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THE ROLE OF CULTURAL VALUES IN ORGANIZATIONAL ATTRACTION

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy  
in the Department of Psychology  
in the College of Sciences  
at the University of Central Florida  
Orlando, Florida

Fall Term  
2007

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## **ABSTRACT**

The United States' (U.S.) workforce is more diverse than in previous decades in terms of race, gender, and native language (Fay, 2001). Such demographic shifts have changed how organizations attract applicants and how they motivate, reward, and retain employees (McAdams, 2001). Furthermore, organizations benefit from diversity by: (a) attracting the best talent available in the workforce (Cox, 1993), (b) increasing their product marketability to customers (Deshpande, Hoyer, & Donthu, 1986; Redding, 1982), and (c) fostering creativity, innovation, problem solving, and decision making in employees (Thomas, 1999; Thomas, Ravlin, & Wallace, 1996; Watson, Kumar, & Michaelsen, 1993).

Given such benefits, organizations should attend to initiatives that facilitate the attraction of applicants from diverse backgrounds. Research has demonstrated that applicants use information about human resource systems, such as rewards, to form judgments about the perceived fit between them and the organization (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Schneider, 1987). For instance, organizations with policies accommodating work and family issues attract applicants preferring such benefits.

Because reward systems influence applicants' opinions about the relative attractiveness of organizations (Lawler, 2000), it is important to determine the factors that influence such preferences. Motivation theories, such as the Theory of Reasoned Action, suggest that preferences toward reward systems are guided by individuals' values (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Vroom, 1964). Such values, in turn, cause differences in reward preferences and organizational attraction.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relation of individuals' cultural values to the attraction of organizations offering different kinds of reward systems. More specifically, it sought to test three hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 predicted that there would be a two-way interaction between collectivism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. Hypothesis 2 predicted that there would be a two-way interaction between individualism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. Hypothesis 3 predicted that there would be a positive relation between collectivism and subjective norms used in organizational attraction.

To test the three hypotheses, data from 228 participants were analyzed to evaluate their level of attractiveness to two different types of organizations (i.e., career-oriented vs. family-oriented). Findings for the test of Hypothesis 1 indicated that there was a joint effect between collectivism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. The slopes of the regression lines for each type of organization (i.e., family-oriented and career-oriented) differed as a function of collectivism. The slope of the regression line for the family-oriented organization was steeper than the slope of the regression line for the career-oriented organization.

Results for the test of Hypothesis 2 indicated a joint effect between individualism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. The slopes of the regression lines for each type of organization (i.e., family-oriented and career-oriented) differed as a function of individualism. The slope of the regression line for the career-oriented organization was steeper than the slope of the regression line for the family-oriented organization.

Findings for the test of Hypothesis 3 showed that collectivism was related to subjective norms. Results indicated that the more collective the individual, the higher the subjective norms.

In addition, supplementary analysis showed that individualism was not related to subjective norms.

Taken together, results from the tests of the three hypotheses support components of the Theory of Reasoned Action, and the premise that values are a factor related to an individual's attraction to a particular organization. The current study showed that the cross-cultural values of individualism and collectivism help predict organizational attraction. Based on these results, practical implications, contributions to theory, study limitations, and future research are discussed for designing organizational attraction strategies for a culturally diverse workforce.

I would like to dedicate this accomplishment to my parents Hector and Lydia Jimenez, my husband Braulio E. Muñiz, and my son David E. Muñiz. Thanks for all your support and believing in me.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This work is a reflection of the support and interest of a number of people without whom its successful completion would not have been possible. Special thanks to:

- Rob Kennedy and Tiffany Parrish for their support during the collection of pilot data of this study.
- Seminole Community College's students, staff, and faculty for their support during the data collection portion of the study.
- Jennis Rivera, president of the Hispanic Student Association at Seminole Community College, for all her efforts during the data collection of this study.
- University of Central Florida's writing center editors for all their careful editing advice.
- Jessica Bond, Lydia E. Jimenez, Leila E. Lopez, Diana M. Muñiz-Olson, Maricarmen Muñiz-Marcano, and Inim Muñoz-Muñiz for their support with childcare at various stages of this project.
- my dear friends Laticia D. Bowens, Kara C. Hickson, and Heather L. Seiser for their support throughout every stage of the doctorate program. It was so much fun to ride this journey of learning with each of you.
- Dr. Dianna L. Stone and Dr. Eugene Stone-Romero for their advice and helpful comments on earlier versions of this manuscript.
- my committee members: Dr. Robert Dipboye, Dr. Barbara Fritzsche, Dr. William Wooten and Dr. Beth Rapp Young for providing advice, expertise, and insight at different stages of this project.



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES .....	xii
LIST OF TABLES .....	xiii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....	15
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW .....	20
Rewards in Organizations .....	20
Overview of the Theory of Reasoned Action .....	23
Attitudinal Component.....	26
Cultural Differences in the Formation of Beliefs and Attitudes .....	29
Normative Component.....	33
Cultural Differences in the Formation of Normative Beliefs and Subjective Norms.....	35
Values and Organizational Attraction.....	37
Hypotheses .....	41
CHAPTER THREE: METHOD .....	42
Participants.....	42
Procedure .....	42
Manipulation of Organizational Rewards.....	43
Measures .....	44
Individualism and Collectivism .....	44
Organizational Attraction.....	44
Normative Beliefs .....	45
Motivation to Comply.....	45

Manipulation Check.....	45
Demographic Questionnaire .....	46
CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSES.....	47
Data Screening.....	47
Participants.....	47
Manipulation Check.....	49
Descriptive Statistics.....	50
Reliability of Measures.....	50
Correlations among Variables.....	50
Analyses for Tests of Hypotheses.....	50
Test of Hypothesis 1 .....	50
Test of Hypothesis 2 .....	52
Supplementary Analyses to Tests of Hypotheses 1 and 2 .....	53
Work-family conflict variable.....	53
Internal analysis .....	56
Comparison of Anglos and Hispanics.....	56
Test of Hypothesis 3 .....	57
Supplementary Analyses to Test of Hypothesis 3 .....	57
Equations used to Plot Interactions.....	58
CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS.....	60
Data Screening.....	60
Participants.....	60
Manipulation Check.....	60

Descriptive Statistics.....	61
Reliability of Measures .....	62
Correlations among Variables.....	63
Results of Tests of Hypotheses.....	65
Test of Hypothesis 1 .....	65
Test of Hypothesis 2 .....	67
Supplementary Analyses to Tests of Hypotheses 1 and 2 .....	69
Work-family conflict variable.....	69
Internal analysis .....	75
Comparison of Anglos and Hispanics.....	79
Test of Hypothesis 3 .....	83
Supplementary Analyses to Hypothesis 3.....	84
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION.....	86
Summary and Integration of Findings .....	86
Practical Implications.....	92
Contributions to Theory .....	93
Limitations .....	95
Future Research .....	95
Conclusions.....	96
APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT .....	97
APPENDIX B: INDIVIDUALISM AND COLLECTIVISM SCALE .....	101
APPENDIX C. STIMULUS MATERIALS (MANIPULATIONS).....	104
APPENDIX D: ORGANIZATIONAL ATTRACTION SCALE.....	109

APPENDIX E: NORMATIVE BELIEFS AND MOTIVATION TO COMPLY MEASURES	111
APPENDIX F: MANIPULATION CHECK .....	115
APPENDIX G: DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE .....	118
APPENDIX H. STANDARDIZED DEBRIEFING FORM.....	122
APPENDIX I: EXPERIMENTAL SCHEDULE.....	125
APPENDIX J: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD COMMITTEE APPROVAL FORM...	127
LIST OF REFERENCES .....	129

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1. The elements of total compensation (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, & Cardy, 1998).....	20
Figure 2. Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).....	25
Figure 3. Model depicting hypothesized causal relations of the variables type of organization, cultural values, work-family conflict, and organizational attraction. ....	53
Figure 4. Two-way interaction between the type of organization (family-oriented and career- oriented conditions) and collectivism as predictors of organizational attraction. ....	67
Figure 5. Two-way interaction between the type of organization (family-oriented and career- oriented conditions) and individualism as predictors of organizational attraction. ....	69
Figure 6. Main effect for the type of organization (family-oriented and career-oriented conditions) as a predictor of work-family conflict. ....	71
Figure 7. Main effect for individualism as a predictor of work-family conflict.....	73
Figure 8. Two-way interaction between the type of organization (family-oriented and career- oriented conditions) and work-family conflict as predictors of organizational attraction....	75
Figure 9. Mean subjective norm score for Hispanics and Anglos. ....	85

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1. Percentage of participants with correct answer to manipulation check items .....	61
Table 2. Descriptive data .....	62
Table 3. Reliability of each measure used in this study.....	63
Table 4. Correlations among all variables (both conditions included) .....	64
Table 5. Correlations among all variables for the career-oriented condition .....	64
Table 6. Correlations among all variables for the family-oriented condition.....	65
Table 7. Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and collectivism variables predicting organizational attraction.....	66
Table 8. Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and individualism variables predicting organizational attraction.....	68
Table 9. Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and collectivism variables predicting work-family conflict.....	70
Table 10. Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and individualism variables predicting work-family conflict.....	72
Table 11. Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and work-family conflict variables predicting organizational attraction .....	74
Table 12. Comparison of descriptive data of internal analysis subsample and entire sample.....	76
Table 13. Comparison of reliability of measures used with internal analysis subsample and entire sample .....	77

Table 14. Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and collectivism variables predicting organizational attraction using internal analysis subsample .....	78
Table 15. Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and individualism variables predicting organizational attraction using internal analysis subsample.....	79
Table 16. Comparison of descriptive data of ethnicity analysis subsample and entire sample ....	80
Table 17. Comparison of reliability of measures used with ethnicity analysis subsample and entire sample .....	81
Table 18. Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and collectivism variables predicting organizational attraction using ethnicity analysis subsample.....	82
Table 19. Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and individualism variables predicting organizational attraction using ethnicity analysis subsample.....	83
Table 20. Summary of multiple regression analysis for individualism, collectivism, and ethnicity variables predicting subjective norms.....	84

## CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Diversity in the United States (U.S.) is a reality. Current estimates indicate that 28.2 % of the U.S. population is composed of minority group members (e.g., African, Asian, Hispanic, and Native American; U.S. Census Bureau, 1999). By the year 2050, about 47.2% of the U.S. population will be made up of minority group members (U.S. Census Bureau, 1999). These estimates have made organizational leaders and researchers aware of the impact of diversity today and in the near future (Kossek & Lobel, 1996).

One effect of such demographic shifts is reflected in the workforce composition (Fay, 2001). The U.S. workforce is more diverse than in previous decades in terms of race, gender, and native language (Fay, 2001). As a result, more people from different backgrounds are interacting in various work settings (e.g., cross functional teams, organizational networks). For example, at a computer assembly company in California, employing 3,200 people, 30 nationalities can be found speaking 40 different languages (Malone, 1993; as cited in Greenberg & Baron, 1997).

A culturally diverse workforce could be the key factor that determines an organization's ability to compete in this century (Mc Adams, 2001). In fact, McAdams (2001) noted that an increasingly diverse workforce is a people-management challenge that is unprecedented in U.S. history. Competitiveness in the first 10 to 20 years of the 21<sup>st</sup> century will be influenced greatly by how organizations adapt their people-management practices to this new reality (i.e., a more diverse workforce; McAdams, 2001). Further, sociologists have noted that the changing demographics of the workforce



will transform the U.S. (McAdams, 2001). For example, Hispanics<sup>1</sup> made up half of the new workers in the 1990's. This trend will lift them from roughly 12 percent of the workforce to nearly 25 percent two generations from now (Jacoby, 2004).

The increase in the number of minorities requires adjustments in all areas of organizations. In the Labor Department and Social Security Administration, for instance, they are hiring more Spanish-language administrators to cope with the surge of a Spanish-speaking workforce (Jacoby, 2004). Such demographic changes occurring in organizations affect their cultures and work environments (McAdams, 2001). In addition, they change how organizations attract applicants, and how they motivate, reward, and retain employees (McAdams, 2001).

By attracting and retaining individuals from diverse backgrounds, organizations benefit in many ways. First, organizations have access to the best human talent available in the workforce because of a wider selection pool of applicants (Cox, 1993). Second, organizations increase their marketplace, given that consumer behavior is influenced by socio-cultural identities (Deshpande, Hoyer, & Donthu, 1986; Redding, 1982). Finally, organizations have a competitive advantage because a diverse workforce fosters better creativity, innovation, problem solving, and decision making than a homogeneous workforce (Thomas, 1999; Thomas, Ravlin, & Wallace, 1996; Watson, Kumar, & Michaelsen, 1993).

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<sup>1</sup> In this paper, the term Hispanic American is defined as “the group of residents in the U.S. who trace their origins to the Spanish-speaking regions of Latin American and the Caribbean” (Stone, Johnson, Stone-Romero, & Hartman, 2006, p. 9).

Given such benefits, diversity management has been recognized as a strategic imperative for organizations (Barber & Daly, 1996; Jackson & Alvarez, 1992). Effective management produces a competitive advantage by integrating non traditional employees (women and minorities) into the workforce (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, & Cardy, 1998). Some examples of diversity management initiatives include training, career development, and incentives (Barber & Daly, 1996). The success of such initiatives depends on how well they change an organization's culture (Geber, 1990; Offerman & Gowing, 1991; Triandis, Kurowski, & Gelfand, 1994).

One way organizations can implement such changes is through their organizational reward systems, referred to hereinafter as reward systems (Barber & Daly, 1996; Greenberg & Baron, 1997; Schein, 1992). Reward systems are systematic and institutional in nature, and they are deeply embedded in an organization's culture. In addition, reward systems can be used to facilitate diversity in organizations. For example, organizations can highlight pay and benefits to capture the attention of talented applicants from diverse backgrounds (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Rynes, 1987).

Research has demonstrated that applicants use information about human resource systems, such as rewards, to form judgments about the perceived fit between them and the organization (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Schneider, 1987). For instance, organizations with policies accommodating work and family issues attract applicants preferring such benefits.

Given that reward systems influence applicants' opinions about the relative attractiveness of organizations (Lawler, 2000), it is important to determine the factors that affect such preferences. One factor where there seems to be a paucity of research is in the

role of cultural values (referred hereinafter as values) in reward preferences (Barber & Daly, 1996; Lawler, 2000) and organizational attraction. Although there is research reporting reward preferences of U.S. workers, there are only a few studies that have examined differences in reward preferences as a function of race or ethnicity (Falicov, 2001; Shapiro, 1977; Shiflett, 1988; Trafimow, Triandis, & Goto, 1991; Weaver, 1975). These studies are reviewed in a section titled *Overview of Theory of Reasoned Action*. They showed that differences in reward preferences result from past experiences (e.g., discrimination), different underlying value systems, and social status. An implication derived from these findings is that organizations interested in optimal diversity management should examine the preferences of their workforce to ensure that an appropriate blend of rewards is available to all employees (Barber & Daly, 1996). However, attempting to design an appropriate reward system on the basis of demographic factors or socio-economic factors is unlikely to optimize individual motivation and attraction to an organization. This means that one should use motivation theories to determine the factors to attend to when dealing with reward and organizational preferences of individuals from various cultural backgrounds. Motivation theories suggest that preferences toward reward systems are guided by individuals' values (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Vroom, 1964). Such values, in turn, cause differences in reward preferences and organizational attraction.

Studying values that are prevalent among minorities is important. First, minorities, such as Hispanics, have increased their representation in the U.S., and they are becoming a driving force in the economy, politics, and culture (Jacoby, 2004). Second, findings from cross-cultural research suggest that minorities have values that are different

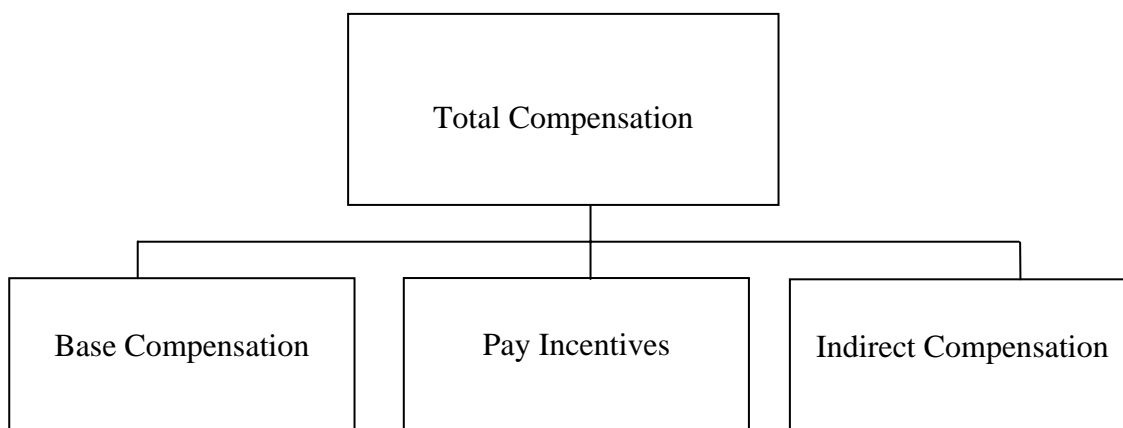
from Anglo values. For example, Hispanics have a culture that has been rated in cross-cultural research as highly collective (people are integrated into cohesive in-groups) and oriented toward nuclear and extended family members (Cortes, 1995; Fitzpatrick, 1971; Marin, 1993; Mindel, 1980; Rogler & Cooney, 1984; Triandis, 1995). Anglos, on the other hand, have a culture that has been rated in cross-cultural research as highly individualistic (people are expected to look after themselves) and oriented toward nuclear family members (Cortes, 1995; Fitzpatrick, 1971; Marin, 1993; Mindel, 1980; Rogler & Cooney, 1984; Triandis, 1995). Finally, members of minority groups, who are also immigrants, have a choice to maintain their culture (Jacoby, 2004). For example, Hispanics' cultural identity is reinforced by the constant arrival of Hispanic immigrants. They constantly refresh their language, culture, and values and are less likely to assimilate to the U.S. culture (Jacoby, 2004). Given that Hispanics have increased their representation in the workforce, and are less prone to absorb the U.S. culture, it is important to learn their attitudes toward industrial and organizational issues (e.g., reward preferences, organizational attraction).

In this study, I sought to investigate how cultural differences in individuals' values are related to the attraction of organizations offering different kinds of reward systems. To guide this study, I first review basic information about reward systems used in organizations and their importance. Then, I review the well supported Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). This theory can be used to understand how beliefs, attitudes, and subjective norms influence an individual's attraction to an organization. Finally, I present results of a study that investigated the relation of such factors to the attractiveness of organizations offering different kinds of reward systems.

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

### Rewards in Organizations

Organizational rewards refer to all forms of financial and non-financial returns, services, and benefits employees receive as part of an employment relationship (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). Three forms of rewards offered to employees are: base compensation, pay incentives, and indirect compensation. These are illustrated in Figure 1. Base compensation is the largest component of rewards. It is the fixed pay an employee receives on a regular basis, and it can be in the form of a salary or hourly wage (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). Pay incentives are programs designed to reward employees for good performance. These are offered in such forms as bonuses and profit sharing (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). Benefits, sometimes called indirect compensation, encompass a large variety of policies including health insurance, vacations, and unemployment compensation (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998).



*Figure 1.* The elements of total compensation (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, & Cardy, 1998).

Rewards are the single most important cost to organizations (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). For example, salaries and wages make up 49% of the total values of goods and services produced in the U.S. (U.S. Department of Commerce, 1994). Rewards in the form of salaries and wages account for approximately 60% of the gross national product. Employee benefits cost organizations each year \$742 billion dollars (U.S. Chamber of Commerce, 1986; as cited in Williams & Dreher, 1992).

Given that organizations spend a considerable amount of resources on reward systems, they attempt to accomplish many goals with them. For instance, reward systems help communicate desired behaviors to employees (Kerr & Slocum, 1987). Reward systems also help attract the most competent and effective employees because they provide information about less apparent organizational attributes (e.g., an organization's philosophy, values, and practices; Cable & Judge, 1994; Rynes, 1987).

Rewards, in the form of benefits, are crucial in attracting, motivating, and retaining employees (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). A report by the National Study of the Changing Workforce noted that 43% of employees who changed jobs rated employee benefits as "very important" in their decision (as cited in Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). Further, companies that can not award competitive wages or salaries are offering various forms of benefits to attract and retain employees (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). For example, John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance of Boston attracts applicants by emphasizing such benefits as flexible schedules, dependent-care services, fitness center, and take-home food from the company's cafeteria (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998).

Despite the efforts of providing benefits, a challenge faced by many organizations is giving employees meaningful benefit choices that match their needs (Gomez-Mejia et

al., 1998). A number of factors influence such needs: age, marital status, working status of spouse, and presence and age of dependents (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). To meet these needs, organizations offer flexible benefit plans. Such programs allow employees to select from a number of employer-provided benefits such as vision care, dental care, health insurance for dependents, life insurance coverage, long-term disability insurance, child care, elder care, vacation days, legal services, and contributions to retirement plans (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). In fact, 12% of large and medium-sized U.S. employers have a flexible benefits plan in place. These plans will increase in popularity as the workforce becomes more diverse in needs (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998).

One of the most valued benefit plans is the family-friendly program. Research has shown that between 1990 and 1995 there has been an increase in organizations offering family-friendly programs. For example, the number of employers offering child-care assistance increased from 64% to 85% (Lopez, 1996). In addition, the number of employers offering elder-care programs increased from 12% to 26% (Lopez, 1996). Finally, the number of employers offering flextime scheduling increased from 54% to 67% (Lopez, 1996).

The increase in offers of family-friendly programs is a human resource tactic used by organizations to hire and retain the best qualified employees. For instance, among the Big Six accounting firms, 50% of all recruits are women (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). However, before offering family-friendly benefits, only 5% of these female recruits were made partner in the firms (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998). A lot of talent was lost because a large number of women dropped out of these firms. The primary reason for them leaving was that the demands of a 10 to 12 year partner track required the sacrifice of family life.

Because of the loss of women personnel, these organizations changed their policies. Such firms now show a 50% increase in the number of women partners, which is credited to their family-friendly programs (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998).

In summary, organizations invest a lot of resources in designing effective reward systems. Among such flexible benefits, one that is increasing in popularity is the family-friendly program. However, there is a need to understand the factors that influence people's attraction to organizations offering such rewards. To accomplish this, it is important to understand the underlying psychological processes that produce these different organizational preferences in people. Thus, the Theory of Reasoned Action is reviewed next.

#### Overview of the Theory of Reasoned Action

The Theory of Reasoned Action adopted for this research was proposed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975), and a considerable number of studies have supported it (e.g., Fishbein & Coombs, 1974; Fishbein & Hunter, 1984; Jaccard & Davidson, 1975). This theory is often used to explain the relations among beliefs, attitudes, intentions, and behaviors. An examination of each of these variables, and their relation to one another, is fundamental to understanding individual differences in the formation of beliefs and attitudes toward reward systems and the organizations offering them. The model of the Theory of Reasoned Action <sup>2</sup> is illustrated in Figure 2.

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<sup>2</sup> The Theory of Reasoned Action is a special case of the Theory of Planned Behavior. The Theory of Reasoned Action was designed to deal with behaviors over which people have a high degree of volitional control, and it assumed that most behaviors of interest in



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the domains of personality and social psychology fall into the volitional category (see Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). The Theory of Planned Behavior recognizes the possibility that many behaviors may not be under complete control, and the concept of perceived behavioral control is added to handle behaviors of this kind. Ajzen (1988) noted that when behavioral control approaches its maximum and issues of control are not among an individual's important considerations, then the Theory of Planned Behavior reduces to the Theory of Reasoned Action. In such instances, neither intentions nor actions will be affected appreciably by beliefs about behavioral control and the only remaining dispositions of interest are attitude toward the behavior and subjective norm. In this study, the behavior studied is organizational attraction, for which applicants have high degree of volitional control. For such behavior, the Theory of Reasoned Action is more applicable.

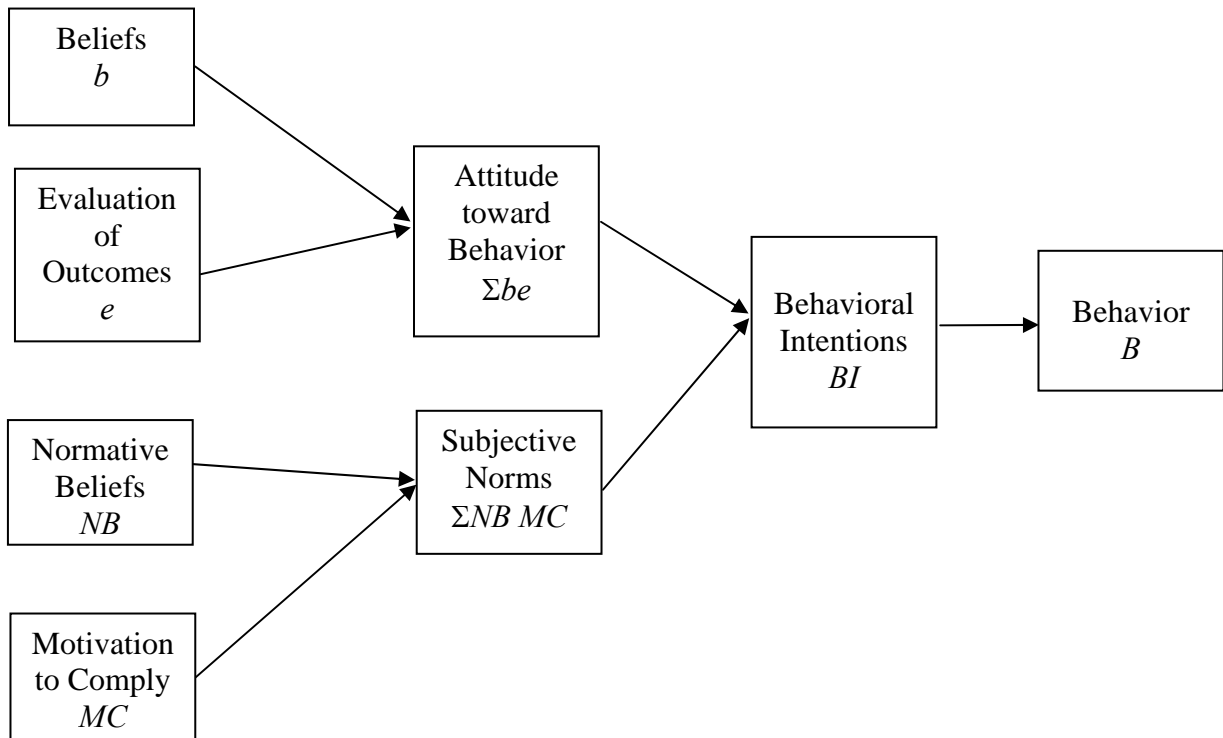


Figure 2. Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

In the Theory of Reasoned Action, two major factors determine behavioral intentions: an “attitudinal” or personal factor and a “normative” or social factor. The central equation is:

$$B \sim BI = w_1 A_B + w_2 SN$$

In this equation, “*B*” is the behavior; “*BI*” is the behavioral intention to perform behavior *B*; “*A<sub>B</sub>*” is the attitude toward performing behavior *B*; “*SN*” is the subjective

norm; and “ $w_1$ ” and “ $w_2$ ” are weights that are empirically determined (Trafimow & Fishbein, 1994). Each of the components (i.e., attitude and subjective norm) of the Theory of Reasoned Action is discussed next. More specifically, the attitudinal component and its relevant research are reviewed, followed by the normative component and its relevant research.

### *Attitudinal Component*

As noted in the Theory of Reasoned Action,  $A_B$ , represents the individual’s attitude towards performing the behavior in question under a specific set of conditions. Similar to an expectancy-value formulation (Edwards, 1961; Vroom, 1964), an individual’s attitude towards a given behavior is a function of: (a) salient beliefs about relevant attributes and perceived consequences of performing the behavior, and (b) the person’s evaluation of these attributes and consequences. Symbolically, the attitudinal component is expressed as follows:

$$A_B = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i e_i$$

In this equation; “ $b$ ” represents the belief that performing  $B$  leads to the consequence or outcome  $i$ ; “ $e$ ” is the person’s evaluation of outcome  $i$ ; “ $n$ ” represents the number of salient beliefs the person holds about  $B$ .

Consistent with this equation are studies that have demonstrated the relation between beliefs and outcomes. For example, Shiflett (1988) conducted a study using military personnel to determine the relation between extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, job satisfaction, and behavioral intentions to re-enlist. Results indicated that overall

satisfaction and intention to re-enlist were correlated to the extent to which soldiers perceived a relation between desirable outcomes (e.g., rewards, autonomy, personal fulfillment, and recognition) and doing an outstanding job. Based on these results, Shiflett (1988) suggested that organizations should make as explicit as possible the contingency between performance and rewards to reduce turnover and increase overall satisfaction.

In addition to researchers demonstrating the relation between beliefs and outcomes, several studies have shown individual variability in beliefs about job attributes. For example, Weaver (1975) and Shapiro (1977) reported differences between African-American and Anglo-American workers in their preferences for job attributes. Both studies found that African-American workers were more likely than Anglo-American workers to prefer job attributes that are considered to be extrinsic rewards (e.g., high income and job security). In addition, they found that African-American workers were less likely than Anglo-American workers to prefer intrinsic rewards (e.g., feelings of accomplishment). One conclusion derived from these findings is that the racial differences in job attribute preferences may reflect the unique experiences of African-Americans in the United States that no other racial, ethnic, or class group has shared (Shapiro, 1977). However, the explanation of how unique cultural experiences influence attraction to job rewards was not examined in this study.

Cultural differences in job reward preferences were discussed by Falicov (2001). In a review of the cultural meanings of money, she noted that for Hispanics it is extremely important to be treated with respect by employers. In specific, she mentioned that rather than valuing status, recognition, or the next promotion, Hispanics are much

more concerned with being treated with dignity and respect. As a result of such beliefs, Falicov (2001) noted that relational forms of job rewards are very important for Hispanics. However, there is a paucity of research on the influence of such values in organizational reward preferences. Additionally, Falicov (2001) noted that although Anglos talk about the importance of family and lament not having enough time for family activities, their focus on work is unquestioned. Hispanics, on the other hand, worry more about sacrificing family time in their pursuit of economic and career advancement. These cultural differences in the importance of family members need to be examined to determine if they are related to people's attraction to organizations.

The research reviewed above (i.e., Falicov, 2001; Shapiro, 1977; Shiflett, 1988; Weaver, 1975) examined reward preferences as a function of race or ethnicity. However, researchers suggest that a racial or ethnic label is inadequate as a general explanatory factor of between-group variations in psychological phenomena (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993; Zuckerman, 1990). A study by Jones (1991) noted that there are more within-group differences than between-group differences in the characteristics used to define races (i.e., Caucasoid, Negroid, and Mongoloid). The study of racial or ethnic differences in psychological phenomena is of little scientific use without a clear understanding of the variables responsible for the differences observed between the racial or ethnic groups (Betancourt & Lopez, 1993; Falicov, 2001). For example, each ethnic group deals with issues of nationality, social class, education, gender, religion, immigrant status, and family forms (e.g., extended and nuclear family units such as single-parent, divorced, or remarried units). The similarities and differences in all of these issues create overlapping

zones within and among cultures that are referred to as “cultural borderlands” (Rosaldo, 1989).

To deal with the complexities of each ethnic or racial group, Betancourt and Lopez (1993) suggest the conceptualization and measurement of specific cultural elements. For instance, values can be easily measured at the individual level (Gelfand, Nishii, & Raver, 2006; Morris, Podolny, & Ariel, 2000). This would allow for the assessment of the relation between individual level cultural values and psychological variables. Such comparative studies of racial or ethnic groups are more likely to contribute to the understanding of the role of culture than are the typical comparative studies that rely on self-reported racial or ethnic labels (Poortinga & Malpass, 1986).

Cross-cultural research guided by the advice of focusing on cultural elements has begun to emerge. Studies have shown how values measured at the individual level are related to a number of variables such as motivation (Erez, 1997), resource allocation preferences (Bond, Leung, & Wan, 1983), performance in teams (Erez & Early, 1993), choice of selection techniques (Ryan, McFarland, Baron, & Page, 1999), job choice preferences (Stone et al. 2006), and reward allocation preferences (Chen et al., 1997).

#### *Cultural Differences in the Formation of Beliefs and Attitudes*

To begin to understand the way culture relates to the formation of beliefs and attitudes, one must first identify the most important dimensions of cultures (Gouveia, Clemente, & Espinosa, 2003; Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai, & Lucca, 1988). Two such dimensions are individualism and collectivism.

Definitions of individualism and collectivism are provided by Hofstede (1991): “Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose;

everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism, as its opposite, pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty" (p. 51).

At the cultural level, the concepts of individualism and collectivism are often discussed as dichotomous categories (Oyserman, Coon, & Kemmelmeier, 2002). However, most researchers view them as polar opposites along one continuum (Triandis, 1989). This means that cultures vary from one another on their degree of individualism or collectivism. For example, Hofstede (2001) illustrated how 69 countries varied on their degree of individualism using the Country Individualism Index Value (CIIV). The countries with the highest CIIV were: United States (91), Australia (90), United Kingdom (89), Netherlands (80), Canada (80), and Hungary. The countries with the lowest CIIV were: Guatemala (6), Ecuador (8), Panama (11), Venezuela (12), and Colombia (13). Overall, Western countries had higher CIIVs than South American and Asian countries.

In addition to differentiating cultures on their degree of individualism and collectivism, Triandis (1995) proposed a framework that makes an important distinction between the hierarchical or egalitarian aspects of social relationships. Triandis (1995) distinguished different dimensions of individualism and collectivism by including a vertical-horizontal dimension. According to this framework, *horizontal collectivism* is a cultural pattern in which the person sees the self as an aspect of an in-group. More specifically, the self is absorbed within the members of the in-group, and all members are very much alike. The self is interdependent and similar to the self of others. The essence

of this cultural pattern is equality. Examples of cultures with horizontal collectivism tendencies are the Israeli kibbutz and monastic orders (Triandis, 1995).

*Vertical collectivism* is defined as a pattern in which the person views the self as an aspect of an in-group, but the members of the in-group are distinct from one another, some having more status than others. The self is interdependent and dissimilar from others. In this cultural pattern, the individuals accept inequality, and they do not see each other as the same. In vertical collectivistic cultures, it is important to serve and sacrifice for the in-group. Examples of countries showing this cultural pattern are India and traditional Greece (Triandis, 1995).

Triandis (1995) defined *horizontal individualism* as a cultural pattern where self-sufficiency is presumed, but the person is more or less equal in status with the others. The self is independent, but the same as the self of others. Examples of countries with this cultural pattern are Sweden and Australia (Triandis, 1995).

*Vertical individualism* is defined as a cultural pattern in which self-sufficiency is presumed, people see each other as different, and inequality is expected. The self is independent and distinct from the self of others. In this cultural pattern, competition is very important. Examples of countries with these cultural tendencies are the U.S. and France.

Although Triandis (1995) was the first to use vertical-horizontal dimension to describe individualism and collectivism, there is a certain degree of correspondence between his typology and that proposed by other scholars. For example, Triandis (1995) framework is similar to Fiske's (1992) typology of four kinds of sociality, as well as Parson and Shils' (1951) typology of universalism-particularism and ascription-



achievement (Gouveia, Clemente, & Espinosa, 2003). In addition, the vertical-horizontal dimension of individualism and collectivism seems to be related to power distance, which is an important dimension identified by Hofstede (1980). Power distance refers to the degree of deference and respect toward powerful individuals (Hofstede, 1980; Marin & Marin, 1991). Hofstede (2001) illustrated how 69 countries varied on their degree of power distance using the Power Distance Index (PDI). The countries with the highest PDI were: Malaysia (104), Slovakia (104), Guatemala (95), Philippines (94), and Russia (93). The countries with the lowest PDI were: Austria (11), Israel (13), Denmark (18), New Zealand (22), and Ireland (28). Thus, similar to the concepts of individualism and collectivism, cultures vary from one another in their degree of power distance (Hofstede, 2001).

In addition to defining individualism and collectivism at the cultural level, researchers have argued that these two concepts can be observed at the individual level. According to Triandis (1994) individualism and collectivism can co-exist, and each is emphasized more or less in a particular culture depending on the situation. This co-existence suggests that everyone possesses both individualistic and collectivistic attributes; however, the probability that individualistic selves, attitudes, norms, and behaviors will be sampled or used by any given person is higher in some cultures than in others (Triandis, 1994). Also, differences in individualism and collectivism are prevalent in other psychological processes as well, which means that predictions can be made about a number of behaviors that are coherent with cultural orientation such as pro-social behaviors (Bontempo, Lobel, & Triandis, 1990), academic achievement (Dabul, Bernal, & Knight, 1995), product choice (Gregory, Munch, & Peterson, 2002; Lee, 2000), and

social support (Triandis et al., 1998; Triandis, Leung, Villareal, & Clack, 1985). Such variability in behaviors means that studying individualism and collectivism at the individual level may allow researchers to examine individual differences in beliefs and preferences about job rewards.

Based on Triandis' (1995) view of individualism and collectivism, one could make certain predictions about differences between Anglos and minorities of the U.S. in the attraction to organizations offering specific kinds of reward systems. For example, Anglos have tendencies toward individualism. The essence of this cultural pattern is competition. One would expect individualists to be attracted to organizations that offer reward systems that allow them to achieve, compete, exhibit their abilities, and obtain power and status. Minorities in the U.S., Hispanics for instance, have tendencies toward collectivism. In this cultural pattern, it is important to serve and sacrifice for the in-group. One would expect collectivists to be attracted to organizations that allow them to serve members of their in-group (e.g., family). In addition, one would expect cultural distinctions in the referents that influence individuals' decisions about choosing to work for organizations offering specific kinds of rewards. The use of referents and norms is a component described in the Theory of Reasoned Action. The normative component of the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), relevant research, and implications for studying cultural differences in reward preferences are reviewed next.

#### *Normative Component*

As noted in the Theory of Reasoned Action, the normative component, *SN*, represents a person's: (a) perception of what referents think he or she should do in a

particular situation, and (b) motivation to comply with the desires of these referents.

Symbolically, the normative component is expressed as follows:

$$SN = \sum_{i=1}^n NB_i MC_i$$

In this equation, “*NB*” represents the normative belief (i.e., the individual’s belief that reference group or person *i* thinks he or she should or should not perform the behavior); “*MC*” represents the individual’s motivation to comply with referent *i*; and “*n*” is the number of relevant referents. The relation between normative beliefs and referents can be exemplified when an applicant, who is in a committed relationship, accepts a job offer. Under these circumstances, such an individual would consider the job opportunities of his or her significant other. That is, his or her significant other would become a referent in the decision to accept a job. One factor that would contribute to the job candidate’s decisions as to what organizations to apply to is whether his or her partner believes there is enough of a job market in the geographical area for both of them (Hall & Hall, 1979).

Although the Theory of Reasoned Action suggests that everyone uses referents when developing subjective norms, research has demonstrated that there are individual differences in (a) the persons or groups that are selected as referents, and (b) the number of referents used. Trafimow, Triandis, and Goto (1991) reported that thoughts about group membership are more accessible in cultures that are more collectivistic than in cultures that are more individualistic. Such findings suggest that there is a cross-cultural aspect in the formation of norms. One such cultural difference is the emphasis placed on

norms by culture. These findings imply that individuals who are part of a collectivistic culture may form more normative beliefs and include a larger number of referents than individuals who are part of an individualistic culture. Such cultural differences in the normative component of the Theory of Reasoned Action may have an impact on people's attraction to organizations offering specific kinds of rewards. However, cultural differences in the development and emphasis of subjective norms are rarely examined empirically (Trafimow & Fishbein, 1994).

#### *Cultural Differences in the Formation of Normative Beliefs and Subjective Norms*

To examine the issue of cultural differences in the formation of beliefs and subjective norms about reward preferences, one should consider variables that would allow for such distinctions. Cross-cultural research has identified familism as a variable that could be used to examine differences in the influence of referents on reward preferences (Marin, 1993; Sabogal, Marin, Otero-Sabogal, Marin & Perez-Stable, 1987).

Familism is a belief system that refers to feelings of loyalty, reciprocity, and solidarity toward members of the family, as well as the notion of family as an extension of the self (Cortes, 1995; Fitzpatrick, 1971; Sabogal et al., 1987). In general, the concept of familism contains three dimensions that operate within an extended family system (Arce, 1978; Valenzuela & Dornbusch, 1994; Zinn, 1982): (a) structural, (b) behavioral, and (c) attitudinal. The structural dimension delineates "the spatial and social boundaries within which behaviors occur and attitudes acquire meaning" (Valenzuela & Dornbusch, 1994, p. 18). Such boundaries are defined by the presence or absence of members who are part of the nuclear or extended family. This dimension of familism is typically measured by estimating the distance between a person's home and his or her adult

relatives' residence (Arce, 1978; Valenzuela & Dornbusch, 1994; Zinn, 1982). The behavioral dimension refers to the extent of attachment and affinity during contact with family members (Arce, 1978; Valenzuela & Dornbusch, 1994; Zinn, 1982). Examples of such behaviors include calling or visiting family members (Lugo-Steidel & Contreras, 2003).

Although the behavioral and structural dimensions are important to the study of familism, the attitudinal dimension is one of particular interest when studying cultural differences in the formation of normative beliefs and subjective norms. The attitudinal dimension denotes a normative commitment of family members to the family and to family relationships, which surpasses attention to the individual or self (Arce, 1978; Luna, de Ardon, Lim, Cromwell, Phillips, & Russell, 1996; Valenzuela & Dornbusch, 1994; Zinn, 1982). The attitudinal component has been defined as “a cultural value that involves an individual’s strong identification with an attachment to his or her nuclear and extended family and strong feelings of loyalty, reciprocity, and solidarity among members of the same family” (Steidel-Lugo & Contreras, 2003, p. 313).

Familism is very close to the concept of collectivism discussed in this paper. In fact, familism is considered an important element of collectivism (Singelis et al., 1995). Similar to collectivism research, studies have demonstrated that familism is a core value among Hispanics (Cortes, 1995; Fitzpatrick, 1971; Marin, 1993; Mindel, 1980; Rogler & Cooney, 1984; Sabogal et al., 1987; Valenzuela & Dornbusch, 1994; Zinn, 1982). In fact, studies have shown that familism is an enduring characteristic among Mexicans, Cubans, Puerto Ricans, and Central and South Americans (Cortes, 1995; Fitzpatrick, 1971; Marin, 1993; Mindel, 1980; Rogler & Cooney, 1984; Sabogal et al., 1987). Thus, studying

concepts such as familism can increase our knowledge about the role that values play in the development of subjective norms that, in turn, influence reward preferences and organizational attraction.

Based on the research on familism, one can make certain predictions. Specifically, one would expect people in collectivistic cultures (e.g., collectivist cultures such as Hispanics) to place more emphasis on family referents and to use more family referents when deciding their preferences for reward systems and organizations offering them. In addition, one would predict that people in individualistic cultures (e.g., individualistic cultures such as U.S. Anglos) would place less emphasis on family referents and use less family referents when making decisions about organizational rewards.

In summary, researchers can study cultural differences in organizational attraction from a motivational perspective. The Theory of Reasoned Action contains two components (i.e., attitudinal and normative) that could be important in explaining cultural differences in the attraction to organizations with specific reward systems. Although some research examined individual differences in reward preferences and organizational attraction, the focus has been on categorizing these differences by race or ethnicity. Such categories, however, are a surrogate for values. An examination of values allows us to understand better the differences in preferences that individuals may have toward organizations.

### Values and Organizational Attraction

An applicant's attraction to an organization is typically referred to as his or her interest in pursuing employment with an organization (Rau & Hyland, 2002). Research suggests that individuals feel attracted to organizations that are consistent with their value

system (Honeycutt & Rosen, 1997; Judge & Bretz, 1992). Further, individuals choose to work for organizations that are in line with their values. They make this choice because organizational socialization is unlikely to change their basic value structure, which they have established throughout their life (Lusk & Oliver, 1974).

A few studies have examined the role of values in organizational attraction. For instance, a study by Judge and Bretz (1992) showed that organizational work values had an important influence on job seekers' decisions about job choices (Judge & Bretz, 1992). Offer acceptance was more likely to occur when there was a match between an individual's value orientation and values present on the job (e.g., achievement, concern for others, fairness, and honesty). The researchers, however, did not draw samples from diverse populations. Thus, the generalizability of the results to individuals from diverse cultures is questionable (Judge & Bretz, 1992).

A study by Bretz and Judge (1994) reported that job acceptance is related to the degree to which individual characteristics match the content of the human resource information presented. Individuals experiencing higher levels of work-family conflict were more likely than other applicants to prefer jobs in organizations that have expressed policies for accommodating work-family issues. However, the study assessed participants' anticipated work-family conflict rather than importance on family issues. According to Bretz and Judge (1994), the way work-family conflict is operationalized may capture the importance of family issues, but it confounds it with expectations of how accommodating an employer may or may not be.

Another study that provided insight on the role of values and organizational attraction is that of Honeycutt and Rosen (1997). They considered salient identity as part

of an individual's value system and defined this concept as "the probability, for a given person, of a given identity being invoked in a variety of situations" (Stryker, 1968, p. 560). The authors thought identity salience is important in the job choice process because it directs attitudes and behavior in support of the salient identity. Results of this study indicated that family salient individuals were highly attracted to organizations offering flexible career paths over both organizations offering dual career paths and policies as well as traditional career paths and policies. The findings indicated that individuals did not see an organization offering traditional career paths and policies as more attractive at a high, rather than average, salary. The results of this study may reflect a change in the preferences of the workforce toward flexibility. Although past research on job choice indicated that flexible work schedules and benefits were not as important as factors such as salary, the results of this study suggest that the changing demographics of the workforce may also include changes in their values and preferences. Thus, there is an increasing number of employees for whom flexible work arrangements are very important.

In summary, as the demographic composition of the workforce changes, policies that reflect organizational values may become increasingly important. To job applicants, organizations that emphasize flexibility may appear to value a balance between work and non-work issues, while organizations that emphasize promotions and salaries may appear to value dedication to a career. Such differences in policies may act as indicators of less visible attributes, which in turn, affect organizational attraction. Based on the studies reviewed above, individuals with collectivistic tendencies were expected to be attracted to organizations that offer family-oriented reward systems. Also, individuals with



individualistic tendencies were expected to be attracted to organizations with career-oriented reward systems.

The purpose of this study was to expand on the use of the concepts of the Theory of Reasoned Action, individualism, and collectivism to predict job applicants' attraction to an organization. Taken together, they provide additional insights into the individual differences that influence evaluation of organizations offering employment opportunities.

## Hypotheses

The preceding reasoning suggests a need to test the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There will be a two-way interaction between collectivism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. The slopes of the regression lines for each type of organization (i.e., family-oriented and career-oriented) will differ as a function of collectivism. In particular, the slope of the regression line for the family-oriented organization will be steeper than the slope of the regression line for the career-oriented organization.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a two-way interaction between individualism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. The slopes of the regression lines for each type of organization (i.e., family-oriented and career-oriented) will differ as a function of individualism. More specifically, the slope of the regression line for the career-oriented organization will be steeper than the slope of the regression line for the family-oriented organization.

Hypothesis 3: Collectivism will be positively related to the subjective norms used in organizational attraction.

## CHAPTER THREE: METHOD

### Participants

The participants in this study were 228 community college students. In exchange for their participation, respondents received (at their instructor's discretion) extra credit or a class lecture on cultural diversity issues. The sample consisted of 82 males and 145 females. Their average age was 25.40 years. Ninety-six percent of the participants were employed and all had previous work experience. They had an average of 6.72 years of work experience. The sample consisted of 32 African-Americans, 1 Arab-American, 20 Asian-Americans, 72 Hispanic-Americans, 1 Native-American, and 105 Anglo-Americans. Participants were classified into these groups based on their self-reported ethnicity.

### Procedure

Participants were first provided with a brief introduction to the study. After this, they were asked to read and sign an informed consent form that described the nature of the study (Appendix A). After completing this form, participants were asked to complete a questionnaire dealing with individualism and collectivism (Appendix B). Following this, they were provided with a job announcement for a position at a fictitious organization (Appendix C). After participants read the job announcement, they were asked to complete a questionnaire that contained items dealing with their attraction to the same organization (Appendix D). Participants were asked to complete a questionnaire that contained items dealing with referents who may have influenced their decision to apply for a job at an organization (Appendix E). After this, participants were asked to

answer questions dealing with the job announcement that was presented to them earlier (Appendix F). Finally, they were asked to fill out a form designed to gather information concerning their demographic background, such as age, race or ethnicity, and employment status (Appendix G). After participants completed all the questionnaires, they were debriefed using a standardized form (Appendix H). The total time for completing the study was 34 minutes (Appendix I).

### Manipulation of Organizational Rewards

Variables were manipulated within the context of a simulation. Two types of hypothetical job announcements were created. One described a family-oriented organization. The second described a career-oriented organization. They were created based on job announcements posted on the International Business Machines (IBM) website. IBM has been recognized by *Working Mother* magazine as one of the 100 Best Companies for Working Mothers. Millions of women seek out *Working Mother's* nationally recognized survey for comprehensive information about companies that do an exemplary job of advancing women and helping employees balance work and family (Human Resources and Social Development Canada, 2007). In addition, IBM has been recognized by the Alliance of Work-life Professionals. This alliance offers its Innovative Excellence Award to organizations that demonstrate excellence in work-family balance. The award honors organizations that have looked beyond organizational, cultural, and demographic boundaries and have taken extraordinary steps to achieve outstanding results in addressing both individual and business needs.

Each job announcement corresponded to an experimental condition (i.e., a family-oriented organization condition and a career-oriented organization condition).

Participants were asked to evaluate only one hypothetical job announcement and report their interest in the position. Assignment of participants to one of the experimental conditions was completely random. See Appendix C for a description of each job announcement.

## Measures

### *Individualism and Collectivism*

Individualism and collectivism were measured using items from a scale designed by Singelis et al. (1995). The measure contains 14 items, and it uses a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Singelis et al. (1995) reported that the internal consistency of the individualism scale was between .67 and .74. They also reported that the internal consistency of the collectivism scale was between .68 and .74. See Appendix B for this measure.

### *Organizational Attraction*

Organizational attraction was measured with a scale used in a study reported by Rau and Hyland (2002). This measure was designed to assess information about a participant's attraction to an organization and his or her intentions to pursue the position described in the job announcement. Participants read five statements and responded to each by using a 7-point Likert scale, with 1 indicating "strongly disagree" and 7 indicating "strongly agree". See Appendix D for this measure. Rau and Hyland (2002) reported that the Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .96. This measure is similar to those used in previous studies of job choice and organizational attraction (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1994; Honeycutt & Rosen, 1997; Schwoerer & Rosen, 1989). In such studies, researchers used scales with Likert-type items that asked participants to indicate the degree of

agreement with statements regarding intentions to pursue a position and desire to work for the organization.

### *Normative Beliefs*

Normative beliefs were assessed by asking participants to read a list of referents and respond, using a 7-point scale, about the extent to which each salient referent would approve or disapprove of them working at a hypothetical company. In circumstances where the participant did not have a particular referent, he or she was asked to check the “not applicable” option. For example, if the participant did not have grandparents, he or she selected the “not applicable” option. The normative beliefs measure used in this study was similar to those developed by Ajzen (1991), Ajzen and Driver (1992), Ajzen and Madden (1986) and Theodorakis (1994). See Appendix E for this measure.

### *Motivation to Comply*

Motivation to comply was measured by asking participants to indicate their motivation to comply with each salient referent on a 7-point scale ranging from “very much” to “not at all”. In circumstances where the participant did not have a particular referent they were asked to check the “not applicable” option. For example, if the participant did not have grandparents, he or she would select the “not applicable” option. The motivation to comply measure used in this study was similar to those developed by Ajzen (1991), Ajzen and Driver (1992), Ajzen and Madden (1986) and Theodorakis (1994). See Appendix E for this measure.

### *Manipulation Check*

Eight items were used to determine if participants accurately interpreted the manipulations of the study. The manipulation check included two parts. In the first part,

five items measured participants' recall of the job announcement. In the second part, three items assessed expected work-family conflict. These three items were derived from existing work-family conflict scales (Frone, Russel, & Cooper, 1992; Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991). Bretz and Judge (1994) reported that the coefficient alpha for the 3-item work-family scale was .60 (Bretz & Judge, 1994). See Appendix F for this measure.

#### *Demographic Questionnaire*

Participants completed a questionnaire inquiring about three categories: personal characteristics (e.g., sex, age, race or ethnicity, religious preference), work situation (e.g., occupation, job position, years of experience), and family situation (e.g., marital status, number of children, likelihood of having additional children). These three demographic information categories are similar to those used by Honeycutt and Rosen (1997). See Appendix G for this measure.

## CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSES

This section describes all the analyses conducted in this study, and it contains three parts. The first part explains the analyses conducted for data screening. The second part gives details about the analyses conducted to test each hypothesis. The third part illustrates the equations used to plot interactions.

### Data Screening

#### *Participants*

Data of the participants were examined to determine if there were differences on the individualism and collectivism scores as a function of ethnicity or sex. In terms of ethnicity, it was expected that Anglos would score higher on the individualism measure than Hispanics (Triandis, 1994). In addition, it was expected that Hispanics would score higher on the collectivism measure than Anglos (Triandis, 1994). To examine whether there were differences between Anglos and Hispanics in terms of individualism and collectivism, two regression analyses were conducted.

The first relation was tested with a regression analysis using individualism as the criterion variable and ethnicity (i.e., Anglos vs. Hispanics) as the predictor. The model used to test this relation was:

$$Y = \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

In this model, “*Y*” represents the predicted variable individualism; “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable ethnicity; “*X<sub>1</sub>*”



represents the observed score for ethnicity, where Hispanic was coded as 1 and Anglo was coded as 2; and “*e*” represents the error component of the model.

The second relation was tested with a regression analysis using collectivism as the criterion variable and ethnicity (i.e., Anglos vs. Hispanics) as the predictor. The model used to test this relation was:

$$Y = \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

In this model, “*Y*” represents the predicted variable collectivism; “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable ethnicity; “*X<sub>1</sub>*” represents the observed score for ethnicity, where Hispanic was coded as 1 and Anglo was coded as 2; and “*e*” represents the error component of the model.

In terms of sex, it was expected that males would score higher on the individualism measure than females (Triandis, 1994). In addition, it was expected that females would score higher on the collectivism measure than males (Triandis, 1994). To examine whether there were differences between males and females in terms of individualism and collectivism, two regression analyses were conducted.

The first relation was tested with a regression analysis using individualism as the criterion variable and sex (i.e., males vs. females) as the predictor. The model used to test this relation was:

$$Y = \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

In this model, “ $Y$ ” represents the predicted variable individualism; “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable sex; “ $X_1$ ” represents the observed score for sex, where males were coded as 1 and females were coded as 2; and “ $e$ ” represents the error component of the model.

The second relation was tested with a regression analysis using collectivism as the criterion variable and sex (i.e., males vs. females) as the predictor. The model used to test this relation was:

$$Y = \beta_1 X_1 + e$$

In this model, “ $Y$ ” represents the predicted variable collectivism; “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable sex; “ $X_1$ ” represents the observed score for sex, where males were coded as 1 and females were coded as 2; and “ $e$ ” represents the error component of the model.

#### *Manipulation Check*

An analysis of the responses to the manipulation check was conducted to determine if the experimental treatment (i.e., type of organization) succeeded in producing a perception of work-and-family conflict. First, the percentage of participants that responded correctly to each of the manipulation check items was computed to determine how much participants recalled the information read on the stimulus material. In addition, a  $t$ -test for independent samples was used to determine which organization was perceived as having higher work-family conflict.

### *Descriptive Statistics*

Means and standard deviations were computed for each variable. These were examined and compared to the statistics reported by other researchers to determine if there was sufficient variability in participants' responses to the measures.

### *Reliability of Measures*

The reliability of each measure was determined by using coefficient alpha estimates. These were examined and compared to the reliabilities reported by other researchers who have used similar measures.

### *Correlations among Variables*

To examine the relations among all variables, correlation coefficients were computed. In addition, the relations among variables by each condition (i.e., career-oriented and family-oriented) were examined with correlation coefficients.

### *Analyses for Tests of Hypotheses*

#### *Test of Hypothesis 1*

Hypothesis 1 predicted that there would be a two-way interaction between collectivism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. The slopes of the regression lines for each type of organization (i.e., family-oriented and career-oriented) would differ as a function of collectivism. Specifically, the slope of the regression line for the family-oriented organization would be steeper than the slope of the regression line for the career-oriented organization.

To test Hypothesis 1, a moderated multiple regression was employed for a two-way interaction using organizational attraction as the criterion variable and the type of

organization and collectivism as predictors. The model used to evaluate this two-way interaction was:

$$Y = \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2 + e$$

In this model, “*Y*” represents the predicted variable organizational attraction; “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable type of organization; “*X<sub>1</sub>*” represents the observed score for the type of organization, where the career-oriented organization was coded as 1 and the family-oriented organization was coded as 0; “ $\beta_2$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable collectivism; “*X<sub>2</sub>*” represents the observed score for collectivism; “ $\beta_3$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the interaction effect of the type of organization and collectivism; “*X<sub>1</sub>X<sub>2</sub>*” represents the cross product of the observed scores for the type of organization and collectivism; and “*e*” represents the error component of the model.

For all tests of moderation conducted in this study, the predictor variables were mean centered to reduce possible multicollinearity (Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Tabachnik & Fidell, 1996). In addition, the main effect variables as well as the interaction variables were entered simultaneously for all tests of moderation used in this study. This procedure was followed as advised by Stone-Romero and Liakhovitski (2002).

Finally, an alpha level of .10 was used for all tests of moderation conducted in this study. A Type I error rate greater than .05 was used as advised by Pedhazur (1982), Stone-Romero and Anderson (1994), Stone-Romero et al. (1994), as well as Stone-

Romero and Liakhovitski (2002). These recommendations are based on the results of many studies that show low levels of power for tests of moderation (Stone-Romero & Anderson, 1994; Stone-Romero et al., 1994; Stone-Romero & Liakhovitski, 2002).

### *Test of Hypothesis 2*

Hypothesis 2 predicted that there would be a two-way interaction between individualism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. The slopes of the regression lines for each type of organization (i.e., family-oriented and career-oriented) would differ as a function of individualism. In particular, the slope of the regression line for the career-oriented organization would be steeper than the slope of the regression line for the family-oriented organization.

To test Hypothesis 2, a moderated multiple regression was employed for a two-way interaction using organizational attraction as the criterion variable and the type of organization and individualism as the predictors. The model used to evaluate the two-way interaction was:

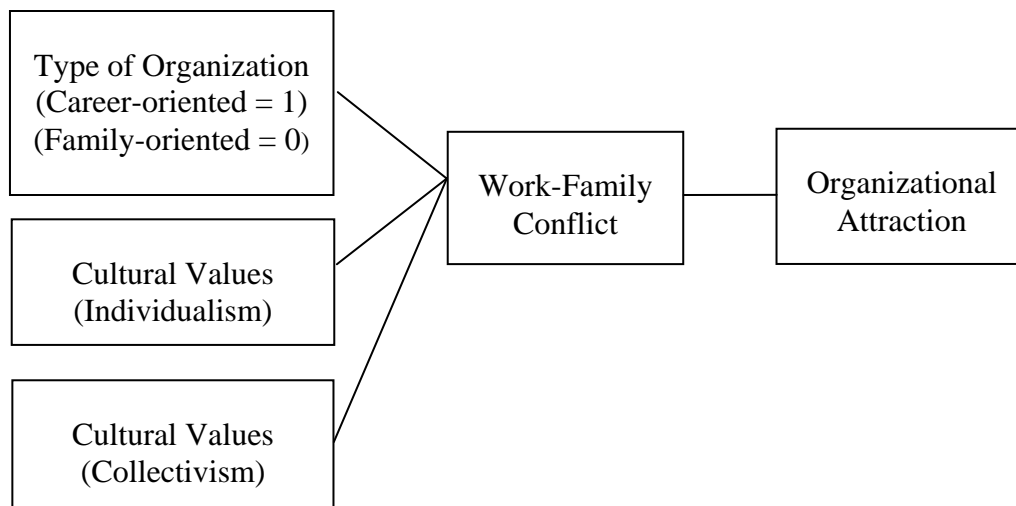
$$Y = \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2 + e$$

In this model, “ $Y$ ” represents the predicted variable organizational attraction; “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable type of organization; “ $X_1$ ” represents the observed score for the type of organization, where the career-oriented organization was coded as 1 and the family-oriented organization was coded as 0; “ $\beta_2$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable individualism; “ $X_2$ ” represents the observed score for individualism; “ $\beta_3$ ”

represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the interaction effect of the type of organization and individualism; “ $X_1X_2$ ” represents the cross product of the observed scores for the type of organization and individualism; and “ $e$ ” represents the error component of the model.

*Supplementary Analyses to Tests of Hypotheses 1 and 2*

*Work-family conflict variable.* Although no specific hypotheses were presented for the work-family conflict variable, supplementary analyses were conducted to assess its relation to other variables examined in this study. More specifically, it was believed that the variable work-family conflict (a variable measured as a manipulation check) may have moderated the relation between the type of organization and organizational attraction, as well as the relation between values and organizational attraction. Figure 3 illustrates the hypothesized causal model.



*Figure 3.* Model depicting hypothesized causal relations of the variables type of organization, cultural values, work-family conflict, and organizational attraction.

To examine the relations depicted in Figure 3, three moderated regression analyses were conducted. In the first analysis, a moderated multiple regression was employed to test for main effects and a two-way interaction using work-family conflict as the criterion variable, and the type of organization and collectivism as the predictors. The model used to evaluate the main effects and two-way interaction was:

$$Y = \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2 + e$$

In this model, “*Y*” represents the predicted variable work-family conflict; “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable type of organization; “ $X_1$ ” represents the observed score for the type of organization; “ $\beta_2$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable collectivism; “ $X_2$ ” represents the observed score for collectivism; “ $\beta_3$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the interaction effect of the type of organization and collectivism; “ $X_1 X_2$ ” represents the cross product of the observed scores for the type of organization and collectivism; and “*e*” represents the error component of the model.

In the second analysis, a moderated multiple regression was employed to test for main effects as well as a two-way interaction using work-family conflict as the criterion variable, and the type of organization and individualism as the predictors. The model used to evaluate the main effects and two-way interaction was:

$$Y = \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_1 X_2 + e$$

In this model, “ $Y$ ” represents the predicted variable work-family conflict; “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable type of organization; “ $X_1$ ” represents the observed score for the type of organization; “ $\beta_2$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable individualism; “ $X_2$ ” represents the observed score for individualism; “ $\beta_3$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the interaction effect of the type of organization and individualism; “ $X_1X_2$ ” represents the cross product of the observed scores for the type of organization and individualism; and “ $e$ ” represents the error component of the model.

In the third analysis, a moderated multiple regression was employed to test for main effects and a two-way interaction using organizational attraction as the criterion variable, and the type of organization and work-family conflict as the predictors. The model used to evaluate the main effects and two-way interaction was:

$$Y = \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_1X_2 + e$$

In this model, “ $Y$ ” represents the predicted variable organizational attraction; “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable type of organization; “ $X_1$ ” represents the observed score for the type of organization; “ $\beta_2$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable work-family conflict; “ $X_2$ ” represents the observed score for work-family conflict; “ $\beta_3$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the interaction effect of the



type of organization and work-family conflict; “ $X_1X_2$ ” represents the cross product of the observed scores for the type of organization and work-family conflict; and “ $e$ ” represents the error component of the model.

*Internal analysis.* Given that not all participants answered correctly the six manipulation check questions, some readers may question whether the results of the study would change by including only participants who recalled all the information presented in the stimulus material. Additional analyses were conducted to determine if the results obtained for the tests of hypotheses 1 and 2 differed by including only individuals who had scores on the manipulation check items that indicated they understood the manipulation. For such analyses, the mean, standard deviation, and reliability of each measure were examined. The same moderated multiple regression procedures used to test hypotheses 1 and 2 were followed in this analysis. However, it included only participants who passed all six manipulation check items.

*Comparison of Anglos and Hispanics.* Participants in the study included individuals from various ethnic backgrounds. Some readers may raise the question of whether the results of the study would change if the analyses included only participants of Anglo and Hispanic background. Additional analyses were conducted to determine if the results obtained from the tests of hypotheses 1 and 2 differed by including only individuals of Anglo and Hispanic background. For such analyses, the mean, standard deviation, and reliability of each measure were examined. The same multiple regression procedures used to test hypotheses 1 and 2 were followed in this analysis. However, it included only participants who self-reported in the demographic questionnaire that they were from a Hispanic or an Anglo ethnic background.

### *Test of Hypothesis 3*

Hypothesis 3 predicted that collectivism would be positively related to subjective norms. A zero-order correlation was used to examine this relation, as well as the amount of shared variance between these two variables.

#### *Supplementary Analyses to Test of Hypothesis 3*

In addition to showing the relation between collectivism and subjective norms, this study examined whether (a) there was a relation between individualism and subjective norms, and (b) there were any differences between Anglo and Hispanics in their subjective norms. These analyses would add value to the results of this study because it would show that subjective norms can differ as a function of culture. In addition, it would show that two groups that differ in values actually differ in subjective norms.

To examine such relations, a multiple regression analysis was employed to test for main effects using subjective norms as the criterion variable with individualism, collectivism, and ethnicity as the predictor variables. The model used to evaluate the main effects was:

$$Y = \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta_3 X_3 + e$$

In this model, “ $Y$ ” represents the predicted variable subjective norms; “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable individualism; “ $X_1$ ” represents the observed score for individualism; “ $\beta_2$ ” represents the standardized partial regression coefficient for the predictor variable collectivism; “ $X_2$ ” represents the observed score for collectivism; “ $\beta_3$ ” represents the standardized partial

regression coefficient for the predictor variable ethnicity; “ $X_3$ ” represents the observed scores for ethnicity; and “ $e$ ” represents the error component of the model.

#### Equations used to Plot Interactions

In this study, all figures illustrating two-way interactions that contain a dichotomous variable, a quantitative variable, and their product, were plotted using equations suggested by Cohen and Cohen (1983). The figures show a value of  $Vc$ , which is the point at which the predicted values intersect. The value of  $Vc$  was computed by using the following equation:

$$Vc = \frac{-\beta_1}{\beta_3}$$

In this equation, “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial correlation coefficient for the dichotomous variable (e.g., type of organization); and “ $\beta_3$ ” represents the interaction term.

To plot the slope of the regression line for the dichotomous variable type of organization coded as 1 (i.e., career-oriented condition), the equation used was:

$$Y_1 = \beta_1 (1) + \beta_2 v + \beta_3 v$$

In this equation, “ $Y_1$ ” represents the predictor variable score for organizational attraction in the career-oriented condition; “ $\beta_1$ ” represents the standardized partial correlation coefficient for the dichotomous variable (e.g., type of organization); “ $\beta_2$ ” represents the standardized partial correlation coefficient for the quantitative variable (e.g., collectivism

or individualism); “ $v$ ” represents  $X_2$  the observed score for the quantitative variable; and “ $\beta_3$ ” represents the interaction term.

To plot the slope of the regression line of the dichotomous variable type of organization coded as 0 (i.e., family-oriented condition), the equation used was:

$$Y_0 = \beta_2 v$$

In this equation, “ $Y_0$ ” represents the predictor variable score for organizational attraction in the family-oriented condition; “ $\beta_2$ ” represents the standardized partial correlation coefficient for the quantitative variable (e.g., collectivism or individualism); and “ $v$ ” represents  $X_2$  the observed score for the quantitative variable.

## CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS

This section describes the results found in this study, and it contains two parts. The first part gives details of the findings from data screening. The second part presents the results of the hypotheses tests.

### Data Screening

#### *Participants*

In this study, the average individualism score was higher for Anglos than for Hispanics ( $\beta_1 = .26, p < .05$ ; one tailed). The average individualism score was 4.11 for Anglos and 3.85 for Hispanics. However, no differences were found between Anglos and Hispanics in their responses to the collectivism measure ( $\beta_1 = -.13, p > .05$ ). In addition, the average individualism score was higher for males than for females ( $\beta_1 = -.31, p < .01$ ). The average individualism score was 4.20 for males and 3.87 for females. Finally, the average collectivism score was higher for males than for females ( $\beta_1 = .37, p < .01$ ). The average collectivism score was 6.47 for females and 6.13 for males.

#### *Manipulation Check*

Data were examined to determine the percentage of participants that answered correctly each of the five manipulation check questions from Part A of the Manipulation Check. The relevant results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. *Percentage of participants with correct answer to manipulation check items*

Manipulation check item	Percentage of participants with correct answer
1	70.28
2	83.96
3	83.02
4	74.53
5	69.81
6	74.53

A *t*-test for independent samples indicated a difference between participants' perception of work-family conflict in the career-oriented condition and in the family-oriented condition,  $t(226) = 8.06, p < .01$ . The average work-family conflict score was 3.84 for the career-oriented condition and 2.22 for the family-oriented condition. Thus, participants in the career-oriented condition perceived this organization as having higher work-family conflict than participants in the family-oriented condition.

#### *Descriptive Statistics*

Descriptive data were examined to determine if there was sufficient variability in participants' responses to the measures. Table 2 illustrates the means and standard deviations of each variable.

Table 2. *Descriptive data*

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Variable	Mean	Standard deviation
Individualism	4.00	1.00
Collectivism	6.32	.83
Organizational attraction	5.49	1.44
Work-family conflict	3.04	1.72
Subjective norms	7.57	6.27

---

*Reliability of Measures*

The reliability of each of the measures is reported in Table 3. These reliabilities were compared to the reliabilities reported by other researchers who have used similar measures (e.g., Rau & Hyland, 2002; Singelis et al., 1995).

Table 3. *Reliability of each measure used in this study*

Measure	Coefficient alpha estimate		Authors
	This study	Other studies	
Individualism	.66	.67 - .74	Singelis et al., 1995
Collectivism	.81	.68 - .74	Singelis et al., 1995
Organizational attraction	.96	.96	Rau and Hyland, 2002
Work-family conflict	.93	.60	Bretz and Judge, 1994

*Correlations among Variables*

Table 4 provides correlation coefficients for all the variables measured in the study. Table 5 presents correlation coefficients for all the variables in the career-oriented condition. Table 6 shows correlation coefficients for all the variables in the family-oriented condition.



Table 4. *Correlations among all variables (both conditions included)*

	Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Collectivism	1.00				
2.	Individualism	-.09	1.00			
3.	Organizational attraction	.23**	.08	1.00		
4.	Work-family conflict	-.13	.13*	-.27**	1.00	
5.	Subjective norms	.20**	.02	.49**	-.19**	1.00

$n = 228$ . \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ .

Table 5. *Correlations among all variables for the career-oriented condition*

	Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1.	Collectivism	1.00				
2.	Individualism	-.09	1.00			
3.	Organizational attraction	.13	.19*	1.00		
4.	Work-family conflict	-.15	.09	-.36**	1.00	
5.	Subjective norms	.20*	.23*	.43**	-.15	1.00

$n = 115$ . \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ .

Table 6. *Correlations among all variables for the family-oriented condition*

Variable	1	2	3	4	5
1. Collectivism	1.00				
2. Individualism	-.10	1.00			
3. Organizational attraction	.34**	-.03	1.00		
4. Work-family conflict	-.04	.23*	-.09	1.00	
5. Subjective norms	.19*	-.20*	.55**	-.18	1.00

$n = 113$ . \*  $p < .05$ . \*\*  $p < .01$ .

### Results of Tests of Hypotheses

#### *Test of Hypothesis 1*

Hypothesis 1 predicted that there would be a two-way interaction between collectivism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. Table 7 displays the standardized partial regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) and the standard error of each  $\beta$  weight ( $SE \beta$ ).

Table 7. Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and collectivism variables predicting organizational attraction

Variable	$\beta$	SE $\beta$
Type of organization	-.21**	.13
Collectivism	.37***	.10
Type of organization X Collectivism	-.24*	.13

\* $p < .10$ . \*\* $p < .05$  (one tailed). \*\*\* $p < .01$ .

With the main effects of the standardized scores for the type of organization and collectivism, as well as the interaction term of the standardized scores for the type of organization and collectivism in the multiple regression equation,  $R^2 = .08$ ,  $F(3, 224) = 6.54$ ,  $p < .01$ . Inspection of the regression coefficient for the interaction term indicated that the type of organization interacted with collectivism,  $\beta_3 = -.24$ ,  $p < .10$ . Figure 4 illustrates the interaction effect. As can be seen in Figure 4, the slopes of the regression lines for each type of organization differ as a function of collectivism. Specifically, the slope of the regression line for the family-oriented condition is steeper than the slope of the regression line for the career-oriented condition. Thus, this analysis provides support for Hypothesis 1.

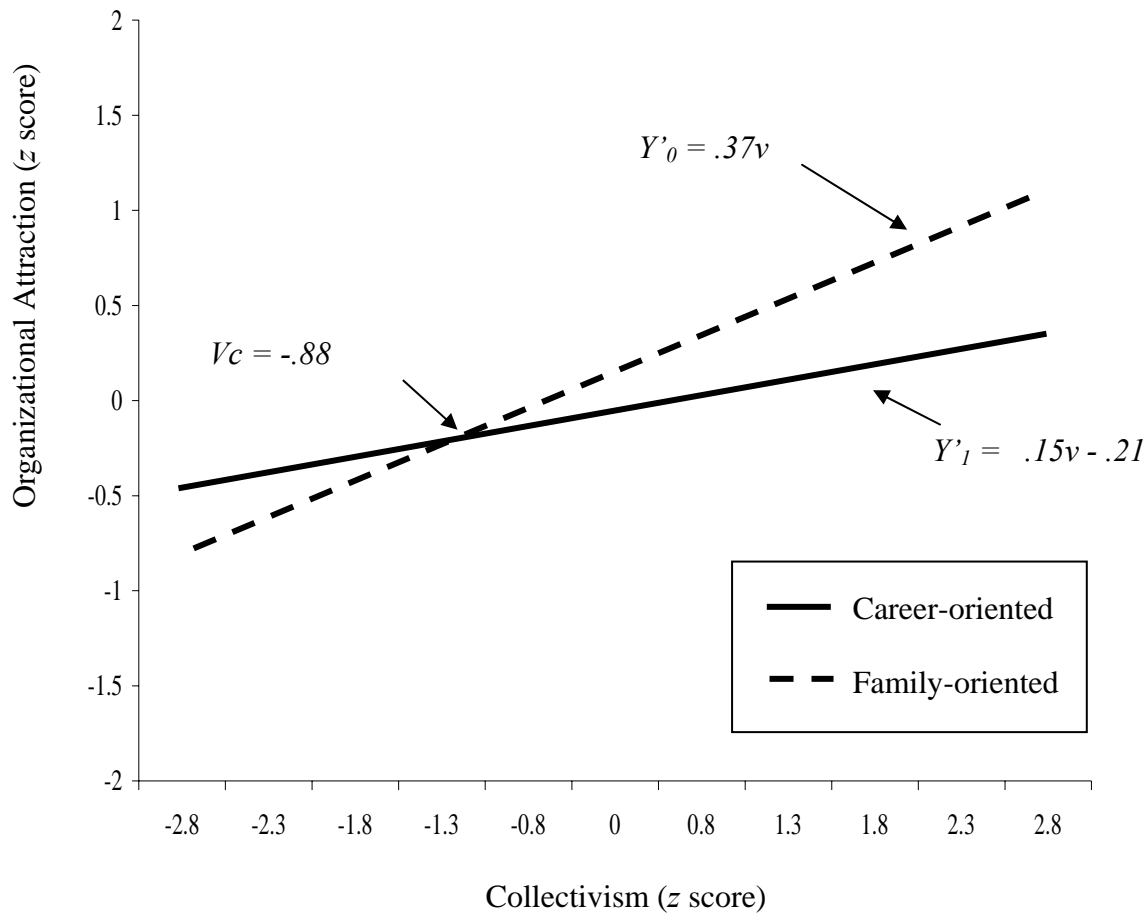


Figure 4. Two-way interaction between the type of organization (family-oriented and career-oriented conditions) and collectivism as predictors of organizational attraction.

#### Test of Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 predicted that there would be a two-way interaction between individualism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. Table 8 displays the standardized partial regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) and the standard error of each  $\beta$  weight ( $SE \beta$ ).

Table 8. *Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and individualism variables predicting organizational attraction*

Variable	$\beta$	SE $\beta$
Type of organization	-.25**	.13
Individualism	.03	.09
Type of organization X Individualism	.22*	.13

\*  $p < .10$ . \*\* $p < .05$  (one tailed).

With the main effects of the standardized scores for the type of organization and individualism, as well as the interaction term of the standardized scores for the type of organization and individualism in the multiple regression equation,  $R^2 = .04$ ,  $F(3, 224) = 2.68$ ,  $p < .05$ . Inspection of the regression coefficient of the interaction term indicated that the type of organization interacted with individualism,  $\beta_3 = .22$ ,  $p < .10$ . Figure 5 illustrates the interaction effect. As can be seen in Figure 5, the slopes of the regression lines for each type of organization differ as a function of individualism. In particular, the slope of the regression line for the career-oriented condition is steeper than the slope of the regression line for the family-oriented condition. Thus, this analysis provides support for Hypothesis 2.

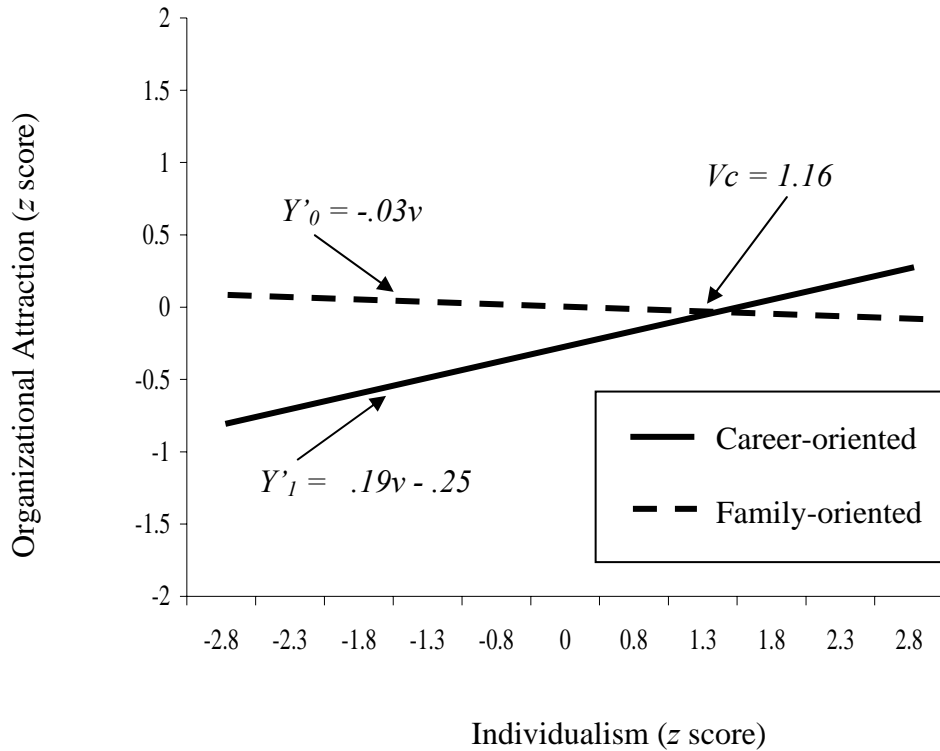


Figure 5. Two-way interaction between the type of organization (family-oriented and career-oriented conditions) and individualism as predictors of organizational attraction.

*Supplementary Analyses to Tests of Hypotheses 1 and 2*

*Work-family conflict variable.* Supplementary analyses were conducted to determine whether the variable work-family conflict may have moderated the relation between the type of organization and organizational attraction, as well as the relation between values and organizational attraction. The following are the results of three multiple regression analyses used to test these relations.

The first analysis tested for a moderation using work-family conflict as the criterion variable and the type of organization and collectivism as the predictors. Table 9 displays the standardized partial regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) and the standard error of each  $\beta$  weight ( $SE \beta$ ).

Table 9. *Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and collectivism variables predicting work-family conflict*

Variable	$\beta$	$SE \beta$
Type of organization	.93*	.12
Collectivism	-.04	.09
Type of organization X Collectivism	.09	.43

\*  $p < .01$ .

With the main effects of the standardized scores for the type of organization and collectivism, as well as the interaction term of the standardized scores for the type of organization and collectivism in the multiple regression equation,  $R^2 = .23$ ,  $F(3, 224) = 22.77$ ,  $p < .01$ . Inspection of the regression coefficient for the main effect terms indicated that there was a main effect for the type of organization,  $\beta_1 = .93$ ,  $p < .01$ . More specifically, individuals in the career-oriented condition reported higher work-family conflict than individuals in the family-oriented condition. Figure 6 depicts the findings of

this analysis. There was no main effect for the collectivism variable. Also, there was not an interaction effect for the type of organization and collectivism.

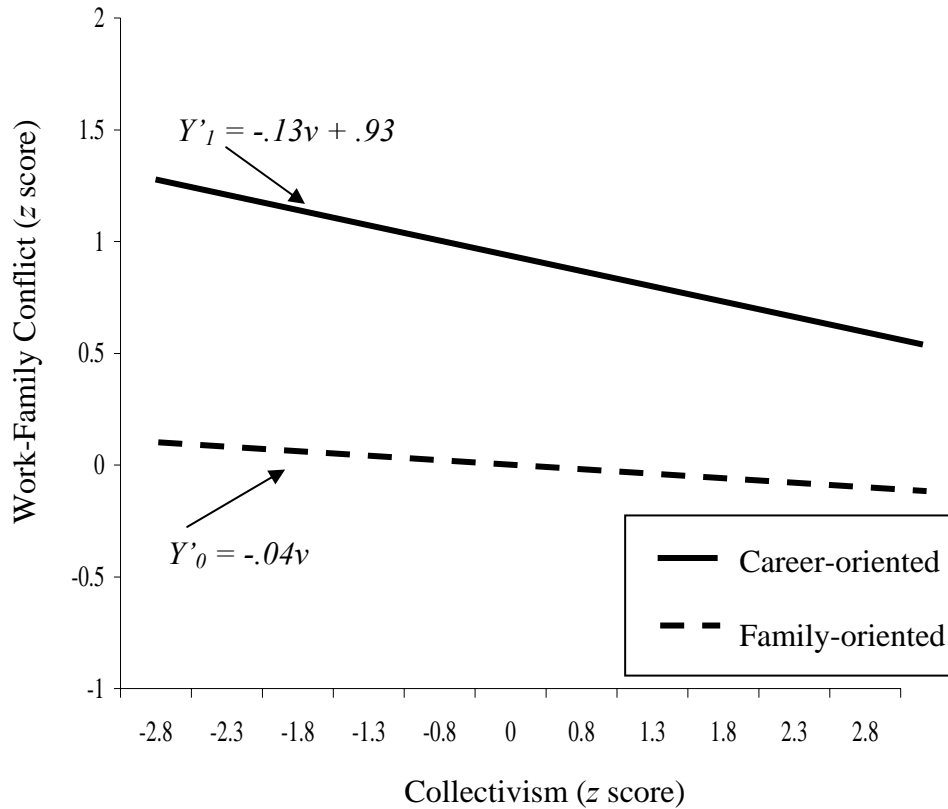


Figure 6. Main effect for the type of organization (family-oriented and career-oriented conditions) as a predictor of work-family conflict.

The second analysis tested for main effects as well as a two-way interaction using work-family conflict as the criterion variable, and the type of organization and



individualism as the predictors. Table 10 displays the standardized partial regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) and the standard error of each  $\beta$  weight ( $SE \beta$ ).

Table 10. *Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and individualism variables predicting work-family conflict*

Variable	$\beta$	$SE \beta$
Type of organization	.94 **	.12
Individualism	.18*	.08
Type of organization X Individualism	.10	.12

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

With the main effects of the standardized scores for the type of organization and individualism, as well as the interaction term of the standardized scores for the type of organization and individualism in the multiple regression equation,  $R^2 = .24$ ,  $F(3, 224) = 23.99$ ,  $p < .01$ . Inspection of the regression coefficient for the main effect terms indicated that there was a main effect for the type of organization,  $\beta_1 = .94$ ,  $p < .01$ . Individuals in the career-oriented condition reported higher work-family conflict than individuals in the family-oriented condition. In addition, there was a main effect for individualism,  $\beta_2 = .18$ ,  $p < .05$ . Specifically, individualism was positively related to work-family conflict.

Finally, there was not an interaction effect for the type of organization and individualism.

Figure 7 illustrates these findings.

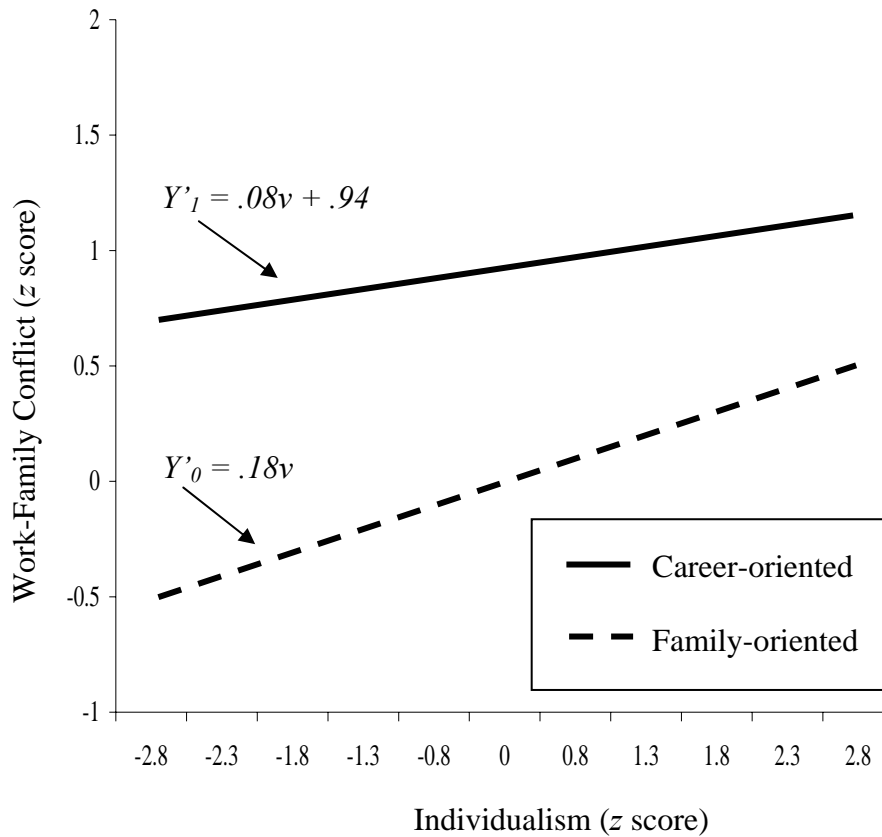


Figure 7. Main effect for individualism as a predictor of work-family conflict.

The third analysis tested for main effects and interaction using organizational attraction as the criterion variable, and the type of organization and work-family conflict as the predictors. Table 11 displays the standardized partial regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) and the standard error of each  $\beta$  weight ( $SE \beta$ ).

Table 11. *Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and work-family conflict variables predicting organizational attraction*

Variable	$\beta$	<i>SE</i> $\beta$
Type of organization	.02	.15
Work-family conflict	.11	.11
Type of organization X Work-family conflict	-.19*	.11

\*  $p < .10$ .

With the main effects of the standardized scores for the type of organization and work-family conflict, as well as the interaction term of the standardized scores for the type of organization and work-family conflict in the multiple regression equation,  $R^2 = .08$ ,  $F(3, 224) = 6.84$ ,  $p < .01$ . Inspection of the regression coefficient for the interaction term indicated that the type of organization interacted with work-family conflict,  $\beta_3 = -.19$ ,  $p < .10$ . In particular, the slope of the regression line for the career-oriented condition is steeper than the slope of the regression line for the family-oriented. Figure 8 illustrates these findings.

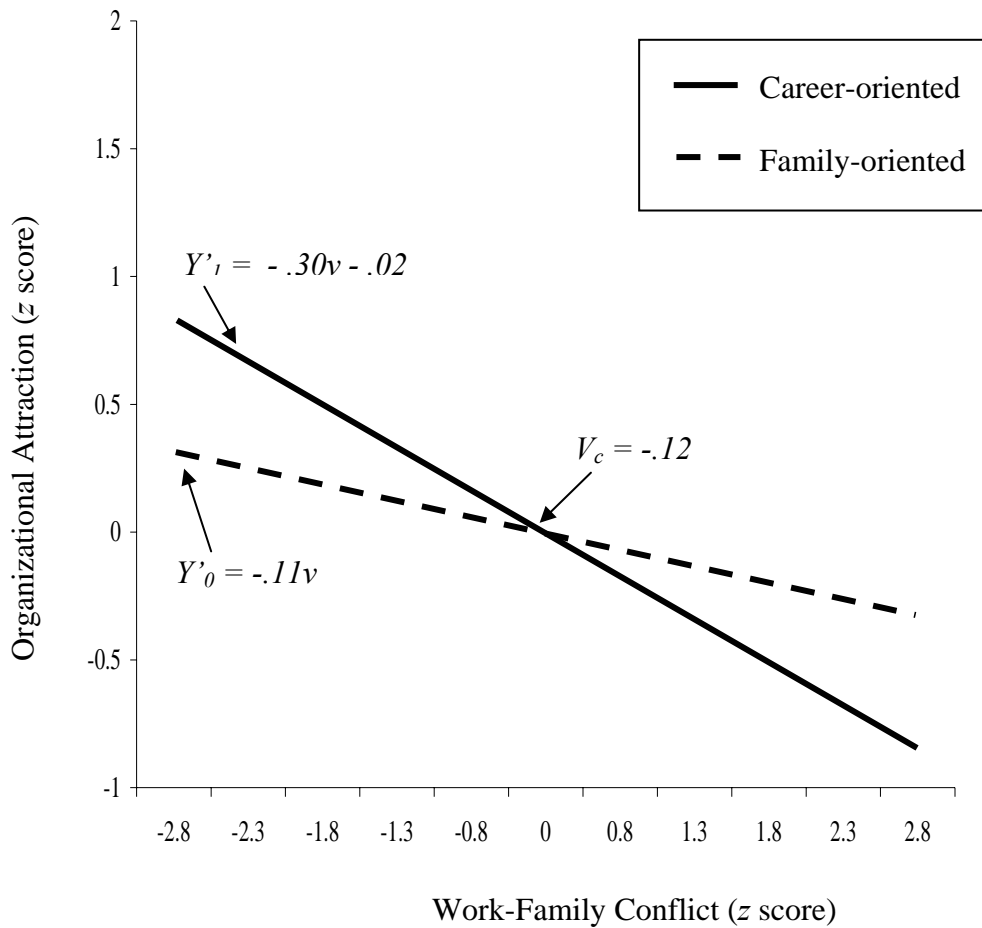


Figure 8. Two-way interaction between the type of organization (family-oriented and career-oriented conditions) and work-family conflict as predictors of organizational attraction

*Internal analysis.* Supplementary analyses were conducted to determine if the results obtained from the tests of hypotheses 1 and 2 differed by including only participants who passed all manipulation check items. For these analyses, the sample

consisted of 8 African-Americans, 3 Asian-Americans, 23 Hispanic-Americans, 36 Anglo-Americans and 2 participants who self reported their ethnic background as “other”. In addition, the descriptive data of the measures used with the internal analysis subsample were examined and compared to the descriptive data used in the analyses that included the entire sample. Table 12 reports the mean and standard deviation of each measure. As can be seen in Table 12, the variability of the collectivism measure (i.e., standard deviation) in the internal analysis subsample is much lower than the variability of the collectivism measure in the analyses that included the entire sample.

Table 12. *Comparison of descriptive data of internal analysis subsample and entire sample*

Variable	Internal analysis Subsample		Entire sample	
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Individualism	3.98	1.05	4.00	1.00
Collectivism	6.54	.45	6.32	.83
Organizational attraction	5.82	1.10	5.49	1.44

The reliability of each measure used in the internal analysis was examined and compared to the reliability of each measure used in the analyses that included the entire sample. Table 13 reports the reliability for each measure. As can be seen in Table 13, the reliability of the collectivism measure in the internal analysis subsample is much lower than the reliability of the collectivism measure in the analyses that included the entire sample.

Table 13. *Comparison of reliability of measures used with internal analysis subsample and entire sample*

Measure	Coefficient alpha estimate	
	Internal analysis subsample	Entire sample
Individualism	.72	.66
Collectivism	.60	.81
Organizational attraction	.95	.96

The first internal analysis was conducted to determine if there would be a two-way interaction between collectivism and the type of organization on organizational

attraction. Table 14 displays the standardized partial regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) and the standard error of each  $\beta$  weight ( $SE \beta$ ).

Table 14. *Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and collectivism variables predicting organizational attraction using internal analysis subsample*

Variable	$\beta$	$SE \beta$
Type of organization	-.45	.17
Collectivism	.13*	.27
Type of organization X Collectivism	-.02	.17

\* $p < .01$ .

With the main effects of the standardized scores for the type of organization and collectivism, as well as the interaction term of the standardized scores for the type of organization and collectivism in the multiple regression equation,  $R^2 = .14$ ,  $F(3, 68) = 3.87$ ,  $p < .01$ . Inspection of the regression coefficient for the interaction term indicated that the type of organization did not interact with collectivism,  $\beta_3 = -.02$ ,  $p > .10$ .

The second internal analysis was conducted to determine if there would be a two-way interaction between individualism and the type of organization on organizational

attraction. Table 15 displays the standardized partial regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) and the standard error of each  $\beta$  weight ( $SE \beta$ ).

Table 15. *Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and individualism variables predicting organizational attraction using internal analysis subsample*

Variable	$\beta$	$SE \beta$
Type of organization	.52*	.16
Individualism	.85*	.25
Type of organization X Individualism	-.47*	.17

\* $p < .01$ .

With the main effects of the standardized scores for the type of organization and individualism, as well as the interaction term of the standardized scores for the type of organization and individualism in the multiple regression equation,  $R^2 = .21$ ,  $F(3, 68) = 7.13$ ,  $p < .01$ . Inspection of the regression coefficient for the interaction term indicated that the type of organization interacted with individualism,  $\beta_3 = -.47$ ,  $p < .01$ .

*Comparison of Anglos and Hispanics.* Supplementary analyses were conducted to determine if the results obtained from the tests of hypotheses 1 and 2 differed by including only participants who reported they were from a Hispanic or an Anglo ethnic



background. For these analyses, the sample consisted of 72 Hispanic-Americans and 105 Anglo-Americans. In addition, the descriptive data of the measures used with the ethnicity analysis subsample were examined and compared to the descriptive data used in the analyses that included the entire sample. Table 16 reports the mean and standard deviation of each measure. As can be seen in Table 16, the descriptive data for both analyses are approximately the same.

Table 16. *Comparison of descriptive data of ethnicity analysis subsample and entire sample*

Variable	Ethnicity analysis subsample		Entire sample	
	Mean	Standard deviation	Mean	Standard deviation
Individualism	4.00	1.03	4.00	1.00
Collectivism	6.32	.81	6.32	.83
Organizational attraction	5.50	1.48	5.49	1.44

The reliability of each measure used in the ethnicity analysis was examined and compared to the measures used in the analyses that included the entire sample. Table 17 reports the reliability for each measure.

Table 17. *Comparison of reliability of measures used with ethnicity analysis subsample and entire sample*

Measure	Coefficient alpha estimate	
	Ethnicity analysis subsample	Entire sample
Individualism	.70	.66
Collectivism	.79	.81
Organizational attraction	.96	.96

The first ethnicity analysis was conducted to determine if there would be a two-way interaction between collectivism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. Table 18 displays the standardized partial regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) and the standard error of each  $\beta$  weight ( $SE \beta$ ).

Table 18. *Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and collectivism variables predicting organizational attraction using ethnicity analysis subsample*

Variable	$\beta$	$SE \beta$
Type of organization	.19	.15
Collectivism	-.15	.27
Type of organization X Collectivism	.28*	.15

\* $p < .10$ .

With the main effects of the standardized scores for the type of organization and collectivism, as well as the interaction term of the standardized scores for the type of organization and collectivism in the multiple regression equation,  $R^2 = .10$ ,  $F(3, 173) = 6.03$ ,  $p < .01$ . Inspection of the regression coefficient for the interaction term indicated that the type of organization interacted with collectivism,  $\beta_3 = .28$ ,  $p < .10$ .

The second ethnicity analysis was conducted to determine if there would be a two-way interaction between individualism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. Table 19 displays the standardized partial regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) and the standard error of each  $\beta$  weight ( $SE \beta$ ).

Table 19. *Summary of moderated regression analysis for the type of organization and individualism variables predicting organizational attraction using ethnicity analysis subsample*

Variable	$\beta$	SE $\beta$
Type of organization	.22	.22
Individualism	.33	.23
Type of organization X Individualism	-.17	.15

With the main effects of the standardized scores for the type of organization and individualism, as well as the interaction term of the standardized scores for the type of organization and individualism in the multiple regression equation,  $R^2 = .01$ ,  $F(3, 173) = 1.53$ ,  $p > .05$ . Inspection of the regression coefficient for the interaction term indicated that the type of organization did not interact with individualism,  $\beta_3 = -.17$ ,  $p > .10$ .

#### *Test of Hypothesis 3*

Hypothesis 3 predicted that collectivism would be positively related to subjective norms. A zero-order correlation analysis revealed that  $r = .20$ ,  $p < .05$ . That is, there was a positive relation between collectivism and subjective norms. In addition, collectivism accounted for 4% of the variance in subjective norms. Thus, this analysis provides support for Hypothesis 3.

*Supplementary Analyses to Hypothesis 3*

Two supplementary analyses to the test of Hypothesis 3 were conducted. The first analysis was conducted to determine whether there was a relation between individualism and subjective norms. The second analysis was conducted to determine whether there were any differences in subjective norms as a function of ethnicity (i.e., Anglo vs. Hispanics)

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to test for main effects using subjective norms as the criterion variable and individualism, collectivism, and ethnicity as the predictor variables. Table 12 displays the standardized partial regression coefficients ( $\beta$ ) and the standard error of each  $\beta$  weight ( $SE \beta$ ).

Table 20. *Summary of multiple regression analysis for individualism, collectivism, and ethnicity variables predicting subjective norms*

Variable	$\beta$	$SE \beta$
Individualism	.09	.07
Collectivism	.19**	.08
Ethnicity	-.33*	.15

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .001$ .

With the main effects of the standardized scores for individualism, collectivism, and ethnicity in the multiple regression equation,  $R^2 = .07$ ,  $F(3, 173) = 4.31$ ,  $p < .01$ .

Inspection of the regression coefficient for the main effect terms indicated that there was a main effect for collectivism,  $\beta_2 = .19, p < .01$ . In particular, collectivism was positively related to subjective norms. In addition, results indicated a main effect for ethnicity,  $\beta_3 = -.33, p < .05$ . This indicates differences between Anglos and Hispanics in their subjective norms. The average subjective norms score was 9.03 for Hispanics and 6.95 for Anglos. Finally, there was no relation between individualism and subjective norms. Figure 9 depicts these findings.

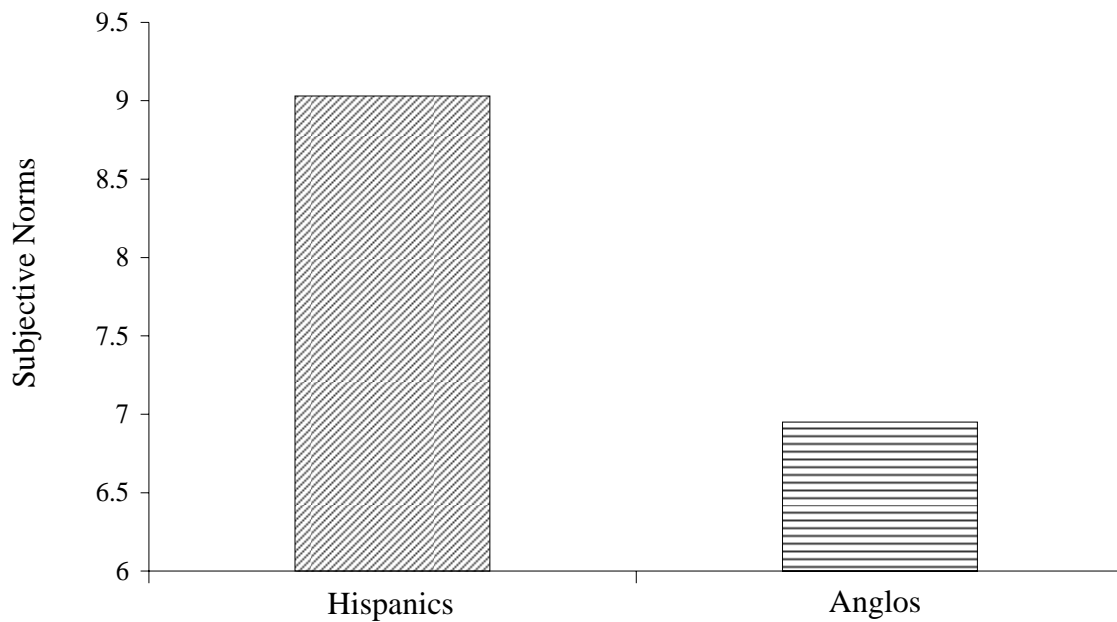


Figure 9. Mean subjective norm score for Hispanics and Anglos.

## **CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION**

### **Summary and Integration of Findings**

This study sought to examine the relation of values to the attraction of organizations offering different kinds of reward systems. The purpose was to test three hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 predicted that there would be a two-way interaction between collectivism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. Hypothesis 2 predicted that there would be a two-way interaction between individualism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. Hypothesis 3 predicted that there would be a positive relation between collectivism and subjective norms used in organizational attraction.

Before testing the three hypotheses, the sample of the present study was examined for differences between Hispanics and Anglos in their responses to the measures of individualism and collectivism. Contrary to what has been reported in the cross-cultural literature, such differences were only found for their responses to the measure of individualism. Previous research suggested Anglos would score higher than Hispanics on the individualism scale, whereas Hispanics would score higher than Anglos on the collectivism scale (Triandis, 1994).

There could be two reasons for the similarity of both groups on the collectivism scale. The first reason is the geographical location in which the study was conducted. The sample of this study consisted of community college students from a southeastern state. A study conducted by Vandello and Cohen (1999) indicated that, across the U.S., there are different patterns of individualism and collectivism. They reported that collectivist

tendencies were strongest in the region of the Deep South (i.e., South Carolina, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana, Texas, Tennessee, Arkansas, Virginia, and North Carolina). In addition, they reported that individualist tendencies were strongest in the region of the Mountain West and Great Plains (i.e., Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, Idaho, Washington, Oregon, Alaska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas). The second explanation for not finding differences in the collectivism scores is the high percentage of female participants. In the current study, 63% of the participants were females. In addition, there were differences on both measures as a function of sex. On the individualism scale, males scored higher than females. On the collectivism scale, females scored higher than males. These findings are consistent with reports by researchers who have noted sex differences in the responses to collectivism and individualism scales regardless of ethnic group membership (Triandis, 1994).

After examining the sample for ethnic and sex differences, the results for the test of Hypothesis 1 were examined. Findings from this analysis indicated that there was a joint effect between collectivism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. The slopes of the regression lines for the type of organization (i.e., family-oriented and career-oriented) differed as a function of collectivism. In particular, the slope of the regression line for the family-oriented organization was steeper than the slope of the regression line for the career-oriented organization.

These results are consistent with cross-cultural literature that suggests collectivists are integrated into a strong and cohesive in-group. These individuals choose the goals of the in-group members (e.g., family members) over their personal goals. Results of this



study showed a similar preference because the family-oriented organization was favored by participants who scored high on the collectivism scale. Further, such findings are consistent with those reported by other researchers who have noted that collectivists prefer jobs with flexible work hours (Stone et al., 2006). Also, the same study by Stone et al. (2006) reported a positive relation between familism and collectivism, and a positive relation between familism and personal time off.

Findings for the test of Hypothesis 2 indicated a joint effect between individualism and the type of organization on organizational attraction. The slopes of the regression lines for the type of organization (i.e., family-oriented and career-oriented) differed as a function of individualism. Specifically, the slope of the regression line for the career-oriented organization was steeper than the slope of the regression line for the family-oriented organization.

These results support what has been reported in the cross-cultural literature about individualism. More specifically, individualism is characterized by competitiveness and placing individual goals ahead of collective goals. The career-oriented organization described in this study highlighted competition and dedication to a career as essential for success. This type of organization was preferred by participants who scored high on the individualism scale.

Taken together, results for the tests of Hypotheses 1 and 2 support the notion that values are a factor related to an individual's attraction to a particular organization. The current study showed that the values of individualism and collectivism help predict organizational attraction.

Furthermore, these findings support previous research which suggests that applicants use information about human resource systems to form judgments about the perceived fit between them and an organization (Bretz & Judge, 1994; Schneider, 1987). The current study manipulated attributes of reward systems and showed individual differences in organizational attraction as a function of values.

As a supplement to the findings for the tests of Hypotheses 1 and 2, additional analyses were performed. One important finding was the relation of work-family conflict and individualism. Participants who scored high on individualism perceived more work-family conflict than participants who scored high on collectivism. The concept of work-family conflict is similar to what Katz and Kahn (1966) describe as role conflict. They define role conflict as “the simultaneous occurrence of two or more role expectations such that compliance with one would make compliance with the other more difficult” (p. 204). Katz and Kahn (1966) also noted that roles are experienced differently by different people. Specifically, a person’s enduring attributes (e.g., motives, values, personality) act as conditioning variables on how individuals receive and respond to sent roles. Moreover, Stone-Romero, Stone, and Salas (2001) proposed the Effects of Culture on Role Behavior (ECORB), which is a modified version of Katz and Kahn’s (1966) role-taking model. The ECORB model recognizes that the culture of role senders and role incumbents influence role expectations, sent roles, behavioral intentions and role behavior. Thus, differences on how individualists and collectivists perceive roles could be an explanation of the findings in this study.

In terms of values that are distinct as a function of culture, research suggests that when a person from an individualist culture experiences role conflict, it is acceptable for

him or her to place personal goals ahead of collective goals. On the other hand, when a person from a collectivist culture experiences role conflict, it is desirable for him or her to place collective goals (i.e., goals from an in-group) ahead of personal goals (Triandis, 1989). For instance, a person from a collectivist culture places the goal of the in-group (e.g., extended family members staying together) over his or her personal goals (e.g., accepting a job located in a city far away from extended family). In fact, such response in collectivists is automatic without any sort of utilitarian calculation.

Furthermore, cross-cultural research suggests that there are variations in the way separate roles are integrated by individuals of different cultures. For example, in individualist cultures the compartmentalization between work and family is more typical. In collectivist cultures, there is more integration of multiple roles played by the individual (Triandis, 1994; Yang, 2005). In addition, Stone-Romero et al. (2003) proposed that cultural differences in family values often evoke different work-related scripts among Hispanics and Anglos. In fact, research by Stone-Romero, Stone, Salas, Hartman and Muñiz (2001) indicated that Hispanics take time off from work to attend family commitments. In contrast, Anglos sacrifice their family life in the interest of work and achievement. Such work script differences of individualists and collectivists could be an explanation of the findings in this study.

Another supplementary analysis to the test of Hypotheses 1 and 2 was the internal analysis. This analysis was conducted with the same procedures as those used to test Hypotheses 1 and 2, except that it included a subsample of participants who passed all the manipulation check items. Results of the internal analysis indicated that the type of organization did not interact with collectivism, which is contrary to the results reported

for the test of Hypothesis 1. The reliability and variability of the collectivism measure for the subsample of the internal analysis were lower than those reported in the analysis which used the entire sample. The low reliability and variability found in the internal analysis attenuated the relation between collectivism and organizational attraction. Additionally, similar to the findings of the Hypothesis 2 test, results of the internal analysis indicated that the type of organization interacted with individualism.

There was one more supplementary analysis which was conducted with the same procedures as those used to test Hypotheses 1 and 2, except that it included only participants of Hispanic or Anglo background. Results of the ethnicity analysis indicated that the type of organization interacted with collectivism, which is similar to the results reported for the Hypothesis 1 test. Findings also revealed that the type of organization did not interact with individualism, which is contrary to the results reported for the Hypothesis 2 test. However, the signs of the standardized partial regression coefficients were similar to those reported for the test of Hypothesis 2. As can be seen on the test of Hypothesis 2, a larger sample size increased the power of the moderated multiple regression test which made the interaction effect significant.

Results for the test of Hypothesis 3 showed that collectivism was related to subjective norms. That is, the more collective the individual, the higher the subjective norms. In addition, one supplementary analysis showed that individualism was not related to subjective norms. A second supplementary analysis indicated that there were differences between Anglos and Hispanics on their subjective norms. Hispanics had higher subjective norms than Anglos. This finding is in line with research that suggests Anglos may be less open to involvement from persons other than immediate family

members (e.g., spouse, children) (Falicov, 2001). Hispanics, on the other hand, make boundaries permeable in extended families, and they help extended family members either materially (e.g., money) or emotionally (e.g., advice, support, reassurance). The emphasis is on the interdependence between Hispanic extended family members rather than on the value of independence and self-reliance.

### Practical Implications

There are a number of practical implications that are justified by the findings of the current study. Multicultural organizations may want to take in consideration the preferences of individuals from diverse backgrounds when developing strategies for organizational attraction and retention systems. In this study, there were variations in organizational attraction as a function of values. Individualists preferred career-oriented organizations whereas collectivists preferred family-oriented organizations. Thus, organizations that only emphasize reward policies that reflect Anglo values (e.g., competition, achievement) may find it difficult to attract and retain individuals with different values (Cox, 1993; Schneider, 1987; Stone et al. 2006; Stone-Romero et al., 2001; Stone-Romero et al., 2003).

Organizations that aim to be effective at attracting and retaining a diverse workforce may want to consider a flexible benefit reward system that appeals to employees from diverse backgrounds (Gomez-Mejia et al., 1998; Stone et al., 2006). With such reward systems, individuals may tradeoff one reward for another. In fact, research suggests that many Hispanics prefer time off from work (Stone et al., 2001). So, they could be given an option of choosing between time off from work, whereas other employees may be given a monetary bonus (Stone et al., 2006).

When organizations decide which reward systems to provide, it is important that they consider the likely outcomes (Bagilhole, 2006; Bardoel, Moss, Smyrniou, & Tharenou, 1999). Researchers from the work-life field report problems faced by organizations that have implemented family friendly policies (Bagilhole, 2006). For example, employees differed in their level of awareness of the specific policies within their organization. Also, family friendly policies were perceived as differentially affecting unique subpopulations in an organization (e.g., parents, single employees). Some employees were perceived as benefiting the most by the family friendly policies whereas other employees were perceived to be disadvantaged by such policies. To address these issues, researchers from the work-life field suggest that organizational policies need to be perceived as being fully supported within and at the highest hierarchical levels (Bagilhole, 2006). Without such collaboration, organizational policies will be viewed with reservations by employees and may be dysfunctional for an organization (Bagilhole, 2006). Further, organizational policies that attempt to meet the needs of a diverse workforce must take serious measures to change the culture of an organization and the distribution of power (Cockburn, 1991). Thus, the lessons learned from researchers in the work-life field can be applied to multicultural organizations that attempt to design rewards that meet the needs of employees from various demographic groups.

### Contributions to Theory

Results of the present study suggest that the importance of studying cross-cultural issues in psychology cannot be overstated. This is because almost all the studies reported in the psychology field come from research in individualist cultures (Triandis, 1989).

However, about 70% of the world's population lives in collectivist cultures (Bell, 1987). By studying how psychological theories operate in other cultures, psychologists can advance knowledge about the workplace in a significant way.

Furthermore, the findings from this study support components of the Theory of Reasoned Action which suggests that there are two important determinants for predicting intentions: attitudes and subjective norms. The theory suggests that the relative importance of each will vary across situations. In some instances, only one determinant will be important, and in other cases both attitudes and subjective norms will be important. Results of this study contribute to the theory by suggesting that the relative importance of each determinant will vary depending on the values of the individual. Findings of the current study indicate that in a decision making situation (i.e., a job application setting), there were differences in the subjective norms of individuals as a function of culture. Participants who scored high on the collectivism measure had higher subjective norms than participants who scored high on the individualism measure. Additionally, results indicated differences in the attitudes of individuals toward organizations as a function of values. Individualists showed preferences toward organizations that were career-oriented, whereas collectivists showed preferences toward organizations that were family-oriented. Thus, the present study showed that by understanding how such values operate in different cultures, industrial and organizational psychologists can understand why people react differently to various aspects of an organization.

## Limitations

As with any empirical study, this study was not without limitations. For example, the analyses of this study revealed that the reliability was low for the individualism and collectivism measures. This may have may have attenuated the relations between values and organizational attraction.

In addition, there may be a construct validity threat on how the term “work-family conflict” is defined (Shadish, Cook, & Campbell, 2002). The construct of work-family conflict may be confounded. More specifically, family demands that cause conflict and work demands that cause conflict may be two distinct constructs. Such constructs should be measured separately to determine if individuals from different cultures experience such demands differently. Based on findings from cross-cultural research, collectivists’ family demands may be higher because they face demands from both nuclear family members (e.g., spouse, children) and extended family members (e.g., aunts, uncles, cousins, second cousins). In fact, members of collectivist societies have expressed dissatisfaction with the excessive demands of family life (Triandis, 1989). Thus, future research should examine whether such family and work demands are perceived differently as a function of culture and whether these constructs are distinct from the construct of work-family conflict.

## Future Research

This study examined the role that values play on organizational attraction. However, young college students were primarily the participants of this study. Research is needed to determine if other populations (e.g., older participants) are more likely to show differences in their values.



In addition, the current study was conducted in a southeastern state. Findings from previous studies indicate regional differences in collectivism and individualism. Future research is needed to determine if the results of the current study generalize to other geographical areas.

Finally, the design of the present study was limited to two types of organizations (i.e., career-oriented and family-oriented). More research is needed to determine if job applicants make tradeoffs when deciding which organization to work for and how such tradeoffs are related to individuals' values.

### Conclusions

Results of the current study revealed that values are related to organizational attraction. Consequently, recruitment researchers should continue to investigate the importance that cultural values play in applicants' decision making to work for a particular organization. Further, organizations that aim to attract and retain a diverse workforce may want to use strategically designed reward systems that meet the needs of all employees. Given the increased representation of minorities in the U.S. workforce, hopefully the current study will encourage additional research on the role of culture in industrial and organizational psychology areas, such as recruitment and compensation.

## **APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT**

In this study you will be asked to complete a questionnaire dealing with your views about various organizational issues. Then, you will be asked to read a job announcement from a fictitious company named GB. After reading it, you will be asked to complete two questionnaires dealing with your views about the job announcement. Then, you will be asked to complete a questionnaire that will ask about some demographic information such as age, sex, and occupation. The total time for completing this study is approximately 34 minutes.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may refuse to answer any question asked in the study. In addition, you may withdraw from the study at any time without any penalty. Also note that you must be 18 years of age or older to participate in this study.

By participating in this study, you consent to the analysis of your individual responses to the questionnaires with the mutual understanding that they will remain confidential and will not be used for purposes other than this research effort. Only the primary researcher will have access to these data. In addition, individual responses to all measures will not appear in any reports that are based upon the present study. Furthermore, information about your responses in the questionnaire will not be reported to your professors or instructors. Finally, please note that although your name will not appear in any reports stemming from the study, it is required for record-keeping purposes.

There are no risks associated with the participation of this study. In exchange for your participation, you will receive extra credit point(s) that will be applied to your grade in this class. The amount of points and how they will be applied to your grade were discussed prior to beginning this study. *If you still have any questions about the amount of extra credit points you will receive and/or how they will be applied to your grade, please ask the researcher before signing this form.*

Upon completion of data analysis, a summary of the findings of this research can be requested. The responsible researchers for this effort are:

Elizabeth J. Muñoz, M.S.

Ph.D. Candidate

(Primary Researcher of this Study)

Department of Psychology

University of Central Florida

[EMuniz6@cfl.rr.com](mailto:EMuniz6@cfl.rr.com)

Dr. Eugene Stone-Romero

Professor of Psychology

University of Central Florida

[estone@pegasus.cc.ucf.edu](mailto:estone@pegasus.cc.ucf.edu)

In addition, information regarding your rights as a research volunteer may be obtained from:

IRB Coordinator

Institutional Review Board (IRB)

University of Central Florida (UCF)

12443 Research Parkway, Suite 302

Orlando, Florida 32826-3252

Telephone: (407) 823-2901

I accept the foregoing terms and conditions for the participation in this study.

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SIGNATURE

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DATE

**APPENDIX B: INDIVIDUALISM AND COLLECTIVISM SCALE**

Please read each of the following statements carefully. Then, decide how much you either agree or disagree with each statement. To indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement, circle one of the options that appears below the item. The options for each item are as follows:

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
-------------------	---------------------	-------------------	----------------------------	----------------	------------------	----------------

Be sure to respond to all items and to circle only one option per item.

**1. It annoys me when other people perform better than I do.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**2. Competition is the law of nature.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**3. When another person does better than I do, I get tense and aroused.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**4. Winning is everything.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**5. I enjoy working in situations involving competition with others.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**6. Some people emphasize winning; I am not one of them. \***

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**7. The well being of my co-workers is important to me.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**8. If a co-worker gets a prize, I would feel proud.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**9. It is important to maintain harmony within my group.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**10. I feel good when I cooperate with others.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**11. Before taking a major trip, I consult with most members of my family and friends.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**12. I usually sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of any group.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**13. We should keep aging parents with us at home.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**14. Children should feel honored if their parents receive a distinguished award.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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\* These items were reverse-coded to preserve consistent directionality, with high values indicating high collectivism.



## **APPENDIX C. STIMULUS MATERIALS (MANIPULATIONS)**

(Family-oriented Condition)

Please pretend that you are currently searching for a job, and that you found the following information about an organization named GB. GB is currently hiring individuals for a position in your field of interest.

## GB

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If you are a person who is committed to work, but values quality free time and the things that enrich life, then these are reasons you might want to work at GB.

At GB, we want you to go beyond simply saying, "I've got a great job". We are committed to helping you get the most out of life – *to work the way you want*.

Because recruiting and retaining qualified employees is a priority, GB ensures that your work experience is challenging, stimulating, enjoyable, and productive. In addition, GB has been setting trends in its pro-family policies. GB's philosophy is a simple one: recognize that a paradigm shift has taken place. Separating work from family is no longer a clear-cut issue.

When it comes to having competitive compensation and benefits, GB has long been a leader, and it remains so today. GB focuses on creating an environment that allows balance. The crux of GB's approach is to build flexibility into its staff benefits and compensation. Some of our innovative programs include:

- Flexible work arrangements
  - Telework (i.e., working from home or a remote office)
  - Flextime (i.e., changing the start and end times of the work day)
  - Compressed work week (i.e., working full-time hours in fewer than five days)
- Child and elder care options
- Leave of absence (e.g., time away from work for maternity/paternity leave, community service, and jury duty)

GB is so much more than just a job. It's a place where you can work with other bright and motivated people, one where you can find a *work/life balance* and make a difference. Talk to someone who's joined GB within the past years. Ask them about what it's like to work for GB now. Chances are you will hear things such as:

*"Working at GB gives me the opportunity to have a job that I love and time off to spend with my family."* - Alex Martin, Sales Specialist

*"GB is a great place to work because the company is filled with people who value quality of life."* - Sara Marcano, Creative Executive

*"The flexible work schedule allows me to balance my career with the rest of my life. I can vary my daily arrival time within the reasonable limits established by management."* - Terry Coburn, Manager

GB has received the *Excellence Award* from the Alliance of Work-life Professionals for 16 consecutive years (an award offered to organizations that demonstrate a model of excellence for the work/life balance field).

What is the value of working for GB? There is no trade off between performance and being family-friendly. In fact, it is the reverse. Family-friendly companies, not coincidentally, are also among the most successful companies in the world. These companies reap the benefits of having not only happier employees, but also more productive employees.

(Career-oriented Condition)

Please pretend that you are currently searching for a job, and that you found the following information about an organization named GB. GB is currently hiring individuals for a position in your field of interest.

## GB

---

If you are a person who is committed to work and wants to make the most out of every opportunity for professional development, then these are reasons you might want to work at GB.

At GB, we want you to go beyond simply saying, "I've got a great job". We are committed to helping you get the most out of your career – *to help you learn and work until the job gets done*.

Because recruiting and retaining qualified employees is a priority, GB ensures that your work experience is challenging, stimulating, enjoyable, and productive. We accomplish this through a combination of career development, training programs, and ample professional growth possibilities.

When it comes to having competitive compensation and benefits, GB has long been a leader, and it remains so today. GB focuses on creating an environment that allows you to develop into a competitive professional. GB is committed to your continued career growth and achievement. GB offers career enhancement programs such as:

- Individual career development
- Management training
- Mentoring
- Academic learning assistance

GB is so much more than just a job. It's a place where you can work with other bright and motivated people, one where you can find *career-oriented people*, and make a difference. Talk to someone who's joined GB within the past years. Ask them about what it's like to work for GB now. Chances are you will hear things such as:

*"Advancement really is based on achievement"* - Alex Martin, Sales Specialist

*"My time at GB has consisted of two main actions – one is working hard, the other is learning ... everything. These traits are key to my current and future success."* – Sara

Marcano, Creative Executive

*"Working at GB is like playing for a competitive and well-respected sports team. The people in this company provide an enormous amount of encouragement and competitive juice that really makes me enthusiastic about working for, and winning with, GB everyday."* - Terry Coburn, Manager

GB has received the *Excellence Award* from the Alliance of Work Professionals for 16 consecutive years (an award offered to organizations that demonstrate a model of excellence for advancing career-oriented individuals).

What is the value of working for GB? One measure of GB's market value is the expertise of our employees. By helping you develop and maintain top skills, GB – and GB employees – stay competitive in the marketplace. Our skills are a signal to our clients, stockholders and competitors of our potential for growth and success.

## **APPENDIX D: ORGANIZATIONAL ATTRACTION SCALE**

Please read each of the following statements carefully. Then, decide how much you either agree or disagree with each statement. To indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement, circle one of the options that appears below the item. The options for each item are as follows:

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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Be sure to respond to all items and to circle only one option per item.

**1. I would be interested in pursuing employment opportunities with this company.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
-------------------	---------------------	-------------------	----------------------------	----------------	------------------	----------------

**2. I would sign up for a campus interview with this company.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**3. I would contact this company directly for an interview.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**4. I would be interested in learning how I can apply for a job with this company.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**5. This seems like the kind of company for which I would like to work.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**APPENDIX E: NORMATIVE BELIEFS AND MOTIVATION TO  
COMPLY MEASURES**



## INSTRUCTIONS

This questionnaire contains two parts, *please read the instructions carefully*. **Part A** (on yellow paper), asks if any of the following people would approve or disapprove of you working at company GB. **Part B** (on green paper) asks a different question. More specifically, Part B asks how much **you care** whether the following people approve or disapprove of you working at company GB.

### PART A

**If you had a job offer from company GB, indicate if any of the following people would approve or disapprove of you working at this company? (Circle a response below each statement)**

**1. Your significant other (i.e., spouse, girlfriend/ boyfriend)**

Strongly Disapprove	Moderately Disapprove	Slightly Disapprove	Neither Approve Nor Disapprove	Slightly Approve	Moderately Approve	Strongly Approve	Not Applicable (Don't Have Any)
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**2. Your siblings**

Strongly Disapprove	Moderately Disapprove	Slightly Disapprove	Neither Approve Nor Disapprove	Slightly Approve	Moderately Approve	Strongly Approve	Not Applicable (Don't Have Any)
------------------------	--------------------------	------------------------	-----------------------------------	---------------------	-----------------------	---------------------	------------------------------------

**3. Your parents**

Strongly Disapprove	Moderately Disapprove	Slightly Disapprove	Neither Approve Nor Disapprove	Slightly Approve	Moderately Approve	Strongly Approve	Not Applicable (Don't Have Any)
------------------------	--------------------------	------------------------	-----------------------------------	---------------------	-----------------------	---------------------	------------------------------------

**4. Your grandparents**

Strongly Disapprove	Moderately Disapprove	Slightly Disapprove	Neither Approve Nor Disapprove	Slightly Approve	Moderately Approve	Strongly Approve	Not Applicable (Don't Have Any)
------------------------	--------------------------	------------------------	-----------------------------------	---------------------	-----------------------	---------------------	------------------------------------

**5. Your aunts/uncles**

Strongly Disapprove	Moderately Disapprove	Slightly Disapprove	Neither Approve Nor Disapprove	Slightly Approve	Moderately Approve	Strongly Approve	Not Applicable (Don't Have Any)
------------------------	--------------------------	------------------------	-----------------------------------	---------------------	-----------------------	---------------------	------------------------------------

**6. Your religious leader (e.g., priest, minister, etc.)**

Strongly Disapprove	Moderately Disapprove	Slightly Disapprove	Neither Approve Nor Disapprove	Slightly Approve	Moderately Approve	Strongly Approve	Not Applicable (Don't Have Any)
------------------------	--------------------------	------------------------	-----------------------------------	---------------------	-----------------------	---------------------	------------------------------------

**7. Your friends**

Strongly Disapprove	Moderately Disapprove	Slightly Disapprove	Neither Approve Nor Disapprove	Slightly Approve	Moderately Approve	Strongly Approve	Not Applicable (Don't Have Any)
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**8. Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_**

Strongly Disapprove	Moderately Disapprove	Slightly Disapprove	Neither Approve Nor Disapprove	Slightly Approve	Moderately Approve	Strongly Approve	Not Applicable (Don't Have Any)
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## PART B

**Part B. If you had a job offer from company GB, indicate how much you care whether the following people approve or disapprove of you working at this company? (Circle a response next to each statement)**

To indicate how much you care, you will find numbers next to each item that range from 1 – 7. On one end of the scale you will find 1, which means that “you do not care at all” about the following people’s approval or disapproval of you working at company GB. At the other end of the scale you will find 7, which means that “you care very much”. You also have the option of “not applicable”, if you do not have, for example, grandparents. An example of the options appears below.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
I Do Not Care At All						I Care Very Much	Not Applicable (Don't Have Any)

For each item, circle a number from 1 to 7 that best represents how much you care whether the following people approve or disapprove of you working at company GB. For example, if you circle 1 next to the *significant other* item, this means that you “do not care at all” about whether your significant other approves or disapproves of you working for company GB.

1 I Do Not Care At All	2	3	4	5	6	7 I Care Very Much	N/A Not Applicable (Don't Have Any)
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<b>1. Your significant other</b> (i.e., spouse, girlfriend/ boyfriend)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
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<b>2. Your siblings</b>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
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<b>3. Your parents</b>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
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<b>4. Your grandparents</b>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
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<b>5. Your aunts/uncles</b>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
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<b>6. Your religious leader</b> (e.g., priest, minister, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
--	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	-----

<b>7. Your friends</b>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
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<b>8. Other</b> (please specify) _____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	N/A
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## **APPENDIX F: MANIPULATION CHECK**

**Part A.** The following questions are related to the job announcement that we presented to you earlier. Please read each question, and select the option that contains the best answer.

**1. What, if anything, was mentioned about the expectations of candidates to be considered by company GB?**

- a. Nothing was mentioned.
- b. The ideal candidate is committed to work and *wants to make the most out of every opportunity for professional development.*
- c. The ideal candidate is committed to work, *but values quality free time and the things that enrich life.*

**2. What, if anything, was mentioned about organizational rewards offered by company GB?**

- a. Nothing was mentioned.
- b. GB offers *career enhancement programs such as individual career development, management training, mentoring, and academic learning assistance.*
- c. GB offers *innovative programs such as flexible work arrangements (e.g., telework, flextime, and compressed workweek), child and elder care options, and leave of absence.*

**3. What, if anything, was mentioned about company GB's commitment to its employees?**

- a. Nothing was mentioned.
- b. Company GB is committed to help employees get the most out of *life - to work the way they want.*
- c. Company GB is committed to help employees get the most out of their careers - *to help you learn and work until the job gets done.*

**4. What, if anything, was mentioned about employees' expectations of company GB?**

- a. Company GB is a place where you can find *work/life balance* and make a difference.
- b. Company GB is a place where you can find *career-oriented people* and make a difference.
- c. None of the above.

**5. What, if anything, was mentioned about awards received by company GB?**

- a. GB has received the *Excellence Award* from the Alliance of *Work-life* Professionals for 16 consecutive years (an award offered to organizations that demonstrate a model of excellence for the *work/life balance* field).
- b. GB has received the *Excellence Award* from the Alliance of *Work* Professionals for 16 consecutive years (an award offered to organizations that demonstrate a model of excellence for *advancing career-oriented individuals*).
- c. None of the above.

**6. What if anything was mentioned about the value of working for GB?**

- a. One measure of GB’s market value is the expertise of our employees. By helping you develop and maintain top skills, GB – and GB employees – stay competitive in the marketplace. Our skills are a signal to our clients, stockholders and competitors of our potential for growth and success.
- b. There is no trade off between performance and being family-friendly. In fact, it is the reverse. Family-friendly companies, not coincidentally, are also among the most successful companies in the world. These companies reap the benefits of having not only happier employees, but also more productive employees.
- c. None of the above.

**Part B.** The following statements are related to the job announcement that we presented to you earlier. Please read each one carefully. Then, decide how much you either agree or disagree with each statement. To indicate how much you agree or disagree with each statement, circle one of the options that appears below the item. The options for each item are as follows:

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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Be sure to respond to all items and to circle only one option per item.

**1. Working at company GB will interfere with my family life.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**1. To “get ahead” at company GB, I will have to neglect or postpone some family duties or obligations.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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**2. If I work for company GB, I will have to choose between work and my family life; I can’t have it all.**

Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
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## **APPENDIX G: DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE**

Please respond to the following items. Note that the information you provide will be used only for statistical purposes and will be treated confidentially. You do not have to answer any questions that make you uncomfortable.

1. **Sex** (check one):       Male               Female

2. **Age** (in years): \_\_\_\_\_

3. **Race/Ethnicity:**

- African American       Arab American       Asian American  
 Hispanic American       Native American       White       Other (*please specify*)\_

4. **Marital Status** (check one):

- Single               Married               Separated               Divorced

5. **Number of children** \_\_\_\_\_

6. **Age of each child:** \_\_\_\_\_

7. **What is the likelihood you will have children or additional children?**

- Very Unlikely       Unlikely               Likely               Very Likely

8. **Your occupation:** \_\_\_\_\_

9. **Which of the following best describes your job?** (check one)

- Staff               Managerial       Sales               Professional/Technical  
 Executive       Student               Other (*please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

10. **Your employment status:**

- Full-time       Part-time               Other (*please specify*) \_\_\_\_\_

11. **Years of work experience:** \_\_\_\_\_

12. **Number of times you have changed jobs:** \_\_\_\_\_

13. **Your spouse's (or significant other) occupation:** \_\_\_\_\_



**14. Which of the following best describes your *spouse's* (or significant other) job? (check one)**

- Staff       Managerial       Sales       Professional/Technical  
 Executive       Student       Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

**15. Your *spouse's* (or significant other) employment status:**

- Full-time       Part-time       Other (please specify) \_\_\_\_\_

**16. Your religious preference:** \_\_\_\_\_

**17. Last grade you completed in school:** \_\_\_\_\_

**a. In what country did you complete this grade?** \_\_\_\_\_

**18. Your place of birth:**

\_\_\_\_\_ CITY      \_\_\_\_\_ STATE      \_\_\_\_\_ COUNTRY

**19. Your *mother's* place of birth:**

\_\_\_\_\_ CITY      \_\_\_\_\_ STATE      \_\_\_\_\_ COUNTRY

**20. Your *father's* place of birth:**

\_\_\_\_\_ CITY      \_\_\_\_\_ STATE      \_\_\_\_\_ COUNTRY

**21. Circle the generation that best applies to you. Circle only one.**

- a. 1<sup>st</sup> generation = you were born in a country of other than the USA
- b. 2<sup>nd</sup> generation = you were born in the USA; either parent born in a country other than USA
- c. 3<sup>rd</sup> generation = you were born in the USA, both parents born in the USA, and all grandparents born in a country other than the USA
- d. 4<sup>th</sup> generation = You and your parents born in the USA, and at least one grandparent born in a country other than the USA with remainder born in the USA
- e. 5<sup>th</sup> generation = You and your parents born in the USA and all grandparents born in the USA

**22. What is the primary language spoken in your home? (check one)**

- Chinese   
  English   
  French   
  Spanish  
 Other (please print) \_\_\_\_\_

**23. Please specify how much contact you have with each family member listed below**

**a. Significant other (e.g. spouse, boyfriend, girlfriend)**

Once a day	Once a week	Once a month	Once every 6 months	Once a year	Never	Not applicable
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**b. Children**

Once a day	Once a week	Once a month	Once every 6 months	Once a year	Never	Not applicable
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**c. Brothers**

Once a day	Once a week	Once a month	Once every 6 months	Once a year	Never	Not applicable
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**d. Sisters**

Once a day	Once a week	Once a month	Once every 6 months	Once a year	Never	Not applicable
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**e. Uncles/Aunts**

Once a day	Once a week	Once a month	Once every 6 months	Once a year	Never	Not applicable
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**f. Cousins**

Once a day	Once a week	Once a month	Once every 6 months	Once a year	Never	Not applicable
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**g. Grandparents**

Once a day	Once a week	Once a month	Once every 6 months	Once a year	Never	Not applicable
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## **APPENDIX H. STANDARDIZED DEBRIEFING FORM**

## **DESCRIPTION OF STUDY'S PURPOSE AND APPLIED VALUE**

Thank you for participating in this study. You have just completed a study in which you were asked to complete questionnaires dealing with your views about various organizational issues. In addition, you were asked to read a job announcement from a fictitious company named GB, so that can you tell us how much you would like to work for this company.

Your responses to the questionnaires you completed are very important to meeting the objectives of our research. Specifically, we are interested in learning how different forms of organizational rewards may capture the attention of applicants from diverse backgrounds.

To accomplish the aforementioned study objectives, we will be collecting data from other individuals during the next several months. Because of this, it is important that other people not know the information about the study that we are providing to you now. So, please do not discuss any aspects of the study with other students.

Once we complete data collection, we should be in a position to derive some important study-based conclusions. More specifically, we expect that the results of our study will have very important implications for the way organizations can attract the most talented pool of applicants.

If you are interested in more information about this study, we will be happy to provide you with an abstract that deals with its results. The abstract will not be available until after all data have been collected and appropriate statistical analyses have been completed. If you would like to receive an abstract, please complete the Abstract Request Form, and turn it in to the researcher before you leave.

If you have any questions, the researcher will be happy to answer them at this point. If there are no questions, you may leave. Thanks again for your important help in this research effort!

Sincerely,

Ms. Elizabeth J. Muñoz, M.S.

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**ABSTRACT REQUEST FORM**

Please send an abstract describing the results of the study to the following email address:

My email address is (*please print*): \_\_\_\_\_

## **APPENDIX I: EXPERIMENTAL SCHEDULE**

Action	Time to Complete	Elapsed Time
Introduction to the study	2 minutes	2 minutes
Complete informed consent form and confidentiality statement	2 minutes	4 minutes
Complete individualism and collectivism orientation questionnaire (32 items)	7 minutes	11 minutes
Read stimulus materials (i.e., job announcement)	3 minutes	14 minutes
Complete organizational attraction questionnaire (5 items)	2 minutes	16 minutes
Complete referent influence questionnaire (8 items)	5 minutes	21 minutes
Complete manipulation check (8 items)	5 minutes	26 minutes
Complete demographic form (22 items)	5 minutes	31 minutes
Read standardized debriefing form	3 minutes	34 minutes

**APPENDIX J: INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD COMMITTEE  
APPROVAL FORM**





Office of Research & Commercialization

April 10, 2006

Elizabeth Muniz  
3102 Spire Court  
Deltona, FL 32725

Dear Ms. Muniz:

With reference to your protocol #06-3338 entitled, "**The Role of Cultural Values in Organizational Attraction,**" I am enclosing for your records the approved, expedited document of the UCFIRB Form you had submitted to our office. **This study was approved on 3/12/06. The expiration date will be 3/11/07.** Should there be a need to extend this study, a Continuing Review form must be submitted to the IRB Office for review by the Chairman or full IRB at least one month prior to the expiration date. This is the responsibility of the investigator. **Please notify the IRB office when you have completed this research study.**

Please be advised that this approval is given for one year. Should there be any addendums or administrative changes to the already approved protocol, they must also be submitted to the Board through use of the Addendum/Modification Request form. Changes should not be initiated until written IRB approval is received. Adverse events should be reported to the IRB as they occur.

Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at 407-823-2901.

Please accept our best wishes for the success of your endeavors.

Cordially,

*Barbara Ward*

Barbara Ward, CIM  
UCF IRB Coordinator  
(FWA00000351 Exp. 5/13/07, IRB00001138)

Copies: IRB File  
Eugene Stone-Romero, Ph.D.

BW:jm

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