monthly basis. Where appropriate, the results of those meetings should be communicated to both Commission and contract staff.
- VI. 3. Copies of Commission meeting minutes should be made conveniently available so that all personnel, both Commission and contract, can keep themselves apprised of Commission programs and activities.
- VI. 4. A consistent system of written communication should be established to ensure that all personnel can provide input and receive feedback regarding their area of activity and Commission programs in general, and do so within the appropriate command structure.

- VI. 5. Steps should be taken at the staff level to ensure adequate interdisciplinary communications with regard to scheduling facilities, sharing instructors, equipment and other resources, and to promote better interdisciplinary understanding and cooperation.

Inter-Agency Communications:

- VI. 6. A policy should be adopted establishing regular meetings for the purpose of contract monitoring and review by the agency staff and regular service providers such as the SPD, King County Department of Public Safety, etc.
- VI. 7. The Commission should continue its efforts to apprise client agencies of Commission activities by holding Commission and advisory board meetings in various parts of the state.
- VI. 8. Systems currently in use for scheduling schools and attendees should be reviewed to ensure that information is provided to the requesting agency in the most timely manner.
- VI. 9. The Commission should designate at least one and possibly two meetings a year as plenary workshop sessions to which client association representatives and program directors would be invited.
- VI. 10. The agency should continue to utilize existing avenues such as WASPC and the Executive Forum to communicate its needs and efforts to as broad an audience as possible.

VII. Staff Training & Career Development:

- VII. 1. The Commission should be articulating a clear and positive policy regarding training and career development for staff.
- VII. 2. The Commission should actively promote training and orientation sessions for commissioners and for administrative, instructional and clerical staff.
- VII. 3. Specific Funds should be allocated in each general discipline and in each program area to ensure ongoing training and development for administrative, instructional and clerical staff. The training policy should indicate a minimum number of hours of training per year for various types of staff. Records of such training and career development should be maintained as they are for personnel of client agencies.
- VII. 4. A mechanism should be developed whereby program or unit supervisors can initiate training requests for personnel assigned to them. Unit supervisors should know what their training budget is.

- VII. 5. An internal training and education committee should be established by the Executive Director so that staff development can be carried out in a planned and orderly fashion. Training should be planned in consideration of both individual career development and unit goals, but should be flexible enough to take into account additional opportunities when they arise unexpectedly.
- VII. 6. Wherever practical, exchange programs should be established with other training agencies so as to take advantage of resources that exist beyond the framework of our own agency. We should strive to have training and career development seen as the hallmark of our own organization and should set the example in training and career development for the agencies which we serve.

VIII. Accountability & Performance Evaluation:

- VIII. 1. The Training Commission should adopt a policy whereby employee productivity and excellence will be both recognized and rewarded.
- VIII. 2. Employee evaluations should be expanded to include individual career development and goals as well as unit and assignment goals and objectives.
- VIII. 3. The Commission should adopt a policy requiring the development of criteria for the selection/acceptance, evaluation and retainment of contract personnel whether they are supplied as a result of an agency contract or hired individually.
- VIII. 4. In addition to formal evaluation sessions, appropriate channels for informal and ongoing feedback should be established so that employees can be encouraged in their efforts and corrected or guided as changes take place in program or agency operations.
- VIII. 5. The Commission should be sensitive to the significant impact that such considerations as working conditions, recognition of achievement, sense of belonging, and involvement in decision-making processes have all overall employee productivity.

IX. People Resources Including Contract Instructors:

- IX. 1. The entire area of what functions are best carried out at the Lacey and Burien sites should be reexamined in light of current technology, program needs and space considerations.
- IX. 2. The Commission should consider investing sufficient fiscal resources so as to improve productivity at both sites by the addition of more word-processing stations, printers, etc.

- IX. 3. The Executive Director and his staff should review the work loads of various support personnel to ensure that they are equitable and to eliminate any unnecessary overlap or duplication.
- IX. 4. The Commission and Executive Director should discuss policies and strategies regarding the use of volunteers such as interns, student teachers, cadets and other resources at the administrative, instructional, clerical and maintenance levels.
- IX. 6. The Commission should exercise more direct control over the acceptance and use of contract employees as well as their designated responsibilities, activities and required qualifications.
- IX. 7. The Commission should consider including contract staff from other agencies where practical to make training programs more universal and representative of client agencies.

X. Physical Plant:

- X. 1. The Commission should develop, adopt and actively pursue and appropriate capital improvement programs for its facilities.
- X. 2. The Commission should consider the crowded conditions and space limitations of the headquarters at Lacey to see how that problem can be addressed.
- X. 3. The Commission should undertake a comprehensive evaluation of the Burien Training Center in terms of its specific physical needs inside and outside. A plan should be developed to address major structural problems such as leaking roofs, etc., as well as more cosmetic considerations.
- X. 4. The Commission should review its contract with the school district and allocate some resources to ensure adequate cleaning and maintenance both of the facility itself and the grounds. An improved maintenance plan should be developed.
- X. 5. The security of the Training Center should be significantly improved and a system of appropriate identification instituted for all users and visitors to Training Commission facilities in general.
- X. 6. A plan should be developed to bring about the creation of a professional atmosphere which reflects that the Center is a Training Commission facility and belongs to all of the client agencies which use it. This atmosphere should be reflected in the decorations, adornments, ceremonies and traditions of the Center itself.

- X. 7. Records should be kept of and policies established for the use of Training Commission facilities when such use extends beyond Commission-provided programing. Where possible, fees should be recovered to help with additional maintenance and cleaning requirements brought about by such activities.
- X. 8. A clear system of priorities and scheduling procedures should be established to assure that optimum scheduling access is given first to Commission programs and space requirements at both sites.

XI. Equipment & Procurement:

- XI. 1. An audit should be done to ensure that adequate equipment together with the resources to maintain it is provided at each classroom facility at the Training Center. Specific responsibility for the maintenance and use of such equipment should be assigned, and appropriate training given to assure that those who utilize it know how to do so.
- XI. 2. A computer inventory program should be obtained and used to track equipment purchases and to make equipment accessibility for staff or contract instructors easier. However, clear lines of responsibility for the use of such equipment should be established and maintained.
- XI. 3. Adequate funds should be obtained and allocated to ensure that existing equipment such as the computerized classroom is put to good use.
- XI. 4. The Academy video section should be analysed both in terms of equipment and staffing needs. Clear guidelines should be established as to who has authority to order productions and what the priorities are for this unit as well as who owns what equipment, etc.
- XI. 5. In all areas where there is a mix of Commission-owned and other agency-owned equipment, those informal agreements should be reviewed and - where productive - formalized as to the responsibility for the use and maintenance of such items.
- XI. 6. Basic equipment necessary for clerical productivity (typewriters, word processors, printers, etc.) should be upgraded and abundant enough to enhance rather than hinder productivity. Protection and maintenance of agency-owned equipment should be one of the considerations in security planning for facilities, etc.
- XI. 7. Appropriate authority should be delegated to program directors and unit supervisors so that they can plan for the purchase and distribution of that equipment and those supplies necessary for their own operations.

XII. Funding: Strengths & Weaknesses:

- XII. 1. The Commission should make a commitment to obtain resources adequate to implement the programs and priorities identified in its mission statement and long-range plan. Specific strategies should be developed by the Commission and its client agencies to address this need.
- XII. 2. The Executive Director and staff should review Commission accounting practices and budgeting systems to ensure that they are adequate for meeting current agency needs.
- XII. 3. Each program director or unit supervisor should be given a specific and detailed budget together with the authority to manage and use the resources allocated to that program.
- XII. 4. The Executive Director should initiate a budgetary review process so that those responsible for managing various programs would know at 6-month intervals what the overall budget looks like and whether there might be any cutbacks or reallocations which would affect their areas of responsibility.
- XII. 5. The Commission should develop and utilize an internal budget calendar together with a structured system of input which would encourage employees at all levels to be involved from the beginning in the budgetary process.
- XII. 6. The existing biennial budget should be reviewed and modified in accordance with whatever plan the Commission adopts for implementing some or all of the recommendations offered by the evaluation team.

SUMMARY STATEMENT:

Since its inception some 10 years ago, the Commission has enjoyed a highly motivated and competent professional staff which stretched scarce resources and 'made do' with limited facilities and equipment in order to provide a large quantity of high quality training and programming. As the resources become progressively more stretched and as more demands are made upon both indigenous and contract personnel, it is imperative that the Commission establish an expectation which focuses primarily upon product quality and employee involvement and accountability. In return for this expectation, the Commission should exert every effort to address employee needs and concerns and to share with its staff responsibility and authority for the achievement of Commission goals and objectives.

The evaluation team also recognizes that some of the specific recommendations which are enumerated above have already been or are beginning to be addressed by the Executive Director and his staff. Such areas as facility improvement, decentralization of Satellite training, heightening of Commission image, are showing the impact of this effort.

APPENDIX F

PATTERSON INVESTIGATION - 1995

INVESTIGATION REPORT

Prepared For

**THE WASHINGTON STATE
CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRAINING COMMISSION**

by

Barbara Patterson

March 2, 1995

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

General Conclusions. The consultant reaches the following general conclusions as a result of the investigation of work environment issues of the Criminal Justice Training

Commission:

1. Many women and employees of color perceive an environment that is frequently not comfortable for them and is sometimes outright "hostile."
2. The communication patterns and practices throughout the organization reveal the following: (a) many examples of lack of understanding by employees about the reasons for decisions; (b) poor supervisor-employee communication, particularly around performance issues; (c) frequent failure to deal with employees and issues directly and honestly; and (d) a lack of understanding or respect for the feelings and concerns of a diverse employee group.
3. The current management structure does not "make sense" to many and is perceived as creating more operating problems than serving as a needed change to managing the organization into the future.
4. Executive management is viewed as too distant and out of touch but, at the same time, too controlling and rigid in its views and approach.
5. The organization has engaged in some personnel management practices that appear inconsistent and subjective. This is particularly reflected in hiring and termination practices, grievance management, and communication between supervisors and subordinates.

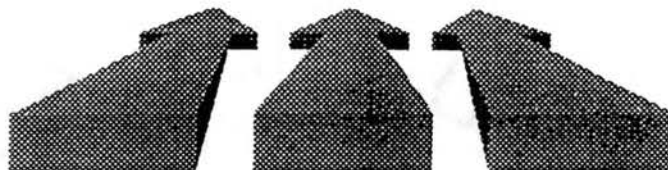
Recommendations. The consultant makes the following recommendations to the commissioners regarding the conclusions to this investigation:

1. Move to resolve the pending gender, race and disability discrimination complaints so that these do not continue to be a source of workplace tension.
2. Review the organization's discrimination policies and procedures. Consider whether or not the commissioners should have a role in the internal process and/or when information about grievances should go to the commissioners.
3. Train management personnel in how to handle discrimination complaints and issues, including appropriate intervention and conflict resolution techniques. Consider alternative ways for employees to make complaints that do not always require an employee to report through the normal chain of command. Consider naming several individuals to assist with an "intervention" or informal phase of a complaint before the employee is required to file a formal complaint.

4. Either select an individual within the organization who can provide consultation and expertise in personnel matters to supervisors and managers and/or make use of outside sources to assist with investigations or follow-up. This does not have to be a paid outside person. Appropriate resources may be available within the Department of Personnel, other agency's personnel officers, the Labor and Personnel section of the Attorney General's office, etc.
5. Develop appropriate performance standards and expectations for all employees, including contracted instructional personnel, and clearly communicate those standards and expectations. In addition, develop appropriate minimum and desired qualifications for employment of instructors, either by position or course as needed.
6. Review the management structure of the organization. Consider ways to: (1) allow better access to executive management; (2) create a reasonable scope of responsibility and authority for each separate management position; and (3) evaluate the requests for more technology training and development of more technologically advanced administrative and instructional support services.

APPENDIX G

KING TRANSITION REPORT - 1997



TRANSITION REPORT

Prepared for the
Washington State Criminal Justice
Training Commission by:

John M. King
Interim Executive Director
September 24, 1996 - February 15, 1997

The Commission also has an executive committee that has been empowered by the full Commission to deal with emergent policy and personnel issues which can not or should not await the next quarterly meeting.

The former secretary of the Department of Corrections, Chase Riveland, expressed a concern regarding "governance" over the criminal justice training being delivered. To paraphrase his concerns: he felt, that of the 12 members of the Commission, only two members represented the corrections arena, one from local government, and from state government. Of the other ten members, the vast majority represented law enforcement concerns.

Administrators from local and state juvenile services have expressed grave concern regarding the lack of representation on the Commission, and the universally perceived lack of training for juvenile corrections staff.

Additionally, the Council of Police, a law enforcement labor organization, has expressed interest in adding members to the Commission.

Recommendations:

- The Commission would benefit from a one or two day retreat to formulate a set of goals and objectives for future criminal justice training and set direction for the new director and the agency.
- The Commission has had much involvement in the day-to-day operations of the agency in the last two years. It would benefit the director and the Commission to discuss and clearly define roles and relationships regarding protocols, authorities of day-to-day operations, versus policy setting and decision making.
- The Commission is encouraged to make a clear statement regarding the establishment and empowerment of the advisory committees to help direct training resources critical to the demands of the customers, especially in light of the rapid changes in the full continuum of managing the criminal justice arena.
- During the study initiatives set forth by the legislature for the fiscal year 97-98, the Commission is encouraged to review the issues of governance with an interest of defining fair and balanced representation, and the resultant distribution of resources to meet the expressed needs of all the entities served by the criminal justice system.

Technology Management - refer to the attached "DIS Information Technology Assessment for CJTC" (includes "Support Staff Review Report" as appendix) for recommendations for improvements, both short and long term.

Facilities Management - coordinates with the Department of General Administration regarding lease management and maintenance of center buildings and equipment, provides logistical arrangements for utilization of classrooms and housing by instructors and students

Information Services Management - works in partnership with technology committee to develop/attain agency's information services goals and to establish priorities in acquisitions and usage

Procurement - ensures that all goods and services are purchased in compliance with ofm requirements and are received in a timely and acceptable manner; negotiates and administers service contracts

Administrative Support - receives visitors to the facility at reception; answers switchboard and routes calls; processes incoming and outgoing mail

During the 1995-96 training year, this division provided the necessary equipment, supplies, and training materials, for the conduct of more than 300 course offerings attended by 5000 students at the center and 15,000 students off-site. Additionally, this division effected the provision of meals and lodging for approximately 1600 of these students.

D. Facilities

ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE

The administrative office of the Commission is located on Saint Martins College Campus, Lacey, Washington. Currently, that office includes reception, the fiscal office, records, and Commission staff responsible for skills training, public attorneys/coroner training, law enforcement reserve academies, and the firearms certification program.

Although the Commission owns the modular building at this location, the two acre parcel is leased from the college on a calendar year basis. The structure is in much need of repair and has all but out lived its intended years.

Because the Commission's various training centers always have been located in the King County area, the bifurcation of staff and operation is long-standing. It has, however, become the subject of some concern by the Commission and will be subject to forthcoming review.

There are certain economies and efficiencies to be gained through closure of the Lacey office and incorporation of its staff and functions with Center operation. At the same time, there are both

APPENDIX H

CUSTOMER SURVEY - 1996

CUSTOMER SERVICE SURVEY RESULTS - LAW ENFORCEMENT

Section I. BASIC (ENTRY-LEVEL) TRAINING

Respondent Code: A = Agencies with 1-10 officers.
 B = Agencies with 11-40 officers.
 C = Agencies with 41-100 officers.
 D = Agencies with 100 officers or more.

Please rate each of the items below as they relate to:

Basic (entry-level) training

1. Number of hours:

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	80	3.04
B	118	2.86
C	68	2.43
D	50	2.14
Overall	316	2.70

The above ratings reflect the general pattern of ratings throughout this section i.e. the larger the agency the less satisfaction indicated regarding basic law enforcement training. The higher satisfaction rating by our smallest agencies is to be expected in that they typically have considered proposals for program expansion in terms of fiscal impact.

Those respondents providing written comment in large part address the need for additional hours. While the need for training in community policing and related topics is offered with some frequency in justification of a longer academy program, respondents generally indicate support for more time on subjects currently addressed with a "back to basics" emphasis. This position acknowledges the ongoing imposition of training "mandates" and a resultant need to steal time from basic instructional blocks to accommodate same.

2. Curriculum content (appropriateness to position, coverage of subject areas, etc.):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	78	3.31
B	117	3.03
C	68	2.59
D	50	2.56
Overall	313	2.93

Although above ratings generally are higher than those given to "number of hours" the ratings for each probably can be interpreted conjunctively i.e. quality of content is dependent upon quantity of time. In fact, few "new" topics are suggested for inclusion and most comments support an increase time expenditure for topics currently addressed e.g. legal subjects, mock scenes, etc. It does appear that respondents desire an increase and more effective emphasis on community policing and problem solving, a response which encouragingly gives rise to the conclusion that community policing is not a "fad of the week" and perhaps will endure as the underlying principle of policing for years to come.

3. Availability (frequency of sessions, waiting period for acceptance, etc.):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	87	2.90
B	109	2.72
C	65	2.68
D	45	2.58
Overall	306	2.74

No respondent regardless of agency size is truly satisfied with the availability of academy positions. Low ratings are to be expected given the increasing demand for basic training and the backlog resulting from the Commission's inability to accommodate that demand.

4. Quality of instruction (Are instructors effective? Are instructors responsive to needs of a diverse audience? Are learning objectives met?, etc.):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	77	3.64
B	110	3.44
C	64	3.12
D	47	3.17
Overall	298	3.22

All ratings above, regardless of responding agency size, exceed 3.0. While there remains room for improvement, these ratings would indicate the concept of multi-agency cadre and the process of recruiting/selecting cadre members are meeting the expectations of our customers.

5. Quality of graduate (ability of graduate to meet expectation of your agency, etc.):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	80	3.44
B	117	3.43
C	66	3.02
D	50	2.88
Overall	313	3.26

Because this is an outcome dimension, it is dependent upon other dimensions such as "number of hours" and "curriculum content" and, in fact, reflects the pattern of ratings for those dimensions i.e. the larger the agency, the less satisfaction indicated.

6. Communication (Is your agency advised of progress/problem of trainee, etc.):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	74	3.31
B	99	3.36
C	72	2.99
D	40	3.35
Overall	285	3.25

Although above ratings are acceptable with an overall rating of 3.25, written comments indicate a need for better constancy and regularity of communication with user agencies and the importance of progress reports to our agencies.

Section 2. INSERVICE (ADVANCED OR TECHNICAL) TRAINING

Please rate each of the items below as they relate to:

Inservice (advanced or technical) training

While the dimensions of "quality of instruction" and "applicability of courses" received overall satisfaction ratings in excess of 3.0, there is general dissatisfaction with the availability and accessibility of in-service training. The responses to this section can be summarized as a desire for "more courses, more places, more often".

8. Availability (# of courses, # of course sessions, waiting period for acceptance, etc.):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	78	2.58
B	114	2.30
C	64	1.98
D	51	2.10
Overall	307	2.27

9. Accessibility (Are locations of courses convenient?):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	79	2.80
B	114	2.77
C	64	2.95
D	51	2.71
Overall	308	2.81

10. Quality of instruction (Are instructors effective? Are instructors responsive to the needs of a diverse audience? Are learning objectives met?, etc.):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	78	3.64
B	111	2.55
C	72	3.44
D	51	3.22
Overall	312	3.14

11. Applicability of courses (Do courses offered meet your agency's needs?):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	79	3.28
B	113	3.18
C	64	2.83
D	52	2.92
Overall	308	3.09

Section 3. SUPERVISORY/MANAGEMENT TRAINING

Please rate each of the items below as they relate to:

Supervisory/management training

Supervisory/management training receives high satisfaction ratings regarding "quality of instruction" and "length of core courses". But, like in-service training, reflects customer dissatisfaction with availability and accessibility. Written comments show strong demand for more offerings in and for the eastside of the state and the need for regionalization is indicated.

Given the effort and commitment made by the Commission to its career-level certification program, the overall rating of 2.72 regarding the value of that program is troubling and probably indicates the need for both a marketing emphasis and a critical review of program requirements. Additionally, written comments reflect growing frustration with dwindling offerings and opportunity to complete the training necessary to meet those requirements.

14. Availability (# of courses, # of course sessions, waiting period for acceptance, etc.):

1 2 3 4
 dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	71	2.87
B	102	2.52
C	56	2.09
D	32	2.22
Overall	261	2.49

15. Accessibility (Are locations of courses convenient?):

1 2 3 4
 dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	71	3.21
B	102	2.83
C	57	2.96
D	41	2.83
Overall	271	2.96

16. Quality of instruction (Are instructors effective? Are instructors responsive to the needs of a diverse audience? Are learning objectives met?, etc.):

1 2 3 4
 dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	70	3.80
B	99	3.51
C	54	3.39
D	39	3.28
Overall	262	3.53

17. Length of "core" courses (1st Level Sup., Mid-Mgt., Exec. Dev., Command College, etc.):

1 2 3 4
 dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	69	3.56
B	100	3.41
C	55	3.54
D	38	3.13
Overall	262	3.44

18. How would you rate the value of the Career-Level Certification program to your agency?

1 2 3 4
 no value some value good value high value

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	63	3.06
B	91	2.54
C	48	2.71
D	37	2.57
Overall	239	2.72

Section 4. SKILLS TRAINING (Includes Instructor Development, instructor-level courses in Defensive Tactics, SWAT, Firearms, EVOG, etc.)

Please rate each of the items below as they relate to:

Skills training

Skills training receives high ratings for "quality of instruction" and "applicability of courses", and although better than in-service and supervisory/management training, shows customer dissatisfaction with both the availability and accessibility.

As with all other training categories, customers are demanding more offerings, more frequently, and in more locations.

20. Availability (# of courses, # of course sessions, waiting period for acceptance, etc.):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	63	2.98
B	106	2.78
C	61	2.48
D	49	2.47
Overall	279	2.71

21. Accessibility (Are locations of training convenient?):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	64	2.98
B	106	2.86
C	65	3.09
D	47	3.02
Overall	282	2.97

22. Quality of instruction (Are instructors effective? Are instructors responsive to the needs of a diverse audience? Are learning objectives met?, etc.):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	61	3.77
B	100	3.62
C	58	3.53
D	46	3.50
Overall	265	3.62

23. Applicability of courses (Do courses offered meet your agency's needs?):

1 2 3 4
 dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	64	3.62
B	105	3.48
C	60	3.30
D	49	3.20
Overall	278	3.42

Section 5. REGIONAL (satellite and short course) TRAINING

Please rate each of the items below as they relate to:

Regional training

As expected, regional training receives relatively high marks for accessibility but reflects dissatisfaction with availability. Although "quality of instruction" and "applicability" received relatively high marks, ratings for regional training probably would be higher if staff responsibility for coordination of regional training had not been reassigned several times during the last two years.

25. Availability (# of courses, # of course sessions, waiting period for acceptance, etc.):

1 2 3 4
 dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	81	2.91
B	109	2.86
C	57	2.54
D	47	2.66
Overall	294	2.78

26. Accessibility (Are locations of training convenient?):

1 2 3 4
 dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	83	3.32
B	110	3.06
C	56	2.96
D	47	3.28
Overall	296	3.15

27. Quality of instruction (Are instructors effective? Are instructors responsive to the needs of a diverse audience? Are learning objectives met?, etc.):

1 2 3 4
 dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	81	3.65
B	106	3.54
C	53	3.32
D	43	3.40
Overall	283	3.51

28. Applicability of courses (Do courses offered meet your agency's needs?):

1 2 3 4
 dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	80	3.36
B	103	3.32
C	55	3.18
D	45	3.07
Overall	283	3.26

Section 6. ORGANIZATIONAL ISSUES.

Please rate each of the items below as they relate to:

The Washington State Criminal Justice Training Commission_____

While Commission facilities and staff received relatively high marks, the ratings received for this section indicate that the larger the agency the less satisfied it is with organizational aspects of the Commission.

The lowest overall rating (2.49) is given to the ability of local agencies to influence/input policy decisions of the Commission. Hopefully, customer satisfaction can and will be increased in this regard through the establishment of advisory boards and a renewed effort on the part of both Commissioners and staff to involve stakeholders in our activities.

30. Degree of clarity of Commission's mission and purpose:

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	81	3.40
B	102	3.37
C	57	2.96
D	47	2.74
Overall	287	3.20

31. Adequacy of training classrooms/equipment at the Criminal Justice Training Center:

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	74	3.64
B	108	3.64
C	66	3.41
D	56	3.32
Overall	304	3.52

32. Adequacy of support services/facilities at the Criminal Justice Training Center (food service, dorms, parking, etc.):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	79	2.85
B	105	3.61
C	77	3.39
D	44	3.39
Overall	305	3.51

33. Responsiveness of Commission to current or emergent issues (domestic violence, community policing, cultural diversity awareness, gangs, etc.):

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	68	3.50
B	85	3.00
C	103	2.92
D	52	2.88
Overall	308	3.06

34. Ability of your agency to influence/input policy decisions of the Commission:

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	73	2.60
B	99	2.75
C	61	2.16
D	44	2.18
Overall	277	2.49

35. Commission's communication with your agency regarding upcoming events, emergent issues, case decisions, etc.:

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	79	3.05
B	112	3.00
C	57	2.84
D	50	2.42
Overall	298	2.88

36. Timeliness of Commission's program notices, course announcements, acceptance/rejection letters, etc.

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	83	3.26
B	112	3.01
C	62	3.03
D	54	2.46
Overall	311	2.99

37. Commission staff's helpfulness and willingness to assist in your routine/daily activities:

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	68	3.59
B	107	3.58
C	59	3.41
D	47	3.13
Overall	281	3.47

38. Willingness of Commission staff to work collaboratively to determine your agency's training needs:

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	67	3.24
B	86	3.19
C	43	2.91
D	40	2.65
Overall	236	3.06

39. Ability of the Commission to respond to your agency's training needs:

1 2 3 4
dissatisfied somewhat dissatisfied somewhat satisfied satisfied

Respondent	Number of Responses	Rating
A	73	3.18
B	102	2.88
C	54	2.61
D	51	2.71
Overall	280	2.88

APPENDIX I

INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY SERVICES

REPORT

Executive Summary

This assessment provides a high level analysis of the Criminal Justice Training Commission's (CJTC) mission, goals and objectives and examines if and how Information Technology (IT) is being applied in support of business requirements.

A complete understanding of CJTC's business requirements is necessary before any recommendation may be made about IT application. The assessment team found that CJTC's mission, business plan and operating procedures are not documented, commonly understood or consistently followed. Therefore, specific recommendations and precise cost estimates for IT implementation are not possible. Instead, the assessment focuses on some basic problems and provides "high-level" recommendations for applying information technology.

The assessment recognizes that CJTC is faced with a challenge. The demand for criminal justice training services continues to escalate, while revenue to support those services is not increasing at the same rate. The public and the Legislature expect CJTC to meet increased demand for services, while keeping the number of public employees to a minimum.

The assessment is based on data gathered during interviews with CJTC executives and staff. The interviews focused on the current IT environment, business processes and strategies for the deployment of information technology. Findings relate directly to CJTC's ability to effectively implement technology and automate business processes. A recommended course of action is offered with each finding.

It may not be possible for the CJTC to implement all recommendations immediately. Resource constraints and operational priorities must be considered independently of this effort and course of action established. This assessment can, however, provide the foundation for a CJTC strategic technology plan that will allow greater operational efficiency and effectiveness through the implementation of information technology.

Major Findings

The assessment found the following issues negatively impact CJTC's customer service capability:

- CJTC does not have a business plan for how it will provide programs and standards for the training of criminal justice personnel as required by RCW 43.101.020.
- CJTC does not have the human or technical resources to provide sufficient information to support funding from the Legislature.
- Timely cash flow information is unavailable, creating a risk that programs may exceed their budgets.
- CJTC has not developed standards or performance metrics for programs or instructors. Acquisition processes for instructor services do not adhere to requirements for competitive process and place CJTC at risk.
- Facilities and classrooms are ill-equipped and outdated. Computer workstations, network and general office software technologies are obsolete and critical computer applications are not available agency-wide due to incomplete network connectivity.
- Executive financial and information technology leadership is lacking.
- The registration system, known as URCM¹, is antiquated and does not effectively meet CJTC's business needs.

¹ CJTC did not inform the assessment team what the acronym, URCM, stood for.

Major Recommendations

To address the issues raised by this assessment it is recommended that CJTC:

- Develop a mission statement, business plan, and strategic IT plan designed to meet business goals.
- Secure capable executive leadership focused on financial and information technology issues.
- Establish and document policies to ensure consistent business practices and establish a standard set of metrics designed to measure critical success factors.
- Contract with a Network Engineer to design and build an adequate IT infrastructure and engage a competent computer technician to implement hardware, software, computer operating procedures and workstation support for employees, classrooms and business systems.
- Provide CJTC employees with computer workstations and modern software applications.
- Make immediate improvements to the registration system which will improve customer service and develop a plan to eventually replace the existing system with new technologies such as the Internet, electronic forms and interactive databases.
- Prioritize and automate some of CJTC's many manual processes including the contracts administration tracking process.

Business Problem Area

CJTC does not have criteria to measure how well its business performs.

Business Problem

CJTC is unable to confidently and accurately determine how well it is really accomplishing the mandated training requirements set by RCW 43.101.020.

Effects

CJTC has a large backlog of students to train but just how many students are waiting for training is unknown.

The BLEA Program alone reports it "thinks" it is at least 20% behind in delivery of statutory mandated training.

The Management and Supervisory Program reports a "large backlog" in delivering the supervisory training for new supervisors on time.

The BLEA Program reports that needs for "urban training" are not met.

Program Managers know they are not fulfilling required training for large backlogs of trainees and do not know what to do about the work pile-up.

Program Managers cannot accurately forecast how many customers they CAN train within a quarter versus how many customers request training.

Causes

CJTC has not set realistic training statistic goals by program.

Funds are not budgeted. Funds seem to be spent reacting to the "over-demand" for training delivery.

CJTC employees do not have a clear understanding about whether or not success is achieved.

CJTC has not carefully defined the crucial business functions and how to closely measure them.

There are no effective information processes that show if CJTC is performing its job. For instance, CJTC does not track the number of students trained in each program for each month and the associated costs that CJTC spent in delivering that training.

Business Problem Area

Human and information relationships critical to CJTC's success are non-existent.

Business Problem

CJTC does not have inter-agency organizational connectivity.

Effects

Program Managers are program oriented but not agency oriented. While Program Managers may have some information needed to operate their piece of the business they lack basic information about crucial business functions such as cash flow, customer satisfaction, legislative impacts and other local and national CJTC program trends and developments. Therefore, Program Managers are not "directing programs" they are enmeshed in the work-a-day activities of writing curriculum, student selection, as well as contract and registration administration.

Causes

CJTC has no strategic plan for communication of the agency mission, goals, objectives, or successes. CJTC needs to make it a priority to clearly define needed communication methods that promote internal communication.

CJTC has not established a response mechanism to show if CJTC is performing its job.

CJTC lacks the communication processes to gain complete and timely information necessary to manage the business, people and resources of the agency.

Inconsistent method of sending and receiving messages among CJTC customers, executives, program managers, administration and program staff causes confusion, ineffectiveness and suspicion.

Scheduling meetings and training rooms is a time-consuming chore.

APPENDIX J

SHEILA EMORY MEMORANDUM

**HUMAN RESOURCE RECOMMENDATIONS
CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRAINING COMMISSION**

The Criminal Justice Training Commission operations are similar to a "mom and pop store" due to the size and limited interaction with diverse organizations. As an organization it has had little exposure to those issues facing diverse public/private agencies. Recent lawsuits have brought about the kind of attention that is needed to prepare the organization for the future.

Policy Development

The agency does have a policy manual. Confusion continues to exist as to the most recent version. One fact is clear; policies and practices have been inconsistently applied.

The necessary policies can be separated into three categories, executive, business and employee development. For ease of reference I have listed them below by category:

Executive

Mission and Goals
Role of Executive Director and Commission
Delegation of Authority
Ethics

Business

Use of Public Resources
Establishment of Office Hours
Exchange Time
Compensation for Scheduled/Non Scheduled Employees
Work Periods and Flex-Time
Travel Rules and Regulations

Employee Services & Development

Washington Management Services to include compensation, reviews and training
Tuition Reimbursement
Equal Employment Opportunity and Affirmative Action
Preventing Sexual Harassment
Filing and Responding to Complaints
Reasonable Accommodation
Family Medical Leave Act
Shared Leave
Return to Work Program
Violence in the Workplace

Post-It™ brand fax transmittal memo 7871		# of pages ▶
To <i>John King</i>	From <i>Shila</i>	
Co.	Co.	
Dept.	Phone #	
Fax #	Fax #	

Employee Development Assessment

Employee development opportunities appear to be available and accessed by staff however much of the training received is in-house. I do not question the quality of this training, but in my opinion, much is to be gained by developing individual training plans that will expose the staff to other state employees and diversity of issues. All classes listed below are offered by the Department of Personnel for a nominal sum.

I offer the following suggestions:

Administrative Support

Customer Service
Working Through Change
Interpersonal Communication Skills
Problem Solving & Decision Making
Success Habits

Professional Staff:

Time Management
Solving Problems: Tools & Techniques
Leadership
Reasonable Accommodation Process in State Government
Working Through Change

Management Staff

Manager's Role in the Human Resource System
Motivation in the Changing State Office
Reasonable Accommodation Process in State Government
Time Management
Taking Corrective Action
Sexual Harassment Prevention
Interviewing for Employee Selection
WMS Training
Working Through Change

As a minimum, I strongly recommend that all employees attend the DOP Working through Change training. The Department of Personnel is available to provide this training on an agency wide basis and tailored to the individual agency needs. I further recommend that managers receive a full indoctrination in current employment law.

APPENDIX K
A RELOCATION FEASIBILITY
STUDY - 1988

compensatory benefits for the temporary replacement of an attendee to the Law Enforcement Academy.

In addition, CJTC program responsibilities also included the administration and funding of the state's Uniform Crime Reporting program and the professional development services of the Washington Association of Sheriffs & Police Chiefs (WASPC).

Organization

According to statute, the 12-member Commission includes representatives from city police and county sheriff departments, county prosecuting attorneys, the State of Washington Attorney General, the Director of the State Department of Corrections, the Chief of the Washington State Patrol, a Special Agent from the Seattle Office of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, a county Commissioner and a citizen-at-large.

CJTC activities are administered by an Executive Director. The organization is defined by six functional groups including 1) Commission training and administrative personnel - overseen by the CJTC Assistant Director, 2) law enforcement academy and in-service instructors (who are contracted personnel from the Seattle Police Department), 3) corrections training personnel and instructors - overseen by a Corrections Training Manager, 4) Training Center administrative personnel - overseen by a Training Center Director, 5) agency fiscal accounts - overseen by an Agency Accounts Officer and 6) contracted administrative personnel and services for the Washington Association of Sheriffs and Police Chiefs (WASPC) - overseen by an Executive Director of WASPC.

The CJTC Executive Director and ten headquarters administrative staff are housed in Lacey, and all WASPC personnel are housed in Olympia in order to be close to the state capitol campus. All other functions and personnel are housed at the CJTC Training Center in Burien.

Administrative Facilities

CJTC administrative offices are located in an older 5,000 square foot portable building on Saint Martin's College campus in Lacey. The building also contains a classroom which serves as the local satellite training site for criminal justice agencies within Mason and Thurston Counties. The building's location and parking accommodations are excellent. However, the portable building is 13 years old and needs extensive renovation. Renovation efforts would not be cost effective since the original structure is of relatively poor quality and could not be improved much beyond it's original construction.

The Washington Association of Sheriffs & Police Chiefs (WASPC) and the state's Uniform Crime Reporting Program are housed in a 3,000 square foot office building in Olympia. The building is in good condition and was recently purchased by WASPC for this purpose.

CJTC administrative headquarter's activities and WASPC activities and personnel perform similar functions and require similar space. Ideally, the two functions should be consolidated within a single building within the Olympia area, or if possible with the Training Center if the center is sited within a 30 minute commuting distance from Olympia, to improve office productivity and building efficiencies.

Training Center Facilities

The CJTC Training Center is housed in the former Glacier High School, a 25-year old, 94,034 gross square foot facility at 2450 South 142nd Street in South King County. The CJTC Training Center leases the property and all facilities from the Highline School District

APPENDIX L

TRAINING AND CONFERENCE

MASTER PLAN

Executive Summary

Background

The Washington State Criminal Justice Training Center (CJTC) has operated its law enforcement and corrections academies at a former high school located in Burien since 1976. This facility has accommodated training needs in often less than desirable conditions - many structures are aged and not soundproofed, the location is under the flight path of Sea-Tac Airport, there is no air conditioning, and there are awkward room/building configurations. This building complex was originally designed for high school uses, despite CJTC space adaptations throughout the facility. As training needs became more specialized and enrollment increased, the facility has become inefficient for the training center.

By 1985, the Criminal Justice Training Commission determined that a new training center was seriously needed.

After a series of studies that projected long range space and facility requirements and colocation strategies, the State Department of General Administration (DGA) through its Property Management Division, in 1989 acquired a 35.8 acre site located approximately eight miles southwest of Sea-Tac Airport.

The site is the former location of a private bible school and chapel. Vacant for the past year, the purchase included three buildings; a 63,147 s.f. chapel, a 40,834 s.f. classroom facility, and a 20,168 s.f. 16-unit apartment; an unrefined athletic field, and on site surface parking capacity for 700 vehicles. Approximately 77% of the site is left undeveloped, populated by dense groves of madronas and mixed evergreens.

With approximately 124,149 gross s.f. of space available, much potential exists for siting a more comprehensive criminal justice training center as well as mutually meeting state training facility needs. Some of the desirable aspects of the site include:

- An urban location and short travel times to Seattle, Boeing Field & SeaTac Airport destinations.
- Woodland environment considered conducive to training and inservice functions.
- Outdoor spaces to accommodate physical training requirements.
- Immediate availability of some spaces for initial operations and transition into long range project move-in.
- A large assembly space for state-wide conferences and events.
- Existing parking.

APPENDIX M

POLICE TRAINING AGENCY ACCUSED

OF BIAS

Police-training agency accused of bias

, race discrimination among charges by current, former workers

JIM SIMON
Seattle Times Olympia bureau

OLYMPIA — The state agency that provides basic training for all police and corrections officers — including a required primer on cultural diversity — is itself beset by charges of sexual and racial discrimination.

A Seattle policewoman has a lawsuit pending against the Washington State Criminal Justice Training Commission, alleging she was forced out of her teaching position after she

became pregnant. Three other current or former employees of the academy operated by the commission have filed separate civil-rights complaints that range from pay discrimination to sexual harassment.

In addition, two black King County police officers, Capt. Oliver Moore and Detective Marian Honeysuckle, say they left the staff before their two-year contracts expired, in part because of the working atmosphere.

The latest to leave is Michelle Andreas, a white program manager

for the corrections-training program. She echoed complaints of mistreatment voiced by several other current or former women staffers.

"It was increasingly hard for me to train corrections workers in cultural diversity, to sit up and talk about fairness and justice, when our agency is one of the worst offenders," said Andreas, who took another job two weeks ago.

Meanwhile, the state African-American Affairs Commission has launched its own study into the

treatment of women and minority staffers at the training facility. Commission Director James Kelly says he's also concerned about a cutback in class time devoted to cultural diversity and the lack of any male African Americans on staff.

The academy, in Normandy Park, trains 600 police officers and 1,000 corrections workers each year.

Attempts to paint the 31-person agency as a troubled organization unwelcoming to women and minorities are flatly inaccurate, says Jim

Scott. A former college administrator and police officer, Scott has been the training facility's executive director since it opened in 1975.

He contends Seattle Police Detective Maurine Stich, who alleges in her suit that she was dismissed because of pregnancy, actually was removed because of her teaching performance. He says he tried unsuccessfully to resolve the other complaints internally and certainly didn't ignore them, as some women staffers charge.

"I'm disturbed that we've run into a pocket of dissension, but I'm confident that we can work these problems out," he said. "Contrary to what

James Kelly says, we're doing a tremendous amount for cultural diversity in law enforcement that even goes well beyond what's in our classes."

The training commission is run by a 12-person board that includes Attorney General Christine Gregoire, Department of Corrections head Chase Riveland and State Patrol Chief Roger Bruett. The board will discuss the concerns at its quarterly meeting next week.

Several members said they've been unaware of alleged problems at the academy until now.

PLEASE SEE *Bias* ON B 2

Discrimination charged at state agency

Bias

CONTINUED FROM B 1

Last spring, Innovision, a consulting firm hired by the commission, wrote a brief report that contends many employees felt the agency was run with a military-style emphasis on conformity, and discriminated against women and minorities in promotions. The report, based on surveys of the staff, said many workers also feared retaliation if they spoke out about problems.

Four formal complaints filed

Those who have filed formal complaints are:

- Stich, who has filed a discrimination suit, found out she was pregnant the same day that Moore, then head of the recruit-training program, hired her on a two-year contract. She informed Moore, who never saw the pregnancy as a problem.

But she contends other male managers did, calling her in for a meeting while Moore was on vacation and informing her she would be terminated because of complaints about her performance. She says she was never shown the complaints. Moore, who left the academy a few weeks later, says he found Stich's teaching performance adequate and says she was never provided proper training by the academy.

- Karen Gibson, a corrections-training manager and the highest ranking African-American on the staff, has filed a discrimination complaint with the state Human Rights Commission. She was made "invisible" after complaining about inappropriate behavior by her male boss, she says.

She charges her boss stopped inviting her to management meetings, hired her subordinate without allowing Gibson to interview the woman and wouldn't allow her to do the budget for her own section. "Management told me they'd take care of

it. I'm still waiting," she said.

- Carole Carpenter, a former secretary dismissed during her probation period, claims in a complaint filed with the state Human Rights Commission that she was sexually pressured by her supervisor.

- Debi Staples, a training support specialist, filed a complaint with the federal Equal Employment Opportunity Commission alleging she was paid less than the man who previously had the job.

Scott declined to comment further on the complaints.

More legal action considered

Honeysuckle, an African-American woman who was hired to teach recruits, says she is also considering legal action. As part of an internal investigation into potential harassment claims against another staffer, she says, Scott asked other employees about her private life. Unfounded rumors about her even filtered to King County Sheriff Jim Montgomery, she says. Scott says he only asked such questions of Honeysuckle directly, but she contends he never talked to her.

She also believes her complaints about such questions played a role in her eventual reassignment to a less desirable teaching position, prompting her to leave the academy with several months left in her two-year contract.

To Honeysuckle, part of the problem is academy officials' lack of awareness concerning women and minorities. For example, she said, one boss scheduled a staff retreat on Martin Luther King Day — an official state holiday — only canceling it after she told him she planned to take her son to a celebration.

"I'm thinking, why do I have to explain this to these people?" Honeysuckle said.

Some see problems, some don't

Moore, the only African-American man on staff during his tenure, says the academy is still adjusting to the realities

of modern policing, in which women and minorities have assumed more visible roles and recruits work in more racially diverse communities.

"It was uncomfortable for me," says Moore, who left before his two-year contract expired. "I recruited a diverse staff because I wanted that as a role model. But there were significant problems with treatment of women and minority staff."

That opinion isn't unanimous among all minorities or women who have worked there.

Seattle Police Detective Les Liggans, an African American who taught at the academy in 1992 and 1993, says, "My experience was positive. I didn't see any of those problems."

Scott blasts Innovision's work at the agency, charging that the consultants worsened problems by casting all issues in racial terms and telling employees at one training session that they worked for a "dysfunctional agency."

Scott, who only attended part of the training, says his one-on-one talks with employees revealed no widespread hostility.

While the length of the cultural-diversity class for police recruits has been trimmed from 8 hours to 4, Scott says that was done so diversity issues could be incorporated into other course work.

He also says the commission recently contacted the Black Law Enforcement Officers Association for help in recruiting a minority officer to replace Honeysuckle as instructor for the diversity course. The course is taught now by the head of basic training, a white police sergeant from Mountlake Terrace.

Scott insists that instead of arguing about reduced course hours and who is teaching what courses, "Someone has to say: What is the problem? Show me how we're not training recruits to deal with race and gender issues, with cultural diversity."

APPENDIX N

JULY 29, 1988 - DISCRIMINATION

ARTICLE

Manager sues police academy, alleging discrimination



Manager sues police academy, alleging discrimination

Female supervisor claims hostile working conditions, less pay than white men

July 29, 1998

Elaine Porterfield; The News Tribune

A manager at the state's police academy has sued the agency for the second time, contending she was discriminated against on account of her race and gender.

The plaintiff, Karen Gibson, is supervisor of the corrections officer program at the Criminal Justice Training Commission in Des Moines. The position is responsible for the curriculum and for hiring instructors for the program.

Gibson, of Portuguese and African ancestry, alleges academy officials tolerated a hostile working environment and paid her less than white men in comparable positions.

Commission administrators received the lawsuit Tuesday and have yet to discuss it with their lawyers, deputy director Sharon Tolton said.

Gibson is seeking attorney fees, court costs and unspecified monetary damages. She was placed on paid administrative leave June 26 and is working from her home.

The Washington State Patrol is investigating Gibson regarding misconduct alleged by academy officials. Details of any alleged misconduct weren't released.

Tolton said the Patrol is investigating the matter to maintain neutrality in the fact-finding.

The academy provides basic and advanced training for police, sheriff and corrections officers in the state.

The academy has been the focus of discrimination complaints in the past, and was tagged by a state report in 1995 as an uncomfortable, sometimes-hostile work environment for many women and minority employees.

Gibson previously sued the Training Commission for discrimination.

Her first suit was settled in 1995. As part of the settlement, the Training

Commission agreed to expunge certain memos from her personnel file, which has not yet been done, according to the current suit.

In the second suit, Gibson alleges that in June 1997, she requested via a memo to commission director Michael Parsons pay equity with other managers at her level, all of whom were white.

When she got no response by the end of October, she sent another memo.

In December, Parsons sent back a memo refusing to increase her pay. His memo also contained "false and disparaging statements" about Gibson, she contends in her suit.

Also in December, Gibson received a memo from management that "contained disparaging and false comments" about her job performance.

At the end of December, Gibson was informed she was being temporarily replaced as manager of the corrections academy by a white man.

On one occasion, Gibson contends, Parsons told her, "I just can't figure you out ... It's not like I haven't worked with black women before."

Because of the hostile workplace, Gibson became disabled by stress by March, as documented by her health care provider, the suit states. But rather than make "reasonable accommodation" regarding her stress disability, officials removed her from her position and placed her in another.

Discrimination lawsuits and other problems have dogged the academy for some time. At least two other suits against it are pending, according to Gibson's attorney, Shelley Kostrinsky of Seattle.

"Our contention is things have deteriorated there," she said.

The 1995 report about the academy stated that most women and minorities interviewed there perceived the work environment as frequently uncomfortable and sometimes hostile.

The report also said female employees said they felt devalued, and that their views usually were written off as irrelevant by managers, who were mostly white men.

Some of the men who worked there disagreed with the allegations, the report said.

The report suggested the academy's discrimination policies be reviewed, and that managers be trained to handle discrimination issues.

* Staff writer Elaine Porterfield covers courts in King County. Reach her at 206-467-9845 or by e-mail at ebp@p.tribnet.com

© The News Tribune

APPENDIX O

SICK LEAVE HOURS TAKEN

REPORT NO: HRISD-82250-R01
 AGENCY 227 CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CO
 SUB-AGY CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CO
 ATTD UNIT 01 CRIMINAL JUSTICE

STATE OF WASHINGTON
 DEPARTMENT OF PERSONNEL
 LEAVE SUMMARY REPORT FOR SEPTEMBER, 1998
 ATTENDANCE UNIT LEAVE BALANCES

NO OF EMPLOYEES PER THIS ATTENDANCE UNIT	NO OF EMPLOYEES BY MERIT SYSTEM :	MERIT 1 :	34	NO OF EMPLOYEES WHO AUTOMATICALLY ACCRUE LEAVE :	NO OF EMPLOYEES WHO ARE ON LEAVE WITHOUT PAY STATUS :
34		MERIT 3 :	0	34	1
		MERIT 4 :	0		
		MERIT 5 :	0		
		MERIT 6 :	0		
		MERIT 9 :	0		

	SICK LEAVE		ANNUAL LEAVE		HOURS
	HOURS	MONETARY VALUE	HOURS	MONETARY VALUE	
BEGINNING BALANCE	8,974.9	\$187,764.93	4,962.2	\$99,527.07	*****BALANCE
EARNED	272.0	\$5,047.20	385.6	\$7,377.48	*****BALANCE
TAKEN	450.7-	\$10,178.22-	321.3-	\$6,086.63-	*****BALANCE
PAID	.0	\$.00	.0	\$.00	*****BALANCE
ADJUSTED	159.0-	\$4,184.04-	77.2-	\$1,724.93-	*****BALANCE
DONATED	.0	\$.00	.0	\$.00	
DONATION RETURNED	.0	\$.00	.0	\$.00	
ENDING BALANCE	8,637.2	\$178,449.89	4,949.3	\$99,092.98	*****BALANCE
ANNUAL LEAVE HOURS LOST DUE TO MAX. ANNUAL BALANCE			.0	\$.00	

	SHARED LEAVE		COMP TIME		HOURS
	HOURS	MONETARY VALUE	HOURS	MONETARY VALUE	
BEGINNING BALANCE	40.0	\$516.00	162.1	\$2,214.87	
EARNED/RECEIVED	.0	\$.00	18.0	\$234.96	
TAKEN	.0	\$.00	39.0-	\$515.03-	
PAID	*****BALANCE NOT REQUIRED*****		*****BALANCE NOT REQUIRED*****		*****BALANCE
ADJUSTED	40.0-	\$516.00-	.0	\$.00	
ENDING BALANCE	.0	\$.00	141.1	\$1,934.80	

	MILITARY		OVERTIME		HOURS
	HOURS	MONETARY VALUE	HOURS	MONETARY VALUE	
BEGINNING BALANCE	.0	\$.00	2.0-	\$25.80-	
EARNED	.0	\$.00	26.8	\$377.04	
TAKEN					

REPORT NO: HRISD-B2248-841
 AGENCY : 227 CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 AB-AGY : CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 ATTENDANCE UNIT : 01 CRIMINAL JUSTICE

STATE OF WASHINGTON
 DEPARTMENT OF PERSONNEL
 LEAVE ATTENDANCE SYSTEM CHANGE REPORT
 DATA PROCESSED FOR SEPTEMBER, 1998

DATE: 10/13/98
 PAGE: 3

	BEG. BALANCE	EARNED/RECEIVED	TAKEN/REPORTED	PAID/REPORTED	ADJUSTMENTS	DONATED	RETURNED	END BALANCE	MARKING
		OLD SEN	NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	12/08/97	ANNIVERSARY DATE	04/20/96	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	24.0	0.0	24.0					0.0	
S) SICK LEAVE	24.9	0.0	18.5					14.4	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL		1 HOL					NONE	
V) LEAVE WITHOUT PAY	56.0							56.0	
W) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	55.3		18.5					73.8	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	16.2							16.2	
		OLD SEN	NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	02/18/78	ANNIVERSARY DATE	02/18/78	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	119.3	14.7	4.0					130.0	
S) SICK LEAVE	72.2	0.0						88.2	
C) COMP TIME	3.0							3.0	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	48.1							48.1	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	56.3							56.3	
		OLD SEN	NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	12/01/75	ANNIVERSARY DATE	12/01/75	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	258.8	14.7						273.5	MARKER
S) SICK LEAVE	137.6	0.0						145.8	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
C) COMP TIME	.1							.1	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	26.0							26.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	99.8							99.8	
MARKING MESSAGES : NEAR ANNUAL MAX									
		OLD SEN	NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	12/19/83	ANNIVERSARY DATE	12/19/83	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	203.3	14.0	40.0		19.0-			147.3	
S) SICK LEAVE	547.3	0.0	4.0					551.3	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
C) COMP TIME	20.5		6.5					22.0	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	43.5		4.0					47.5	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	526.6							526.6	
		OLD SEN	NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	09/02/96	ANNIVERSARY DATE	03/02/96	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	0.0	0.0	6.0		9.0			0.0	
S) SICK LEAVE	0.0	0.0	6.0		48.0			11.0	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	0.0	0.0	6.0		39.0			56.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN			6.0					45.0	

PORT NO: HRISD-B2248-R01
 ENCY : 227 CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 B-AGY: CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 TENANCE UNIT : 01 CRIMINAL JUSTICE

STATE OF WASHINGTON
 DEPARTMENT OF PERSONNEL
 LEAVE ATTENDANCE SYSTEM CHANGE REPORT
 DATA PROCESSED FOR SEPTEMBER, 1998

DATE: 10/13/98
 PAGE: 4

	REG. BALANCE	EARNED/ RECEIVED	TAKEN/ REPORTED	PAID/ REPORTED	ADJUSTMENTS	DONATED	RETURNED	END BALANCE	MARKING
MC		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	12/16/94	ANNIVERSARY DATE	12/16/94
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	135.6	9.4						145.0	
S) SICK LEAVE	123.5	0.0	.5					131.0	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
C) COMP TIME	40.0	3.0	2.0					41.0	
M) LEAVE WITHOUT PAY	40.0							40.0	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	21.5		.5					22.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	01.0							01.0	
MC		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	07/13/90	ANNIVERSARY DATE	07/13/90
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	16.0	0.0						20.0	
S) SICK LEAVE	16.0	0.0						20.0	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	16.0	0.0						20.0	
MC		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	04/07/97	ANNIVERSARY DATE	04/07/97
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	120.0	0.7						140.2	
S) SICK LEAVE	120.0	0.0						120.0	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	0.0							0.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	64.0							64.0	
MC		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	04/15/93	ANNIVERSARY DATE	04/15/93
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	290.0	10.0						300.0	RRRRR
S) SICK LEAVE	435.5	0.0	160.0		160.0-			107.5	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	60.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN			160.0					160.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	334.5				131.0-			203.5	
MARKING MESSAGES : NEAR ANNUAL MAX									
MC		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	09/03/97	ANNIVERSARY DATE	09/03/97
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	64.0	0.7						72.7	
S) SICK LEAVE	36.7	0.0	12.0					32.7	
C) COMP TIME	52.7	15.0	27.5					40.2	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	27.3		12.0					39.3	
MC		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	02/03/92	ANNIVERSARY DATE	02/03/92
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	00.0	10.0						90.0	
S) SICK LEAVE	39.0	0.0						47.0	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	57.0							57.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	32.0							32.0	

REPORT NO: HRISD-B2244-R01
 AGENCY : 227 CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 ID-AGY: CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 ATTENDANCE UNIT : 01 CRIMINAL JUSTICE

STATE OF WASHINGTON
 DEPARTMENT OF PERSONNEL
 LEAVE ATTENDANCE SYSTEM CHANGE REPORT
 DATA PROCESSED FOR SEPTEMBER, 1998

DATE: 10/13/98
 PAGE: 5

	BEG. BALANCE	EARNED/ RECEIVED	TAKEN/ REPORTED	PAID/ REPORTED	ADJUSTMENTS	DONATED	RETURNED	END BALANCE	MARKING
		OLD SEN	NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	11/21/77	ANNIVERSARY DATE	11/21/77	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	292.0	14.7	44.0					267.0	*****
S) SICK LEAVE	732.0	0.0						744.0	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	15.0							15.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASIS	683.0							683.0	

WARNING MESSAGES : NEAR ANNUAL MAX

	BEG. BALANCE	EARNED/ RECEIVED	TAKEN/ REPORTED	PAID/ REPORTED	ADJUSTMENTS	DONATED	RETURNED	END BALANCE	MARKING
		OLD SEN	NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	12/01/90	ANNIVERSARY DATE	12/01/90	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	174.5	10.7	3.0					112.5	
S) SICK LEAVE	140.1	0.0	26.0					122.1	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	42.3		26.0					60.3	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASIS	110.4							110.4	

	BEG. BALANCE	EARNED/ RECEIVED	TAKEN/ REPORTED	PAID/ REPORTED	ADJUSTMENTS	DONATED	RETURNED	END BALANCE	MARKING
		OLD SEN	NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	12/20/02	ANNIVERSARY DATE	12/20/02	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	357.6	14.7						572.3	*****
S) SICK LEAVE	402.4	0.0						410.4	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASIS	358.4							358.4	

WARNING MESSAGES : NEAR ANNUAL MAX

	BEG. BALANCE	EARNED/ RECEIVED	TAKEN/ REPORTED	PAID/ REPORTED	ADJUSTMENTS	DONATED	RETURNED	END BALANCE	MARKING
		OLD SEN	NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	05/20/05	ANNIVERSARY DATE	05/20/05	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	252.4	13.4	14.0					251.0	*****
S) SICK LEAVE	509.0	0.0	3.0					594.0	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	9.0		3.0					12.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASIS	534.0							534.0	

WARNING MESSAGES : NEAR ANNUAL MAX

	BEG. BALANCE	EARNED/ RECEIVED	TAKEN/ REPORTED	PAID/ REPORTED	ADJUSTMENTS	DONATED	RETURNED	END BALANCE	MARKING
		OLD SEN	NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	02/10/97	ANNIVERSARY DATE	02/10/97	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	60.6	0.7						69.3	
S) SICK LEAVE	87.7	0.0	3.5					92.2	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
T) OVERTIME		3.0		6.0				3.0	*****
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	16.3		3.5					19.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASIS	40.0							40.0	

WARNING MESSAGES : NEGATIVE ENDING BAL.

REPORT NO: HRISD-B2240-R01
 AGENCY : 227 CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 UB-AGY: CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 ATTENDANCE UNIT : 01 CRIMINAL JUSTICE

STATE OF WASHINGTON
 DEPARTMENT OF PERSONNEL
 LEAVE ATTENDANCE SYSTEM CHANGE REPORT
 DATA PROCESSED FOR SEPTEMBER, 1998

DATE: 10/13/98
 PAGE: 6

	REG. BALANCE	EARNED/ RECEIVED	TAKEN/ REPORTED	PAID/ REPORTED	ADJUSTMENTS	DONATED	RETURNED	END BALANCE	WARNING
		OLD SEN		NEW SEN					
					LV. ACC. DATE	09/16/85	ANNIVERSARY DATE	09/16/85	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	135.8	13.4						148.4	
S) SICK LEAVE	282.3	8.0						290.3	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.8	8.0						72.8	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	24.8							24.8	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	242.3							242.3	
		OLD SEN		NEW SEN					
					LV. ACC. DATE	05/25/88	ANNIVERSARY DATE	05/25/88	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	243.9	11.4	13.3					282.9	
S) SICK LEAVE	52.8	8.0	2.5					58.3	
C) COMP TIME	.1							.1	
T) OVERTIME	2.0	8.3		8.3	2.0			.8	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	8.0						72.8	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	174.6		2.5					177.3	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	163.6							163.6	
		OLD SEN		NEW SEN					
					LV. ACC. DATE	04/18/77	ANNIVERSARY DATE	04/18/77	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	274.8	14.7	68.8					229.5	*****
S) SICK LEAVE	587.5	8.0						515.5	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.8	8.0						72.8	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	68.8				16.0			68.8	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	527.5							511.5	
WARNING MESSAGES : NEAR ANNUAL MAX									
		OLD SEN		NEW SEN					
					LV. ACC. DATE	02/18/98	ANNIVERSARY DATE	04/05/97	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	48.8	8.0						56.8	
S) SICK LEAVE	8.0	8.0	8.0					8.0	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
C) COMP TIME	2.7							2.7	
M) LEAVE WITHOUT PAY	35.0							35.0	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	48.8	8.0						56.8	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	57.9		8.0					65.9	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	17.9							17.9	
		OLD SEN		NEW SEN					
					LV. ACC. DATE	12/29/88	ANNIVERSARY DATE	12/29/88	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	274.8	14.7						232.3	*****
S) SICK LEAVE	576.4	8.0						584.4	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.8	8.0						72.8	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	512.4							512.4	
WARNING MESSAGES : NEAR ANNUAL MAX									

PORT NO: HRISD-B2240-R01
 ENCY : 227 CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CO
 B-AGY: CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CO
 TENDANCE UNIT : 01 CRIMINAL JUSTICE

STATE OF WASHINGTON
 DEPARTMENT OF PERSONNEL
 LEAVE ATTENDANCE SYSTEM CHANGE REPORT
 DATA PROCESSED FOR SEPTEMBER, 1996

DATE: 10/13/96
 PAGE: 7

	BEG. BALANCE	EARNED/ RECEIVED	TAKEN/ REPORTED	PAID/ REPORTED	ADJUSTMENTS	DONATED	RETURNED	END BALANCE	MARKING
		OLD SEN	NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	02/24/97	ANNIVERSARY DATE	01/16/96	
A) ANNUAL LEAVE		8.7	12.5					118.4	
S) SICK LEAVE	47.2	8.0						55.2	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
T) OVERTIME		4.0		4.0				.0	
M) LEAVE WITHOUT PAY	7.0							7.0	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	8.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	52.0							52.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASII	36.0							36.0	

PORT NO: B1047-R01

EMPLOYEES OVER MAXIMUM ANNUAL LEAVE BALANCE
***** PROJECTED *****

DOP PER/PAY SYSTEM
RUN DATE : 10/13/98
PAGE NBR : 1

ENCL : 227 CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
B-ACV : CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
TENDANCE UNIT : 01 CRIMINAL JUSTICE

EMPLOYEE NAME	ANNIVERSARY DATE	CURRENT ANNUAL LEAVE BALANCE	JUSTIFIED EXCESS VACATION (JEV)	REMARKS
[REDACTED]	12/01/75	273.5		OVER MAX
[REDACTED]	11/21/77	267.0		OVER MAX
[REDACTED]	12/29/82	372.3		OVER MAX
[REDACTED]	12/29/84	232.3		PROJECTED OVER MAX

Michael -
 Would you like
 to be routinely
 give Sharon a copy
 of this first page
 dt

RECEIVED

OCT 19 1998

Criminal Justice
Training Commission
PERSONNEL

REPORT NO: HRISD-B2248-R01
 AGENCY: 227 CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 AB-AGY: CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 ATTENDANCE UNIT: 01 CRIMINAL JUSTICE

STATE OF WASHINGTON
 DEPARTMENT OF PERSONNEL
 LEAVE ATTENDANCE SYSTEM CHANGE REPORT
 DATA PROCESSED FOR SEPTEMBER, 1998

DATE: 10/13/98
 PAGE: 2

	BEG. BALANCE	EARNED/ RECEIVED	TAKEN/ REPORTED	PAID/ REPORTED	ADJUSTMENTS	DONATED	RETURNED	END BALANCE	MARKING
		OLD SEN	-	NEW SEN	-	LV. ACC. DATE	07/26/86	ANNIVERSARY DATE	07/26/86
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	63.7	12.7	3.5					72.9	
S) SICK LEAVE	92.0	0.0	6.5					93.5	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	43.0		6.5					49.5	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO DASI	71.0							71.0	
		OLD SEN	-	NEW SEN	-	LV. ACC. DATE	04/01/90	ANNIVERSARY DATE	04/01/90
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	48.0	0.0						48.0	
S) SICK LEAVE	2.0	0.0	2.5					7.5	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
M) LEAVE WITHOUT PAY	24.0		16.0					40.0	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	48.0	0.0						48.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	30.0		2.5					40.5	
		OLD SEN	-	NEW SEN	-	LV. ACC. DATE	04/27/95	ANNIVERSARY DATE	04/27/95
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	190.6	9.4						200.0	
S) SICK LEAVE	250.8	0.0	6.9					251.9	
C) COMP TIME	22.9		3.0					19.9	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	15.3		6.9					22.2	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO DASI	202.1							202.1	
		OLD SEN	-	NEW SEN	-	LV. ACC. DATE	04/28/92	ANNIVERSARY DATE	04/28/92
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	28.2	10.0						30.2	
S) SICK LEAVE	34.5	0.0	4.0					30.5	
M) LEAVE WITHOUT PAY	162.9							162.9	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	272.5		4.0					276.5	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO DASI	230.5				4.5			243.0	
		OLD SEN	-	NEW SEN	-	LV. ACC. DATE	11/01/74	ANNIVERSARY DATE	11/01/74
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	140.0	14.7						154.7	
S) SICK LEAVE	1,611.6	0.0						1,619.6	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO DASI	1,547.6							1,547.6	
		OLD SEN	-	NEW SEN	-	LV. ACC. DATE	03/04/72	ANNIVERSARY DATE	03/04/72
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	177.5	14.7						192.2	
S) SICK LEAVE	476.2	0.0	160.0					516.2	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	0.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	345.0		160.0					513.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO DASI	757.2							757.2	

*Paid
10/26/98
payroll*

PORT NO: HRISD-B2240-R01
 AGENCY: 227 CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 BR-AGY: CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRNG CD
 ATTENDANCE UNIT: 01 CRIMINAL JUSTICE

STATE OF WASHINGTON
 DEPARTMENT OF PERSONNEL
 LEAVE ATTENDANCE SYSTEM CHANGE REPORT
 DATA PROCESSED FOR SEPTEMBER, 1998

DATE: 10/13/98
 PAGE: 1

	BEG. BALANCE	EARNED/ RECEIVED	TAKEN/ REPORTED	PAID/ REPORTED	ADJUSTMENTS	DONATED	RETURNED	END BALANCE	MARKING
		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	02/17/98	ANNIVERSARY DATE	02/17/98
A) ANNUAL LEAVE		0.0						54.0	
S) SICK LEAVE	48.0	8.0						54.0	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	48.0	8.0						54.0	
		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	05/01/93	ANNIVERSARY DATE	05/01/93
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	157.0	10.0						167.0	
S) SICK LEAVE	47.7	8.0	1.8					53.9	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	44.0	8.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	286.5		1.8					288.3	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	238.2				48.0-			190.2	
G) SHARED LEAVE	48.0				98.0-			.0	
		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	09/01/81	ANNIVERSARY DATE	09/01/81
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	238.4	14.7	48.0					233.1	RRRR
S) SICK LEAVE	717.5	8.0						725.5	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	8.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	23.0							23.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	676.5							676.5	
MARKING MESSAGES : NEAR ANNUAL MAX									
		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	09/16/97	ANNIVERSARY DATE	09/16/97
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	96.0	8.7						104.7	
S) SICK LEAVE	98.0	8.0						98.0	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL		1 HOL					NONE	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	8.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	6.0							6.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	32.0							32.0	
		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	07/26/76	ANNIVERSARY DATE	07/26/76
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	139.1	14.7				67.2-		84.6	
S) SICK LEAVE	88.5	8.0						88.5	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	8.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	16.0							16.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	32.5							32.5	
		OLD SEN		NEW SEN		LV. ACC. DATE	06/03/86	ANNIVERSARY DATE	06/03/86
A) ANNUAL LEAVE	228.4	12.7	27.8					285.7	
S) SICK LEAVE	544.2	8.0	9.0					543.2	
P) PERSONAL HOLIDAY	1 HOL							1 HOL	
C) COMP TIME	11.3							11.3	
T) OVERTIME		11.5		11.5				.0	
V) YTD SICK ACCRUED	64.0	8.0						72.0	
X) YTD SICK TAKEN	8.0		9.0					17.0	
Z) BUYOUT SUBJ. TO OASI	488.2							488.2	

paid 10/26/98 payroll

RECEIVED
 OCT 19 1998
 Criminal Justice
 Training Commission
 PERSONNEL

APPENDIX P
INSTITUTION REVIEW BOARD
APPROVAL FORM

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 10-13-95

IRB#: ED-96-041

Proposal Title: THE IMPACT OF VALUES ON PERFORMANCE IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR: A CASE STUDY OF THE OKLAHOMA DEPARTMENT OF CORRECTIONS

Principal Investigator(s): William Venable, Jennifer Gail Parsons

Reviewed and Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING.
APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR ONE CALENDAR YEAR AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.
ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Reasons for Deferral or Disapproval are as follows:

Signature:


Chair of Institutional Review Board

Date: October 31, 1995

VITA

Jennifer Gail Parsons

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: THE RELATIONSHIP OF VALUES TO PERFORMANCE: A CASE STUDY OF THE WASHINGTON STATE CRIMINAL JUSTICE TRAINING COMMISSION

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Biographical:

Education: Graduated from Heavener High School, Heavener, Oklahoma in May, 1969; received Bachelor of Arts degree in Sociology from the University of Central Oklahoma in 1993; received Master of Education degree from the University of Central Oklahoma in 1993. Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Education degree with a major in Human Resource Development at Oklahoma State University in May, 1999.

Experience: Administrative manager for Phoenix Resources, Ltd.; served as a Senior Probation/Parole officer for the Oklahoma Department of Corrections; employed by Medical Arts Laboratory as a Government Contract Specialist and Marking Analyst.

Professional Memberships: Academy of Human Resource Development, Drug and Alcohol Professional Counselors Association.

Publications and Presentations: Academy of Human Resource Development Conference Proceedings, *The Impact of Values on Financial Analysis of HRD*. Published and presented, St. Louis, MO, 1995. Academy of Human Resource Development Conference Proceedings, *Employee Perceptions of Employee and Organizational Values in a State Department of Corrections*. Published and presented, Minneapolis, MN, 1996. *Journal of Oklahoma Criminal Justice Research Consortium*, Change in the

Conservative Personality Equals Change in the Offender with the Resultant Reduction in Recidivism. 1996. *Academy of Human Resource Development Quarterly, Spring 1997*, Values as a Vital Supplement to the Use of Financial Analysis in HRD. Released April, 1997. *Academy of Human Resource Development Quarterly*, When Perceived Organizational Values Collide with Employee Values, in a State Department of Corrections. 1998.