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Personality and Work Situational Predictors of Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect: An Interactionist Perspective

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I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Michelle Lynne Roberts entitled "Personality and Work Situational Predictors of Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect: An Interactionist Perspective." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Industrial and Organizational Psychology.

Robert T. Ladd, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

David Woehr, Mike Rush, Eric Sundstrom

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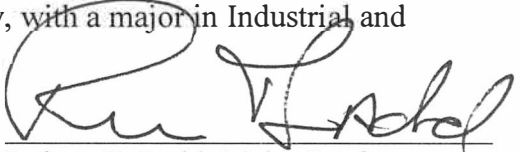
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Michael C. Rush

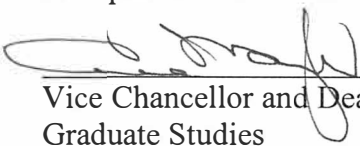


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PERSONALITY AND WORK SITUATIONAL PREDICTORS OF EXIT, VOICE,
LOYALTY, AND NEGLECT: AN INTERACTIONIST PERSPECTIVE

A Dissertation Presented For The Doctor Of Philosophy Degree
The University Of Tennessee, Knoxville

Michelle Lynne Roberts
May, 2004

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my family and friends who have provided unrelenting support and patience while I completed this incredible milestone. I would like to especially dedicate this dissertation to my parents, Joan and Lester, for teaching me that hard work pays off and to believe in myself. I want to thank my sister, Annie, for her love and encouragement. In addition, I dedicate this paper to my Aunt Ellen for inspiring me to always strive for a level of excellence and to continue my passion for learning. Lastly, I dedicate this dissertation to my best friends, Rachel, Maria, and Danette, for their cherished friendships and incredible support during this period in my life.

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Elizabeth and Glenda, I want to personally thank-you for all of your help and time. This program would not survive without you and neither would the graduate students.

ABSTRACT

The present dissertation investigates the degree to which personality and work situational variables are related to how employees respond to dissatisfaction in the work place based upon the EVLN (Exit, Aggressive Voice, Considerate Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect) model. On the basis of previous research and the underlying dimensions of the model, it was hypothesized that four personality variables (i.e., self-control, extraversion, proactive personality, and positive affect) and six work situational variables (i.e., prior job satisfaction, investment size, quality of job alternatives, leader support, perceptions of procedural justice, and perceptions of distributive justice) would be significantly related to the five responses to job dissatisfaction as proposed by the EVLN typology. Additionally, it was hypothesized that the personality predictors would explain incremental variance in the EVLN response categories beyond what could be attributed by the situational factors alone. The participants consisted of 156 professionals from a wide variety of industries (e.g., business managers, lawyers, teachers, nurses). Using an online survey, this study investigated the relationships between these predictors and the five EVLN response categories utilizing correlations, hierarchical multiple regression analysis, and importance analysis. Both the personality and work situational variables demonstrated several significant hypothesized relationships with the five response categories. Furthermore, the personality predictors significantly explained unique variance in four of the five EVLN response categories beyond what could be attributed by the situational factors alone. Moreover, the personality predictors were better predictors of aggressive voice, considerate voice, and neglect responses, whereas the

work situational predictors were stronger predictors of the exit and loyalty responses. Practical implications, potential limitations, and future directions for research are presented.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Researchers have always had a strong interest in distilling the components of job satisfaction and understanding what factors contribute to its increase among employees at work. Given the centrality of the job satisfaction construct in industrial/organizational psychology, job satisfaction has been correlated with several important organizational outcome variables. Specifically, previous research has demonstrated that job satisfaction was positively related to motivation (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2000), job involvement (Brown, 1996), organizational commitment (Tett & Meyer, 1993), and job performance (Judge & Church, 2000; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985) and negatively related to perceived job stress (Blegen, 1993) and absenteeism (Hackett, 1989). Needless to say, because of these positive and beneficial relationships, research on job satisfaction shows no signs of abating.

In an attempt to better understand the mechanisms underlying these relationships, several models of job satisfaction have been proposed. Most of the models dominant in the organizational behavior literature have emphasized situational explanations (i.e., characteristics of the job) of job satisfaction. This approach is exemplified by the job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, 1980), the social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977, 1978), as well as research examining various aspects of the job itself, such as the nature of pay, supervision, promotional opportunities, and organizational structure (Locke, 1983; Oldham & Hackman, 1981). On a smaller research basis, some models have begun to analyze the role that individual

differences have in predicting job satisfaction, such as value theory models (Locke, 1976; Greenberg, 2002), need fulfillment models (Stone, 1992), and dispositional approaches (Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998). In sum, although these models may present different perspectives for increasing job satisfaction, their implication may be the same—the most effective way for increasing job satisfaction would be to consider both the person and the situation.

More recently, practitioners and researchers have placed a higher level of concerted attention on how employees react when they are dissatisfied. Perhaps this is due to the changing nature of work that forces employees to accept the continued and frequent possibility of large-scale downsizing, restructuring, or merger situations in their place of work (Micklethwait & Woolridge, 1996; Judge et al. 2000). As these changes occur, greater uncertainty and ambiguity result, which consequently places more pressure on practitioners and researchers to examine what reactions may be expected among workers who are dissatisfied with their jobs? To help elucidate the answer to that question, consider the following statistics: seventy-five percent of employees have stolen from their employers at least once (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998), from one-third to three-quarters of all employees have engaged in some type of fraud, vandalism or sabotage in their workplaces (Harper, 1990; Robinson et al., 1998), and the annual cost to organizations have been estimated to be \$200 billion for employee theft (Buss, 1993; Robinson et al., 1998) and \$400 billion for various types of fraudulent behaviors (Robinson et al., 1998). Given the potentially negative and costly effects of such outcomes on both organizational effectiveness and on people's lives, it is important for organizations and researchers to further investigate conditions under which employees

will react destructively and to determine ways to facilitate more constructive employee responses to job dissatisfaction.

In an attempt to further explicate the various employee reactions to job dissatisfaction, researchers have begun to develop models that logically and psychometrically group adaptive employee responses to job dissatisfaction. These models include Hulin, Roznowski, and Hachiya's (1985) Theoretical Model of Organizational Attitudes and Adaptive Responses, Rosse and Hulin's (1985) adaptive model and Henne and Locke's (1985) model. The notion guiding the development of these typologies is that general work attitudes such as job satisfaction, should be more strongly related to general work multiact behavioral families than to the individual behaviors that comprise these families (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977; Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Judge & Church, 2000). More recently, Carolyn Rusbult and several of her colleagues (Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, and Mainous, 1988) have proposed a model that suggests an individual's reactions to job dissatisfaction falls into four categories: exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. Hirschman's (1970) research on organizational decline established three of the four response categories: exit (E), voice (V), and loyalty (L). Later Rusbult, Zembrodt, and Gunn (1982) added the category of neglect (N) based upon research on romantic involvements. This model is more commonly referred to as the EVLN model. Although simple in its conception, numerous research studies have shown that the EVLN model measure has adequate reliability and construct validity across multiple measurement techniques, research settings, and participant populations (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992; Farrell & Rusbult, 1985; Rusbult & Lowery, 1985; Farrell, 1983; Farrell, Rusbult, Lin, & Bernthal, 1990; Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988).

Although a number of studies have characterized the relationship between job dissatisfaction and aggregated behavior, little research has examined how individual differences and work situational variables augment models such as the EVLN framework. One of the most important findings related to understanding work behavior is that each individual reacts differently to similar circumstances and in order to understand and predict behavior in work settings, researchers need to consider both person and situation factors as well as their interaction. This notion is more commonly referred to as the interactionist perspective in organizational behavior research (Bandura, 1977; Bandura, 1989; Pervin, 1989). In line with this perspective, the purpose of this study was to examine the role of dispositional and situational variables, along with their combined contributions, towards predicting employees' reactions to job dissatisfaction in the workplace based upon the EVLN typology. Although research on employees' reactions to job dissatisfaction has begun to test for individual differences (Withey & Cooper, 1989; Roberts & Ladd, 2003), there is virtually no research that compares the relative influence of dispositional and situational variables on the EVLN model. For example, are dispositions or situational factors more influential in predicting employee reactions to job dissatisfaction? It is hypothesized that the inclusion of both individual differences and work situational variables can increase the explanatory and predictive power of the EVLN model of employee reactions to job dissatisfaction. At the very least, the contributions of both variables will likely provide the most accurate prediction of which response a dissatisfied employee would choose. This information can enhance the EVLN model's provision of diagnostic information that can be useful for improving the

effectiveness of managerial training and organizational policies that focus on promoting constructive responses to job dissatisfaction.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The EVLN Model

As mentioned earlier, the EVLN model is an extension of previous work by Hirschman (1970) and Rusbult, Zembrodt, and Gunn (1982). In Hirschman's research on responses to organizational decline, he outlined three of the four response categories: exit, voice, and loyalty. Several years later, in her research on romantic involvements, Rusbult et al. (1982) added the category of neglect to the EVLN model. She defined neglect as generally inattentive behavior, such as staying away and lack of caring.

Thus, the model as it currently stands includes the response categories of Exit, Voice, Loyalty, and Neglect. Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, and Mainous III (1988) define the four categories in the following way. Exit refers to leaving an organization by quitting, transferring, searching for a different job, or thinking about quitting. Voice involves constructively and actively trying to improve conditions by taking action to solve problems. This could include suggesting solutions, discussing problems with a supervisor or co-workers, seeking help from an outside agency like a union, and whistleblowing. Loyalty means passively, but optimistically, waiting for conditions to improve by giving public and private support to the organization, waiting and hoping for improvement, or practicing good citizenship. These behaviors gain support from literature on organizational citizenship behavior (Organ & Konovsky, 1989) and prosocial behavior (Eisenberger, Faslo & Davis-LasMastro, 1990). Lastly, Neglect refers to passively allowing conditions to deteriorate through reduced interest or effort, chronic

lateness or absences, using company time for personal business, or contributing to an increased error rate. Similar neglect behaviors can be seen in research on “organizational delinquency” (Hogan & Hogan, 1989) and “noncompliant behavior” (Puffer, 1987).

Furthermore, the EVLN model proposes that the four responses to dissatisfaction differ on two dimensions: (1) constructiveness vs. destructiveness of impact on employee-organization relationships and (2) activity vs. passivity based on Farrell’s (1983) multidimensional scaling study. In terms of the constructiveness vs. destructiveness dimension, exit and neglect are considered to be more destructive, whereas, loyalty and voice are considered to be more constructive because employees attempt to recapture or maintain satisfactory conditions. As for the activity vs. passivity dimension, exit and voice are considered to be more active mechanisms for dealing with dissatisfaction, whereas, loyalty and neglect are considered to be more passive. Farrell and his colleagues (1985, 1988, and 1990) have also extended the model to include the effects of three primary work situational predictor variables including, prior job satisfaction, investment size, and quality of job alternatives, on the four general responses to dissatisfaction. These work situational variables were derived from research on exchange theory (Blau, 1978; Homans, 1961) and interdependence theory (Kelley & Thibaut, 1978; Thibaut & Kelley, 1959). Additional information on the effects of these work situational variables is described below.

Previous Research Supporting the EVLN Model

One of the major criticisms of using models that aggregate similar behaviors into categories, derives from the fact that measures developed to test these models usually

have low reliability and validity due to skewed distributions, measurement error, and varying base rates (Blau, 1998; Johns, 1998). However, numerous research studies have shown that the measure used to test the EVLN model has both adequate reliability and criterion-related validity evidence. Initial validation of this typology came from research on reactions to dissatisfaction in close relationships (Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982). Soon after, Farrell (1983) investigated the content validity of the four categories in a multidimensional scaling study. The results indicated that behaviors within each of the four categories relate more strongly with each other than to responses in adjacent categories. In addition, the two dimensional solution (active vs. passive and constructive vs. destructive) met tests of convergent and discriminant validity.

The strongest support for the predictive validity of the model came from a meta-analysis by Farrell and Rusbult (1992) which involved five studies using the EVLN typology. The five studies included the previously discussed multidimensional scaling study by Farrell (1983), a study utilizing cross-sectional survey research (Farrell & Rusbult, 1985), a secondary analysis of extant data sets (Rusbult & Lowery, 1985), a simulation and laboratory experiment (Rusbult, Farrell, Rogers, & Mainous, 1988), and a panel research study (Farrell, Rusbult, Lin, & Bernthal, 1990). In each study, three hypotheses were tested. Hypothesis one proposed that greater overall prior job satisfaction should be associated with greater tendencies toward constructive responses to dissatisfaction (voice and loyalty), and with lesser tendencies toward destructive responses (exit and neglect). Hypothesis two proposed that greater quality of alternatives should be associated with greater tendencies toward active responses to dissatisfaction (exit and voice), and with lesser tendencies toward passive responses (loyalty and

neglect). Hypothesis three proposed that greater investment size (e.g., job tenure, nonportable training, familiarity) should be associated with greater tendencies toward constructive responses to dissatisfaction (voice and loyalty), and with lesser tendencies toward destructive responses (exit and neglect). The meta-analysis demonstrated that the findings of the five studies were fairly consistent in providing support for the EVLN model and the three hypotheses proposed. These findings are important since diverse methodologies, measurement techniques, and subject populations, were used in each study.

In sum, most of the known previous research on the EVLN model has generally investigated the question “Under what situational circumstances are employees likely to engage in each response category?” In these studies, different work situational predictors, such as investment size, the quality of job alternatives, and prior job satisfaction, were investigated. More recently, researchers are beginning to ask “What type of person will be likely to choose behaviors from a particular category?” Prior research has shown that stable traits and dispositions are related to and affect job satisfaction, motivation, effort, performance, perception of the job, compliance with authority, and supervisory style (Judge & Bono, 2001, Barrick & Mount, 1991; Spector, 1982; Steers & Braunstein, 1976). To that end, two known studies have examined what effect personality variables will have on an individual’s intentions to choose a particular response from one of the four behavior categories. Specifically, using a sample of graduate students and accountants, Withey and Cooper (1989) found that individuals with an internal locus of control were less likely to demonstrate exit, loyalty, and neglect responses and more likely to demonstrate voice responses when dissatisfied. Similarly,

in a simulation experiment using college students, Roberts and Ladd (2003) examined the effects of 5 individual difference variables (e.g., general self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, equity sensitivity, locus of control, and proactive personality) on the four EVLN response categories. Their results indicated that general self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, and proactive personality had the most differential effects on the EVLN categories, whereas, locus of control and equity sensitivity demonstrated the least amount of differential effects on the four responses. In general, individuals with higher levels of general self-efficacy, social self-efficacy, and proactive personality, as well as internals and benevolents, demonstrated more constructive (e.g., voice and loyalty) and less destructive responses (e.g., exit and neglect) to job dissatisfaction. These initial results suggested that personality variables do contribute in explaining the variability in the EVLN model framework and future research should examine the role of other personality variables that may be targeted towards the more destructive and costly responses (e.g., exit and neglect) of the model. To answer that call, one of the purposes of the current study is to replicate and extend the results found by Roberts & Ladd (2003). That is, analysis of data from an organizational sample will allow for the assessment of the replicability of the results found for the student sample. Furthermore, the addition of new personality and work situational predictors will also extend research on the nomological network of the EVLN model..

New Conceptualizations of Loyalty and Voice

Although the EVLN typology has been empirically supported in several previous studies, there are some methodological issues that still need to be addressed. One specific methodological issue concerns the lower internal reliability estimates (ranging

from 0.41 to 0.77) reported in previous studies for the voice and loyalty subscales (Withey & Cooper, 1989, 1992; Hagedoorn, Van Yperen, Van De Vliert, & Buunk, 1999; Roberts & Ladd, 2003). These lower internal consistencies indicate that these scales might be more complex than originally theorized and may explain the weaker relationships found between these scales and various predictors. To answer this concern, recent research has focused on refining these scales. For instance, Hagedoorn and his colleagues (1999) have proposed that voice can be further divided into two categories: considerate voice and aggressive voice. Considerate voice consists of attempts to solve the problem considering one's own concerns as well as those of the organization (e.g., "In collaboration with your supervisor, try to find a solution that is satisfactory to everybody"; "Together with your supervisor, explore each other's opinions until the problems are resolved"). Aggressive voice consists of efforts to win the argument, without consideration for the concerns of the organization (e.g., "I would describe the problem as negatively as possible to my supervisor"; "I would try to prove in all possible ways to my supervisor that I was right"; blaming the organization). Although both of these scales represent active responses to job dissatisfaction, considerate voice is more constructive whereas aggressive voice is more destructive. However, aggressive voice is less destructive than exit and neglect. Using this conceptualization, Hagedoorn et al. (1999) reported relatively high Cronbach alphas for considerate voice ($\alpha = .88$) and aggressive voice ($\alpha = .83$). In the present study, the previously used voice measure (Rusbult et al. 1988) was replaced with the new aggressive voice and considerate voice scales proposed by Hagedoorn et al. (1999).

Along with voice, Withey and Cooper (1992) argued that it would be more accurate to operationalize loyalty as having both active and passive components. Passive loyalty is consistent with Farrell, Rusbult, and colleague's original notion of loyalty as a passive-constructive response that consists of being quiet while exhibiting patient forbearance to job dissatisfaction (e.g., "I would patiently wait for the problem to disappear"). Active loyalty involves doing things that are supportive of someone or something and is similar to the notion of organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., "Give something extra when the organization needs it"; "Do things above and beyond the call of duty without being asked"). Despite their effort, the internal consistency for passive loyalty ($\alpha = .59$) and active loyalty ($\alpha = .53$) was still relatively low. Furthermore, I am in agreement with the opinion of Hagedoorn and his colleagues (1999) in that the active loyalty responses do not seem to be "logical reactions to a problematic situation" (p. 310). Stated alternatively, it does not make intuitive sense that a dissatisfied employee would automatically demonstrate citizenship behaviors above and beyond the call of his or her job duties, especially if these behaviors are not specifically directed towards correcting the problem. Therefore, the active loyalty subscale was not used in the current study.

In an attempt to rectify the psychometric limitations of previous research using the loyalty and voice subscales, a pilot study was conducted to further refine the considerate voice, aggressive voice, and loyalty subscales. Items from these scales will be selected by analyzing the interitem correlations, variances, and confirmatory factor loadings of each item.

Selection of Predictors

Because of the rudimentary nature of this line of research, a guiding framework was used for choosing the nearly infinite variety of personality and work predictors that might demonstrate differential relationships with the underlying dimensions of the EVLN typology. In the interest of conducting both a helpful and feasible project, the number of predictors chosen was limited. Nevertheless, the selection of these predictor variables by no means limit the various other personality and work situational variables that could also be included in this study. In order to move forward, predictors were chosen based upon the combination of three factors: 1) theoretical relationships with the underlying dimensions of the EVLN model, 2) a review of previous research with a heavy emphasis placed upon recent studies by Roberts & Ladd (2003) and Hagedoorn et al. (1999), and 3) an emphasis on predicting the more costly and destructive responses of job dissatisfaction.

Accordingly, three work situational variables that were well-documented in past research as well as two new work predictors were investigated in the current study. The impact of prior job satisfaction, investment size, and quality of job alternatives has been extensively documented in previous research by Rusbult and her colleagues. Additionally, leader support and perceptions of organizational justice were included due to their past associations with work attitudes such as job satisfaction and because of recent research by Hagedoorn et al. (1999) and Greenberg and Cropanzano (2001) that suggested these variables may play a particularly important role in explaining how employees respond to job dissatisfaction. That is, employees concerns about fairness and

their relationships with their boss may become highly salient when outcomes are negative or dissatisfying versus when they are positive or satisfying (Greenberg et al., 2001).

In regards to the personality predictors, a concerted attempt was made to select predictors that were theoretically consistent with the two underlying dimensions of the model, with a special focus on trying to target the more destructive behaviors. As such, proactive personality and extraversion were chosen to target the more active constructive responses to job dissatisfaction, while negative affect and self-control were targeted more towards the destructive responses.

Along with the theoretical criteria, the predictors also had to meet two other relevant technical criteria: 1) they had to demonstrate reasonable psychometric properties, and 2) they had to use, or be adaptable to, a common format for ease of on-line administration. Having said that, six work situational predictors and four personality predictors were examined in this study. A description of the predictors and their hypothesized relationships with the EVLN responses are delineated in the following sections.

Work Situational Predictors

Prior Job Satisfaction, Investment, and Quality Of Job Alternatives. As previously stated, prior research has extensively documented the history of prior job satisfaction, investment size, and quality of job alternatives as predictors in the EVLN model (e.g., Roberts & Ladd, 2003; Farrell & Rusbult, 1992; Farrell & Rusbult, 1985; Rusbult & Lowery; 1985; Farrell, Rusbult, Lin, & Bernthal, 1990). In order to remain congruent with past research, these variables were also examined in the current study.

First, when overall prior job satisfaction is high, it is hypothesized that employees should evidence greater tendencies to react constructively (considerate voice and loyalty) to work problems and display weaker tendencies to react destructively (exit, neglect, and aggressive voice). That is, employees who are generally satisfied with their job should feel more optimistic about the possibilities for improving their working conditions and feel more motivated to restore favorable working conditions (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992). In support of this assertion, Roberts and Ladd (2003) found individuals with higher prior job satisfaction were more likely to demonstrate loyalty tendencies and less likely to demonstrate neglect and exit tendencies in response to job dissatisfaction. Furthermore, a positive correlation between prior job satisfaction and voice was also noted, although not significant. Roberts & Ladd (2003) reasoned that this correlation may have been attenuated due to the relatively low reliability of the voice subscale. As for the new conceptualizations of voice, Hagedoorn et al. (1999) reported that satisfaction with work was positively correlated with considerate voice ($r = .17, p < .01$) and negatively correlated with aggressive voice ($r = -.30, p < .001$).

Second, to the extent that employees have high-quality job alternatives compared to their current job, they should be more likely to engage in active responses (exit, considerate voice, aggressive voice) to dissatisfaction rather passive responses (neglect and loyalty). Rusbult et al. (1988) stated that a good alternative, such as an attractive job alternative that pays well, acts as a motivator for an employee to do “something” about a work problem (i.e., a shape up or ship out mentality) and serves as a source of power for effecting change. Furthermore, these employees, as opposed to those with poor job alternatives, have an acceptable option if their current job declines further, thus

increasing their tendencies to exit rather than enduring a problematic situation. This notion is consistent with the findings of Roberts & Ladd (2003), such that individuals with better quality job alternatives demonstrated stronger tendencies towards exit and weaker tendencies towards loyalty responses to dissatisfaction.

Third, greater investment size in a company should be associated with stronger tendencies towards constructive responses (considerate voice and loyalty) to job dissatisfaction and reduced tendencies towards destructive responses (aggressive voice, neglect, and exit). Rusbult and colleagues defined investment size as the resources an employee has put into a job that have become intrinsic to that position (e.g., job tenure, effort expenditure, nonportable training, familiarity) and resources that were originally extraneous to the job but now have become inadvertently linked to the job (e.g., convenient housing and travel arrangements, friends at work, nonvested retirement funds). Essentially, employees who are highly invested in their jobs have more to “lose” should they exit their job as compared to those employees who are less invested. Therefore, the highly invested employees should be more inclined to react constructively towards work problems and less likely to engage in behaviors that would increase their probability of losing their “investment”. Indeed, they should be more likely to voice their concerns or endure an unpleasant work situation with the hopes that the situation will improve over time. Therefore, based upon the results of prior research, the following hypotheses were proposed:

Hypotheses 1A-1E: Prior job satisfaction will be significantly related to employees’ responses to current job dissatisfaction, such that high prior job satisfaction should be positively related to considerate voice (1A) and

loyalty (1B) and negatively related to aggressive voice (1C), exit (1D), and neglect (1E).

Hypotheses 2A-2E: Quality of job alternatives will be significantly related to employees' responses to job dissatisfaction, such that higher quality job alternatives should be positively related to considerate voice (2A), aggressive voice (2B), and exit (2C) and negatively related to loyalty (2D) and neglect (2E).

Hypotheses 3A-3E: Investment size will be significantly related to employees' responses to job dissatisfaction, such that greater investment should be positively related to considerate voice (3A) and loyalty (3B) and negatively related to aggressive voice (3C), exit (3D), and neglect (3E).

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). The role of leader support has been documented in research on leader-member exchange theory (LMX) and empowerment (Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982; Spreitzer, 1996). Basically, LMX theory states that different relationships or exchanges develop between a leader and each subordinate. Past research has shown that high leader-member exchange is associated with facilitating a subordinate's role development by providing information, influence, and support beyond that expected under the employment contract (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Liden & Graen, 1980). In high LMX relationships, leaders are described as individuals who frequently talk to employees about the details of their job performance, about their work problems, and about ways to improve their effectiveness (Graen et al., 1982, p. 871). Conversely, lower LMX relationships are associated with

little activity on the part of the supervisor in giving the subordinate assistance in his or her role development.

The quality of the leader-employee relationship will most likely affect the way in which an employee responds to dissatisfaction in the workplace because the supervisor is generally the first person that an employee will report his or her dissatisfaction to. Furthermore, the supervisor generally has the power to implement change or make improvements that can potentially alleviate the employee's source of dissatisfaction. Those employees who perceive their supervisors to be supportive and engaged in their personal development (e.g., high LMX relationships) may be more likely to exhibit constructive rather than destructive responses when dissatisfied at work. Additionally, high LMX exchanges tend to generate mutual respect between supervisors and employees on both a personal and professional level. This mutual respect probably fosters increased feelings of loyalty and consideration (i.e., considerate voice) towards the supervisor even when an employee is upset. Consistent with this argument, Saunders, Sheppard, Knight, and Roth (1992) found that employees who perceived their supervisors to be effective voice managers also reported a greater likelihood to voice problems to their supervisor. Moreover, Hagedoorn et al. (1999) found that satisfaction with supervision demonstrated strong positive links with considerate voice ($r = .43, p < .001$) and loyalty ($r = .26, p < .001$) and strong negative links with exit ($r = -.44, p < .001$), aggressive voice ($r = -.42, p < .001$), and neglect ($r = -.35, p < .001$).

On the other hand, supervisors who are perceived to be unsupportive and relatively non-interested in their respective employees' success, would probably also not be concerned with specific problems that their employees report. Subsequently, these

employees are left with few constructive alternatives for dealing with job dissatisfaction and may manifest their dissatisfaction in more destructive ways. To illustrate, Graen, Liden, and Hoel (1982) found that the correlation between LMX and turnover was $-.44$ and that leader-member exchange was a stronger predictor of turnover than was an average leadership style. Thus, the following hypotheses are offered.

Hypothesis 4A-4E: Leader support will be significantly related to employees' responses to job dissatisfaction, such that employees who report more positive LMX relationships with their supervisors will be more likely to demonstrate considerate voice (4A) and loyalty (4B) and less likely to display aggressive voice (4C), exit (4D), and neglect (4E).

Perceptions of Procedural Justice (PJ). Procedural justice is the perception employees have on the fairness of procedures used to make decisions (Greenberg, 2002). Such perceptions can be enhanced when companies give employees a voice in how decisions are made (Roberson, Moye, & Locke, 1999), utilize formal grievance policies, provide an opportunity for errors to be corrected, apply policies in a consistent and unbiased manner, and explain how decisions are made (Greenberg, 2002). In relation to the EVLN model, two components of procedural justice appear to be relevant: 1) whether employees perceive their organization's procedures and policies used for dealing with employee problems and complaints as fair and 2) whether they have the opportunity to voice their dissatisfaction in the first place.

Previous research has demonstrated a positive correlation between perceptions of procedural justice and beneficial work outcomes. For instance, Moorman (1991) found that procedural justice predicted citizenship behaviors. Similarly, Folger and Konovsky

(1989) reported that procedural justice was related to job attitudes, including organizational commitment and trust in management. In congruence with this line of research, it seems reasonable to postulate that employees' who view the procedures for handling employee complaints at work as fair and who have opportunities at work to voice their frustration, may be more inclined to react constructively in response to job dissatisfaction rather than destructively. For instance, they may be more inclined to voice problems to their manager or file a formal complaint because they feel that they will be treated fairly and their concerns will be taken seriously (Greenberg, 2002). Moreover, organizations who communicate the message that they value the input of their employees may foster increased loyalty tendencies. On the other hand, if employees view their company's procedures as unfair, they may become aggravated and display their frustrations in more destructive ways. For example, Greenberg (2002) stated that "research has shown that people who believe that their managers (or their entire organization) use unfair procedures are likely to respond negatively, such as by failing to follow organizational policies and resigning" (p. 91). Similarly, Avery and Quiñones (2002) suggested that these responses are part of a "frustration effect" (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998) that occurs when people have been given reason to believe that their voice will have no impact on the decision maker, thus leading to the perception that the process is unfair. For the reasons outlined above, it is hypothesized that procedural justice perceptions may act a motivator for constructive responses to job dissatisfaction and a suppressor of destructive responses. Thus,

Hypotheses 5A-5E: Perceptions of procedural justice will be significantly related to employees' responses to job dissatisfaction, such that employees

who perceive the procedures used for dealing with problematic events as fair, will be more likely to exhibit considerate voice (5A) and loyalty (5B) and less likely to demonstrate aggressive voice (5C), exit (5D), and neglect (5E).

Perceptions of Distributive Justice (DJ). Not only are employees' fairness perceptions of the processes used to deal with problems at work important, but their perceived fairness of the outcomes of these processes, are also critical when responding to dissatisfaction. That is, employees may question the fairness of the actual outcome regardless of the organizational procedures used to determine that outcome. Accordingly, distributive justice is defined as the perceived fairness of the outcomes an employee receives (Snell, Sydell, & Lueke, 1999). Similar to procedural justice, past research has also demonstrated that perceptions of distributive justice were positively related to pay and benefit satisfaction, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in management, and commitment to support a decision and negatively associated with retaliatory behaviors, absenteeism, intentions to quit, and turnover (Skarlicki, Folger, & Tesluk, 1999; Ambrose & Kulik, 1999; Dulebohn & Martocchio, 1998). Based upon these beneficial findings, it seems reasonable to postulate that perceptions of distributive justice will demonstrate stronger relationships with constructive responses to job dissatisfaction and weaker relationships with destructive responses. That is, employees who have perceived the resolutions of past work problems as fair, will probably be more likely to perceive future work problems more optimistically and react in a more positive manner. Accordingly, the following hypotheses are proposed.

Hypotheses 6A-6E. Perceptions of distributive justice will be significantly related to employees' responses to job dissatisfaction, such that employees who perceived resolutions of past work problems as fair, will be more likely to exhibit considerate voice (6A) and loyalty (6B) and less likely to demonstrate aggressive voice (6C), exit (6D), and neglect (6E).

Personality Predictors

Extraversion (EXTRA). Within the last decade, a cluster of personality traits known as the Five Factor Model (often termed the Big Five), has been found to account for important differences in the way employees behave in organizations (Barrick & Mount, 1991; McCrae & Costa, 1985). One of those dimensions, namely extraversion, has demonstrated particular utility in explaining organizational behavior (Barrick et al., 1991; Judge, Martocchio, & Thoresen, 1997). Extraversion refers to the degree to which someone is gregarious, assertive, and sociable (extraverted), as opposed to reserved, timid, and quiet (introverted). Extroverts are highly social beings that seek out opportunities for excitement and new situations (Costa & McCrae, 1992).

Because of their outgoing, energetic, and people-oriented preferences, it is postulated that these individuals would be more inclined to demonstrate active rather than passive responses when responding to dissatisfaction in the workplace. More specifically, extraverts would probably be more prone to seek out other employees and friends to voice problems and concerns at work rather than utilizing less public actions such as neglect and loyalty. Additionally, because of their friendly disposition, it is likely that they would express their frustration in a more considerate manner rather than utilizing a destructive and aggressive tone. Furthermore, because extraverts can be bored

easily, it is doubtful they would endure a prolonged unpleasant situation at work and would be more inclined to exit their current job for a new environment. This was supported by prior research that demonstrated a positive relationship between extraversion and turnover (Judge et al., 1997). As such, it is hypothesized that individuals with higher levels of extraversion will be more likely to express considerate voice and exit and less likely to exhibit aggressive voice, neglect, and loyalty when coping with job dissatisfaction.

Hypotheses 7A-7E: Extraversion will be significantly related to employees' reactions to job dissatisfaction, such that employees with higher levels of extraversion will be more likely to express considerate voice (7A) and exit (7B) and less likely to exhibit aggressive voice (7C), loyalty (7D), and neglect (7E).

Proactive Personality (PROAC). Proactive personality is defined as the relatively stable tendency to effect environmental change and one who is relatively unconstrained by situational forces (Bateman & Crant, 1993). This disposition is derived from the interactionist perspective (Bandura, 1977), which believes that individuals can intentionally and directly change their current circumstances including social, nonsocial, or physical circumstances. In addition, proactive behavior is rooted in an individual's need to manipulate and control their environment. Therefore, an individual with a relatively high proactive personality is not likely to adjust or acquiesce when faced with dissatisfaction. On the other hand, they are more likely to take control over their environment and transform their situation in order to diminish their dissatisfaction. Similarly, Bateman et al. (1993) described a person with a high proactive personality as

an individual who scans for opportunity, shows initiative, takes action, and perseveres until they reach closure. People with low proactive personality are likely to passively adapt to, and even endure, their circumstances even when they are dissatisfying.

Thus, based upon a proactive individual's tendency to act upon and manipulate their environment, Roberts & Ladd (2003) originally hypothesized that participants with a relatively high proactive personality should be more likely to express more active behaviors such as voice and exit and less likely to exhibit more passive behaviors such as neglect and loyalty than participants with lower proactive personality in response to current job dissatisfaction. To that end, they found initial support for some of these hypotheses, such that individuals with higher levels of proactive personality were significantly more likely to demonstrate voice responses and less likely to exhibit neglect responses. Contrary to their expectations, proactive personality was negatively related to exit responses, rather than positively as they originally hypothesized. Roberts & Ladd (2003) postulated that employees with higher levels of proactive personality may observe a work problem as an obstacle to overcome and while exit may be viewed as an appropriate active response, it may be seen as a secondary response to voice. Taking these preliminary results into consideration, the following hypotheses are offered.

Hypotheses 8A-8E: Proactive personality will be significantly related to employees' reactions to job dissatisfaction, such that employees with higher levels of proactive personality would be more likely to express considerate voice (8A) and less likely to exhibit aggressive voice (8B), loyalty (8C), exit (8D), and neglect (8E).

Negative Affect (NA). In general, negative affect (NA) reflects the extent to which an individual experiences aversive emotional states over time and across situations (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Essentially, high NA individuals have an overall negative orientation towards themselves and the world around them. In regards to job dissatisfaction, high NA individuals are hypothesized to react more destructively rather than constructively for several reasons. First, individuals with high NA, as opposed to those with low NA, tend to be susceptible and responsive to stimuli that generate negative emotions (Larsen & Katellaar, 1991). To illustrate, Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) asked participants to record their daily reactions to interpersonal conflicts. They found that high NA individuals reported greater exposure and negative reactivity to conflicts than low NA individuals. Given their heightened sensitivity to stimuli that induce negative emotions, high NA employees might react destructively to problematic events at work that cause job dissatisfaction. Second, previous evidence suggests that negative affectivity is related to certain behaviors representative of neglect, exit, and aggressive voice. Specifically, George (1998) and Cropanzano, James, and Konovsky (1993) found significant, positive correlations between NA and intentions to quit. Additionally, Eysenck and Gudjonsson (1989) reported that NA predicted delinquency, defined as the tendency to violate moral codes and engage in disruptive behavior. Their preference for engaging in disruptive behavior may increase their tendency to voice their frustrations in a more aggressive and negative manner (e.g., blaming the organization, describing the problem as negatively as possible to your supervisor) rather than a more considerate and constructive manner. Lastly, individuals with high NA are less inclined to seek direct control of their work environments (Judge, 1993). They prefer to use more

indirect and covert strategies when coping with problems. Therefore, they would probably be more likely to demonstrate neglect behaviors because of their more obscure and less obvious nature. Therefore, the following hypotheses are offered.

Hypotheses 9A-9E: Negative affect will be significantly related to employees' responses to job dissatisfaction, such that employees with higher levels of negative affect will be more likely to exhibit aggressive voice (9A), exit (9B), and neglect (9C), and less likely to demonstrate considerate voice (9D) and loyalty (9E).

Self-control (SC). Similar to negative affectivity, self-control is also posited to influence an employee's decision to react constructively versus destructively in response to job dissatisfaction. In general, self-control measures the inability of individuals to manage their emotions and their degree of impulsivity (Gough, 1996). Individuals with high self-control try to control their emotions and temper, seek to please, and want to be upstanding people. On the other hand, low self-control individuals tend to be unpredictable and spontaneous, less inhibited in regards to their emotions, and have a disposition to be headstrong that can lead to serious conflict with others.

The literature on self-control suggests that the inability of individuals to control their emotions may be related to several counterproductive work behaviors. More specifically, Douglas and Martinko (2001) found that self-control was related to self-reported incidence of workplace aggression. Furthermore, the incidence of criminal activity tends to be high among individuals lacking in self-control (Robinson & Greenberg, 1998). A possible explanation for this relationship may be the fact that individuals who possess higher levels of self-control are likely to remain calm during

provocative situations, whereas individuals who possess lower levels of self-control are likely to respond aggressively to provocative situations (Geen, 1990). In congruence with this theory, a problematic event at work that causes job dissatisfaction may represent a provocative situation that an individual with low self-control would react negatively to. That is, low self-control individuals, as opposed to high self-control individuals, may not have the cognitive capacity to stop themselves from taking riskier responses to job dissatisfaction, such as being continuously absent or leaving the job altogether. Furthermore, because of their impulsivity, low self-control individuals may be more likely to voice their frustration in an aggressive manner to their supervisor without fully considering the consequences. In contrast, because high self-control individuals have a desire to please others and abide by certain standards, they may be more inclined to use more constructive and considerate methods for handling problematic events at work (e.g., loyalty and considerate voice). Therefore,

Hypotheses 10A-10E: Self-control will be significantly related to employees' responses to job dissatisfaction, such that employees with higher self-control will be more likely to engage in considerate voice (10A) and loyalty (10B) and less likely to engage in aggressive voice (10C), exit (10D), and neglect (10E).

Contribution of Personality and Work Situational Predictors

In congruence with the interactionist perspective (Bandura, 1977; Douglas & Martinko, 2001), I believe that both the situation and an individual's personality influence behavior. To my knowledge, little research has investigated whether personality explains unique variance in the EVLN response categories. However, the

results from Roberts & Ladd (2003) suggested that a greater understanding of an employee's personality in relation to his or her response to job dissatisfaction could enhance the predictive power of the EVLN model. Furthermore, prior research has shown that stable traits and dispositions are related to motivation, effort, satisfaction, perceptions of the job, and supervisory style (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Spector, 1982). As such, it would seem reasonable to postulate that personality predictors would explain incremental variance in the EVLN response categories beyond what could be attributed by the situational factors alone. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed.

Hypothesis 11: After controlling for the effects of the work situational predictors, the personality predictors will explain significant, incremental variance in the EVLN response categories.

All proposed hypotheses are summarized in Table 1 (p. 29).

Personality X Work Situational Predictor Interactions

As proposed by the personality and work situational variables mentioned above, a multitude of variables may influence an employee's decision to respond to job dissatisfaction, and it is likely these predictors may interact as they relate to job dissatisfaction. However, because of the rudimentary nature of this line of research and the lack of prior research examining the combined effects of both personality and work situational predictors on the EVLN model, the specification of new interactions would be premature. Therefore, specific interaction hypotheses will not be presented in this paper.

Goals of Present Research

In order to increase the predictive utility of the EVLN model, the present research poses the following goals. First, the role of both personality and work situational

Table 1. Summary of Hypotheses

Predictor Variables	Considerate Voice	Loyalty	Aggressive Voice	Exit	Neglect
Prior Job Satisfaction 1A-1E	+	+	—	—	—
Quality of Job Alternatives 2A-2E	+	—	+	+	—
Investment Size 3A-3E	+	+	—	—	—
Perceived Leader Support 4A-4E	+	+	—	—	—
Perceptions of Procedural Justice 5A-5E	+	+	—	—	—
Perceptions of Distributive Justice 6A-6E	+	+	—	—	—
Extraversion 7A-7E	+	—	—	+	—
Proactive Personality 8A-8E	+	—	—	—	—
Negative Affect 9A-9E	—	—	+	+	+
Self-control 10A-10E	+	+	—	—	—
Hypothesis 11A-11E	Incremental variance explained by personality variables				

Note: “+” represents positive relationships. “—” represents negative relationships.

variables in impacting an employee's decision to react to job dissatisfaction will be investigated. Second, the relative contribution of both variables towards explaining variance in the EVLN response categories will be examined. Third, the psychometric properties of the voice and loyalty subscales will be further refined. Lastly, the analysis of data from an organizational sample will allow for the replicability and extension of the simulation study results found by Roberts & Ladd (2003). In order to achieve these proposed goals, a pilot study was conducted to prepare the measures used for this study for on-line assessment in an actual organization.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Pilot Study: Instrument Refinement

The purpose of the pilot study was to balance the need to improve the psychometric properties of the measurement scales with the need to keep the survey as short as possible so as to increase the potential response rate by employees. Participants were 134 undergraduate students attending a Southeastern university who volunteered to participate in the project to receive class credit for management courses. The sample contained 52.2% male and 47.8% female participants. The average age of participants was 22.6 years (S.D. = 4.45) and the ages ranged between 19 and 47 years. The average work experience of the participants was 5.5 years, with the majority (51.2%) having over 4.5 years of previous work experience. The participants were invited to complete the stimulus materials in exchange for extra credit. Subsequently, participants met with the researcher in groups of 4-8 and individually completed a consent form, demographic information, the personality and work situational predictor scales, as well as the EVLN measure. The survey took approximately 20-35 minutes to complete.

Evaluation of the pilot study items were made on the basis of several criteria including: item-total correlations, variances, factor loadings of scale items based upon confirmatory factor analyses (CFA), and the need to maintain consistency with past research. Results from the analyses guided several changes made to the stimulus materials used in the organizational study. These changes included shortening the self-control measure from a 38-item scale to a 10-item scale and increasing the procedural

justice and distributive justice scales to 4-items each to better represent the behavioral domain of each construct. Furthermore, the items “I would be persistent with my supervisor in order to get what I want” and “I would try to win the case” were dropped from the aggressive voice subscale because the item factor loadings were very small (.08 and .17 respectively) and because the wording of these items appeared somewhat confusing and inconsistent with the aggressive voice construct (e.g., the first item seems to resemble persistence in general more than aggressive voice).

In order to estimate the organizational sample size needed, a power analysis was conducted using the pilot study data. Accordingly, two effect sizes were calculated based upon this data: 1) an average correlation across all predictors and dependent variables ($r = .21$), and 2) an average correlation for all significant ($\alpha < .05$) correlations across all predictors and dependent variables ($r = .293$). Using the procedures outlined by Murphy and Myers (1998) for a desired power of .80 ($\alpha < .05$), a sample size of 83 is needed for an effect size of .21 and 191 for an effect size of .293. Therefore, the targeted sample size was approximately 191 and the minimal acceptable sample size was 83.

Organizational Study Participants

The participants were 156 professionals from over 7 different organizations located in both the Northeast and Southeast portions of the country. The sample was predominantly white (91%) with 53.8% males and 42.3% females (3.9% participants declined to provide biographical information). The average age of participants was 40.36 years (S.D. = 10.16) and the ages ranged between 23 to 67 years. Participants had an average of 8.24 years (S.D. = 8.48) of working experience. In general, the participants

occupied a wide range of professional positions, including engineers, research consultants, nurses, lawyers, teachers, and business managers. Descriptions of the organizations and survey response rates are provided in Table 2 (p. 34).

Work Situational Measures

Prior Job Satisfaction, Investment, and Quality of Job Alternatives. Items were created to measure these work situational variables based upon previous research on the EVLN model (e.g., Rusbult et al. 1988, Roberts & Ladd, 2003, Farrell & Rusbult, 1992). All items were measured with a 7-point Likert scale going from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree.” Prior job satisfaction was assessed by the following items: “All things considered, in the past, I have been very satisfied with my current job?” and “If I had to decide all over again whether or not to take the job I have now, I definitely would?” Quality of job alternatives was measured by the following items: “If I left this job, my next job would probably be as good or better than the job I have now?” and “As of the past month, I would rate the quality (e.g., in terms of pay, working conditions, supervision, and etc.) of my job alternatives as good?” Investment size was measured by examining both the length of time employed and the employee’s investment perceptions of various work aspects using the following three items: “Please indicate in years and months how long you have occupied your current job positions?”, “Please indicate in years and months how long you have worked for your company in total”, and “Generally speaking, there are things uniquely associated with this job that I would lose if I decided to leave (e.g., retirement money, job security, friends at work, and training, etc.)?” The Cronbach alphas for the current study were .78 for prior job satisfaction, .37 for quality of job alternatives, and .64 for investment size.

Table 2. Survey Response Rates

Participant Groups	Surveys Distributed	Surveys Returned	Response Rate
Airfreight division employees of a Southeastern mail delivery company	16	16	100%
Intensive care unit registered nurses in a Southeastern hospital	13	12	92.31%
Executives in a Professional MBA program in a large Southeastern university	45	36	80%
Lawyers and partners in a large Northeastern law firm	63	55	87.30%
Research consultants from a Northeastern information technology consulting firm	35	11	31.43%
Teachers from a Southeastern middle school	11	10	90.91%
Other professionals (e.g., small group of engineers, physical therapists, and managers in banking and retail sales)	11	11	100%

Note: 5 participants failed to indicate what their profession was in the demographic portion of the survey.

The Cronbach alpha for the quality of job alternatives measure was much lower than desired. Therefore, this scale was not included in any analyses and warrants further refinement in future studies.

Leader-member exchange (LMX). The quality of the exchanges between supervisor and subordinate were measured using a five-item scale developed by Graen, Liden, and Hoel (1982). The items are summed for each participant, resulting in a possible range of scores from 5 to 20. An example item is “Regardless of how much formal organizational authority your supervisor has built into his/her position, what are the chances that he/she would be personally inclined to use his/her power to help you solve problems at work? 1 = No, 2 = Might or might not, 3 = Probably would, and 4 = He certainly would.” Past research has shown that high LMX is associated with both in-role and extra-role performance (Graen & Cashman, 1975; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1993) as well as an employee’s role development (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975). Cronbach alpha was .83.

Perceptions of Procedural Justice (PJ). Four items were created to assess employee’s perceptions of procedural justice based upon previous procedural justice literature (e.g., Roberson, Moye, & Locke, 1999; Tyler & Lind, 1992; McFarline & Sweeney, 1992). These items focused both on the perceived fairness of the company’s procedures for dealing with employee problems at work (e.g., employee complaints, grievance claims, procedures used to communicate employee feedback, and etc.) and the employees’ perceptions of their opportunity to voice any problems or complaints they might have at work. Accordingly, the following 4 items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale going from “Strongly disagree to Strongly agree”: “I believe the procedures

and policies my company uses to handle employee complaints and problems are fair”, “I feel there are several opportunities at my work to voice my opinion concerning problems and complaints that I might have”, “My company’s procedures and policies for resolving work problems insure the utilization of accurate and unbiased information”, and “My company makes certain that employees have an opportunity to express their views when resolving problems at work.” Cronbach alpha was .89.

Perceptions of Distributive Justice (DJ). Four items were created to assess employees’ distributive fairness perceptions based upon previous literature (e.g., Roberson, Moye, & Locke, 1999; Tyler & Lind, 1992; McFarline & Sweeney, 1992). The following items focused on employees’ fairness perceptions of the outcomes of former work problems and were assessed using a 7-point Likert scale going from “Strongly disagree to Strongly agree”: “In the past, when resolving problems at work, I felt that I got what I deserved”, “Given the seriousness of previous employee grievances complaints, the outcomes have been fair”, “I believe the results of prior work problems were appropriate for the amount of effort I put in resolving them”, and “In general, the results of employee problems at work have been fair.” Cronbach alpha was .92.

Personality Measures

Negative Affect (NA). Negative affect was measured using the 10-item negative affect subscale of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) developed by Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988). Using 10 mood descriptors (e.g., afraid, upset, hostile), participants are asked on a scale of 1 to 5 to indicate the degree to which they generally feel the way being described (e.g., “Very slightly or not at all to Extremely”). Higher scores indicate higher levels of negative affect. Participants were administered

the entire 20-item PANAS Scale, but only the negative affect subscale was included in the analyses. Watson and Clark (1984) reported internal reliability coefficients exceeding .82 across four samples for the 10-item subscale. Furthermore, Watson et al. (1988) provided external evidence of convergent and discriminant validity for the scales. Cronbach alpha for the current study was .86.

Self-control (SC). Self-control was measured using the 10-item Self-control subscale of the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) Scales developed by Goldberg and his colleagues (Goldberg, 1999; International Personality Item Pool, 2001). The IPIP scales were designed to provide rapid access to measures of individual differences similar to constructs as the CPI, Big-Five, and the NEO Personality Inventory for the public domain. That is, the IPIP Self-control scale has demonstrated convergent validity with similar scales on the CPI, NEO-PI-R and the Big-Five (Goldberg, 1992; Goldberg, 1999; International Personality Item Pool, 2001). Participants rated agreement with each item on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree” (e.g., “I make rash decisions” and “I am not easily affected by my emotions”). Reversed items were converted for scoring. Cronbach alpha for the current study was .71.

Extraversion (EXTRA). Extraversion was measured using the 10-item Extraversion subscale of the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) Scales developed by Goldberg and his colleagues (Goldberg, 1999; International Personality Item Pool, 2001). The IPIP Extraversion scale has demonstrated convergent validity with similar scales on the CPI, NEO-PI-R and the Big-Five (Goldberg, L. R., 1999). Participants rated agreement with each item on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree” (e.g., “I am skilled in handling social situations”).

Reversed items were converted for scoring. Cronbach alpha for the current study was .86.

Proactive Personality (PROAC). Proactive personality was measured using the 17-item Proactive Personality Scale (Bateman et al., 1993). Participants rated agreement with each item on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly disagree” to “Strongly agree” (e.g., “Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change”). Reverse items were converted for scoring and the higher the total score, the stronger the proactive personality. Bateman et al. (1993) reported Cronbach alphas across three samples ranging from .87 to .89 and test-retest reliability was .72 over a three-month period. Roberts & Ladd (2003) reported a Cronbach alpha of .90. Furthermore, proactive personality has demonstrated criterion validity with several organizational variables including job performance (Crant, 1995), career success (Seibert, Crant, & Kraimer, 1999), leadership (Crant & Bateman, 2000), and organizational innovation (Parker, 1998). Cronbach alpha for the current study was .90.

EVLN Model Dependent Measure

EVLN Model Measure. Items representing the categories of exit, aggressive voice, considerate voice, loyalty, and neglect were selected from previous EVLN model scales proposed by Rusbult et al. (1988) and Hagedoorn et al. (1999). Items from these two studies were included in order to maximize the possibility of selecting valid and reliable items. The measure consisted of a total of 42 items, each of which was measured on a 7-point Likert scale going from “Definitely would not react in this way” to “Definitely would react in this way”. Exit was comprised of 4 items from Rusbult et al. (1988) and 6 items from Hagedoorn et al. (1999) (e.g., “I would think about quitting my

job”). Considerate voice was comprised of 11 items from Hagedoorn’s et al. (1999) study (e.g., “Together with my supervisor, explore each other’s opinions until the problems are solved”). Aggressive voice was comprised of 5 items from Hagedoorn’s et al. (1999) study (e.g., “I would deliberately make the problem sound more problematic than it really is”). Loyalty consisted of 4 items from Rusbult et al. (1988) and 5 items from Hagedoorn et al. (1999) (e.g., “I would have faith that something like this would be taken care of by the organization without my contributing to the problem-solving process”). Finally, Neglect was measured using the 5 item scale from Rusbult et al. (1988). Higher scores represent higher intentions to perform each category of behaviors. Previous research has demonstrated that the EVLN measure has adequate criterion-related validity as well as convergent and discriminant validity (e.g., Farrell & Rusbult, 1992; Farrell, 1983). Cronbach alphas for the current study were .92 for considerate voice, .52 for aggressive voice, .79 for loyalty, .90 for exit, and .75 for neglect. The Cronbach alpha for the aggressive voice subscale was lower than desired, however, this measure has demonstrated strong reliability in the past and is still relatively new (Hagedoorn et al., 1999). Therefore, it was retained in all subsequent analyses.

Procedures

Participants from the organizational sample were emailed a web link for the online survey. The survey was operated by the University of Tennessee’s Office of Information Technology. Participants were prompted to read an informed consent form before beginning the survey and were assured that individual responses were completely confidential. Once the survey was completed, each participant was asked to “Submit their answers” and the data was stored in an SPSS file.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Data Analysis Overview

Three sets of analyses were performed: 1) Pearson Product Moment correlations were performed to test Hypotheses 1-10, 2) hierarchical regression analyses were performed to test Hypothesis 11, and 3) an importance analysis was performed to further investigate the relative influence of each variable towards predicting the five EVLN response categories. Tables 3 and 4 (pgs. 41-43) provide the means, standard deviations, Cronbach alphas, and intercorrelational data for all study variables. Initial review of the Cronbach alphas revealed that the reliability for the quality of job alternatives scale was very low ($\alpha = .37$). Therefore, this predictor was dropped from all further analyses and Hypotheses 2A-2E were not examined.

Further review of the intercorrelational data suggested that the high correlation between procedural and distributive justice ($r = .91, p < .001$) warranted a collapse of both factors into one overall dimension of organizational justice. This is consistent with a recent meta-analysis estimating the relationship between these two variables as strong ($\rho = .64$; 300 studies) across all studies investigated (Hauenstein, McGonigle, & Flinder, 2001). In agreement with the authors, this supports a “simpler view of justice that focuses on general fairness perceptions as opposed to specific forms of justice” (p. 48). Subsequently, the following analyses will reflect the new overall dimension of justice, named perceptions of organizational justice (JUST). This 8-item measures consists of the

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations, and Cronbach Alphas for all Organizational Study Variables

Variable	# Of Items	Mean	SD	Cronbach Alpha
Work Situational Predictors:				
Leader Member Exchange (LMX)	4	15.77	3.24	.83
Procedural Justice (PJ)	4	20.31	5.41	.89
Distributive Justice (DJ)	4	20.16	5.11	.92
Perceptions of Organizational Justice (JUST)	8	40.47	10.28	.95
Investment (INV)	3	18.35	13.78	.64
Prior Job Satisfaction (SAT)	2	11.82	2.49	.78
Quality of Job Alternatives (QUAL)	2	9.43	2.66	.37
Personality Predictors:				
Extraversion (EXTRA)	9	44.53	9.34	.86
Proactive Personality (PROAC)	17	86.14	13.28	.90
Negative Affect (NA)	10	16.21	5.21	.86
Self-control (SC)	10	48.86	8.87	.71
EVLN Response Categories:				
Aggressive Voice (AV)	4	7.99	3.18	.52
Considerate Voice (CV)	11	63.34	9.55	.92
Loyalty (LOY)	9	32.52	8.73	.79
Exit (EXIT)	10	31.71	12.43	.90
Neglect (NEGL)	5	10.95	5.07	.75

Table 4. Pearson Product Moment Correlations (Two-Tailed) Among All Organizational Study Variables

Study Variables	SAT	INV	LMX	PJ	DJ	JUST	PROAC
SAT	—						
INV	.08 (151)	—					
LMX	.40** (149)	.02 (149)	—				
PJ	.50** (150)	.20* (150)	.52** (148)	—			
DJ	.48** (150)	.12 (150)	.46** (148)	.91** (150)	—		
JUST	.50** (150)	.17* (150)	.50** (148)	.98** (150)	.98** (150)	—	
PROAC	.07 (151)	.06 (151)	.16* (149)	.16* (150)	.18* (150)	.18* (150)	—
EXTRA	.08 (151)	-.11 (151)	.26** (149)	.22** (150)	.23** (150)	.23** (150)	.53** (152)
SC	-.10 (151)	.27** (151)	-.10 (149)	.02 (150)	-.06 (150)	-.02 (150)	-.10 (152)
NA	-.22** (151)	-.13 (151)	-.21** (149)	-.29** (150)	-.30** (150)	-.30** (150)	-.27** (151)
AV	-.07 (151)	-.10 (151)	-.11 (149)	-.16 (150)	-.20* (150)	-.18* (150)	-.33** (152)
CV	.22** (151)	.18* (151)	.39** (149)	.33** (150)	.35** (150)	.34** (150)	.46** (152)
LOY	.23** (151)	.18* (151)	.12 (149)	.31** (150)	.27** (150)	.30** (150)	-.14 (152)
EXIT	-.42** (151)	-.29** (151)	-.36** (149)	-.48** (150)	-.40** (150)	-.45** (150)	.02 (152)
NEGL	-.20* (151)	-.24** (151)	-.29** (149)	-.20* (150)	-.19* (150)	-.20* (150)	-.15 (152)

Table 4 Continued.

Study Variables	EXTRA	SC	NA	AV	CV	LOY	EXIT	NEGL
EXTRA	—							
SC	-.42** (152)	—						
NA	-.28** (151)	-.29** (151)	—					
AV	-.18* (152)	-.20* (152)	.31** (151)	—				
CV	.38** (152)	.03 (152)	-.29** (151)	-.41** (153)	—			
LOY	-.16* (152)	.05 (152)	-.02 (151)	.06 (153)	.09 (153)	—		
EXIT	.03 (152)	-.23** (152)	.34** (151)	.31** (153)	-.32** (153)	-.45** (153)	—	
NEGL	.01 (152)	-.39** (152)	.32** (151)	.53** (153)	-.43** (153)	-.08 (153)	.49** (153)	—

Note: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. Sample size is in parentheses. SAT = Prior job satisfaction. INV = Investment size.

LMX = Leader-Member exchange. PJ = Procedural Justice. DJ = Distributive Justice. JUST = Perceptions of organizational justice. PROAC = Proactive personality. EXTRA = Extraversion. SC = Self-control. NA = Negative Affect. AV = Aggressive voice. CV = Considerate voice. LOY = Loyalty. NEGL = Neglect.

4 original procedural justice and 4 distributive justice items.

Additionally, the reliability analysis of the extraversion scale indicated that the determinant of the matrix was zero, justifying a closer analysis of each item. That said, a subsequent item analysis of the scale revealed that two items (e.g., “I have little to say” and “I don’t talk a lot”) were completely redundant. That is, their means, standard deviations, variance, skewness, and kurtosis were exactly the same. Therefore, the item “I have little to say” was removed from subsequent analyses, resulting in a 9-item extraversion scale. Moreover, based upon both item analysis and confirmatory factor analysis, the item “I would try to prove in all possible ways to my supervisor that I was right” was dropped from the aggressive voice subscale due to a low item-total correlation (-.03) and factor loading (-.004). This resulted in a 4-item aggressive voice scale.

Missing data was imputed using the EM (expectation-maximization) algorithm for ML estimation provided by SPSS Version 11.5 (SPSS Inc., 1999). EM estimates the means, the covariance matrix, and the correlation of quantitative variables with missing values, using an iterative process. Maximum likelihood methods of missing data estimation are highly recommended over case deletion, mean substitution, and single imputation methods (Schafer & Graham, 2002). 56 missing data points were imputed using EM estimation and no more than 1 missing item was substituted for any single measurement scale. This data was deemed to be missing completely at random and represented a very small percentage of the total possible data points (0.32%). A measurement scale with more than 1 missing data point was not included in the analyses. Furthermore, in computing the hierarchical regression and importance analysis figures, cases in which there were any missing data points resulted in the elimination of that

participant's entire data from the analysis. This resulted in the elimination of 8 participants, resulting in a sample size of 148 for these analyses.

Tests of Work Situational Hypotheses 1-6

Consistent with prior research supporting the original hypotheses put forth by Rusbult and colleagues (1988), prior job satisfaction and investment demonstrated several significant relationships with the EVLN response categories. More specifically, in support of Hypotheses 1A, 1B, 1D, and 1E, prior job satisfaction was positively related to considerate voice ($r = .22, p < .01$) and loyalty ($r = .23, p < .01$) and negatively related to exit ($r = -.42, p < .01$) and neglect ($r = -.20, p < .05$). Prior job satisfaction was not significantly related to aggressive voice (H1C; $r = -.07, p = .41$). Hypotheses 2A-2E were not tested due to the inadequate reliability ($\alpha = .37$) reported for the quality of job alternatives measure. On the other hand, in support of Hypotheses 3A, 3B, 3D, and 3E, employees with greater investment demonstrated stronger tendencies towards considerate voice ($r = .18, p < .05$) and loyalty ($r = .18, p < .05$), and weaker tendencies towards exit ($r = -.29, p < .001$) and neglect ($r = -.24, p < .01$). In contrast to Hypothesis 3C, investment size was not significantly related to aggressive voice ($r = -.10, p = .22$).

To extend upon previous research, the relationships between the EVLN responses and two new work situational variables were examined: leader support and perceptions of organizational justice. In support of Hypotheses 4A, 4B, and 4E, employees reporting higher levels of leader support (i.e., higher LMX relationships) were more likely to exhibit considerate voice ($r = .39, p < .001$) and less likely to demonstrate exit ($r = -.36, p < .001$) and neglect responses ($r = -.29, p < .001$). Contrary to hypotheses

4C and 4D, perceived leader support was not significantly related to aggressive voice ($r = -.11, p = .18$) or loyalty ($r = .12, p = .13$).

As noted previously, due to the high correlation between perceptions of procedural and distributive justice, these factors were collapsed into one overall dimension named perceptions of organizational justice. In support of Hypotheses 5/6A-E, perceptions of organizational justice was positively related to considerate voice ($r = .34, p < .001$) and loyalty ($r = .30, p < .001$) and negatively related to aggressive voice ($r = -.18, p < .05$), exit ($r = -.45, p < .001$), and neglect responses ($r = -.20, p < .05$). A summary of all correlational results are provided in Table 5 (p. 47).

Tests for Personality Hypotheses 7-10

Similar to the work situational variables, the personality variables demonstrated several differential relationships with the five EVLN response categories. In general, proactive personality and extraversion tended to demonstrate stronger relationships with the active constructive responses to job dissatisfaction. In support of Hypotheses 7A-7C, employees reporting higher levels of extraversion were more inclined to demonstrate considerate voice ($r = .38, p < .001$) and less inclined to exhibit aggressive voice ($r = -.18, p < .05$) and loyalty responses ($r = -.16, p < .05$). Extraversion was not significantly related to exit (H7B) or neglect responses (H7E). Likewise, consistent with Hypotheses 8A and 8B, employees with higher levels of proactive personality also reported stronger tendencies towards considerate voice ($r = .46, p < .001$) and weaker tendencies towards aggressive voice ($r = -.33, p < .001$). Proactive personality was not significantly correlated with loyalty (H8C), exit (H8D), and neglect responses (H8E).

Table 5. Summary of Results

Independent Variables	Considerate Voice	Aggressive Voice	Loyalty	Exit	Neglect
Prior Job Satisfaction 1A-1E	+ r = .22** p = .007	- r = -.07 p = .41	+ r = .23** p = .004	- r = -.42** p < .001	- r = -.20* p = .01
Investment Size 3A-3E	+ r = .18* p = .03	- r = -.10 p = .22	+ r = .18* p = .03	- r = -.29** p < .001	- r = -.24** p = .004
Perceived Leader Support (LMX) 4A-4E	+ r = .39** p < .001	- r = -.11 p = .18	+ r = .12 p = .13	- r = -.36** p < .001	- r = -.29** p < .001
Perceptions of Organizational Justice 5/6A-E	+ r = .34** p < .001	- r = -.18* p = .03	+ r = .30** p < .001	- r = -.45** p < .001	- r = -.20* p = .01
Extraversion 7A-7E	+ r = .38** p < .001	- r = -.18* p = .03	- r = -.16* p = .04	- r = .03 p = .70	- r = .01 p = .94
Proactive Personality 8A-8E	+ r = .46** p < .001	- r = -.33** p < .001	- r = -.14 p = .09	- r = .02 p = .80	- r = -.15 p = .08
Negative Affect 9A-9E	- r = -.29** p < .001	+ r = .31** p < .001	- r = -.02 p = .81	+ r = .34** p < .001	+ r = .32** p < .001
Self-control 10A-10E	+ r = .03 p = .72	- r = -.20* p = .01	+ r = .05 p = .56	- r = -.23** p = .004	- r = -.39** p < .001
Hypothesis 11 Incremental variance explained by personality variables ΔR^2	Yes $\Delta R^2 = .18**$ p < .01	Yes $\Delta R^2 = .16**$ p < .01	No $\Delta R^2 = .06$	Yes $\Delta R^2 = .07**$ p < .01	Yes $\Delta R^2 = .17**$ p < .01

Note: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. “+” and “-” represent hypothesized direction of correlation. All boldface correlations are significant and in the hypothesized direction. Quality of job alternatives (Hypotheses 2A-2E) was not included in these analyses due to low reliability.

Finally, the last two personality variables demonstrated the strongest relationships with the more destructive responses to problematic events at work. That is, in support of Hypotheses 9A, 9B, 9C, and 9D, employees who reported higher levels of negative affect were more inclined to display aggressive voice ($r = .31, p < .001$), exit ($r = .34, p < .001$), and neglect responses ($r = .32, p < .001$) and less inclined to exhibit considerate voice ($r = -.29, p < .001$). Negative affect was not significantly correlated with loyalty responses (H9E). Furthermore, consistent with Hypotheses 10C, 10D, and 10E, employees with higher levels of self-control were less likely to demonstrate aggressive voice ($r = -.20, p < .05$), exit ($r = -.23, p < .01$), and neglect ($r = -.39, p < .001$) when responding to job dissatisfaction at work. Self-control was not significantly correlated with considerate voice (H10A) and loyalty responses (H10B).

Test for Hypothesis 11

To test Hypothesis 11, a hierarchical regression analysis was performed to investigate the degree to which the personality and work situational variables, in combination, predicted the EVLN categories. Separate hierarchical regression analyses were computed for each of the five EVLN response categories. At each step, the incremental variance explained by each block of variables was computed. In Step 1, the work situational variables were entered and then the personality variables were entered in Step 2. Estimates from the hierarchical regression equations predicting each of the five EVLN response categories are provided in Table 6 (p. 49). As hypothesized, the personality variables significantly explained incremental variance in considerate voice ($\Delta R^2 = .18, p < .01$), aggressive voice, ($\Delta R^2 = .16, p < .01$), exit ($\Delta R^2 = .07, p < .01$), and

Table 6. Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis for Hypotheses 11A-E.

EVLN Response Category	CV (β)	AV (β)	Loyalty (β)	Exit (β)	Neglect (β)
Step 1: Work Situational Predictors					
Prior Job Satisfaction	.004	.04	.13	-.23**	-.09
Investment Size	.17*	-.07	.15	-.27**	-.23**
Supervisor Support (LMX)	.32**	-.05	-.04	-.17*	-.25**
Perceptions of Organizational Justice	.15	-.16	.22*	-.19*	.006
<i>F (4, 143)</i>	9.48**	1.50	4.85**	17.64**	5.95**
<i>R</i> ²	.21	.04	.12	.33	.14
Step 2: Personality Predictors					
Extraversion	.19	-.010	-.18	.03	-.03
Proactive Personality	.30**	-.25**	-.11	.13	-.09
Negative Affect	-.03	.11	.01	.15	.08
Self-control	.11	-.24*	-.07	-.14	-.40**
<i>F (8, 139)</i>	10.86**	4.24**	3.73**	11.37**	7.74**
<i>R</i> ²	.39	.20	.18	.40	.31
ΔR^2	.18**	.16**	.06	.07**	.17**

Note: * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. $N = 148$. Standardized beta coefficients are reported. AV = Aggressive Voice. CV = Considerate Voice.

neglect ($\Delta R^2 = .17, p < .01$). As for loyalty, the ΔR^2 was not significant ($\Delta R^2 = .06, p = .05$). Nevertheless, the personality predictors did explain incremental variance in the EVLN response categories, thus Hypothesis 11 was supported.

Importance Analysis of Predictors

To further investigate how the work and personality predictors accounted for variance in the EVLN response categories, an importance analysis was performed. An importance analysis was utilized to assess the differences in the relative influence of the predictors among the participants when determining how they would respond to job dissatisfaction. More specifically, Budescu (1993) defined dominance as a pairwise relationship in which one predictor is said to dominate another if it is more useful than its competitor in all subset regressions (p. 542). The relative weight of each predictor can be computed by dividing its estimated variance contribution into the total predicted variance when considering all variables. Table 7 (p. 51) presents a summary of the importance analysis results, including R^2 values and importance figures for each predictor.

The results of the importance analysis indicated that the relative weight of the personality predictors versus the situational predictors for influencing an employee's response to job dissatisfaction differed for each of the five EVLN response categories. Overall, the total importance scores indicated that the personality variables were the strongest predictors of aggressive voice (.88), considerate voice (.59), and neglect (.62) reactions, whereas the situational variables were the most influential predictors of exit (.77) and loyalty (.77) responses.

Table 7. Importance Analysis Relative Importance Scores

EVLN Response Category	Total Personality Importance Score	Total Situational Importance Score	R ²	SAT	INV	JUST	LMX	PROAC	EXTRA	SC	NA
Aggressive Voice	.88	.12	.20	.00	.02	.07	.02	.36	.10	.22	.21
Considerate Voice	.59	.41	.39	.04	.07	.10	.20	.32	.18	.02	.07
Exit	.23	.77	.40	.22	.16	.23	.16	.02	.01	.08	.12
Loyalty	.23	.77	.18	.17	.16	.37	.04	.10	.14	.01	.01
Neglect	.62	.38	.31	.07	.08	.04	.19	.04	.02	.42	.14

Note: N = 148. SAT = Prior job satisfaction. INV = Investment size. JUST = Perceptions of organizational justice. LMX = Leader-Member exchange. PROAC = Proactive personality. EXTRA = Extraversion. SC = Self-control. NA = Negative Affect. Dominant predictors are typed in boldface.

Along with the total importance scores, each individual predictor accounted for different amounts of variance within each of the five response categories. Some of the response categories were accounted for primarily by one group of predictors (e.g., personality vs. situational), whereas others were predicted by a combination of both groups of predictors. To illustrate, the variance in the exit responses was accounted for primarily by the work situational predictors, with perceptions of organizational justice accounting for 23% of the variance, followed by prior job satisfaction accounting for 22% of the variance, 16% for both leader support and investment, and 12% for negative affect. Similarly, for the loyalty responses, perceptions of organizational justice accounted for the majority of the variance with 37%, followed by 17% for prior job satisfaction, 16% for investment, and 14% for extraversion. On the other hand, aggressive voice responses were predicted solely by the personality variables with proactive personality accounting for 36% of the variance, followed by 22% for self-control, 21% for negative affect, and 10 % for extraversion. Lastly, the variance in both the neglect and considerate voice responses were accounted for by a combination of both personality and work situational variables (refer to Table 7).

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The current study extends upon past literature on the EVLN model in several ways. First, this research investigated the simultaneous effects of 10 personality and work situational predictors on the EVLN response categories that were not captured in previous studies (Withey & Cooper, 1989; Roberts & Ladd, 2003). Second, the research methodology used in this study offered several advantages over the methodologies used in previous research on this model. That is, by utilizing an on-line survey, a more diverse sample of employees was included in this study than those used in past research, thereby increasing the external validity of the EVLN model (Cook & Campbell, 1976).

Consistent with the benefits of this online methodology, a recent study by Gosling, Vazire, Srivastava, and John (2004) reported that Internet study findings generalize across presentation formats, are not adversely affected by nonserious or repeat responders, and are consistent with findings from traditional methods. Furthermore, this study used recent conceptualizations of the voice subscale that were not measured in prior studies examining the EVLN model. To this end, hypotheses investigating both the individual and combined effects of the personality and work predictors of an employee's reactions to job dissatisfaction in the workplace were examined.

Summary of Findings

Consistent with the past research, the results of this study suggest that both work and personality variables can significantly predict the way in which employees respond to problematic events at work. More importantly, these predictors demonstrated differential

relationships with the five EVLN response categories such that certain predictors had stronger relationships with the constructive/destructive responses while others had stronger relationships with the active/passive responses. With respect to the work situational predictors, several hypothesized relationships were supported. More specifically, prior job satisfaction and investment size were positively related to considerate voice and loyalty and negatively related to exit and neglect responses. Perceived leader support was also positively related to considerate voice and negatively related to exit and neglect. Furthermore, perceptions of organizational justice demonstrated the most differential relationships with all five EVLN responses, exhibiting positive correlations with considerate voice and loyalty and negative correlations with aggressive voice, exit, and neglect. Contrary to expectations, the quality of job alternatives predictor did not exhibit acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .37$) to warrant the interpretation of results related to this variable. Despite this, the overall reported results for the work situational predictors were quite encouraging.

Along with the work situational predictors, the personality predictors also displayed several significant relationships with the five EVLN response categories. As hypothesized, proactive personality and extraversion tended to demonstrate the strongest correlations with the active responses to job dissatisfaction, whereas self-control and negative affect tended to exhibit the strongest correlations with the destructive responses. Specifically, employees who reported high levels of extraversion tended to increase considerate voice and decrease aggressive voice and loyalty responses. Similarly, those employees with higher levels of proactive personality were more likely to demonstrate considerate voice and less likely to display aggressive voice reactions. Moreover, those

employees with higher levels of self-control were less likely to engage in aggressive voice, exit, and neglect responses. Lastly, negative affect exhibited the most differential relationships with the EVLN model, displaying positive correlations with aggressive voice, exit, and neglect behaviors and a negative correlation with considerate voice.

Additionally, congruent with the interactionist perspective, the inclusion of the personality predictors into the hierarchical regression equation accounted for a significant proportion of incremental variance in the considerate voice, aggressive voice, exit, and neglect response categories beyond that accounted for by the work situational predictors alone. The personality predictors did not explain incremental variance in the loyalty responses. This is consistent with the importance analysis which demonstrated that the loyalty responses were predominantly predicted by the work situational variables.

While the hierarchical regression analyses demonstrated that the personality variables explained unique variance in four of the five EVLN response categories, the importance analysis went one step further to examine how much of that unique variance was accounted for by each predictor. That is, the results of the importance analysis suggest that certain personality and work predictors are more influential than others in impacting an employee's decision to respond to a dissatisfying event at work. More specifically, the personality predictors tended to play a dominant role in predicting the neglect, aggressive voice, and considerate voice responses, whereas the work predictors were more influential in predicting the exit and loyalty responses. Furthermore, the results also indicated that some responses were predicted primarily by either the personality or work situational predictors alone, while other responses were predicted by a combination of the two types of predictors. For example, exit and loyalty responses

were predicted primarily by work variables, whereas aggressive voice was predicted solely by personality variables. The continued pursuit of this type of information can increase the effectiveness of the EVLN model to represent a diagnostic tool for practitioners. That is, practitioners could use this information to target their training and development budget dollars towards the most influential predictors of each EVLN response category. If anything, this research may help practitioners make more informed decisions when deciding what strategies to use for effectively dealing with employee dissatisfaction.

Although several of the predictors played a dominant role in impacting an employee's decision to respond to a problematic event at work, a closer investigation of the open-ended comments shed some insightful light on the potential existence of other predictors that may also play a role. That is, several responses to questions prompting employees to describe a recent problematic event at work and to list the key factors that impacted their decision for choosing how they would respond, indicated that the weak economic conditions, high unemployment rate, and feelings of job insecurity were major drivers for choosing their first response when reacting to job dissatisfaction. This is evident by the following sample comments: "The only job dissatisfaction I have is that the current economy is so unstable that for the first time I am fearing job insecurity", "...I am more satisfied or appreciative to have a job more than I am worried about getting a raise or bonus at year end", "Desire for stability of long-term relationship with employer", "...the economy has played a strong part in our current conditions...", and "There is a general attitude here where many employees have been told to keep a happy attitude or they would be replaced by people clamoring for jobs from the outside. When

you are threatened in this way there isn't much you can do from within the organization..." Based upon these comments, perceptions of economic conditions and the ability to deal with feelings of job insecurity may represent important predictors that future researchers should examine with respect to the EVLN model. On that note, the next section describes several additional suggestions for future research.

Areas for Future Research

At this point, it would be misleading to summarize the results of this study without acknowledging the possibility that various other organizational (e.g., economic conditions, fear of retaliation) and personality factors (e.g., conscientiousness) also may contribute to the prediction of how employees respond to job dissatisfaction. Future research should continue to explore the role of additional predictors to be represented in the EVLN model, thus allowing for a more inclusive perspective of the conditions that can influence an employee's response to job dissatisfaction. At the same time, it is recommended that researchers continue to utilize importance analysis when conducting future studies on the predictors of the EVLN response categories. These results can offer valuable diagnostic information for practitioners to utilize when targeting the most influential predictors of each response category.

Furthermore, although precluded by the participant size in this study, future research should also examine the potential interactive effects between the personality and situational variables when predicting how employees react to job dissatisfaction. It is hypothesized that constructive behaviors, such as considerate voice, could be intensified when employees with certain personality variables are placed in conducive work environments that provide opportunities for, rather than constraints on, individual

behavior. More specifically, extraverted and proactive employees would probably be more likely to manifest considerate voice behaviors when they have supportive relationships with their manager (high LMX) and perceive their organization's procedures and policies to be fair. This example is just one of the numerous interactive effects that could be explored in future research.

Study Limitations

While these results offer several avenues for future research, the present study has some limitations that should also be considered. First, perhaps the most significant limitation of the present research design was the threat of common method variance, since all of the data was collected via self-reports. Nevertheless, reasonable steps were taken to minimize the impact of method variance on the results of this study.

Specifically, confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to improve the psychometric qualities of each instrument and different scaling methods were used to measure the constructs (e.g., Likert scales, trait-descriptive scales, open-ended questions, and rank-ordering).

Second, another limitation pertains to the fact that this research did not examine the actual behavior of the employees, only their intentions to perform the EVLN response category behaviors. While research has clearly demonstrated that intentions frequently translate into behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), the relationship between intentional and actual responses to job dissatisfaction needs to be explored further in actual work settings.

Additionally, while the population in this study did originate from a variety of Northern and Southern parts of the United States, the results may not generalize to other

work settings with employees of different ages and ethnic backgrounds. Future research using more diverse samples would provide further evidence on the generalizability of the present findings.

Lastly, another potential concern is the low reliabilities reported for the quality of job alternatives scale and the aggressive voice subscale. More specifically, this suggests that both of these scales need additional refinement in future research in order to depict a more accurate picture of their relationships with the EVLN response categories. Moving forward, researchers should continue to refine these scales and expand the realm of possible predictors that should be included in the EVLN model.

Practical Implications

On an applied level, the present research offers several implications for training, selection, and organizational policies. As the results suggest, certain aspects of an employee's environment, such as their relationship with their manager and their perceptions of fairness, can greatly impact how that employee manages their reaction to problems at work. That said, organizations would benefit if they trained supervisors to manage employee perceptions of fairness and to develop supportive relationships with their direct reports. Past research has documented the effectiveness of organizational justice researchers to train managers in ways to promote fairness. For example, Cole and Latham (1997) trained supervisors on six key aspects of procedural justice: (1) explanation of the performance problem, (2) the demeanor of the supervisor, (3) subordinates' control over the process, (4) arbitrariness, (5) employee counseling, and (6) privacy. Furthermore, research by Saunders, Sheppard, Knight, and Roth (1992) reported that supervisors who were perceived to be approachable and responsive had

employees who were more likely to voice concerns when problems arose. Therefore, managerial training programs that included these principles as well as training on interpersonal skills that help to foster high LMX employee relationships, may help supervisors to be better equipped to handle employee dissatisfaction and to minimize the occurrence of the more destructive responses to job dissatisfaction.

Along with training implications, the ability of the personality predictors to account for significant amounts of variance in the EVLN response categories, also suggests that these predictors may be used to supplement decisions in employee selection programs. That is, it may be beneficial for organizations to attract and hire employees who possess personality characteristics that are positively associated with the more desirable responses to job dissatisfaction and negatively related to the more destructive ones (e.g., higher levels of extraversion, proactive personality, and self-control). Having employees who possess these characteristics may be particularly relevant for jobs that involve stressful circumstances and require individuals to cope with problematic events on a regular basis, such as nurses, negotiators, air traffic controllers, police officers, or employees who work with hazardous chemicals. Furthermore, with the changing nature of work that forces organizations to accept large-scale downsizing and restructuring projects to remain competitive, selecting leaders who tend to promote positive and constructive responses to challenging and stressful events such as these, could potentially reduce the frequency of negative responses displayed by employees.

Finally, the results of the importance analysis can provide practitioners with diagnostic information that could help them make more effective decisions for dealing with how employees respond to job dissatisfaction. That is, when faced with limited

training and development resources, practitioners can use this information to target the most influential predictors for each response and maximize their chances of fostering the more constructive and active employee responses to job dissatisfaction.

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APPENDIX
EXAMPLE OF ON-LINE SURVEY IN WORD FORMAT

The University of Tennessee
A Survey of Work Attitudes and Responses

Dear employee,

My name is Michelle Roberts and I am currently pursuing a Ph.D. in Industrial and Organizational Psychology at the University of Tennessee in the Department of Management. The purpose of this survey is to learn more about how employees respond to problems at work. Since the accuracy of the results is dependent upon the number of participants, your response is VERY IMPORTANT for this study. With that in mind, I would appreciate if you would take the time to complete this on-line assessment. Your participation is completely voluntary. This survey is relatively short and should only take approximately 17-18 minutes to complete. The survey is optimized for viewing in Netscape and Internet Explorer. If you can not access the survey or if you would prefer to complete a paper copy, you can contact me by phone or e-mail and I will mail you one. The deadline for completion of the on-line survey is XXXX, 2003.

Please be assured that your responses will remain completely confidential, and that **no one** other than myself and my University of Tennessee research team will see your completed on-line questionnaire. No personal identification information will be reported back to your company. If you would like a copy of my research report you can request a copy by e-mailing. The report should be available by January/February 2004. Your response is extremely important to me and I appreciate your participation. Please feel free to call me at (865) 974-1677 or e-mail any questions or concerns to mrobert7@utk.edu. By continuing to the next page, you have read the above information and agree to participate in this study.

Sincere thanks and appreciation,

Michelle Roberts
Ph.D. Candidate, Industrial and Organizational Psychology

Instructions

The following questions represent biographical data that will ONLY be used for statistical purposes. Your responses will be kept confidential.

- 1 What is your name? _____
- 2 What is your age? _____
- 3 Are you male or female? Male Female
- 4 What is your race or ethnicity? White Black Hispanic Asian Other
- 5 What company do you work for? _____
- 6 What is your current position title? _____
- 7 In which functional group or department do you work? _____
- 8 Please indicate in years and months how long you have occupied your current job position? _____
- 9 Please indicate in years and months how long you have worked for your company in total? _____

		Strongly Disagree					Strongly Agree	
10	All things considered, in the past, I have been very satisfied with my current job?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Generally speaking, there are things uniquely associated with this job that I would lose if I decided to leave (e.g., retirement money, job security, friends at work, and training, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	If I left this job, my next job would probably be as good or better than the job I have now?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	If I had to decide all over again whether or not to take the job I have now, I definitely would?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	As of the past month, I would rate the quality (e.g., in terms of pay, working conditions, supervision, and etc.) of my job alternatives as good?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Instructions

The items below inquire about the relationship between you and your supervisor. Please circle your response using the scales below each question.

1. How flexible do you believe your supervisor is about evolving change in *your* job?
 - 1 = My supervisor sees no need for change.
 - 2 = My supervisor sees little need to change.
 - 3 = My supervisor is lukewarm to change.
 - 4 = My supervisor is enthused about change.

2. Regardless of how much formal organizational authority your supervisor has built into his/her position, what are the chances that he/she would be personally inclined to use his/her power to help *you* solve problems in your work?
 - 1 = My supervisor would not.
 - 2 = My supervisor might or might not.
 - 3 = My supervisor probably would.
 - 4 = My supervisor certainly would.

3. To what extent can *you* count on *your* supervisor to “bail you out” at his/her expense, when you really need him/her to?
 - 1 = My supervisor would not.
 - 2 = My supervisor might or might not.
 - 3 = My supervisor probably would.
 - 4 = My supervisor certainly would.

4. How often do you take suggestions regarding *your* work to your supervisor?
 - 1 = Never
 - 2 = Seldom
 - 3 = Usually
 - 4 = Almost Always

5. How would you characterize *your* working relationship with *your* supervisor?
 - 1 = Less than average
 - 2 = About average
 - 3 = Better than average
 - 4 = Extremely effective

Instructions

The items below inquire about the various procedures and formal policies your company has for dealing with employee problems at work (e.g., employee complaints, grievance claims, procedures used to communicate employee feedback, and etc.). Use the scale shown below going from 1=Strongly Disagree to 7=Strongly Agree when answering these questions.

		Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
1	My company makes certain that employees have an opportunity to express their views when resolving work problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	In the past, when resolving problems at work, I felt that I got what I deserved.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	My company's procedures and policies for resolving work problems insure the utilization of accurate and unbiased information.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Given the seriousness of previous work problems, the outcomes have been fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I believe the procedures and policies my company uses to handle employee complaints and problems are fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I believe the results of prior work problems were appropriate for the amount of effort I put forth in resolving them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I feel there are several opportunities at my work to voice my opinion concerning problems and complaints that I might have.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	In general, the results of employee problems at work have been fair.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Instructions

This scale consists of a number of words that describe feelings and emotions. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on average. Please circle the response that best describes you. Use the scale shown below going from 1=Very Slightly or not at all to 5=Extremely when answering these questions.

		Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
1	Interested	1	2	3	4	5
2	Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
3	Excited	1	2	3	4	5
4	Upset	1	2	3	4	5
5	Strong	1	2	3	4	5
6	Guilty	1	2	3	4	5
7	Scared	1	2	3	4	5
8	Hostile	1	2	3	4	5
9	Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5
10	Proud	1	2	3	4	5
11	Irritable	1	2	3	4	5
12	Alert	1	2	3	4	5
13	Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5
14	Inspired	1	2	3	4	5
15	Nervous	1	2	3	4	5
16	Determined	1	2	3	4	5
17	Attentive	1	2	3	4	5
18	Jittery	1	2	3	4	5
19	Active	1	2	3	4	5
20	Afraid	1	2	3	4	5

Instructions

The items below inquire about what kind of person you think you are. Indicate to what extent you generally feel this way, that is, how you feel on average. Please circle the response that best describes you. Use the scale shown below going from 1=Strongly Disagree to 7=Strongly Agree when answering these questions.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neutral	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

		Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
1	I am constantly on the lookout for new ways to improve my life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I feel comfortable around people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am not easily affected by my emotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I feel driven to make a difference in my community, and maybe the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I have little to say.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I never spend more than I can afford.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I tend to let others take the initiative to start new projects.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I make friends easily.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I experience very few emotional highs and lows.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Wherever I have been, I have been a powerful force for constructive change.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I keep in the background.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I act wild and crazy.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I enjoy facing and overcoming obstacles to my ideas.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I am skilled in handling social situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I demand attention.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

16	Nothing is more exciting than seeing my ideas turn into reality.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	I would describe my experiences as somewhat dull.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	I use flattery to get ahead.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	If I see something I don't like, I fix it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	I am the life of the party.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	I do crazy things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	No matter what the odds, if I believe in something I will make it happen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	I don't like to draw attention to myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	I make rash decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	I love being a champion for my ideas, even against others' opposition.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	I know how to captivate people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	I use swear words.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	I excel at identifying opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	I don't talk a lot.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	I make a lot of noise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	I am always looking for better ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	I stick to the rules.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	If I believe in an idea, no obstacle will prevent me from making it happen.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	I am always prepared.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	I love to challenge the status quo.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	I choose my words with care.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	When I have a problem, I tackle it head-on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	I would never cheat on my taxes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

39	I am great at turning problems into opportunities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40	I waste my time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41	I can spot a good opportunity long before others can.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42	I jump into things without thinking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43	If I see someone in trouble, I help out in any way I can.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44	I avoid mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Instructions

Everybody occasionally encounters a problem or problematic event at work. This can be a difference of opinion with your supervisor, ambiguous instructions, frustrations with regard to the behavior of co-workers, lack of resources to perform your job effectively, and etc. People tend to react differently to these experiences. On the following pages, several descriptions of possible reactions are listed. Would you indicate how likely it is that you would react to problematic events in the described ways? Please circle your agreement with these items using the scale shown below.

Definitely Would Not
React This Way When
Dissatisfied At Work

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Definitely Would
React This Way When
Dissatisfied At Work

		Definitely Would Not			Definitely Would			
1	I would think about quitting my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	I would try to come to an understanding with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I would describe the problem as negatively as possible to my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I would hang in there and wait for the problem to go away.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I would take a lot of breaks or not work as hard.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I would give notice that I intended to quit.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	In collaboration with my supervisor, I would try to find a solution that is satisfactory to everybody.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I would stick with my job through the good times and bad times.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	I would lose motivation to do my job as well as I might otherwise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I would accept an alternative job offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I would try to work out an ideal solution in collaboration with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I would deliberately make the problem sound more problematic than it really is.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	I would think that my job was probably as good as most.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	I would show up late because I wasn't in the mood for work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	I would quit my current job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Together with my supervisor, explore each other's opinions until the problems are solved.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17	I would patiently wait for the problem to disappear.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	I would call in sick occasionally because I didn't feel like working.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	I would consider possibilities to change jobs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	I would try to compromise with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	I would start a 'fight' with my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	I would trust the decision-making process of the organization without my interference.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	I would put less effort into my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	I would actively look for a job outside my field of education.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	I would talk with my supervisor about the problem until I reached total agreement.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	I would try to prove in all possible ways to my supervisor that I was right.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	I would trust the organization to solve the problem without my help.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	I would intend to change employers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	I would suggest solutions to my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	By definition, I would blame the organization for the problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	I would have faith that something like this would be taken care of by the organization without my contributing to the problem-solving process.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	I would actively look for a job elsewhere within my field of education.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	I would immediately report the problem to my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	I would assume that in the end everything will work out.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	I would look for job advertisements in newspapers to which I could apply.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	I would immediately try to find a solution.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	I would optimistically wait for better times.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	I would intend to change my field of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	I would try to think of different solutions to the problem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40	I would ask my supervisor for a compromise.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Instructions

The previous items represent 5 general categories of responses that employees can utilize when reacting to job dissatisfaction. A brief definition of each category is provided below.

Category Number	Definition
1	Refers to leaving the organization by quitting, transferring, searching for a different job, or thinking about quitting.
2	Refers to attempts to solve the problem considering one's own concerns as well as those of the organization.
3	Consists of efforts to directly resolve the problem in one's favor without necessarily considering the concerns of the organization.
4	Refers to passively, but optimistically, waiting for conditions to improve by giving public and private support to the organization, waiting and hoping for improvement, or practicing good citizenship.
5	Refers to passively allowing conditions to deteriorate through reduced interest or effort, chronic lateness or absences, using company time for personal business, or contributing to an increased error rate.

In general, when you respond to a problematic event at work that causes you to be dissatisfied, which particular category number (e.g., 1, 2, etc.) would you be most likely to respond with 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, and 5th. Please write your answers below.

1 st Choice	
2 nd Choice	
3 rd Choice	
4 th Choice	
5 th Choice	

Please list the key factors that impacted your decision for choosing your 1st and 2nd choices?

Please describe an event that recently caused you dissatisfaction at work? How severe was that event and how did you resolve the problem?

VITA

Michelle L. Roberts was born on April 1, 1976 in Lexington, Kentucky. She was raised by her parents, Lester and Joan, and has an older sister Annie. After graduating from Paul Lawrence Dunbar in 1994, Michelle attended the University of Kentucky where she received the Mary Agnes Gordon Scholarship and the award for Outstanding Senior Honor Thesis from the Department of Psychology. Following this award, her honor thesis was presented at the 42nd Annual Meeting of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society. She graduated summa cum laude with a Bachelor of Arts in Psychology and a minor in Business in May, 1998. Immediately following graduation, she moved to Knoxville, Tennessee to pursue a doctoral degree in Industrial and Organizational Psychology from the University of Tennessee. This degree was presented in May of 2004.

While completing here doctorate, Michelle received a Graduate Student Merit Scholarship for 1999-2000. In addition, she was involved with several applied projects including managerial training and consulting for Ruby Tuesdays, Inc. between the years 2000 and 2001 and assessing and role playing for the Tennessee Assessment Center during the years 1999 and 2003. Furthermore, she served as the lead leadership development facilitator for the Professional MBA program which involved executive coaching, individual assessment, and the development of program guidelines between the years 2001 and 2003. Along with her consulting work, Michelle had the opportunity to present two of her research papers at the Annual Meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology for 2002 and 2003.

Michelle is currently employed as a Career Development Consultant for Lowe's Companies Inc. located at the headquarters in Mooresville, NC. Her work involves targeting areas of employee development, the creation of succession planning career paths, executive coaching and mentoring, and the design of Assessment Centers. In her free time, she enjoys playing golf and tennis, gardening, spending time with her family, and watching SEC sports.