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Ethical Climate, Organizational Commitment, and Job Satisfaction
of Full-Time Faculty Members

A dissertation

presented to

the faculty of the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis

East Tennessee State University

In partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree

Doctor of Education of Educational Leadership

by

Heather Louise Moore

May 2012

Dr. James Lampley, Chair

Dr. Andrew Czuchry

Dr. Catherine Glascock

Dr. Donald Good

Keywords: ethical climate, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, full-time faculty

ABSTRACT

Ethical Climate, Organizational Commitment, and Job Satisfaction of Full-Time Faculty Members

by

Heather L. Moore

The purpose of this quantitative study was to better understand the relationship of perceived ethical climate on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members in institutions of higher education. Full-time faculty members are the forefront employees of any educational institution, and they have a direct impact on the successful implementation of the vision, mission, and goals of the institution. It is imperative to understand potential factors influencing organizational commitment and job satisfaction because decreased levels of commitment and satisfaction have been linked to lower productivity, stagnated creativity, higher levels of turnover, and deviant workplace behaviors. The nationally reported controversy that occurred in the Sociology Department of The Ohio State University during the 1960s provided the theoretical framework for this research.

Four different regional universities, producing 594 responses, participated in this study. A modified version of 3 previously established scales were used to measure each factor: 1) Three Component Model (TCM) of Employee Commitment created by Meyer and Allen (2004), 2) Revised Ethical Climate Questionnaire (RECQ) created by Victor and Cullen (1993), and 3) Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) created by Hackman and Oldham (1980).

The data analysis found significant differences in self-reported levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction for full-time faculty members with regards to type of perceived ethical climate (i.e. egoism, benevolence, and principled). Results of this study also indicate that gender differences play a significant role in the self-reported level of organizational commitment. Females reported higher levels of organizational commitment than their male counterparts. There was no significant difference in the self-reported levels of job satisfaction

based upon gender differences. Finally, the results of the study included a significant and positive correlation between the total organizational commitment scores and the total job satisfaction scores of respondents.

DEDICATION

To my beloved husband Dr. Tom Moore

For supporting me in pursuing a lifelong dream
For his patience, sacrifice, and enthusiasm of my accomplishments
And for believing in me when I struggled to believe in myself
I will always dream about you!

To my precious daughter Lexie Ann Moore

You have given meaning to my life that I never knew existed
I pray you find God's calling and pursue it whole heartedly
I promise to support and love you as you find your path in life
You have taught me what pure joy is all about!

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For most doctoral students the completion of a dissertation represents a dichotomous branch in their lives where one critical path ends and another begins. As I draw near to the end of my current path, I realize that this journey has been filled with many unexpected blessings. The friendships that I have made throughout this process have enabled me to be successful far beyond my expectations.

First and foremost, I would like to acknowledge The Lord Jesus Christ for directing my path, for His wisdom, and for His faithfulness. In my life the journey and the pursuit of knowledge is as much a spiritual pilgrimage as it is an intellectual expedition. For “the fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom, and the knowledge of the Holy One is understanding” (Proverbs 9:10, New King James Version).

I would particularly like to express my appreciation to my loving husband and best friend Dr. Tom Moore. Your confidence in me has gotten me through the long days and nights. Your patience and faithfulness have been my comfort. Your continual encouragement, prayer, and love have been crucial to my success. You truly embody what it means to be a spiritual leader for our family, and your unwavering commitment to always do what is right makes you a leader among many. I pray that we never stop growing closer because being with you makes me a better person. Your love of life is addicting, and I look forward to our next great adventure.

I also have to acknowledge my precious daughter Lexie Ann Moore. You are turning 2 years old the week I write these words, but I want you to know how much you inspire me. Because of you, what I want most of all is to fulfill the calling God has placed on my life. I hope you find my life to be an example that you can emulate. Not that I expect your life to take you down the paths I have traveled, but I want you to find your own unique God given purpose. He

has a special plan for your life, and I want you to pursue it whole-heartedly. My greatest prayer for you is that your spirit remains sensitive to His voice. While I cannot be with you everywhere you go, He is always there.

To my In-laws, Lee and Ann Moore, you know that you are actually not in-laws for I've adopted you as parents long ago. Your love, prayers, and advice have enabled Tom and me to be successful not only in our marriage but also in life. Thank you for your unwavering support. Words will never be able to express how blessed we are to have you in our lives.

Also, to the ELPA doctoral fellows and my other friends in the program, you have made this journey fun. Each of you has been an unexpected blessing in my life, and I will always treasure the learning and laughter we have shared together.

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On page 24 of this dissertation, I speak about the impact that professors in higher education can make, “[Professors] choose to face the daunting task of educating our students, and the good ones will leave lasting fingerprints on the future of society”. For the four members of my committee you are “the good ones” that I am referring to and every day you leave lasting fingerprints on society through the lives of the students you touch.

February 15, 2012

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Institutions of higher education are some of the most complex organizations in the U.S. They have multi-million dollar budgets, operating incomes, capital expenditures, and intense marketing plans. The competition they face with other institutions can be as vicious as any corporate boardroom. They have no individual shareholders, yet society is seen as the largest of the stakeholders. The customers of an institution of higher education are as difficult to identify as the stakeholders who benefit and invest in their livelihood. Some of these institutions receive a significant amount of federal and state appropriations, yet they are not considered government agencies. Their existence can be found in the form of brick and mortar buildings, trade and vocational schools, hybrid institutions, or completely virtual associations. They can operate as public, private, or for-profit entities.

According to the U.S. Department of Education and the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), in the academic year of 2009-2010 there were approximately 6,742 Title IV institutions of higher education in the United States (IPEDS Fall 2009 Compendium Table 1). Of those 6,742 institutions of higher education, 1,989 institutions were classified as public, 1,809 institutions were classified as private not-for-profit, and 2,944 institutions were classified as private for-profit. For the 1,989 public institutions, 66% or 1,316 of those were classified as 2 year or less-than-2-year public institutions. For the 1,809 private not-for-profit institutions, 14% or 256 of those were considered to be 2 year or less-than-2-year private institutions. Private for-profit institutions of higher education have experienced a tremendous growth rate during the first decade of the 21st Century. There are now approximately 2,944 academic, trade, and career for-profit postsecondary institutions. For the 2,944 for-profit institutions, 81% or 2,380 of those are

classified as 2-year or less-than-2-year institutions. Most colleges and universities operate multiple site locations and almost all have some type of online presence. This array of choices creates an extremely competitive environment for colleges and universities for the recruitment and retention of students and faculty.

The more complex the organization the more difficult it is to manage efficient operations. For administrators, however, it is imperative to identify areas of operational concern where they can have a positive effect. Recent research has focused on the role ethics plays in the scope of organizational climate and employee behavior. This includes the effect that leaders or managers have on their employees' behavior as well. The most prevailing reasons behind the occurrence of deviant workplace behaviors are the conflicting perception, via deviant role models, that the organization supports such behavior (Appelbaum, Iaconi, & Matousek, 2007). The ethical climate of an organization is linked directly to the positive behaviors of employees and also to the range of negative work behaviors including tardiness, absenteeism, and lax performance (Peterson, 2002a; Peterson, 2002b). Negative work behaviors also are linked to decreases in job satisfaction and organizational commitment, lower levels of creativity, stagnated productivity, increased antisocial behavior, as well as increased employee turnover (Appelbaum et al., 2007; Morrison, 2008; Peterson, 2002a; Peterson, 2002b). The detailed financial implications of these behaviors are difficult to capture; however, the impact to the bottom line can be overwhelmingly apparent.

Measuring the Success of American Higher Education

The investment and value that institutions of higher education provide to society can be classified in many ways. A highly trained and equipped workforce is just the foundation of the benefit invested back into society. According to Bowen, Kurzweil, and Tobin (2005) the present

day earning potential, over a 40-year working life, of a person who graduates with only a high school degree can expect to earn around \$1.2 million. Yet, a person who earns an undergraduate degree can expect to almost double their lifetime income to \$2.1 million. Doctorate degrees recipients can expect to earn \$3.4 million, and people with specialized and professional degrees bump their earning potential to \$4.4 million (Bowen et al., 2005). The simple economic benefits of an educated workforce extend far beyond the individual:

The American economic growth of the 20th century – and perhaps especially the resurgence of productivity growth during the past 10 years of so – has been fueled principally by this country's unequaled stock of human capital: by the powerful combination of a highly skilled work force, technological advances, and the . . . adoption and rapid diffusion of new technologies. (Bowen et al., 2005, p. 67)

Another foreseeable benefit is the decrease in violence and crime that follows people with employable skills producing additional savings to the U.S. economy.

There are three primary factors that have contributed to the success of higher education in America. The first factor pertains to the quantity of money spent on education. The United States spends approximately 2.7% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) on education, which is one of the highest in the world (Bowen et al., 2005). The second factor is the organizational structure of the educational system. In America, unlike many other parts of the world, the higher educational system is highly decentralized. This enables colleges and universities to attract numerous sources for funding and other donations. Primary funding sources include federal appropriations, state appropriations, individual and corporate donations, as well as the financial benefits associated with consumer choice. Students and parents also contribute a significant portion of the institution's operating budget via payments for tuition, housing, meals, text books, etc. The third factor contributing to the success of American educational institutions has been

the pool of college ready applicants that have flowed into higher education year after year from the U.S. K-12 educational systems.

Future Concerns for American Education

The most pressing concern regarding our educational future, however, pertains to the slow-down of the *growth in degree attainment* in recent years. From 1940 to 2002 the percent of individuals over the age of 25 who have attained a bachelor degree has risen from 5% to 27%, and the number of doctorate degrees has increased from approximately 10,000 in 1960 to 45,000 in 2000 (Bowen et al., 2005). During the past quarter century much of the enrollment and subsequent graduation growth is positively correlated to the increase in degree attainments for female enrollees. This historical growth was further fueled by the evolution of societal gender expectations. Unprecedented growth in university enrollment has been achieved not only through the desire of females to further their own personal education but more significantly through the changing demographics of the workforce. The growth of gender diversity in the workforce has made female enrollees a constant presence on university campuses.

Most recently, however, the female student population, once considered a source of significant growth for university recruitment, has started to flat-line. Specifically, as more and more females become a consistent presence in the workforce and on university campuses, they are no longer considered to be an untapped resource for exponential growth. The decline in the growth rate of degree attainment observed by Bowen et al. (2005) has been observed within the most recent generation. For doctorate degrees, the sluggish growth rate of degree attainment during recent years is as much as 5% (Bowen et al., 2005).

Sheehy (1995) provided one societal explanation for this statistic. She noted there is a significant trend among society's newest adult females to voluntarily postpone marriage and

children until later in life. It is becoming increasingly common for young females to pursue career and education first and then family and children. This is making females a consistent and steady contributor to society and employers. As females continue to have a significant presence in the workforce and on college campuses, the pool of college ready female candidates is now considered more of a status quo and less of a growth engine within the college recruiting process. College recruiters are trying to find other pockets of potential college ready candidates in order to continue the successful growth trends of the past. One suggestion is to target the pool of potential candidates from the lower socioeconomic sectors of society which might serve as one way to counter this problem.

There are three supply source issues restricting educational equity in America. The first supply source issue is access. Bowen et al. (2005) suggested that colleges and universities should use a diversity sensitive selection process coupled with a socioeconomic sensitive selection process. By targeting a potential pool of lower socioeconomic applicants who have the potential for success but are not applying to college, some researchers have suggested that this target market could bridge the enrollment gap and counter the declining growth rate of degree attainment.

The second supply source issue is the government's financial support of education. There is a proverbial "Catch 22" attitude with regards for appropriations and education. Based upon their experience as university presidents, Bowen and Kurzweil found working with the federal government complicated. State government has past history of reducing appropriations and then immediately placing a cap on tuition. This juxtaposition of behavior sends mixed messages to the public. According to Bowen and Kurzweil, the state governments choose to limit institutional funding through decreased appropriations and then encourage public scrutiny by

chastising the universities when they are forced to raise tuition to make up the difference. The governments can also respond by placing a cap on tuition making a university's operating budget a complicated enigma.

Encouraging competition within the educational environment is one suggestion to mitigate the funding problems. Beginning with the K-12 educational systems, voucher systems could help establish more pools of college-ready applicants, especially for those children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. When a state allows a voucher system to be in place, parents (followed by their tax dollars) can choose the educational institutions that best meet the needs of their child. The educational system is rewarded for having a strong programs and a good reputation, and they are not punished by being forced to accept children without the necessary resources. This process was just recently implemented in the state of Indiana (Bodner, 2011; Coyne, 2011).

Institutions of higher education may find themselves indirectly benefitting from this new K-12 policy. If more children are graduating with better preparation, increased educational expectations, and stronger intentions to further their academic careers, higher education may see a potential increase in enrollment due to this untapped pool of college ready graduates. This new K-12 system mirrors the current college selection process. It gives parents and students the right to choose and enables primary schools to enhance their learning practices.

The third supply source issue is the future pool of prepared college ready applicants. For children from lower socioeconomic backgrounds, factors outside of the classroom need to be addressed. Governmental programs such as Head Start, mentoring programs, health and wellness programs all contribute to impacting the educational aspirations of children from lower socioeconomic families (McNergney & McNergney, 2009). Interventions taken early on in a

child's life will drastically impact how prepared that child is to attend an institution of higher education.

The Potential Effect on Full-Time Faculty

The people who are employed by institutions of higher education undergo the same scrutiny that befalls the institution itself. Recently the *Chronicle of Higher Education* published an article on faculty productivity (Katz, 2011). When attempting to measure any aspect of work performance, management experts agree that the first and simplest of questions is *what* do you measure? And the second question will be *how* do you measure it? Do you gauge productivity simply by the number of graduates or by the number of hours spent in face-to-face classroom interactions with students? How do you account for service hours to the university or time spent on publication and research? According to Katz (2011) the Obama administration stated that ““at a time of budgetary stresses, colleges must be rewarded by both state and federal governments for producing more graduates”” (p. 1). For those who work in the educational arena, however, even that objective is not clear. If educational productivity is equivalent to graduation rates, do you measure the annual number of degrees awarded or by how many years it took the average student to complete the degree? Does a student who took 6 years to complete his or her undergraduate degree count as more or less productivity than the student who completed the same degree in 4 years? And what about the individual professors, do you hold them responsible for how many students graduate in his or her particular field, or within his or her college, or just the ones who passes through his or her classroom? One thing is certain, the communal body calling for more stringent productivity requirements cannot agree on whether it should be measured collectively at the university level or individually at the professoriate level.

Faculty Tenure

The concept of tenure remains one of the most controversial topics discussed within the realms of higher education. There appears to be no middle ground on the issue as most researchers take a clear position either for or against faculty tenured positions. When talked about in social circles, the topic innocently generates heated discussions among the ranks of its discussants. It is an interesting topic, one that challenges even the brightest academic minds.

The most widely-recognized definition of tenure comes from the 1940 Statement of Principles on Academic Freedom and Tenure (Euban, 2002). This definition, jointly created by faculty and administrators, has been endorsed by over 180 professional and scholarly groups.

With regards for defining tenure, this 1940 Statement claims, “After the expiration of a probationary period, teachers. . . should have permanent or continuous tenure, and their service should be terminated only for adequate cause. . . or under extraordinary circumstances because of financial exigencies. (Euban, 2002, p. 1)

Provisions of Tenure

According to the American Association of University Professors (AAUP), there are two main provisions of tenure: protection of academic freedom and protection of economic security. Academic freedom has roots within the provisions provided by the First Amendment. Academic freedom serves as the intellectual crux of educational advancement through the uninhibited exploration of new ideas (Euban, 2002). Academic freedom allows faculty to explore the boundaries of knowledge without fear and retribution for intellectual advancements.

The second provision of tenure is the protection of economic security. The economic impact of tenure is less widely defined. It is extensively recognized that tenure allows universities to attract the top talent within the industry; however, many scholars understand that tenure actually lowers faculty salaries. Research has shown that tenure may in fact be a trade-off

for lower salaries (Leslie, 1998). The faculty member is giving up the opportunity to sell his or her skills on the open market but in exchange for the security provided by tenure it may be considered an attractive option. In order to earn tenure, however, the university can require a long period of training and probation in a highly specialized field. The AAUP argues that this probationary requirement creates a highly efficient economic system (Euban, 2002).

The AAUP also makes an important distinction on one often mispurported notion of tenure. According to the definition as set forth by the 1940 Statement, employment is not guaranteed; rather, a tenured employee's contract can be terminated as long as there is adequate cause.

Tenure, accurately and unequivocally defined, lays no claim whatever to a guarantee of lifetime employment. Rather, tenure *provides only that no person continuously retained as a full-time faculty member beyond a specified length period of probationary service may thereafter be dismissed without adequate cause* [T]enure is translatable as a statement of formal assurance that . . . the individual's professional security and academic freedom will not be placed in question without the observance of full academic due process. (Euban, 2002, p. 1)

The Beginning of the Controversy

Controversy over tenure seems to parallel one important component of the higher educational system – government appropriations. As the government began to augment funding for higher education, political leaders and other stakeholders began to demand an increase in accountability with regards for the use of tax payers' dollars. Professors soon discovered that they personally became the target of most of the political attacks. Critics claimed that “professors are self-promoters not interested in public good; they have little work ethic as seen by their lack of commitment in the classroom; their tenure status promotes their incompetence, and tenure protects them from being accountable” (Bowden, 2009, p. 18). Because of the increase in state funding, postsecondary institutions were finding themselves intertwined in the

heated battle. They increasingly experienced demands for augmented quality and accountability from not only the state but the federal government as well, and the government was effective in their attacks as educational institutions began clambering to clarify the mission of higher education and the role faculty. Clearly, tenure has taken the brunt of the attack. Critics feel that by attacking the stature of tenure, they are charging into the impenetrable fortress used to protect professorial slothfulness (Bowden, 2009).

Criticism of the Academic Freedom Provision

Academic freedom is the least criticized provision within the tenure debate. There seems to be a general consensus among the researchers that academic freedom is the most important concept central to academia (Bowden, 2009). Critics argue that while academic freedom is important, its protection is already provided to all persons via the First Amendment; therefore, no other protection is necessary. Proponents for academic freedom protection, however, argue that the U.S. Constitution not only fails to address academic freedom amongst its articles and amendments, but it also fails to address any issue that pertains to education as a whole. The term “education” is not found in the Constitution and, therefore, any claims supporting educational rights are generally grouped under the rights provided in the first amendment (Bowden, 2009). Instead, when proponents refers to the protection granted by Academic Freedom, they are not referring to what is found within the provisions of the U.S. Constitution; instead they are referring to the details that found among the Supreme Court judicial decisions. Most specifically *Sweezy v. New Hampshire* (1957) stated that: “The four essential freedoms of a university [are] – to determine for itself on academic grounds who may teach, what may be taught, how it should be taught, and who may be admitted to study” (Bowden, 2009, p. 24). However, proponents of the academic freedom provision go on to claim that this law actually grants freedoms to the

university not to the *individual faculty member*. Therefore, academic freedom is a critical cornerstone in academia as it specifically addresses freedom in research and publication, as well as, freedom in the classroom and classroom related activities. Regardless of how it is achieved, both sides of the issue seem to agree that the institutional autonomy that is currently provided under the provision of academic freedom is not only the foundation for a healthy society but also serves as a propelling force for democracy.

Criticism of the Economic Security Provision

The criticism surrounding economic security centers on the perceived complacency of the faculty members when tenure is granted. “The institution of tenure has been attacked for entrenching a lazy professoriate, more interested in attending faraway conferences and producing unreadable research than in teaching or developing practical insights, while on the other hand, it has long been defended as an absolute necessity for the defense of open intellectual inquiry” (McPherson & Schapiro, 1999, p. 85). In addition, others claim there is no verifiable proof that tenure has an impact on a university’s ability to attract top talent (Bowden, 2009; Leslie, 1998).

Furthermore, critics challenge the AAUP’s proposal that tenure actually creates an efficient economic system between lower-paid faculty members and requirements for long probationary periods and expertise. What institutions have been experiencing in recent years, along with the 1990s, is that the substantial investment in faculty salaries is becoming a financial liability (Leslie, 1998). Businesses are able to link productivity to expenditures on salaries, but so far higher educational institutions have failed to produce this same link (Leslie, 1998). The cost-benefit analysis that is common to most for-profit business financial practices is difficult to implement with regards for faculty tenure. This may be one reason that institutions are moving towards hiring a new generation of employees. In recent years faculty tenured positions have

decreased from approximately 60% to 40% (Bowden, 2009). Instead, universities are choosing to hire employees in nontenure track positions which have raced upward from nearly 5% to 30% over the same time frame (Bowden, 2009).

The AAUP has noticed this shift in hiring as well. They claimed that the proliferation of nontenure track positions is the most serious challenge to the quality issues in American education (Euban, 2002). They propose that the repercussions from this decision will be a lack of focus on the entirety of the tenured faculty's job duties as well as a reduced ability to attract and hire the most qualified persons to the profession. Additional consequences may be a decrease in innovation for scholarship and research and a reduced commitment to the profession on the part of faculty (Euban, 2002).

Statement of the Problem

So how does the abundance of criticism affect the body of people who are dedicated to the professional standards of higher education? Are they committed to the organization in which they work or are they committed to their profession? Are they satisfied in their careers or are they looking for something more? Needless to say, academic professionals are the front-line of any institution of higher education. They choose to face the daunting task of educating our students, and the good ones will leave lasting fingerprints on the future of society.

Most of the research conducted on ethical climate, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction has been analyzed using for-profit businesses and corporations. A growing stream of research is starting to look at organizational factors that influence institutions of higher education. Very little research, however, has been done on the relationship between ethical climate and the tenants of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Cullen, Parboteeah, and Victor (2003) found a link between ethical climate types and organizational commitment but

no research has been found on the relationship between job satisfaction and the ethical climate types. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to further understand the relationship between the perceived ethical climate, the organizational commitment, and the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members.

Research Questions

The research questions addressed in this study provide the theoretical framework for assessing the relationship of organizational commitment and job satisfaction to the perceived ethical climate of full-time faculty members.

1. Is there a significant difference in the organizational commitment of full-time faculty members with regard to type of perceived ethical climate?
2. Is there a significant difference in the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members with regard to type of perceived ethical climate?
3. Is there a significant difference in the organizational commitment of full-time faculty members with regard to gender?
4. Is there a significant difference in the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members with regard to gender?
5. Is there a significant relationship between the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members?

Significance of the Study

By deepening the understanding of the effect that perceived ethical climate has on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members, administrators could better understand the impact their managerial decisions have on the long-term viability of the institution. In 1871, during his inaugural presidential address, Yale University president,

Noah Porter declared, “The most efficient of all moral influences in a college are those which proceed from the personal characters of the instructors. . . A noble character becomes light and inspiration, when dignified by intellectual power and attainments” (Brackner, 1992, p. 22).

According to Webber (2007) it is the systematization or application of the values Porter refers to that evolve into the shared norms that are enacted upon by members of the organization; thereby, creating the organization’s culture.

Faculty members are the front-line employees at any institution of higher education. The job tasks they perform everyday have a direct impact on the organization’s ability to meet stakeholder expectations. Whether that stakeholder is the student, local municipalities, neighboring businesses, the federal government, or society at large, all successful endeavors will begin at the hands of the front-line faculty members.

Limitations of the Study

For the purpose of this study, subjects were limited to full-time faculty members who had been employed for at least 1 year at four targeted institutions of higher education. This study was conducted at regional institutions in North Carolina, Oklahoma, Tennessee, and Texas, Therefore, this study is specific to these institutions and may not be generalizable to other populations or systems.

A second limitation of this study pertains to the definition and reference to ethical climates. This study analyzed the paradigms of full-time professors regarding their current organization’s ethical climate and their self-reported levels of commitment or satisfaction. For this study, participants were grouped into one of three ethical climate types: benevolent, principled, or egoism. These groups were determined based upon the participants’ highest cumulative score for each ethical climate type. Therefore, it is important to note that the ethical

climate types presented are only based on the perception of the participant and may not reflect the prevalent ethical climate of the institution. Perceptions and reality are not necessarily the same (Robbins & Judge, 2008).

A third limitation is related to the survey completion rate. Although Survey Monkey showed that 673 responses were started by participants, only 594 of those qualified as completed responses. There could be important differences between those who responded and those who did not, especially that the self-selection nature of the study might have led to skewed responses.

A fourth limitation is that the study results may or may not be generalizable to private colleges, profit driven colleges, or community colleges due to differences in their business models and culture. Conducting the same study on other types of universities and colleges would allow researchers to learn how results for both types of educational institutions may or may not correlate. The organization's culture and climate plays a key role in how employees feel about their jobs.

A fifth limitation is the exploratory nature of this research project. While the scales used are well known, reliable, and pre-established instruments, they have not been applied to institutions of higher education. Although their business models are significantly different, more researcher may find that previously established scales predominantly used in corporate settings could also provide valuable information to institutions of higher education. This limitation can only be addressed through further study and development of this research stream.

Summary

Educational leaders play an important role in the growth of organizations, the development of their employees, meeting shareholder expectations, and providing a safe and fertile ground for the promotion of learning and intellectual advancements. The purpose of this

study is to further understand the relationship between the perceived ethical climate and the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members. This study has been organized into five distinct chapters. Chapter 1 includes the introduction, the statement of the problem, the research questions, and the significance of the study including the limitations. Chapter 2 contains a review of the related literature. Chapter 3 explains the methodology used in the study. Chapter 4 reports the findings and the data analyses, and Chapter 5 incorporates the summary, findings, conclusions, and recommendations for this study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The 1960s controversy that surrounded the Sociology Department at The Ohio State University provided the theoretical framework for this research study. This controversy paints an unmistakable portrait of the relationship that exists between a faculty member's level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction based upon perceived ethical climate (Knudsen, 2001). In the midst of the Civil Rights movement of the 1960s, the Sociology Department experienced a toxic mix of culture, ethics, and decision-making that produced damaging ramifications for years to come. The controversy slowly began with the appointment of a new Department Chair for the Fall Quarter of 1967 (Knudsen, 2001).

The Ohio State University Controversy

The latter years of the 1960s were overflowing with numerous protests against the Vietnam War and racial discrimination. Further fueled by the assassination of Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr. and Robert Kennedy, college campuses became a prime breeding ground for protests and demonstrations:

On April 26, 1975 African American students marched into the administration building to the president's office [at The Ohio State University], locked the doors from within, and promised to hold some of the senior administrators hostage until their demands for action to eliminate racism were met. After five hours of tense negotiation some concessions were made by administration, but the emerging students were immediately arrested and charged with trespassing and a variety of other crimes. (Knudsen, 2001, p. 74)

During this period of extreme civil unrest, the new Department Chair of the Sociology Department sent a memo to the faculty members. In his memo regarding a new salary structure, the Chair stated that the current faculty was going to be divided into three ranked groups:

- 1) *the core*, a group of professors and associate professors with demonstrated and continuing creativity in sociology,

2) *the invited*, a group of colleagues invited to demonstrate comparable creativity and, if successful, to join the core, and

3) *the frozen*, a group whose salaries are frozen at the current level and will remain so until they retire, if tenured, or leave at the end of the next academic year, if not tenured (Knudsen, 2001)

The assignment of the faculty into the three distinct groups became the catalyst for what would eventually become a national upheaval. The dissidents in the department claimed that the classification of the faculty members was conducted in a capricious and arbitrary manner:

- 1) It was found that the average performance of the invited faculty was greater than the performance for those in the core, and
- 2) The average performance of frozen faculty was nearly equivalent to that of the core.
- 3) The top 10 performers in the department were identified based on publications per year, and the list contained two invited, four frozen, and four core faculty, and
- 4) In addition, four invited faculty and five frozen faculty actually outperformed at least two members of the core (Knudsen, 2001)

Despite the findings and further fueling the controversy, the Department Chair's actions were supported by the college's Dean, the university's Vice President and Provost, and the university's President. Attempting to explain his actions, the Department Chair claimed that he was mandated by his superiors to make The Ohio State University's Department of Sociology one of the top 10 departments in the country (Knudsen, 2001). This charge forced him into making significant organizational changes. During a time when the internet and email was not available, an anonymous publication entitled *Reflections on Sociology* surfaced stating its purpose was to offer information and commentary on the happenings of the department. This

single news publication propelled the issues occurring within the department into the national spotlight.

The school year following the implementation of the new salary structure was described as “a hostile environment in which most faculty were unable to do research, to write, and to teach at their highest level” (Knudsen, 2001, p. 79). The consequences, however, left marks that affected more than the educational institution itself. The national image of the department and the university had been damaged irrevocably. Most of the faculty members were searching for positions at other universities, and by the time the Department Chair retired 17 faculty members had found employment elsewhere (Knudsen, 2001). Those who remained were forced to pick up the pieces of a broken and shattered organization. When charged with being one of the top 10 sociology departments in the country, “the elitism that placed emphasis on status and prestige was seductive and distorted the goals and process of education” (Knudsen, 2001, p. 80). This controversy paints an unmistakable portrait of the relationship that exists between a faculty member’s level of organizational commitment and job satisfaction based upon perceived ethical climate.

Organizational Commitment

The concept of organizational commitment has fueled many critical debates throughout recent research. One of the most controversial topics pertains to the development of a concise definition surrounding such a complex subject. The lack of consensus creates numerous challenges in organizational research. Other researchers, however, focus their concerns on the methods for measuring the concept once consensus has been reached on the definition. Studying commitment is complicated by the lack of agreement concerning how to conceptualize and measure the concept (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979). For this research study, organizational

commitment is defined as the level of attachment, both emotionally and functionally, to one's current place of employment (Elizur & Koslowsky, 2000).

In the late 1970s to mid-1980s organizational commitment was considered to be a two-pronged concept. Organizational commitment was delineated into the attitudinal and behavioral perspectives. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) described these two approaches as:

Attitudinal commitment focuses on the process by which people come to think about their relationship with the organization. In many ways it can be thought of as a mind set in which individuals consider the extent to which their own values and goals are congruent with those of the organization. Behavioral commitment, on the other hand, relates to the process by which individuals become locked into a certain organization and how they deal with this problem. (p. 26)

However, in 1991 Meyer and Allen expanded the traditional model of commitment proposed by Mowday et al. (1982) that focused primarily on value and goal congruence. Instead, Meyer and Allen suggested that commitment is more accurately depicted through understanding an individual's desire, need, and obligation to remain with the organization.

Modern Perspective of Organizational Commitment

Meyer and Allen proposed a three-pronged approach for understanding organizational commitment. This new perspective on commitment consisted of three general themes:

“affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization and obligation to remain with the organization” (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 64).

These three themes are also more commonly referred to as 1) affective commitment, 2) continuance commitment, and 3) normative commitment.

Affective Commitment.

The term affective commitment is the term most commonly used to describe the type of emotional attachment an individual has to the group. This type of commitment is also referred to as cohesion commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Other researchers described this type of

commitment as attachment to the goals and values of the organization, emotional linkage to other members of the organization, and the strength of an individual's involvement with the organization. When measuring affective commitment, researchers focus on three critical areas: 1) acceptance of organizational values and goals, 2) the willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organizational values and goal, and 3) the individual's desire to be involved with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Continuance Commitment.

Continuance commitment is also referred to as perceived cost commitment. This commitment pertains to an individual's willingness to remain with the organization based upon an acute recognition of the costs associated with leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991). In other words, the perceived costs of leaving the organization (i.e. loss of pension, seniority, lack of opportunity, etc.) are greater than the potential benefits of working someplace else. When measuring continuance commitment some researchers attempt to conceptualize the perceived costs an individual might encounter. For example, the researcher may attempt to measure the likelihood that a person would leave the organization given various situations (i.e. promotions, increase in salary, more autonomy, etc.). Other researchers, however, prefer to measure the strength of a person's intention to remain with the organization.

Normative Commitment.

The last of the commitment triad is normative commitment, also referred to as obligatory commitment. Normative commitment focuses on the individual's sense of obligation to remain in the organization. This commitment stems from an individual's moral obligation to stay with the organization regardless of the benefit he or she might receive by leaving. Normative commitment is heavily grounded upon values and personal norms; therefore, attempting to

measure it presents unique challenges. Researchers have discovered that measuring normative commitment usually focuses on the extent to which a person believes he or she should be loyal and make sacrifices on behalf of the organization (Weiner, 1982; Wiener & Vardi, 1980).

Summary of Meyer and Allen's Three-Component Framework .

Affective commitment refers to a person's emotional attachment and identification with the organization's goal and values. Strong affective commitment creates continued employment with the organization because the individual *wants* to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an acute awareness of the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization. When the costs associated with leaving the organization are perceived to be greater than potential benefits, continued employment occurs solely because the individual *needs* to remain with the organization. Normative commitment reflects a feeling of personal obligation to remain with the organization. Strong normative commitment creates continued employment because employees feel that they *ought* to remain with the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1991).

Organizational Commitment and Values

Research on values is fraught with complex and individualistic motivations. Values can be as diverse as the number of individuals studied. According to Johnson (2007) values work as a primary driver for our decision making practices and our behavior on the job. Values directly influence job behaviors such as how hard we work, how we treat coworkers and subordinates, and how we evaluate performance. Values are also used for priority establishment and assessing the correctness of behaviors. Schwartz (1992) developed the most widely used assessments on value systems. He defined values as the desirable goals that serve as guiding principles that directly influence individual.

As mentioned earlier, one significant factor related to employee behavior is organizational commitment. Specifically, affective and normative commitment have been found to be consistently highly and positively correlated to employee behaviors such as increased work performance, increased job satisfaction, decreased absences, and longer employment tenure (Abbott, White, & Charles, 2005). Researchers have also found that perceived organizational values (i.e. ethical climate) are a predictor of commitment levels in organizational members (Abbott et al., 2005).

Leaders and managers play an important role in employees' perceptions of the values they associate with their company. Actions and behaviors exhibited by superiors within the organization have a direct impact on employees' perceptions of organizational values. Perceived organizational values have a direct link to organizational commitment; therefore, when leaders and managers behave in manners that reinforce the values of benevolence and vision, the levels of affective and normative commitment are increased in their workforce. Based upon previous research (Abbott et al., 2005), organizations play an important role in reinforcing the organizational commitment (specifically affective and normative) in their workforce as well.

Organizational Commitment and Motivation

An important implication between organizational commitment and motivation was introduced by Jenkins (2009). Maslow's *Theory of Human Motivation* was first introduced in 1943, and it has substantially influenced motivational research from its inception. Using a pyramidal model, Maslow identified five layers of needs that have a direct impact on human behavior. The level of needs from lowest to highest are: Physiological, Security, Community, Esteem, and Self-Actualization. Maslow purported that a person's primary motivation will continue to be the lowest level of need until he or she acquires an innate and personal level of

satisfaction. Achieving satisfaction, in turn, will propel the person's interests to the next higher motivational level. Consequently, a disruption in one of the lower-level needs reverts a person's interest back into first resatisfying that more basic level (Maslow, 1943).

In 1960 Douglas McGregor expanded on Maslow's need theory to further explain motivation. McGregor's dichotomous approach to motivation was called *Theory X and Theory Y*. Theory X stated that workers are motivated primarily by the lower level needs (i.e. Physiological and Safety). A manager operating under Theory X assume that people are by nature indolent, they work as little as possible, they lack ambition, dislike responsibility, and prefer to be led (Nelson & Quick, 2009). Theory Y stated that workers are motivated by the higher level needs (Community, Esteem, and Self-Actualization). A manager operating under Theory Y assumes that employees are not passive or resistant to organizational needs; instead, they have the potential for development, the capacity for assuming responsibility, and the readiness to direct behavior towards organizational goals (Nelson & Quick, 2009). Theory Y managers see the potential in subordinates and, therefore, are willing to help meet the upper level needs of the employees in order to improve performance. Increasing motivation through addressing higher level needs will inadvertently increase productivity (Jenkins, 2009). Addressing higher level needs will also reinforce an individual's affective commitment (Jenkins, 2009)

An innovative approach to organizational commitment; however, overlays the concepts of the motivational theories with Meyer and Allen's (1991) Three Component Model:

Affective commitment refers to the desire of an employee to continue working with his or her specific organization and operates at the highest order of an individual's needs. An employee fulfills self-actualization and esteem needs through belonging to a specific organization. Belonging to a community or identification with a community operates on needs that are more normative. (Jenkins, 2009, p. 22).

The perceived cost of leaving the organization, or continuance commitment, overlays with the lower level needs of security and physiological.

Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction

Jenkins (2009) identified six specific factors of job satisfaction found in engineers and scientists: 1) pay and benefits, 2) growth and development, 3) relevance or meaning of the job, 4) supervision, 5) feelings towards coworkers, and 6) job security. The theory lends itself very easily to see an overlap in Jenkins’s workplace satisfaction measures and Maslow’s pyramidal motivation theory. Taking this theory one step further, the addition of Meyer and Allen’s Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment depicts a much clearer representation of the link between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. See Figure 1.

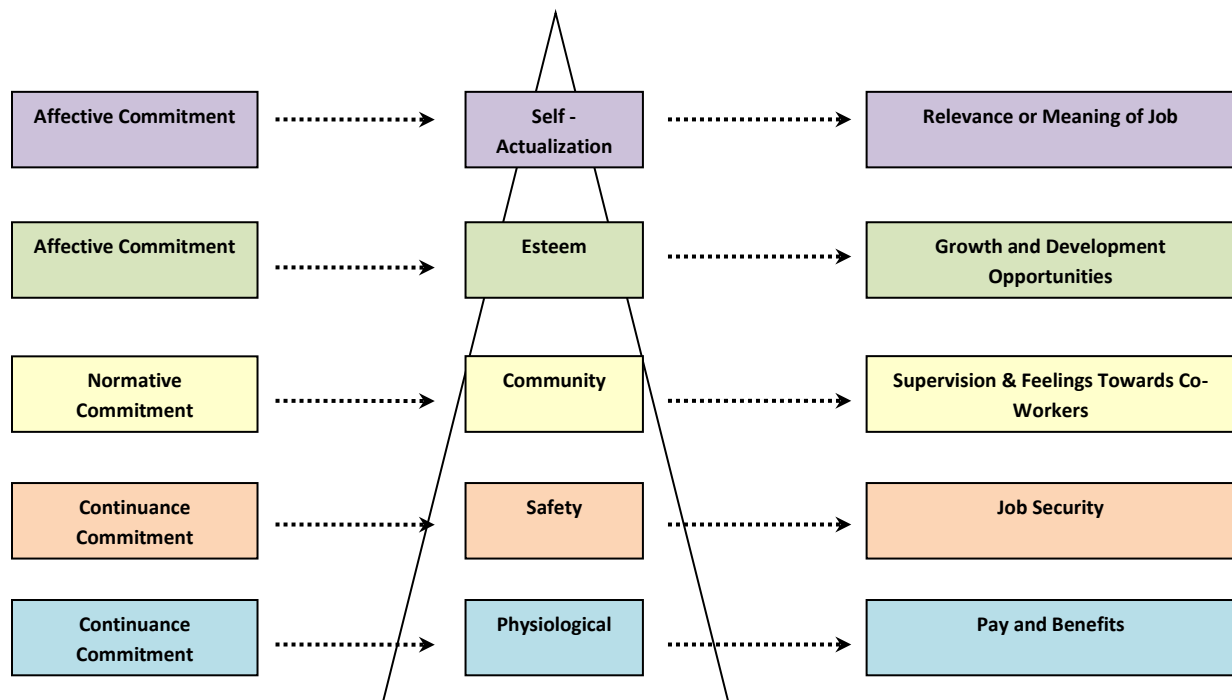


Figure 1. Factors of Job Satisfaction and the Proposed Relationship to Organizational Commitment and Motivation

Elizur and Koslowsky (2000) claimed that there is a reciprocal cause-effect relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. It is likely to expect that a change in one might cause a change in the other. For instance, if a prolonged stressor is introduced regarding a person's particular work task, commitment may begin to decrease. As additional stressors are introduced over time commitment can and usually continues to decrease further. It is unlikely to assume that job satisfaction will remain unchanged as commitment continues to wane (Elizur & Koslowsky, 2000). Similarly, the reciprocal relationship exists as well. If, for instance, a stressor produces some type of job dissatisfaction, an individual's organizational commitment may begin to diminish.

Jenkins (2009) additionally found that the relationship was not only reciprocal but that "the greatest gains with respect to workplace satisfaction and organizational commitment can be made by increasing the ability and understanding of the employee's effect in accomplishing the organization's mission" (p. 26). The positive work outcomes, increased satisfaction and meaning from work, are generated whenever employees are able to see their efforts linked directly to the accomplishment of the organizational goals. According the top level proposed in the model (see Figure 1), this direct relationship between commitment and meaning from one's job, furthers the employee's movement towards self-actualization, and therefore, strengthens commitment to the organization.

Organizational Culture and Climate

Organizational cultures not only reinforce the vision, the mission, and the goals of an organization, but they also provide the framework for expected behaviors of conduct for employees. Schein (1992) defined organizational culture as basic assumptions and beliefs about the organization that are shared by employees. It is the organizational culture that establishes the

boundaries and parameters for acceptable employee behavior. The organizational culture characterized by shared assumptions, beliefs, and values helps to shape and guide [individual and group] behavior (Erakovich, Bruce, & Wyman, 2002).

According to McCrimmon (2007) culture was the personality or the stable force behind the organization. Often times a person's personality is shaped early on in his or her life cycle, and when it is firmly established it can be difficult to change. Culture, according to Hofstede's Five Dimensions, is better understood using key variables such as tolerance for risk, valuing individual or group contributions, long-term versus short-term orientations and goals, power distance, and appreciation for levels of assertiveness (Nelson & Quick, 2009). By understanding these five key dimensions, Hofstede promoted that one can better understand an organization's culture. Nelson and Quick (2009) defined organizational culture as "[patterns] of basic assumptions that are considered valid and that are taught to new members as the way to perceive, think, and feel in the organization" (p. 251). Simply stated, culture is synonymous with values. Apple Computers exemplifies an entrepreneurial culture of innovation and risk. Insurance companies and banks, however, tend to have cultures dominated by risk avoidance (McCrimmon, 2007). Organizational climates, however, are a distinct yet interrelated entity within organizational life.

Organizational Climates

Reichers and Schneider (1990) defined organizational climates as "the shared perception of the way things are around here" (p. 22). Ironically, it possesses both formal and informal - or some might even say casual - elements reinforcing 'the way things are around here' attitude of the organization's employees. It differs significantly from organizational culture in that it is the executed behaviors of the individuals in the organization that produce the climates. When

intertwined into the organization, the social norms become increasingly apparent as to what behaviors will be considered acceptable and unacceptable. Organizational norms establish the climate and eventually evolve into acceptable behaviors that are well known by organizational members (Erakovich et al., 2002).

McCrimmon (2007) compared the organization's culture and climate to personality and mood. To understand an organization's climate one must understand "human feelings or moods: excitement, depression, anger, fear, optimism or anxiety" (p. 1). Similarly to the way a person's mood alters based upon different circumstances, one cannot expect an organization's climate to remain stable and unchanged. While the analogy can be appreciated, however, an organizational climate must provide slightly more stability than the rapidly changing human emotions. Rather, the climate of a company sometimes depicts the happenings in the external environment (i.e. fear of new competition, the economy, response to new legislation, etc.), or it can depict happenings in the internal environment (i.e. unexpected death of a corporate leader, acquiring a significant and new customer account, etc.). During times of hardship and uncertainty, it is the corporate leadership's responsibility to ensure employees of what actions are being taken to mitigate any negative impact on them or their work. If a leader tries to change the climate as many times as a person changes mood, the employees may leave the company from the fear and uncertainty regarding acceptable norms of behaviors.

Ethical Climate

"Values represent intrinsically desirable or accepted principles, [and] ethics are the systematization and application of values" (Webber, 2007, p. 567). It is the systematization or application of these values that evolves into the shared norms that are enacted upon by members of the organization (Webber, 2007). It is important to note that many types of climates exist

within the organizational framework: climates for safety compliance, community service, and innovation are just a few that have been researched. A newer type of organizational climate is ethical climate. Introduced into the literature by Victor and Cullen (1988), the ethical climate of an organization refers to the behaviors that are perceived to be ethically correct and how issues regarding deviations away from those expected behaviors are handled in the organization. Therefore, organizationally speaking, it could be concluded that the culture of an organization establishes the values, while the climate of an organization establishes the ethics.

There are two general cultural components used to study ethical behavior in organizations. Ethicists use both formal and informal organizational practices to assess the moral compass of an organization. Formal practices include elements such as organizational structure, code of ethics, reward and performance evaluation systems, core values, and mission or purpose statements. Informal practices include the elements of language, norms, rituals, and stories (Webber, 2007). It is concluded that “highly ethical organizations make sure that the cultural components align or support one another. Ethical codes are backed by norms, stories reflect core values, structure supports individual initiative and so forth” (Webber, 2007, p. 248). Any form of cultural or systematic change should begin with a diagnosis process identifying areas of misalignment. In support of this initiative, a growing body of research has been conducted on the relationship between ethical climate of an organization and the ethical behaviors of the individuals within the organization.

Measuring Ethical Climate

Ethical values have a presence in every organizational activity. This would include goal setting, budgeting, marketing, or creating standards of performance. There are two general approaches for assessing ethics within an organization: cognitive approach and the shared-

perception approach (Webber, 2007). The cognitive approach relies solely on the individual's perception of the work environment. The shared-perception approach attempts to use unbiased data such as organizational structure, reward and performance evaluation systems, employee code of conduct manuals, and other formal documents (i.e. letters and memos from executives) to make an impartial assessment of the work environment. Critics to this approach claim that even though documents are used to assess the environment, they still represent the viewpoint of a single individual or small group of individuals.

Ethical Climate Questionnaire

The most well known assessment of ethical climate in organizations was originally developed in 1988 by Victor and Cullen. Initially coined The Ethical Climate Questionnaire (ECQ), it has undergone one significant revision from its origination, and it is now referred to as the Revised Ethical Climate Questionnaire (REcq). The purpose of the measurement was derived from Victor and Cullen's desire to study the ethical work climate in an organization based primarily upon the analysis of the ethical choices made by individuals in that organization (Webber, 2007). Their primary focus was to develop a measurement heavily grounded in the shared-perception approach to ethical assessment. Their original model (ECQ) came under significant criticism for failing to fulfill this ideal. The intention of their first model was to capture and represent the organization using the shared perception approach; however, their original study was criticized as being more reflective of the individual instead of the organization (Webber, 2007).

The original ECQ has two distinct dimensions overlaid onto a three-by-three matrix. The first dimension was originally called 'Locus of Analysis' and the second dimension was referred to 'Ethical Criterion' (Victor & Cullen, 1988). The majority of the scrutiny fell on one

particular section of the model -- the first dimension 'Locus of Analysis'. The original assessment is based primarily on two theoretical streams: Kohlberg's stages of moral development and Gouldner's Study of Latent Social Roles (Victor & Cullen, 1988).

Gouldner's Study of Latent Social Roles.

The 'Locus of Analysis' dimension was originally comprised of three subcategories: Individual, Local, and Cosmopolitan. Gouldner's study of latent social roles significantly influenced the categories derived for the first dimension. This section of the original model served to create the most scrutiny and controversy in the preceding years.

To address their critics, Victor and Cullen revised the ECQ and created the Revised Ethical Climate Questionnaire (RECQ) in 1993. The dimension originally called 'Locus of Analysis' was changed from the confusing three-item dimension to a four-item dimension that better represented a more holistic view of the organization. This new dimension was referred to as the 'Point of Reference' dimension (Webber, 2007). The four new categories, Reflexive, Self, Peer, and State, were designed to satisfy their critics and represent an organizational point of reference surrounding the environmental influences on the ethical climate. The significant change to the model was designed to capture data from the perspective of the overall organization and not the individual employee as the original model once did.

Kohlberg's Model of Cognitive Moral Development.

Kohlberg proposed a tri-level six stage concept on the cognitive development of morals and ethics in individuals (Nelson & Quick, 2009). Level I is the Premoral Level and is composed of Stage 1 (Avoid punishment) and Stage 2 (Serve and immediate interest). Level II is the Conventional Level and it comprises Stage 3 (Live up to other's expectations) and Stage 4 (Observe social laws). Level III is the highest level of cognitive moral development, and it is

entitled the Principles Level. This level includes Stage 5 (Principles of justice/right) and Stage 6 (Self-selected ethical principles). While Victor and Cullen's Revised Ethical Climate Questionnaire is not a direct interpretation of Kohlberg's model, it is seen as a significant influence over the model's three areas of ethical orientation: Egoism, Utilitarian, and Principled (Victor & Cullen, 1988).

Ethical Climate Types.

In their research Victor and Cullen (1988) have identified five Ethical Climate Types (ECT): instrumental, caring, rules, law and code, and independence. Instrumental climates promote economically driven and self-serving behaviors. Caring climates encourage concern for the greater good. This could be to promote the welfare of others or for the organization as a whole. This greater good may even come at the cost of meeting the needs of the individual employee. Rule climates focus on strict adherence to policies and procedures. Law and code climates encourage strict adherence to professional, legal or regulatory standards, and independence climates encourage employees to make decision based on their own personal morals and values.

Victor and Cullen (1988) asserted that different ethical climate types may be more susceptible to differing forms of unethical behavior, and each climate type can employ different measures for dealings or responding to change efforts (Johnson, 2007). In a caring organization, it is suggested that an individual employee may unintentionally or intentionally break a law in order to help the most people, and a formal code of conduct policy may be better received in a law and code climate than in an independence climate (Johnson, 2007). Several conclusions with regards for the relationship between climate types and ethical behavior have been purported:

- Ethical climates often vary between departments and locations within an organization
- Rates of immoral behavior are highest in instrumental climates
- Organizational commitment is greatest in caring climates and lowest in instrumental climates
- For-profit climates are more likely to be driven by self-interest, while nonprofit climates are more likely to be founded on benevolence
- An emphasis on obeying the law and adhering to professional codes reduces unethical behavior
- Employees are more satisfied when they work for organizations with ethical climates that reflect their personal preferences
- Professionals prefer to work for organizations with rule or law and code climates (Johnson, 2007, p. 251)

According to Webber (2007) it is the component of self-interest that poses the largest threat to the degradation of the ethical climate. No matter what ethical climate type and organization may fall under, it is important to note that healthy ethical climates give employees a formal means for confronting threats to ethical performance. In addition, the Ethical Climate Questionnaire has been determined to influence the ethical work climate regarding employee outcomes such as organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and dysfunctional behavior (Webber, 2007). It is the purpose of this dissertation to focus on the relationship between ethical climate and the first two of these components: organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Ethical Climate and Organizational Commitment

Cullen et al. (2003) further researched the relationship between organizational commitment and the three ethical climate criteria: egoistic, benevolent, and principled. In their research they found that benevolent organizations are positively related to organizational commitment, egoistic organizations are negatively related to organizational commitment, and principled organizations have a positive relationship to organizational commitment but only with professional workers. The negative impacts of egoistic climates are far reaching. Employees who work in egoistic climates perceive that self-interest is promoted and reinforced even at the

expense of hurting other people. Organizations that promote self-interest within their social norms can experience higher levels of deviant workplace behaviors, lower forms of group cohesion, higher turnover intentions, and a reduction in the organizational commitment of their membership. Organizations that promote benevolent climates encourage a perception of a local caring environment. These caring environments “[are] more likely to encourage positive affect among organizational members, which in turn can result in higher attachment to the organization (Cullen et al., 2003, p. 138). Interpersonal cohesiveness that supports affective attachment and reinforces the organizational commitment of its membership is promoted.

Organizational Climate and Deviant Workplace Behavior

Contributors such as social, interpersonal, and organizational factors have been linked to workplace deviance. Researchers have discovered that the most prevailing reasons behind the occurrence of deviant workplace behavior is the conflicting perception, via deviant role models, that the organization supports such behavior (Appelbaum et al., 2007). Deviant or negative workplace behavior is linked to antisocial behavior, organizational misbehavior, noncompliant behavior, workplace deviance, and dysfunctional workplace behavior (Peterson, 2002a; Peterson, 2002b). There are four specific types of deviant workplace behavior: 1) Production Deviance, 2) Political Deviance, 3) Property Deviance, and 4) Personal Aggression (2002a; Peterson, 2002b). Despite the type of deviant behavior, the costs to the overall organization are enormous. Potential costs include lost productivity, lost resources, lost customers, employee turnover, and decreased employee morale. As researchers attempt to capture the cost of these behaviors to the organization, the financial implications become overwhelmingly apparent. Appelbaum et al. (2007) found:

- Three out of every four employees reported having stolen at least once from their employers

- Incidences of negative workplace deviance are now soaring out of control, with nearly 95 percent of all companies reporting some deviance-related experience within their respective organizations
- Up to 75 percent of employees have engaged in one form or another of the following deviant behaviors: theft, computer fraud, embezzlement, vandalism, sabotage or absenteeism
- It has been estimated that the impact of the widespread theft by employees on the US economy has been report to be \$50 billion annually (p. 587-588).

These figures still do not account for the lost revenue from customers or the impact low employee morale has to the bottom line.

Trevino (1986) claimed that both organizational and situational factors can influence the attitude and behavior of the organizational membership. One such organizational factor that plays a significant contributing role to employee behavior is organizational climate (Peterson, 2002a). Recent research has focused on the role ethics plays in the scope of organizational climate and employee behavior. According to Webber (2007) it is the executed behaviors of the individuals in the organization that produce the organizational climates. The ethical climate of an organization is linked directly to the positive behaviors of employees and also to the range of negative work behaviors including tardiness, absenteeism, and lax performance (Peterson, 2002a; Peterson, 2002b). In his research Peterson (2002b) found that the Ethical Climate Questionnaire created by Victor and Cullen was a partial predictor of deviant workplace behavior. More specifically, the ethical dimensions were predictive of many types of behaviors including deviant workplace behavior.

Morrison (2008) proposed that negative workplace relationships will impact the level of job satisfaction, turnover intentions, organizational commitment, and cohesion experienced by organizational members. She concluded that “those [participants] with at least one negative relationship at work were significantly less satisfied, reported less organizational commitment,

were part of less cohesive workgroups and were significantly more likely to be planning to leave their job” (Morrison, 2008, p. 340). Furthermore, increased stress, eventually leading to employee burnout, was another predictable outcome of negative workplace relationships. The organizational impact of negative workplace relationships should not be underestimated as over 50% of the participants reported having at least one (Morrison, 2008).

One suggestion for countering deviant behavior is the establishment of a strong organizational culture, specifically a culture focused on core ethical values (Appelbaum et al., 2007). Additionally, it is critically important that these ethical values are also communicated and disseminated to all employees in the organization and reinforced by the behavior of the supervisors and leaders in the establishment of the organizational policies and applicable social norms. Morrison (2008) suggested that encouraging open discussions among organizational members may allow for issues to be addressed before escalating into negative relationships. The focus of these engaging discussions, however, should aim for achieving positive relational outcomes.

Ethical Leadership and Organizational Climate

Leaders within an organization are responsible for establishing the vision, mission, goals, and values of an organization; therefore, it is important to note the role that leaders play within the organizational climate. Ethical scandals have plagued U.S. business practices in recent times and questions have been raised as to the impact leaders have on providing ethical guidance. Brown, Trevino, and Harrison (2005) defined ethical leadership as the demonstration of appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships. Maxwell (2005) described leadership simply as influence. Therefore, in order to have influence with one’s

followers, a leader must be viewed as an attractive, credible, and legitimate role model (Maxwell, 2005).

The study of ethical leadership is built upon the foundation of social learning. Social learning proposes that leaders will influence the ethical behavior of others through modeling (Brown et al., 2005). It is the leader's responsibility to model the ethical behavior they want from followers. Wimbush and Shepard (1994) found that subordinates mimic supervisors' behavior because it is supervisors who hold the subordinates accountable for their actions.

This theory of social learning and modeling is grounded in Mead's (1934) theory on symbolic interactionism. "Symbolic interactionism is a theory which explains how people create shared perceptions through an on-going, social interactive process of interpreting, defining, and evaluating events through symbols" (Wimbush & Shepard, 1994, p. 642). In a work relationship, symbols take on many different forms. Symbols are most often expressed through verbal and nonverbal communication between supervisors and subordinates (Wimbush & Shepard, 1994). Also, supervisors and leaders play an important role in reinforcing and disseminating the organization's visions, mission, goals, and policies throughout the organization. Supervisors and other organizational leaders become a critical determinant of how organizational policies are perceived throughout the organization (Wimbush & Shepard, 1994). When policies and expectations are communicated incorrectly, inconsistently, or dissimilarly, the various climate types begin to emerge.

Direct experience is one form of social learning; however, people can also learn through direct observation of the experiences and consequences of others (Brown et al., 2005). The identified components of ethical leadership are linked to three specific dimensions of

organizational behavior research: 1) Transformational/charismatic leadership, 2) leader honesty, and 3) considerate or fair treatment (Brown et al., 2005).

Transformational and Charismatic Leadership

Ethics and values play a significant role in the development of a transformational leader. A transformational leader “[inspires] followers by aligning their own and their followers’ value systems towards important moral principles” (Brown et al., 2005, p. 118). Maxwell (2005) referred to a transformational leader as a Level 5 leader. A Level 5 leader has earned the respect of his or her employees – others follow you because of who you are and what you represent. Maxwell (2005) wrote about the small number of leaders who actually reach Level 5.

The fifth and final level [of leadership] is the personhood level, but it is not a level one can strive to reach, because reaching it is outside of your control. Only others can put you there, and they do so because you have excelled in leading them from the first four levels for a long period of time. You have earned the reputation of a level-five leader” (p. 7)

Transformational leadership, or level 5 leadership, is a gift that followers bestow upon the leaders they choose to follow. It represents a dynamic so unusual that few will ever attain this level of influence. The first step, however, of achieving this dynamic is the alignment of the leader’s values and the followers’ values towards important moral principles (Maxwell, 2005).

Leader Honesty and Trustworthiness

Honesty is one of the many virtues that an ethical leader must possess. Trustworthiness is a subjective concept that is reliant upon the perceptions of individual followers. It is also an important component of the psychological contracts that are formed between employees and their employers (Rousseau, 1995). “Each person makes the decision to trust based on a complex combination of demographic and personal factors that are based upon personal history, cultural background, age, gender, and expectations about the world” (Caldwell, Hayes, & Long, 2010, p.

500). The process of building trust occurs when a leader creates operational systems that reinforce the vision, mission, goals, and values of the organization.

Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) created a measure for interpersonal trustworthiness to assess three specific personal components (ability, benevolence, and integrity) on a continuum. Ability refers to the skills, competencies, and characteristics that enable a person to be effective. Benevolence is defined as the person's desire to do good for others, and integrity is the perception that the person adheres to the principles and values he or she professes (Caldwell et al., 2010). Their measurement is recognized as a foremost model of trustworthiness in the academic research. Leaders who value the quality of trust in their relationship with their employees are careful and considerate not to act in a way that would violate that trust. Just as earning a person's trust is subjective to the paradigm of the individual, so is the loss of trust, for what may cause a decline in the trust relationship is filtered through the same unique paradigm.

There are other qualities that may be as important for formulating trust in interpersonal relationships: accountability, communication, consistency, ethical decision-making practices, resource allocations, and mentoring are just a few of the actions that contribute to the trust relationship as well.

Considerate or Fair Treatment

According to Brown et al. (2005) possessing the right kind of personal traits is not enough to establish trust within a work setting. Leaders are in a unique position to bestow justice because of the legitimate power that comes along with their position as well as their ability to control and allocate resources and their responsibility for important decisions they make about others (Brown et al., 2005). At the heart of considerate or fair treatment lies the concept of treating employee with dignity and respect. Fairness employs the managerial tools of using

consistency, communication, goal setting, expectations, and reinforcements. It is important that employees have a clear idea of the goals and expectations for their jobs and work tasks.

Managers should provide clear and consistent feedback when work objectives have or have not been met.

One means for actionizing considerate and fair treatment of others is through the concept of ethical stewardship. Ethical stewardship is defined as “a higher level duty of governance in which the motivations of the manager are based on pro-organizational rather than self-interest behavior” (Caldwell et al., 2010, p. 501). Managers have the unique responsibility to allocate resources, training, developmental opportunities to employees in a fair and considerate manner. When employees are treated with fairness and respect, their commitment to their organization is strengthened; productivity increases and operational goals and objectives are achieved. While pursuing the long-term goals of the company, leaders employ ethical stewardship when seeking to optimize the overall best interest of all organizational stakeholders.

Moral Reasoning and Cognitive Moral Development

Kohlberg’s (1969) theory on Cognitive Moral Development (CMD) “has become the most popular and tested theory of moral reasoning, and it remains among the most cited works in contemporary behavioral science” (Trevino, 1992, p. 445). Heavily influenced by the work of Jean Piaget (1932), Kohlberg’s model was developed from 20 years of research (Trevino, 1992). He interviewed 58 American boys over the course of 12 years and documented their open-ended responses to proposed ethical dilemmas. At the conclusion of his research, he proposed a tri-level model of moral development that has two distinct stages at each level.

The first level, called the Premoral level, occurs when a person’s moral reasoning is primarily influenced by rewards and punishments. At this stage, a person’s primary focus is

maximizing self-interest and/or avoiding punishment. At level two, the conventional level, a person has internalized society's standards. A person's moral compass is guided by fulfilling the role that family, friends or society reinforces. Helping and serving others becomes a primary motivation. Level two also includes willful compliance with "the rules and laws of social, legal, or religious systems that are designed to promote the common good" (Trevino, 1992, p. 446). Level three, or the principled level, is the highest stage of Kohlberg's model. At this level, a person has transcended the need to just please others and is cognitively aware of his or her own personal value system. Laws and rules of society are recognized at this level; however, the key difference is that they are not viewed as stagnant. A level three individual sees society's rules as pliable. This individual is guided primarily by self-identified principles of ethics and justice, and when those self-identified principles conflict with society's principles, the person will act in accordance with his or her own principles. A person will move from a lower level of moral reasoning to a higher level of moral reasoning when there is a "cognitive disequilibrium that occurs when an individual perceives a contradiction between his or her moral reasoning level and the next higher one" (Trevino, 1992, p.446). The movement from one level to another is subjective; however, research has provided evidence that the moral reasoning scores increase with age.

The Effects of Higher Education on Moral Reasoning

Interestingly enough, one of the most consistent correlations produced by this model is between a person's level of moral reasoning and his or her level of higher education (Trevino, 1992). Researchers have consistently found significant and positive correlations between adult cognitive moral development and education level. "In fact, years of formal education has been one of the most consistent correlates of CMD, although it is not clear what accounts for this

relationship” (Trevino, 1992, p. 449). Trevino (1992) suggested that it is possible that higher education encourages a growing awareness of one’s person and the role they play in society.

Criticism of Kohlberg’s Model

One criticism of Kohlberg’s model stems from the assumption that the higher levels represent ‘more ethical’ behaviors. Critics such as Mischel and Mischel (1976) claimed that “history is replete with atrocities that were justified by involving the highest principles. . . in the name of justice, of the common welfare, of universal ethics, and of God, millions of people have been killed and whole cultures destroyed” (p. 107). Despite the critics claims, however, Kohlberg reinforced the principle that humans will attempt to have consistency between thoughts and behaviors (Trevino, 1992). Thereby justifying that the higher levels of cognitive moral development should produce higher standards of ethical behavior.

Influences on Moral Reasoning

Trevino (1992) discussed three key organizational components that effect moral reasoning: the work itself, training and education, and group decision-making and group leadership. Moral reasoning is defined as having two separate constructs: moral cognition and moral action. It has already been established that “values represent intrinsically desirable or accepted principles [and] ethics are the systematization and application of values” (Webber, 2007, p. 567). Therefore, one could conclude that moral cognition is the establishment, recognition, and awareness of values (i.e. organizational culture) and moral action is the ethical systematization and application of these values (i.e. ethical climate).

The Work Itself.

There are two primary characteristics that allow work tasks and job duties to influence cognitive moral development. The first characteristic is referred to as role taking opportunities

(Trevino, 1992). Role taking is defined as being able to take into account others' perspectives. The most important contribution to cognitive moral development that is made by this characteristic occurs when an employee is allowed to hear, consider, and interact with other people's viewpoints. It is surmised that people who broaden their moral paradigm in order to consider the thoughts, feelings, and opinions of others are in fact operating at a higher level of moral development.

The second characteristic of work tasks and job duties effecting cognitive moral development occurs when responsibility is granted for the resolution of moral dilemmas (Trevino, 1992). By allowing employees ownership over the outcomes and consequences of moral dilemmas, teaches, reinforces, and encourages future moral behavior.

Training and Education.

Training and education encourages moral development through the exploration of moral issues and dilemmas in a safe and productive environment. "The purpose of the training is to promote movement through moral reasoning stages by exposing participants to reasoning one stage higher than the one the participant generally uses. This begins a restructuring of cognitive patterns and positive change" (Trevino, 1992, p. 454). Her research has shown that this type of training is most effective with participants in their 20s and 30s. Because the attention to ethical matters occurs in such a concise and concentrated format, many of the participants experienced higher moral reasoning at the conclusion of the training.

A more effective form of education and training occurs with what Kohlberg (1969) referred to as a just communities. These just communities are designed to compensate for many of the limitations that occur in a regular classroom environment. One drawback to classroom training is the use of hypothetical situations in order to increase understanding. Kohlberg

suggests creating weekly just communities to further facilitate the ethical learning environment. The just communities derived their name and meaning because they are designed to “treat their students justly and encourage them to take an active role in making their communities more just” (Trevino, 1992, p. 455). These just communities are democratically formed and meet on a weekly basis. Students gain first-hand knowledge and experience in dealing with issues of moral concern. Students are also encouraged to participate, voice their opinion, and listen to the opinion of others. The intent is to reinforce the social contract that exists between the student and his or her community. The most important component of the just communities is the use of real world and immediate moral dilemmas that need to be discussed or addressed.

Group Decision Making and Group Leadership.

The third organizational component that enhances adult moral development is group decision making and group leadership. Most of the research surrounding moral cognitive development focuses on behaviors and actions at the individual level. In large organizations most of the complex decision making occurs at the group level. One finding of group research falls on the role of the group leader. Trevino (1992) found that when a group leader was not operating at the highest level, the principled level of Kohlberg’s model, the performance of the group was diminished. Instead it was the groups who had leaders who operated in the highest moral reasoning categories whose performance either stayed the same or increased (Trevino, 1992). Therefore, research concludes that investing in the ethical training of organizational employees, may not only create more effective leaders within the organization, but it may also directly increase the overall performance of the organization as well.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has captured the interest of researchers from the late 1900s. Job satisfaction can be studied using two distinct methods. Researchers using the global study of job satisfaction attempt to understand an employee's level of overall satisfaction, and researchers using the dimensional approach to job satisfaction prefer to analyze the many work facets that can influence a person's level of satisfaction (Glick, 1992). Overall job satisfaction describes an individual's level of satisfaction with the entirety of his or her position. The dimensional method for studying job satisfaction describes an individual's satisfaction regarding specific variables of his or her job. Variables of job satisfaction known to influence employee behavior are financial rewards, working conditions, supervisory practices, company policies, coworkers, opportunities for advancement, security, and content of the job. The research surrounding job satisfaction, however, is best depicted when using both methodical approaches (i.e. overall and dimensional).

Job satisfaction is defined as, "a contribution of cognitive and affective reactions to the differential perceptions of what an employee wants to receive compared with what he or she actually receives" from his or her job (Samad, 2005, p. 79). The research on job satisfaction is clearly delineated. One side claims that job satisfaction is clearly linked to the job characteristics and work tasks associated with performing a particular duty. Others insist that job satisfaction is an internally driven from personal attributes such as personality and its effect on behavior. The newest stream of research, however, blends the two ends of the continuum. Behavior, for the most part, is influenced by both personality and the environment (Thomas, Buboltz, & Winkelspecht, 2004). Ensuring that there is a good match between the person and his or her job requirements is one popular way for managing the satisfaction level of one's subordinates. In the

case where a job task becomes menial, less challenging, or mundane, it is apparent that the motivation and the subsequent satisfaction of the person start to decline. Research indicates that varying specific aspects of one's job may lead to higher levels of motivation, satisfaction, and work productivity.

Person-Environment Fit

One way to balance the dichotomy is a popular stream of research called person-environment fit (P-E fit). Person-environment fit theory analyzes the proposed fit, between the abilities and needs of the individual to the required characteristics and tasks of the job (Ostroff & Judge, 2007; Thomas et al., 2004). If there is low fit or low congruence between a person and his or her job, research has found that motivation, satisfaction, performance decreases while stress increases (Thomas et al., 2004). If there is high fit, or high congruence, stress decreases and performance is increased.

Thomas et al., (2004) assessed the manner and ability that people use to process information (i.e. their personality) with established job satisfaction levels. They proposed that if people process information differently than individual differences must be accounted for in job redesign (Thomas et al., 2004). This proposition furthers the stream of research that personal attributes (i.e. personality) influence job satisfaction; therefore, when a manager attempts to increase the P-E fit within his or her organization, he or she must do so on an individual basis.

Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Herzberg proposed a unique concept for understanding job satisfaction in employees. He was one of the first researchers to depart from the need theories of motivation and examine the levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction of people at work (Nelson & Quick, 2009). The premise for his dimensional theory stemmed from a two-component perspective whereby the work

environment would influence one of the two components. Herzberg's unique proposition stated that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two separate components. They were not the opposite ends of a satisfaction continuum. Therefore, the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction; rather, the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction (Harash, 2010). Similarly, the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction (Harash, 2010). The two components are consequently referred to as motivation factors (satisfaction) and hygiene factors (dissatisfaction).

Motivation factors were those aspects of the work environment that lead to psychological growth and promoted satisfaction. Hygiene factors were aspects of the work environment that created dissatisfaction or psychological pain or discomfort. It is important to note that motivation factors lead to personal growth and contribution to the work environment; however, the absence of these factors does not lead to dissatisfaction (Nelson & Quick, 2009). These motivational factors are the more important of the two factors because they are the ones that propel a person's motivation to increase his or her work performance. Aspects of the job such as achievement, recognition of achievement, the work itself, increased responsibility, advancement and growth are all forms of motivational factors (Nelson & Quick, 2009). The absence of these factors does not create dissatisfaction; however, it can cause a person to become demotivated to perform well.

Hygiene factors are unrelated to the motivational factors. "Job dissatisfaction occurs when the hygiene factors are either absent or insufficient" (Nelson & Quick, 2009, p. 76). Aspects of the job such as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relations, working conditions, status, and security are all considered to be hygiene factors. These factors do not encourage growth or human development; instead they act as maintenance factors

influencing the extent of discontent. If hygiene factors are well managed, the result is a decrease in employee dissatisfaction.

Job Satisfaction Among Academic Professionals

The majority of the job satisfaction research has been conducted within the business sector. However, given the noted shortages of academic faculty and the increasing number of faculty vacancies, institutions of higher education may benefit from understanding the impact that satisfaction has on their ability to fulfill the vision and mission of the institutions.

Glick (1992) studied the history surrounding the job tenure of academic administrators. In the past, high level academic administrators have experienced little turnover. Most turnover experienced by institutions of higher education occurred only with realms of faculty positions. Recent research, however, has showed that this historic trend may now be reversing itself (Glick, 1992). The average presidential term is now approximately 7 years, and there are fewer long-term presidents than in previous years (Glick, 1992). Three dimensional facets (i.e. Work, Supervision, and Promotion) have been found to influence an academic administrator's level of job satisfaction (Astrauskaite, Vaitkevicius, & Perminas, 2010; Glick, 1992). Despite these trends, there is little research on the level of job satisfaction among university employees.

Researchers (Harash, 2010; Hutton & Jobe, 1985) have found that similar to corporate employees, faculty members tend to leave their jobs if they are dissatisfied, and there is a high correlation between low levels of job satisfaction and turnover rates. Another dimensional study analyzed the job satisfaction of community college faculty members across the state of Texas. The top four areas of job satisfaction were: 1) relationship with supervisor, 2) relationship to colleagues, 3) teaching satisfaction, and 4) media or library accessibility (Hutton & Jobe, 1985). A person who is satisfied in his or her position is known to express positive feelings about the

work he or she performs. These positive emotions can translate into organizational citizenship behaviors, or employees' willingness to go above and beyond their standard job duties (Harash, 2010). The top four areas of dissatisfaction were: 1) support for professional growth, 2) support for instruction, 3) time allocation, and 4) convenience of facilities (Hutton & Jobe, 1985).

Identifying areas of satisfaction and dissatisfaction can enable academic administrators to reduce levels of turnover and absenteeism among university employees. Faculty members play a critical role in fulfilling the vision and mission of the educational institution.

The Consequences of Job Satisfaction

Saari and Judge (2004) identified three critical consequences to positive or negative job satisfaction: 1) job satisfaction and job performance, 2) job satisfaction and life satisfaction, and 3) job satisfaction and withdrawal behaviors. The strong relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is a relatively new concept. Historically, critics claimed that there was no viable proof that an increase in job performance could be correlated with increased job satisfaction; yet, proponents claimed that the critics were defining job performance too narrowly (Saari & Judge, 2004). When job performance was expanded to include items such as organizational citizenship behaviors, the relationship was apparent (Saari & Judge, 2004). Most recently, the relationship between job performance and job satisfaction is much stronger for professional and more complex positions (Saari & Judge, 2004).

Saari and Judge (2004) suggested that job satisfaction and life satisfaction are intricately interconnected: "Since a job is a significant part of one's life, the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction makes sense – one's job experiences spill over into one's life. . . [and] it seems possible the causality could go the other way" (p. 399). Critics argue that this philosophy means that organizations can only control part of an employee's job satisfaction, only

the part that occurs at work. The organization has no effect on life circumstances that impact work satisfaction. Proponents, however, argued that by ignoring low job satisfaction, the dissatisfaction will inevitably spillover into a person's life satisfaction and effect their well-being, which will in turn lower the job satisfaction level even further.

Job satisfaction research has been heavily linked to the negative consequences of employee turnover and absenteeism. More specifically, job satisfaction of faculty members may directly impact student achievement (Hutton & Jobe, 1985). Job dissatisfaction also appears to be directly correlated to other withdrawal behaviors such as tardiness, grievances, and drug abuse (Saari & Judge, 2004). Withdrawal behaviors are costly for most organizations, and some withdrawal behaviors are costly to the individual's well-being (Hanisch & Hulin, 1991). Negative work behaviors begin to occur as an employee attempts to address or adapt to their unhappiness. Employees may find ways to cope by withdrawing from interpersonal relationships within the organization or eventually leave the organization altogether.

There are two identified components of organizational withdrawal: work withdrawal and job withdrawal (Hanisch & Hulin, 1991). Work withdrawal includes behaviors to avoid performing specific work tasks or reduce the amount of time performing unfavorable work tasks while remaining in their current organizational position. Job withdrawal pertains to an employee's attempt to remove themselves from their current position or from the organization altogether. For academic faculty, work withdrawal would have significant impacts on the learning opportunities for the student. A faculty member may choose not to stay current on the topics to which he or she is teaching, fail to produce academic research, or be of service to the university. Job withdrawal may impact the functionality and efficiency of the university system. According to Dimotakis, Scott, and Koopman (2010), "The quality of employee's interpersonal

interactions during the workday should have an impact on their job satisfaction . . .since work attitudes are influenced by work events” (p. 575). Job withdrawal, for example, could indicate a faculty member’s lack of cohesiveness with supervisors or fellow faculty members or even a dissatisfaction in salary or benefits.

One means for addressing negative job satisfaction would be through the administration of employee attitude surveys, also referred to as job satisfaction evaluations (Dimotakis et al., 2010; Saari & Judge, 2004). Employee surveys can be catalysts for encouraging organizational change, improving employee morale, and bestowing employee voice (Saari & Judge, 2004). It is important to note, however, that survey feedback and the consequential policy changes should be openly shared in order to foster an environment of trust and cooperation among employees.

Another means for countering dissatisfaction and augmenting employee attitudes involves focusing on intrinsic rewards associated with the position or organization, not just the extrinsic benefits. In a study of over 328 rehabilitation professionals, Randolph and Johnson (2005) found that “intrinsic factors such as professional growth and having a work environment in line with personal values are more significant in predicting career satisfaction than are extrinsic factors such as pay and continuing education . . . these same intrinsic factors are also significant in predicting the rehabilitation professional’s desire to stay on the job” (p. 49). The implications of the study is to charge hiring managers with providing intrinsic benefits to their employees as well as the traditionally expected benefits of salaries and wages, health insurance, and paid vacation time.

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

The relationship that organizational commitment has with job satisfaction is a growing stream of research because of the noted benefits to both the individual and the organization.

Gruneberg (1979) found a predictive relationship between job satisfaction and several components of organizational commitment. These components include productivity, withdrawal behaviors, absence, turnover, and counter-productive behaviors (Gruneberg, 1979). “It is believed that when employees are dissatisfied at work, they are less committed and will look for other opportunities to quit. If opportunities are unavailable, they may emotionally or mentally ‘withdraw’ from the organization” (Alhawary & Aborumman, 2010, p. 153). Steers (1977) also found a significant positive correlation existed between organizational commitment and the desire and intent to remain with an organization. Other factors that were correlated included a marginally positive relationship to quantity of work and promotional readiness, and he found a significant negative correlation between commitment and turnover.

These factors are important considerations for job satisfaction research as well. Research has linked high levels of commitment to high levels of performance and productivity (Samad, 2005). Samad (2005), influenced by Herzberg’s Two Factor theory, proposed that as organizational commitment increased, job performance would also increase; however, it would be moderated by job satisfaction. In his research study, Samad concluded that employees “who are committed to their company are likely to perform better in their jobs if the relationship with supervisor and peers, quality of supervision, policy and administration, job security, working condition, salary, the nature of the work itself, achievement, possibility for growth, advancement and recognition for advancement [i.e the motivating and hygiene factors] they received were improved” (p. 84).

Summary

Considering the previous research presented on organizational commitment, ethical climate, and job satisfaction, it is imperative to reconsider the personal and administrative issues

that were brought to light under The Ohio State University controversy of the 1960s. Institutions of higher education are not exempt from the impact of the relationship between organizational commitment, ethical climate, and job satisfaction. Many institutions of higher education are considered to be complex institutions and, therefore, it could be argued that they may be significantly more impacted when a misalignment occurs in the organization. Whenever the components of commitment, ethical climate, and job satisfaction collide in an unfavorable manner, it can have devastating effects on the reputation of the institution as it did for The Ohio State University. It is easy to surmise that when the reputation of the institution decreases, it becomes much more challenging to raise funds and operate effectively. Enrollment can also be affected which compounds the problem even further. The academic reputation of the college is one significant criterion that most students use to assist in their college choice decision-making process. Most of the research cites the academic reputation, the availability of need-based or academic-based financial aid, the cost of tuition, the size (number of students), the location, the social atmosphere, and the availability of athletic programs and scholarships at the college or university as the most important considerations (Lampley, Good, & Moore, 2010; Turcotte, 1995). If the academic reputation of the college is affected, it is easy to see how the other students may choose to enroll elsewhere.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to further understand the relationship between the perceived ethical climate, the organizational commitment, and the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members. This chapter also describes the research questions and hypotheses and the methodology of this research with specific information on the survey instruments, data collection, sample size, data analyses, and survey procedures. Descriptions of the instruments used, as well as a list of variables, are further discussed.

Research Design

To thoroughly understand the potential relationship between perceived ethical climate and the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members in institutions of higher education, a nonexperimental quantitative research design was chosen. Quantitative research's primary purpose is to explain causes in the naturally occurring phenomena that exist in the world today. Quantitative research assumes that within the multiple perspectives that exist in the world, researchers can discover a single reality (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010). The knowledge that is generated through quantitative research focuses on measuring and describing phenomenon while "maximizing objectivity by using numbers, statistics, structure, and control" (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010, p. 21). This research design is further subclassified as nonexperimental research. Nonexperimental research designs "examine [the] relationship between different phenomena without any direct manipulation of conditions that are experienced" (McMillian & Schumacher, 2010, p. 22). This nonexperimental research design used an electronic survey with Likert-type questions to evaluate the level and

relationships of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and perceived ethical climate of full-time faculty members in four participating institutions of higher education.

Research Questions and Null Hypotheses

The following research questions and null hypotheses guided the study:

Research Question 1: Is there a significant difference in the organizational commitment of full-time faculty members with regard to type of ethical climate?

Ho1: There is no significant difference in the organizational commitment of full-time faculty members with regard to type of ethical climate.

Research Question 2: Is there a significant difference in the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members with regard to type of ethical climate?

Ho2: There is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members with regard to type of ethical climate.

Research Question 3: Is there a significant difference in the organizational commitment of full-time faculty members with regard to gender?

Ho3: There is no significant difference in the organizational commitment of full-time faculty member with regard for gender.

Research Question 4: Is there a significant difference in the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members with regard for gender?

Ho4: There is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members with regard for gender.

Research Question 5: Is there a significant relationship between the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members?

Ho5: There is no significant relationship between the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members.

Instrumentation

Three previous established survey instruments were used to collect data for this study. The modified Meyer and Allen (2004) Three-Component Model (TCM) survey for employee commitment (Appendix F), Hackman and Oldham's (1980) Job Diagnostic Survey (Appendix G), and Victor and Cullen's revised Ethical Climate Questionnaire (1993) (Appendix H).

TCM Employee Commitment Survey

The revised Three-Component Model (TCM) of employee commitment, developed by Meyer and Allen (2004), measures three distinct factors of organizational commitment. These three types of employee commitment are affective, normative, and continuance commitment and each factor measures a separate component of the overall commitment process. This unique perspective on commitment consists of three general themes: "affective attachment to the organization, perceived costs associated with leaving the organization and obligation to remain with the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 64). It has also been explained that normative commitment relates to what one *should* do, affective commitment pertains to what one *wants* to do, and continuance commitment explains what one *has* to do (Jenkins, 2009; Meyer & Allen, 2004).

Each component, affective, normative, and continuance, is measured based upon four questions off of the TCM instrument. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used to measure agreement with each statement. The scale ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. Permission to use the scale is found in Appendix A. The deployed TCM scale is found in Appendix F.

Revised Ethical Climate Questionnaire (RECQ)

The Revised Ethical Climate Questionnaire (RECQ), a widely used assessment of ethical climate in organizations, was originally developed in 1988 by Victor and Cullen. Originally called The Ethical Climate Questionnaire (ECQ), it has undergone one significant revision from its origination, and it is now referred to as the Revised Ethical Climate Questionnaire. The purpose of the measurement was derived from Victor and Cullen's desire to study the ethical work climate in an organization based primarily upon the analysis of the ethical choices made by individuals in that organization (Webber, 2007). Their primary focus was to develop a measurement heavily grounded in the shared-perception approach to ethical assessment.

For the purpose of this study, an adaptation of the ethical climate questionnaire was used. The focus of the revised instrument will center on the three factors of ethical criteria: Egoism, Benevolence, and Principled. According to Cullen, Victor, and Bronson (1993), "ethical climates may be distinguished in terms of maximizing one's own self-interests, maximizing joint interests, or adherence to universal principles" (p. 668). Four questions for each of the three ethical criteria were selected to be used in this study. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used to measure agreement with each statement. The scale ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree. Permission to use the scale is found in Appendix B. The deployed ethical climate questionnaire is found in Appendix H.

Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS)

The Job Diagnostic Survey was chosen for its successful application for measuring the job satisfaction of targeted populations in many previous studies. The JDS was adapted and 14 questions were selected to capture overall satisfaction of the subjects as well as satisfaction with particular job characteristics. A seven-point Likert-type scale was used to assess the level of

satisfaction for each question. The scale ranged from (1) extremely dissatisfied to (7) extremely satisfied. The JDS is not under copyright protection, and permission to use this survey can be found in Appendix C. The deployed job satisfaction instrument can be found in Appendix G.

Instrument Reliability

The reliability of an instrument refers to the consistency with which the instrument measures a concept (McMillian & Schumacher, 2006). A benchmark alpha = .70 or greater is considered to be indicative of a reliable measure (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991).

The reliability of Meyer and Allen's Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment is too low for employees working for an organization for less than 1 year. Therefore, data from respondents working for the organization for less than 1 year was not used in this research. The reported Cronbach's alpha for this instrument is .85, .79, and .73 respectively for the affective, continuance, and normative scales (Jenkins, 2009; Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The Cronbach's alpha for The Revised Ethical Climate Questionnaire ranges from .76 to .85 based upon ethical climate type (Cullen et al., 2003; Cullen et al., 1993), and the Cronbach's alpha estimate of reliability for the Job Diagnostic Survey ranges from .66 to .92 (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Jenkins, 2009).

Population

For this study, four regional universities have agreed to participate. The demographical make-up of these institutions consists of one regional institution of higher education in North Carolina, one in Oklahoma, one in Tennessee, and one in Texas. All of these regional institutions are classified as public institutions. The total targeted population for all four

universities is approximately 7,808 full-time faculty members. Table 1 includes more detail on the demographical make-up of these universities:

Table 1

Demographics of Participating Institutions

College	Full-time Students	Part-time Students	Total Students	Full-time Faculty	Tenured Faculty
A	13,865	2,006	15,871	2,283	395
B	10,385	2,734	13,119	2,247	278
C	23,916	10,794	34,710	3,278	495
D	10,461	5,084	15,495	1,271	210
TOTAL	48,166	15,534	63,700	7,808	1,168

Data Collection

Prior to beginning of this research project, permission to conduct research was obtained from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of the researcher’s home institution. For three of the participating universities, permission from their on-site IRB was granted as well, and permission from the fourth institution was given via the Vice Provost of Faculty Affairs.

The participating universities did not provide the researcher with a list of participants’ names or email addresses. Instead, the electronic survey link was forwarded to a specific point of contact at each participating institution. That university representative used an internal email distribution list to contact potential participants. A sample of the email invitation that was distributed to potential participants can be found in Appendix E. By using an internal email distribution list it augmented the privacy and confidentiality of the participants. The researcher had no way to identify individuals or their responses. It also assisted in reaching the entire targeted population by ensuring that the most up-to-date and accurate email addresses were used

to reach participants. An online survey instrument, Survey Monkey, generated an electronic hyper-link that included all four sections of the survey. Using an electronic survey administrator, Survey Monkey, was chosen for practicality reasons.

The electronic survey instrument is comprised of four sections -- organizational commitment, job satisfaction, ethical climate, and demographics -- and was used to collect data. The survey instrument consisted of 38 statements that asked the respondents to indicate their degree of agreement or level of satisfaction via a seven point Likert-type scale ranging from strongly disagree or extremely dissatisfied to strongly agree or strongly satisfied. There were also five short demographical questions as well. All responses were confidential and the demographic information collected did not reveal the participants in the study.

Data Analysis

Data from the four participating universities were compiled into a Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 16.0 data file. SPSS was used for all statistical analysis in this study.

Research question 1 was analyzed using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The grouping variable was the three types of ethical climate and the dependent variable was the total cumulative organizational commitment score.

Research question 2 was analyzed using Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The grouping variable was the three types of ethical climate and the dependent variable was the total cumulative job satisfaction score.

Research question 3 was analyzed using an independent sample t-test. The total organizational commitment score of male respondents was compared to the total organizational commitment score of female respondents.

Research question 4 was analyzed using an independent sample t-test. The total job satisfaction score of male respondents was compared to the total job satisfaction of female respondents.

Research question 5 was analyzed using a correlation table. The table revealed whether there was a significant relationship between the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members.

All data were analyzed at the .05 level of significance. Finds of the data analyses are presented in Chapter 4. A summary of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations for future research are presented in Chapter 5.

Summary

Chapter 3 reported the methodology and procedures for conducting this study. After a brief introduction, a description of the research design, selection of the population, research questions and null hypotheses, the data collection procedures, survey instruments, survey reliability, and the consequential data analysis procedures were defined. The results of the survey are presented in following chapter.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Turnover is an expensive outcome for any employer, so identifying and remedying factors that lower organizational commitment and job satisfaction of employees could potentially augment an institution's profitability as well as increase the productivity and creativity of its employees. The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and perceived ethical climate of full-time faculty members at four regional universities located in the United States.

In this chapter data were presented and analyzed to answer five research questions and five null hypotheses. An electronic survey with four sections was used to capture data. A seven point Likert-type scale was used on the first three sections to assess varying levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and perceived ethical climate. The fourth section included five demographical questions. Data were retrieved following the execution of the survey (Appendices E, F, G, H, and I). All full-time faculty members at the four participating institutions, totaling approximately 7,808, were invited to respond. Six hundred seventy-three responses were captured; however, only 594 were used in the analysis of data. There were 79 ineligible responses that included 32 incomplete surveys, 39 who were not full-time faculty members, and 8 who were employed by their institution for less than 1 year.

The demographic make-up of the participants included 54.2% tenured faculty, 25.6% tenure-track faculty, and 20.2% of contract-based or other faculty. Female faculty members consisted of 311 or 52.4% of the observations which is important to note because research questions 3 and 4 address differences in commitment and satisfaction by gender. The mean number of years that participants have worked as faculty members at their present institution is

11, and the mean number of total years participants have worked as a faculty member throughout their career is 16. See Table 2.

Table 2

Respondents Demographic Information by Institution

Institution	Total Faculty Responses	Male-Female Responses	Mean Years at Present Institution	Mean Total Years as Faculty Member
A	130	73 / 57	15.7	22.4
B	164	100 / 64	16.2	22.7
C	155	61 / 94	5.9	9.3
D	145	49 / 96	6.2	10.6

Group Assignments

Respondents were grouped into one of the four ethical climate type categories based upon their highest cumulative score. The ethical climate questionnaire is a continuous measurement whereby all respondents were required to answer four questions for each climate type based upon a seven point Likert-type scale. Therefore, a score of 28 would be the highest possible score for each climate type and a score of four would be the lowest possible score for each climate type. An individual's answers to the questionnaire were totaled for each climate type. Respondents' observations were grouped based on which of the three ethical climate types received the highest cumulative score. If the cumulative score for two climate types was equal, then the observation was assigned into one of the two groups randomly. With 594 completed responses, 168 respondents were grouped into the benevolent ethical climate, 166 respondents were grouped into the egoism climate, and 260 respondents were grouped into the principled climate.

Reliability

“Reliability is the extent to which a variable or set of variables is consistent in what it is intended to measure” (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998, p. 3). Cronbach’s alpha was used as a measure of reliabilities for all constructs (Cronbach, 1951). Each of the scales had a reliability of at least $\alpha = .70$, each scale was determined to have an acceptable level of internal consistency (Pedhazur & Schmelkin, 1991). See Table 3.

Table 3

Reliabilities

Scale	Chronbach’s Alpha
Total Commitment	.78
Total Satisfaction	.91
Total Benevolent	.87
Total Egoism	.70
Total Principled	.74

Research Questions and Analysis

Research Question 1: Is there a significant difference in the organizational commitment of full-time faculty members with regard to type of ethical climate?

Ho1: There is no significant difference in the organizational commitment of full-time faculty members with regard to type of ethical climate.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between types of perceived ethical climate and the self-reported levels of organizational commitment. The factor variable the type of perceived ethical climate included three groups: benevolent, egoism, and principled. The dependent variable was the self-reported level of organizational

commitment. The ANOVA was significant, $[F(2, 591) = 73.27, p < .001]$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The strength of the relationship between the type of ethical climate and the self-reported level of organizational commitment as assessed by η^2 was large (.20) (Green & Salkind, 2008).

Because the overall F test was significant, post hoc multiple comparisons were conducted to evaluate the pairwise difference among the means of the three groups. A Tukey procedure was selected for the multiple comparisons because equal variances were assumed. There was a significant difference in the means between the benevolent ethical climate group and the egoism ethical climate group ($p < .001$) and between the benevolent ethical climate group and the principled ethical climate group ($p = .001$). There was also a significant difference between the egoism ethical climate group and the principled ethical climate group ($p < .001$). The data suggest that when faculty members perceive their organization's ethical climate to be egoistic, there are lower self-reported levels of organizational commitment than when they perceive the ethical climate to be benevolent or principled. It also appears that when faculty members perceive the organization's ethical climate to be benevolent, there are higher self-reported levels of organizational commitment than when they perceive the ethical climate to be egoistic or principled. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences as well as the means and standard deviations for the three ethical climate types are reported in Table 4.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations of Organizational Commitment Scores with 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences

Ethical Climate Types	N	M	SD	Benevolent	Egoism
Benevolent	168	61.23	9.65		
Egoism	166	47.31	11.50	11.12 to 16.72	
Principled	260	55.58	11.25	1.49 to 6.56	7.35 to 12.44

Research Question 2: Is there a significant difference in the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members with regard to type of ethical climate?

Ho2: There is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members with regard to type of ethical climate.

A one-way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the relationship between types of perceived ethical climate and the self-reported levels of job satisfaction. The factor variable the type of perceived ethical climate included three groups: benevolent, egoism, and principled. The dependent variable was the self-reported level of job satisfaction. The ANOVA was significant, $[F(2, 590) = 197.45, p < .001]$. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The strength of the relationship between the type of ethical climate and the self-reported level of organizational commitment as assessed by η^2 was large (.40) (Green & Salkind, 2008).

Because the overall F test was significant, post hoc multiple comparisons were conducted to evaluate the pairwise difference among the means of the three groups. A Tukey procedure was selected for the multiple comparisons because equal variances were assumed. There was a significant difference in the means between the benevolent ethical climate group and the egoism ethical climate group ($p < .001$), between the egoism ethical climate group and the principled ethical climate group ($p < .001$), and between the benevolent ethical climate group and the

principled ethical climate group ($p < .001$). It appears that when faculty members perceive their organization's ethical climate to be egoistic, there are lower self-reported levels of job satisfaction than when they perceive the ethical climate to be benevolent or principled. It also appears that benevolent organizational climates foster higher levels of job satisfaction than in organizations where principled ethical climates are dominant. The 95% confidence intervals for the pairwise differences as well as the means and standard deviations for the three ethical climate types are reported in Table 5.

Table 5
Means and Standard Deviations of Job Satisfaction Scores with 95% Confidence Intervals of Pairwise Differences

Ethical Climate Types	N	M	SD	Benevolent	Egoism
Benevolent	167	81.96	10.25		
Egoism	166	56.10	15.66	22.66 to 29.05	
Principled	260	75.06	11.31	4.00 to 9.79	16.06 to 21.86

Research Question 3: Is there a significant difference in the organizational commitment of full-time faculty members with regard to gender?

Ho3: There is no significant difference in the organizational commitment of full-time faculty member with regard for gender.

An independent-samples t test was conducted to evaluate whether the mean scores for organizational commitment differ based on gender. The self-reported level of organizational commitment was the dependent variable and the group variable was gender type. The test was significant, [$t(592) = 4.09, p = < .001$]. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The η^2 index was .03, which indicated a small effect size (Green & Salkind, 2008). Female participants

($M = 57.50$, $SD = 11.82$) tended to report higher levels of organizational commitment than their male counterparts ($M = 53.47$, $SD = 12.19$). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was (-5.96 to -2.09). Figure 2 shows the distributions for the two groups.

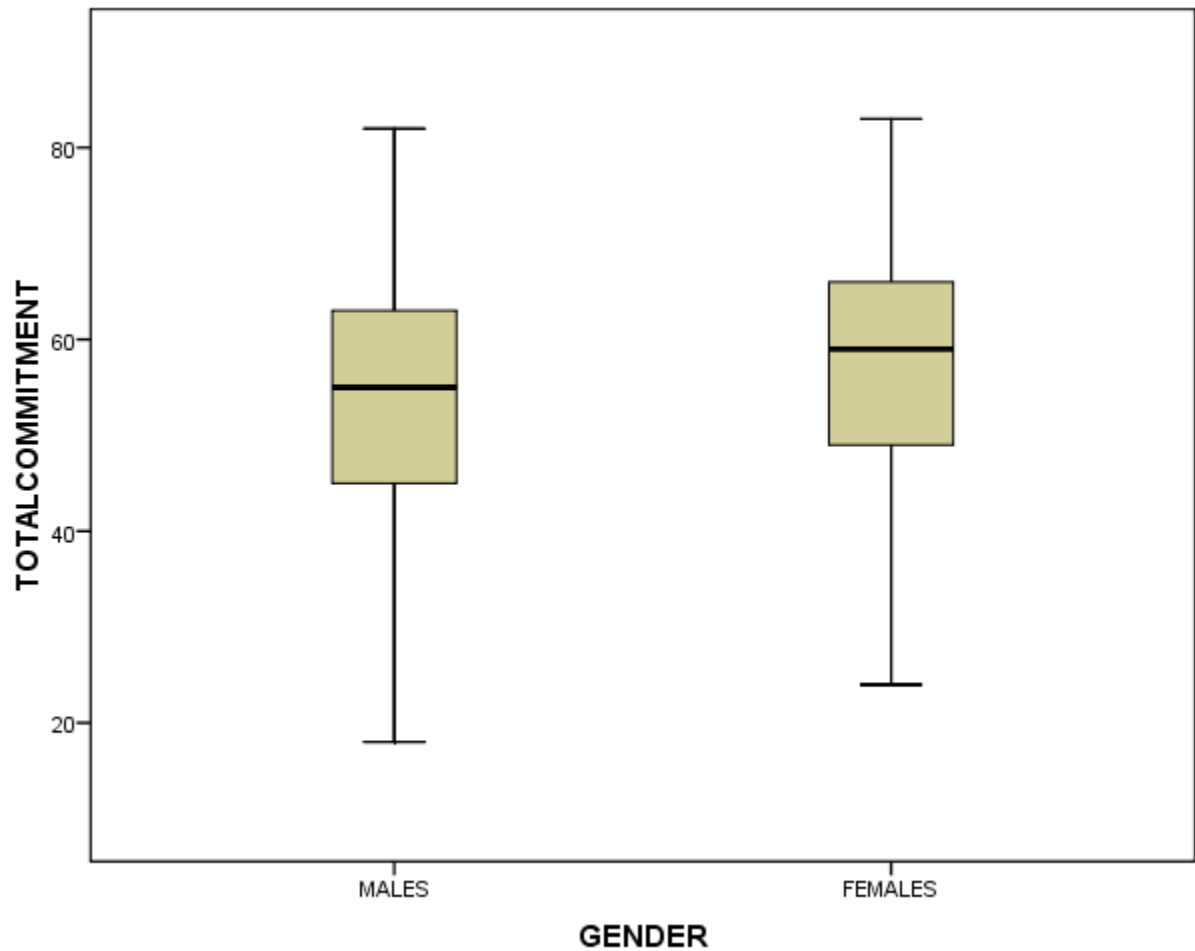


Figure 2. Distribution of Organizational Commitment Scores for Males and Females

Research Question 4: Is there a significant difference in the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members with regard for gender?

Ho4: There is no significant difference in the job satisfaction of full-time faculty members with regard for gender.

An independent-samples t test was conducted to evaluate whether the mean scores for job satisfaction differ based on gender. The test was not significant, [$t(591) = .274, p = .784, ns$]. Therefore, the null hypothesis was retained. The η^2 index was less than .001, which indicated a small effect size (Green & Salkind, 2008). Female participants ($M = 71.87, SD = 15.88$) tended to report similar levels of organizational commitment as their male counterparts ($M = 71.51, SD = 16.20$). The 95% confidence interval for the difference in means was (-2.95 to 2.23). Figure 3 shows the distributions for the two groups.

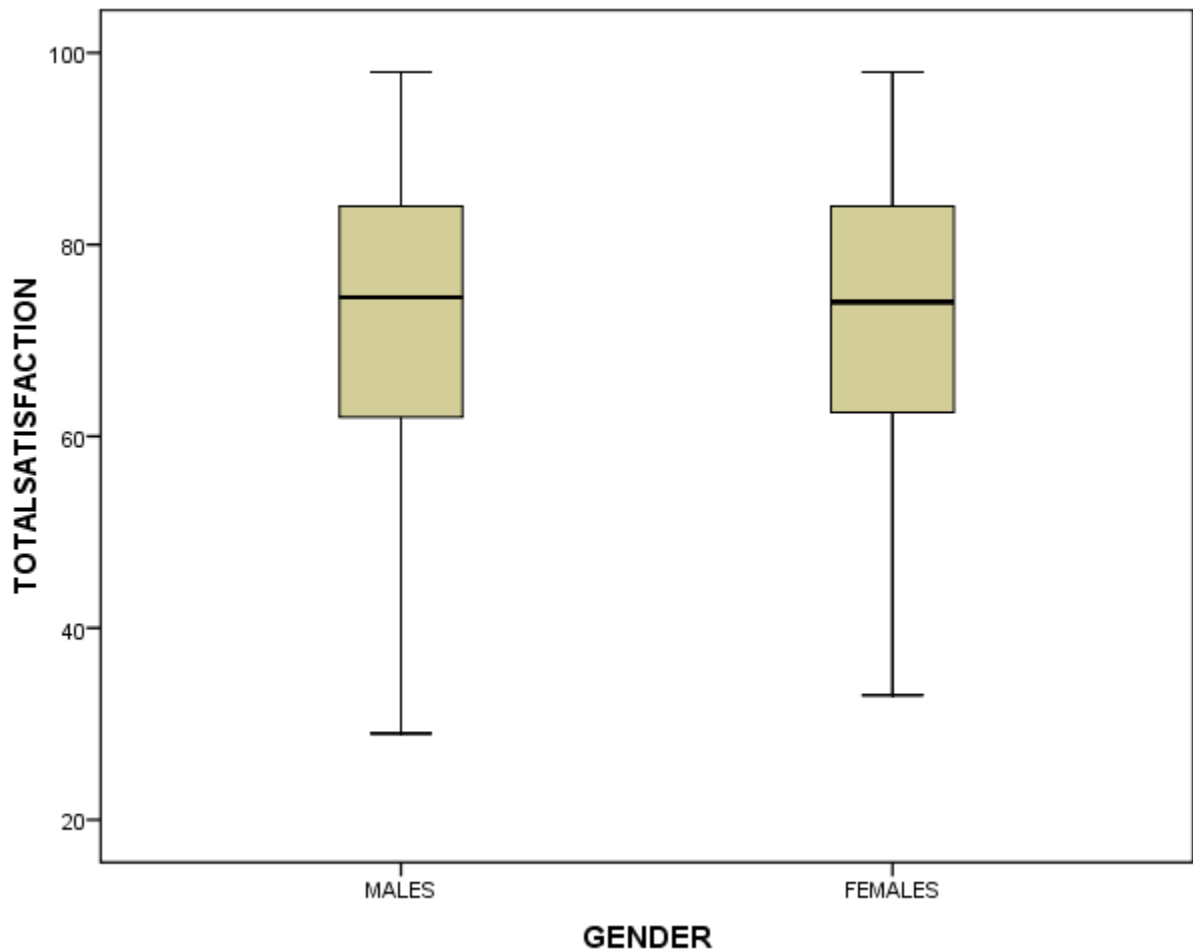


Figure 3. Distribution of Job Satisfaction Scores for Males and Females

Research Question 5: Is there a significant relationship between the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members?

Ho5: There is no significant relationship between the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to test the relationship between the self-reported levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction for full-time faculty members at four participating universities. The results of the analysis revealed a strong positive relationship between Total Organizational Commitment ($M = 55.58$, $SD = 12.15$) and Total Job Satisfaction ($M = 71.70$, $SD = 16.02$) scores and a statistically significant correlation ($r(592) = .60$, $p < .001$). As a result of the analysis Ho5 was rejected. In general, the results suggest that faculty members with high levels of organizational commitment also tended to have higher levels of job satisfaction.

Summary

In this chapter, data obtained from 594 full-time faculty members at four participating institutions were presented and analyzed. There were five research questions and five null hypotheses. All data were collected through an online survey distributed via an internal listserv at the participating universities.

A significant difference was found between the organizational commitment scores of full-time faculty members with regard to types of perceived ethical climate. Respondents who perceived their organization's ethical climate to be benevolent had a mean organizational commitment score of 61.23. Respondents who perceived their organization to have an egoistic ethical climate reported mean organizational commitment scores of 47.31, and those who perceived a principle ethical climates reported mean organizational commitment scores of 57.20.

These findings indicate that full-time faculty members at the four participating institutions who perceive their organization to have an egoistic ethical climate reported statistically significant lower levels of organizational commitment than both their counterparts who perceive the organization to have either a benevolent or principled ethical climate. The data also indicated that there was a significant difference in the total organizational commitment scores between the benevolent ethical climate group and the principled ethical climate group with the benevolent ethical climate group reporting higher levels of organizational commitment than the principled climate group.

A significant difference was also found between the job satisfaction scores of full-time faculty members with regard to types of perceived ethical climate. Respondents who perceived their organization's ethical climate to be benevolent had a mean satisfaction score of 81.96. Respondents who perceived their organization to have an egoistic ethical climate reported mean job satisfaction score of 56.10, and those who perceived principle ethical climates reported a mean job satisfaction score of 75.06. These findings indicate that full-time faculty members at the four participating institutions who perceive their organization to have an egoistic ethical climate reported statistically significant lower levels of job satisfaction than all of their counterparts, those who perceive the organization to have either a benevolent or principled ethical climate. The data also indicated that there was a significant difference in the total job satisfaction scores between the benevolent ethical climate group and the principled ethical climate group with the benevolent ethical climate group reporting higher levels of commitment than the principled climate group.

A significant difference was found between total organizational commitment and gender. Female respondents had a mean total commitment score of 57.50 and male respondents had a mean total commitment score of 53.47. The data indicate that female faculty members express statistically significant and higher levels of total organizational commitment than their male counterparts.

No significant difference was found between total job satisfaction and gender. Female respondents had a mean total satisfaction score of 71.87 and male respondents had a mean total satisfaction score of 71.51. The data suggest that there is not a statistically significant difference between female and male satisfaction scores.

A significant and positive relationship exists between the two dependent variables, total organizational commitment and total job satisfaction. The data indicate that as a faculty member reports higher levels of organizational commitment, they also report higher levels of job satisfaction. Administrators may be able to use this information to help facilitate positive organizational outcomes for their university.

In summary, four of the five null hypotheses were rejected for this research study. Overall, it appears that the perception a faculty member holds with regard to their organization's ethical climate has a strong relationship to both their self-reported levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Data also suggest that female respondents tended to report higher level of organizational commitment than their male counterparts. There was no significant difference, however, between gender and total job satisfaction. It also appears that total organizational commitment and total job satisfaction have a significantly positive relationship. Those respondents who reported higher levels of organizational commitment as tended to report higher levels of job satisfaction. University administrators could possibly use

these findings to increase positive organizational outcomes at their institutions of higher education.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This chapter contains the findings, conclusions, and recommendations for readers who may use the results as a resource when reviewing and revising the organizational culture and climate or the employee retention policies of an institution of higher education. The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship perceived ethical climate has with the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members. The study was conducted using data collected through an online survey of full-time faculty members at four regional universities.

Summary

The statistical analyses reported in the study were based on five research questions presented in Chapters 1 and 3. In Chapter 3, each research question was supplemented with one null hypothesis. Research questions 1 and 2 were analyzed using an analysis of variance (ANOVA), research questions 3 and 4 were analyzed using an independent sample t-test, and research question 5 was analyzed using a Pearson correlation. Six hundred seventy-three questionnaires were captured; however, 594 were used in the analysis of data. There were 79 ineligible responses which included 32 incomplete surveys, 39 who were not full-time faculty members, and eight who were employed by their institution for less than 1 year. The level of significance used in the statistical analysis was .05. Findings indicated that faculty members' perceptions of the ethical climate in which they work has a statistically strong and significant relationship with their self-reported levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. For this study, the findings also indicated that there was a significant difference in the mean total

organizational commitment score for males and females. Females reported a higher level of organizational commitment than their male counterparts. There were no significant differences, however, between the self-reported levels of job satisfaction based on gender. Finally, the results also suggest that the relationship between the two dependent variables organizational commitment and job satisfaction is significantly and positively correlated.

Key Findings

The purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship exists between a faculty member's perception of his or her organization's ethical climate and the self-reported levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Specifically, this research assessed the perception of 594 full-time faculty members working at four regional universities across the United States. It is important to note that the findings of this study may not be generalizable to other populations due to two key constraints: 1) The return rate for this study is approximately 8.6%, and (2) the faculty respondents consisted of 80% tenured or tenure-track faculty. The following conclusions, however, were based upon the findings from the data of this study:

1. The mean total organizational commitment scores of full-time faculty members were significantly different among ethical climate types. Faculty members who perceive their organization to have a benevolent ethical climate reported higher total commitment scores than those who perceive the climate to be principled or egoistic. This finding is supported in previous research (Cullen et al., 2003; Victor & Cullen, 1988). Benevolent climates center on fostering friendship, team interest, and social responsibility amongst organizational members. This pertains most closely to the affective commitment or the type of organizational commitment that is derived from attachment to the goals and values of the organization, emotional linkage to other members of the organization, and

the strength of an individual's involvement with the organization. Faculty members who perceived their organization to have a principled ethical climate reported lower total organizational commitment scores than those in the benevolent group but higher total organizational commitment scores than those who perceived the climate to be egoistic. This is also supported by previous research findings (Cullen et al., 2003; Steers, 1977, Victor & Cullen, 1988). Principled ethical climate groups describe those workers who have a professional set of standards, laws, or codes associated with their trade. They also describe individuals who usually have an extensive educational background. Steers (1977) found that "more highly educated people . . . would be less committed to the organization and perhaps more committed to a profession or trade" (p.53). Therefore, it would not be inconceivable to find that professionals who perceive their ethical climate to be principled may in fact be more committed to their profession than they would be to the employing organization. Those participants who perceive their organization's ethical climate to be egoistic have the assumption that self-interest, company profit, and efficiency are the most prevalent values embodied by the organization. Previous research found that egoistic climates are negatively related to organizational commitment (Cullen et al., 2003; Victor & Cullen, 1988). The present study further supports those previous findings.

2. The mean total job satisfaction scores of full-time faculty members were significantly different between ethical climate types. Faculty members who perceived their organization to have a benevolent ethical climate reported higher total job satisfaction scores than those who perceived the climate to be principled or egoistic. This could be related to the fact that benevolent ethical climates foster a sense of friendship, teamwork,

and group cohesion. Faculty members who perceive their organization to have benevolent ethical climates may be more interconnected with other organizational members and, therefore, be more open to discussing and resolving issues with their coworkers as they arise. They may also find that the values exhibited in benevolent ethical climates are more closely aligned with their own personal values. Similarity of values could include organizational facets such as “financial rewards, working conditions, supervisory practices, company policies, co-workers, opportunities for advancement, security, and content of the job” (Glick, 1992, p.626). Faculty members who perceived their organization to have a principled ethical climate reported lower levels of job satisfaction than those participants in the benevolent ethical climate group but higher levels of total job satisfaction than those who perceived the climate to be egoistic. This could also be attributed to the definition of the principled ethical climate group or those individuals who associate more closely with their profession than their employing organization. The principled ethical climate group may be more satisfied in their career yet disagree in the way administrators in the institution of higher education has operationalized the profession. Egoistic climates are associated with many negative aspects of organizational culture including decreased job satisfaction. “When a sufficient number of faculty members become dissatisfied with their jobs it is likely that they will participate in increased criticism of their peers, students, the administration, and their own work” (Hutton & Jobe, 1985, p.323).

3. The difference in the mean total organizational commitment score of male and female participants was significant. Females tended to reported higher levels of organizational commitment than their male counterparts. One reason for this difference may pertain to

the autonomy over work schedules. Previous research has found that women who perceived their organization to offer flexible work hours reported higher levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction than their counterparts (Scandura & Lankau, 1997). Flexible work hours are deemed an important contributor to successful work and life balance for most women. The occupation of being a professor includes a significant amount of autonomy over work schedules; therefore, women may tend to value this autonomy more than their male counterparts leading to an increase in organizational commitment.

4. There was no significant difference in the total job satisfaction scores between genders. Males and females tended to reported similar levels of job satisfaction. Previous research showed that women usually report similar or higher levels of job satisfaction than their male counterparts (Hodson, 1989). There are two apparent contributors to gender differences in job satisfaction. First, women may use different comparison groups than male workers use, and, secondly, men may be more willing to verbalize dissatisfaction amongst their socialization groups (Hodson, 1989). For this research study the mean number of years that female faculty members have been employed in their current organization is 9.3 years, and the mean number of years that male respondents have been employed at their current organization is 12.8 years. While females are becoming more numerous in higher education, they still appear to hold a lower tenure and rank than their male counterparts. This could contribute to their similar levels of job satisfaction as well. Because female respondents may have not worked for the organization as long as their male counterparts, they may not have been exposed to longer durations of organizational

politics or disagreements regarding work related issues that could negatively impact their level of job satisfaction overtime.

5. The relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction is significant and positively correlated. Previous research (Gruneberg, 1979; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974) suggested that as faculty members' level of organizational commitment increases, so does their job satisfaction and vice versa. There are numerous previous research studies on the relationship between organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Some researchers claimed that organizational commitment may be a more global view of linkage between the employee and the organization but would include more specific attitudes such as job satisfaction (Porter et al., 1974). Several studies showed linkages between job satisfaction and organizational commitment as two independent constructs; however, researchers disagree on the causal ordering. Commitment as a precursor of satisfaction is linked to Bateman and Strasser (1984), while Marsh and Mannari (1977) and Williams and Hazer (1986) found satisfaction to be the precursor of commitment. Agreement between research studies mostly centers on and acknowledgement of a relationship between the two constructs. Similar to Porter et al. (1974) the present research also found a significant positive correlation between the two constructs.

Recommendations for Practice

Ethical scandals have plagued U.S. business practices in recent times and questions have been raised as to the impact leaders have on providing ethical guidance. Brown et al. (2005) defined ethical leadership as the demonstration of appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships. Maxwell (2005) described leadership simply as influence.

Therefore, in order to have influence with one's followers, a leader must be viewed as an attractive, credible, and legitimate role model (Maxwell, 2005).

Recommendations for Administrators in Institutions of Higher Education

Rosser, Johnsrud, and Heck (2003) found that educational leaders play a vital role in the growth of organizations, competing with other institutions, and meeting shareholders expectations. Most critically, however, it should not be overlooked as to the role these educational leaders play establishing the culture and climate, most specifically the ethical climate, at institutions of higher education. Decision making processes, creations of values, establishment of organizational norms, modes and methods of communication, perceptions of fairness, trust, honesty, are all significant contributors to perceived ethical climate that are in the control of the administrators.

The study of ethical leadership is built upon the foundation of social learning. Social learning proposes that leaders will influence the ethical behavior of others through modeling (Brown et al., 2005). It is the leader's responsibility to model the ethical behavior that he or she wants from followers. Wimbush and Shepard (1994) found that subordinates mimic supervisors' behavior because it is supervisors who hold the subordinates accountable for their actions.

The findings from the present research imply that when faculty members perceive their organization's ethical climate to be egoistic they will subsequently report lower levels of commitment and satisfaction. Lower levels of organizational commitment and satisfaction are linked to higher levels of absenteeism and turnover, increased withdrawal behaviors and negative attitudes, as well as lower levels of productivity and creativity (Glick, 1992; Hanisch & Hulin, 1991; Hutton & Jobe, 1985). When educational leaders identify the leadership behaviors that

impact organizational commitment and job satisfaction of employees, they also gain better insight into specific areas that may mitigate negative work outcomes.

If administrators want to boost the job satisfaction and commitment levels of their faculty members, it is imperative that educational leaders behave in manners that encourage an organizational climate of benevolence. Creating an open process of communication and shared governance is one matter that could increase the perception of a benevolent ethical climate. Administrators may find that by establishing an ethical climate based upon benevolent principles may in turn produce positive operational outcomes.

Recommendations for Faculty Members in Institutions of Higher Education

Establishment of an organization's ethical climate, however, is not limited to administrators. Peer-to-peer relationships also provide critical insight into workplace norms and the current organizational climate. A new research stream is starting to focus on this relationship. Whereas mentoring programs, professional networking, shared research interest and publications could be factors that contribute to a benevolent ethical climate, faculty on faculty bullying is gradually gaining researchers' attention. This new research stream could be a serious contributor to an egoistic ethical climate. Employees who work in egoistic climates perceive that self-interest is promoted and reinforced even at the expense of hurting other people. Organizations that promote self-interest within their social norms can experience higher levels of deviant workplace behaviors, lower forms of group cohesion, higher turnover intentions, and a reduction in the organizational commitment of their membership.

Morrison (2008) proposed that negative workplace relationships will impact the level of job satisfaction, turnover intentions, organizational commitment, and cohesion experienced by organizational members. Her findings concluded that "those [participants] with at least one

negative relationship at work were significantly less satisfied, reported less organizational commitment, were part of less cohesive workgroups and were significantly more likely to be planning to leave their job” (Morrison, 2008, p. 340). Furthermore, increased stress, eventually leading to employee burnout, was another predictable outcome of negative workplace relationships. The organizational impact of negative workplace relationships should not be underestimated as over 50% of the participants reported having at least one (Morrison, 2008). Research shows there is generally a consistent, moderate, negative correlation between turnover and job satisfaction (Glick, 1992). Increasing group cohesion within the department may be one factor to lower turnover rates among faculty members.

Recommendations for Future Research

Further research is needed in the study of ethical climate, organizational commitment and job satisfaction of full-time faculty members. Administrators were not provided the opportunity to rate their perceptions of the ethical climate at these institutions. As such, administrators’ perceptions might be different than those of the full-time faculty members. It would be useful if the research study was expanded to include administrative perceptions.

A longer period for data collection and reminder or follow-up emails could help to provide a larger response rate. The researcher gave the option to participants to leave questions unanswered in all sections. Preferences could have been set to require answers to all questions. That way if a respondent mistakenly skipped a question or section of questions the electronic survey would not allow them to proceed without full completion. This could have potentially saved 32 additional responses.

Additional research could also include a deeper analysis of the three organizational commitment types (affective, normative, and continuance) and their individual relationships to

job satisfaction and/or perceived ethical climate. Also, more analysis could be performed on the specific areas of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of faculty members. Does a lack of communication between administrators and faculty members have a more significant relationship to job satisfaction than perceived pay equity?

Conclusion

Faculty members are the front-line employees at any institution of higher education. The job tasks they perform everyday have a direct impact on the organization's ability to meet stakeholder expectations. Whether that stakeholder is the student, local municipalities, neighboring businesses, the federal government, or society at large, all successful endeavors will begin at the hands of the front-line faculty members.

Administrators are managers in the organizations of higher education. Therefore, the decisions they make directly impact the perception of the existing ethical climate. During the 1960s, an administrative decision was made in the Department of Sociology at The Ohio State University that forever changed the perception of not only the department's but the university's ethical climate.

Instead of basing organizational decisions on egoistic tendencies like the OSU case describes, administrators should work to build an ethical climate of benevolence focusing on teamwork, social responsibility, and concern for the greater good. According to this research those efforts may lead to more committed and satisfied employees. Administrators may also find that when their employees are more committed and satisfied operational objectives are easier to achieve due to higher productivity, increased creativity, lower turnover, and decreased deviant workplace behaviors. They may also find that organizational benefits that arise from fostering an ethical climate of benevolence may reach much further than their own department or college.

Ethical climate is one of the newest streams of organizational climate research. Ethics, however, have been studied from the time of the great philosophers. For centuries humankind has been inherently drawn to the notion of understanding ethical behavior. As more and more researchers begin to realize the important implications that ethical climate has on the organizational objectives, further research will continue to expand our intellectual horizons into uncharted academic territories.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Permission to use TCM Employee Commitment Survey

Permission to use the TCM Employee Commitment Survey was obtained by purchasing an Academic Survey License (Student Use) from Flintbox.com on October 13, 2011. The license included the Academic Users Guide (2004) which contained: terms of use, instructions for administering and interpreting results, the original survey questions (1990), the revised survey questions (1993).

APPENDIX B

Permission to use the Ethical Climate Questionnaire

Email received on 10/13/2011 @ 7:49 PM

Hello:

Please feel free to use the questionnaire.

You can get the ECQ in a Psy Reports article we did in 93...slightly updated from the ASQ version. You have our permission to use it. You can get most of my pubs on ethical climate including a recent meta analysis at: www.cb.wsu.edu/~cullenj/articles/article_index.htm

You might want to check out the following for more validation work: Stone, R. W., & Henry, J. W. (2003). Identifying and developing measures of information technology ethical work climates. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 46(4), 337-350.

Peterson, D. K. (2002). The relationship between unethical behavior and the dimensions of the ethical climate questionnaire. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 41(4), 313-326.

Good luck and let us know what you find.
John Cullen

Email sent on 10/13/2011 @ 3:28 PM

Ethical Climate Questionnaire - Request for Permission

Dr. Cullen,

I am a doctoral student at East Tennessee State University in Johnson City, TN, and I am currently working on my doctoral dissertation entitled *The Effect of Perceived Ethical Climate on the Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction of Full-time Faculty Members*.

I am writing to request permission to use the Ethical Climate Questionnaire. Please let me know what additional information is needed, and the cost that may be associated with using the scale.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Heather Moore - Doctoral Fellow

APPENDIX C

Permission to use the Job Diagnostic Survey

The Hackman and Oldham (1980) Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) is in public domain and does not require a specific release. According to Hackman and Oldham, “the JDS is not copyrighted and therefore may be used without the author’s permission” (p.275).

APPENDIX D

Email Invitation Sample to Potential Participants

Dear XXX Faculty Member,

I am currently working on my doctoral dissertation entitled *Ethical Climate, Organizational Commitment, and Job Satisfaction of Full-Time Faculty Members*.

I am requesting your participation in an electronic survey that is estimated to take no longer than 5-10 minutes. Your participation is completely voluntary, and your submission will remain anonymous.

Please note, this research project has been reviewed and approved by the XXX Institutional Review Board. You may contact the XXX IRB with any questions regarding your rights as a research subject.

I greatly appreciate your assistance with furthering my research study. Please click on the URL link below in order to start the survey:

(Insert URL Address here)

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Heather Moore, Doctoral Candidate
East Tennessee State University

APPENDIX E

Opening Introduction to Survey

Dear XXX Faculty Member:

Thank you for taking the time to participate in my doctoral dissertation research entitled *Ethical Climate Organizational Commitment, and Job Satisfaction of Full-Time Faculty Members*.

To participate in this study, you must be currently employed as a *full-time faculty member* at The University of XXX.

This survey is designed to take 5-10 minutes to complete.

Participation in this study is entirely voluntary, and your submission will remain anonymous. The data will be reported in aggregate form. No individuals or institutions will be identified during this study.

There will be no penalty to faculty members who choose not to participate, and you may discontinue participation at anytime by exiting the survey. However, your response will provide valuable information for my study.

Note that the completion of the electronic survey will be considered your consent for participation in this study.

This research study has been reviewed and approved by the XXX and ETSU Institutional Review Boards. You may contact either the XXX IRB or the ETSU IRB with questions regarding this survey or regarding your rights as a participant. If you have any questions or concerns about the research and want to talk to someone independent of the research team, you may call an ETSU IRB Coordinator at (423) 439-6002 or a XXX IRB Coordinator at irb@XXX.edu. Thank you in advance for your response.

Respectfully,

Heather Moore, Doctoral Candidate
East Tennessee State University
Department of Educational Leadership & Policy Analysis
Campus Box 70550
Johnson City, Tennessee
(423) 439-4430

APPENDIX F

TCM Employee Commitment Survey

Instructions: Listed below is a series of statements that represent feelings that individuals might have about the organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about the particular organization for which you are now working, please indicate the degree of your agreement with each statement from 1 to 7 with the following scale:

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = undecided, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, 7 strongly agree

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.							
2	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.							
3	I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organization.							
4	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer.							
5	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.							
6	I do not feel a sense of belonging to my organization.							
7	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to.							
8	I owe a great deal to my organization.							
9	One of the few negatives consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.							
10	I would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it.							
11	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now.							
12	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my organization.							

APPENDIX G

Job Satisfaction Survey

Instructions: Consider your overall level of satisfaction with your job. Please indicate the degree of your agreement with each of the following statements from 1 to 7 with the following scale:

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = undecided, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, 7 strongly agree

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Generally speaking I am very satisfied with this job.							
2	The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me.							
3	I frequently think of quitting this job.							

Instructions: Please rate your *level of satisfaction* with the following aspects of your job using a scale from 1 to 7 where:

1 = extremely dissatisfied, 2 = dissatisfied, 3 = slightly dissatisfied, 4 = neutral, 5 = slightly satisfied, 6 = satisfied, 7 = extremely satisfied

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	The amount of job security I have.							
2	The amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.							
3	The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.							
4	The people I talk to and work with on my job.							
5	The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my administration.							
6	The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job.							
7	The fairness of our tenure and promotion process.							
8	The amount of support and guidance I received from my administration.							
9	The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organization.							
10	The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in my job.							
11	The effectiveness of our shared governance process (i.e. between faculty and administration).							

APPENDIX H

Revised Ethical Climate Questionnaire

Instructions: Consider the culture of the organization for which you are currently working. Please indicate the degree of your agreement with each of the following statements from 1 to 7 with the following scale:

1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = slightly disagree, 4 = undecided, 5 = slightly agree, 6 = agree, 7 strongly agree

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	What is best for everyone in the institution is the major consideration here.							
2	In this institution, people protect their own interests above all else.							
3	In this institution, the ethical code of their profession is the major consideration.							
4	The major responsibility of people in this institution is to control costs.							
5	In this institution, people are expected to strictly follow professional standards.							
6	In this institution, the greatest good for all affected by their decision is primarily sought.							
7	In this institution, people are guided by their own ethics.							
8	In this institution, a respect for the rights of others is a primary concern.							
9	In this institution, people are mostly out for themselves.							
10	It is important to follow the institution's rules and procedures here.							
11	People in this institution are expected to seek just and fair resolutions in their decision.							
12	People here are concerned with the institution's interests, to the exclusion of all else.							

APPENDIX I

Demographic Questionnaire

1. **What is your current employment status:**
 - a. **Full-time**
 - b. **Part-time/Adjunct**
 - c. **Other – Please specify**
2. **What is your current faculty position:**
 - a. **Tenured**
 - b. **Tenure Track (non-tenured)**
 - c. **Non-tenure track or contract based**
 - d. **Other – Please specify**
3. **How many years have you worked as a faculty member *at your present institution***
 - a. **Fill in the Blank**
4. **How many *total years* have you worked as a faculty member throughout your career?**
 - a. **Fill in the blank**
5. **What is your gender?**
 - a. **Male**
 - b. **Female**

VITA

HEATHER L. MOORE

Education: Ed.D. Educational Leadership, East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, Tennessee, 2012
M.B.A. Finance, The University of North Texas, Denton, Texas 1999
B.B.A. Accounting, Texas Christian University, Fort Worth, Texas 1997
Grapevine High School, Grapevine, Texas, 1994

Professional Experience:

Doctoral Fellow, East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, Tennessee, 2008-2012

Adjunct Professor, East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, Tennessee, 2008-2009

Area Manager, Verizon, Dallas, Texas, 2005-2007

Local Manager, Verizon, Lewisville, Texas, 2003-2005

Specialist, Verizon, Irving, Texas, 1999-2003

Intern, Verizon, 1998-1999

Auditing Internship, Arthur Andersen, 1997-1998

Publications:

Moore, T.W., & Moore, H.L. (2012). The Effect of Spirituality on the Psychological Contract: Towards The Relational. *Journal of Organizational Psychology*. (Accepted for publication but not in print at time of press).

Moore, H. L., Lampley, J.H., & Moore, T.W. (2010). Perceived Social Support Among College Graduate Students. *Enrollment Management Journal*, 4, 81-104.

Conference Presentations:

Moore, H. L., Lampley, J. H., & Good, D. W. (2011). Internet Access and On-line Delivery. *Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association*, Oxford, Mississippi.

Moore, T. W., & Moore, H. L. (2011). The Effect of Spirituality on the Psychological Contract: Towards The Relational. *Annual Meeting of the Southwest Academy of Management*, Houston, Texas.

Lampley, J. H., Good, D. W., and Moore, H. L. (2010). Climate and Culture on Christian College Campuses. *Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association*, Mobile, Alabama.

Blazer, H. C., Lampley, J. H., Good, D. W. & Moore, H. L. (2010). Familial Influences on Second- and Third-Generation Teachers in an East Tennessee School District. *Annual Meeting of the Ethnographic and Qualitative Research Conference*, Cedarville, Ohio.

Moore, H. L., Lampley, J. H., & Moore, T. W. (2009). Perceived Social Support Among College Graduate Students. *Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association*, Baton Rouge, Louisiana.

Moore, H. L., Speer, L. A., & Lampley, J. H. (2008). Survey of Ed.D. Graduates of the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis (1974 – 2007) - - East Tennessee State University. *Annual Meeting of the Mid-South Educational Research Association*, Knoxville, Tennessee.

Honors & Awards:

Research in Progress Award – Doctoral Dissertation – Mid-South Educational Research Association - 2011

Research in Progress Award – Climate and Culture on Christian College Campuses – Mid-South Educational Research Association - 2010

Kappa Delta Pi – Education Honor Society - 2009

Verizon Excellence Award Winner for the Buried Drop Repair vs. Replace Team – 2004

Verizon Excellence Award Finalist for the FiOS Operations Voice/Data Team – 2005

Verizon Excellence Award Finalist for the FiOS Operations Video Team – 2006

BESST candidate (Junior Executive Program) for the Texas Region – 2006

Developmental Leadership Award for the Texas Region – 2005

Beta Gamma Sigma – Business Honor Society