

**Pace University**

**Aspects of Organizational Culture and the Impact on  
Affective Commitment, Absenteeism, and Turnover:  
A Study of the United States Poultry Industry**

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# **Abstract**

Modern-day manufacturing industries (e.g., the poultry industry as the context of this study) has fully implemented the earliest rounds of Taylorization (scientific) and Gilbrethian (time-motion) methods to become a very detailed oriented algorithmic data-driven industry. In fact, current manufacturers are exemplars of revamped ergonomic work environments and improved work conditions. Still, what is compelling, despite having great market positioning, improved analytics, and better work environments, is that current manufacturers suffer from heightened labor disruptions, systematically driven by employee perceptions of informal norms that exist within organizational cultures. It is puzzling that current literature does not effectively illustrate how employee perceptions of informal norms influence labor disruptions such as absenteeism, affective commitment, and turnover. Therefore, I argue that informal organizational norms are ubiquitous and that it influences affective and behavioral outcomes. Informal organizational norms, despite being unofficial customs, group beliefs, and casual behaviors that generally conform to interpersonal relationships they are sometimes in direct conflict with corporate culture and workplace control policies. This is interesting because organizations equip leaders with administrative controls to influence labor disruptions; however, on the other hand, leaders sometimes experience conflicting events wherein control policies are not used to ameliorate disruptions in labor. Therefore, this study examines the disproportionate levels of labor disruptions within critical US manufacturing industries by investigating the influence of informal norms, workplace culture, control polices, and social relationships that determines the level of affective commitment which employees align.

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## **A Prefatory Note on the Specific Industry Context**

Arguably, the modern-day poultry industry has fully implemented the earliest rounds of Taylorization and Gilbrethian means to become an algorithmic data-driven industry. As a consequence, strategic business practices and scientific methodologies have enabled the poultry industry to thrive beyond previous consumer protein positions (National Chicken Council 2019; Owens et al. 2010; US Poultry and Egg Association 2017; US Poultry Council 2018). Still, despite tremendous success, there are many poultry processors that practice intrinsically archaic principles of organizational culture that negatively impact affective commitment, absenteeism, and turnover (Alvesson 2002; Becker 1960, Cohen 2003; Hemp 2004; Mercer 2010; Meyer, et al. 2002).

This chapter contains detailed background information concerning the poultry processing industry. This comprehensive poultry manufacturing overview will provide information on poultry processing jobs, plant employees, and plant working conditions. This examination provides a sample model to connect the literature review, research objectives, scope of the study, research questions, and conceptual framework of this study, while exploring the dynamics of organizational culture, informal norms, and control policies. These predictor variables are then used to illustrate their influence on affective and behavioral outcomes.

# Poultry Industry

Poultry in the United States is one of the most prosperous forms of agriculture (Green & Barham 2002). The spectacular success of the US poultry industry over the last 50 years can be contributed to reorganizational structuring, progressive technologies (US Poultry and Egg Association 2017), and continued responsiveness to consumer demands (Food and Agriculture Organization Biannual Report on Global Food Markets 2014). As a matter of fact, poultry products are in great demand because they are highly nutritious, contain features of taste utility (US Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service 2000), and are very affordable to a wide range of consumers (Hall 1995). To this point, Harmse et al. (2016) state that “globally, the poultry sector continues to grow in terms of production, as well as number of employers, due to the increasing human population, an increased demand for animal protein, its healthy label, affordability, greater consumer purchasing power, product variation and urbanization.” As a result of these dynamics, researchers consider poultry processing highly invincible to economic conditions (Striffler 2002). Table 1 shows key facts about the poultry industry.

[Insert Table 1 about here]

In terms of food processing, poultry is a very complex industry that consists of biology, chemistry, engineering, marketing, and economics (Owens et al. 2010). However, even though poultry processing is complex, the primary goals remain simple and continuous: (1) production of human food; (2) waste management; (3) quality and food safety; (4) nonfood usages; and (5) pet or livestock feed (Owens et al. 2010). According to the Food and Agriculture Organization’s Biannual Report on Global Food Markets (2014), the best way to understand poultry processing is to examine the industry’s very efficient vertical integration structure. Here, vertical integration is

the concept of a hierarchy of needs ladder that involves segments relying on the segment below it to supply it with raw materials, while the segment itself must produce enough raw materials for the segment above it (Connor 1997). These raw material supply chain steps are considered functions of dependency (Connor 1997). According to the National Chicken Council (2018), vertical integration started in the 1940s to attain better control over materials from start to finish by coordinating production at each phase, thus resulting in cost reduction and better control over quality. Under those circumstances, vertical integration catapulted the poultry processing industry into the most vertically integrated form of food processing in the United States (US Poultry Council 2018). This is a dramatic change from early periods of poultry processing, where each stage of production was independently operated and owned (Connor 1997).

It is also noteworthy that during the 1960s, the poultry industry began to move from predominately urban areas to more rural communities. This migration resulted in a major change in the demographics of the poultry workforce (US Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service 2000). According to Stull (1995), corporate executives enjoyed this migration period because it attracted non-unionized workers, lower wage workers, cheaper land, and lower water costs. Bjerklie (1995) argues that, during this period, poultry migration was encouraged because rural communities were looking for economic development. Rodengen (2000) suggested that poultry migration offered corporations state and local tax breaks, and that in 1962, meat executives Currier Holman and Andy Anderson stated, “The reduction in taxes and labor costs were a significant aspect of the move, relocation helped alter the wage structure and the new workers were accustomed to low wages and to a country style work environment.” That being the case, Whittaker (2005) argues that the advantages of low wages, affordable land, non-unionization, water cost savings, and tax incentives propelled the poultry industry past being just a distinct sub-segment in

the meat industry, so much so that the poultry industry had transformed into a consumer-preferred form of protein. To this point in 2004, the National Chicken Council reported that the consumption of poultry in the US grew from 28 pounds per person in 1960 to 93.8 pounds per person in 2018. The report also indicated that, during this time period, the consumption of red meat per person dropped from 133 pounds in 1960 to 109.5 pounds in 2018. Table 2 shows the economics of the US Poultry industry.

[Insert Table 2 about here]

According to WATT Global Media (2015), over the past 10 years, the US poultry industry has experienced tremendous growth, and industry experts believe this increase in the protein market is attributed to its quick responsiveness to consumer needs. One of the most innovative responses to consumer market demands was further processing (Grey 1995). In the poultry industry, further processing is the retrieval, formulation, preserving, handling, and product development of poultry products (Connor 1997). Product development of further processing of poultry includes chicken nuggets, chicken strips, chicken filets, chicken bacon and sausages, frozen chicken, processed chicken, cooked or ready to eat chicken, split or disjointed chicken wings, etc. (Horowitz 2002). NNC's Broiler Industry Marketing Survey Biennial Report (1970) found that retail grocery stores represented 75% of sales in the US poultry industry, whereas fast food and food service sales in the 1970s contributed to only 25% of sales. In contrast, under the same survey in 1990, retail grocery store sales decreased to 59%, compared a 41% increase in fast food and food service. By 2007, poultry retail grocery store sales declined to 54% and that of fast food and food services reached 46%.

In order to sustain retail demand and supply, there was a growth in poultry growers' head count in the field (Encyclopedia of American Industries 2004; National Chicken Council 2018; US Poultry and Egg Association 2018; US Poultry Council 2018). The term "head count" refers to the number of birds placed on farms that are developed and harvested into specific sizes by live weight for plant processing (Owens et al. 2010). The term "live weight" in the poultry industry refers to estimated weights of broilers during the final stages of development at grow-out farms (Owens et al. 2010). This is also the estimated weight of broilers before shrinkage, the lost weight of the birds during the time period between feed withdrawal and slaughter, and plant processing (Owens et al. 2010). In order to compete with consumer demands, not only head count but live weight must also correlate with market events (US Department of Agriculture, Economic Research Service 2000). The head count unique specifications and live weight pounds are analyzed according to consumer demands and market conditions to determine average weight and value of production (Connor 1997; Trice & Beyer 1993). This is important because size and production capabilities vary from plant to plant, bird breed, bird size, and bird uniformity (Bussel 2003). In terms of uniformity, breeding and genetic selection play a major role in determining flock consistency at grow-out farms (Hall 1995). Therefore, each plant has unique operational capabilities that fit into specific sales mix variations (Owens et al. 2010). Figure 1 shows the number of birds that are processed by State.

[Insert Figure 1 about here]

To better illustrate poultry grow-out demands and market supply, several figures are listed below, which represent regions where empirical data and surveys were issued to plants workers for data collection in this research. A closer look at the figures indicates that the state of Georgia ranks first with 1,313,500,000 head and 8,168,400,000 live weight birds, North Carolina ranks

third with 873,600,000 head (large weighted birds) and 6,901,400,000 live weight birds, and Alabama ranks fourth with 1,123,700,000 head and 6,801,400,000 live weight birds. South Carolina ranks ninth with 237,800,000 head and 1,807,300,000 live weight birds, while Florida ranks just outside the top 10 at 17th place with 65,400,000 head and 385,900,000 live weight birds. Figure 2 shows the number of live pounds harvested at grow-out farms

[Insert Figure 2 about here]

According to the US Poultry and Egg Association (2018), the average broiler weight for Georgia was 6.0 lb. and the average production value was \$4,566,136,000. The average broiler weight for Alabama was 5.5 lb. and average production value was \$3,454,844,000, while the average broiler weight for North Carolina was 8.0 lb. and average production value was \$3,857,883,000. The average broiler weights for South Carolina and Florida were 7.6 lb. and 5.5 lb. while the production values were \$1,010,282,000 and \$215,718,000, respectively. As seen in Figure 3, the median value for the broiler weight of the birds is 6 lb. (GA), and the mean broiler size is 6.52 lb.. The range of the broiler size was 5.5 lb. (FL), 5.5 lb. (AL), 6.0 lb. (GA), 7.6 lb. (SC), and 8.0 lb. (NC). The mode sample of the broiler weight is 6.26 lb.

[Insert Figure 3 about here]

## **Characterization of Labor and Jobs**

The modern vertically-integrated poultry industry (Rodengen 2000) developed in the rural South (Green & Barham 2002; Horowitz 2002; Whittaker 2005). In terms of labor, the uniqueness of the poultry industry migrating to southern states emerged from the need for union-free work environments (Craypo & Nissen 1993; Corey 1950) and lower wage-earning employees (Encyclopedia of American Industries 2004). Not only was a union-free environment critical and

the opportunity to recruit low wage-earning labor (Griffith 1993) a prevailing strategic advantage of repositioning to the southern regions (Griffith 1995), but some studies also suggest that corporations migrated because of “right-to-work laws,” which systematically enabled “low wage strategies” (Gouveia & Stull 2001) that blindly led generations of families on the arduous “chicken trails” (Katz 1996) without providing resources for them to acquire marketable skills outside of the poultry industry (Griffith 1995).

According to the National Chicken Council (2002), US poultry production workers comprise of more than 355,000 employees. These workers are grouped into two main categories: (1) grow-out farmers and (2) plant workers (Hall 1995; Striffler 2002). Grow-out farmers are typically contract workers that ensure bird growth and health (Bussel 2003; Griffith 1995). Plant workers are comprised of two-tier labor systems: (1) core workers and (2) supplemental workers (Bussel 2003; Connor 1997; Hall 1995). Core workers are characterized as trained, stable, long-term, hourly employees that are from the rural town where the plant is located (Griffith 1995; Griffith 1999). Supplemental workers are described as a workforce that is unskilled, short term, and has low expectations of long-term plant careers, and includes those individuals that have very little desire to live in rural areas where poultry plants are located (Green & Barham 2002; Hefferman 1984; Katz 1996).

During the 1990s, the poultry industry experienced tremendous growth rates of 60% (Horowitz 2002). The need for grow-out uniformity, supply and demand, and the lack of labor propelled the poultry industry into automation (Hall 1995) of feeding and lighting schedules on the farm, breed management, incubation, rearing, nutritional regimes, and bird-sized uniformity. But even with automation, the poultry industry heavily relies on new labor acquisitions (Broadway



2000). In contrast to other manufacturing industries, the focus on poultry production leans towards job characteristics as compared to automation and technology (Harmse et al. 2016).

Poultry processing job characteristics can be described as strenuous, stressful, arduous, laborious, and unpleasant (Yeoman 1989). Plant workers hold specific jobs that are performed on a production line. In some areas of the plant (Live Hang and Evisceration), the lights are dim in order to soothe the birds before slaughter (Striffler 2002). Live hangers (male dominated) place birds from cages upside down on moving shackles as they enter the kill area, and poultry slaughter is very humane and is guarded under very strict federal regulations (Striffler 2002). Then, the birds travel through machines so that the feathers, blood, and eyes (evisceration) can be removed under USDA observation and control (Striffler 2002). According to Griffith (1995), “plant workers and USDA inspectors further eviscerate and inspect the birds. As the birds leave the eviscerators and inspectors, they are routed to stations where qualified control personnel check them for imperfections and send the least bruised birds to a station that weighs, packs, and prices whole birds. Imperfect birds then enter the further processing sections of the plants. Some plants perform very few further processing cuts, while other perform an entire range of deboned and fully cooked products.”

Bussell (2003) describes poultry jobs as assigned positions that are based on seniority, with a labor pool of talent that resembles a poorly maintained recycling bin that is in need of constant rotation. Stull and Broadway (1995) state that second processing is one of the highest-ranking jobs in the poultry industry for turnover. Second processing occurs once broilers are chilled to required temperatures (via air chilling or chiller immersion) and are deboned or packaged into various parts (Owens et al. 2010). Second processing jobs include rehangng whole carcasses as they exit the chillers on shackles, cutting parts into value-added pieces, deboning meat, portioning,

and packing (Harmse et al. 2016). Value-added deboning, portioning, and packing are very labor intensive because various sale mixes focus on poultry product that are configured or prepared as “ready to use” for consumers (Owens et al. 2010). The causation for high turnover rates in second processing is ergonomics and physical conditions (Juul et al. 2002). Bad ergonomic conditions are developed in second processing through sudden exertion or prolonged exposure to physical factors such as repetition, force, vibration, or awkward postures (Juul et al. 2002; Occupational Safety & Health Administration Ergonomics 1999). These movements commonly lead to muscle disorders, nerve pain, tendon problems, joint and cartilage pain, upper and lower limb discomfort, and neck and lower back pains (National Institute for Occupational Safety and Health of Musculoskeletal Disorders 2016). According to Johannes et al. (2016), these conditions are heightened in second processing as compared to other areas of poultry processing.

Poultry processing can also be characterized by gender and ethnicity (Herbst & Alma 1932; Hall 1995). With regard to gender, women mainly occupy roles in areas such as deboning, sorting, quality checks, and evisceration (Bussel 2003), while men mostly dominant roles such as hangers, stackers, and loaders (Griffith 1993). According to Striffler (2002), “most of those who work directly on the line are women, often older women in their 40s and 50s. The fact that broiler disassembly workers are women is neither coincidence not insignificant in a plant where about two thirds of the workers are male. On line jobs are the worst in the plant. Women are concentrated in on line jobs because they are effectively excluded from all jobs that involve heavy lifting or the operation of machinery.”

In terms of ethnicity, Bussel (2003) states that “Latinos seem to dominate the poultry workforce, followed by African Americans. White or European origin hold most of the management roles. Over the last decade, African Americans employed in processing plants began

to depart for better paying, less arduous jobs in the local tourism and resort industry. They have been replaced by Latinos (mostly Mexicans and Guatemalans), Haitians, and to a lesser degree, workers of Asian descent.” In most laborious intensive roles in US poultry plants; natural-born citizens are few, while Latinos account for about three-quarters of plant labor and Southeast Asians and Marshallese accounting for a large percentage of the remaining employees (Striffler 2002). Research has revealed that within the Latino community, networks of family and friends are critical to the ongoing supply of poultry plant labor (Brussel 2003). Green and Barham (2002) state that “over the past 20 years there has been an increasing presence of immigrant workers in manufacturing jobs that offer greater opportunities for year-round work. The food processing industry offers a combination of agricultural related work and the potential for year-round employment allowing laborers to stay in areas for longer periods of time and making it more likely that they will bring their families with them.” According to Griffith (1995), “Latino immigrants and, in some cases, undocumented labor from a network of family and friends represents three-quarters of the poultry workforce. A study was completed in Georgia (14 plants) and North Carolina (17 plants). The study found that 50 percent of the plants in Georgia paid bonuses to workers who recruited new laborers, and 30 percent of plants in North Carolina paid the same recruiting fee. Most of the recruiting fees were paid in cash payouts and this form of recruitment was necessary in poultry because it rely heavily on migrant labor and plants are located in remote areas where local labor sometimes are insufficient and turnover rates are very high so new workers (local, migrant, or immigrants) are always needed”. Brussel (2003) further argues that “it is estimated that 40 to 60 percent of the workers in poultry processing plants are undocumented. The industry clearly values immigrant workers, especially Latinos, both for their work ethic and the perception that they are easier to manage and control than native-born workers.”

## **Working Conditions**

Working conditions in the poultry industry, similar to other meat industries, vary from plant to plant and from one location to another (Griffith 2003). According to Hall (1995), in the past and for the most part, poultry plants working conditions were fairly grim and workers spent their entire shift working in damp, cold, wet areas, covered with heavy coatings of chicken parts. Workers typically performed their duties repeatedly, making the same motion over and over again, between 10,000 to 30,000 times a day (Hall 1995). Stull and Broadway (2004) found that workers only receive 30-minute lunch breaks and bathroom breaks are discouraged if production will be impacted. Griffith (1995) argues that “the probability of incurring an injury in a meatpacking plant was three times higher than for manufacturing workers as a whole. A principal cause of excessive injury is the speed of the disassembly line along which carcasses are processed. Workers make thousands of repetitive motions each day, leading to cumulative trauma disorders, the most common being carpal tunnel syndrome...Most workers are uninsured until they have worked for the plant for several months. Thereafter they are eligible for the companies’ health insurance, but many cannot afford the premiums and turn to voluntary organizations for health care. This situation is exacerbated by high rates of turnover, which some plants can approach 100% a year. Workers injured on the job before coming eligible for health insurance are frequently unable to pay for their own healthcare and resort to governmental and nongovernmental agencies for care.” Even though these conditions may have previously existed, it should be noted that the current US poultry industry has placed heavy emphasis on improving ergonomics and work conditions (Harmse et al. 2016; Juul et al. 2002).

## Chapter 1

### Introduction

*“Organizations are collectives whose participants are pursuing multiple interests, both disparate and common, but who recognize the value of perpetuating the organization as an important resource”* (Scott 2003).

According to recent research, there is a strong correlation between organizational culture, labor disruption (Ali et al. 2018), and organizational cost (Mercer 2010). This is important because the manufacturing sector and production industries are characterized by disproportionate levels of absenteeism, turnover (Zheng 2010), and low levels of affective commitment (Hemp 2004; Meyer et al. 2002; Reichers 1985; Weiss & Rupp 2011; Zahra et al. 2019). Research defines affective commitment as the employee bond with the organization, captured by acceptance of organizational goals, values, and a strong desire to associate with the organization (Porter et al. 1974). Affective commitment not only identifies the degree to which employees are attached and involved (Allen & Myer 1990; Morrow 1993; Mowday et al. 1982), but it also defines the allegiance and emotional attachment someone has about his or her job that arise from the job’s characteristics resulting from an appraisal that is facilitated through one’s value of successful job duties (Beal et al. 2005; Locke 1976; Weiss & Beal 2005), resulting in affective enjoyment towards the organization (Meyer & Allen 1984).

From the theoretical view of affective events theory, commitment within organizational culture is what emphasizes the employee bond with the organization, captured by such things as acceptance of goals, values, and strong desires to associate with the organization (Porter, Steers,

Mowday, & Boulin 1974). Commitment on the job increases when employee dedication aligns with workplace emotions such as devotion, loyalty, and satisfaction that derive from attitudinal affective outcomes (Cropanzano et al. 2017; Schein 1985; Weiss & Cropanzano 1996). The influences of attitudinal affective outcomes such as commitment often modulate what is defined as behavioral outcomes (Hackett & Guion 1985; Sague 1998; Sneed & Kresse 1989; Weiss & Rupp 2011). Behavioral outcomes are those reactionary operant variables that may prohibit organizations from being profitable (Mercer 2010; Weiss 2002). Commonly, the taxonomy of workplace behavioral outcome variables are succinctly referred to as absenteeism, commitment, and turnover (Calbeck et al. 1979; Duke & Sneed 1989; Kresse 1989; Locke 1969; Myrtle 1978).

Prodigious interference from absenteeism and turnover (Koch & Steers 1978; Porter et al. 1974; Simon 2007; Yang & Dimasio 2007) has historically established ample opportunities for organizations to create attendance policies and other types of organizational control systems (Flamholtz & Lacey 1981). Control systems that are similar to attendance policies (Flamholtz et al. 1985) are used quite often by leaders within organizations to invoke unilateral conformance towards basic achievements of corporate cultures and goals (Tannenbaum 1969). Additionally, Baum and Youngblood (1975) extend this point of view by stating that the core function of organizational control processes is the very fundamental activity of modern organizations (Mercer 2010). As a result, the slice of organizational culture this study examines is that of labor disruption influences that impact affective and behavioral outcomes (Cropanzano et al. 2017).

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

According to March and Simon (1958), “the organization and social environment in which the decision maker finds himself determines what consequences he will anticipate, what he will

not; what alternatives he will consider, what ones he will ignore. In the theory of organization these variables cannot be treated as unexplained independent factors, but must themselves be determined and predicted by the theory.” A clear argument that stems from this perspective is opened into organizational culture mechanisms and the social environment in which leaders find themselves impacting affective and behavior outcomes. As a matter of fact, it has been theorized that leaders affect how their followers feel; so, when leaders feel energized, their followers feel energized (George 2000). Conger and Kanungo (1998) suggest that when leaders are distressed and hostile, their followers are more likely to respond negatively. Fitness (2000) argues that what angered workers is completely dependent on organizational leadership and position. Staw and Barsade (2004) conceived the notion that follower’s performance is influenced by the positive and negative effects of leaders. Finally, Warrick (2017) proposed that employees take on behaviors (good or bad) that stem from the affective influences of their leaders.

Organizations not only use affective leadership to negate workplace disruptions, but also to equip leaders with legitimate authority and power (Flamholtz et al. 1985; Mercer 2010). Legitimate power is used to enforce job descriptions, create standard operating procedures, create expectations (Zahra et al. 2019), influence employee behaviors (Kevin 2004; Lund 2003; Watson 2005), and improve workplace commitment (Mercer 2010; Smith et al. 2002). Legitimate control is also used as a control agent (Luthans & Peterson 2002) to change or improve measurable workplace outcomes (Beal et al. 2005; Yang & Dimasio 2007; Zheng 2010), but surprisingly, even though US critical manufacturing industries are equipped with well-designed control policies, high levels of labor interruptions exist. This is puzzling because control policies (Kirsch 1996) are determined by formal organizational structure (Blau & Scott 1962; Ensminger 1997; Raider & Krackhardt 2002), and formal organizational structure is one of the four dimensions of

organizational culture (Schwartz & Davis 1981), and organizational culture conformance and alignment are critical in establishing formal norms (Yukl & Van Fleet 1992).

But even with established formal norms, labor disruptions in critical manufacturing industries have increased (Hemp 2004). While scholars have previously explained the dynamics of formal norms (Blau & Scott 1962; Tichy 1973; Tichy & Fombrun 1979; Tichy et al. 1979), but there seems to be a gap in literature that explains how employee are influenced by informal norms. Informal norms, for the purpose of this study, are the shared interactions between people that are considered standards, but that are not control by formal structures or written policies or rules (Nee 1998). Barnard (1968), argues that human beings are purposeful individuals with aspirations to improve their situation and people have needs or goals. The desire to fulfill needs and achieve goals expands individuals' range of choices to include cooperation and help from others (Fry & Raadschelders 2008). This system of cooperation and goals sometimes forges informal practices of socialization, learning, and common understandings (Bell 1979) that are not always aligned with formal organizational objectives (Albrecht & Goldman 1985). For example, organizations may have a written policy for employees to arrive at work fifteen minutes early (6:45 am) for the start of their 7 a.m. shift, but it may be consistent informal practice for employees to arrive at 7 a.m. This continued noncompliance of a formal policy such as expected start time can create a practice of informal norms (Mahoney 2002) that can influence affective and behavioral outcomes.

Therefore, I argue that research must go beyond examining formal practices in organizations and that studies should expand on informal norms and the influence this moderating variable has on affective and behavioral outcomes (Horak et al. 2020).



## 1.3 Research Questions

Organizational culture, informal norms, and control policies are well examined separately; however, within critical manufacturing companies, there seems to be very little literature that investigates their collective influences on affective and behavioral outcomes (Ali et al. 2018; Zahra et al. 2019). So, the primary purpose of this research is to examine the correlation between organizational culture (Cameron & Quinn 2006; Miron et al. 2004), informal norms (Brief & Weiss 2002; Brown 2005), control systems (Baldauf et al. 2005), and the resulting influence they have on absenteeism, affective commitment and turnover (Mathieu & Zajac 1990; Gautam et al. 2005).

Intriguing enough, despite having antecedents deeply rooted in autonomous literature, previous research does not address why informal norms prohibit leaders from enforcing policies that are intended to curb negative responses from affective and behavioral outcomes. Becker (1964) noted that people are very important resources and that properly managing human capital can result in increased knowledge, refined habits, better workplace satisfaction and improved performance, refined creativity, enhanced abilities, and ameliorated skills that in turn can improve organizational performances. This statement concerning organizational culture and human capital is the underpinnings for this study's rationale. So, the first inquiry of this examination explores why certain informal norms (Smith et al. 2002) impact leaders' ability to enforce control policies. Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) state that a match between leadership styles and organizational culture norms is viewed as a critical condition for the successful achievement of organizational goals. Burns (1978) states that leadership is based on managing subordinates through the settings of specific goals and objectives, followed by the utilization of rewards or punishments to encourage and motivate employees. Flamholtz et al. (1985) argue that control policies are the premise of

organizational controls systems, and that these systems must be used in an attempt to gain administrative command and influence over employee behaviors (Flamholtz 1979; Otley 1980; Sheridan 1992).

Worker normative behaviors form a major part of management theory, and its uniqueness refers both to formal and informal relationships between organizational norms (Brecht 1957). Typical workplace activities of formal norms are established in hierarchy, rules, and organizational charts, whereas informal norms include activities that are not necessarily governed by rules and standard procedures (Burns & Obel 2004). Bass (1997) states that organizations are fixed operations with tasks that are performed in a specific manner each time, and that organizations such as manufacturing companies benefit from the correct application of transactional leadership. Informal norms are habitual and ordinary within manufacturing industries (Green & Barham 2002), more so compared to other industries because generations of manufacturing workers typically live-in rural areas, lack marketable skills, and are often raised in the same town where the industry is located (Alvesson 2002; Griffith 1995; Striffler 2002). These adjacent relationships create informal norms that are not defined by organizational charts or organizational positions of power, but rather by Kanter's theory of informal power (Kanter 1993; Wagner 2010).

Kanter's theory identifies the importance of building relationships and alliances through influence with peers and colleagues (Wagner 2010). Organizations with cultures that align with creating environments that foster substantial investment (Denison 1990) in ways to improve beliefs, myths, norms, policies, practices, and treatment (Baker 1980) yield chances for organizational workplace profitability (Cameron & Freeman 1991). However, this informal way of cultivating corporate culture through control policies can create affective events that influence

behavioral outcomes. As such, to a great extent, the foundation of this study will attempt to answer the following research question:

*Are informal organizational norms consistent with control policies that are intended to ameliorate affective and behavioral outcomes?*

## Chapter 2

# Literature Review and Hypotheses

The synthesis of this section connects key sources of scholarship that associates organizational culture, informal norms, and control policies, as independent variables. The central thesis of this review utilizes informal organizational norms as affective influencers that control workplace commitment. The affective result of how committed employees are in the workplace determines behavioral outcome variables such as absenteeism and turnover. As a starting point, this literature review first argues that employee perception of organizational culture adaptability, strength, and goals are directly associated with affective and behavioral outcomes. Second, this study contends that the alignment of informal norms and social environment as flexible and responsive to changing conditions have an effect on affective and behavioral outcomes. Third, this examination suggests that when employee's perceive control policies as practical, and valuable resources it strongly influences affective and behavioral outcomes.

## 2.1 Organizational Culture

*“Organizations are so ubiquitous, they tend to fade into the background, and we need to be reminded of their impact.”* (Scott 1992).

Corporate culture (Smith et al. 2002) is deeply rooted in beliefs and values, wherein individuals hold a substantial investment as the result of some processing or analysis of data about organizational life (Denison 1990). The belief or notion of culture is often referred to in terms that are associated with people, places, myths, rites, languages, and practices (Baker 1980). The two

most notable influencers of organizational culture literature are *In Search of Excellence* (Peters & Waterman 1982) and *Corporate Cultures: The Rights and Rituals of Corporate Life* (Deal & Kennedy 1982). From its earliest beginnings in organizational studies, scholars have conveyed that organizational culture has many paragon, but that it is perhaps best represented by large ethnographies (Dalton 1959; Jaques 1951; Kunda 1992; Rohlen 1974; Schein 1985). From the study of ethnography anthropology, scholars suggest that members in organizations engage in rituals, pass along myths, stories, and use arcane jargon (Baker 1980). Therefore, organizational culture is also defined as beliefs, values, norms, philosophies, and hidden assumptions that are shared between organizational members in the workplace (Cameron & Quinn 2006; Denison 1990; Deshpande & Webster 1989; Miron et al. 2004; Wallach 1983).

The early 1990s yielded a tremendous amount of growth and popularity in the theoretical study of organizational culture, as managers became increasingly aware of the ways that cultures within organizations impact employees and organizational profitability (Cameron & Freeman 1991). Organizational culture perspectives over time have evolved through many interesting stages. Meyerson (1991) noted early on that “culture was the code word for the subjective side of organizational life...its study represented an ontological rebellion against the dominant functionalist or ‘scientific’ paradigm.” Denison (1996) prescribed that the reaction against the pervasive positivism, quantification, and managerialism of mainstream organizational studies helped initiate a decade-long reexamination of the foundations of organizational studies that still continues to this day (Alvesson 1989; Burrell & Morgan 1979; Czarniawska-Joerges 1992).

As the perspectives of organizational culture widen, many scholars and practitioners were concerned that the systematic investigation into culture was falling short of its declaration (Alvesson 1985; Frost 1985; Frost et al. 1991; Smircich & Calas 1987). The epic cultural paradigm

wars in the mid-1980s challenged dominant perspectives, leading to organizational culture theoretical epistemological repartee (Denison 1996). The varied types of organizational culture eventually matured into established fields that satisfied theoretical and practical expectations, including integrative overviews (Alvesson 1993; Ott 1989; Schein 1992; Trice & Beyer 1992), empirical studies (Denison 1990; Kunda 1992), ethnographies (Kotter & Heskett 1992), and qualitative and quantitative research (Calori & Sarnin 1991; Chatman 1991; Chatman & Caldwell 1991; Denison & Mishra 1995; Gordon & Di Tomaso 1992; Hofstede et al. 1990; Jermier et al. 1991). The continued attentiveness in expanding organizational culture led management academicians and practitioners to publish research in the form of numerous articles, including a complete issue of *Administrative Science Quarterly* (September 1983), *Organizations Dynamics* (Autumn 1983), and *Journal of Management Studies* (May 1986) devoted to corporate organizational issues of culture. Table 3 shows a literature review of organizational theory which is the key construct for organizational culture.

[Insert Table 3 about here]

The universal application of organizational culture (Martin 2002) extends into other research areas, for example, Sheridan (1992) studies the link between organizational culture and employee retention among college graduates in accounting firms, Vandenburg (1999) investigates the correlation among employees in hospitals, Bueno et al. (1985) examine the effects of organizational culture on employees in banking mergers firms, examine the relationship between organizational cultures, managerial credibility, and motivation, and Deshpande et al. (1993) explore the relationship of organizational culture, customer orientation, and innovativeness in business performance.

Organizational culture also explores other areas such as marketing and sociology literature in particular terms of understanding consumer behavior, market segmentation, communication, diffusion of innovation, cross cultural comparisons (Engel et al. 1968; Zaman 1965), selling effectiveness (Weitz et al. 1986), marketing strategy (Walker & Rekert 1987), customer orientation (Bonomi 1984; Deshpande et al. 1993), and strategic market planning (Deshpande & Parasuraman 1986; Mahajan et al. 1987). In terms of social patterns, research has identified organizational culture in organizational behavior at the conscious level and in language, artifacts, and norms (Adler & Jelinek 1986; Bate 1984; Deal & Kennedy 1982; Ouchy & Wilkins 1985; Trice & Beyer 1984). Schwartz and Davis (1981) suggested that there are four major dimensions of organizational culture—structure, systems, people, and norms—which further emphasize that organizations will not perform in a competitive environment unless these dimensions are internally consistent within their strategy. Figure 4 shows the 13 aspects of organizational culture.

[Insert Figure 4 about here]

Organizations are considered to be the building blocks of societies and the main vehicle that drives collective actions within the workplace (Scott 2003). So, it is not surprising that in the most developed regions of the world, socioeconomic landscapes dominate and influence organizational cultures (Schultz & Hatch 1996). Therefore, cultures within the workplace must be adaptable (Warrick 2017). The examination of adaptability of organizational culture not only includes the external environment (Porter 1980) but also the internal environment because it suggests the level of organizational commitment towards employees (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa 1986). Eisenberger et al. (1986), argues that organizational commitment to employees is defined as perceived organizational support and is important towards adaptability because it is based on the employee's overall belief that the organization cares about their well-

being. High levels of perceived organizational support by the employee will more than likely develop affective feelings of obligations to “repay” the organization in terms of affective commitment (Blau 1964; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis 1990; Eisenberger et al. 1986). Therefore, understanding the epitome of adaptability and affective commitment within organizational culture is important because it determines which employees are a proper fit into an organization (Wallach 1983).

For example, qualifying whether or not organizations have good adaptable practices in relation to affective commitment can be determined by how individuals adhere to current missions, purposes, and strategies (Wallace 1983). To start with, if the majority of individuals within an organization follow current missions and strategies, then the culture of the organization is considered to be “good.” Secondly, if individuals do not conform to organizational missions and strategies then the culture of the organization is considered to be “bad” (Schwartz 2014; Schwartz & Davis 1981). Subsequently, Warrick (2017) argues that people who respond to behaviors, “good or bad,” are valued and rewarded, while they avoid behaviors that are not valued, rewarded, or are devalued based on perceptions. Therefore, I argue that employee perception of organizational culture adaptability is associated with affective commitment and when employees affectively perceive culture as adaptable it increases workplace commitment.

Take the example of a newly hired 29-year-old male employee working within his first 30 days of employment at a Virginia based unionized poultry plant. This male employee was hired in a position that places live birds upside-down onto moving shackles. This poultry plant job interesting enough within most US poultry plant is commonly referred to as the Live Hang Department. The Live Hang Department is the beginning stage of poultry processing and this particular Virginia based poultry plant startup time is scheduled for 4:30AM. Even though the



official startup time is 4:30AM, this plant has adopted an unofficial culture by normalizing the arrival of employees 30 minutes before the scheduled starting time. In fact, this informal norm exists within the organization so that employees can eat free company sponsored breakfast and as well for donning (refers to putting on work clothing, gear, and PPE) before the scheduled start of the shift. Not only does this informal norm promotes employee early arrival but it additionally provides customized strategies and techniques that affords managers the opportunity to discuss production plans with employees.

This informal norm of early arrival is discussed during the process of pre-hire and onboarding. New employees sign documents stating that they understand that their shift starts at 4:30AM. As a matter of fact, the new hire documents even state that all employees must be fully don (dressed in PPE), and at their work station by 4:30AM. For some reason or another this newly hired 29-year-old male employee had problems arriving on time for work. More importantly he perceived current organizational informal norms of arriving early unfair to employees and not adaptable. This was perhaps due to not understanding as a new hire the entire production process was dependent on high efficacy within live hang and the importance of starting up on time or maybe, not comprehending that unofficially the shift ended early with pay for doffing (removal of PPE). To bring the employee in alignment with organizational culture and informal norms, the shift supervisor and union rep spoke with the new employee about how his late arrivals disrupts the flow of the plant. As a consequence, this new employee reported low levels of commitment to the job because current practices were not adaptable. This employee eventually resigned before his 90 days was completed.

*H1: Perception of organizational culture adaptability is positively associated with affective commitment, such that when an employee perceives organizational culture as highly adaptable s/he will report a higher level of affective commitment.*

Determining employee perception of organizational culture adaptability is critical, but what is also essential is determining the strength of workplace culture (Kilmann et al. 1985). First, this study defines the strength of workplace culture as either “weak or strong” (Cameron & Quinn 2006; Martin 2002; Ouchi 1981). Arshanasy et al. (2000) argue that strong organizational culture is when members are aligned with its value system. Alvesson (2002) contends that in terms of negative entropy (Katz & Kahn 1978), a strong workplace culture can adapt to change and members align with its values. On the other hand, Martin (2002) suggests that weak organizational cultures are those workplace norms that promote negative reactions towards values and goals, while having limited abilities to navigate through environmental changes. From this perspective strong workplace culture compared to weak workplace culture increases affective commitment (Cohen 1993; Shore & Wayne 1993).

Secondly, in order to investigate the strength phenomenon (weak or strong), William Ouchi (1981) proposed the concept of Theory Z (Frost et al. 1991). Theory Z proposes that the strength of workplace culture should be examined using the concept of “hard or soft” (Lv & Zhang 2019). According to Theory Z, hard cultures are defined as data-driven and task-structured. On the other hand, soft cultures are defined as people-centered, proper fit, and affective commitment driven relationships within the organization (Arshanasy et al. 2000). Not only does the examination of strong vs. weak workplace cultural dimensions (Trice & Beyer 1993) includes organizational culture strength (Denison 1990) but it also includes employee perception of hard vs. soft organizational social environments (Arshanasy et al. 2000; Cameron & Quinn 2006). Mathieu &

Zajac (1990), contends that the social environment in the workplace have major influences on affective commitment, and the consequence of negative affective experiences can lead to behavioral outcomes such as absenteeism (Perry 2004). Therefore, I argue that when employees perceived organizational culture as high in strength, it is negatively associated with absenteeism.

For instance, the exemplification of a 41-year-old male employed at a unionized plant for 20 years located in North East Georgia. He worked primarily as a 2nd Processing Rehang Table Supervisor. The Rehang Table is a part of the poultry process where chilled carcasses are placed on shackles for halving (front half of carcass separated from back half) after coming out of the chiller (process that provides temperature control, yield and rigor mortis prevention). The environmental conditions in this area of the plant are notability cold and wet, plus under these circumstances behavioral outcomes such as absenteeism rates are traditionally higher compared to other areas of the plant. Even so, however, this 20-year poultry plant supervisor routinely have lower absenteeism percentages when compared to other departments.

One of the possible reasons why this supervisor is so successful with decreasing absenteeism is that he often explains company policies to his employees. This knowledge base tactic seems to work with the employees and as a consequence absenteeism rates has ameliorated. Simply stated employees perceived that the leadership culture at this plant is one that provides extra efforts and details to support employee's personal needs. This perception of high culture also extends into control policies and is associated with the type of strength within this plant's organizational norm that is utilized to benefit employees.

*H2: Perception of organizational culture strength is negatively associated with absenteeism, such that when an employee perceives organizational culture as high in strength s/he will report a lower proclivity toward absenteeism.*

Workplace communication can be used as the basis for explaining cultural dimensions (Henderson 2005; Kittler et al. 2011) and is widely recognized as an influencer of employee morale (House et al. 2004). So, sending or receiving proper communication is important to workplace effectiveness (Hall 1976; Hofstede 1980) because poor context quality impacts productivity and understanding (Hofstede 1980; Trompenaars 1993). According to Henderson (2005), substandard links that exists within poor communication, create frustrations within the workplace, and lead to negative behavioral outcomes (Labov 1992; Hall 1976). From this perspective, Hall (1990) argues for a continuum with “high or low” communication taxonomy that conceptually suggests that culture is a form of communication and that no communication between humans can be divorced from culture (Kittler et al. 2011). Hall uses low (coded/ explicit) or high (decoded/ implicit) conceptually to explain the meaning, nature, and scope of communication. Understanding the scope of communication is important because it identifies affective quality levels (i.e., moods, feelings, attitudes) of sending and receiving information (Hart 1999). For example, low or coded contexts of communication have explicit meanings, which require individuals to code information in exact terms and precise words (Smidts et al. 2001). On the other hand, high or decoded contexts of communication have implicit meanings, which require individuals to decode information for the purpose of “reading between the lines” (Henderson 2005). Understanding the association between affective commitment and workplace communication (explicit vs. implicit) is critical because it has a direct influence on behavioral outcomes (Kim et al. 1998).

Not only is communication important within organizations because of affective commitment and behavioral outcomes but communication is also a powerful tool to promote motivation for employees towards goals (Locke & Latham 2002). From this perspective goals are actions, aims, objectives, or tasks that measure completions and desired accomplishments (Shantz

& Latham 2011). The core elements of goal setting theory describe goals as quantitative attributes with the highest level of goals reached whenever tasks are specific and challenging (Locke & Latham 2002). Therefore, communication is extremely important towards achieving specific and challenging goals (Thye, Yoon, Lawler & 2002; Latham & Locke 2002) because clearly defined tasks boost performance by motivating employees to increase their effort, induce stronger focus, and prioritize work (Shantz & Latham 2011). In fact, when goals are used as a management tool to rate performance and particularly linked to feedback, goals normally result in a higher sense of employee acceptance, which subsequently improves profitability (Lawler 2001; Locke & Latham 1984).

From this approach clear and precise goals are important to organizational culture because when employees are engaged in completion of goals behavioral outcomes such as turnover are ameliorated (Labov 1992 & Weiss 2002). This is central to the premise of examining the benefits of organizational goals and how these goals increase affective commitment (Cameron 2010; Quinn & Rohrbaugh 1983). Therefore, affective goals are rooted in goal-setting theory and goal-setting theory has two major broad classes of goals: value of goals and confidence of goals (Cameron & Whetten 1983). First, goal value considers the attractiveness of completing the goal and is influenced by personal internal hierarchy, external factors, or by a combination of external plus internal influences (Latham & Locke 2007). For example, internal hierarchy may be internal goal values that include monetary incentives which are linked to performance and in most cases a reward such as money (Goodman & Pennings 1977; Latham & Locke 2007). However, at the same time goals can also be linked to external values such as leadership and peer group influences (Shantz & Latham 2011). When employees admire a leader or views commitment to assigned goals as inherent in the employee contract, so much so that employees will exert efforts to attain

them this is external leadership influence (Latham & Locke 2007). Alternatively, what is also interesting is that peer groups also influence goal commitment to the point that when employee's regard the workplace social environment as high and it creates a positive consequence when goals are made public because it put one's integrity and commitment at stake (Latham & Locke 2007).

Secondly, confidence of goals is important towards task completion so much so that one must have the belief that one can attain it (Bandura 1988). The key concept of self-confidence is that of self-efficacy (Bhawuk 2001; Cushman & Whiting 1972; Keyton 2011). Bandura (1988) defines, self-efficacy as task-specific confidence that describes how well one can coordinate and carry out a set of actions that will lead to positive performance outcomes. The self-efficacy framework is based in part on performance attainments and the belief that reaching a goal is important or desirable but most of all the belief that the goal is attainable (Bandura 1982). In addition, self-efficacy depends on how one interprets one's previous achievements (e.g., the attributions one makes about them) and the context in which a desired objective was reached (Early & Ang 2003). For example, if an employee attributes past attainments to luck, this possibly will not increase self-efficacy but on the other hand, if one recalls being sick on the day of a poor performance, self-efficacy may not be decreased even when progress is not made regarding goal attainment.

Lastly poor communication impacts the workplace (Labov 1992), and the lack of communication reduces affective commitment especially when goals are difficult and challenging (Locke 1968). This is important to note because there is a link between the lack of communication, clearly defined goals, and turnover (Kim et al. 1998), so much so that when employees are given low or coded communication with explicit meaning (Smidts et al. 2001) motivation towards goals increases (Hart 1999). Research suggests that the usage of explicit communication compared to

decoded, or implicit communication (Henderson 2005) in the workplace increases employee commitment because the utilization of exact words, precise meanings, and clear expectations give direction towards individualize or group goals (Locke & Latham 1990; Thomas & Inkson 2008). More important to the scope of this research high levels of perceived organizational goals ameliorate behavioral outcomes because attainable goals have tendencies to reduce workplace turnover (Labov 1992; Triandis 1972). Therefore, I contend that when organizational culture communication is perceived as explicit towards achieving goals it is negatively associated with turnover.

Submitted as a specimen for this research, there was a 53-year-old female working at a unionized plant in Florida for 18 years. She was a Superintendent in the Pack Out department with 40 direct reports. Her leadership style was very direct and precise towards expectations of daily goals. During shift meeting with her employees' departmental objectives were explicitly communicated by defining goals and explaining how these goals would be measured against attainable margins. During her tenure turnover rates were low and organizational key performance indicators within the department were reached 5 quarters in a row.

The Plant Manager (53-year-old Superintendent indirect manger) was terminated. The new Plant Manager did not like the leadership style of the female Superintendent, and surprisingly enough he decided to demote the Superintendent and replace her with an outside male leader. The new leader's style of commanding the department was uniquely implicitly different compared to the high in clarity direction of the previous Superintendent. There was a strong correlation between new leadership changes, and increased turnover. This was also determined the root cause in the reduction of the Pack Out department performances. Moreover, employees constantly complained of the useless indirect messages and misunderstood directives from the new leadership. These

unproductive changes made by new leadership lead to frustrated employees and as a result turnover rates climbed. The Plant Manager was replaced and the demoted Superintendent was reinstated in her role.

*Hypothesis 3: Perception of organizational communication as achieving goals is negatively associated with turnover, such that when an employee perceives organizational goals as explicit (i.e., high in clarity) s/he will report a lower proclivity toward turnover.*

## **2.2 Informal Norms**

Informal organizational culture is ubiquitous and goes beyond examining routines, tasks, and social norms (Deal 1982; Denison 1990; Martin 2002; Schein 2010; Vogus et al. 2010). It also attempts to explain four major dimensions —systems, people, customs, structure (Baker 1980; Denison 1996; Meyerson 1991; Schwartz & Davis 1981)—that influence internal and external obligations (Sayles 1958) and commitments (Greif 1997) that are not based on authority, goals, or objectives (Burns & Stalker 1961; Davis, Kolodny & Lawrence 1977; Knoke & Burt 1983; Lawrence & Lorsch 1969; Macaulay 1963; Strauss 1962). From this perspective, organizational culture comprehensively explains the interlocking of informal social norms (Sardan 2013; Scott 2003; Tichy 1973; Tichy & Fombrun 1979; Tichy et al. 1979) that govern unique relationships between organizational members (Blau & Scott 1962; Burns & Obel 2004; Dalton 1959; French & Raven 1959; Pfeffer 1981) that are not defined by organizational charts or position of power (Ensminger 1997; Wagner 2010). Research on informal norms contend that people and jobs are arranged (Baker 1980; Cameron & Freeman 1991; Crozier 1964; Denison 1990; Kanter 1993; Wagner 2010) with or without formal written rules (Burns & Obel 2004; Dore 1983; Greif 1997; Scott 1981). This is important to discuss because informal norms play critical roles within many



US manufacturing industries (Stull 1995), and because coworkers are generally made up of family and friends (Griffith 1993) with strong alliances (Pfeffer 1978; Zenger & Lawrence 1989) where obligations transcend job descriptions (Argote 1999; Granovetter 1985; Nelson & Winter 1982; Rousseau & McLean Parks 1993). Figure 5 shows the differences between formal and informal norms within organizations.

[Insert Figure 5 about here]

Informal norms in certain environments have advantages over formal norms because of their ability to develop flexibility (Staw & Barsade 2004) and responsiveness (Avolio & Bass 1996) to changing conditions (Barnard 1938; Macneil 1978; Roethlisberger & Dickerson; Trist & Bamforth 1951). This argument is supported by the fact that work and life experiences are proximal influences on people's subjective mood and emotional episodes (Beal et al. 2005). Thus, one can conclude that where employees work and live away from work affects thoughts, feelings, and actions both while at work and away from it (Brief & Weiss 2002; Weiss & Cropanzano 1996). These events create cognitive and affective experiences (Brief & Roberson 1989; Organ & Near 1985; Pekrun & Frese 1992; Sandelands 1988) that impact judgement, emotions, moods, cognitive thoughts, and sensory processes (Yang & Dimasio 2007). Within organizations, these occurrences form what is called affective events theory (Cropanzano et al. 2017). Affective events theory includes a number of assumptions, such as the assumption that true affective states create moods and emotions (Weiss & Cropanzano 1996) and those attitudinal constructs determine affective commitment (Weiss & Rupp 2011). The affective response from these events determines moods, satisfaction, emotions, and commitment within the workplace (Cropanzano et al. 2017).

Thus, I argue that the workplace social environment creates informal norms (Barnard 1938; Macneil 1978; Trist & Bamforth 1951; Albrecht, & Goldman 1985) and these informal norms have

affective influences on the subjective emotional experiences of employees at work and that the episodic structure of these experiences determines the degree of affective commitment employees has for their job (Frijda 2001; Hackett & Guion 1985; Sague 1998; Sneed & Kresse 1989; Weiss & Rupp 2011). As a matter of fact, in certain environments, the perception of informal norms as flexible and responsive to changing conditions have advantages over formal norms in facilitating workplace affective commitment (Bass 1997; Staw & Barsade 2004).

For instance, the norm of a 3<sup>rd</sup> Shift poultry plant located in Alabama is for employees to start their work week off on Sunday at 8PM. The reasoning behind the 3<sup>rd</sup> Shift working on Sunday nights are making sure inventory levels are reduced by is reworked and reduced from the previous week. According to the United States Code of Federal Regulations, rework is defined as clean, unadulterated food that has been removed from processing for reasons other than insanitary conditions or that has been successfully reconditioned by reprocessing and that is suitable for use as food”. Examples of reworking in a poultry plant is re-trimming chicken parts that have been rejected for being bloody, miscut, deboned improperly, or not properly sized. Reworking food products is extremely important because it reduces financial losses that are caused by processing errors and historically rework forms by products that are very profitable.

Having a working schedule that includes Sunday can be very difficult to maintain, especially in terms of missing out on weekend activities that most people enjoy. Weekly activities such as family events, fishing, golfing, and most major sporting events occur on Sunday (Super Bowl, All Star games, etc.). Even though Sundays were regular work days at this particular plant there are existing informal norms that allow for flexible responses to changing conditions. One such informal norm that is adaptable to conditions is the flexible response the Sunday work

schedule during major sporting events. As a consequence, to this condition employees worked double shifts on Saturdays or half shifts on Sundays whenever major events occurred on Sunday. This informal norm was perceived as flexible and responsive to changing conditions which led to an increase in affective commitment.

*Hypothesis 4: Alignment of informal norms and social environments as flexible and responsive (to changing conditions) is positively associated with affective commitment.*

Previous research on labor disruptions assumes that low affective commitment will create a reactionary behavioral outcome variable that stems from negative affective events (Calbeck et al. 1979; Duke & Sneed 1989; Kresse 1989; Locke 1969; Mercer 2010; Myrtle 1978). However, not only does negative affective events disrupts workplace commitment in the form of lower morale, reduced productivity, and decreased performance but it also influences behavioral outcomes (Luthans & Peterson 2002) such as absenteeism (Hemp 2004; Mercer 2010). For the purpose of this research absenteeism is defined conceptually as affective behavioral responses to aversive circumstances (Sagie 1998, Hackett & Guion 1985), that goes beyond the meaning of “either here or not” (Rhodes & Steers 1990). Absenteeism occurs when employees take time off from work (physically or virtually) because of interactions with the social or workplace environment that result in authorized or unplanned attendance failures (Hemp 2004, Klein 1986, Mercer 2010), mental or physical illnesses, bullying or harassment (Nauman, Malik, and Jalil 2019). From this stance, the behavioral response of absenteeism remain problematic across varies industries, organizations, and regions (Klein 1986, Rhodes & Steers 1990). Therefore, researching absenteeism within informal norms is important because it seems that current adverse workplace behavioral outcome literature is primarily focused on disruptions within formal norms (Kris-Brown 2005; Lado & Wilson 1994, Rhodes & Steers 1990).

First this literature studies informal norms and absenteeism by examining Scott (2003). Scott argues that informal norms of relationships that develop among employees is more influential in guiding behaviors of employees in the workplace as compared to formal norms. One of the reasons why informal norms are more influential in guiding behaviors is that these unofficial standards are based on attachment, cleavage, and connectivity (Fitness 2000; George 2000, Zheng 2010). As a matter of fact, connectivity that stems from informal norms nurture and align social relationships (Burt 2007, Hackett & Guion 1985; Sagie 1998) that produces expectation and comradery among employees (Kilduff, Krackhardt 2008). Secondly, workplace expectation and comradery that are influenced by informal norms are not controlled by administrative procedures but are crafted from interactions among workplace social networks (Borgatti, & Foster 2009; Granovetter 1985). These workplace networks form social environments that are supportive and are aligned with unofficial ranking structures which establishes employee behaviors (Kilduff 2010; Labianca, Brass, & Gray 1998). Thirdly, this research supports the concept that informal norms within the workplace social environment increases affective commitment (Mehra, Kilduff, & Brass 2001). Affective commitment is created within these mechanisms when employees maintain membership in the organization because of peer groups, belief and acceptance of organizational goals, and when peer pressure motivate employees to exhort extra effort and take on extra responsibilities on behalf of the organization and the team (Vandenburg 1999; Sheridan 1992).

Lastly, this study contends that negative affective events disrupt workplace commitment which can lead to absenteeism (Luthans & Peterson 2002). From this perspective absenteeism conceptually result in behavioral responses to aversive circumstances created by the workplace social environment (Sagie 1998); which directly is associated with interactions between employees

within an organization (Nauman, Malik, & Jalil 2019). Therefore, I argue that alignment of informal norms and social environments are negatively associated with absenteeism.

Take for instance, the informal norm and social environment for a poultry plant located in North Georgia is for employees to attend tailgate parties during college football season. This North Georgia plant is located very close to a major university that has a large college football fan base and many of these employees are generational supporters of the football team. So much so that the plant is decorated in some areas with college football team's logos and many of the plant employees have license plates or car decals that display their sentimental affection towards their college football team. In addition, during college football season through social attachment, many of the employees come together with their friends and family members to sponsor tailgate parties.

As a consequence, these social attachments and workforce connectivity are extended beyond the workplace. Typically, workforce connectivity builds mutual friendships, and these friendships strengthens trust. Friendship and trust are invigorated among employees who spend a lot of time together at work and away from work. This form of comradery often motivates employees to take on more responsibilities, and in this case through informal norms and social interactions during college football season this North Georgia plant generally have higher percentages of production volumes within a 4-day work period compared to a regular 5-day work period. Notably so, peer to peer expectations also increase because employees adapt a "all hands-on deck" mentality so that workplace responsibilities will not impact the enjoyment of college football. As a final point, affective commitment at this North Georgia plant is higher during college football season, mainly because employees align more with informal norms and social environments to accomplish a common goal, as a result absenteeism rates are reduced.

*Hypothesis 5: Alignment of informal norms and social environments in the workplace is negatively associated with absenteeism.*

Minimizing absenteeism is essential but also reducing employee turnover is critical because organizations invest quite a substantial amount of time, money, and resources into onboarding employees (Kevin 2004; Shaw 1998). Organizations invest in employees because they are major contributors towards achieving organizational goals (Meaghan 2002) and because high turnover do not benefit the organization's acquisition of goals (Abbasi 2000). Previous research has defined turnover as a vacated position, either by voluntary or involuntary actions (Woods 1995), or the ratio of the number of organizational members who have departed during a specific time period divided by the average number of people that are employed at the organization during the same period in a rotation of workers in a labor market, between firms, jobs, and occupations and between employment or unemployment (Abassi 2000; Price 1977). Turnover research attempts to answer the question of why people quit (Bluedorn 1982; Kalliath & Beck 2001; Kramer 1995; Peters 1981; Saks 1996), causes of quitting such as economics reasons (Manu 2004), labor markets (Schervish 1983), poor communication (Labov 1997), higher wages (Idson & Feaster 1990), workplace stressors (Trevor 2001), job expectations, locus control, work flexibility (Firth 2004), and unpredictable work environments (Simon 2007). Surprisingly, pay related variables have a modest effect (Abassi 2000) on turnover as compared to hiring practices, leadership style, recognition, workplace environment, and good relationships with coworkers (Saks 1996).

Researching what causes turnover is important because according to Scott (2003), organizations are collectivities whose participants are pursuing multiple interests, both disparate and common, but who recognize the value of perpetuating the organization as an important resource. First this research investigates the alignment of current informal norms and the reduction

of turnover by understanding that when employees leave their job it is a behavioral response that remain problematic across various industries, organizations, and regions (Klein 1986; Rhodes & Steers 1990). Surprisingly, pay has a modest effect on turnover compared to the workplace environment, and good relationships with coworkers (Abassi 2000; Saks 1996). Secondly, this study suggests that informal norms are developed by organizational culture and the workplace social environment. From this stance, informal norms reduce turnover because it is influential in guiding behaviors, attachment, and connectivity (Fitness 2000; George 2000; Zheng 2000). Lastly, this study argues that connectivity among employee's nurture workplace obligations that form into responsibilities that are maintained through alignment of social workplace relationships (Burt 2007; Hackett & Guion 1985; Saige 1998; Kilduff & Krackhardt 2008). Therefore, I argue that when employees align with informal norms, it has a positive influence on turnover.

For example, a 27-year-old male employed as a Production Manager Trainee located at a unionized plant in Northern Alabama. This plant traditionally was known throughout the poultry industry as having a great safety record. The reportable incidents were below corporate safety thresholds, and for the purpose of training new leaders in plant safety development, new training rotations for managers included migration risks assessment at this location. Most manager trainees spent 3 to 6 months at this location while developing skills to reduce safety violations.

Before coming to this Northern Alabama plant, the manager trainee was previously trained in Mississippi at a plant with high production output but under those circumstances the Mississippi plant always ranked high in employee job related injuries. Interesting enough, both poultry plants had accessibility to the same type of corporate safety training and each one of the production plants had similar ergonomic structures. However, the plants had notable informal safety standards that were different. For example, the plant in Northern Alabama encouraged all employees to become

very active in safety practices and if a team member discovered someone not being safe, regardless of title or position that team member would be supported by leadership to reprimand any employee that was found in violation of a safety guideline. This safety precaution was not written a formal policy but was understood throughout the poultry plant.

The 27-year-old male Production Manager Trainee was caught not wearing his safety glasses in the food production area. A few hourly employees walked over to the Production Manager Trainee and enforced the safety protocol by asking the Trainee to put on his safety glasses. The 27-year-old male Trainee appeared to resist the safety instructions from the hourly employees and told them he would not wear them at that moment because his safety glasses was fogged up. The hourly employees tried to intervene by explaining to the Trainee how to reduce fog by applying thin coats of shaving cream, antifog spray, or dish detergent on his glasses. The Trainee felt as though the suggestions from the hourly employees were ridiculous and explained that at his previous training plant in Mississippi it was perfectly adequate for employees not to wear safety glasses in every department at the plant. The hourly employees left the production area and reported the safety risk to the Plant Safety Manager. The Plant Safety Manager commended the hourly employees for following protocol. The Production Manager Trainee safety violation actions was addressed with him by the plant leadership team and the Trainee was told that his continued unsafe practices could led to termination. For the remainder of his rotation at this plant the Trainee followed all safety protocol both written and unwritten.

*Hypothesis 6: Alignment of informal norms and social environments in the workplace is negatively associated with turnover.*



## 2.3 Control Policies

Employees are managed by goals and setting objectives, followed by the utilization of rewards or punishments to encourage and motivate them through the usage of administrative controls (Burns 1978). This is the premise of organizational control systems (Flamholtz 1979; Flamholtz et al. 1985). These systems of control attempt to gain administrative command (Otley 1980) and influence (Sheridan 1992) over employee behaviors by using a combination of mechanisms such as standard operating procedures, job descriptions, and performance measurements (Otley 1980). Collectively, control mechanisms are referred to as control policies and leaders use control policies to invoke unilateral conformance towards workplace goals (Flamholtz et al. 1985). Control policies are very intriguing because there can be both formal and informal influences of control within the workplace (Kirsch 1996). Formal controls use official rules that are often implemented by management, whereas informal controls are based on unofficial guidelines and norms (Baldauf et al. 2005). The impact of formal and informal control policies influences diversity and ideas (Scott 1998), organizational direction (Clegg 1996), organizational science (Kuhn 1962; McKelvey 2001), organic systems (Burns & Stalker 1961), organizational fit (Ashmos & Huber 1987; Millett 1998), workplace behaviors (Flamholtz 1979), and affective outcomes (Flamholtz et al. 1985).

In terms of affective outcomes, control policies can impact workplace satisfaction, cohesion, strategy, performance, and commitment (Vancouver 1996). Control policies that influence affective commitment are attitudinal and judgement constructs that determine the individualized level of workplace contentment (Baker 1980; Denison 1990; Locke 1969; Sheridan 1992; Vandenburg 1999). Within the workplace, commitment has affective influences on organizational culture (Currivan 1999; Lund 2003), measures of happiness (Brief & Roberson

1989; Myrtle 1978), psychological tendencies (Eagly & Chaiken 1993), workplace environment (Duke & Sneed 1989; Motowidlo 1996; Pratkanis & Turner 1994; Price 1997; Campbell & Scarpello 1990), self-evaluation (Calbeck et al. 1979; Koch & Steers 1978; Martin & Porter; Steers et al. 1974; Weiss 2002), job dedication (Brooke et al. 1988; Cramer 1996; Crawford 1999; Currihan 1999; Glisson & Durick 1988; Lance 1991; Lok & Mowday et al. 1979; Vandenberg & Lance 1992), performance (Lawler & Porter 1969; Tvorik & McGivern 1997), cohesion (Burke 1995; Morgan et al. 1995), organizational climate (Argyris 1973; Downey et al. 1975; Friedlander & Margulies 1969; Pervin 1968), and satisfaction outcomes (Nystrom 1993; Odom et al. 1990).

Therefore, I first propose that control policies affectively influence commitment in the workplace (Beal et al. 2005; Locke 1976; McNichols et al. 1978; Weiss & Beal 2005). Secondly, I argue that when control policies are used as affective tools of cognitive dimensions (Organ & Near 1985; Pekrun & Frese 1992; Sandelands 1988) that determine moods, judgement, and contentment (Schein 1985; Weiss & Cropanzano 1996), it directly influence workplace satisfaction (Beal et al. 2005). In this case, workplace satisfaction increases employee attitudinal individualized levels of workplace contentment which in turns increases affective commitment (Baker 1980; Denison; Locke 1969; Sheridan 1992; Vandenburg 1999). More importantly, I suggest that contentment with control policies is associated with workplace affective commitment.

For example, a 61-year-old female employee working at a poultry plant located in South Georgia. This employee worked at this poultry plant for over 40 years. During her tenure, for any open roles at the plant, there was a bid process that gave employees with the most seniority the first opportunity at a new open position. This was a major benefit that many long-term employees enjoyed. Most roles at the plant were under unionized terms with capped hourly wages after 5 years of services, but long-term employees could work in positions that was less stressful and

arduous. Therefore, it was very common to see long term employees holding roles at the plant that was not seen as labor intensive, very difficult, or demanding.

This structure of seniority bidding on open positions changed in 2015, when a nonindustrial related manufacturing plant moved in the vicinity of the plant. This new added competition made it very difficult to recruit or retain employees. The leadership team at the plant decided in an effort to recruit new talent and retain newly recruited employees that the bid process for new open roles would change. One of the major changes that was implemented by the leadership team included a clause in the bidding process that directly impacted long term employees. Any new open positions at the plant were made available to all employees through a HR interview process. The previous bid selection process was eliminated and hiring managers made the final decision on the open role. This new policy made a lot of long-term tenure employees dissatisfied. The new policy left the 61-year-old female employee and many other long-term employees very discontent. The impact of the discontented employees reduced their commitment to the organization. Subsequently, after 40 years of service the female employee and several others retired from the organization.

*Hypothesis 7: Contentment with control policies is positively associated with workplace affective commitment.*

Even though control policies are intended to ameliorate attitudinal workplace affective outcomes such as commitment, these control systems (Koch & Steers 1978; Porter et al. 1974) often modulate what is defined as behavioral outcomes (Hackett & Guion 1985; Sague 1998; Sneed & Kresse 1989; Weiss & Rupp 2011). Behavioral outcomes are reactionary workplace operant variables that are transferred from affective experiences and workplace commitment (Mercer 2010; Weiss 2002). Succinctly, workplace commitment influences behavioral variables

of absenteeism and turnover (Calbeck et al. 1979; Duke & Sneed 1989; Flamholtz 1979; Kresse 1989; Myrtle 1978). Researching absenteeism and turnover is important because there are strong correlations between behavioral outcomes and organizational profitability (Hemp 2004; Klein 1986; Mercer 2010). Additionally, behavioral control within the workplace is a basic modern fundamental activity (Baum & Youngblood 1975) that suggests labor disruption points to a lack of personnel policies, recruitment, leadership practices, grievance procedures, and motivation (Costly 1987). As studies suggest that employees are necessary resources for organizations (Becker 1962), without the right type of employees, organizations will not succeed (Hemp 2004; Luthans & Peterson 2002; Mercer 2010) and absenteeism is critical in the study of behavioral outcomes (Zheng 2010).

Absenteeism rates are critical responses and margins (Kris-Brown 2005; Lado & Wilson 1994; Luthans & Peterson 2002) defined as behavioral outcomes toward aversive circumstances (Hackett & Guion 1985; Sagie 1998), either at work or at home (Klein 1986), that conceptually determine whether employees are “either here or not” (Klein 1986; Rhodes & Steers 1990). The behavioral response of absenteeism is problematic across various organizations of different sizes, industries, and regions (Klein 1986). Studies have even shown that when employees are regularly absent with non-family or health related issues, it normally indicates issues with the organization (Schervish 1983).

So, within this study, I first argue that employee contentment of control policies are important to the point that behavior outcomes are influenced. This is especially true when control policies are deeply rooted in procedures within organizations that are actually intended to develop positive employee to employer relationships by having absentee policies that allow employees increased paid time off for various reasons (Firth 2004; Manu 2004). Secondly, I contend that

absenteeism is a critical response outcome that stems from dissatisfaction of leadership and control policies in the workplace (Kris-Brown 2005; Peterson 2002; Hackett & Guion 1995). Thirdly, I suggest that within this research whenever control policies feature common sense approaches these policies are considered valuable resource that subsequently decreases workplace absenteeism (Flamholtz & Lacey 1981; Koch & Steers 1978; Porter et al. 1974). Therefore, I argue that contentment of control policies as valuable resources will lower absenteeism.

Take for example, the personal time off policies within a poultry plant located in Eastern Texas. In order to reduce labor disruptions this poultry plant created policies that were intended to be value-added tools for employees when they were not able to come to work. One good example of how these policies were structured into resourceful meaningful tools was when a long-time 63-year-old male employee started having severe illnesses that required routine medical treatments that prevented him from being at work from time to time. This 63-year-old male employee not being able to attend work is important because his chronic medical conditions were not covered under the current short-term paid disability program at the organization.

That being the case, this plant had an absentee policy that allowed employees the opportunity to transfer earned personal time off from one employee to another after the 3rd period of the calendar year. This 63-year-old employee was able to receive paid personal time off hours from other employees. This is an important point because this plant also has an attendance violation policy and under this policy after 5 unexcused absences employees can be terminated. The understanding and usage of the absenteeism policy kept the chronically ill employee from being classified as absent. Amazingly so, employees within his department were motivated to help the 63-year-old employee. This was the case even at the expense of reducing their earned personal time off. Surprisingly, throughout the remaining course of his career, compared to other

departments in the plant, employee commitment increased so much so that absenteeism decreased. From this perspective, contentment of control policies at this plant were valuable resources that enhanced and strengthen job commitment.

*Hypothesis 8: Contentment with control policies as valuable resources is negatively associated with absenteeism.*

Examining absenteeism within control policies is important but equally important is studying turnover within the same constraints. Stemming from this perspective turnover is defined as vacated positions either by voluntary or involuntary actions (Hom & Griffeth 1995; Kevin 2004; Shaw 1998; Woods 1995), and it is generally calculated by the ratio of the number of organizational members (Kalliath & Beck 2001; Kramer 1995; Saks 1996) who have departed during a specific time period (Peters 1981) divided by the average number of people that are employed at the organization during the same period (Schervish 1983) in a rotation of workers in a labor market between firms, jobs, and occupations (Price 1977) that are between states of employment (Abassi 2000). Examining turnover is essential because organizations invest huge amounts of time, money, and resources into retaining their labor force (Kevin 2004). Research has found that employee value is not easily replicated (Meaghan 2002), and that high turnover rates does not benefit the success of the organization (Abbasi 2000).

In fact, in first place turnover points to a lack of meaningful control policies (Abassi 2000; Costly 1987) and interestingly enough, research has pointed out that employees generally enjoy working for organizations that are well structured with control policies that feature common sense approaches (Koch & Steers 1978; Porter et al. 1974). Research also suggests that workplace commitment decreases when organizations do not have good recruitment, leadership practices, and grievance procedures (Costly 1987; Meaghan 2002). In place second, this study suggests that

organizations with the right type of culture and affective control policies will reduce turnover by creating contentment within the workplace (Becker 1962; Hemp 2004; Luthans & Peterson 2002; Zheng 2010), so much so that employees deem this approach to control policies as valuable (Flamholtz & Lacey 1981). Therefore, I suggest that contentment with control policies as a valuable resource will reduce turnover.

Take for example, a 23-year-old female employee working at a plant located in North West Virginia. This female employee worked in the Quality Control Department. Her main function at the plant was to ensure that all food safety protocols were being followed. Before working in the Quality Department, she previously held various roles in Debone Production. These previous roles gave her tremendous insight into some of the protocols that may not be followed according to food safety guidelines. She used the combination of previous experience and newly gained knowledge to advance very quickly in the Quality Department.

Within the authority of her role in Quality, she had the power to stop food production if a violation occurred. To some employees at the plant, she started using this power to stop manufacturing food in a negligent way that harmed the output of production. When looking at the food safety controls at the plant, it far exceeded the USDA basic food handling requirements. The plant used more aggressive demands towards food safety which essentially made their processing standards at higher conditions compared to the USDA controls. But even so this 23-year-old female employee followed the plant processing requirements to perfection not only in compliance with actual food safety violations but also with possible threats of a violation.

As a consequence of her aggression towards possible threats of food safety controls the plant production volumes declined because of the increased stoppage in production. Even though she was executing her job task according to the control policies, her actions resulted in causing

more work and increased hours for the plant employees. Under those circumstances low morale developed in the plant and higher production costs reduced processing profits. The female employee was asked by leadership to be less aggressive towards stopping production. The female employee opposed the instructions given to her by her manager and continued to stop food production as it was written in the food safety policy. Nonetheless, her authority to stop food production was revoked by the leadership team and she was removed from her role. Due to dissatisfaction of the changes made by the leadership team, the female employee decided to resign from the plant. Subsequently, the food control policy at the plant that had been in place for several years was revised to become more adjusted towards USDA regulatory standards, and more conservative towards increasing workload for employees.

*Hypothesis 9: Contentment with control policies as valuable resources is negatively associated with turnover.*



## **Chapter 3**

### **Methods**

The postulates of this section provide a clear and precise description of how each variable was measured. This section also discusses the rationale for why each experimental procedure was chosen. In order to answer the research question and describe how the experimental procedures were used, first, this section introduces the data and the collections methods that tests each hypothesis validity. Second, this section explains the way each variable was measured to ensure reliability. Third, this section describes the research protocol, what calculations were performed, and state which statistical tests were done to analyze the data.

#### **3.1 Data**

The aim of this section is to conceptualize the data within this research and to introduce data collection methods and provide discussions into how each data set will be measured. The collected data set will be measured against each hypothesis according to its strengths and weaknesses. Each variable within the hypotheses will be tested against the data set for reliability. A discussion consisting of the data source, sampling models, and findings will argue for the validity of the research model.

##### ***3.1.1 Data Description***

The data within this study examines rural poultry processor plants that are located in varies regions of the United States. Collectively, these processing plants employ approximately 2,500 full time hourly employees. During a two-year time period, 2016–2018, data for this study was collected onsite at the poultry plants. The techniques used to collect the data were self-

administered surveys. These collection techniques captured specific details regarding organizational culture, informal structures, control policies, absenteeism, affective commitment, and turnover.

All of the poultry processing plants frequently posted percentage rates of absenteeism, turnover, safety, processing KPI's, and quality scores, a customary trend within the poultry industry and in most poultry plants in the US. This shared data is made visible in common areas such as the cafeteria, hallways, posting boards, and in production areas. Moreover, this unique data is also made available to leaders through internal emails containing Excel spreadsheets with processing rates, safety scores, and human resources percentages. Uniquely, poultry plant executives provide data to managers, supervisors, and hourly employees as a knowledge-based technique to expand continuous improvements of operational trends, motivation of team members, and alignment of employees with business strategies that are intended to embrace safety and secure profitability.

### ***3.1.2 Self-administered Surveys***

In order to test the validity and reliability of the constraints, I used surveys as a data collection method and as a measuring instrument. Generally, there are three acceptable methods of collecting data for surveys: self-administered questionnaires, personal interviews, and telephone interviews (Harrison & Martocchio 1998; Johns & Hajj 2016). For this study, I used self-administered questionnaires as the preferred method. I selected self-administered questionnaires because, schematically, this format is more appropriate for researching controversial or sensitive subjects (Babbie 1989). Table 4 illustrates the benefits and weaknesses of using self-administered surveys.

[Insert Figure 4 about here]

## 3.2 Operationalization of Constructs

The constructs (Figure 13) of operation in this research is as follows:

A) First this section on **Organizational Culture** discusses workplace norms as the predictor for affective and behavioral outcomes. This section proposes the use of Parsons's Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ), whose features provide a sampling source to measure: H1 - organizational cultural adaptability Scale I of the OCAQ (Sashkin & Rosenbach 2014), H2 - organizational cultural strength Scale V of the OCAQ (Sashkin & Rosenbach 2014), and H3 - organizational culture explicit communication of goals Scale II of the OCAQ (Sashkin & Rosenbach 2014).

B) The Second section on **Informal Norms** is an influencer on social interactions and impacts the dependent variables. This section argues that informal relationships within organizations predicts affective and behavioral outcomes. This is measured by using self-administered surveys to test for validity: H4 - used to test the association of affective commitment, informal norms and social environments as responsive to changing environments by using Allen and Myer's (1990) Affective Commitment Scale (ACS), H5 - examine links between informal norms, social environments, and absenteeism by using a self-administered survey, and H6 – examines the alignment of informal norms, social environments and the association it has on turnover by using a self-administered survey.

C) The Third **Control Policies** are independent variables because the policies within the organization sample study are constant and unchanged during the timeframe of this study. However, employee perception of control policies within this study does have variations. Even

though the varies types of kind of control policies are less of a focus compared to employee perception of leader's usage of control policies; this research draws a link between informal norms, and the impact it has on affective and behavioral outcomes. This section tests H7, H8, and H9 by using self-administered questions to examine the impact that control policies have on absenteeism, and turnover. Table 4 illustrates the benefits and weaknesses of using self-administered surveys.

[Insert Figure 4 about here]

D) The Fourth and Final section on **Dependent Variables** introduces affective and behavioral outcomes as the assumed determined value of the independent variables. The features of this section suggest that there is a correlation between the independent variables in the research and the dependent variables absenteeism, affective commitment, and turnover.

### **3.3 Independent Variables**

In this study, the independent variables are specifically defined as organizational culture, informal structures, and control policies. These independent variables predict the type of affective and behavioral outcomes that employees produce within the workplace. In this research, the independent variables influence attitudinal constructs, emotional episodes, and judgement behaviors that are categorized as affective commitment, absenteeism, and turnover (Beal et al. 2005; Locke 1969).

#### ***3.3.1 Organizational Culture***

Acting as an independent variable within this research, organizational culture predicts affective and behavioral outcomes in the workplace (Brief & Weiss 2002; Brown 2005). Defined

as the beliefs, values, norms, philosophies, and hidden assumptions that are shared between organizational members (Cameron & Quinn 2006; Denison 1990; Deshpande & Webster 1989; Miron et al. 2004; Wallach 1983), organizational culture also determines what substantial investments employees adopt as critical within organizational life (Denison 1990; Smith et al. 2002). Investigating the influences of organizational culture is important because there are strong correlations between corporate customs (Alvesson 2002), employee commitment, profitability (Mercer 2010), and the ability of an organization to retain its employees (Hemp 2004).

The universal influence of organizational culture (Martin 2002; Schwartz 2014) within the workplace (Lv & Zhang 2019; Warrick 2017) is considered to be ubiquitous (Peterson 2000; Scott 2003). Since organizational culture is ubiquitous, it can be operationalized in a variety of various ways (Alvesson 2002; Mercer 2010); this research uses affective and behavioral outcomes as commitment measurements of organizational life. Here, affective and behavioral scales within organizational culture are defined qualitatively by measuring the following: (A) perception of employee affective commitment; (B) perception of organizational culture adaptability; and (C) perception of organizational communication towards goals (Beal et al. 2005; Locke 1969; Schwartz 2014; Schwartz & Davis 1981; Wallace 1983; Warrick 2017).

Measuring levels of subjective moods, emotional episodes, and attitudinal constructs is critical because it qualifies whether or not organizations create positive influences within the workplace that promotes affective commitment (Beal et al. 2005). The influence of affective commitment on organizational culture is measured by determining employee perception of the workplace (Lund 2003). Conceptually, employee perceptions are the cognitive processing of information about organizational life or the emotional state resulting from analyzing their workplace (Locke 1969; Organ & Near 1985; Pekrun & Frese 1992; Sandelands 1988). The

resulting cognitive process or emotional state qualifies whether or not organization culture is “good or bad” (Schwartz 2014; Schwartz & Davis 1981). If employees conform to organizational missions and strategies, then the culture of the organization is considered to be good, but if employees do not conform to missions and strategies then the workplace culture is considered to be bad (Schwartz 2014; Warrick 2017).

Within this study, to determine whether organizational culture is perceived as flexible and adaptable, I use Parsons’s Organizational Culture Assessment Questionnaire (OCAQ – Scale I). This tool measures organizational culture in terms of employee perception of organizational changes (Sashkin & Rosenbach 2013). Respondents are asked to report on the extent to which they believe organizational changes are flexible and adaptable to concerns or needs of employees. The scale measurement is a unidimensional five-point Likert survey with scores of one to five representing: strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree.

Evaluating workplace perception (Kilmann et al. 1985) in organizational culture is essential because it helps to determine whether employees are aligned with workplace missions and strategies (Martin 2002; Ouchi 1981). To define and measure employee alignment with workplace missions and strategies, this research conceptually examines whether organizational cultures are strong or weak (Cameron, & Quinn 2006; Lv & Zhang 2019). Strong organizational cultures are defined as having the dynamics to pervade organizational value systems (Arshanasy et al. 2000), adaptability to change (Alvesson 2002), data-driven, task structured, and the ability to communicate (Cameron & Quinn 2006; Denison 1990; Trice & Beyer 1993). On the other hand, weak cultures are defined as organizations that hire or retain large amounts of employees with negative reactions towards corporate values and goals (Martin 2002). To this point, weak

organizational cultures also resist changes that are beneficial to the team (Frost et al. 1991) but yet are refused by large groups of employees (Arshanasy et al. 2000; Denison 1990).

To determine organizational culture strength within this study, I will use the OCAQ – Scale V. This tool measures organizational culture strength in terms of employee knowledge, organizational objectives, policies, and procedures (Sashkin & Rosenbach 2013). Respondents are asked to report on the extent to which people within their organization have shared and agreed upon values and beliefs. The scale measurement for this questionnaire is a unidimensional five-point Likert survey with scores of one to five representing strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree.

Organizational culture perceptions are also linked to the range of communication context it has towards achieving goals (Hall 1990). This research suggests that the quality of communication is defined by the effectiveness it has on achieving goals while sending and receiving verbal or nonverbal messages within groups of employees while at the workplace (Hall 1976; Kittler et al. 2011). The perception of workplace communication is widely recognized as an indispensable management effort because it contributes to boosting morale and employee behavior (Hart 1999; Kim et al. 1998). Hall's (1976) context model conceptually contends that culture is a form of communication and that no communication by humans can be divorced from culture. So, this research operationalizes culture communication context through a qualitative rating system that is either "high or low" (Hall 1990; Kittler et al. 2011). High contexts develop within organizations when communication have implicit meanings, which requiring individuals to decode information for the purpose of "reading between the lines" (Henderson 2005). Low contexts are communications or organizational messages that have explicit meanings, requiring individuals to code information in exact terms and precise words (Smidts et al. 2001). It is noteworthy that high

or low contexts within organizational communication can be used as the basis for explaining cultural dimensions that relates towards team collaboration for achieving goals, missions, continuous improvement, and functional relationships (Henderson 2005; Kittler et al. 2011).

To determine organizational culture communication towards achieving goals within this study, I will use the OCAQ Scale - II. This tool measures organizational culture communication contexts in terms of accomplishments of goals through the utilization of workplace team work (Sashkin & Rosenbach 2013). Respondents are asked to report on the extent to which organizational goals are aligned and communicated to employees. The scale measurement is a unidimensional scale and a five-point Likert survey with scores of one to five representing strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree.

### ***3.3.2 Informal Norms***

Informal norms operating within organizational cultures act as independent variables in this study. The influence that informal norms have on affective and behavioral outcomes are based on implicit understandings (Schein 2010), social relationships, social norms (Baker 1980; Denison 1996; Meyerson 1991), routines, obligations, commitments (Vogus et al. 2010), and non-written documentation of power and positions (Ensminger 1997). Inherently, informal norms really flourish within organizations (Dalton 1959; Greif 1997; Sayles 1958) that are located within rural areas (Griffith 1993; Stull 1995), mainly because coworkers are also family and friends within the same local communities (Granovetter 1985; Griffith 1993). These close informal alliances develop into patterns of specialized communication (Zenger & Lawrence 1989), tacit knowledge (Argote 1999; Nelson & Winter 1982), and obligations that transcend job descriptions (Rousseau & McLean Parks 1993).



In order to operationalize informal norms, a self-administered survey was conducted to showcase the significance of workplace relationships. Closed-ended dichotomous interview questions were featured during the data collecting stages. The purpose of the closed-ended dichotomous questions was to analyze existing relationships between respondents in a confidential manner that included a short range. These relationships were categorized as friendship, family, extended family, and close workplace bonds. The results of this survey attempt to conclude whether there are strong correlations between informal norms, affective, and behavioral outcomes in the workplace.

### ***3.3.3 Control Policies***

Control policies operating within informal organizational norms are independent variables that influence affective and behavioral outcomes. Control policies are defined within this study as supervision, standard operating procedures, job descriptions, performance measurements, reward systems (Flamholtz et al. 1985; Otley 1980; Sheridan 1992) and enforcements (Kirsch 1996; Vandenburg 1999) that are used in an attempt to gain control over employee behaviors for the attainment of organizational objectives (Flamholtz 1979). From this perspective, control policies are goal-oriented influences (Vancouver 1996) and languages that are used to counteract disturbances within the workplace (Bertalanffy 1968; Boulding 1956; Richardson 1991; Scott 1998).

Understanding control policies usages is critical because these policies are largely dependent on managerial enforcement and employee perceptions of the usage of power (Arrow 1964; Blau & Scott 1962; Flamholtz 1979; Perrow 1977; Scott 2003; Tannenbaum 1968). This is of great significance within organizations because control policies can be seen as a reliable resource (Baldauf et al. 2005; Etzioni 1961; Fayol 1940; Fayol 1949; Weber 1947) that influence

how organizational norms are created. For example, control policies can either be formal or informal and the perception of these policies determines employee perception of the organization (Baldauf et al. 2005) because formal controls are official rules that are implemented by managers, but in contrast informal control policies are based on norms and unofficial rules that are followed by employees (Kirsch 1996). This is intriguing because research suggest that employees follow the dominate power within organizations (Ashmos & Huber 1987; Blau & Scott 1962; Cryert & March 1963; French & Raven 1959). So, if informal norms are not aligned with control polices organizations are more than likely ineffective (Kevin 2004; Lund 2003), thus, having a negative impact on affective and behavioral outcomes (Mercer 2010; Millet 1998; Pfeffer 1981; Watson 2005).

In order to operationalize the impact of control policies, closed-ended dichotomous survey questions were used to measure employee perception of current workplace policies. Each sample that was observed in this research were employed at organizations with identical formal control policies. The survey attempted to classified leadership enforcement of control policies into the following groups: popular, slow responder, reasonable, and forceful. Popular leadership was determined to be managers that practiced ingratiation. For the purpose of this research, ingratiation is a managerial psychological term wherein individuals try to influence others by deliberately becoming more likeable (Argyris 1964; French & Raven 1959). Slow responder is used to describe managers that are considered lackadaisical. Within this research, lackadaisical leaders are managers that do not properly enforce control policies and are unenthusiastic about managing (Pfeffer 1981 and Blau 1972). Reasonable leaders in this study are understood as democratic leaders that function as transformational leaders (Blau & Scott 1962; Burns 1978). Finally, forceful managers in this study are expressed as authoritative leaders (Burns & Stalker 1961). The

results of this survey attempt to show strong correlations between employee perception of control policies and affective and behavioral outcomes in the workplace.

### **3.4 Dependent Variables**

The dependent variables in this study are affective and behavioral outcomes. These dependent variables are influenced by organizational culture, informal structure, and control policies. Affective outcomes are classified as commitment, while behavioral outcomes are classified as absenteeism and turnover in this study.

#### ***3.4.1 Affective Outcomes***

Work and life experiences have influences on employees' subjective mood and emotional episodes (Beal et al. 2005), and one can conclude that this can affect employees' thoughts, feelings, and actions while at work and away from it (Brief & Weiss 2002). This research defines examining the nature, causes, and consequences of affective experiences at work as affective events theory (Cropanzano et al. 2017). According to Weiss and Rupp (2011), chief among the distinctions and assumptions within affective event theories are affective states (moods and emotions) and attitudinal constructs (affective commitment).

The impact of organizational culture, informal norms, and control policies influence affective outcomes with regard to employee satisfaction, moods, emotions, judgements, and commitments (Weiss & Cropanzano 1996). These affective outcomes within organizations determine employee affective commitment on the job, work performance, satisfaction, and job attitudes (Frijda 2001; Hackett & Guion 1985; Sague 1998; Sneed & Kresse 1989; Weiss & Rupp 2011). From this perspective, this current study uses affective outcome as a descriptive to

operationalize affective commitment as the emotional state (Locke 1969) someone has about his or her job, which arise from the job's characteristics (Weiss & Beal 2005), the employee's feelings (Locke 1976), the appraisal facilitated through value of job duties (Beal et al. 2005), and attitudinal constructs (Weiss & Rupp 2011), which are further impacted by the independent variables within this model.

Within this research, the dependent variable those affective outcomes investigate is operationalized as commitment within organizational cultures. As it relates to organizational culture (Brief & Roberson; Calbeck et al. 1979; Duke & Sneed 1989; Eagly & Chaiken 1993; Lund 2003; Motowidlo 1996; Myrtle 1978; Pratkanis & Turner 1994), affective commitment (Duke & Sneed 1989; Weiss 2002) is composed of attitudinal constructs and judgement analyzed emotions (Hackett & Guion 1985; Sague 1998; Sneed & Kresse 1989; Weiss & Rupp 2011) that are cognitive (Organ & Near 1985; Pekrun & Frese 1992; Sandelands 1988). Affective commitment measurements must be defined conceptually because, historically, when employees working in adaptable informal organizational cultures tend to express greater organizational commitment (Nystrom 1993), they see higher levels of job happiness (Hemp 2004), and empirical research also concludes that organizational are more effective (Alvesson 2002; Mercer 2010).

In order to operationalize affective commitment, this research uses Allen and Meyer's (1990) Affective Commitment Scale (ACS). The ACS links predictor variables and commitment through affective emotional responses that develop through workplace experiences (Jaros 2007). This scale has open-ended ordinal questions that are based on a five-point Likert scale with scores of one to five representing strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, and strongly agree.

### ***3.4.2 Behavioral Outcomes***

Affective outcomes such as commitment impacts behavioral outcomes (Koch & Steers 1978; Porter et al. 1974). Behavioral outcomes are those reactionary operant variables transferred from affective outcomes that prohibit organizations from being profitable because of a reduction in commitment (Mercer 2010), which succinctly impacts absenteeism, and turnover (Calbeck et al. 1979; Duke & Sneed 1989; Kresse 1989; Locke 1969; Myrtle 1978). The impact of behavioral outcomes is important to understand because human capital is a necessary resource for organizations to meet goals and objectives (Becker 1962), avoid lost productivity and low performance, through frustrated and underappreciated employees (Hemp 2004; Mercer 2010). Examining behavioral outcomes is also paramount because according to organizational behavior theorists, having the correct employee for the job is key to achieving acceptable levels of satisfaction, absenteeism, and turnover; thus, employee reactionary operant variables are indicators of commitment levels (Luthans & Peterson 2002; Zheng 2010).

It is important to note that absenteeism can be considered a critical behavioral outcome response (Kris-Brown 2005) in determining affective commitment (Lado & Wilson 1994; Luthans & Peterson 2002). For the purpose of measuring absenteeism within this research, it is defined as behavioral responses to adverse circumstances (Hackett & Guion 1985; John 1978; Sagie 1998) that conceptually goes beyond the meaning of “either here or not” (Klein 1986; Rhodes & Steers 1990). Conceptually defining absenteeism is important because there is a strong relationship between absenteeism and organizational profitability (Hemp 2004; Klein 1986; Mercer 2010) and the behavioral response of absenteeism is problematic across varies organizations of various sizes, industries, and regions (Klein 1986; Rhodes & Steers 1990).

The primary data collection measures absenteeism within this research to determine a correlation between affective commitment and employees missing from the workplace. The data set is measured by absenteeism questionnaires. The scale for the questionnaire is a closed ended dichotomous scale. The results of this survey attempt to show a correlation between the predictor variables and affective outcomes that influence absenteeism.

When employees are regularly absent from employment, it can result in turnover (Firth 2004; Manu 2004; Schervish 1983). When positions are vacated, either by voluntary or involuntary actions, resulting in the application of hiring a new employee (Kevin 2004; Woods 1995), this behavioral outcome is called turnover (Hom & Griffeth 1995; Shaw 1998). For the purpose of this research, employee turnover is generally calculated by the ratio of the number of organizational members (Kalliath & Beck 2001; Kramer 1995; Saks 1996) who have departed during a specific time period (Peters 1981) divided by the average number of people that are employed at the organization during the same period (Schervish 1983) in a rotation of workers in a labor market between firms, jobs, and occupations (Price 1977) that are between states of employment and unemployment (Abassi 2000).

From this perspective, examining turnover is essential because organizations invest time, money, and resources in employees (Kevin 2004). Therefore, employee value is intangible and not easily replicated (Meaghan 2002), and high turnover does not contribute towards the total success of organizations (Abbasi 2000). Even more important is that increased turnover percentages points to a lack of personnel policies (Griffeth 2000), leadership practices (Abassi 2000), and commitment (Costly 1987).

The data set featuring turnover is operationalized by analyzing self-administered surveys. Analyzing employee perception of the workplace is critical because it shows a correlation between

affective outcomes and turnover (Griffith 2003; Hall 1995). Examining turnover data (Owens et al. 2010) is important because perception of the organization is positively associated with alignment of informal norms (Johannes et al. 2016; Juul et al. 2002). This scale is a closed end dichotomous survey that attempts to measure workplace cultural perception and the association it has on turnover.

## **3.5 Control Variables**

### **3.5.1 Age**

Within this research participants ages are used as a control variable. The ages for the various groups include participants that are 18 to 35. This age group is considered new or younger labor in the work force. The study also includes ages of participant's that are 35 to retirement.

### **3.5.2 Sex**

Within this study gender is consider a control variable. Gender is researched accordingly to male and female age groups. The gender of the varies groupings are female participant's that are 18 to 35 and female participants that are 35 to retirement. The study also considers males that are 18 to 35 and male participants that are 35 to retirement.

## **Chapter 4 Results**

### **4.1 Introduction**

The objective of this chapter is to present and discuss the results. The arrangement of obtaining the results is located in the statistical syntax. First in the series of discussions are the initial descriptive statistics, which entailed measures of central tendency and variability. Second in the discussion is the central tendency and variability data, calculated and reported for the continuous interest of this study. Frequency tables were constructed from the descriptive statistics, central tendencies, and variabilities. Third, after the frequency tables were created, tests of normality were conducted by measuring Kurtosis and Skewness. Bootstrapping was used to further explore the data found in Kurtosis and Skewness results. Fourth, after attempting to normalize the data, the Johnson Family of Transformations was used to find the best method of normalizing the nonnormalities. Fifth, analyses of internal consistency reliability were completed using Cronbach Alpha. Sixth, Pearson Linear Regression was used to measure the relationships of the variables. Seventh, after the relationships of the variables were established, Multiple Regressions were performed to estimate the dependent values within the hypotheses. Eighth, thereafter, Confirmatory Factor Analysis was used to verify that the scales were working well with the data. Ninth, because the sample size in this study did not exceed 300 participants and did not allow for latent variables, Structural Equation Model was used to create an estimated path. Finally, as a point, a result summary was constructed to give a brief statement of the main points of this examination.



## **4.2 Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics were conducted first within this study to examine the data. The respondents' demographics and relevant scales were included in the analyses. Table 6 presents the frequencies and percentages of the responses associated with the participants' age and gender. In terms of age, 57% of respondents were under 35, while 43% were over 35. Regarding gender, 51% were males and 49% females. Additionally, scale items were placed in frequency tables for examination.

[Insert Table 6 about here]

### **4.2.1 Descriptive Central Tendency, Variability, and Shape**

The measures of central tendency and variability associated with the research are included in this section (Table 7). Statistical components of central tendency determine the mean, median, and mode. The components of variability regulate standard deviation, range, minimum, and maximum scores, whereas shape decide skewness, and kurtosis. These features are also used to measure normal distribution and bootstrapping.

Initially, when comparing the mean and median scores, the results indicate a high degree of correspondence between the two. In terms of the measurements of the scales, this suggests the lack of substantial skewness. Due to the similarities between the mean and median, the mean will be the point of focus. Absenteeism was found to have the lowest mean of 1.80 and Strength, the highest mean of 3.13. Therefore, the overall mean values were found to be between 2 and 3. Regarding standard deviation, the results indicated a high degree of variability concerning Absenteeism at 1.62, Turnover at 1.36, and Informal Norms at 1.33. Standard deviations were

found to be smaller in Affective Commitment .48, Adaptability .53, and Strength .53, indicating less variability in responses. A review of the minimum and maximum scores was also observed. Absenteeism had the largest range of 6.00, and Affective Commitment the smallest range of 1.50.

[Insert Table 7 about here]

The measures of mean, standard deviation, and bivariate pairwise correlations of control, independent, and dependent are included in this section (Table 8). These features are used to measure the correlations of the variables. Sex was found to have correlations with Age, Informal Norms, and Turnover, whereas associations of Adaptability, Goals, Informal Norms, Turnover and Affective Commitment was found with Age. Turnover was highly associated with Control Policies and Absenteeism was correlated with Goals.

[Insert Table 8 about here]

#### **4.2.1 Normality**

The measures of skewness and kurtosis were used to test for normality. Regarding skewness, the standard error was found to be .20, while the kurtosis standard error was .39. Once the skewness and kurtosis were divided by standard errors, there were indications that there were standard measures of skewness and kurtosis found in several cases. This is compelling because earlier, the comparison of the mean and median values also indicated some non-normality. To further explore the skewness and kurtosis findings, Bootstrapping was used in Stata and confirmed the presence of non-normality.

Histograms were constructed due to non-normality to present a visual illustration (See Appendix A). As with the previous findings with skewness and kurtosis, the histograms suggest a lack of normality. Hence, reverse coding and Johnson's Family of Transformation was applied to the data in syntax. Consequently, the outcome measures were transformed into a more normalized distribution. These modified normalized distribution measures were later used in both Pearson's correlation coefficient and OLS regression.

[Insert Appendix A about here]

#### **4.2.2 Reliability**

To test for acceptable levels of internal consistency reliability, Cronbach's alpha was used. Cronbach's alpha analyses found varying levels of reliability. For example, Adaptability was found to have a Cronbach's alpha of .347 and Goals, a Cronbach's alpha of .502. The relative alpha for Informal Norms was .286, for Affective Commitment .449, for Absenteeism .692, and for Turnover, .551. Strength and Control Policies were found to have a negative average interitem covariance. Overall, these results suggest acceptable reliability concerning Absenteeism.

The findings within the internal consistency reliability test of Cronbach Alpha scores were improved after the Confirmatory Factor Analysis were performed. These improved scores are documented in the 4.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis section, where rouge questions were removed after the analysis of path estimates, magnitude of standardized regression weights, chi-square, CFI, TFI, and RMSEA. Once the data analytics were revised all tested variables, except Absenteeism received positive or slightly positive scores of  $< .600$  of the reliability threshold.

[Insert Table 9 about here]

### **4.3 OLS Linear Regression**

#### **4.3.1 Linear Regression Dependent Variables**

Pearson correlations and the Johnson family of transformation were used to analyze the dependent variables to determine significant levels of correlation. These dependent variables are Affective Commitment, Absenteeism, and Turnover. The results found correlations between Affective Commitment and Absenteeism statistically significant at the .05 alpha level and those between Affective Commitment and Turnover approaching zero, and not significant;  $r(148) = -.046$ ,  $p = .574$ ; Absenteeism,  $r(148) = .019$ ,  $p = .821$ . The correlation between Affective Commitment and Absenteeism was found to approach statistical significance and was significant at the .10 alpha level,  $r(148) = .140$ ,  $p = .089$ . This positive correlation indicated that higher values of Affective Commitment were associated with higher values of Absenteeism.

#### **4.3.2 Linear Regression Control Variables**

Once correlations between the three dependent variables were completed, linear regression of the control variables were conducted. A linear regression model is used to determine whether the proposed control measures of respondents' age and sex were significantly associated. If significant associations were found, these findings were included as measures of control in the multiple regression analyses.

The testing of controls within the linear regression is found in Table 10. To this point, respondent age was found to be significantly associated with Affective Commitment. Respondents

below 35 years had predicted higher values on Affective Commitment compared to respondents over 35. Respondents' sex was significantly associated with Turnover. Female participants had higher predicted values on Turnover compared to males.

The first and the third models were found to achieve statistical significance. In the model conducted with Affective Commitment, the *R*-squared indicated that 4.9% of the variance in Affective Commitment was explained based on all predictors. Moreover, the *R*-squared associated with the model conducted with Turnover indicated a 6.6% variance, and this outcome was explained based on all predictors.

[Insert Table 10 about here]

### **4.3.3 Initial Linear Regressions**

The concatenation of linear regression analyses was conducted to first test this study's nine hypotheses. This initial set of analyses omitted age and gender as control measures. Secondly, each linear regression examined only one hypothesis. Thirdly, this was followed by additional multiple linear regressions that incorporated significant control measures. Lastly, Table 9 presents the results of the nine simple linear regression hypotheses analyzed.

#### ***Hypothesis 1 Result:***

*Perception of organizational culture adaptability is positively associated with affective commitment, such that when an employee perceives organizational culture as highly adaptable, she/he will report a higher level of affective commitment.*

The scale in this research used Adaptability as a predictor and Affective Commitment as the dependent variable. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 1.5%, with an Adjusted R Square value of .01. The ANOVA F-Test was 2.280, and the ANOVA Sig was 1.33<sup>b</sup>. The predictor Adaptability in Coefficient B measured -0.22, with a Std Error value of .147, -0.12 Beta, and -1.15 T-Test. The Constant measured 0.634 Coefficient B, with a Std Error of .43. The T-Test was 1.49, with a Sig value of .139. This analysis suggest that there is no significance.

***Hypothesis 2 Result:*** *Perception of organizational culture strength is negatively associated with absenteeism, such that when an employee perceives organizational culture as high in strength, she/he will report a lower proclivity toward absenteeism.*

The scale in this research used Strength as a predictor and Absenteeism as the dependent variable. The explanatory power measured R Square value as less than 1%, with an Adjusted R Square value of -0.01. The ANOVA F-Test was .00, and the ANOVA Sig was .963<sup>b</sup>. Coefficient B measured -0.01, with a Std Error of .149, -0.004 Beta, and -0.05 T-Test. The Constant has 0.04 Coefficient B, .47 Std Error, 0.07 T-Test, and a .941 Sig. This analysis suggests that there is no significance.

***Hypothesis 3 Result:*** *Perception of organizational culture as achieving goals is negatively associated with turnover, such that when an employee perceives organizational goals as explicit (i.e., high in clarity) she/he will report a lower proclivity toward turnover.*

The scale in this research used Goals as a predictor and Turnover as the dependent variable. The explanatory power measured R Square value as less than 1%, with an Adjusted R Square value of -0.00. The ANOVA F-Test was .71, and the ANOVA Sig was .401<sup>b</sup>. The Coefficient B

measured .109, .130 Std Error, .07 Beta, and .842. Coefficient B measured -0.29, .40 Std Error, -0.74 T-Test, and a .463 Sig value. This analysis suggests that there is no significance.

***Hypothesis 4 Result:*** *Alignment of informal norms and social environments as flexible and responsive (to changing conditions) is positively associated with affective commitment.*

The scale in this research uses Informal Norms and Social Environments as predictors. Affective Commitment is used as the dependent variable. The explanatory power measured R Square value as less than 1% with an Adjusted R Square value of -0.01. The ANOVA F-Test was .12 and the ANOVA Sig was .730<sup>b</sup>. The Coefficient B measured .02, .06 Std Error, .03 Beta, and .346 T-Test. The Constant has -0.05 Coefficient B, .16 Std Error, -0.29 T-Test, and .769 Sig. This analysis suggests that there is no significance.

***Hypothesis 5 Result:*** *Alignment of informal norms and social environments in the workplace is negatively associated with absenteeism.*

The scale in this research uses Informal Norms and Social Environments as predictors. Absenteeism is used as the dependent variable. The explanatory power measured R Square value as less than 1%, with an Adjusted R Square value of -0.01. The ANOVA F-Test was .10, and the ANOVA Sig was .823<sup>b</sup>. The Coefficient B measured .01, .06 Std Error, .02 Beta, and .224 T-Test. The Constant has -0.02 Coefficient B, .16 Std Error, -0.11 T-Test, and .91 Sig. This analysis suggests that there is no significance.

***Hypothesis 6 Result:*** *Alignment of informal norms and social environments in the workplace is negatively associated with turnover.*

The scale in this research uses Informal Norms and Social Environments as predictors. Turnover is used as the dependent variable. The explanatory power measured R Square value as less than 1%, with an Adjusted R Square value of -0.01. The ANOVA F-Test was .21, and ANOVA Sig was .648<sup>b</sup>. The Coefficient B measured -.03, .06 Std Error, .04 Beta, and .46 T-Test. The Constant has -0.02 Coefficient B, .15 Std, -0.16 T-Test, and .872 Sig value. This analysis suggests that there is no significance.

***Hypothesis 7 Result:*** *Contentment with control policies in the workplace is positively associated with affective commitment.*

The scale in this research used Control Policies as predictors and Affective Commitment as the dependent variable. The explanatory power measured R Square value is less than 1% with an Adjusted R Square value of 0.00. The ANOVA F-Test was 1.474, and ANOVA Sig was .227<sup>b</sup>. The Coefficient B measured -.16, .13 Std Error, -0.10 Beta, and -1.21 T-Test. The Constant has .44 Coefficient B, .39 Std Error, 1.14 T-Test, and .26 Sig. This analysis suggests that there is no significance.

***Hypothesis 8 Result:*** *Contentment with control policies as valuable resources is negatively associated with absenteeism.*

The scale in this research used Control Policies as predictors and Absenteeism as the dependent variable. The explanatory power measured R Square value as less than 1%, with an Adjusted R Square value of -0.01. The ANOVA F-Test was .10. and the ANOVA Sig was .757<sup>b</sup>. The Coefficient B measured .04, .13 Std Error, -0.03 Beta, and .31 T-Test. The Constant has -.11



Coefficient B, .40 Std Error, -0.27 T-Test, and .79 Sig. This analysis suggests that there is no significance.

***Hypothesis 9 Result:*** *Contentment with control policies as valuable resources is negatively associated with turnover.*

The scale in this research used Control Policies as predictors and Turnover as the dependent variable. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 4%, with an Adjusted R Square value of 0.03. The ANOVA F-Test was 5.95, and the ANOVA Sig was .016<sup>b</sup>. The Coefficient B measured .296, .12 Std Error, 1.97 Beta, 2.44 T-Test. The Constant -.83 Coefficient B measured, .37 Std Error, -2.29 T-Test, and .03 Sig. This analysis contends that there is significance at the <.05 standard, so much so that contentment with control policies in the workplace is associated with turnover outcomes.

In closing, the results argue that H9 is the only hypothesis on the significant standard level of 0.05 in the initial regression model (Table 11). This contends that when measured as a predictor, Control Policies determine employee contentment which influence Turnover as a behavioral outcome. From this stance, when employees consider Control Policies as a valuable resource that attempts to enable unilateral conformance, turnover is decreased because of employee alignment.

[Insert Table 11 about here]

#### **4.3.4 Multiple Linear Regressions**

Multiple regression analyses for this research were conducted for the benefit of determining the effect of each significant hypothesis on the linear regressions, and also remeasure the hypotheses with two or more explanatory variables to predict the outcome variable. Each

independent variable in the model was held constant, and parsimony improved in the hypotheses, compared to the earlier Linear models, whereas the non-significant hypotheses remained unsupported by the data. The initial linear regression model arguably suffered from lower statistical power due to the non-inclusion of multiple predictors in each Coefficient. Hence, both the simpler regression models and the larger multiple regression models are presented in this research.

This examination found four supported hypotheses (H1, H3, H6, and H9), while analyzing all nine multiple linear regressions. The significant dependent variables that were supported in the regression were Affective Commitment and Turnover. Based on the proposed hypotheses, it was posited that Adaptability, Informal Norms, and Control Policies are slightly significant or associated with the outcome of Affective Commitment, also Strength, Informal Norms, and Control Policies are significantly associated with Absenteeism, while Goals, Informal Norms, and Control Policies are significantly associated with Turnover. These relationships were tested in the multiple regression models and included the control measures of age and sex.

[Insert Table 12 about here]

Lastly, in Table 12, statistical significance was indicated concerning the dependent variables Affective Commitment and Turnover. In the Affective Commitment model, age and sex were found slightly significant with Adaptability. In the Turnover model, the effects of Control Policies and respondent sex were found to be significant. The results in Table 12 contends that female employees were found to have a predicted value on Turnover that was .400 units higher than males. Age was found to approach significance in the model with Affective Commitment, indicating that respondents aged 35 and below were more committed to the organization.

The features within Table 13 includes 5 models that are used to analyzed H1, H4, and H7 in an attempt to predict Affective Commitment.

[Insert Table 13 about here]

***Hypothesis 1 Result:***

*Perception of organizational culture adaptability is positively associated with affective commitment, such that when an employee perceives organizational culture as highly adaptable, she/he will report a higher level of affective commitment.*

In Table 13, Model 1 used Sex and Age as a predictor for Affective Commitment. The Coefficient B measured .31, and the Std. Error value was .17. The Constant has .03 Coefficient B, and .11 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 5%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 3.75. Model 2 used Sex, Age, and Adaptability as a predictor for Affective Commitment. The Coefficient B of Sex measured .31, and the Std. Error value was .17; Age -0.46 Coefficient B, .17 Std. Error; Adaptability .22 Coefficient B, and .14 Std. Error. The Constant has -0.63 Coefficient B, and .42 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 7%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 3.91.

The results of this study revealed that Model 1 and Model 2 was significant at the  $p < 0.05$  standard. More germane to this research, the data suggest that Sex, Age, and Adaptability influence Affective Commitment. So much so that participants under 35 (Age) have more increased levels of Affective Commitment compared to those over 35 (Age), and when male (Sex)

participants under 35 perceive organizational culture as highly adaptable, they are more than likely to report a higher level of affective commitment, compared to female participants.

***Hypothesis 4 Result:*** *Alignment of informal norms and social environments as flexible and responsive (to changing conditions) is positively associated with affective commitment.*

Model 3 used Informal Norms, Sex, and Age as predictors for Affective Commitment. The Coefficient B of Informal Norms measured .045, and the Std. Error value was .05; Sex 0.15 Coefficient B, and .09 Std. Error; Age -0.24 Coefficient B, and .09 Std. Error. The Constant has -2.82 Coefficient B, and 0.09 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 7%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 2.79. The data results in this analysis argues that there is no significance of the  $p < 0.05$  level, so much so that the alignment of informal norms and social environments as flexible and responsive to changing conditions is not automatically associated with affective commitment outcomes.

***Hypothesis 7 Result:*** *Contentment with control policies in the workplace is positively associated with affective commitment.*

Model 4 used Control Policies, Sex, and Age as predictors for Affective Commitment. The Coefficient B of Control Policies measured -0.16, and the Std. Error value was .12; Sex 0.30 Coefficient B, and .17 Std. Error; Age -0.43 Coefficient B, and .16 Std. Error. The Constant has -0.44 Coefficient B, and 0.38 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 1%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 1.48. This is an indicator that there are no positive correlations, so much so that contentment with control policies in the workplace is not associated with affective commitment at the  $p < 0.05$  level.

Lastly, Model 5 used Adaptability, Informal Norms, and Control Policies as predictors influencing Affective Commitment. Coefficient B of Adaptability measured 0.15, and the Std. Error value was .15; Coefficient B of Informal Norms measured 0.08, and the Std. Error value was .05; Coefficient B of Control Policies measured -0.15, and the Std. Error value was .13; Sex 0.31 Coefficient B, and .17 Std. Error; Age -0.30 Coefficient B, and .16 Std. Error. The Constant has -0.09 Coefficient B, and 0.61 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 6%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 2.08. Within Model 5 there were no indications of significance of the  $p < 0.05$  standard.

The features within Table 14 includes 5 models that are used to analyzed H2, H5, and H8 in an attempt to predict Absenteeism.

[Insert Table 14 about here]

***Hypothesis 2 Result:*** *Perception of organizational culture strength is negatively associated with absenteeism, such that when an employee perceives organizational culture as high in strength, she/he will report a lower proclivity toward absenteeism.*

In Table 14, Model 1 used Sex and Age as a predictor for Absenteeism. The Coefficient B measured .16, and the Std. Error value was .17. The Constant has .07 Coefficient B, and .11 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 2%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 1.57. Model 2 used Sex, Age, and Strength as a predictor for Absenteeism. The Coefficient B of Sex measured .15, and the Std. Error value was .18; Age -0.33 Coefficient B, .18 Std. Error; Strength -.03 Coefficient B, and .15 Std. Error. The Constant has 0.19 Coefficient B, and .51 Std.

Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 2%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 1.06. This is an indicator of a negative correlation, so much so that when the perception of organizational culture is high in strength, it does not necessarily or as an automatic consequence lower the proclivity towards absenteeism outcomes in organizations.

***Hypothesis 5 Result:*** *Alignment of informal norms and social environments in the workplace is negatively associated with absenteeism.*

Model 3 used Informal Norms, Sex, and Age as predictors for Absenteeism. The Coefficient B of Informal Norms measured .03, and the Std. Error value was .17; Sex 0.15 Coefficient B, and .18 Std. Error; Age -0.33 Coefficient B, and .18 Std. Error. The Constant has -0.01 Coefficient B, and 0.40 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 2%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 1.12. This argues that there are no positive correlations at the  $p<.05$  level, so much so that the alignment of informal norms and social environments in the workplace is not negatively associated with absenteeism outcomes.

***Hypothesis 8 Result:*** *Contentment with control policies as valuable resources is negatively associated with absenteeism.*

Model 4 used Control Policies, Sex, and Age as predictors for Absenteeism. The Coefficient B of Control Policies measured 0.03, and the Std. Error value was .13; Sex 0.15 Coefficient B, and .18 Std. Error; Age -0.33 Coefficient B, and .18 Std. Error. The Constant has 0.00 Coefficient B, and 0.17 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 52%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 1.12. This is an indicator that there are no positive correlations, so much so that contentment with control policies in the workplace is not associated with absenteeism outcomes at the  $p<0.05$  level.

Lastly, Model 5 used Strength, Informal Norms, and Control Policies as predictors influencing Absenteeism. Coefficient B of Strength measured -0.04, and the Std. Error value was .15; Coefficient B of Informal Norms measured 0.03, and the Std. Error value was .08; Coefficient B of Control Policies measured 0.03, and the Std. Error value was .14; Sex 0.14 Coefficient B, and .18 Std. Error; Age -0.33 Coefficient B, and .18 Std. Error. The Constant has 0.04 Coefficient B, and 0.63 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 2%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 0.69. Within Model 5 there were no indications of significance of the  $p < 0.05$  standard.

The features within Table 15 includes 5 models that are used to analyzed H3, H6, and H9 in an attempt to predict Turnover.

[Insert Table 15 about here]

***Hypothesis 3 Result:*** *Perception of organizational culture as achieving goals is negatively associated with turnover, such that when an employee perceives organizational goals as explicit (i.e., high in clarity) she/he will report a lower proclivity toward turnover.*

In Table 15, Model 1 used Sex and Age as a predictor for Turnover. The Coefficient B measured .45, and the Std. Error value was .14 for Sex. The Coefficient B measured .04, and the Std. Error value was .16 for Age. The Constant has -0.19 Coefficient B, and .10 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 6%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 5.18. Model 2 used Sex, Age, and Goals as a predictor for Turnover. The Coefficient B of Sex measured .44, and the Std. Error value was .16; Age 0.02 Coefficient B, .17 Std. Error; Goals .07 Coefficient B, and .13 Std. Error. The Constant has -0.39 Coefficient B, and .40 Std. Error. The explanatory

power measured R Square value as 6%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 5.33. This suggests that when Sex and Age are used as control values the explanatory value of R Square increases and also the effect of ANOVA F assess the equality of means since three of more variable groups are being measured. Therefore, this study suggests that when Sex and Age is added as a control measure, perception of organizational culture as achieving explicit Goals will lower the proclivity toward the dependent variable Turnover.

***Hypothesis 6 Result:*** *Alignment of informal norms and social environments in the workplace is negatively associated with turnover.*

Model 3 used Informal Norms, Sex, and Age as predictors for Turnover. The Coefficient B of Informal Norms measured -.01, and the Std. Error value was .06; Sex 0.45 Coefficient B, and .14 Std. Error; Age 0.05 Coefficient B, and .17 Std. Error. The Constant has -0.18 Coefficient B, and 0.16 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 7%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 5.16. This suggests that when Sex and Age are used as control values the explanatory value of R Square increases and also the effect of ANOVA F assess the equality of means since three of more variable groups are being measured. Therefore, this study contends that the alignment of Informal norms and social environments in the workplace is negatively associated with Turnover when Sex and Age are included in the model.

***Hypothesis 9 Result:*** *Contentment with control policies as valuable resources is negatively associated with turnover.*

Model 4 used Control Policies, Sex, and Age as predictors for Turnover. The Coefficient B of Control Policies measured 0.24, and the Std. Error value was .12; Sex 0.38 Coefficient B, and



.16 Std. Error; Age 0.06 Coefficient B, and .16 Std. Error. The Constant has -0.88 Coefficient B, and 0.36 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 9%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 4.85. This is an indicator that argues for strong significance, so much so that contentment with control policies in the workplace is associated with Sex, Age, and Turnover.

Lastly, Model 5 used Goals, Informal Norms, and Control Policies as predictors influencing Turnover. Coefficient B of Goals measured 0.08, and the Std. Error value was .13; Coefficient B of Informal Norms measured -0.01, and the Std. Error value was .06; Coefficient B of Control Policies measured 0.24, and the Std. Error value was .12; Sex 0.38 Coefficient B, and .16 Std. Error; Age 0.03 Coefficient B, and .17 Std. Error. The Constant has -1.10 Coefficient B, and 0.55 Std. Error. The explanatory power measured R Square value as 9%, with an ANOVA F-Test of 2.96. Within Model 5 there were no indications of significance of the  $p < 0.05$  standard.

In closing, the results contend that there are four hypotheses on the significant standard level of  $p < 0.05$  (H1, H3, H6, and H9). This study suggests that when measured as control variables Sex and Age, influences Adaptability and Affective Commitment, Goals and Turnover, Informal Norms and Turnover, and Control Policies and Turnover.

#### **4.4 Confirmatory Factor Analyses**

To determine whether the factor structures associated with these scales adequately fit the hypothesized model, Confirmatory Factor Analyses were conducted. Developing from this perspective, each scale group had a completely separate Confirmatory Factor Analysis that examined the significance of the path estimates being significant at the .05 alpha level, magnitude of the standardized regression weights at .30 or above, and measures of model fit indicating chi-square below 5, CFI .90 or above, TFI .90 or above, and as RMSEA below .10. Collectively, these

measures examined the proposed research hypotheses by performing four Confirmatory Factor Analyses. The first analysis consisted of three variables (Adaptability, Strength, and Goals), the second included Affective Commitment and Control Policy the third analyzed Informal Norms, while the fourth studied Control Policies.

Relating to Adaptability, Strength, and Goals, all estimated paths were statistically significant at the .05 alpha level. On the other hand, the standardized regression weights were found to vary greatly concerning their magnitudes. In the case of Adaptability, the value estimates were lower than .30 in the cases of 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, and 5<sup>th</sup> questions. In the case of Strength, the value estimates were below .30 in the case of the 9<sup>th</sup> question, and in the case of Goals, the value estimates were below .30 in the 12<sup>th</sup>, 16<sup>th</sup>, and 17<sup>th</sup> questions. In addition, while the majority of the Adaptability and Strength standardized regression weights were positive the regression weights associated with the 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup>, 10<sup>th</sup>, and 11<sup>th</sup> questions were negative. This points to a reduced lack of coherence with regard to the scales measuring Adaptability, Strength, and their associated items. Regarding model fit, Adaptability and Strength had a normed chi-square of 4.884, with a TLI of .504, a CFI of .624, and an RMSEA of .087,  $p < .001$ , with a 90% confidence interval ranging from .080 to .094. Overall, these results suggest adequate model fit and appropriate factor structures.

Second, regarding Confirmatory Factor Analysis conducted on Affective Commitment, all estimated paths achieved statistically significant at the .001 alpha level. All standardized regression weights were positive and above .30, except the standardized regression weights of questions 35 and 37 were found to be negative, with an absolute value below .30. Interestingly, measures of model fit were not fitted to the data of at least one group. Therefore, the measures of model fit were not reported. Overall, these results suggest an appropriate factor structure and

adequate model fit for Affective Commitment, while also arguing the potential for removing questions 35 and 37 in future research.

Third, concerning Control Policy, Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted. The estimated paths found only two questions-26 and 29- with statistical significance. The significance levels for these questions were at the .001 alpha level. Relating to the standardized regression weights, only two questions of the six items, 24 and 26, were found to have standardized regression weights with absolute values above .30. Similar to the previous model, the saturated model was not fitted to the data and hence measures of model fit were not calculated. The results suggest room for improvement concerning Control Policy, fit, and the factor structure.

Fourth, Confirmatory Factor Analysis was performed on Informal norms. Three of the estimated paths for Informal norms, viz., questions were 20, 21, and 22, were found to achieve a statistical significance of .001 alpha level. This is interesting because, except for questions 19 and 23, the standardized regression weights were found to be above .30. Once examined, this model was found to have a normed chi-square of 22.284, along with a TLI of -.631, a CFI of .301, and RMSEA of .203,  $p < .001$ , with a 90% confidence interval ranging from .179 to .228. These results suggest room for improvement concerning Informal norm model fit and the factor structures.

Table 16 was used to support the revision of the low Cronbach Scores in the reliability Section 4.2.2. The findings on the reliability test of Cronbach Alpha scores were improved after the Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Once the data analytics were revised all tested variables received positive or slightly positive scores of  $< .600$ .

[Insert Table 16 about here]

## **4.6 Structural Equation Model**

Firstly, for testing all nine hypotheses, a structural equation model was created. The sample size in this study was not large enough to permit latent variables; however, it did achieve a higher degree of parsimony than was present in the regression analyses, mainly because it permitted the testing of hypothesized paths in the context of a single model.

Secondly, greater significance was found in the estimated path of H1 (Adaptability and Affective Commitment), H3 (Goals and Turnover), H6 (Informal Norms and Turnover), and H9 (Control Policies and Turnover). Significance level was found in all 4 Hypotheses between control values of Age, and Sex. In terms of Age, the data revealed a one-unit increase in Control Policy associated with a .243 unit increase in Turnover. Even more interesting is that Sex (female) had a predicted value on Turnover that was .400 units higher than Goals and Control Policies. The relationship between Adaptability and Affective Commitment was found to approach statistical significance at the .10 alpha level, with the inclusion of one unit increase in Adaptability associated with a .230 unit increase in Affective Commitment.

In closing, a good model fit was suggested based on the normed chi-square as well as the RMSEA; however, the measures of TLI and CFI did not indicate an acceptable model fit. To this point, a TLI of -.699 was found, along with a CFI of .018. Even so, a normed chi-square of 1.869 was indicated, along with an RMSEA of .041,  $p = .785$ , with the 90% confidence interval ranging from .022 to .059. These findings confirmed what was presented in the previous models -that Adaptability is positively associated with Affective Commitment, achieving Goals is negatively associated with Turnover, Informal norms are negatively associated with Turnover, and contentment of Control Policies is similarly negatively associated with Turnover.

[Insert Appendix B about here]

## **4.7 Summary**

The analysis for this study found varying results directly related to the internal consistency of reliability within scales. This is also relevant when it comes to the completed confirmatory factor analyses. Overall, in terms of the scales, potential improvement or replacement is suggested for future research, in the interest of achieving a higher level of internal consistency of reliability. Not only was the main purpose of using confirmatory factor analysis to support the usage of the scales on the data set, but also because the current scales should ameliorate a higher degree of correspondence between the factor structure, the data, and a more appropriate factor structure as well.

The linear regression analysis found significance regarding the effects of the control measures of Age and Sex. Adaptability and Affective Commitment, Goals and Turnover, Informal Norms and Turnover, and Control Policies and Turnover were found significant in the linear regression models, Conformity Factor Analysis, and Structural Model Equation. The following chapter will discuss these results vis-a-vis previous literature and theory, research contributions, managerial implications, and as well as the limitations of the present study.

## **Chapter 5 Discussion and Conclusions**

Labor disruptions are found at high levels in critical US manufacturing industries, and as a sample model, I selected poultry processing for my research. Within the food industry, poultry processing is one of the most prosperous sectors, mainly because poultry is highly nutritious, contains taste utility, and product variation, and is also highly immune to economic conditions. Due to its elaborateness, poultry is a complex industry that encompasses biology, chemistry, engineering, marketing, and economics, but it is also simple, with continuous goals such as the production of human food, waste management, and food safety.

Given the labor disruptions in critical US manufacturing industries associated with decreased levels of affective commitment, disproportionately heightened levels of absenteeism, and inflated turnover rates that contribute to the advancement of substandard labor disruptions, I became intrigued about why these very important labor constraints have not been ameliorated. This is especially significant because historically, compared to other industries, US manufacturers have the highest labor disruption rates, and increased labor disruption rates have a direct negative influence on organizational profitability. Continued labor disruptions in the contemporary manufacturing industries are puzzling because so much interest has been focused on the earliest rounds of Taylorization (scientific management), Gilbrethian (time and motion) to the current paradigm of the viral infection commonly known as COVID-19 (the novel strain of the highly contagious coronavirus SARS-CoV-2). To this point, stemming from ongoing unresolved labor interruptions, I became interested in analyzing, discovering, describing, and understanding labor disruptions that chronically plague critical US manufacturing organizations.

Hence, for drawing a scholarly response to labor disruptions in organizations, I used the theoretical approach of attitudinal and operant outcomes found in the Affective Events Theory.

This theory suggests that cognitive experiences through social interactions within an organization can impact behaviors, emotions, judgment, and moods at the workplace, to the point that workplace experiences may result in attitudinal constructs and affective states. These affective emotional states determine emotions, which subsequently influence affective commitment. The affective events theory argues that affective emotional states and commitment levels produce behavioral outcomes. Behavioral outcomes are reactionary operant variables such as absenteeism and turnover. From this approach, implied importance was developed to explore employee nonalignment with the workplace culture that influences labor disruptions.

To fully examine labor disruptions, I used organizational culture, informal norms, and control policies as predictors. First, organizational culture was selected as a predictor because organizations are considered to be the building blocks of societies and the main vehicle that drives collective actions in the workplace. In fact, organizational culture examines the beliefs, values, norms, philosophies, and hidden assumptions shared between organizational members in the workplace. Second, I used informal norms because they describe actions or rituals not defined by organizational charts, the position of power, or formal written rules. As a matter of fact, informal norms indicate that people and jobs are arranged with or without formal written rules and in certain environments, informal norms have advantages over formal norms because of their ability to develop flexibility and responsiveness to changing conditions. Lastly, I used control policies because these are written rules that attempt to invoke unilateral labor performance towards conformance to basic achievements of the corporate cultures and goals. From this stance, control policies are very intriguing because of how these procedures influence the workplace. Overall, these predictors were selected as independent variables because of their ubiquitous nature and their ongoing dynamics that influence labor disruptions in the workplace.

## **5.2 Theoretical Contributions**

It appears that current literature sufficiently examines organizational culture, informal norms, and control policies separately. However, there is a gap in the literature that in a meaningful way investigates their collective influences on affective and behavioral outcomes. So, the primary purpose of this research was to study the correlations between organizational culture, informal norms, control policies, and the resulting influence they have on affective commitment, absenteeism, and turnover.

First, in terms of theoretical contribution, this study contributes by arguing that when organizations have cultures perceived as adaptable, it results in a positive influence on affective commitment, so much so that employees are more than likely to develop attachment, identification, or involvement with the organization if their customs and shared expectations are considered adaptable. Second, this research contributes to the current literature by contending that when organizations are perceived as achieving explicit goals, it will lower proclivity towards turnover. So, when employees are given detailed instructions that are interpreted as clear and precise, it provides clear directions to how goals are completed, thus reducing frustrations within employees. Third, this examination contributes to current research by arguing that employee alignment of informal norms will have a negative impact on turnover. So, when employees adapt the informal norms of their workplace social environment it will provide influence that will reduce turnover. Fourth, this examination contributes to current research by arguing that employee alignment with control policies will have a negative impact on turnover. So, much so that when employees are content with control policies and perceive them as valuable resources there is a reduction in turnover.



In terms of theoretical contribution and empirical data, this study examines rural poultry processor plants located in various regions of the United States. Collectively, these plants employ approximately 2,500 full-time hourly employees and during two years, data for this study was collected onsite at the poultry plants. Self-administered surveys were used for data collection, which captured specific details regarding organizational culture, informal norms, control policies, affective commitment, absenteeism, and turnover. Empirically speaking, this examination advances current affective events theories through scientific methodological observations and experimentation of proving or disproving labor disruptions within critical US manufacturing industries.

Finally, this examination advances existing theory with logic by contending that when Sex is applied as a control variable with explicit Goals and Control Policies, the outcome of Turnover is dramatically increased in female participants, compared to the male participants. Furthermore, the results of this research argues that Sex was found to have positive correlations with Informal Norms, and Turnover, whereas Age was found significant in Adaptability, Goals, Informal Norms, Turnover, and Affective Commitment. Turnover was highly associated with Control Policies and Absenteeism was correlated with Goals. With this in mind, this research theorizes and contributes to current literature by positing that when it comes to labor disruptions of Affective Commitment, Absenteeism, and Turnover the predictors of Sex, Age, Informal Norms, Adaptability, and Goals, influence these outcome variables.

### **5.3 Managerial Implications**

Compared to previous literature, the findings of this study have several implications for managers. These results compare standards by indicating the action, if any, to be taken as a

response. The managerial implications in this section provide details for leadership inference relating to the perception of workplace culture adaptability, the perception of explicit goals within workplace culture to decrease turnover, the importance of control policies that influence turnover, and the need for diversity in the workplace to create long-term employee retention. Overall, this managerial implication section summarizes what the results mean in terms of action in practice.

Often, organizations create mission statements and corporate visions to highlight organizational values. These acclamations of confirmations are intended to communicate organizational objectives to employees and the general public. These objectives are cultivated into agendas that provide purpose, contemporaneous goals, future actions, and workplace culture. From this stance, workplace cultures are practices and norms of organizations that determine their overall success. Even though workplace culture is one of the most critical features of an organization, sometimes these customs are forgotten and fade into the background and we are submerged in them without recognizing the embrace of an organization's standard or informal norm.

Therefore, the first managerial implication is the concept of revitalizing adaptable workplace culture into something that is relevant, coachable, and so intriguing that it is rememberable. The premise of adaptable workplace culture should be one of flexibility towards changing conditions so that employees can engage in connectivity that will lead to alignment with the organizational culture and informal norms. The results of this study reveal that when organizational culture adaptability is perceived as resourceful, flexible, and valuable, employees are more passionate about connecting to informal norms and practices at the workplace. This connection extends to high levels of affective commitment. Therefore, managers must ensure

that workplace cultures are elastic enough to change into a helpful resource for employees but yet strong enough to retain their original purpose. For example, an organization may have practices where holidays are celebrated through social gatherings. The purpose of the social gathering during the holidays was to build team camaraderie and networking. However, due to COVID-19 social distancing requirements, in-person holiday celebrations were canceled, which could make employees feel disconnected. So, the adaptability of the workplace culture should propose virtual celebrations as an alternative. This adjustment towards changing conditions would be a workable compromise that presents a positive perception.

The perception of workplace culture adaptability is salient but equally important is the perception of explicit goals in workplace culture that decrease turnover. Therefore, the second managerial implication in this examination deals with behavioral outcomes such as turnover. From this stance, turnover is reduced when an employee perceives organizational goals as explicit (i.e., high in clarity). This is noteworthy because high turnover rates in organizations decrease profitability and developing explicit goals will decrease this exposure. For example, organizations must provide employees with precise goals which are challenging but attainable. In terms of managerial practice, while goals are being accomplished clear feedback is extremely important. Feedback, and explicit expectations will lower employee proclivity toward turnover because of affective commitment.

The third managerial implication in this research contends that proclivity toward turnover decreases when contentment with control policies are perceived as valuable resources. From a practical standpoint, control policies are used as a unilateral conformance tool that expresses workplace expectations. So, when policies intended to align employee behaviors with current missions are successful, there is a reduction in turnover, mainly because employees feel

supported by the organizational structure. From this stance, organizational structure comprises the set of rules and standards that delineate or control what employees do. For example, there are many organizations with ethical policies, which are used to provide an agreement for moral principles. Ethics and morality are debatable because the principles concerning the distinction between right and wrong, or good and bad behavior can vary from person to person. So, to secure a mutual understanding of right or wrong behaviors, organizations develop ethical policies to remove misunderstandings. The implications of this research suggest that managers should learn current organizational control policies so that decisions are not based on personal biases or wrong interpretations because the proper usage of control policies will nurture employee contentment and reduce turnover.

To conclude, this fourth implication completely reinforces the need for diversity in the workplace to create long-term employee retention. Diversity in the workplace covers different variables such as religion, culture, language, educational background, gender, and age. More specific to the diversity findings of this study, employers should recruit employees under the age of 35, because when analyzed there are increased levels of affective commitment compared to employees over 35. Another interesting finding of this research is the need for diversity among poultry processing workers through the inclusion of female workers. The results posit that female workers are more likely to leave the organization. In terms of managerial implications, leaders should center activities on recruiting female employees for key roles in the poultry plant, and also focus on the development of female employee retention programs. This research suggest that female participants are more likely to leave the organizations. If turnover rates were reduced in female employees; organizations would increase long-term employment, and this diversity inclusion would give an enhanced competitiveness.

## **5.4 Limitations and Future Research**

There are several limitations to this study, mostly relating to the collected data size, and lack of empirical associations of the predictor informal norm and the dependent variables.

Although this research attempted to narrow the scope of the limitations, these areas are still not resolved. Even though the presented areas are not resolved, I have reconceptualized the limitations as intertextual examinations so that future research are intercontextual constructed.

The first limitation of this study is the size of the data collected. Though the sample size for the research was 500 participants, only 150 completed the entire questionnaire series, and the study actively examined only totally completed surveys. The return rate of the collection was less than 30%, however, previous research examined data sets that included higher participation with a return rate close to 50%. Regarding the respondents' age and gender, 57% of participants were under 35, while around 43% were over 35; 51% of the sample was male and 49% female. The frequency of responses may have presented a different outcome if the gender and age control variables were closer to an even split of 50% across the entire sample or had the surveys been completed in regions that included a different distribution of age and gender. Also the scales used to test Informal Norms and Absenteeism were not a good adequate fit for the model.

Lastly, the limitation of this study also includes informal norms and its influence on affective and behavioral outcomes. This is interesting because previous literature has concluded that employees are impacted by social environmental variables but informal norms in this research acting as a predictor, does not support the previous findings as a social environmental affect, but this research suggest that labor disruptions within informal norms are individualized. In everyday managerial practice the correlations appear very strong, but within this study, informal norms influence on labor disruptions remain unproven.

The recommendations for future research include using race, social class, and educational levels as control measures. It is obvious that the outcomes in this examination were heavily controlled by age and sex, but it would be also interesting to see the outcome variations when the control measures are based on race, social class, and education. Finally, even though it was not proposed in this research, future studies should examine perception of organizational culture as achieving goals and the dependent variable absenteeism. During the pairwise bivariate regression examination, I found significant associations when these variables were measured in a model.

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**Table 1**

**Poultry Industry Facts**

- United States has the largest domestic chicken industry in the world. 17% of its production was exported to other countries in 2018.
- Top five largest chicken producing states in the US are Georgia, Alabama, Arkansas, North Carolina, and Mississippi
- United States is the second largest chicken exporter in the world after Brazil.
- Top five export destinations (by volume) in 2018 were Mexico, Angola, Taiwan, Cuba, and Canada
- Top five export destinations (by value) in 2018 were Mexico, Canada, Taiwan, Angola, and Cuba
- United States consumes more chicken than any other country in the world; chicken was the number one consumed protein (93.5 per capital in 2018) in the United States.
- Vertical integration – 30 federal USDA Inspected companies are supported through the internal business of raising, processing, and marketing chickens.
- 25,000 independently owned family farmers have signed contracts with poultry companies; 95% of chickens are raised on these farms, with the remaining 5% raised on company owned farms.
- In 2018, 9 billion chickens or 56.8 million pounds were harvested, 42.1 billion pounds of chicken were marketed and measured on a ready-to-cook basis.

<http://uspoultry.org>

**Table 2**  
**US Poultry Economics**

|                                                                      |                   |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------|
|                                                                      |                   |
| Number of slaughter and evisceration plants in the US                | 180               |
| Number of workers directly employed                                  | 355,000           |
| Number of workers indirectly employed                                | 1,200,000         |
| Amount of corn used for chicken and breeder feed                     | 1,200,000 bushels |
| Amount of soybean (meal component) used for chicken and breeder feed | 500,000 bushels   |
| Amount of mixed feed used                                            | 60,000,000 tons   |
| Wholesale value of industry shipments                                | \$65,000,000,000  |
| Retail expenditures for chicken                                      | \$95,000,000,000  |

US Poultry and Egg Association (2018)

**Table 3**

**Organizational Culture Literature Review**

| Topic                               | Intraorganizational Level                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                         | Organizational                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 | Interorganizational Level                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                  |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Cognition and Interpretation</b> | <i><u>Fiol</u></i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Symbolic architectures</li> <li>• Connectionist architectures</li> <li>• Mental models and cognitive maps</li> <li>• Knowledge structures</li> <li>• Cognition and affect</li> <li>• Sensemaking</li> <li>• Automatic and controlled cognition</li> <li>• Distributed and shared cognition</li> </ul> | <i><u>Lant</u></i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Organizations as information processors</li> <li>• Scanning and search</li> <li>• Perception and interpretation</li> <li>• Organizations as enactors of environments and creators of meaning</li> <li>• Locus of organizational cognition</li> <li>• Collective cognition</li> <li>• Situated cognition</li> </ul> | <i><u>Porac et al.</u></i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Industry belief systems</li> <li>• Enactment of organizational communities</li> <li>• Product ontologies</li> <li>• Boundary beliefs and market identities</li> <li>• Industry recipes</li> <li>• Reputational rankings and status-ordering</li> </ul> |
| <b>Power and Dependence</b>         | <i><u>Brass</u></i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Exchange theory</li> <li>• Controlling critical responses</li> <li>• Potential power and using power</li> <li>• Structural sources of power</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                               | <i><u>Ocasio</u></i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Functional, structural, and institutional perspectives</li> <li>• Political coalitions</li> <li>• Structural contingences</li> <li>• Punctuated equilibrium</li> <li>• Organizational demography</li> <li>• Networks and social capital</li> </ul>                                                               | <i><u>Mizruchi &amp; Yoo</u></i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Co-optation</li> <li>• Goal displacement</li> <li>• Political economy</li> <li>• Interorganizational relationships</li> <li>• Competition and symbiosis</li> </ul>                                                                               |

|                     |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                          |
|---------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Personal sources of power</li> <li>• Behavioral sources of power</li> <li>• Group sources of power</li> <li>• Power potential and use</li> <li>• Hierarchy vs. power</li> </ul>                                                          | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Weberian, normative, and politico-cultural approaches</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                             | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Structural autonomy</li> <li>• Market constraint</li> <li>• Network centrality</li> <li>• Director interlocks</li> </ul>                                                                                        |
| <b>Networks</b>     | <u>Raider &amp; Krackhardt</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                    | <u>Gulati et al.</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                  | <u>Baker &amp; Faulkner</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
|                     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Network forms and structures</li> <li>• Network content and relations</li> <li>• Dyad</li> <li>• Ego network</li> <li>• Group networks</li> <li>• Social capital—brokerage and cohesion views</li> <li>• Gender and homophily</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strategic interdependence</li> <li>• Network embeddedness</li> <li>• Network resources and constraints</li> <li>• Network centrality</li> <li>• Network configuration</li> <li>• Partner profiles</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Organizational dyad</li> <li>• Organizational triad</li> <li>• Organizational set</li> <li>• Organizational field</li> <li>• Interorganizational embeddedness</li> <li>• Network organizational form</li> </ul> |
| <b>Institutions</b> | <u>Elsbach</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                    | <u>Palmer &amp; Biggart</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                           | <u>Baker &amp; Faulkner</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
|                     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Group identities and subcultures</li> <li>• Sensemaking</li> <li>• Mindlessness and mindful</li> <li>• Group protocols, norms, and routines</li> <li>• Group roles and composition</li> </ul>                                            | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Goal drift</li> <li>• Co-opting</li> <li>• Imprinting and structural inertia</li> <li>• Loose coupling</li> <li>• Isomorphism</li> <li>• Concept of control</li> <li>• Density dependence-</li> </ul>        | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cognitive, interactive, and authoritative bases of institutions</li> <li>• State and professions as institutional entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Naturalistic and dialectical</li> </ul>                              |

|                   |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                        |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                |
|-------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Categorization processes</li> <li>• Symbolic leadership</li> <li>• Repeated negotiation and interaction</li> <li>• Social verification</li> </ul>                                                                                                             |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• institutional theories of change</li> <li>• Performance failure and institutional rivalry, theories of institution change</li> </ul>                                                                                  |
| <b>Economics</b>  | <u>Zajac &amp; Westphal</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                            | <u>Silverman</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                     | <u>Van Witteloostuijn</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
|                   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Positive and normative agency theories</li> <li>• Incentive alignment: symbolic management and demographic similarity</li> <li>• Social influence and board of directors independence</li> <li>• Social exchange and board of directors monitoring</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Transaction cost economics</li> <li>• Governance choices: Make or buy? Make or ally?</li> <li>• Complex contracting</li> <li>• Resource-based view of the firm</li> <li>• Competence-based view of the firm</li> <li>• Diversification and performance</li> </ul>           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Industrial organization</li> <li>• Game theory</li> <li>• Perfect competition</li> <li>• Dynamic versus static efficiency</li> <li>• Bertrand and Cournot-Nash games</li> <li>• Commitment and credibility</li> </ul> |
| <b>Technology</b> | <u>Schilling</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       | <u>Tushman &amp; Smith</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                           | <u>Stuart</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                  |
|                   | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Development of new technology</li> <li>• Impact on organizational structure, management, and performance</li> </ul>                                                                                                                                           | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Technology cycles: technology discontinuities, eras of ferment, and dominant designs</li> <li>• Ambidextrous organizations</li> <li>• Organizational architecture</li> <li>• Incremental architecture and discontinuous innovation</li> <li>• Innovation streams</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Technological structure of markets</li> <li>• Technological prestige</li> <li>• Technological crowding</li> </ul>                                                                                                     |

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|-----------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Adoption of modular forms</li> <li>• Impact of information technology</li> <li>• Modular product and process</li> <li>• Interfaces and system architecture</li> <li>• Role of proximity</li> </ul>                                                                     |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Networks and structural holes</li> <li>• Inertia and evolution of technology systems</li> <li>• Technology-based competition</li> <li>• Technology spillovers</li> </ul>                                                                                               |
| <b>Learning</b> | <u>Argote &amp; Ophir</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       | <u>Schulz</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                  | <u>Ingram</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |
|                 | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Attention, interpretation, and attribution</li> <li>• Distributed expertise</li> <li>• Knowledge depreciation</li> <li>• Knowledge transfer</li> <li>• Organizational memory and routines</li> <li>• Social networks</li> <li>• Team structure and dynamics</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Organizational rules and routines</li> <li>• Performance feedback models</li> <li>• Exploration and exploitation</li> <li>• Learning under ambiguity</li> <li>• Myopia and competency traps</li> <li>• Learning communities</li> <li>• Knowledge diffusion</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Absorptive and capacity</li> <li>• Vicarious and congenital learning</li> <li>• Outcome and trait-based imitation</li> <li>• Knowledge spillovers</li> <li>• Interorganizational relationships</li> <li>• Relational capabilities</li> <li>• Learning races</li> </ul> |

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| <b>Ecology</b>   | <u>Galunic &amp; Weeks</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              | <u>Baum &amp; Amburgey</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                        | <u>Rao</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                           |
|------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Variation, selection, and retention</li> <li>• Interaction and replication processes</li> <li>• Organizational routines and comps</li> <li>• Competition between routines</li> <li>• Complementarity between routines</li> </ul>                                               | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Age and size dependence</li> <li>• Structural inertia</li> <li>• Niche width dynamics</li> <li>• Population dynamics and density dependence</li> <li>• Demography of organizational founding</li> <li>• Population-level funding</li> <li>• Complexity in population dynamics</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Commensalism and symbiosis</li> <li>• Community structure</li> <li>• Lotka-Volterra model</li> <li>• Community formation, change, and collapse</li> <li>• Community coherence and organization</li> <li>• Institutional entrepreneurs</li> <li>• Social movements</li> </ul>                |
| <b>Evolution</b> | <u>Warglien</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                         | <u>Amburgey &amp; Singh</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       | <u>Greve</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                         |
|                  | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Variation, selection, and retention</li> <li>• Organizational rules and routines</li> <li>• Organizational genetics and replicators</li> <li>• Hierarchy of evolutionary processes</li> <li>• Cultural transmission in organizations</li> <li>• Search and learning</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Strong and weak selection</li> <li>• Adaptation and selection</li> <li>• Darwinian and Lamarchkian mechanism</li> <li>• Organizational speciation and extinction</li> <li>• Micro-and macro-evolutionary processes</li> <li>• Coevolution</li> </ul>                                     | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Variation, selection, and retention</li> <li>• Evolution of market structures</li> <li>• Evolution of governance structures</li> <li>• Evolution of spatial structures</li> <li>• Coevolution</li> <li>• Competitive interaction</li> <li>• Emergence</li> <li>• Path dependence</li> </ul> |

- 
- Representation and expression
  - Evolution as design

| Complexity and Computation | <u>Carley</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              | <u>Eisenhardt &amp; Bhatia</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                | <u>Sorenson</u>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       |
|----------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|                            | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Complex adaptive systems</li> <li>• Agents</li> <li>• Decision making and problems solving</li> <li>• Networks</li> <li>• Information technology</li> <li>• Algorithmic complexity</li> <li>• Computational theorizing</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Complex adaptive systems</li> <li>• Loose coupling</li> <li>• NK models</li> <li>• Edge of chaos</li> <li>• Simple rules and complex behavior</li> <li>• Emergence</li> <li>• Recombination and evolution</li> </ul> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Interdependence</li> <li>• Cellular and automata</li> <li>• Micro-behavior and macro-structure</li> <li>• NK models</li> <li>• NKC models</li> <li>• Complex interorganizational dynamics</li> <li>• Sensitivity to initial conditions</li> <li>• Path dependence</li> </ul> |

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**Table 4**

**Questionnaire Survey Strengths and Weaknesses**

|                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                        |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b><u>Strengths</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• Describes characteristics of a population</li><li>• Flexible</li><li>• Makes defining and measuring concepts easier</li><li>• Standardization makes it has strong reliability</li></ul>                                                                                                                                                |
| <b><u>Weaknesses</u></b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>• May produce superficial and misleading data</li><li>• Seldom deals with the context of social life or total life situations</li><li>• Not flexible because it does not deviate from original design</li><li>• May impact the attitude of tester that may lead to artificial responses.</li><li>• Generally weak on validity</li></ul> |

Babbie (1989)

**Table 5**  
**Survey Questions**

| <b><u>Self-Administered Questions</u></b>                                                                                         |                                                                                                                   |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Part 1</b> – Six statements used for testing organizational cultural perception—Scale I of the OCAQ (Sashkin & Rosenbach 2014) |                                                                                                                   |
| SQ – 1                                                                                                                            | People are flexible and adaptable when changes are necessary.                                                     |
| SQ – 2                                                                                                                            | People feel that most change is the result of pressures imposed from higher up in the organization.               |
| SQ – 3                                                                                                                            | People have a clear idea of why and how to proceed throughout the process of change.                              |
| SQ – 4                                                                                                                            | Most people believe that change happens too quickly and causes too much disruption.                               |
| SQ – 5                                                                                                                            | People believe they can influence or affect their work place through their ideas and involvement.                 |
| SQ – 6                                                                                                                            | People believe that their concerns and anxieties during periods of change are heard and taken into consideration. |
| <b>Part 2</b> – Five statements used to test organizational cultural adaptability—Scale V of the OCAQ (Sashkin & Rosenbach 2014)  |                                                                                                                   |
| SQ – 7                                                                                                                            | People value and make use of one another’s unique strengths and various abilities.                                |
| SQ – 8                                                                                                                            | Everyone knows and understands our objectives and priorities.                                                     |
| SQ – 9                                                                                                                            | People sometimes compromise company policy and procedures to reach operational goals.                             |
| SQ – 10                                                                                                                           | Business decisions are most often made on the basis of facts, not just perceptions or assumptions.                |
| SQ – 11                                                                                                                           | People have access to timely and accurate information about what’s really happening in the organization and why.  |

|                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p><b>Part 3</b> – Five statements used to test organizational culture explicit communication—Scale II of the OCAQ (Sashkin &amp; Rosenbach 2014).</p>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                               |
| <p>SQ – 12 Individuals and teams have clearly defined goals that relate to the goals or mission of the organization.</p> <p>SQ – 13 People and teams are often expected to reach goals which they believe are unattainable.</p> <p>SQ – 14 Individuals and teams are measured and rewarded according to how well goals are achieved.</p> <p>SQ – 15 Individuals and teams participate in defining specific goals.</p> <p>SQ – 16 We constantly stretch our goals to continuously improve.</p> <p>SQ – 17 Individuals, teams, and functional areas often have incompatible goals.</p>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                 |
| <p><b>Part #4</b> – Five statements used to examine links between informal norms and affective commitment, absenteeism, and turnover</p>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                             |
| <p>SQ – 18 Are any immediate or extended family members working with you in the same organization?</p> <p>SQ – 19 Have any of your immediate or extended family members been employed by the same organization?</p> <p>SQ – 20 Are you currently in a nonintimate companionship with other employees that continues outside of the workplace?</p> <p>SQ – 21 Have you previously had nonintimate companionships with other employees that continued outside of the workplace?</p> <p>SQ – 22 Are you currently in relationships with other employees that are intimate or considered close bonds and that continue outside of the workplace?</p> <p>SQ – 23 Have you previously had relationships with other employees that were intimate or considered close bonds and that continued outside of the workplace?</p> |
| <p><b>Part #5</b> – Eight statements used to examine control policies and affective and behavioral outcomes</p>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                      |
| <p>SQ – 24 It seems like my manager deliberately becomes more likeable to influence employees in my organization.</p> <p>SQ – 25 It seems like my manager’s leadership style stays the same, regardless of employee likability.</p> <p>SQ – 26 My manager responds slowly to employee issues.</p> <p>SQ – 27 My manager responds appropriately to employee issues.</p> <p>SQ – 28 My manager uses solid judgement and appreciates the opinions of others.</p> <p>SQ – 29 My manager’s leadership style is strict and authoritative.</p>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                              |
| <p><b>Part 6</b> – Eight statements used to test affective commitment—Allen and Myer’s (1990) Affective Commitment Scale (ACS)</p>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                   |
| <p>SQ – 30 I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.</p>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                          |

|                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                  |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>SQ – 31 I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it.</p> <p>SQ – 32 I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own.</p> <p>SQ – 33 I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.</p> <p>SQ – 34 I do not feel like ‘part of the family’ at my organization.</p> <p>SQ – 35 I do not feel ‘emotionally attached’ to this organization.</p> <p>SQ – 36 This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.</p> <p>SQ – 37 I do not feel a ‘strong’ sense of belonging to my organization.</p>                                                                                                                                                         |
| <b>Part 7 – Six statements used to examine absenteeism—Behavioral Outcome</b>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                    |
| <p>SQ – 38 Are you informed weekly of employee absenteeism rates at your organization?</p> <p>SQ – 39 Are you informed weekly of the employee head count percentages at your organization?</p> <p>SQ – 40 If your coworker is absent, will your manager more than likely enforce the absenteeism policy?</p> <p>SQ – 41 Will your manager enforce the absenteeism policy if their friends or family members are absent from work?</p> <p>SQ – 42 Have you ever deliberately been absent from work because of your dislike or disapproval of your manager?</p> <p>SQ – 43 If a coworker is running late or tardy for work, will your manager more than likely enforce the absenteeism policy?</p>                                                 |
| <b>Part 8 – Six statements used to examine turnover—Behavioral Outcome</b>                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                       |
| <p>SQ – 44 Are you informed weekly by your manager of the hourly turnover percentages within your organization?</p> <p>SQ – 45 Are you informed whenever someone in the organization is no longer employed with the company?</p> <p>SQ – 46 Is your manager more than likely to properly enforce controls policies that will lead to the termination of a team member?</p> <p>SQ – 47 Is your manager more than likely to properly enforce control policies that will lead to terminations of friends or family members?</p> <p>SQ – 48 Do you stay employed with this organization because of the loyalty you have towards your manager?</p> <p>SQ – 49 Do you plan on leaving your job within the next six months because of your manager?</p> |

**Table 6**  
**Descriptive Statistics on Age and Gender**

| <u>Measure/Category</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>%</u> | <u>Valid %</u> |
|-------------------------|----------|----------|----------------|
| <b><i>Age</i></b>       |          |          |                |
| Under 35                | 85       | 16.4%    | 56.7%          |
| Over 35                 | 65       | 12.5%    | 43.3%          |
| <b>Total</b>            | 150      | 28.9%    | 100.0%         |
| <b><i>Gender</i></b>    |          |          |                |
| Male                    | 76       | 14.6%    | 50.7%          |
| Female                  | 74       | 14.3%    | 49.3%          |
| <b>Total</b>            | 150      | 28.9%    | 100.0%         |

**Table 7**

**Measures of Central Tendency, Variability, and Shape of Scale Measures**

| <u>Measure</u>                      | <u>Mean</u> | <u>Med.</u> | <u>SD</u> | <u>Skew</u> | <u>Kurt.</u> | <u>Range</u> | <u>Min.</u> | <u>Max.</u> |
|-------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|--------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|
| Organizational Culture Adaptability | 2.86        | 2.83        | 0.53      | 0.38        | 0.37         | 2.83         | 1.50        | 4.33        |
| Organizational Culture Strength     | 3.13        | 3.00        | 0.53      | 0.74        | -0.52        | 2.20         | 2.20        | 4.40        |
| Organizational Culture Goals        | 3.00        | 2.67        | 0.56      | 0.96        | -0.54        | 2.00         | 2.17        | 4.17        |
| Informal Norms                      | 2.45        | 3.00        | 1.33      | -0.38       | -1.06        | 4.00         | 0.00        | 4.00        |
| Control Policies                    | 2.93        | 3.00        | 0.59      | 0.02        | -0.13        | 2.00         | 2.00        | 4.00        |
| Affective Commitment                | 2.88        | 3.00        | 0.48      | -0.73       | -0.28        | 1.50         | 1.88        | 3.38        |
| Absenteeism                         | 1.79        | 2.00        | 1.62      | 0.63        | -0.25        | 6.00         | 0.00        | 6.00        |
| Turnover                            | 2.29        | 2.00        | 1.36      | 0.82        | -0.39        | 4.00         | 1.00        | 5.00        |



**Table 8****Mean, Standard Deviation, and Bivariate Pairwise Correlations of Variables**

| Variables                             | M      | SD    | 1      | 2       | 3      | 4     | 5       | 6     | 7      | 8      | 9      |
|---------------------------------------|--------|-------|--------|---------|--------|-------|---------|-------|--------|--------|--------|
| 1 Sex                                 | 0.49   | 0.502 |        |         |        |       |         |       |        |        |        |
| 2 Age                                 | 0.43   | 0.497 | .483** |         |        |       |         |       |        |        |        |
| 3 Organizational Culture Adaptability | 2.86   | 0.528 | -0.113 | -.301** |        |       |         |       |        |        |        |
| 4 Organizational Culture Strength     | 3.13   | 0.529 | -0.101 | -0.129  | -0.07  |       |         |       |        |        |        |
| 5 Organizational Culture Goals        | 3.01   | 0.561 | 0.095  | .327**  | -0.09  | -0.04 |         |       |        |        |        |
| 6 Informal Norms                      | 2.45   | 1.33  | .188*  | .202*   | -.205* | -0.04 | 0.009   |       |        |        |        |
| 7 Control Policies                    | 2.93   | 0.592 | .171*  | 0.046   | 0.036  | 0.07  | -0.036  | 0.023 |        |        |        |
| 8 Absenteeism                         | 0.13   | 0.957 | -0.012 | -0.118  | 0.132  | -0.06 | -.264** | 0.023 | 0.025  |        |        |
| 9 Turnover                            | 0.36   | 0.891 | .272** | .183*   | -0.16  | 0.03  | 0.113   | 0.026 | .196*  | -0.032 |        |
| 10 Affective Commitment               | -0.194 | 0.936 | 0.065  | -0.146* | 0.105  | -0.14 | 0.109   | 0.079 | -0.123 | 0.139  | -0.065 |

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), \* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**Table 9**  
**Cronbach Alpha Scores**

| <b>Variables</b>                    | <b>Reliability Test 1</b> | <b>Reliability Test 2</b> |
|-------------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| Organizational Culture Adaptability | .347                      | .767**                    |
| Organizational Culture Strength     | -                         | .841***                   |
| Organizational Culture Goals        | .502                      | .668*                     |
| Informal Norms                      | .286                      | .610*                     |
| Control Polices                     | -                         | .611*                     |
| Affective Commitment                | .449                      | .944****                  |
| Absenteeism                         | .692                      |                           |
| Turnover                            | .551                      | .793**                    |

---

> .600 Threshold \*, > .700 Threshold \*\*, > .800 Threshold \*\*\*, > .900 Threshold \*\*\*\*

**Table 10**  
**Linear Regressions Testing Control Measures**

| <u>Model/Measure</u>                    | <u>B (SE)</u>  | <u>Beta</u> | <u>t</u> |
|-----------------------------------------|----------------|-------------|----------|
| <i>Affective Commitment<sup>a</sup></i> |                |             |          |
| Age                                     | -0.463 (0.173) | -0.246      | -2.674** |
| Sex                                     | 0.311 (0.171)  | 0.166       | 1.813    |
| (Constant)                              | 0.028 (0.111)  |             | 0.250    |
| <i>Absenteeism<sup>b</sup></i>          |                |             |          |
| Age                                     | -0.318 (0.179) | -0.165      | -1.774   |
| Sex                                     | 0.164 (0.178)  | 0.086       | 0.921    |
| (Constant)                              | 0.071 (0.115)  |             | 0.615    |
| <i>Turnover<sup>c</sup></i>             |                |             |          |
| Age                                     | 0.042 (0.163)  | 0.023       | 0.256    |
| Sex                                     | 0.434 (0.162)  | 0.245       | 2.688**  |
| (Constant)                              | -0.196 (0.104) |             | -1.872   |

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ ; <sup>a</sup> $F(2, 147) = 3.753, p = .026; R^2 = .049$ ; <sup>b</sup> $F(2, 147) = 1.577, p = .210; R^2 = .021$ ; <sup>c</sup> $F(2, 147) = 5.186, p = .007; R^2 = .066$ .

**Table 11**  
**Initial Linear Regressions**

| <u>Model/Measure</u>                                  | <u>B (SE)</u>  | <u>Beta</u> | <u>t</u> |
|-------------------------------------------------------|----------------|-------------|----------|
| <i>Hypothesis 1: Affective Commitment<sup>a</sup></i> |                |             |          |
| Adaptability Total                                    | 0.197 (0.145)  | 0.111       | 1.358    |
| (Constant)                                            | -0.581 (0.420) |             | -1.382   |
| <i>Hypothesis 2: Absenteeism<sup>b</sup></i>          |                |             |          |
| Strength Total                                        | -0.007 (0.149) | -0.004      | -0.046   |
| (Constant)                                            | 0.035 (0.472)  |             | 0.074    |
| <i>Hypothesis 3: Turnover<sup>c</sup></i>             |                |             |          |
| Goals Total                                           | 0.109 (0.130)  | 0.069       | 0.842    |
| (Constant)                                            | -0.292 (0.397) |             | -0.735   |
| <i>Hypothesis 3: Turnover with Sex<sup>d</sup></i>    |                |             |          |
| Goals Total                                           | 0.073 (0.127)  | 0.046       | 0.576    |
| Sex                                                   | 0.447 (0.142)  | 0.252       | 3.147**  |
| (Constant)                                            | -0.403 (0.387) |             | -1.041   |
| <i>Hypothesis 4: Affective Commitment<sup>e</sup></i> |                |             |          |
| Informal Norms Total                                  | 0.045 (0.058)  | 0.065       | 0.787    |
| (Constant)                                            | -0.130 (0.160) |             | -0.813   |
| <i>Hypothesis 5: Absenteeism<sup>f</sup></i>          |                |             |          |
| Informal Norms Total                                  | 0.013 (0.059)  | 0.018       | 0.224    |

|            |                |  |        |
|------------|----------------|--|--------|
| (Constant) | -0.019 (0.164) |  | -0.114 |
|------------|----------------|--|--------|

*Hypothesis 6: Turnover<sup>g</sup>*

|                      |               |       |       |
|----------------------|---------------|-------|-------|
| Informal Norms Total | 0.025 (0.055) | 0.038 | 0.457 |
|----------------------|---------------|-------|-------|

|            |                |  |        |
|------------|----------------|--|--------|
| (Constant) | -0.025 (0.153) |  | -0.161 |
|------------|----------------|--|--------|

*Hypothesis 6: Turnover and Sex<sup>h</sup>*

|                      |                |        |        |
|----------------------|----------------|--------|--------|
| Informal Norms Total | -0.006 (0.054) | -0.009 | -0.109 |
|----------------------|----------------|--------|--------|

|     |               |       |       |
|-----|---------------|-------|-------|
| Sex | 0.457 (0.144) | 0.258 | 3.177 |
|-----|---------------|-------|-------|

|            |                |  |        |
|------------|----------------|--|--------|
| (Constant) | -0.174 (0.156) |  | -1.121 |
|------------|----------------|--|--------|

*Hypothesis 7: Affective Commitment<sup>i</sup>*

|                        |                |        |        |
|------------------------|----------------|--------|--------|
| Control Policies Total | -0.157 (0.129) | -0.099 | -1.214 |
|------------------------|----------------|--------|--------|

|            |               |  |       |
|------------|---------------|--|-------|
| (Constant) | 0.440 (0.386) |  | 1.140 |
|------------|---------------|--|-------|

*Hypothesis 8: Absenteeism<sup>j</sup>*

|                        |               |       |       |
|------------------------|---------------|-------|-------|
| Control Policies Total | 0.041 (0.133) | 0.026 | 0.310 |
|------------------------|---------------|-------|-------|

|            |                |  |        |
|------------|----------------|--|--------|
| (Constant) | -0.107 (0.397) |  | -0.270 |
|------------|----------------|--|--------|

*Hypothesis 9: Absenteeism<sup>k</sup>*

|                        |               |       |        |
|------------------------|---------------|-------|--------|
| Control Policies Total | 0.296 (0.121) | 0.197 | 2.440* |
|------------------------|---------------|-------|--------|

|            |                |  |         |
|------------|----------------|--|---------|
| (Constant) | -0.829 (0.362) |  | -2.290* |
|------------|----------------|--|---------|

*Hypothesis 9: Absenteeism and Sex<sup>l</sup>*

|                        |               |       |        |
|------------------------|---------------|-------|--------|
| Control Policies Total | 0.238 (0.120) | 0.158 | 1.981* |
|------------------------|---------------|-------|--------|

|     |               |       |         |
|-----|---------------|-------|---------|
| Sex | 0.407 (0.142) | 0.229 | 2.874** |
|-----|---------------|-------|---------|

|            |                |  |         |
|------------|----------------|--|---------|
| (Constant) | -0.861 (0.354) |  | -2.433* |
|------------|----------------|--|---------|

---

*Note.* \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ ; <sup>a</sup> $F(1, 148) = 1.845, p = .176; R^2 = .012$ ; <sup>b</sup> $F(1, 148) = .002, p = .963; R^2 = .000$ ; <sup>c</sup> $F(1, 148) = .709, p = .401; R^2 = .005$ ; <sup>d</sup> $F(2, 147) = 5.329, p = .006; R^2 = .068$ ; <sup>e</sup> $F(1, 148) = .620, p = .432; R^2 = .004$ ; <sup>f</sup> $F(1, 148) = .050, p = .823; R^2 = .000$ ; <sup>g</sup> $F(1, 148) = .209, p = .648; R^2 = .001$ ; <sup>h</sup> $F(2, 147) = 5.157, p = .007; R^2 = .066$ ; <sup>i</sup> $F(1, 148) = 1.474, p = .227; R^2 = .010$ ; <sup>j</sup> $F(1, 148) = .096, p = .757; R^2 = .001$ ; <sup>k</sup> $F(1, 148) = 5.953, p = .016; R^2 = .039$ ; <sup>l</sup> $F(2, 147) = 7.251, p = .001; R^2 = .090$ .

**Table 12**  
**Multiple Linear Regressions**

| <u>Model/Measure</u>                    | <u>B (SE)</u>  | <u>Beta</u> | <u>t</u> |
|-----------------------------------------|----------------|-------------|----------|
| <i>Affective Commitment<sup>a</sup></i> |                |             |          |
| Adaptability Total                      | 0.230 (0.147)  | 0.130       | 1.565    |
| Informal Norms Total                    | 0.065 (0.058)  | 0.093       | 1.122    |
| Control Policies Total                  | -0.164 (0.129) | -0.104      | -1.271   |
| (Constant)                              | -0.358 (0.600) |             | -0.597   |
| <i>Absenteeism Outcome<sup>b</sup></i>  |                |             |          |
| Strength Total                          | -0.006 (0.151) | -0.004      | -0.042   |
| Informal Norms Total                    | 0.012 (0.060)  | 0.017       | 0.206    |
| Control Policies Total                  | 0.041 (0.134)  | 0.025       | 0.303    |
| (Constant)                              | -0.116 (0.625) |             | -0.185   |
| <i>Turnover Outcome<sup>c</sup></i>     |                |             |          |
| (Constant)                              | -1.122 (0.543) |             | -2.064*  |
| Goals Total                             | 0.088 (0.126)  | 0.056       | 0.698    |
| Informal Norms Total                    | -0.006 (0.054) | -0.009      | -0.109   |
| Control Policies Total                  | 0.243 (0.121)  | 0.162       | 2.009*   |
| Sex                                     | 0.400 (0.145)  | 0.225       | 2.750**  |

Note. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$ , \*\*\* $p < .001$ ; <sup>a</sup> $F(3, 146) = 1.543, p = .206; R^2 = .031$ ; <sup>b</sup> $F(3, 146) = .047, p = .986; R^2 = .001$ ;  
<sup>c</sup> $F(4, 145) = 3.714, p = .007; R^2 = .093$ .

**Table 13****OLS Regression Results Predicting Affective Commitment**

| Variables                                | Model 1        | Model 2        | Model 3        | Model 4        | Model 5        |
|------------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Sex                                      | 0.31 (0.17) ** | 0.31 (0.17) ** | 0.15 (0.09) *  | 0.35 (0.17) ** | 0.31 (0.17) *  |
| Age                                      | -0.46 (0.17) * | -0.46 (0.17) * | -0.24 (0.09) * | -0.48 (0.17) * | -0.30 (0.16) * |
| Organizational Culture Adaptability (H1) |                | 0.22 (0.14) *  |                |                | 0.15 (0.15)    |
| Alignment of Informal Norms (H4)         |                |                | 0.05 (0.05)    |                | 0.08 (0.05)    |
| Contentment with Control Policies (H7)   |                |                |                | -0.19 (0.17)   | -0.15 (0.13)   |
| Constant                                 | 0.03 (0.11) *  | -0.63 (0.42) * | 2.82 (0.09)    | 0.44 (0.38)    | -0.09 (0.61)   |
| Sample Size (N)                          | 150            | 150            | 150            | 150            | 150            |
| R <sup>2</sup>                           | 5.2% *         | 7.1% *         | 4.9% *         | 6.2% *         | 6.3% *         |
| F                                        | 3.75 *         | 3.91 *         | 2.79           | 1.48           | 2.08           |

For all control variables, two-tailed significance levels are reported; for all independent variables, one-tailed significance levels are reported. + < .10, \* < .05, \*\* < .01, \*\*\* < .001

**Table 14****OLS Regression Results Predicting Absenteeism**

| Variables                              | Model 1        | Model 2       | Model 3        | Model 4        | Model 5        |
|----------------------------------------|----------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Sex                                    | 0.16 (0.17) *  | 0.15 (0.18)   | 0.15 (0.18) *  | 0.15 (0.18) *  | 0.14 (0.18) *  |
| Age                                    | -0.32 (0.17) * | -.32 (0.18) * | -0.33 (0.18) * | -0.32 (0.18) * | -0.33 (0.18) * |
| Organizational Culture Strength (H2)   |                | -.03 (0.15)   |                |                | -0.04 (0.15)   |
| Alignment of Informal Norms (H5)       |                |               | 0.03 (0.17)    |                | 0.03 (0.08)    |
| Contentment with Control Policies (H8) |                |               |                | 0.03 (0.13)    | 0.03 (0.14)    |
| Constant                               | 0.07 (0.11)    | 0.19 (.51)    | 0.01 (0.17)    | -0.01 (.40)    | 0.04 (0.63)    |
| Sample Size (N)                        | 150            | 150           | 150            | 150            | 150            |
| R <sup>2</sup>                         | 1.8%           | 2.1%          | 1.9%           | 2.3%           | 2.2%           |
| F                                      | 1.57           | 1.06          | 1.12           | 1.06           | 0.69           |

For all control variables, two-tailed significance levels are reported; for all independent variables, one-tailed significance levels are reported. + < .10, \* < .05, \*\* < .01, \*\*\* < .001



**Table 15****OLS Regression Results Predicting Turnover**

| <b>Variables</b>                       | <b>Model 1</b> | <b>Model 2</b> | <b>Model 3</b> | <b>Model 4</b> | <b>Model 5</b> |
|----------------------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Sex                                    | 0.45 (0.14)**  | 0.44 (0.16)**  | 0.45 (0.14)**  | 0.38 (0.16)**  | 0.38 (0.16)*   |
| Age                                    | 0.04 (0.16)*   | 0.02 (0.17)*   | 0.05 (0.17)*   | 0.06 (0.16)*   | 0.03 (0.17)*   |
| Organizational Culture as Goals (H3)   |                | 0.07 (0.13)*   |                |                | 0.08 (0.13)    |
| Alignment of Informal Norms (H6)       |                |                | -0.01 (0.06)*  |                | -0.01 (0.06)   |
| Contentment with Control Policies (H9) |                |                |                | 0.24 (0.12)*   | 0.24 (0.12)*   |
| Constant                               | -0.19 (.10)*   | -0.39 (0.40)*  | -0.18 (0.16)*  | -0.88 (0.36)** | -1.10 (0.55)*  |
| Sample Size (N)                        | 150            | 150            | 150            | 150            | 150            |
| R <sup>2</sup>                         | 6.2%*          | 6.4%*          | 7.2%*          | 9.4%*          | 8.7%*          |
| F                                      | 5.18*          | 5.33*          | 5.16*          | 4.85*          | 2.96           |

For all control variables, two-tailed significance levels are reported; for all independent variables, one-tailed significance levels are reported. + < .10, \* < .05, \*\* < .01, \*\*\* < .001

**Table 16**  
**Confirmatory Factor Analyses**

*Estimated Path*

---

**Adaptability, Strength, and Goals**

Sig .05 Alpha Level

**Adaptability**

Standardized Regression Weights Q1, Q2, Q4, Q5                      Below .30

**Strength**

Standardized Regression Weights Q9                                      Below .30

**Goals**

Standardized Regression Weights              Q12, Q16, Q17,              Below .30

**Adaptability and Strength**

Standardized Regression Weights              Q3, Q4, Q10, Q11              Below .30

*Measures of Model Fit*

---

**Adaptability and Strength**

Chi-Square                                      4.884  
TLI                                                      .504  
CFI                                                      .624  
RMSEA                                              .087, p<.001

90% confidence interval ranging from .080 to .094.

*Estimated Path*

---

**Affective Commitment**

Sig .001 Alpha Level

Standardized Regression Weights Q35, Q37 Below .30

*Measures of Model Fit*

---

Appropriate Factor Structure

Estimated Path

---

**Control Policy**

Q26 and Q29 only Sig .001 Alpha Level

Standardized Regression Weights      Q26, Q29,      Above .30

Measures of Model Fit

---

Not Appropriate Fit

Estimated Path

---

**Informal Norms**

Sig .001 Alpha Level Q20, Q21, Q22

Standardized Regression Weights Q19, Q23 Below .30

Measures of Model Fit

---

**Adaptability and Strength**

Chi-Square      22.284

TLI      -.631

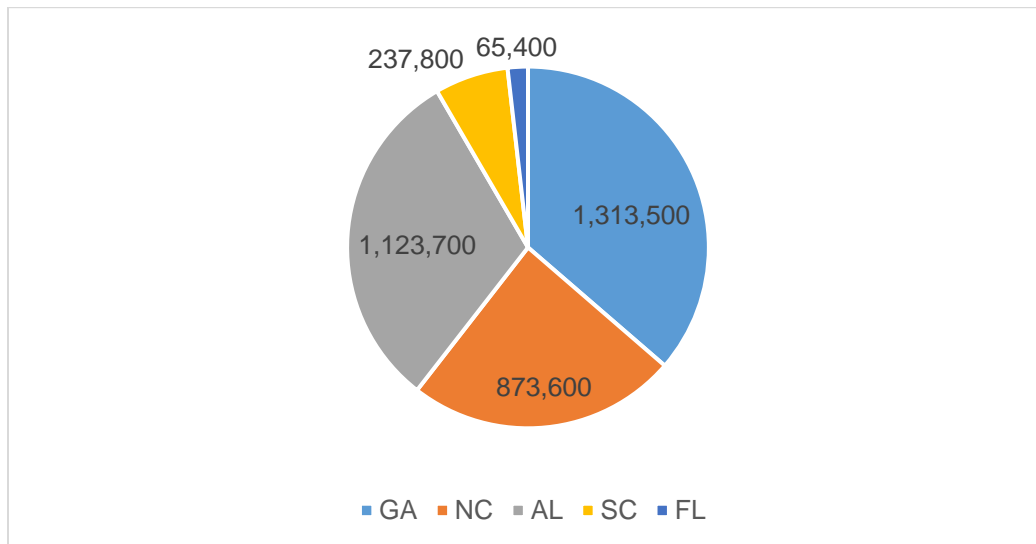
CFI      .301

RMSEA      .203,  $p < .001$

90% confidence interval ranging from .179 to .228

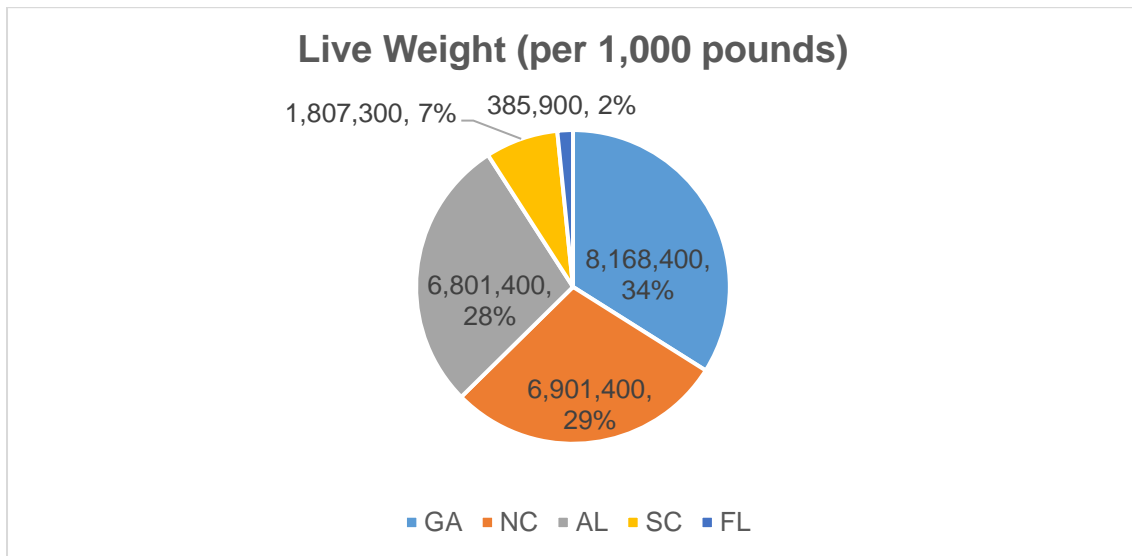
---

**Figure 1**  
**Poultry Heads Processed (per 1,000)**



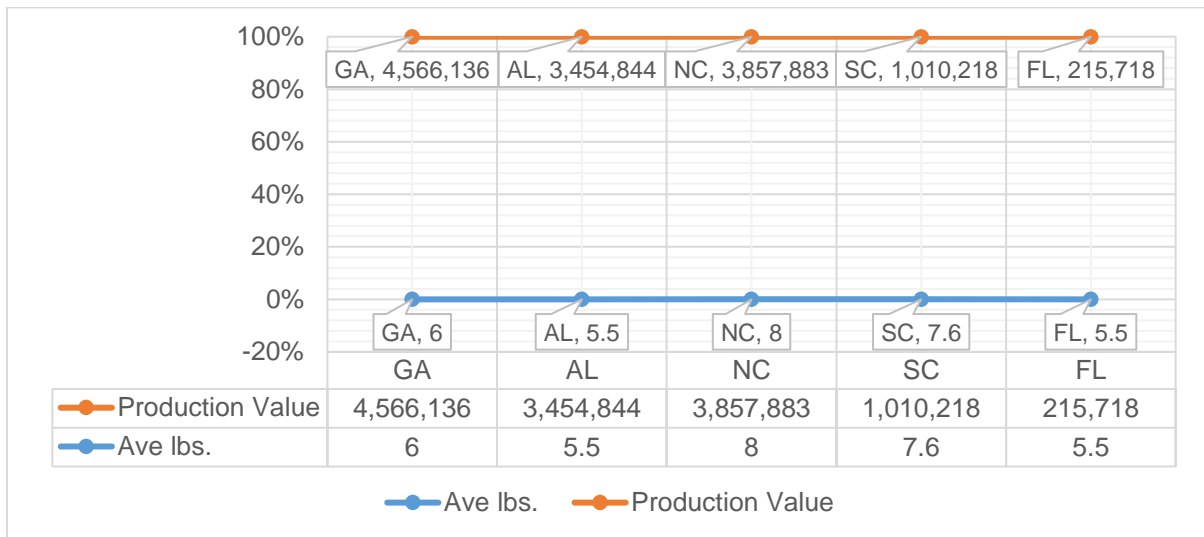
<https://www.nationalchickencouncil.org>

**Figure 2**  
**Live Weight (per 1,000 pounds)**



<https://www.nationalchickencouncil.org>

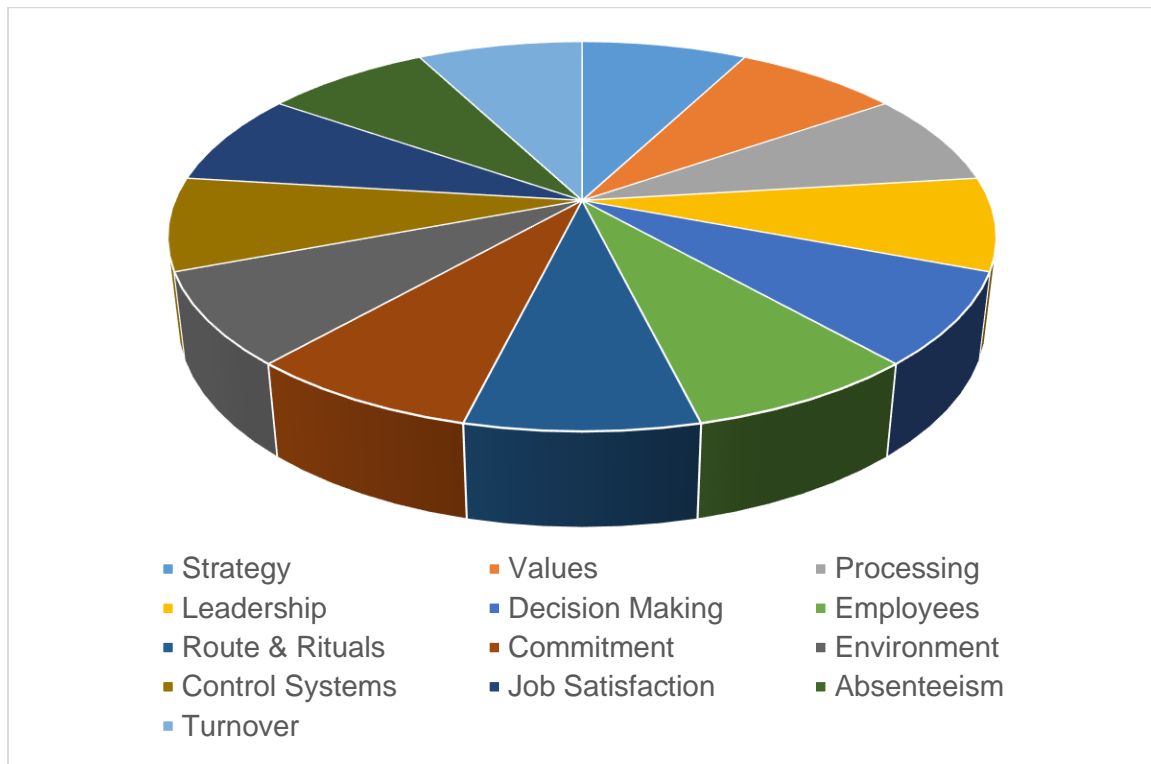
**Figure 3**  
**Average Weight/ Value of Production (per \$1,000)**



<http://uspoultry.org>

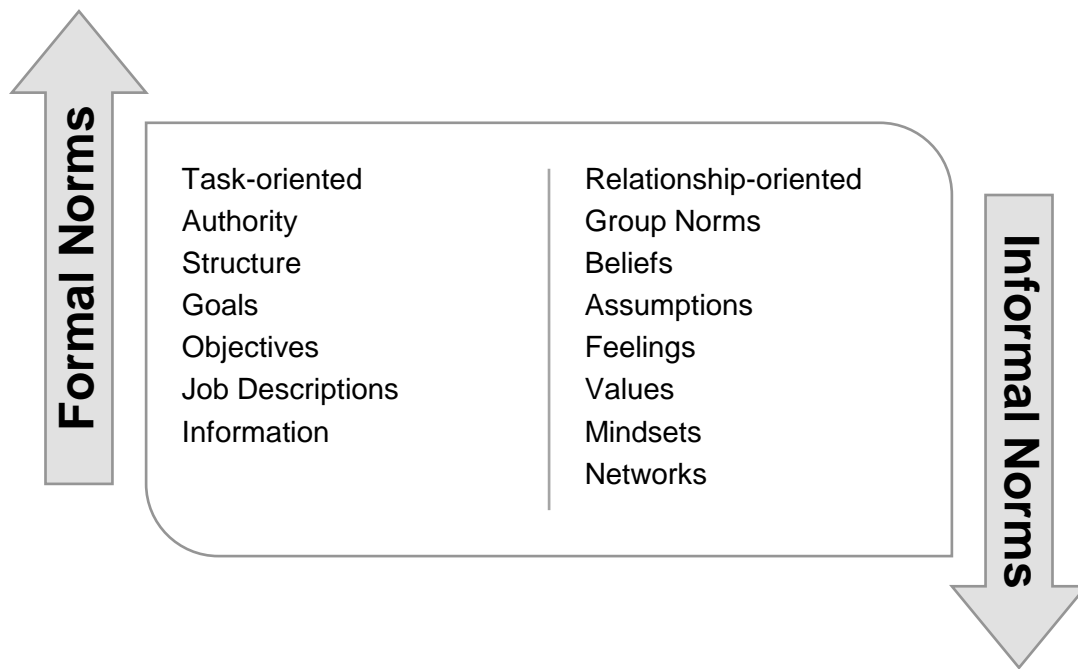
**Figure 4**

**Ubiquitous of Organizational Culture**



**Figure 5**

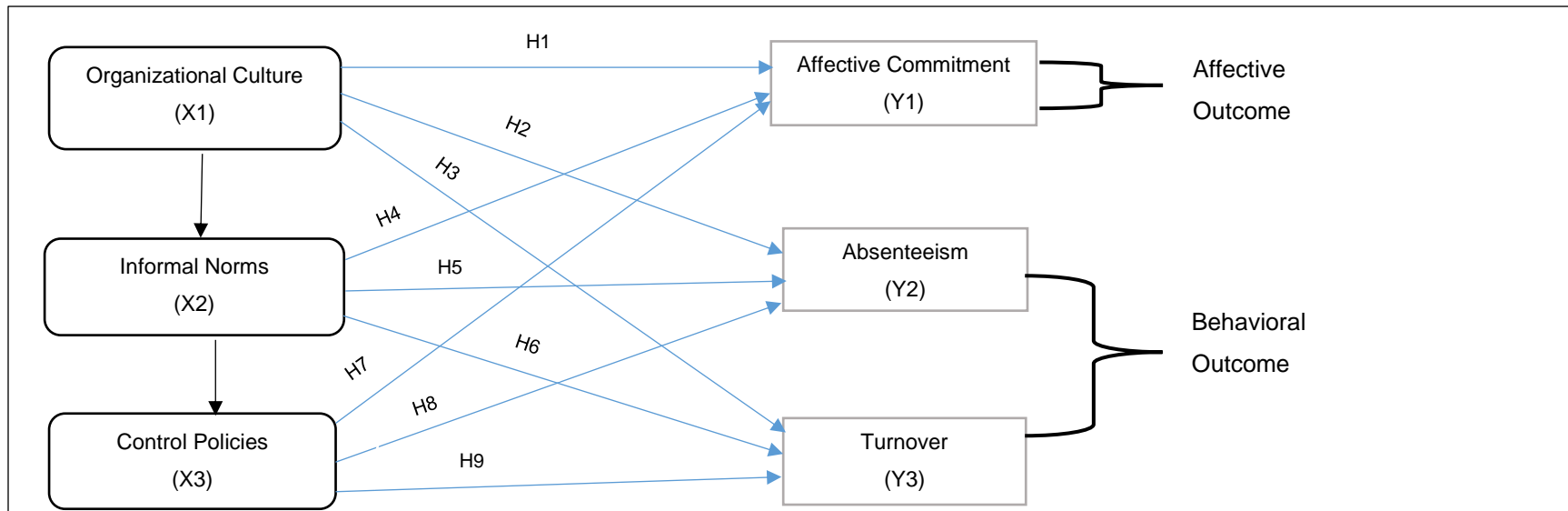
**Formal Norms vs. Informal Norms**





**Figure 6**

**Research Model**



Hypothesis 1: Perception of organizational culture adaptability is positively associated with affective commitment, such that when an employee perceives organizational culture as highly adaptable s/he will report a higher level of affective commitment.

Hypothesis 2: Perception of organizational culture strength is negatively associated with absenteeism, such that when an employee perceives organizational culture as high in strength s/he will report a lower proclivity toward absenteeism.

Hypothesis 3: Perception of organizational culture as achieving goals is negatively associated with turnover, such that when an employee perceives organizational goals as explicit (i.e., high in clarity) s/he will report a lower proclivity toward turnover.

Hypothesis 4: Alignment of informal norms and social environments as flexible and responsive (to changing conditions) is positively associated with affective commitment.

Hypothesis 5: Alignment of informal norms and social environments in the workplace is negatively associated with absenteeism.

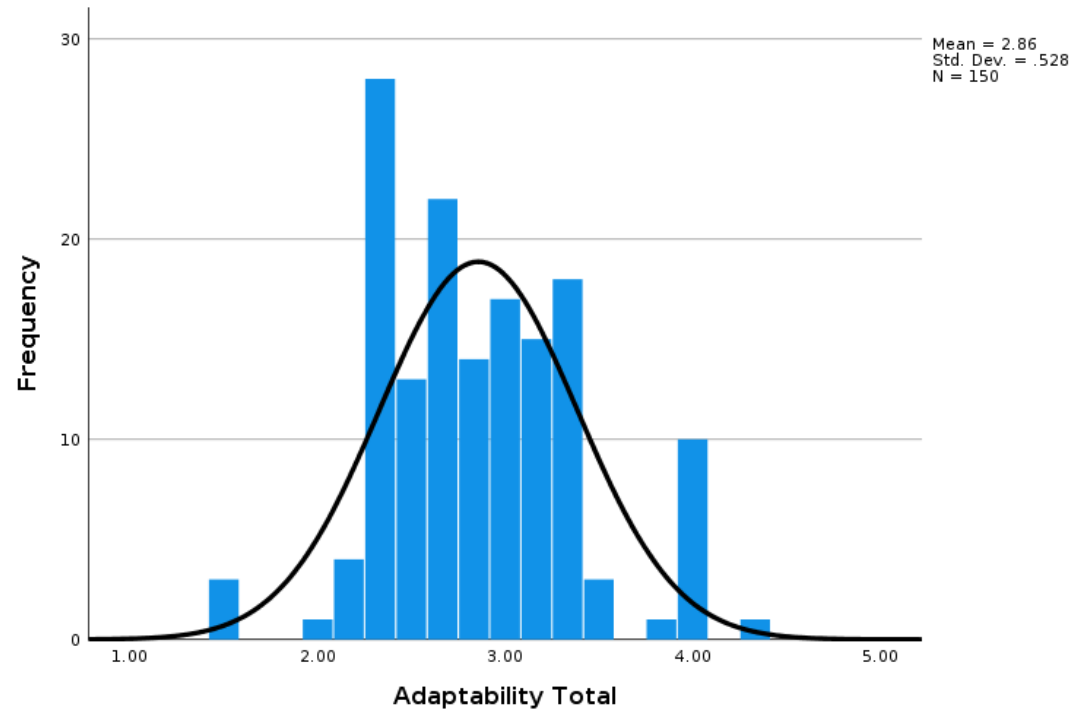
Hypothesis 6: Alignment of informal norms and social environments in the workplace is negatively associated with turnover.

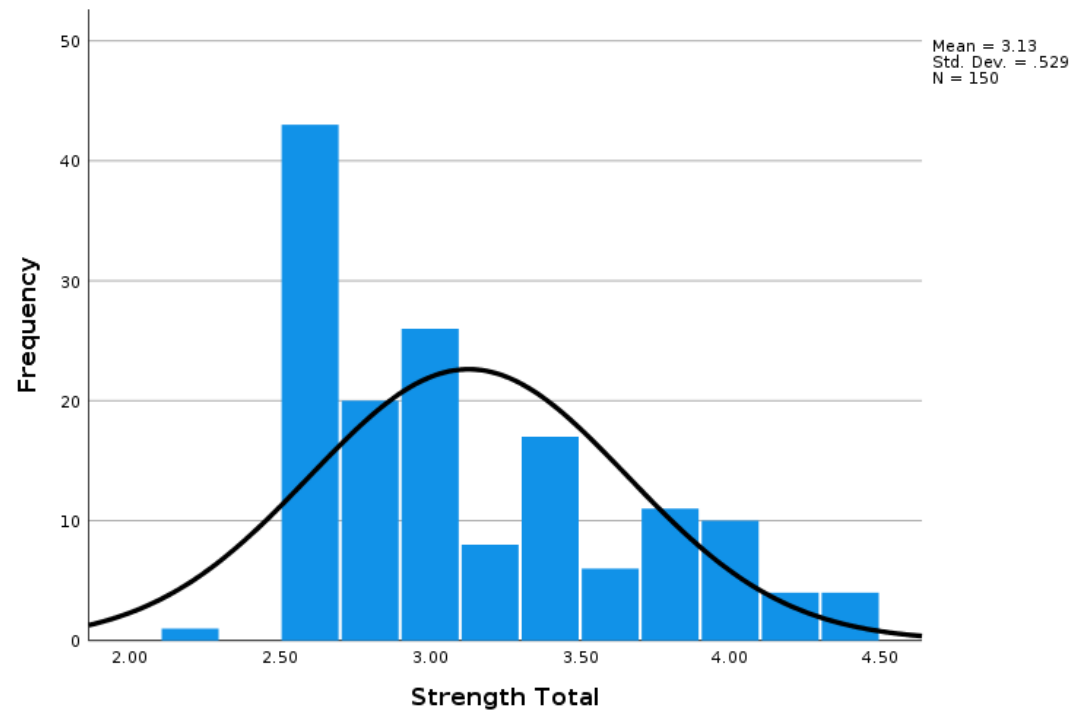
Hypothesis 7: Contentment with control policies in the workplace is positively associated with affective commitment.

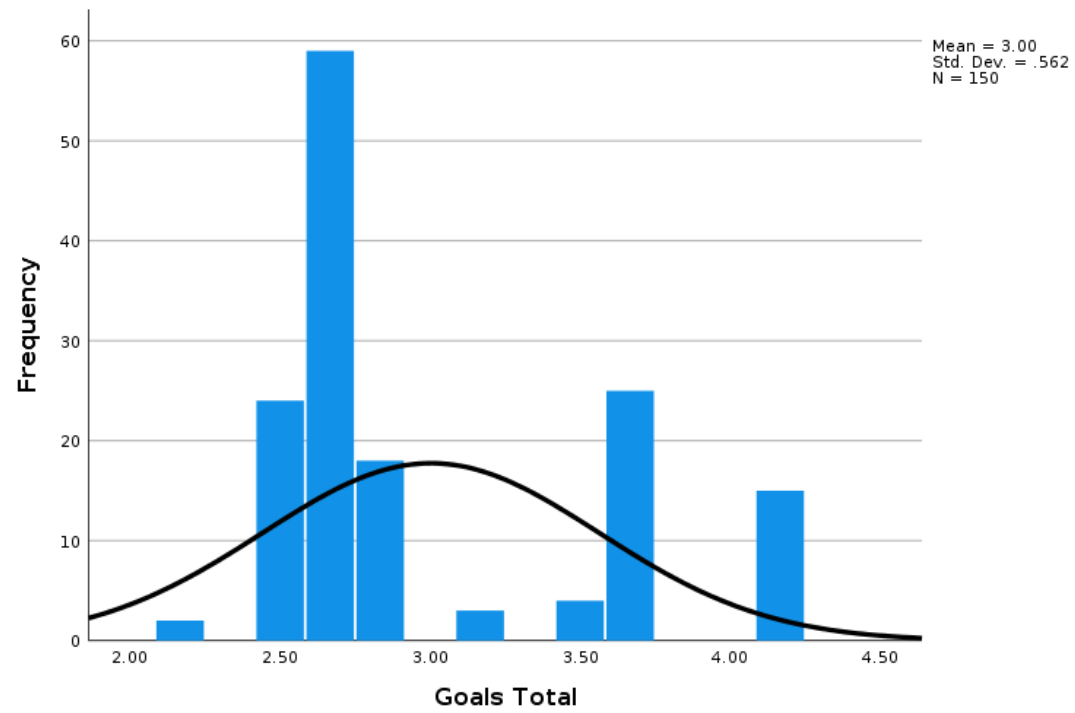
Hypothesis 8: Contentment with control policies as valuable resources is negatively associated with absenteeism.

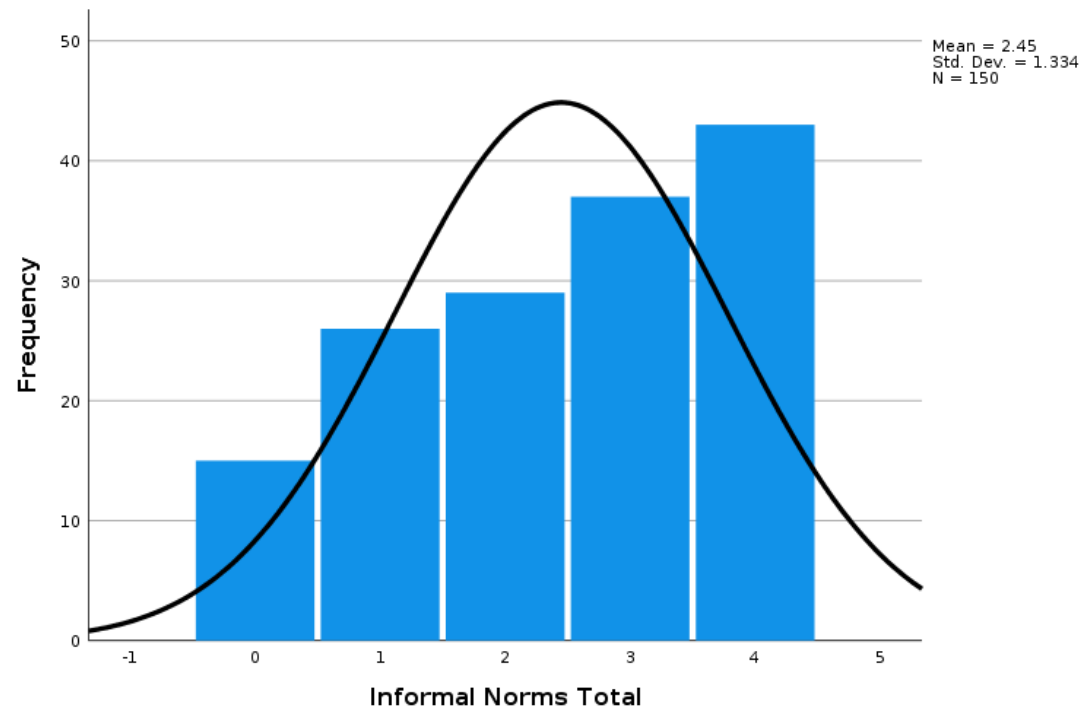
Hypothesis 9: Contentment with control policies as valuable resources is negatively associated with turnover.

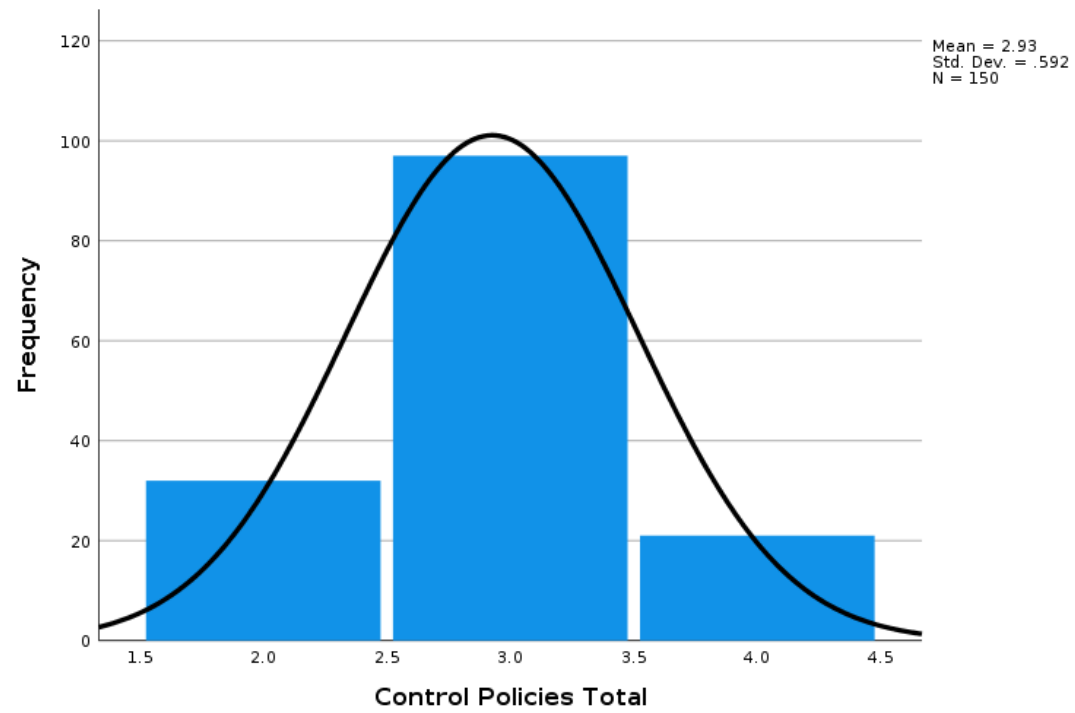
## Appendix A: Histograms and Plots

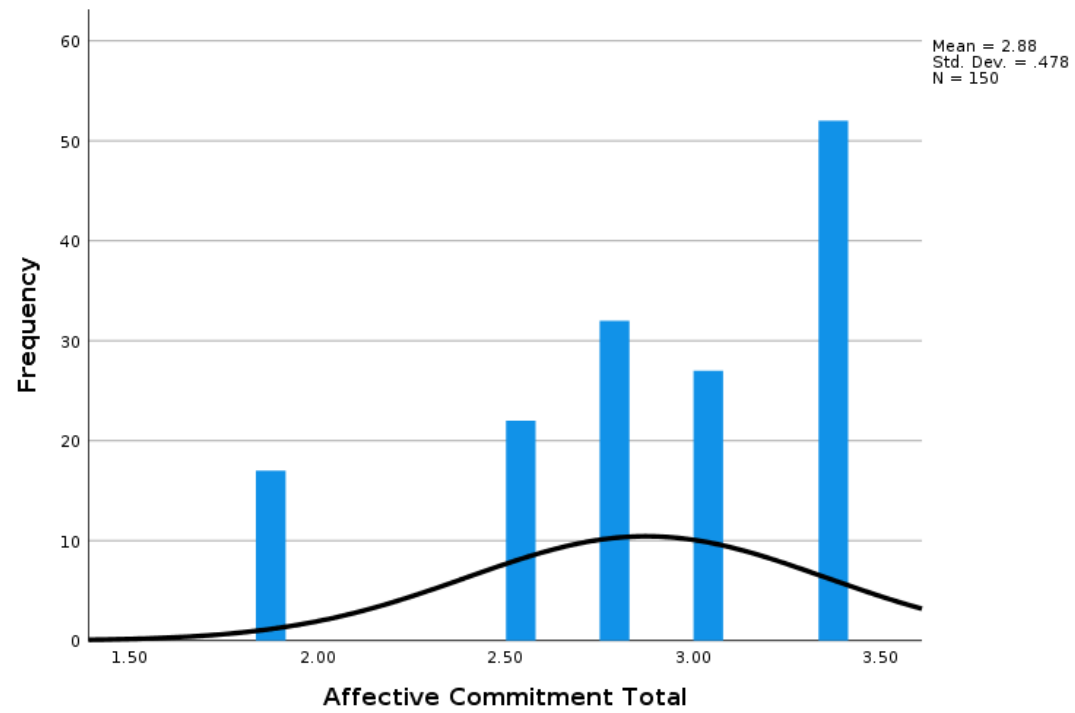




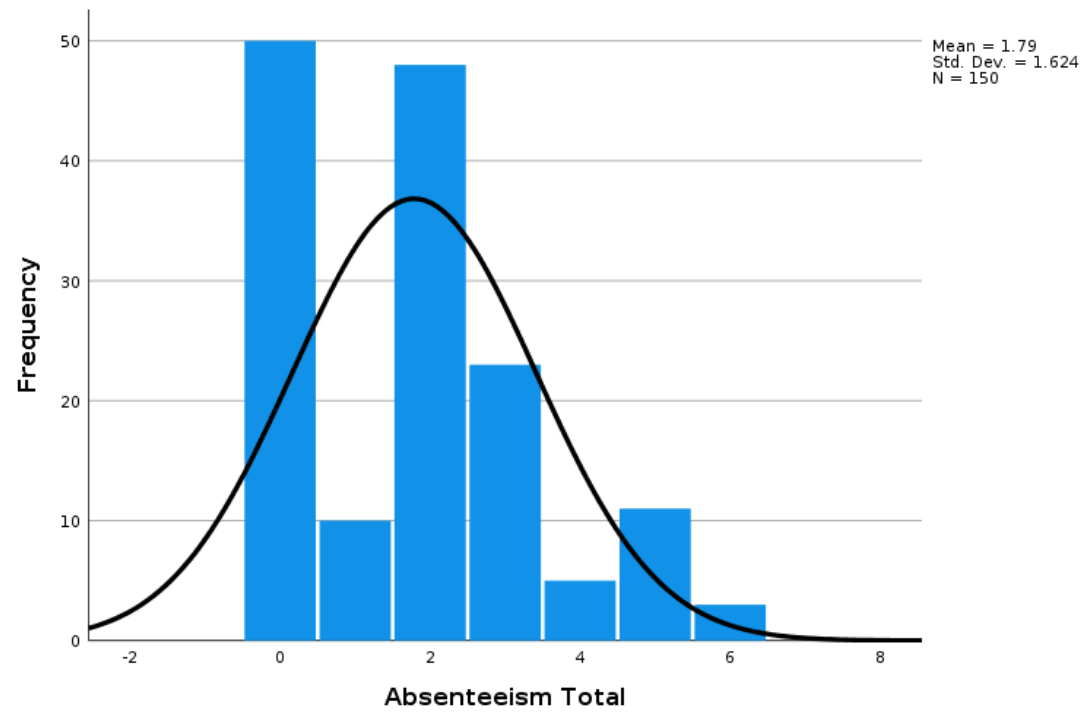


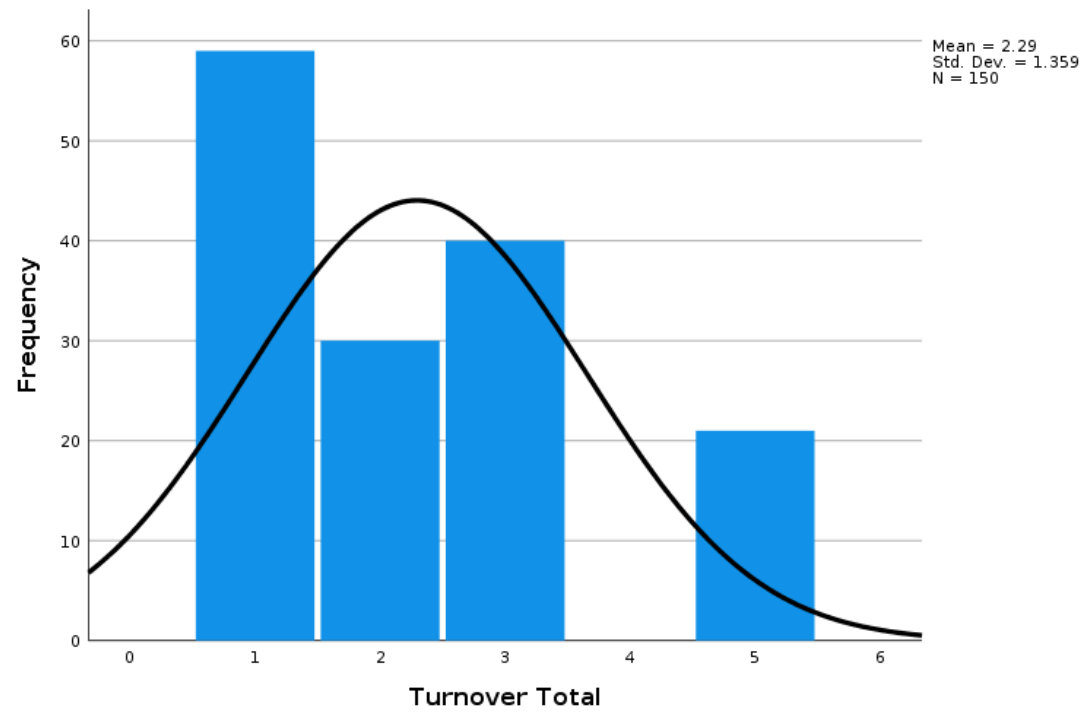


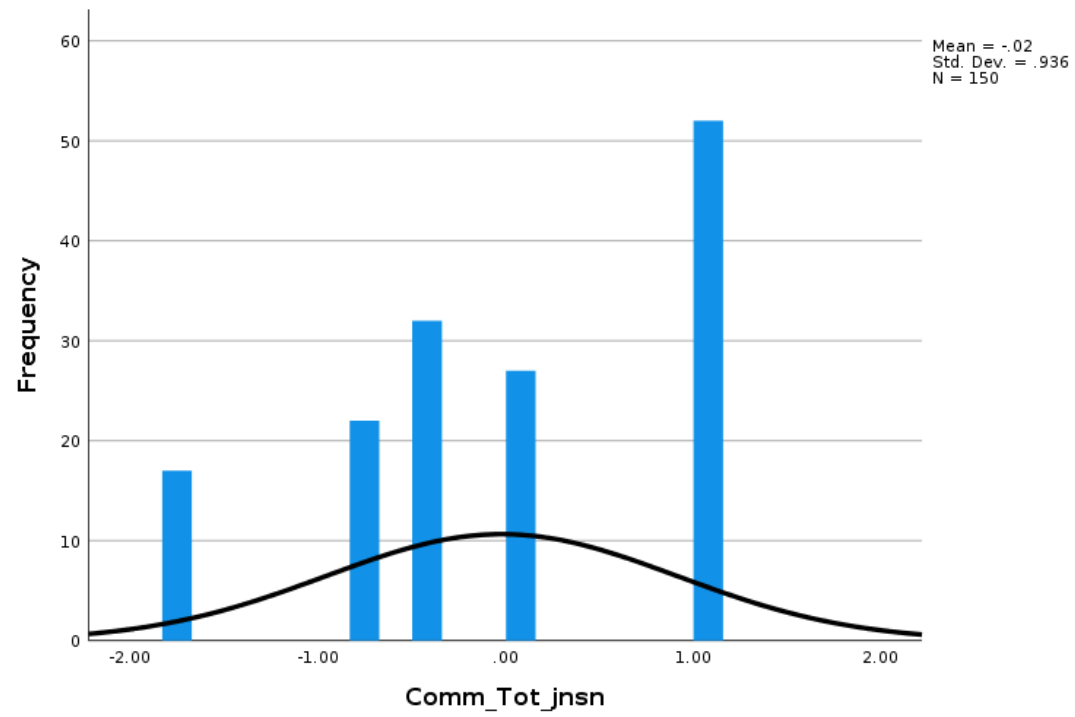


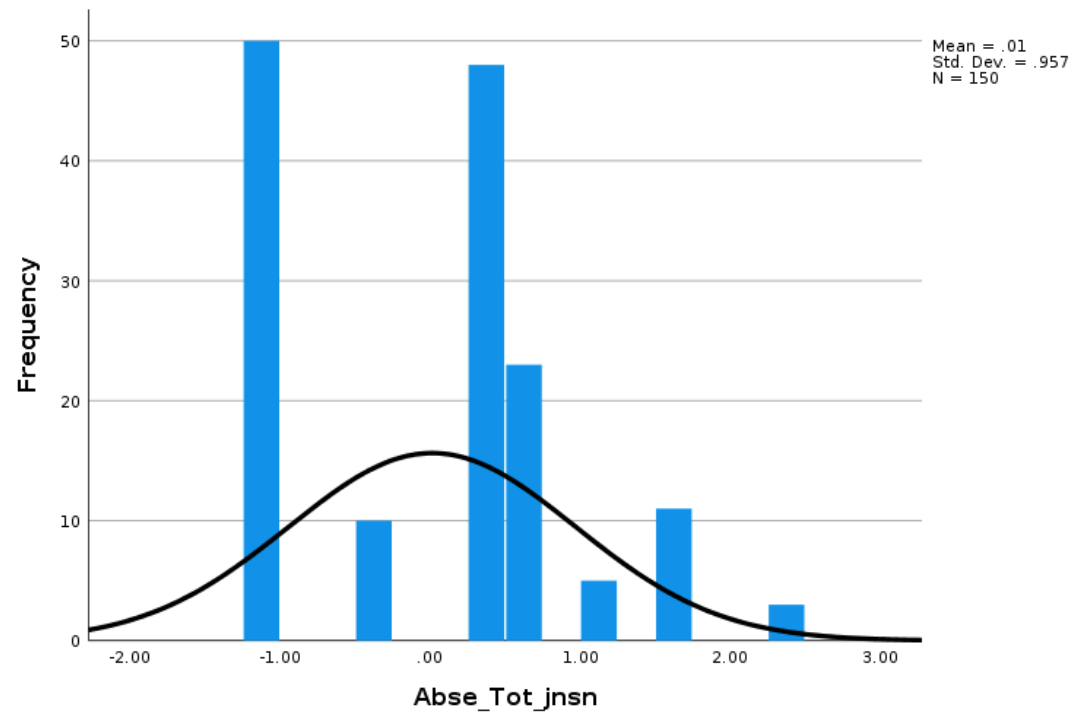






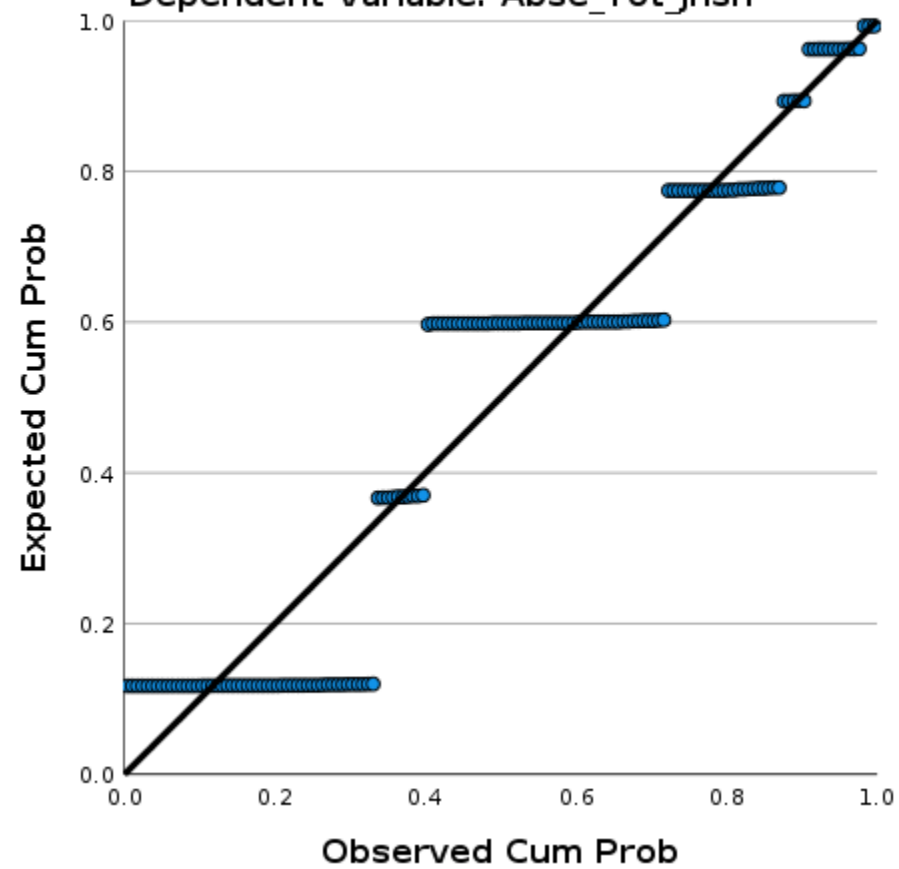






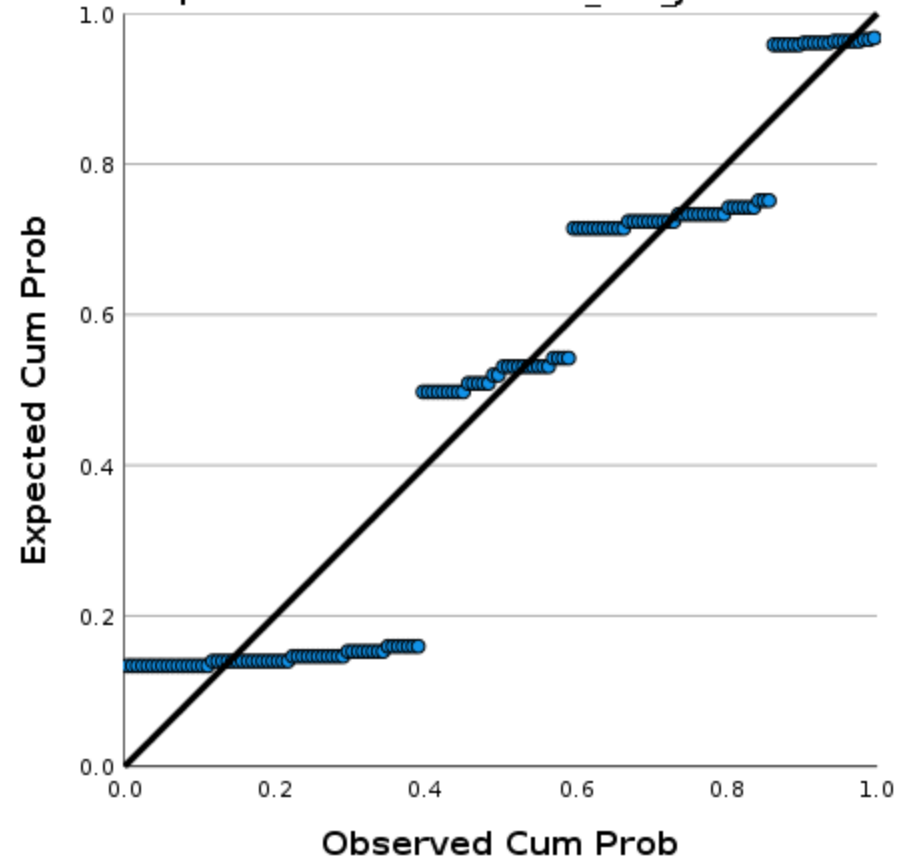
# Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: Abse\_Tot\_jnsn



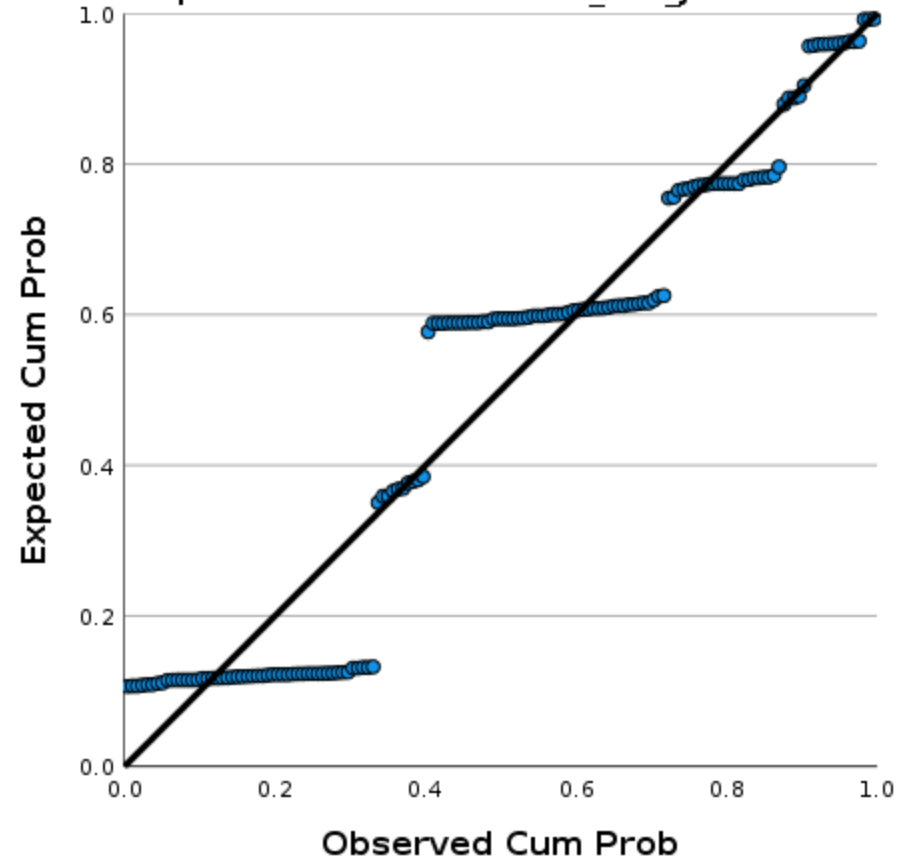
# Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

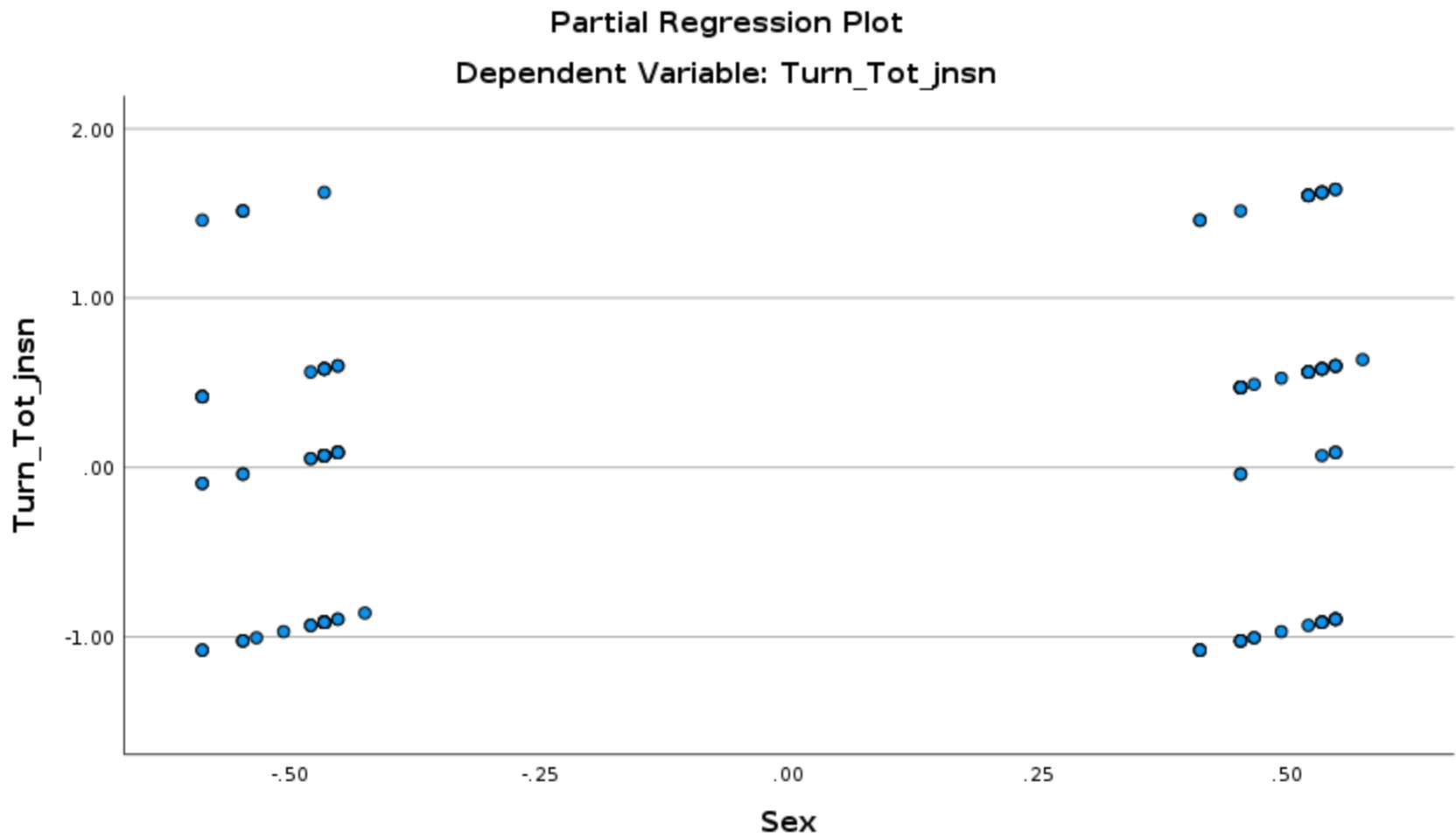
Dependent Variable: Turn\_Tot\_jnsn



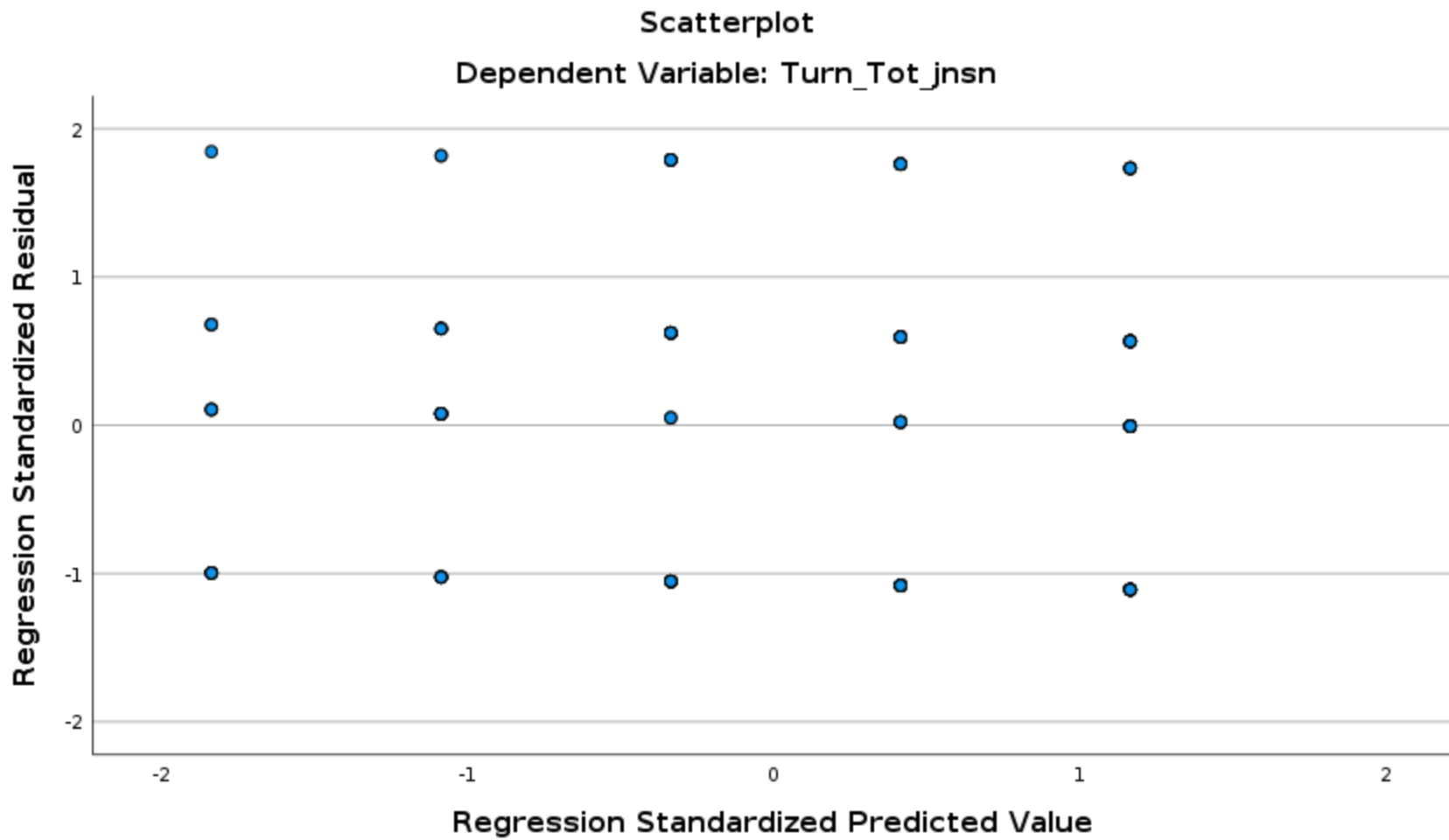
# Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

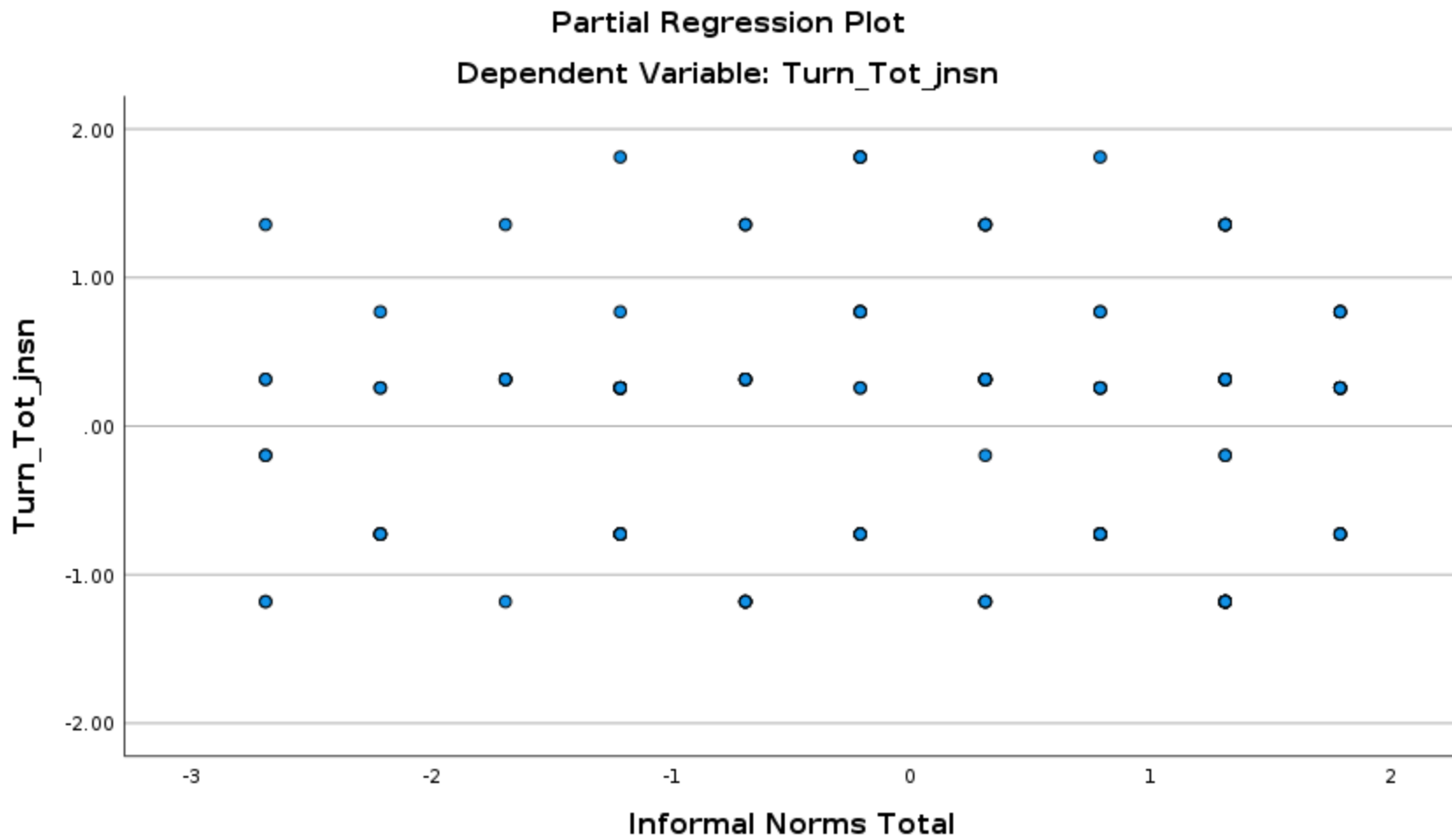
Dependent Variable: Abse\_Tot\_jnsn

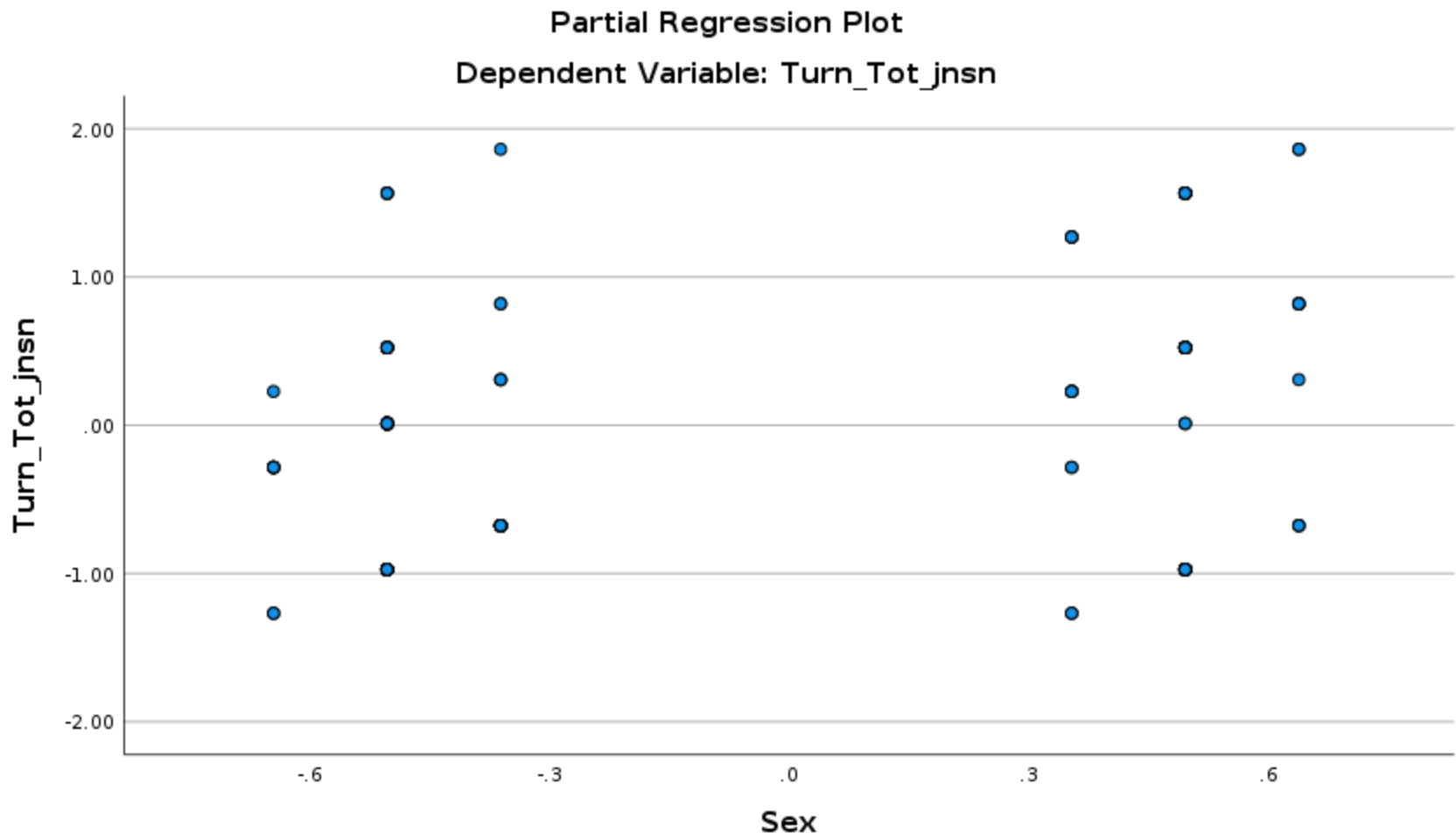


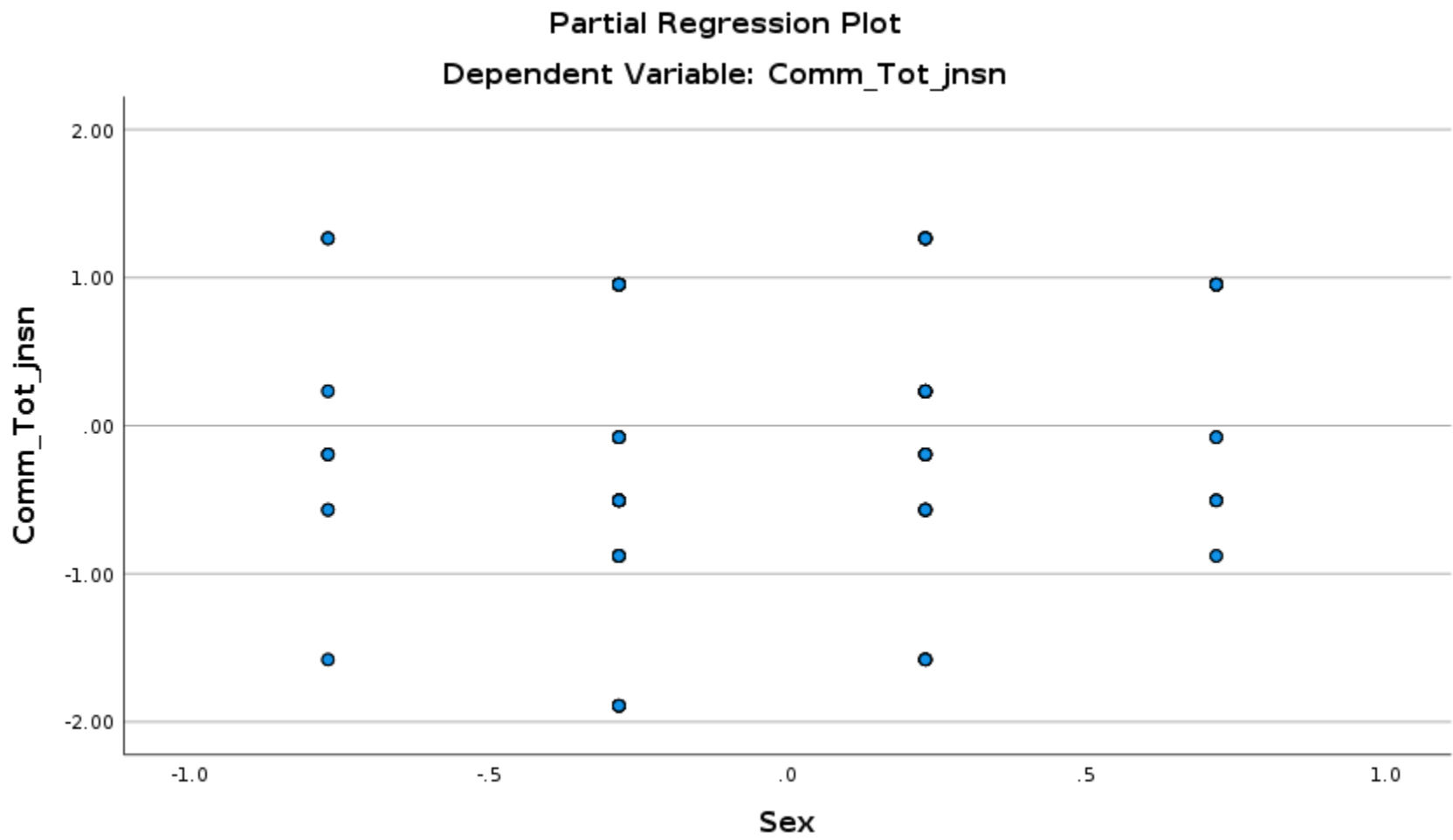


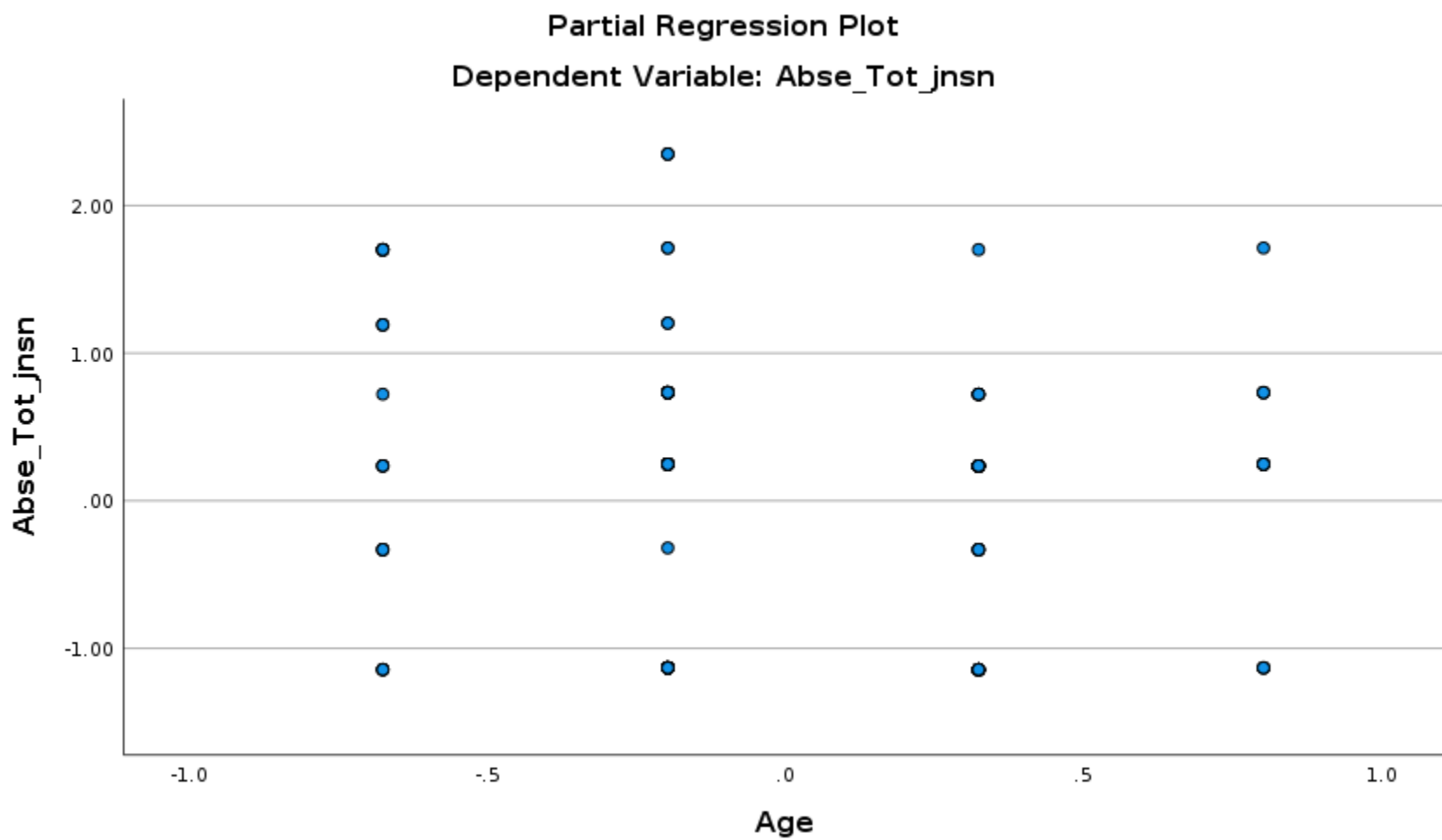




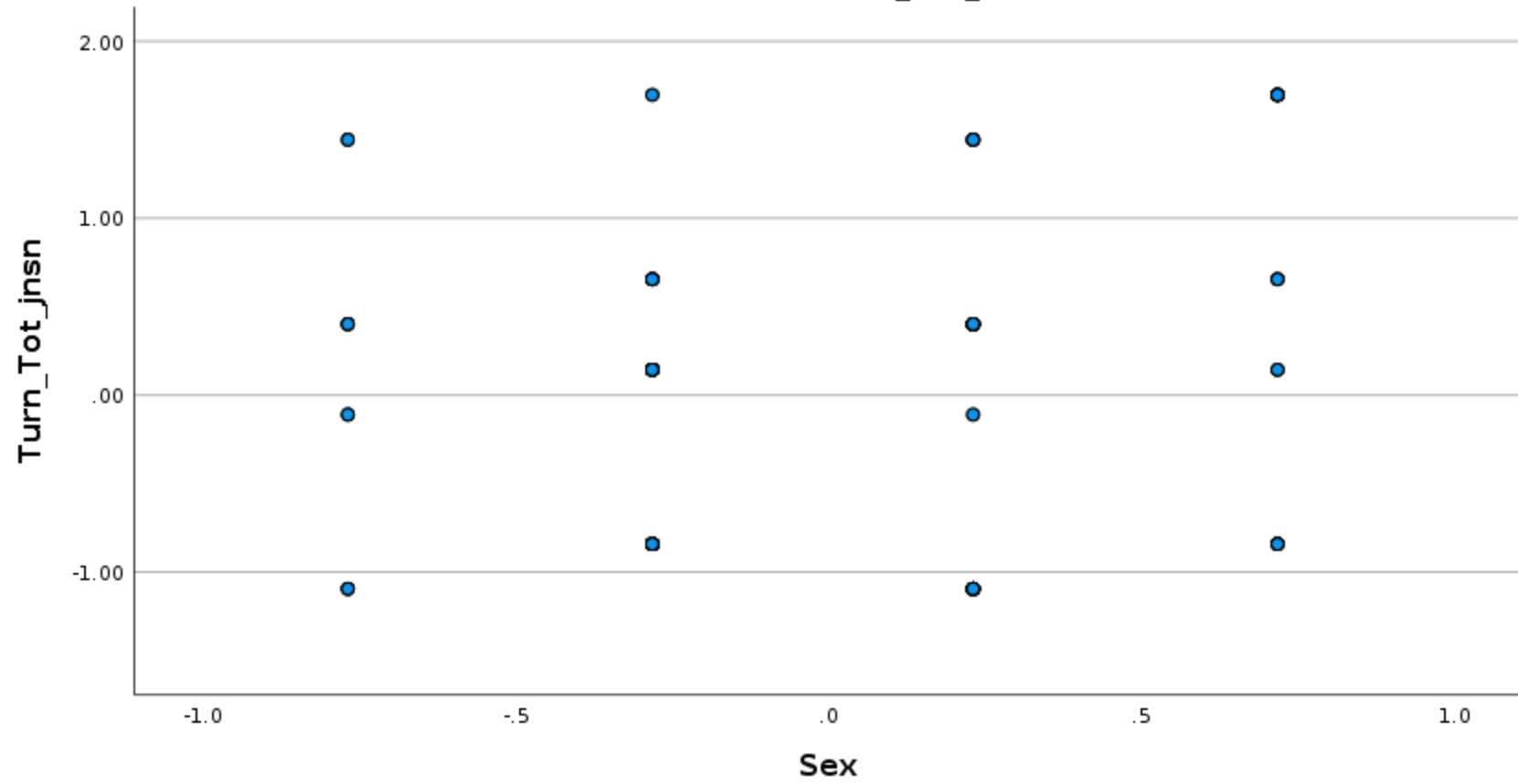


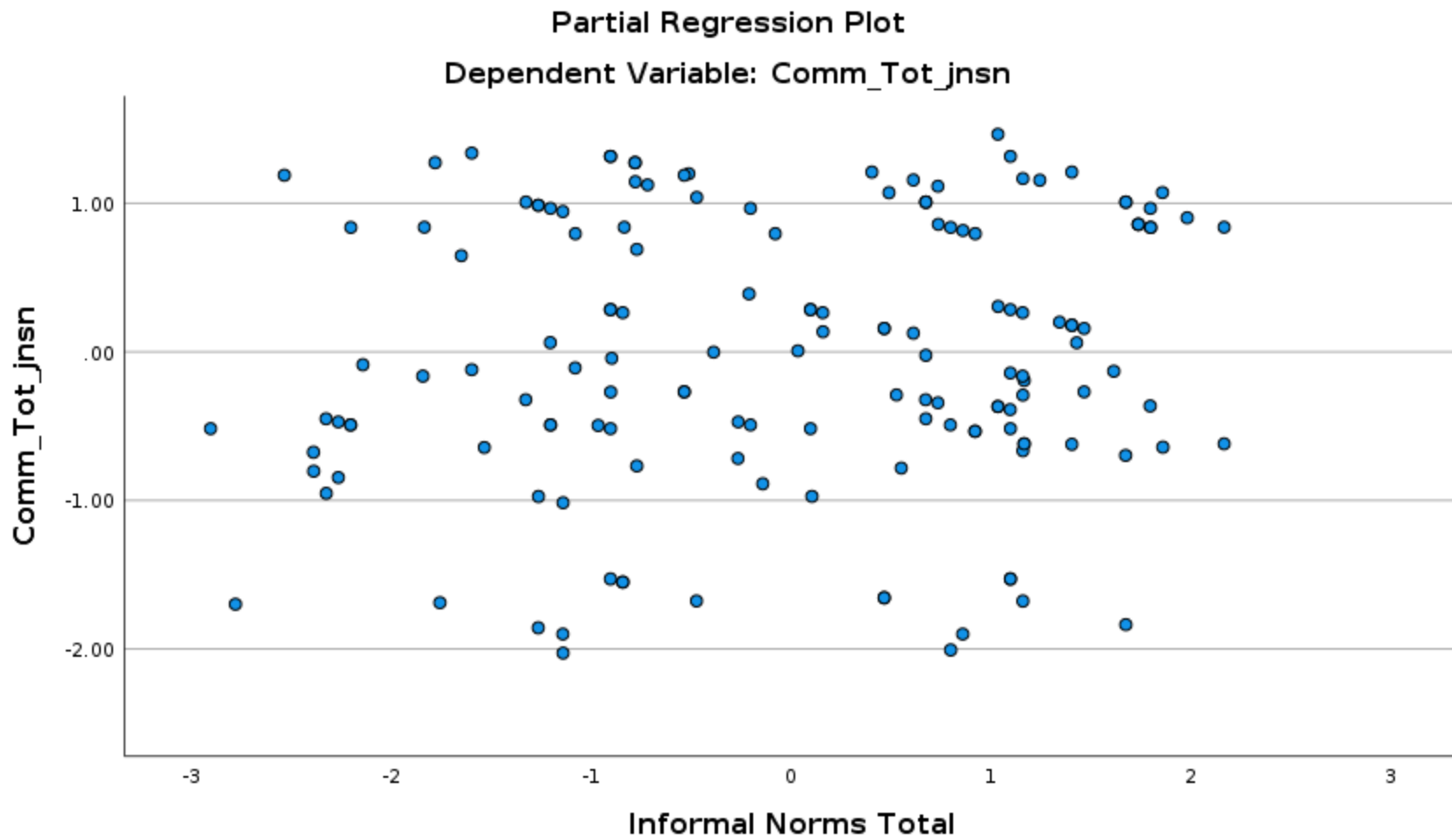


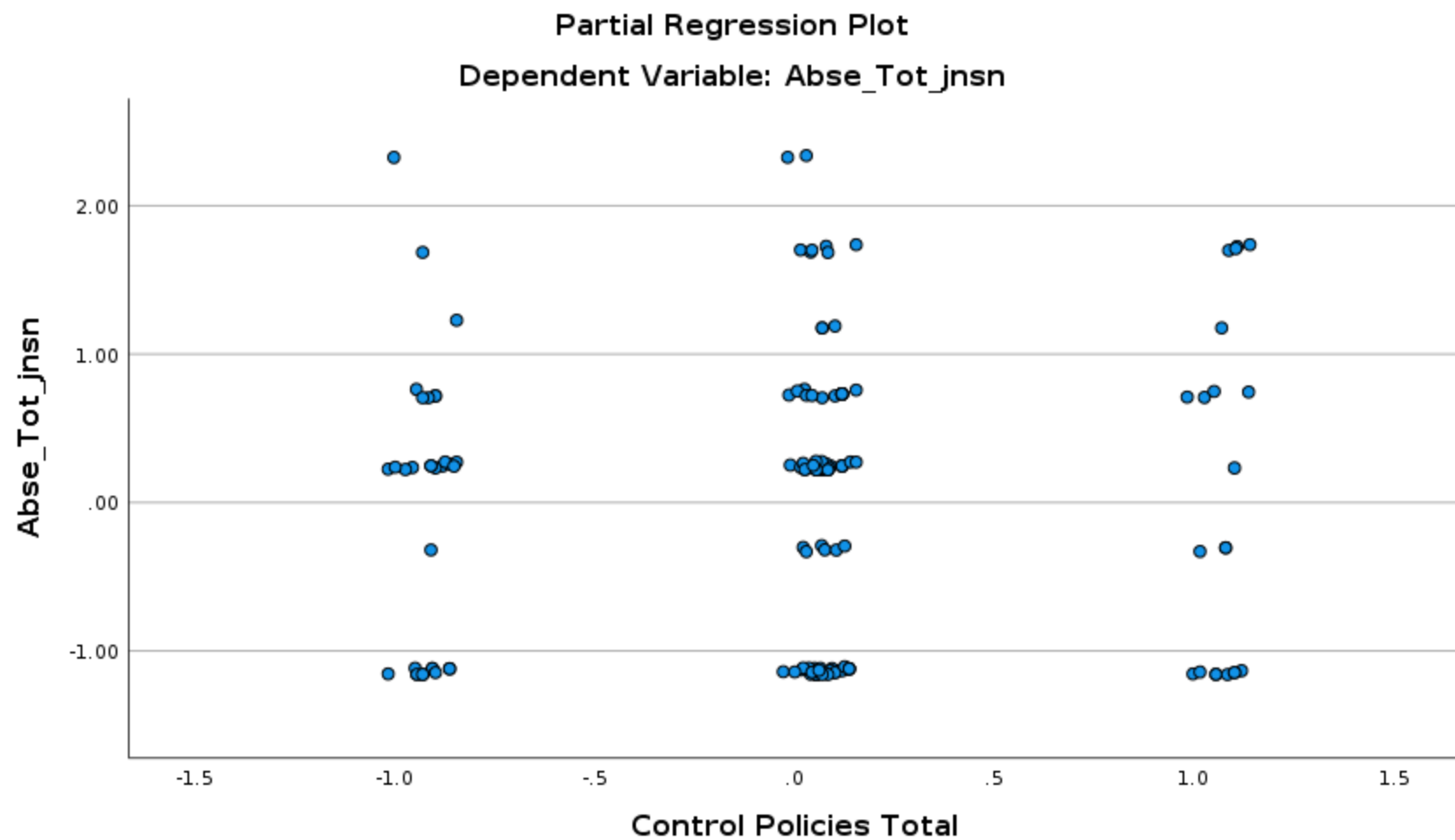




Partial Regression Plot  
Dependent Variable: Turn\_Tot\_jnsn



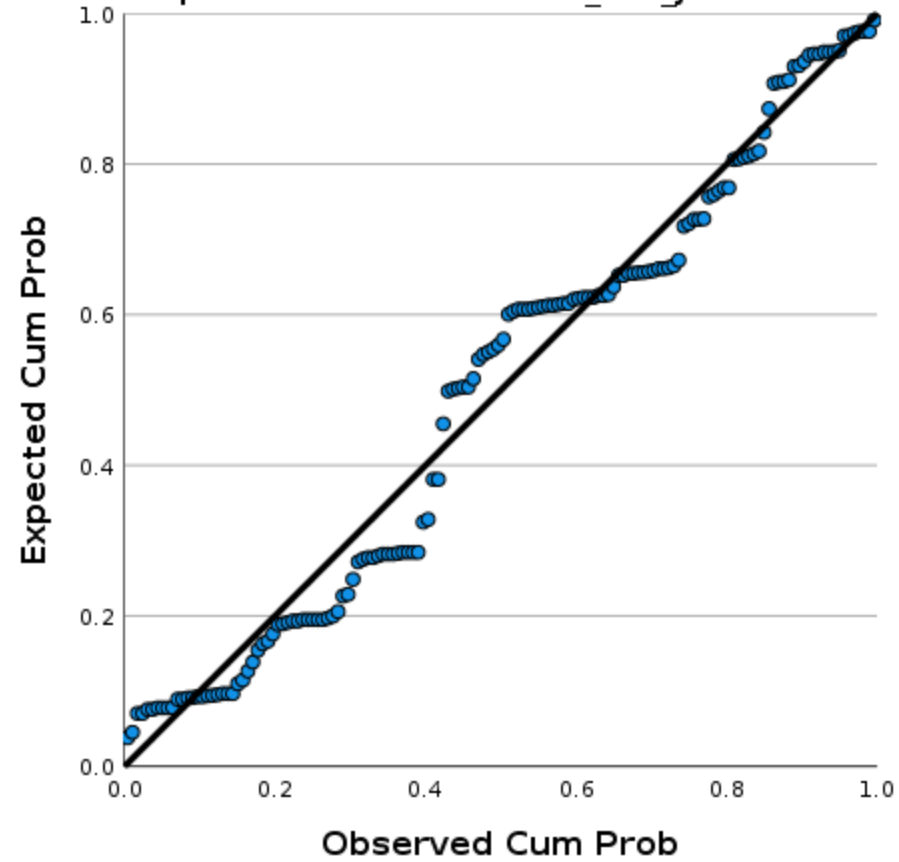






# Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual

Dependent Variable: Turn\_Tot\_jnsn



## Appendix B: Structural Equation Model

### Groups

#### Group number 1 (Group number 1)

#### Notes for Group (Group number 1)

The model is recursive.

Sample size = 150

#### Variable Summary (Group number 1)

#### Your model contains the following variables (Group number 1)

Observed, endogenous variables

Comm\_Tot\_jnsn

Abse\_Tot\_jnsn

Turn\_Tot\_jnsn

Observed, exogenous variables

Adap\_Tot

Info\_Tot

Copo\_tot

Str\_Tot

Goal\_Tot

SexM0F1

Unobserved, exogenous variables

eComm

eAbse

eTurn

#### Variable counts (Group number 1)

Number of variables in your model: 12

Number of observed variables: 9

Number of unobserved variables: 3

Number of exogenous variables: 9

Number of endogenous variables: 3

#### **Parameter Summary (Group number 1)**

|           | Weights | Covariances | Variances | Means | Intercepts | Total |
|-----------|---------|-------------|-----------|-------|------------|-------|
| Fixed     | 3       | 0           | 0         | 0     | 0          | 3     |
| Labeled   | 0       | 0           | 0         | 0     | 0          | 0     |
| Unlabeled | 10      | 0           | 9         | 6     | 3          | 28    |
| Total     | 13      | 0           | 9         | 6     | 3          | 31    |

#### **Models**

##### **Default model (Default model)**

##### **Notes for Model (Default model)**

##### **Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)**

Number of distinct sample moments: 54

Number of distinct parameters to be estimated: 28

Degrees of freedom (54 - 28): 26

##### **Result (Default model)**

Minimum was achieved

Chi-square = 48.606

Degrees of freedom = 26

Probability level = .005

**Group number 1 (Group number 1 - Default model)**

**Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model)**

**Scalar Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model)**

**Maximum Likelihood Estimates**

**Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)**

|                             | Estimate | S.E. | C.R.   | P    | Label |
|-----------------------------|----------|------|--------|------|-------|
| Comm_Tot_jnsn <--- Adap_Tot | .230     | .143 | 1.616  | .106 |       |
| Comm_Tot_jnsn <--- Info_Tot | .065     | .056 | 1.159  | .246 |       |
| Comm_Tot_jnsn <--- Copo_tot | -.164    | .127 | -1.288 | .198 |       |
| Abse_Tot_jnsn <--- Str_Tot  | -.006    | .148 | -.043  | .966 |       |
| Abse_Tot_jnsn <--- Info_Tot | .012     | .059 | .210   | .833 |       |
| Abse_Tot_jnsn <--- Copo_tot | .041     | .132 | .308   | .758 |       |
| Turn_Tot_jnsn <--- Goal_Tot | .088     | .123 | .713   | .476 |       |
| Turn_Tot_jnsn <--- Info_Tot | -.006    | .052 | -.113  | .910 |       |
| Turn_Tot_jnsn <--- Copo_tot | .243     | .117 | 2.075  | .038 |       |
| Turn_Tot_jnsn <--- SexM0F1  | .400     | .138 | 2.895  | .004 |       |

**Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)**

|                             | Estimate |
|-----------------------------|----------|
| Comm_Tot_jnsn <--- Adap_Tot | .130     |
| Comm_Tot_jnsn <--- Info_Tot | .093     |
| Comm_Tot_jnsn <--- Copo_tot | -.103    |
| Abse_Tot_jnsn <--- Str_Tot  | -.004    |

|                             | Estimate |
|-----------------------------|----------|
| Abse_Tot_jnsn <--- Info_Tot | .017     |
| Abse_Tot_jnsn <--- Copo_tot | .025     |
| Turn_Tot_jnsn <--- Goal_Tot | .056     |
| Turn_Tot_jnsn <--- Info_Tot | -.009    |
| Turn_Tot_jnsn <--- Copo_tot | .163     |
| Turn_Tot_jnsn <--- SexM0F1  | .227     |

**Means: (Group number 1 - Default model)**

|          | Estimate | S.E. | C.R.   | P   | Label |
|----------|----------|------|--------|-----|-------|
| Adap_Tot | 2.857    | .043 | 66.362 | *** |       |
| Info_Tot | 2.447    | .109 | 22.520 | *** |       |
| Copo_tot | 2.927    | .048 | 60.707 | *** |       |
| Str_Tot  | 3.128    | .043 | 72.587 | *** |       |
| Goal_Tot | 3.002    | .046 | 65.586 | *** |       |
| SexM0F1  | .493     | .041 | 12.074 | *** |       |

**Intercepts: (Group number 1 - Default model)**

|               | Estimate | S.E. | C.R.   | P    | Label |
|---------------|----------|------|--------|------|-------|
| Comm_Tot_jnsn | -.358    | .574 | -.624  | .533 |       |
| Abse_Tot_jnsn | -.116    | .624 | -.185  | .853 |       |
| Turn_Tot_jnsn | -1.122   | .529 | -2.119 | .034 |       |

**Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)**

|          | Estimate | S.E. | C.R.  | P   | Label |
|----------|----------|------|-------|-----|-------|
| Adap_Tot | .277     | .032 | 8.652 | *** |       |

|          | Estimate | S.E. | C.R.  | P   | Label |
|----------|----------|------|-------|-----|-------|
| Info_Tot | 1.767    | .204 | 8.652 | *** |       |
| Copo_tot | .348     | .040 | 8.652 | *** |       |
| Str_Tot  | .278     | .032 | 8.652 | *** |       |
| Goal_Tot | .314     | .036 | 8.652 | *** |       |
| SexM0F1  | .250     | .029 | 8.652 | *** |       |
| eComm    | .844     | .098 | 8.652 | *** |       |
| eAbse    | .909     | .105 | 8.652 | *** |       |
| eTurn    | .715     | .083 | 8.652 | *** |       |

#### Minimization History (Default model)

| Iteration | Negative<br>eigenvalues | Condition #  | Smallest<br>eigenvalue | Diameter F |          | NTries | Ratio    |
|-----------|-------------------------|--------------|------------------------|------------|----------|--------|----------|
| 0         | e 0                     | 20518428.318 |                        | 9999.000   | 1367.429 | 0      | 9999.000 |
| 1         | e 0                     | 54703667.499 |                        | 13.361     | 578.932  | 4      | .000     |
| 2         | e 0                     | 22491267.107 |                        | 27.383     | 347.153  | 1      | .544     |
| 3         | e 0                     | 20545964.226 |                        | 5.602      | 143.281  | 1      | 1.239    |
| 4         | e 0                     | 20156680.090 |                        | 1.547      | 73.272   | 1      | 1.254    |
| 5         | e 0                     | 19781960.975 |                        | .535       | 52.168   | 1      | 1.206    |
| 6         | e 0                     | 20165737.771 |                        | .179       | 48.762   | 1      | 1.123    |
| 7         | e 0                     | 20547635.396 |                        | .042       | 48.607   | 1      | 1.038    |
| 8         | e 0                     | 19813130.618 |                        | .003       | 48.606   | 1      | 1.003    |
| 9         | e 0                     | 20372916.024 |                        | .000       | 48.606   | 1      | 1.001    |

#### Model Fit Summary

CMIN

| Model              | NPAR | CMIN   | DF | P    | CMIN/DF |
|--------------------|------|--------|----|------|---------|
| Default model      | 28   | 48.606 | 26 | .005 | 1.869   |
| Saturated model    | 54   | .000   | 0  |      |         |
| Independence model | 9    | 68.026 | 45 | .015 | 1.512   |

#### Baseline Comparisons

| Model              | NFI<br>Delta1 | RFI<br>rho1 | IFI<br>Delta2 | TLI<br>rho2 | CFI   |
|--------------------|---------------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------|
| Default model      | .285          | -.237       | .462          | -.699       | .018  |
| Saturated model    | 1.000         |             | 1.000         |             | 1.000 |
| Independence model | .000          | .000        | .000          | .000        | .000  |

#### Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

| Model              | PRATIO | PNFI | PCFI |
|--------------------|--------|------|------|
| Default model      | .578   | .165 | .011 |
| Saturated model    | .000   | .000 | .000 |
| Independence model | 1.000  | .000 | .000 |

#### NCP

| Model              | NCP    | LO 90 | HI 90  |
|--------------------|--------|-------|--------|
| Default model      | 22.606 | 6.769 | 46.251 |
| Saturated model    | .000   | .000  | .000   |
| Independence model | 23.026 | 4.718 | 49.290 |

#### FMIN

| Model              | FMIN | F0   | LO 90 | HI 90 |
|--------------------|------|------|-------|-------|
| Default model      | .094 | .044 | .013  | .089  |
| Saturated model    | .000 | .000 | .000  | .000  |
| Independence model | .131 | .044 | .009  | .095  |

#### RMSEA

| 9999Model          | RMSEA | LO 90 | HI 90 | PCLOSE |
|--------------------|-------|-------|-------|--------|
| Default model      | .041  | .022  | .059  | .785   |
| Independence model | .031  | .014  | .046  | .984   |

#### AIC

| Model              | AIC     | BCC     | BIC | CAIC |
|--------------------|---------|---------|-----|------|
| Default model      | 104.606 | 105.709 |     |      |
| Saturated model    | 108.000 | 110.126 |     |      |
| Independence model | 86.026  | 86.381  |     |      |

#### ECVI

| Model              | ECVI | LO 90 | HI 90 | MECVI |
|--------------------|------|-------|-------|-------|
| Default model      | .202 | .171  | .248  | .204  |
| Saturated model    | .208 | .208  | .208  | .213  |
| Independence model | .166 | .131  | .217  | .167  |

#### HOELTER

| Model         | HOELTER | HOELTER |
|---------------|---------|---------|
|               | .05     | .01     |
| Default model | 415     | 487     |



| Model              | HOELTER | HOELTER |
|--------------------|---------|---------|
|                    | .05     | .01     |
| Independence model | 470     | 533     |

#### Execution time summary

Minimization: .000  
 Miscellaneous: .371  
 Bootstrap: .000  
 Total: .371

ProQuest Number: 29394315

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