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# The effects of organizational structure on faculty job performance, job satisfaction, and counterproductive work behavior

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The Effects of Organizational Structure on Faculty Job Performance,

Job Satisfaction, and Counterproductive Work Behavior

by

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Job Satisfaction, and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Stacey Kessler

**ABSTRACT**

Organizational researchers focus on group level variables such as organizational climate and organizational structure. The purpose of the current meso-level study is to examine the effects of the structure of an academic department on faculty members' job performance, job satisfaction, and prevalence of counterproductive work behavior (CWB), or harmful behaviors while at work. The sample consisted of 1135 full time faculty members working in 229 academic departments throughout the United States and Canada. Results of the study suggested that faculty members working in a more organically structured department report higher levels of job satisfaction. Additionally, productive faculty members working in more organically structured departments commit fewer instances of abusive behaviors than productive faculty members working in more mechanistically structured departments. The implications as well as limitations of the study are discussed.

Chapter One

Introduction

Organizational behaviorists and human resources professionals have long been curious about the best way to structure a work environment in order to influence employee outcomes. While it is widely recognized that both dispositional and environmental factors jointly affect behavior, there is a movement towards a focus on environmental factors because professionals can influence these variables. Traditional environmental factors of employee behavior include certain tangible stressors such as lacking proper tools or equipment, however; recently, there has been a shift to conducting meso-level analyses (Nord & Fox, 1996), evaluating the effects of group level variables such as organizational climate or structure on individuals' attitudes and behaviors. Based upon this changing research trend, statisticians have developed new approaches to analyzing this type of data. Specifically, multilevel modeling, also referred to as hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) allows researchers to analyze the effects of specific group variables on individuals (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Using Burns and Stalker's (1961) conceptualization of organizational structure, the purpose of the current meso-level study is to examine the effects of the structure of an academic department on faculty members' job performance, job satisfaction, and prevalence of counterproductive work behavior (CWB), or harmful behaviors while at work.

*Organizational Structure*

There are a variety of ways in which researchers can examine the structure of an organization. Burns and Stalker (1961) distinguished between organic and mechanistic organizational structures. They explained that a mechanistic structure is one in which

upper level mangers divide tasks into discrete, specialized units. Employees are responsible for independently completing these tasks as assigned. Additionally, this type of organization is one that is governed by strict rules within a stringent hierarchical system. In this type of an organization, the upper-level management governs the organization, makes decisions, and dictates these decisions to lower-level employees for completion. Thus, communication within the organization is vertical; providing formal networks only between immediate superiors and subordinates (Burns & Stalker, 1961).

In contrast, within organic systems employees work together, each having an integral knowledge of other employees' tasks (Burns & Stalker, 1961). As a result, jobs are not as rigidly defined and job descriptions are often the result of collaboration among employees. This type of an organization has fewer rules and regulations, allowing employees latitude to promote creativity and innovative thinking. Similarly, organic systems include lateral communication, allowing employees to collaborate with one another as well as other external constituencies. As a result, upper-level managers do not deliver decisions, rather employees work together to implement new ideas (Burns & Stalker, 1961).

While there seems to be an increasing trend towards implementing organic systems, Burns and Stalker (1961) noted that the type of structure an organization adopts should depend upon the conditions in which the organization is operating. Specifically, organizations operating under dynamic conditions might benefit from implementing an organic structure, while organizations operating under more stable conditions might benefit from implementing a mechanistic structure.

*Measuring organic and mechanistic structures.* Initially, Burns and Stalker's (1961) conceptualization of organizational structure was purely theoretical. However, in an effort to empirically examine the construct, researchers have operationalized the theory in a number of ways. Two of the most popular ways were to conduct interviews with top management personnel or to tape and code conversations that took place (Courtright, Fairhurst, & Rogers, 1989) within organizations. While these methods provide one way to measure the construct, they are plagued by methodological issues such as bias.

Another way researchers operationalized this construct was by identifying distinct pieces of organic structures and then using surveys to measure these pieces. For example, most studies that examined organizational structure in this manner used indices of centralization and formalization (Shrader, Lincoln, & Hoffman, 1989; Moch, Bartunek, & Brass, 1979; Brass & Burkhardt, 1993; Bucic & Gudergan, 2004). Highly centralized decision making is characteristic of mechanistic organizations and means that decisions are made by a small body of individuals who have authority over the organization. On the other hand, decentralized structures are characteristic of organic organizations and refer to the decision making process taking place at all levels of the organization. Formalization refers to the rules and guidelines within the organization. Organizations with high levels of formalization require its members to adopt specific rules and guidelines as well as instill a sense of conformity among its members. This high level of formalization is characteristic of mechanistic organizations. On the contrary, organizations with less formalization allow its members to interact with one another freely. While these methods are more standardized, they do not facilitate a comparison

across studies because the choice of exact constructs and specific scales tended to vary across studies.

The last way that researchers operationalized organic and mechanistic organizational structure was through a single scale designed to measure the level of organicity within organizations. Meadows (1980) used a nine-item, 5-point Likert scale. The Cronbach alpha was .89. Pillai and Meindl (1998) used 26 items from Van de Ven and Ferry's (1980) Organizational Assessment Instrument in order to measure organicity. They describe this as a gestalt measure of organizational structure. The items were factor analyzed into the following clusters: standardization, supervisory discretion, employee discretion, personnel specialization, workflow interdependence, distribution of unit authority, and vertical/horizontal communication. The Cronbach alphas for each subscale ranged from .74-.88.

Another scale that researchers have used to measure organicity was Khandwalla (1976/77). This is a seven item scale along a 7-point Likert scale. Higher scores indicate greater amounts of organicity while lower scores indicated a more mechanistic tendency. Ambrose and Schminke (2003) used this scale and had reliability estimates in the .80 range.

*Empirical studies examining organic and mechanistic structures.* Using the aforementioned types of scales, a number of researchers have empirically examined the effects of both organic and mechanistic structures. One study reported that that the communication patterns within organic and mechanistic organizational structures vary (Courtright, Fairhurst, & Rogers, 1989). Not surprisingly, these researchers found that the communication patterns within mechanistic structures tend to be authoritative and

command oriented while the patterns of communication within organic structures tend to be consultative.

Ambrose and Schminke (2003) examined the relationships between organizational structure and three types of justice: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Distributive justice refers to individual's perception regarding the fairness of outcomes while procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the process that is used to distribute rewards and punishment (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Interactional justice is an extension of procedural justice and it refers to the way in which the management treats and relates to the recipient of the justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Ambrose and Schminke (2003) surveyed 506 individuals nested in 98 departments within 64 organizations. They found that organizational structure moderated the relationship between procedural justice and an employee's perceived organizational support (e.g., my organization cares about my well-being) such that the relationship between this type of justice and perceived organizational support was stronger in mechanistic rather than organic structures. They also found that organizational structure moderated the relationship between interactional justice and supervisory trust (e.g., how much an employees trusts their supervisor) such that this relationship was stronger in organic rather than in mechanistic structures. This study is important because it shows how organic and mechanistic structures differentially affect individual's perceptions within organizations.

Other researchers have examined the direct effect of mechanistic and organic organizational structures on employees' behavior and performance. Bucic and Gudergan (2004) operationalized key pieces of Burn and Stalker's (1994) conceptualization by

focusing on the concepts of centralization and formalization. Bucic and Gudergan (2004) found that within medium to large organizations, high amounts of centralization had negative effects on a team's level of creativity and learning. They also found that greater formalization had a negative impact on team learning. They did not find a significant relationship between formalization and creativity. Therefore, it seems that implementing a mechanistic structure negatively affected a team's functioning.

Similarly, Meadows (1980) discovered that the implementation of an organic structure was positively related to an increase in job satisfaction among employees working in small groups. He also found that individuals high on personality variables such as a need for dominance, a need for achievement, and a need for autonomy displayed a stronger correlation between organic structures and job satisfaction than did individuals low on these personality variables.

Another study conducted by Pillai and Meindl (1998) reviewed the relationship between organizational structure and leadership. Specifically, they examined the role of charismatic leadership, which refers to distinct personality characteristics of the leader. Charismatic leadership is an important variable because charismatic leaders have the ability to positively influence job satisfaction and organizational performance (Pillai & Meindl, 1998). The researchers examined 101 units within a large government health services agency. They found that organic structures were positively related to the emergence of charismatic leadership.

While researchers have found that the type of organizational structure affects the behavior of its members, the aforementioned organizations were all of an industrial genre. On the contrary, Harrison (1974) examined the impact of organic and mechanistic

structures on scientists' perceived role performance. He found that scientists working in more organically structured laboratories viewed themselves as being more respected by their colleagues, made a greater contribution of knowledge to the field, made a greater contribution of management objectives, and held a greater sense of personal achievement than their colleagues working in more mechanistically structured organizations. One important limitation of this study was the author's sole reliance on subjective methods of performance appraisal, such as a sense of personal achievement, as opposed to more objective methods of assessment, such as rate of publications.

*Counterproductive Work Behavior (CWB)*

Previous research has demonstrated that organizational structure affects an individual's behavior within the organization. One important outcome variable often examined within organizational research, but seems to be lacking within the organizational structure research, is counterproductive work behavior (CWB). CWB has been referred to in the literature by a number of different terms. These include incivility (Pearson et al., 2001; Cortina et al., 2001), mobbing (Zapf, 2002), organizational retaliatory behavior (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997; Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999), aggression (Baron & Neuman, 1996), and deviance (Robinson & Bennett, 1995). Despite the numerous terms that have been used to label this set of negative behaviors in the workplace, they all refer to the general construct of CWB. Therefore, counterproductive work behavior can broadly be defined as "behaviors by employees intended to harm their organization or organization members, such as theft, sabotage, interpersonal aggression, work slowdowns, wasting time and/or materials, and spreading rumors" (Penney & Spector, 2002, p. 126). Employees can either direct CWB towards the organization

(CWB-O; i.e., employees wasting resources or sabotaging equipment) or at other employees (CWB-I; harassment, verbal abuse, stealing).

*Prevalence and cost of CWB.* CWB is an important outcome variable to examine because it has far reaching consequences on organizations. First, it is estimated that CWB costs organizations billions of dollars each year in lost revenue, theft, and fraud (U.S. Chamber of Commerce, 2002). Second, not only is CWB financially costly to organizations, but it adversely affects employees as well. Specifically, the Center for Disease Control (NIOSH, 1996) reported that nearly 15% of workplace homicides between the years of 1992 and 1994 could be attributed to a dispute between coworkers.

Despite this report and recent media portrayals of CWB in the workplace, Baron and Neuman (1996) found that the majority of instances of workplace aggression committed in organizations are verbal, indirect, and passive as opposed to physical, direct, and active. Therefore, employees are more likely to spread rumors about colleagues and supervisors than to physically assault them. For example, Geddes and Baron (1997) reported that almost 70% of managers have experienced verbal aggression from subordinates. It should be noted that these types of behaviors, although not lethal, cost organizations time and money. Due to the negative effects CWB has on both organizations and employees, it is important to examine potential antecedents of CWB.

*Measuring CWB.* Researchers have designed a number of scales to measure CWB. Robinson and Bennett (1995) created an influential categorization that classifies CWB along two continua: Serious/Minor and Interpersonal/Organizational. Interpersonal/Organizational refers to whom the behavior is directed—the organization itself or other individuals working in the organization. Minor/Serious refers to how

severe the consequences are. This categorization scheme is important because it allows us to classify CWB within four quadrants: minor acts directed towards the organization, serious acts directed towards the organization, minor acts directed towards individuals and serious acts directed towards individuals. Examples of minor acts directed towards individuals include showing favoritism, gossiping, blaming co-workers, and competing nonbeneficially. On the other hand, serious acts directed towards individuals include verbal abuse, stealing from co-workers, and endangering co-workers.

A number of studies have found different patterns of antecedents for each of the aforementioned types of CWB's. For example, Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) found that an increase in distributive justice, positive emotion, and autonomy significantly predicted a decrease in CWB directed towards the organization. However, these three variables did not significantly affect the amount of CWB directed towards other employees. In a similar study, Fox and Spector (1999) examined how antecedents differentially affected more specific types of CWB. For example, they found that when employees felt frustrated or encountered constraints in their work environment were likely to react with minor acts of CWB directly towards the organization and towards fellow employees as well as serious acts of CWB directed towards other employees. Interestingly, employees did not tend to react to frustration or constraints with serious acts of CWB directed towards the organization. On the other hand, Fox and Spector (1999) noted a different pattern of relationships for employees experiencing anxiety. Specifically, when employees experienced anxiety, they were more likely to respond to it by committing serious acts of CWB directed towards both the organization and towards fellow employees as well as minor acts of CWB directed towards the organization. However,

anxious employees did not respond by committing minor acts of CWB directed towards fellow employees. Taken together, these studies indicate that different types of CWB have different antecedents.

Spector, Fox, Penney, Bruursema, Goh, and Kessler (2006) further distinguished between types of CWB's by examining the specific types of CWB's employees commit. They identify five dimensions including: abuse, production deviance, sabotage, theft, and withdrawal. Abuse refers to harmful behaviors directed towards others that harm the person either physically or psychologically. Examples of such behaviors include making threats, making nasty comments, or ignoring the person. Second, production deviance refers to the intentional failure to complete aspects of the job properly. Third, sabotage refers to when employees destroy property that belongs to the organization. The difference between production deviance and sabotage is that the former refers to when an employee does not do a task correctly (or at all) while sabotage refers to when an employee intentionally ruins something. Finally, theft refers to when an employee steals materials from the organization and withdrawal occurs when an employee works fewer hours than required by the organization.

The faceted CWB scale is particularly important because different types of CWB have different antecedents. Spector et al. (2006) found that anger predicted both abuse and sabotage but not theft. Additionally, a lack of distributve justice predicted abuse, production deviance, and withdrawal, but not sabotage or theft. Last, feelings of boredom increased he likelihood of an employee withdrawing from the organization. But it did not affect the other four types of CWB.  Therefore, it seems that different types of CWB have different antecedents.

*Individual level antecedents of CWB.* Most research examining the situational antecedents of CWB have focused on proximal variables related to aspects of an employee's job or a specific work environment. However, few have focused on organizational level antecedents of CWB. Therefore, the following section will review the literature that examined proximal situation antecedents of CWB and then will review the few studies that have examined higher level antecedents of CWB. Spector's (1978) frustration-aggression model of CWB, based upon the Dollard, Doob Miller, Mowrer, Sears, Ford, Hovland, and Sollenberger (1939) frustration aggression theory, is one of the first models that examined antecedents of CWB. The theory essentially states that emotional reactions mediate the relationship between frustration and CWB. This means that when individuals experience frustration in the workplace, they have an emotional reaction towards it, and then behave as a result of this emotional reaction. Empirical evidence has consistently shown support for this model. Specifically, Storms and Spector (1987) found support for the model and that locus of control moderates the relationship between frustration and CWB. Similarly, Chen and Spector (1992) found relationships among frustration, job stressors, and CWB.

Fox and Spector (1999) also hypothesized that certain dispositional characteristics, such as work locus of control, trait anxiety, and trait anger, affect this mediated relationship. Specifically, individuals who have an external work locus of control and are high on trait anger will report higher levels of frustration. Additionally, the perception of the likelihood of punishment is important. Individuals who do not expect to be caught and punished are more likely to engage in CWB. Fox and Spector

(1999) found empirical support for this model. This model is important because it demonstrated that frustrating aspects of a situation can affect the amount of CWB a person commits. Furthermore, it also provided the groundwork for future models of CWB.

Another important model, the Job Stress model of CWB, is an extension of the frustration-aggression model (Spector & Fox, 2002). The difference is that the current model incorporates additional stressors, not just frustration. The Job Stress model states that individuals experience job stressors, "conditions or situations that elicit a negative emotional response," (Spector, 1998) in the workplace. One example of a job stressor is work constraints such as lacking proper tools or information. Individuals then have an emotional reaction to these constraints which in turn affects job strains. Job strains are reactions to stressors that can take the form of behaviors (coping behaviors to deal with the problem or CWB), psychological reactions (e.g., job dissatisfaction), or physical reactions (e.g., increased blood pressure). Furthermore, emotional reactions mediate the relationship between job stressors and job strains. It is important to note that this model does not always result in an individual committing CWB. Rather, an individual can engage in constructive behavior to fix the constraint (e.g., ask supervisor for required tools) or behave in a counterproductive way such as engaging in CWB's of theft, sabotage, or withdrawal.

A number of factors affect the aforementioned mediated relationship. First, an individual's perception of control over the specific stressor is very important. Individuals who feel that they have control over the specific stressor will have a less negative emotional reaction. Other variables have also been found to be important. For example,

nervousness, anger, and fear mediate the relationship between job stressors and CWB. Additionally, trait anger and trait anxiety mediate the relationship between job stressors and CWB (Spector & Fox, 2002).

A third noteworthy model is the justice/equity model of CWB. Adams (1965) hypothesized equity theory to explain how peoples' perceptions of fairness within organizations impact their behavior. Specifically, employees will attempt to ensure that their ratio of inputs to outputs is fair. Inputs refer to the things employees give to their organization such as productivity and effort, while outputs refer to what the organization gives employees in return, such as pay, promotion, or commendations. Therefore, employees who feel they are underpaid for their work might respond by stealing from their employer in order to gain some sense of equity. Greenberg (1990) tested this theory by examining whether pay cuts in Midwestern manufacturing plants affected workers' feelings of inequity and employee theft. He found that employees who received a 15% pay cut and were given inadequate explanations for the pay cut had higher turnover, higher theft rates, and higher perceptions of pay inequity than employees who received the pay cut along with an adequate explanation. This study provides some support for equity theory because employees who received adequate explanations for the pay cut performed fewer counterproductive behaviors because they did not feel as though their balance of inputs and outputs were uneven.

Justice theory is consistent with equity theory; the goal of employees within both of these theories is to ensure that they are treated fairly. More modern justice theories of CWB state that employees who are not treated fairly are likely to engage in CWB. For example, Skarlicki and Folger (1997) found that organizational retaliatory behavior

(ORB), defined as negative behaviors "used to punish the organization and its representatives in response to perceived unfairness" (p. 435) were related to employees perceptions of justice. They examined three types of justice: distributive, interactional, and procedural. Distributive justice refers to individual's perception regarding the fairness of outcomes while procedural justice refers to the perceived fairness of the process that is used to distribute rewards and punishment (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). Interactional justice is an extension of procedural justice and it refers to the way in which the management treats and relates to the recipient of the justice (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001). They found that all three types of justice) interacted to predict ORB.

A number of other researchers have also found a strong relationship between justice and negative work behaviors. For example, a recent meta-analysis found that a lack of procedural justice predicts CWB within organizations (Cohen-Charash and Spector, 2001).

Both Spector (1978) and Greenberg (1990) noted that the job stressor and the justice models are potentially linked. Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) ran a series of analyses to investigate such links between the models. They found that conflict and organizational constraints were both positively correlated with negative emotion as well as both CWB-I and CWB-O. They also found that a measure of distributive justice was inversely correlated with negative emotion and CWB-O, but not CWB-I. Procedural justice was also significantly related to negative emotion and both types of the aforementioned CWB. Additionally, Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) found that negative emotions were related to increased levels of both CWB-I and CWB-O. The researchers also found results that possibly supported a mediator relationship between negative

emotions, various types of justice/job stressors and CWB. Specifically, the results supported the possibility that negative emotions mediated the relationship between job constraints and both CWB-I and CWB-O. Fox, Spector, and Miles (2001) also found that negative emotion potentially mediates the relationship between conflict and both types of CWB.

Regarding justice, the researchers found similar results. They provided evidence that supported negative emotion as mediating the relationship between procedural justice and both types of CWB, but only between distributive justice and CWB-O. Additionally, the researchers found that trait anger and anxiety interacted with job stressors for CWB-I, but not CWB-O. Therefore, as hypothesized, there appears to be a strong link between the job stressors and justice models

The justice model of CWB is noteworthy because it provides evidence explaining the way employees respond to perceived injustice. While these are important findings, it is also necessary to examine higher level antecedents of CWB.

*Group level antecedents of CWB.* While a large amount of literature has focused on individual level antecedents of CWB, some researchers have also examined higher level antecedents such as group level and organizational level. Specifically, Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) examined a "monkey see monkey do effect" in which they found support for a positive relationship between the amount of CWB committed by an individual and his/her peers. They showed that the level of CWB behavior exhibited by one's group of coworkers was positively related to the individual's level of CWB behavior after controlling for a number of other variables including age, organizational tenure, education, gender, perceived control, job satisfaction, likelihood of punishment

and close supervision. Additionally, Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) found that an individual's tenure in the organization moderated the relationship between the group's counterproductive behavior and the individual's level of CWB. Specifically, as an individual spent more time within an organization, his/her level of CWB became more similar to that of the group's. Robinson and O'Leary-Kelly (1998) also examined the relationship between the task interdependence and this "monkey see monkey do effect." They found that task interdependence, "the degree to which employees in a work group must coordinate their individual efforts," (Robinson &O'Leary-Kelly, 1998, p. 661) moderated this relationship so that the more interdependent the group, the greater the "monkey see monkey do effect."

Baron and Neuman (1996) reported organizational level predictors of CWB. For example, they stated that recent changes within organizations such as increased diversity, pay cuts, downsizing and computer monitoring may have contributed to the occurrence of workplace aggression. Therefore, macro level changes in the environment seem to have an effect on employee behavior within organizations. It is important to examine other higher level antecedents such as organizational structure because it is possible that one type of organizational structure facilitates more CWB than another type.

*CWB in Higher Education.* For the most part, researchers have examined CWB within traditional organizational settings such as corporate offices and factories. Fewer studies have examined the prevalence and impact of CWB within university settings. Even when this type of research was done with university employees, the samples were often combined with other types of employees. Despite the lack of empirical research within this area, the few studies that have examined this behavior within higher education

have found that CWB occurs and has a negative impact on university employees.

Spratlen (1995) examined behavior referred to as mistreatment. Mistreatment is a broad

type of counterproductive behavior that employees commit against one another. Spratlen

(1995) found that 23% of participants reported experiencing mistreatment within the

workplace. While most mistreatment was aimed towards staff members, 11% of faculty

reported that they had experienced mistreatment at work. Faculty members noted that

mistreatment came from either a coworker (36% of cases) or from a superior (52% of

cases). Additionally, the mistreatment most often took a verbal form. Spratlen (1995) also

investigated the outcomes of workplace mistreatment. He reported that the most common

negative effect of workplace mistreatment was a decrease in the receiver's level of job

satisfaction.

On a related note, Narayanan, Menon, and Spector (1999) found that interpersonal

conflict was fairly common among faculty members working in academic departments

and that they viewed interpersonal conflict as a major source of stress. Similarly, Liu,

Spector, and Shi (2007) examined interpersonal conflict among faculty members working

in both the United States and China. They found that constraints, frustration, depression,

and job dissatisfaction predicted interpersonal conflict. It is also interesting to note that a

recent study surveying university support staff found a strong link between interpersonal

conflict and CWB directed towards fellow employees (Bruk-Lee & Spector, 2006).

Although this study examined support workers, the link may generalize to faculty

members as well since previous researchers (Narayanan, Menon, & Spector, 1999; Liu,

Spector, and Shi, 2007) have found that interpersonal conflict is fairly common among

faculty members. The current study extends the literature by examining one type of CWB-P, abuse, among faculty members.

*Job Satisfaction*

Job satisfaction (JS) is one of the most widely studies constructs within organizational research. Although CWB researchers have neglected examining organizational structure as an antecedent, researchers have examined the relationship between organizational structure and job satisfaction (Meadows, 1980) and have found significant relationships between various types of organizational structures and job satisfaction. Therefore, the current study will examine job satisfaction as an outcome variable as well.

*Measuring job satisfaction.* Locke (1976) defined job satisfaction as "a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one job or job experience" (p. 1304). Based upon this definition, researchers have examined JS has a global construct or as a multifaceted construct. Faceted scales examine specific components of a job such as satisfaction with pay or with coworkers (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989). On the other hand, global scales often contain one or more items and refer to a general indicator of satisfaction with one's job (Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989). Global scales are advantageous because they allow a researcher to obtain an overall indicator of job satisfaction or when the researcher wants to examine a change in job satisfaction across time (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997).

*Theories of Job Satisfaction.* A number of theories have been proposed in order to examine the underlying causal nature of the construct (e.g., Herzberg, 1967). However, these theories tended to focus on personality dispositions or environmental factors related

to the job as opposed to factors related to the organizational structure. For example, Hackman and Oldham (1976) proposed the Job Characteristics Model (JCM) in which they theorized that intrinsically motivating factors of jobs lead to job satisfaction. They hypothesized that five core job characteristics (task identity, task significance, skill variety, autonomy, and feedback) led to three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness of work, responsibility for outcomes, and knowledge of the results) which in turn produced levels of job satisfaction. Frye (1996) found a .50 correlation between Hackman and Oldham's (1976) job characteristics and job satisfaction. Hackman and Oldham (1976) also hypothesized that an employee's growth need strength, the employee's desire for personal development, plays an important role. Specifically, growth need strength has been found to moderate the relationship between Hackman and Oldham's (1976) core job characteristics and job satisfaction such that the relationship between the core characteristics and job satisfaction is stronger for individuals with high growth need strength (Frye, 1996).

*Job Performance*

Many organizational researchers dating back to the Classical Organizational theorists have noted the importance of examining indices of individual as well as group level productivity. Within today's changing workplace, researchers have struggled to discover the best ways to measure an individual's job performance within specific jobs as well as across jobs. Austin and Villanova (1992), among others, refer to this issue as the criterion problem and define it as "the difficulties involved in the process of conceptualizing and measuring performance constructs that are multidimensional and appropriate for different purposes" (p. 836). Often researchers and practitioners begin the

process of defining job performance by articulating the ultimate criterion. Thorndike (1949) explains that the ultimate criterion is a specification of everything that defines job success across the full domain of a specific job. He further explains that the ultimate criterion is conceptual in nature and cannot be measured. Therefore, researchers and practitioners use the ultimate criterion as a guide to choosing indicators of job performance, with the knowledge that they will never fully capture the entire performance domain.

*Objective and subjective indices.* When conceptualizing criteria to assess job performance, researchers often have to choose between subjective and objective methods of appraisal (Viswesvaran, 2001). Subjective methods refer to "soft" criteria such as peer, self, or supervisory ratings. Objective criteria refer to indices of productivity (e.g., the number of items produced within an hour). Whereas subjective criteria are often easier to obtain, they are plagued with issues of bias. Therefore, researchers often opt for objective measures of performance when they are available.

*The Job Satisfaction and Job Performance Relationship*

Researchers have often hypothesized a strong, positive relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Some researchers have theorized that individuals who enjoy their jobs are more likely to perform better than individuals who do not enjoy their jobs. Others have adopted the viewpoint that productivity predicts satisfaction, meaning that employees who perform well in their jobs enjoy the success and therefore enjoy their jobs. Regardless of the hypothesized direction of the job satisfaction-job performance relationship, a series of meta-analyses have failed to find support for it (Vroom, 1964; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Judge, Thoreson, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Judge, Parker,

Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001). However, other researchers have explained that job satisfaction and job performance are not directly related to one another. Rather, third variables interact with job satisfaction to predict job performance. For example, Landy (1971) found support for motivation type moderating the job satisfaction-job performance relationship. Additionally, Norris and Niebuhr (1984) found that organizational tenure moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. Based upon these lines of research, it is possible that organizational structure interacts with job satisfaction to predict job performance.

*Current Study*

  *Purpose and Approach*. The goal of the current study is to examine the effects of organizational structure, namely mechanistic verses organically structured departments, on faculty members' levels of job satisfaction, job performance, and one type of CWB, abuse. It is predicted that more organically structured departments will facilitate higher levels of job satisfaction and job performance as well as lower levels of abusive behaviors.

  In order to examine the organizational structure, faculty members working in both the United States and Canada were asked to provide ratings of departmental organicity. Since multiple faculty members within each department provided ratings of the independent variable and since organizational structure is a shared phenomenon, faculty responses were aggregated by department to produce a single estimate of organicity per department. HLM will be used to test the effects of organicity on each of the individual level dependent variables.

*Hypotheses.* Based upon the aforementioned rational, the first three hypotheses will examine the effects of organizational structure on each of proposed dependent variables. The first dependent variable, job satisfaction, will be measured using a global scale. This type of scale will be used because the goal is to discover the faculty member's overall level of satisfaction with his/her job as opposed to his/her satisfaction with certain facets of the job, such as pay or promotion. The first hypothesis predicts that faculty members working within more organically structured departments will report higher levels of job satisfaction because in general, faculty members enjoy a certain degree of latitude and flexibility in their work. A more organically structured department will not have many rules and regulations for faculty members to follow. Furthermore, such a department will have more open lines of communication between department members and external personnel, thus removing additional restrictions. Therefore, the first hypothesis proposes that:

> *H1: Faculty members working in organically structured departments will have*
> *higher levels of job satisfaction.*

The next hypothesis examines the relationship between departmental structure and job performance. The performance of faculty members is measured through a number of objective and subjective methods. The most often used objective indicator to assess faculty performance is the number of peer reviewed publications. While numerous researchers have denigrated the heavy reliance of faculty publications as the main indicator of success and therefore a primary predictor of tenure and promotion, publication proliferation remains the primary way of evaluating faculty productivity. Therefore, the current study will use these objective indicators of performance. Since

faculty members working within more organically structured departments will have fewer rules and regulations within the department, they will have more leniency regarding their activities. Therefore, faculty members will be more likely to engage in innovative ideas because they do not need to go through formal channels to attain permission for doing so. This could in turn positively influence productivity. Therefore, the second hypothesis is that:

*H2: Faculty members working in organically structured departments will have higher levels of job performance.*

Along these lines, faculty members working within more organically structured departments will commit less CWB in the form abuse because they are afforded a greater degree of leniency and flexibility within these types of departments. Therefore, the third hypothesis proposes the following:

*H3: Faculty members working in organically structured departments will have lower levels of CWB.*

The fourth hypothesis examines the moderating effect of organizational structure. Meta-analyses have failed to indicate strong support for the job satisfaction-job performance relationship (Vroom, 1964; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Judge, Thoreson, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001). However, others have examined how third variables interact with job satisfaction to predict job performance (Landy, 1971, Norris & Niebuhr, 1984). Therefore, it is believed that organizational structure moderates the job satisfaction-job performance relationship in such a way that for faculty members working within more organically structured departments, job satisfaction will lead to job performance while for faculty members

working in more mechanistically structured departments, there will be no connection. The rational for this hypothesis is that faculty members working within organically structured departments will have fewer restrictions to which they need to adhere as well as more open lines of communication. One possibility is that with greater autonomy, the faculty member is able to regulate the workload such that when happy he/she does more and when unhappy he/she does less. Mechanistic structures provide less latitude to do better when satisfied and worse when dissatisfied. Therefore, the following hypothesis predicted that:

> *H4: Organizational structure moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance such that for faculty members working within more organically structured departments, job satisfaction will lead to job performance while for faculty members working in more mechanistically structured departments, there will be no connection.*

Faculty members tend to enjoy a degree of freedom in their positions. It is believed that faculty members working in more organically structured departments will be more productive because they have fewer rules and regulations to inhibit performance. Along these lines, it is also hypothesized that productive faculty members working in more organically structured departments are too busy to engage in abusive behaviors and find that they are more productive via other means. On the other hand, faculty members working in more mechanistically structured departments are more productive when they engage in abusive behaviors. Therefore, the final hypothesis predicts that productive faculty members working in more organically structured departments will commit fewer instances of abusive behaviors.

*H5: Organizational structure moderates the relationship between abuse and job performance such that in more organically structured organizations, abuse and job performance are inversely related.*

Chapter Two

Method

*Participants*

The sample consisted of 1135 full time faculty members working in 229 academic departments throughout the United States and Canada. A number of participants were excluded because they did not meet the study criteria (e.g. 59 were not full time faculty members, 47 were the department chairs, 28 additional participates were excluded because they retired, 4 were excluded because they were visiting faculty, 2 were excluded because they had cross appointments with other departments, 11 participants were excluded because they only completed the first 2 or 3 questions, and 1 excluded because he/she was a full time administrator). Additionally, a number of departments were excluded because only one faculty member from that department responded. Since the department structure variable is a group level variable, a department was included in the analyses if at least two faculty members from it responded. Due to inaccurate department websites, it is not possible to determine the response rate at level 1. However, 56.7% of departments had at least one faculty member respond to the survey and 34.9% of departments had two or more faculty members responding.

All departments were part of four year colleges. One hundred forty-five of these universities offered doctoral programs as well as Master's programs. Approximately 30% of departments were located in urban areas, another 30% were located in suburban areas, 25% were located in rural areas, and 10% of the departments' locations were unknown. About 67% of the schools had fewer than 20,000 students enrolled and 63% of the schools were public schools. Most had chair people (105 and lots missing data).

*Measures*

  *Organizational Structure.* Khandwalla's (1976/1977) adapted 7-point Likert scale was used to assess the structure of the academic department.  The scale contains seven items and higher numbers indicate more organic structures. The observed current Cronbach alpha of .83 mirrored that found in previous studies (Ambrose & Schminke, 2003). Since the structure of the department is a shared phenomenon, it is necessary to aggregate the ratings of faculty members in each department by taking the mean response. In order for a department to be included in the analyses, at least two faculty members needed to provide ratings of the structure.

  *Abuse.* A facet of Spector et al.'s (2006) CWB-C was used to assess abuse. This facet contains 15 items. Examples of items include how often a faculty member has "started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at work" and "been nasty or rude to a student." The Cronbach alpha for this facet was .70.

  *Job Satisfaction.* Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, and Klesh (1979) global job satisfaction scale was used. This scale contains 3 items that assess participant's overall level of job satisfaction. One item, "In general, I don't like my job," was reverse coded.  The Cronbach alpha was .85.

  *Job Performance.* An objective indicator of research productivity was used to assess faculty members' job performance. Faculty members were asked to indicate the number of peer reviewed journal publications they authored between the years of 2003-2005.

  *Course Load.* Faculty members were asked to report the number of courses that the average faculty member in their department taught. In some cases, there was not

agreement on this number. Therefore, in such instances, the mode response was used as an index of course load for the department. In circumstances in which only two department members responded and there was disagreement regarding the course load, the mean of these two numbers was used.

*Demographic Variables.* Faculty members were also asked to indicate demographic variables of gender, age, and rank (e.g., assistant, associate, or full professor). Faculty members were also asked to indicate whether they held any leadership positions in the department, college, or university between the years of 2003-2005. Last, the survey also asked faculty members to indicate whether their university was on a semester, trimester, quarter, or block schedule as well as whether it was located in an urban, suburban, or rural schedule.

Additional demographic information was collected from department websites. In particular, the title of the department leader (e.g., head or chair) was obtained from the websites.

*Procedure*

*Data Collection.* The website, http://psych.hanover.edu/Krantz/othera-z.html, contains a list of 657 Psychology departments located in the United States and Canada. Using this website, information about each academic department, including faculty e-mail addresses was obtained. In order to solicit participation, an initial e-mail explaining the study as well as a link to the survey was sent to each department chair (Appendix A and B). He/she was asked to forward the link to all full time department members and ask for their participation. A follow-up letter as well as a link to the survey was sent to each

individual faculty member via e-mail (Appendix C). Faculty members were able to complete the questionnaire on-line via survey monkey.

Additional information about each department was collected via the 2005 edition of Barron's. This included demographic information about each university such as the location of the university, the size of the university, and the setting of the university (e.g., rural, urban, or suburban).

*Analyses.* Hierarchical Linear Modeling, specifically the HLM 6.03 (student edition) program, was used to conduct the analyses because individuals are nested within groups (academic departments). It is important to take into account group membership because failing to do so could result in a number of inaccuracies in the analyses. For example, it is possible for different departments to have varying relationships between the independent and dependent variables, resulting in a different regression equation representing this relationship for each academic unit. In order to conduct the HLM analyses, a number of models were run based upon Raudenbush and Bryk's (2002) model building recommendations. It is important to note that in order to facilitate an understanding of the results, the independent variable was grand mean centered.

A number of notes regarding terminology are necessary at this point. First, HLM refers to variables by levels. Level 1 refers to the individual level, or in this case, the variables associated with individual faculty members. These variables include each of the three dependent variables: job satisfaction, job performance, and abuse. The second level, the group level, refers to the faculty members' department affiliation. Second level variables include the mean organizational structure rating per department. All models were run using the HLM 6.03 default, restricted maximum likelihood estimation. The

degree of freedom (df) was calculated using the default for calculating df, number of level two records minus the total number of fixed effects.

Before running the specified models, the descriptive statistics were inspected for normality. All interpretations of the statistical tests took into account departures from normality. Not enough research exists to understand how robust HLM is to handle departures from classic assumptions of normality and homogeneity of error. However, since the hypotheses are all based upon fixed effects, there is some additional leeway.

The fully unconditional model was run first. This model is equivalent to the one way ANOVA, random effects model. The purpose of this model was to estimate the variability in the dependent variable both between and within academic departments. It should be noted that the Y refers to the appropriate dependent variable (job satisfaction, job performance, or abuse) and that this model was run three times, once with each of the dependent variables. The HLM notation for this model is as follows:

$$Y_{ij} = B_{0j} + r_{ij} \text{ (level 1 equation)}$$

$$B_{0j} = Y_{00} + U_{oj} \text{ (level 2 equation)}$$

Additionally, this first model produced the estimates necessary to compute the interclass correlation coefficient (ICC). The ICC indicates the percentage of variance in the dependent variable due to a participant's membership in a specific department (Bliese, 2002). In other words, it provides an indication of agreement among group members.

The second model examines the relationship between the organizational structure variable and the outcome variable within each department (hypotheses 1-3). This model demonstrates that each school has its own unique relationship between the independent and dependent variables, resulting in the estimation of varying regression equations for

each school. While it is possible to depict the regression equation for each school, it is more parsimonious to report the results of this model. Specifically, the fixed effects output of this model provides information regarding the average regression equation (slopes and intercepts) across all departments. The variance/covariance portion of the output provides information about how much the estimated regression equations vary across departments. Again, it should be noted that the Y refers to the appropriate dependent variable (job satisfaction, job performance, or abuse) depending upon the hypothesis and that this model will be run three times, once with each of the dependent variables. The HLM notation for this model is as follows:

$$Y_{ij} = B_{0j} + r_{ij} \text{ (level 1 equation)}$$

$$B_{0j} = Y_{00} + Y_{01}(combinedOS)_j + u_{oj} \text{ (level 2 equation)}$$

In order to examine hypotheses 1-3, the combined OS coefficient under fixed effects was examined. A significant t test for this coefficient indicates that the organizational structure variable significantly affects the dependent variable specified in that model.

A third model was run in order to examine whether organizational structure moderates the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance as well as between abuse and job performance (hypotheses 4-5). The model allowed the random variance intercept and the random variance slope to covary. The equations are as follows:

$$Yi_j = B_{0j} + Bi_j(IV) + r_{ij} \text{ (level 1 equation)}$$

$$B_{0j} = Y_{00} + Y_{01}(combinedOS) + u_{oj} \text{ (level 2 equation)}$$

$$B_{ij} = Y_{10} + Y_{11}(combinedOS) + U_{ij} \text{ (level 2 equation)}$$

After running the above equations in HLM, I examined the fixed effects results.. A significant t test for the combined OS coefficient under the slopes heading indicates that the relationship between the independent variable (job satisfaction or abuse) and job performance varies as a function of the organizational structure. Graphs of significant interactions are included.

Chapter Three

Results

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for all study variables. Table 1 refers to individual level variables and Table 2 refers to department level variables. Between 806 and 1132 individuals, nested within over 219 departments, responded to these items. The average course load per department was 2.5 courses per academic unit (e.g., semester, trimester) and the average rating of organicity was in the middle of the range.

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics of Level 1 Variables*

|  | Mean | SD | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Abuse | 18.25 | 2.90 | 841 |
| 2. Job Satisfaction | 15.33 | 3.22 | 925 |
| 3. Job Performance | 5.16 | 5.09 | 806 |
| 4. Gender | 1.50 | .50 | 1110 |
| 5. Age | 46.83 | 14.15 | 1107 |
| 6. Rank | 1.98 | .92 | 1132 |
| 7. Leadership | 1.59 | .49 | 1115 |
| 8. Schedule | 1.20 | .60 | 1113 |

Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics of Level 2 Variables*

|  | Mean | SD | N |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Course Load | 2.50 | .83 | 222 |
| 2. Structure | 29.73 | 4.77 | 219 |
| 1. Abuse | 18.23 | 1.73 | 202 |
| 2. Job Satisfaction | 15.27 | 1.86 | 211 |
| 3. Job Performance | 5.24 | 3.97 | 191 |

Tables 3 shows the intercorrelations among level 1 variables. As can be seen, job satisfaction and abuse were negatively correlated for individual faculty members. Additionally, gender related to a number of variables. Specifically, gender correlated negatively with age, indicating that female faculty members tended to be younger. Additionally, gender negatively correlated with both job satisfaction and job performance, meaning that males reported higher levels of job satisfaction and job performance. Gender also correlated positively with rank and leadership, indicating that males held higher academic ranks and held more leadership positions than their female counterparts. Faculty members also reported higher amounts of job satisfaction and job performance when working on a semester schedule.

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Table 3

*Correlations for Level 1 Variables*

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Abuse | - | | | | | | | |
| 2. Job Satisfaction | -.17** | - | | | | | | |
| 3. Job Performance | -.03 | .01 | - | | | | | |
| 4. Gender | -.01 | -.07* | -.14** | - | | | | |
| 5. Age | .01 | -.05 | .05 | -.16** | - | | | |
| 6. Rank | -.08* | -.01 | -.16** | .19** | -.52** | - | | |
| 7. Leadership | -.05 | .00 | -.05 | .06* | -.21** | .38** | - | |
| 8. Schedule | .00 | -.08* | -.08* | .03 | -.02 | .00 | -.02 | - |

*Notes.* * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

N's range from 714 to 1132 and indicate number of faculty members responding.

Gender:  1 = male, 2 = female

Rank: 1 = Full Professor, 2 = Associate Professor, 3 = Assistant Professor, 4 = Other

Leadership: 1 = Held leadership position between 2003-2005, 2 = Did not hold one

Schedule (Course Schedule for the Academic Year): 1 = Semester, 2 = Trimester, 3 = Quarter, 4 = Block, 5 = Full year

Similarly, Table 4 displays the correlations among level 2 variables. The sector and location were significantly correlated, indicating that most public schools were found in more urban areas. Additionally, the chair variable was negatively correlated with the structure variable. This means that departments whose leader was referred to as a

department head as opposed to a department chair tended to be more mechanistic. Course

load was unrelated to the structure of the department.

Table 4

*Correlations for Level 2 Variables*

|  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Location | - | | | | | | | |
| 2. Sector | .52** | - | | | | | | |
| 3. Course Load | .13 | .06 | - | | | | | |
| 4. Structure | .02 | .13 | -.05 | - | | | | |
| 5. Chair | -.12 | -.13 | .01 | -.20* | - | | | |
| 6. Abuse | .09 | 12 | .04 | .08 | -.05 | - | | |
| 7. Job Satisfaction | .13 | .18* | -.01 | .36** | -.09 | -.10 | - | |
| 8. Job Performance | .10 | -.02 | .01 | -.03 | -.01 | -.01 | .01 | - |

*Notes.* $* p < .05, ** p < .01$

N's range from 186-221 and refer to the number of departments included

Location: urban = 1, suburban = 2

Sector: 1 = Public, 2 = Private

Chair: Chair = 1, Head = 2

In order to test the study hypotheses, HLM was used. First, the fully unconditional

model (Model 1) was run for each of the dependent variables. Using the random effects

variance components, the ICC for each dependent variable was calculated. The ICC's

indicate an estimate the variability in the dependent variable both between academic

departments. As can be seen from the low ICC's, job satisfaction and the prevalence of

abusive behaviors do not differ by department. However, publication rates tend to differ

based upon the department, indicating that the average publication rate in some

departments is higher than in other departments.

Table 5

*ICC Calculations*

| Dependent Variable | ICC |
| --- | --- |
| Abuse | 0.04 |
| Job Satisfaction | 0.01 |
| Job Performance | 0.13 |

Table 6

*Model 1 (Unconditional Model)*

| Dependent Variable | Parameter | Coefficient | SE | t ratio | df |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Fixed Effects | | | | | |
| Job Satisfaction | Intercept ($\gamma_{00}$) | 15.34** | 0.16 | 131.93 | 217 |
| Job Performance | Intercept ($\gamma_{00}$) | 5.41** | 0.28 | 19.23 | 215 |
| Abuse | Intercept ($\gamma_{00}$) | 18.31 | 0.17 | 156.77 | 216 |
| Variance Estimates | | | | | |
| Job Satisfaction | Level-1 variance ($\sigma^2$) | 10.07 | 3.17 | -- | 217 |
| Job Satisfaction | Intercept variance ($\tau_{00}$) | 0.12 | 0.35 | -- | 217 |
| Job Performance | Level-1 variance ($\sigma^2$) | 5.87 | 34.46 | -- | 215 |
| Job Performance | Intercept variance ($\tau_{00}$) | 2.30** | 5.29 | -- | 215 |
| Abuse | Level-1 variance ($\sigma^2$) | 2.90 | 8.41 | -- | 216 |
| Abuse | Intercept variance ($\tau_{00}$) | 0.57 | 0.33 | -- | 216 |

*Notes.*

** $p <$

The second model examines the relationship between the organizational structure variable and the outcome variable within each department (hypotheses 1-3). The t statistic of 5.06 between organizational structure and job satisfaction was significant. This means that there was a positive relationship between organizational structure and job satisfaction, indicating that faculty members working in more organically structured departments reported higher levels of job satisfaction that faculty members working in more mechanistically structured departments. Therefore, hypothesis 1 was supported. However, the t statistic for both hypotheses 2 and 3, examining the relationship between organizational structure and job performance as well as abuse, respectively were not statistically significantly. Therefore, hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported.

Table 7

*Model 2*

| Dependent Variable | Parameter | Coefficient | SE | t ratio | df |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Fixed Effects** | | | | | |
| **Job Satisfaction** | **Organizational Structure ($\gamma_{01}$)** | **0.14\*\*** | **0.03** | **5.50** | **216** |
| **Job Performance** | **Organizational Structure ($\gamma_{01}$)** | **-0.02** | **0.06** | **-0.30** | **214** |
| **Abuse** | **Organizational Structure ($\gamma_{01}$)** | **0.00** | **0.03** | **-0.01** | **215** |
| Variance Estimates | | | | | |
| Job Satisfaction | Level-1 variance ($\sigma^2$) | 3.13 | 9.82 | -- | 216 |
| Job Satisfaction | Intercept variance ($\tau_{00}$) | 0.14 | 0.02 | -- | 216 |
| Job Performance | Level-1 variance ($\sigma^2$) | 5.87 | 34.48 | -- | 214 |
| Job Performance | Intercept variance ($\tau_{00}$) | 2.31\*\* | 5.33 | -- | 214 |
| Abuse | Level-1 variance ($\sigma^2$) | 2.90 | 8.41 | -- | 215 |
| Abuse | Intercept variance ($\tau_{00}$) | 0.58 | 0.34 | -- | 215 |

*Notes.*

Bold indicates parameters used to test study hypotheses

\*\* $p < .01$

The third model examined a series of moderator relationships. Hypothesis 4 suggested that organizational structure would moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. This hypothesis was not supported because the t statistic was not significant. However, hypothesis 5, which stated that organizational structure would moderate the relationship between abuse and job performance such that productive faculty members working in more organically structured departments will commit fewer instances of abusive behaviors, was supported ($t = -2.47$, $p < .01$). Figure 1 shows the pictorial representation of this relationship. As seen in the graph, productive faculty members working in more organically structured departments committed fewer instances of abuse than less productive faculty members working in that type of a department. However, productive faculty members working in more mechanistically structured departments committed more instances of abuse than faculty who were less productive.

Table 8

*Model 3: Dependent Variable = Job Performance*

| Independent Variables | Parameter | Coefficient | SE | t ratio | df |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Organizational Structure*Job Satisfaction** | **Fixed Effects** | **0.01** | **0.02** | **0.48** | **213** |
| | $(\gamma_{11})$ | | | | |
| **Organizational Structure*Abuse** | $(\gamma_{12})$ | **-0.05**\*\* | **0.01** | **-3.4** | **209** |
| Organizational Structure*Job Satisfaction | Variance Estimates Level-1 variance $(\sigma^2)$ | 34.47 | 5.87 | -- | 171 |
| Organizational Structure*Job Satisfaction | Intercept variance $(\tau_{00})$ | 5.05 | 2.25 | -- | 171 |
| Organizational Structure*Job Satisfaction | Slope variance $(\tau_{11})$ | 0.08 | 0.29 | -- | 171 |
| Organizational Structure*Abuse | Level-1 variance $(\sigma^2)$ | 28.88 | 5.37 | -- | 162 |
| Organizational Structure*Abuse | Intercept variance $(\tau_{00})$ | 5.63 | 2.3 | -- | 162 |
| Organizational Structure*Abuse | Slope variance $(\tau_{12})$ | 0.10 | 0.32 | -- | 162 |

*Notes.*

Bold indicates parameters used to test study hypotheses

\*\* p < .01

*Figure 1.*     Organizational Structure Moderating Abuse and Job Performance
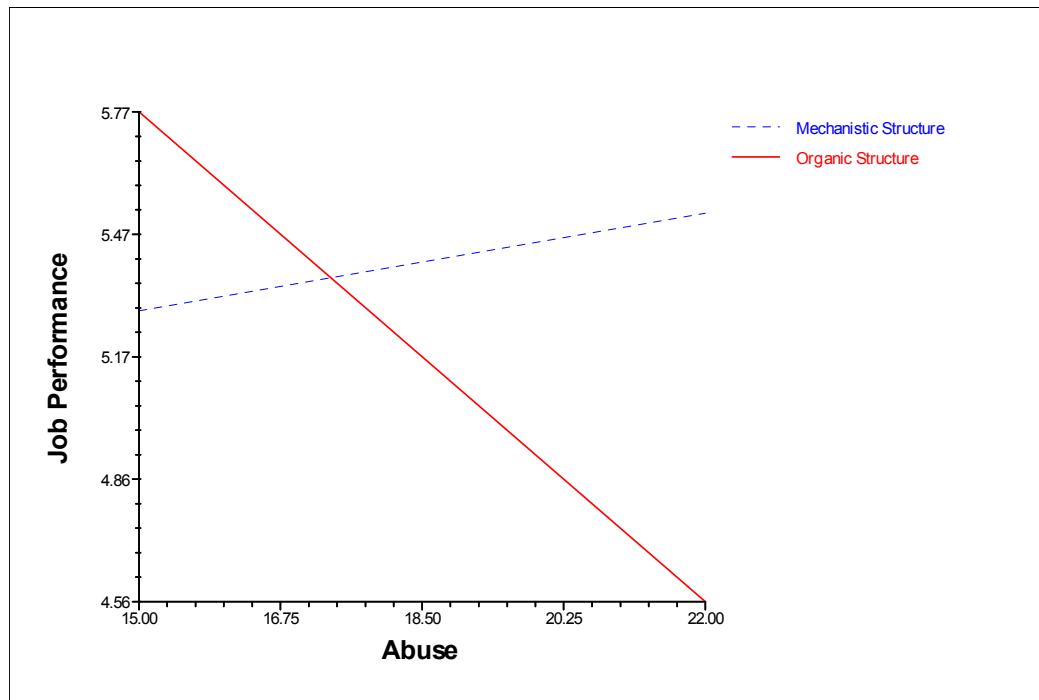
Chapter Four

Discussion

The results of the current study suggest that the structure of an academic department is related to outcomes for faculty members. Most notably, faculty members working in more organically structured departments have higher levels of job satisfaction. Although organizational structure did not directly affect faculty members' productivity and instances of abuse, organizational structure moderated the relationship between abuse and job performance such that highly productive faculty members working in more organically structured departments commit fewer instances of abusive behaviors.

Although it was hypothesized that faculty members working in more mechanistically structured departments would commit more instances of abuse, this conjecture was not supported. Perhaps organizational structure is too distal a variable to affect such direct behaviors or perhaps a self selection bias exists. Regarding the latter case, faculty members are not randomly assigned to departments. Although faculty members report higher levels of job satisfaction in more organically structured departments, faculty working in more mechanistically structured departments choose, to some extent, to remain in their current department. Therefore, they might not be prone to engaging in such abusive actions.

These results mirror those of Meadows (1980) who found that the implementation of an organic structure was positively related to an increase in job satisfaction among employees working in small groups. However, they did not mirror that of Harrison (1974) who found that scientists working in more organically structured laboratories perceived themselves to have higher amounts of job performance. Therefore, it is

possible that organically structured departments affect one's perceived job performance measured via subjective methods of performance appraisal, as opposed to more objective methods of assessment.

Previous researchers have found not found strong support for the job satisfaction-job performance relationship (Vroom, 1964; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985; Judge, Thoreson, Bono, & Patton, 2001; Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001.The current study finds nonsignificant results among faculty members. Other researchers have hypothesized that third variables, such as motivation and organizational tenure, interact with job satisfaction to predict job performance (Landy, 1971; Norris & Niebuhr, 1984). The current study examined whether organizational structure moderated the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. It was believed that faculty working in more organically structured departments would show a positive relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. The current study failed to find these results. One potential reason for these findings is because other studies use supervisor ratings, so maybe the use of objective performance accounted for lack of significance. Another option is that more proximal variables, such as tenure and motivation, have a stronger affect on the job satisfaction-job performance relationship.

While organizational structure did not moderate the job satisfaction-job performance relationship, it did moderate the relationship between abuse and job performance. The results suggest that productive faculty members working in more organically structured departments commit fewer instances of abuse. There are a number of possible explanations for this finding. First, these faculty members might not have time to engage in such behaviors because they are engaged in more scholarly pursuits.

Or, perhaps these productive faculty members have recognized that cooperating with their colleagues is a better way to achieve higher levels of productivity.

Although relationships regarding gender were not hypothesized, it seems to be an important variable. Specifically, female faculty members reported lower levels of job satisfaction and publication rates, but reported holding more leadership positions and higher academic ranks. These findings need to be explored in greater detail, but it is possible that female faculty members, in general, might spend more time taking on leadership roles than publishing. Maybe this in turn affects their level of job satisfaction.

*Limitations*

There are a number of limitations in the current study. One important limitation us that the measure of abuse was entirely self report. Therefore, in a future study, it would be necessary to ascertain ratings of faculty abuse from colleagues as well as graduate students and other research assistants.

Another limitation involves the independent variable, department structure. This variable is reported by faculty members and then the mean of those ratings is used as the department rating. However, not all faculty members in each department have responded and therefore, a nonresponse bias might be present. Furthermore, it is not possible to ascertain the response rate within each department for a number of reasons. First, many department websites were not updated and therefore faculty members who had left the university had been surveyed. Second, in some cases, faculty members holding administrative positions outside of the department were far removed from the department and therefore indicated that they could not provide responses to the item. Since a large number of faculty members hold such positions, it is not possible to ascertain whether

faculty members not responding did so because they were too far removed from the department or for other reasons.

Finally, it should be noted that the sample included only one type of academic department, Psychology. While the pattern of results might be similar across other departments, it is impossible to draw this conclusion from the current study. Therefore, future research should survey faculty members from other departments.

*Implications for Practice*

The findings of the current study could he helpful for administrators in higher education. It seems that implementing an organic structure within departments can be beneficial because it directly affects faculty members' job satisfaction and interacts to reduce levels of abuse while increasing job performance rates. It should be noted that these findings are not causal due to the methodology of the study.

*Future Research and Conclusions*

Future avenues of research should test the aforementioned conjectures regarding generalizeability. Specifically, faculty members in areas other than Psychology departments should be survey to see whether these results hold across academic areas. Additionally, it would be advisable to survey employees of all genres of organizations. When conducting this type of study, particular attention should be paid to the type of organization as well as the rank of specific employees. It is possible that these variables could interact with other variables. Additionally, it might be best to examine the role of more proximal variables, such as justice, motivation, and job stressors.

In conclusion, this study addresses issues in the academic literature as well as provides implications for practice. First, the study examines the prevalence and

antecedents of abusive behaviors among faculty members. This area has been widely understudied and provides insight into this population. Second, multilevel studies are becoming increasingly popular. However, level 2 sample sizes remain a limitation for this type of study because the smaller sample sizes adversely affect the available power of the study. The current study is unique because it has 229 academic units, comprising the level 2 sample. The study also advises academic administrators regarding the structure of departments. Specifically, faculty members reported higher levels of job satisfaction in more organically structured departments. Furthermore, organicity interacted with abuse and productivity, resulting in higher productivity and lower abuse rates in this type of a department. Although these results are not causal in nature, they do shed light on the functioning of these departments.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Questionnaire Given to Participants

PARTICIPANT INSTRUCTIONS

Please complete the attached questionnaire as openly and honestly as possible. All responses will remain anonymous and confidential.

Appendix A (Continued)

Demographic Information

1. What is your gender?
Male Female

2. What is your age (indicate in years, rounded to the nearest year)?

3. With what University are you primarily affiliated? (Please do not use abbreviations and indicate the appropriate campus)

4. What is your Position/Rank within your current department?

5. With what area are you primarily affiliated (e.g., Social, Clinical).

6. Have you held any past leadership positions within your current academic department?

7. If so, please specify

8. Number of years worked as a faculty member (including you current position)

9. Year you earned your doctoral degree

10. Year you earned tenure (N/A if you did not earn tenure)

11. If you answered NA, are you in a tenure track position?

12. Numbers of years in your present department

13. How would you define your department focus?
Primarily Research institution___  Primarily Teaching Institution__

14. Is your University:
Private_____   Public

15. What degrees does your department award (place a check beside all that apply)?
AA
BA/BS
MA/MS
Ph.D.
Ed.D.
Other (please specify)

Appendix A (Continued)

The following questions refer to your academic activities. Please answer openly and

honestly.

16. How many of your publications appeared in a peer reviewed journal between 2003-
    2005?

17. How many book chapters did you author between 2003- 2005?

18. How many of your publications were accepted in a peer review journal between
    2003- 2005??

19. How many text books did you write between 2003- 2005?

Appendix A (Continued)

How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?

| | |
|---|---|
| 1 = Never | 4 = Once or twice per week |
| 2 = Once or twice | 5 = Every day |
| 3 = Once or twice per month | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 20. Daydreamed rather than did your work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. Stayed home from work and said you were sick when you weren't | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. Taken a longer break than you were allowed to take | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. Started or continued a damaging or harmful rumor at work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. Been nasty or rude to a student | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. Insulted someone about their job performance | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. Made fun of someone's personal life | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29. Ignored someone at work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30. Started an argument with someone at work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31. Verbally abused someone at work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32. Made an obscene gesture (the finger) to someone at work | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33. Threatened someone at work with violence | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34. Threatened someone at work, but not physically | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35. Said something obscene to someone at work to make them feel bad | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 36. Did something to make someone at work look bad | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

Appendix A (Continued)

How often have you done each of the following things on your present job?

| | |
|---|---|
| 1 = Never | 4 = Once or twice per week |
| 2 = Once or twice | 5 = Every day |
| 3 = Once or twice per month | |

37. Played a mean prank to embarrass someone at work      1    2    3    4    5

38. Hit or pushed someone at work      1    2    3    4    5

39. Insulted or made fun of someone at work      1    2    3    4    5

Please answer the following questions about your CURRENT job using following response options:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1 = Strongly disagree | 4 = Slightly agree |
| 2 = Disagree | 5 = Agree |
| 3 = Slightly disagree | 6 = Strongly agree |

40. In general, I don't like my job.      1   2   3   4   5   6

41. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.      1   2   3   4   5   6

42. In general, I like working here.      1   2   3   4   5   6

Appendix A (Continued)

Please answer the following questions with reference to your current academic department's management style.

An operating management style of:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 43. Highly structured channels of communication flowing between the department members (other than the chair) and the University Administration. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 | Open channels of communication between faculty members and the University Administration that circumvent the department chair. |
| 44. Strong insistence on a uniform operating style throughout the department. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 | Faculty members' operating styles are allowed to range freely from the very formal to the very informal. |
| 45. Strong emphasis on giving the most say in decision making to the department chair. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 | Strong tendency to let the faculty members in a given situation have the most say in decision making even if this means bypassing the department chair. |
| 46. A strong emphasis on holding fast to existing policies and procedures despite any changes in the environment. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 | A strong emphasis on adapting freely to changing circumstances without too much concern for past practice. |
| 47. Strong emphasis on always getting department members to follow the formally laid down procedures. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 | Strong emphasis on getting things done even if this means disregarding formal procedures. |
| 48. Tight formal control of most decisions through formal channels of authority. | 1  2  3  4  5  6  7 | Loose, informal control; heavy dependence on informal relationships and norm of cooperation for getting work done. |

Appendix A (Continued)

Please answer the following questions with reference to your current academic department's management style.

An operating management style of:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 49. Strong emphasis on getting faculty members to adhere closely to formal specified operating procedures in their on-job behavior. | 1   2   3   4   5   6   7 | Strong tendency to let the requirements of the situation and the individual's personality define proper on-job behavior. |

Appendix B: Letter to Department Chairs


Dear Department Chair:

My name is Stacey Kessler and I am a doctoral student in
Industrial/Organizational Psychology at the University of South Florida. In order to
collect data for my dissertation, I am surveying faculty members around the world
regarding the nature of their academic departments as well as their behavior and attitudes
related to their work. The results of this study should further the literature as well as
provide information regarding best practices for facilitating faculty outcomes within
academic departments.

I am contacting you to ask for your support. I am hoping that you would be willing to
forward the link below to your faculty members and encourage them to complete the
attached survey which should take no more than 15 minutes of their time (under 50
items). All responses will remain anonymous and confidential. In return, I am more than
willing to provide you with a copy of the resulted study. If you have any questions, please
do not hesitate either to contact me at this e-mail address, srkessle@mail.usf.edu, or my
major professor, Paul Spector, at spector@shell.cas.usf.edu. Thank you in advance for
your assistance in my professional development.

Sincerely,
Stacey

Stacey R. Kessler, M.A.
Industrial/Organizational Psychology Doctoral Candidate
University of South Florida

Appendix C: Follow-up Letter to Faculty

Dear Professor:

My name is Stacey Kessler and I am a doctoral student in Industrial/Organizational Psychology at the University of South Florida. In order to collect data for my dissertation, I am surveying faculty members around the world regarding the nature of their academic departments as well as their behavior and attitudes related to their work. The results of this study should further the literature as well as provide information regarding best practices for facilitating faculty outcomes within academic departments.

Previously, I contacted your department chair asking him to forward a copy of the survey link to you and ask for your time to complete the survey. If your department chair as forwarded the link to you and you have already completed the survey, I thank you for your time and participation. If not, I am contacting you now to ask for your support. I am hoping that you would be willing to click on the link below and complete the attached survey. This should take no more than 15 minutes of your time (under 50 items). All responses will remain anonymous and confidential. In return, I am more than willing to provide you with a copy of the resulted study. If you have any questions, please do not hesitate either to contact me at this e-mail address, srkessle@mail.usf.edu, or my major professor, Paul Spector, at spector@shell.cas.usf.edu. Thank you in advance for your assistance in my professional development.

Sincerely,
Stacey

Stacey R. Kessler, M.A.
Industrial/Organizational Psychology
Doctoral Candidate
University of South Florida

About the Author

Stacey Robin Kessler received her Bachelor's Degree in Political Science and Psychology from Rutgers University in 2002. Stacey earned a number of honors, including graduating with high honors and election into Phi Beta Kappa. Stacey earned her M.A. in Industrial/Organizational Psychology from the University of South Florida in 2004. Since then, Stacey has published papers on counterproductive work behavior and has presented related papers at a number of professional conferences. Stacey has also taught courses in Introduction to Psychological Sciences, Industrial Psychology, and Research Methods.