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EMPLOYEE VALUE CONGRUENCE WITH SUPERVISORS AND COWORKERS:
A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

A Thesis

Presented to

the Faculty of the Department of Psychology

San Jose State University

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science

by

Rachel Pickworth

December 2005

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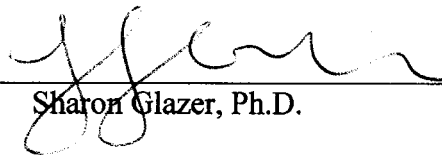
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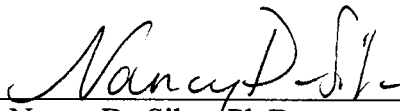
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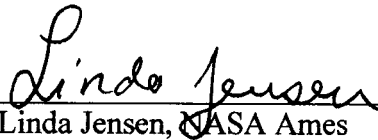
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ABSTRACT

EMPLOYEE VALUE CONGRUENCE WITH SUPERVISORS AND COWORKERS: A CROSS-CULTURAL STUDY

By Rachel Pickworth

This thesis examines the relationship between employee-supervisor and employee-coworker value congruence with stressors and strains, and whether one's culture (communal or contractual) moderates this relationship. Data from a total of 1,136 nurses in Hungary, Italy, the UK, and the USA were obtained. Correlations indicated that some stressors and strains increased when nurses upheld certain values more than her supervisor(s) and coworkers did, particularly for the higher-order value openness to change. Regression analyses indicated that culture, in terms of communal versus contractual, has minimal impact on the relationship between value congruence and both stressors and strains. Implications of the findings are discussed in terms of theory and practice.

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INTRODUCTION

Over the past 50 years, values research has captivated the interest of managers and applied behavioral psychologists because of the expansive evidence showing that individuals' values influence their behaviors (Kluckhohn, 1951, as cited in Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989), well-being (Jensen & Bergin, 1988) perception of others (Rokeach, 1973), and formation of goals (Meglino et al., 1989). Research not only focuses on values that individuals uphold, but it also focuses on values that organizations espouse and how the adherence to values may drive or hinder an organization's success. A central component of values research is value congruence.

Value congruence is the extent to which two entities uphold a set of principles to a similar degree (Ashkanasy, & O'Connor, 1997; Kalliath, Bluedorn, & Strube, 1999; Meglino, et al., 1989). Typically, value congruence refers to the extent to which an employee's values are aligned with his or her supervisor's values or the extent to which an employee's values are congruent with his or her organization's values (otherwise referred to as Person-Organization fit; P-O Fit). Congruence is determined by comparing employees' and their supervisors' self-reported values (Ashkanasy & O'Connor) or by comparing employees' self-reported values to their perceptions of their supervisors' or organizations' values (Kalliath, et al.; Meglino et al.).

Numerous studies (e.g., Ashkanasy & O'Connor; Finegan, 2000; Meglino et al.; Posner, 1992) have evidenced strong relationships between value congruence and organizational and individual outcomes. For example, value congruence has been positively linked to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and negatively

linked to intent to quit and actual turnover (George & Jones, 1996; Meglino et al.; O'Reilly, Chatman, & Caldwell, 1991). It appears, therefore, that value *incongruence* could have serious ramifications for employees and organizations, suggesting that value *congruence* (at least to some degree) positively contributes to employees' satisfaction, as well as organizational success.

Organizational commitment, an outcome associated with value congruence (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002; Steers, 1977), has been well-researched, in part, because of its relationship with intention to leave an organization. That is, as organizational commitment increases, intention to leave an organization decreases. Intention to leave an organization, in turn, is important because it is a precursor to actual turnover (Steel & Ovalle, 1984). Voluntary turnover can be detrimental to organizations due to the loss of human capital and the interruption to ongoing work activities. Furthermore, turnover costs organizations millions of dollars each year because of "wasted" money spent on selection and hiring activities (Wisdom, 1984).

Although outcomes associated with employee-supervisor value congruence and P-O fit have been widely explored, coworkers' value congruence and its influence on organizational outcomes tends to be overlooked (Dose, 1997). The research that does exist on coworker's value congruence shows that individuals who prioritize values similarly to their coworkers tend to be better able to predict each others' behaviors, which leads to clearer role expectations (Kluckhohn, 1951, as cited in Meglino et al., 1989). Clear role expectations result in decreased role ambiguity and role conflict, and

consequently increased organizational commitment (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983). These findings suggest that value congruence between coworkers may be of great importance influencing individual and organizational outcomes, and therefore is a topic that this thesis will further explore.

Another facet of values research that has been largely ignored in organizational studies is the influence of culture in shaping individuals' values. Glazer, Daniel, and Short (2004) found that the values people espouse can be partially attributed to their culture. For example, individuals in communal cultures are more likely to adhere to self-transcendence values, that is, values that reflect universalism and benevolence (Schwartz, 1992; see Table 1 for definitions). As the demographic make-up of organizations becomes more diverse (Johnston & Packer, 1987) and the emphasis on teams and/or groups to accomplish work tasks increases (Sundstrom, DeMeuse, & Futrell, 1990), there is an increasing need to understand the effects of group composition on organizational outcomes. Comparing value congruence among coworkers within different cultural contexts can be a stepping stone in that direction. That is, examining the extent to which value congruence affects organizational outcomes in different cultures can provide insight into the possible effects cultural background would have on other group interactions, in which the groups are comprised of multiple nationalities. This thesis, therefore, will examine the impact that culture has on the relationship between value congruence (between employees and both their coworker(s) and supervisor(s)) and stress-related variables (i.e., stressors and strains).

In summary, the purpose of this thesis is to address the following research questions: 1) to what extent does value congruence between employees and their supervisors relate to employees' role stressors, organizational commitment, job anxiety, and intention to leave, 2) to what extent does value congruence among coworkers (i.e., between employees and their coworkers) relate to employees' role stressors, organizational commitment, job anxiety, and intention to leave, and 3) does culture moderate the extent to which employee-supervisor and employee-coworker value congruence are associated with role stressors, commitment, job anxiety, and intention to leave?

In the following literature review, definitions of the main study variables will be reviewed first. Second, the theoretical foundations for this research will be established. Third, explanations and exploration of culture's influence on value congruence will be discussed. Fourth, hypotheses will be delineated. Following the literature review, the methods used to conduct this research study will be described. Finally, the results and discussion sections will state and explain the research findings of this study. Survey items pertaining to this study, Human-Subjects Institutional Review Board Approval Letter, tables 1-7 and Figure 1 are presented in Appendices A, B, C and D, respectively.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Definitions of Main Study Variables

Values. A number of applied psychologists have attempted to define and/or conceptualize what constitutes a value. Kluckhohn (1951, cited by Meglino et al., 1989), defined values as the principles by which goals are determined or behaviors are influenced; they tend to be general in nature, enduring, and integral to an individual's identity. Rokeach (1973) stated that a value is "an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of existence is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state existence" (p. 5). Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) maintained that a value is an idea or belief about favorable behaviors that transcends situations and influences behaviors as well as the evaluation of behaviors and events. Schwartz (1987) asserted that all value definitions have five elements in common. Namely, all definitions infer that values are: "(1) concepts or beliefs, (2) about desirable end states and behaviors, (3) that transcend specific situations, (4) guide selection/evaluation of behaviors and events, (5) and are ordered by relative importance" (p. 551). That there are numerous definitions for values is indicative of the breadth of value research, and perhaps alludes to the importance of one's values across various contexts.

Just as there are multiple definitions of values, there are also numerous ways to categorize values. For example, Dose (1997) posited that values could be categorized as either moral values versus preference values and personal values versus social consensus values. When individuals determine that something is right or wrong they are making

moral value judgments. Preference values entail no moral judgments and instead are preferences for one thing over another. Personal values are usually formed by direct experience. Social consensus values are characterized as values formed by a general consensus of people that the value is acceptable. Social consensus values typically form as a result of social influence. Schwartz (1992) proposed that values could be categorized into one of the four higher-order value types (see Table 1): self-transcendence (e.g., universalism), self-enhancement (e.g., power), openness to change (e.g., stimulation), or conservation (e.g., tradition). The categorization of values into four higher-order values will be utilized for this study as this categorization is thought to be more stable and generalizable than assessing values individually (Schwartz, 1994, as cited in Glazer et al., 2004). It is conjectured that social values and conservation value types are similar in that they both may be imposed on group members so that the group is able to survive. Moreover, moral values may be parallel to self-transcendence values in that those who uphold these values uphold ideals, such as, benevolence. Studying the conceptual similarity of these values, however, will not be further explored in this study, although the information might guide explanation for the findings.

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is the extent to which an individual identifies and is involved with his or her organization (Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974). This definition suggests that organizational commitment is based on an individual's identification with an organization's values and goals (Virtanen, 2000). There are three types of organizational commitment, including affective commitment, continuance commitment, and normative commitment.

Affective commitment is an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with strong affective commitment continue to work in organizations because they *want* to (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

Continuance commitment is an employee's recognition of the drawbacks associated with leaving an organization. Employees with continuance commitment remain in an organization because they *need* to (Meyer & Allen). Normative commitment is an employee's feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees experiencing high levels of normative commitment feel that they *should* remain with an organization (Meyer & Allen). The lattermost commitment type will not be studied here, as the archival data used did not assess normative commitment.

Intention to leave. Intention to leave is defined as an employee's intention to sever employment from his or her employer (George & Jones, 1996). Intention to leave is associated with organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Steers, 1977) and is also the greatest predictor of actual turnover (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993).

Job anxiety. Anxiety is a psychological strain response resulting from a stressor or stressors (Beehr, 1998). Anxiety is characterized by a general feeling of worry, apprehension, and uneasiness (Quick, Quick, Nelson, & Hurrell, 1997). An environmental stressor that can bring about anxiety is value incongruence between an individual and the prevailing social environment (Jamal, 1984). However, when individuals' hierarchy value is consistent with their environments' value for hierarchy, individuals are more likely to express their values, reach their goals (Sagiv & Schwartz,

2000), and thus experience increased positive well-being (Feather, 1975; Finegan, 2000, O'Reilly et al., 1991). Conversely, personal well-being decreases and anxiety might increase when individuals are not able to express their values and meet their goals (Schwartz, Sagiv, & Boehnke, 2000). When the term anxiety is used in this thesis, if not otherwise specified, it refers to work anxiety as it is anxiety experienced at or because of work stressors.

Role stressors. A workplace stressor is defined as any condition in an employee's job or environment that requires an adaptive response (Beehr & Newman, 1978; Quick et al., 1997). A role stressor is a type of workplace stressor that reflects the interpretation a person in a given work role might make of expectations transmitted by one or more persons in one's role set (Beehr & Glazer, 2005). Examples of role stressors include role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload (Beehr & Glazer; Glazer & Beehr, 2005; Quick et al., 1997). Employees experience role conflict when they receive conflicting sets of behavioral expectations set forth by others in the workplace, making it hard or impossible to meet all sets of expectations. Role ambiguity occurs when employees receive unclear, confusing, or inadequate information about behavioral expectations, ways to fulfill behavioral expectations, and consequences of meeting or not meeting behavioral expectations. Role overload is when an individual is expected to perform too many behaviors, or the behaviors are too complex or hard for the employee to perform.

Theoretical Foundation

Attraction-selection-(socialization)-attrition. Values that individuals' espouse result in the formation of norms and social expectations, and, in part, contribute to the

development of organizational culture (Schneider, 1987). The development of an organization's culture based on values manifests and reinforces itself through a four-part cycle known as Attraction-Selection-(Socialization)-Attrition (AS(S)A) (Schneider, Smith, Taylor, & Fleenor, 1998).

AS(S)A is a framework used to explain why employees with similar values tend to work within the same or similar organizations (George, 1990; Ostroff & Rothausen, 1997; Schneider et al., 1998). Attraction is the extent to which organizations are perceived to be attractive by applicants and the degree to which applicants perceive the organization's values to match their own. Selection is the organizations' formal or informal method for choosing employees whose values match the work environment. Socialization is the process by which new employees are integrated into the organization. Lastly, when employees find themselves in organizations that support values different from their own, employees tend to leave those organizations. This phenomenon is known as attrition. Schneider's AS(A)A framework shows the importance of value congruence for employees and organizations in terms of recruitment, selection, and retention of employees. The AS(S)A framework also shows that value congruence is the crux of Person-Organization (P-O) fit. That is, P-O fit is most influenced by the extent to which employees and organizations share a set of values.

Person-organization fit. Kristof (1996) defined P-O fit as "the compatibility between people and organizations that occurs when: (a) at least one entity provides what the other needs, or (b) they share similar fundamental characteristics, or (c) both" (p. 4-5). Fit, therefore, describes a relationship between an employee and the whole

organization, as opposed to a relationship between an employee and a specific job, career, or group. P-O fit is actually a generic term for a comparison between an organization and a person on any commensurate construct. Constructs measured in P-O fit include values, personality, and goals, with values being the most commonly examined (Verquer, Beehr, & Wagner, 2001). Values are measured most frequently in P-O fit research because of the great influence they have on employee and organizational outcomes. Values are influential because they represent what is most important to employees and to organizations (Kabanoff, Waldersee, & Cohen, 1995). Moreover, when employees and organizations uphold a set of values to a similar degree it results in positive outcomes, including job satisfaction (George & Jones, 1996; Meglino et al., 1989; O' Reilly et al., 1991), organizational commitment (Meglino et al., 1989; O'Reilly et al., 1991), intention to leave (George & Jones), positive work attitudes (Posner, 1992), and actual turnover (Schneider, 1987). Also, P-O fit significantly predicts normative commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to leave an organization, even after controlling for age, gender, and tenure (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Burke (2001) found that managerial women, employed by organizations that uphold values conducive to work-personal life balance, report increased job and career satisfaction, greater family satisfaction, more positive emotional well-being, decreased work stress, less intention to leave, and lower incidences of psychosomatic symptoms, even after accounting for hours worked, overtime, and job involvement.

Recognizing the importance of value congruence, many organizations have established programs to encourage such congruence in order to increase effectiveness and

sustainability (Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991). Disney, Boeing, Hewlett-Packard, IBM (Collins, 1995) and Bank of America (Beck, 1987) have all implemented programs to increase value and behavior consistency across their organizations. Just as high P-O fit results in positive outcomes for individuals and organizations, employee-supervisor value congruence also results in higher quality relationships and ultimately greater commitment to managers.

Leader-member exchange. Leader Member Exchange (LMX) is a theory that describes the quality of social exchange between leaders and subordinates which influences how well leaders treat subordinates (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). LMX relationships are categorized as either high or low exchange (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997). In low exchange relationships employees are more likely to be assigned to unpopular jobs and to have fewer opportunities to interact with leaders (Ashkanasy & O'Connor). In high exchange relationships employees are granted more independence, better job assignments, and increased face-time with leaders (Ashkanasy & O'Connor).

The quality of LMX relationships are predicted by demographic variables and partially explained by employee-supervisor similarities (Duchon, Green, & Taber, 1986). Dienesch and Liden (1986) proposed that LMX is a two-part process. In part one, leaders and employees respond to initial impressions of the other's demographic and personal characteristics, including values. In part two, leaders evaluate subordinates' performance, attribute causes of performance, and then determine the quality of the exchange. In the present study it is the first part of LMX that will be examined.

This part of the model implies that perceptions of value dissimilarity early on in a relationship can stunt LMX and subsequently congruence. Although LMX is not studied, nor are impressions, actual value congruence is measured and analyzed. It is conjectured that when leaders and subordinates share similar values, stressors and strains would be reduced.

Employee-supervisor value congruence. Employee-supervisor value congruence is the extent to which an employee and his or her supervisor uphold a set of values to a similar degree (Ashkanasy, & O'Connor, 1997; Kalliath et al., 1999; Meglino et al., 1989). When employee-supervisor value congruence is high, employees typically experience positive outcomes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, particularly for longer tenured employees (Meglino et al.). Similarly, Ashkanasy and O'Connor showed that employees and supervisors who uphold achievement and obedience values to a similar degree are more likely to experience higher leader member exchange (LMX) relationships. Vancouver and Schmitt (1991) examined goal congruence between teachers and principals and found that as congruence increased, organizational commitment increased. Thus, it is expected that congruence (versus incongruence) will lead to greater commitment, and lower role stressors, job anxiety, and intention to leave.

Team-member exchange. Team Member Exchange (TMX) is a parallel concept to LMX except that TMX describes the relationship and reciprocity of a team member and his or her peer group instead of his or her leader (Seers, 1989). Like LMX, TMX is influenced by values (Dose, 1999). When individuals in a group deem different values to

be important there is the possibility for conflict (Senger, 1971), low TMX (Dose), and decreased well-being (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). To examine if an individual's well-being is affected by the extent to which he/she experiences value congruence with peers, Sagiv and Schwartz, compared Israeli university students' values with the overall values of the prevailing environment (i.e., the average of all the student members' values within the same department of their chosen major). Sagiv and Schwartz compared business and psychology majors and found that students who prioritized values that were espoused by other students in the department in which they were majoring reported higher levels of well-being. More precisely, when business students prioritized power and achievement values, typical values espoused by members of business departments, they experienced greater well-being than when they endorsed values that were not in alignment with values held by members of business departments. Similarly, when psychology students prioritized universalism and benevolence values, which are values members of psychology departments espouse too, they experienced greater well-being than when their values were not congruent with the espoused values of psychology department members. Their study supports the notion that an individual's well-being increases when his or her values are congruent with the espoused values of others in his or her environment. Sagiv and Schwartz's study also indicates that it may be worthwhile to examine value congruence among colleagues in a workplace, as this type of value congruence could affect well-being and perhaps other individual or organizational outcomes.

Since values are partially formed through individuals' experiences, and because certain values hold more importance to some people, misalignment of particular values among coworkers could have adverse individual and organizational outcomes (Dose, 1999). For example, certain preference values (e.g., preference for security, preference for surroundings, and teamwork orientation) and some moral values (e.g., Protestant work ethic) are more likely to contribute to LMX and TMX. These findings make sense because the alignment of preference values fosters and upholds procedural norms resulting in easier interpersonal interactions. Moral values (e.g., benevolence, universalism, tradition, security, conformity) are more influential in group exchange than any other type of value because they are so important to individuals (Scott, 1965) and are viewed as standards to which others should adhere (Sabini & Silver, 1978). For these reasons, it is suggested that preference values and some moral values assessed in the current study, such as security and benevolence values, which are part of the higher-order conservation and self-transcendence values, respectively, would likely contribute to greater congruence between individuals' values and their supervisors' and coworkers' values.

Ashkanasy and O'Connor (1997) found that employee-supervisor value congruence on a general set of values is not sufficient to predict high LMX. Instead, employees and supervisors must both particularly value authority, affiliation, and achievement to a similar degree for high LMX relationships to occur. Their research suggests that it is congruence on particular values and in a particular direction that may be associated with specific individual and/or organizational outcomes. Therefore,

organizational outcomes, such as commitment, might not result from general value congruence, but instead might be the result of employee-supervisor congruence on specific values. Similarly, Kalliath et al. (1999) found that organizational commitment, is better predicted by value congruence on particular values (e.g., loyalty, trust, friendliness, risk taking, creative problem solving, and flexibility) when both the employee rates particular values as important and perceives that her organization also upholds the same particular values. Kalliath et al. (1999) found that value congruence in general did not predict organizational commitment but congruence on certain values did. Moreover, Jensen and Bergin (1988) found that upholding self-direction values (e.g., autonomy, freedom), benevolence values (e.g., responsibility, interpersonal, and family relationships), and universalism values (e.g., self-awareness, personal growth) have healthy consequences for individuals, whereas adhering to conformity, tradition, security, and power values have unhealthy consequences for individuals. These studies suggest that adherence to certain values might, in some cases-increase, and in other cases-decrease personal well-being (including factors such as job anxiety). Therefore, it may be useful to examine whether value congruence on specific values are associated with role stressors, organizational commitment, job anxiety, and intention to leave the organization. This could help clarify if congruence on some values is more beneficial than others.

Actual vs. perceived value congruence. Actual value congruence versus perceived value congruence was shown to affect TMX and LMX (Dose, 1999). Actual value congruence is generally determined by assessing each person's values through a

self-administered survey and then determining congruence between Respondent A's responses to values with his or her supervisor's or coworker's responses to the same values. Perceived value congruence is determined by assessing leaders' and team members' perceptions on how their values compare to the others' values. Dose poses two questions to her participants: "Compared to you, how similarly would you say your hall director answered the questions in this section?" and "Compared to you, how similarly would you say other staff answered the questions in this section?" Participants indicated their responses on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (very differently) to 5 (very similarly). Perceived value congruence on certain values (e.g., Protestant work ethic and work environment) predicted LMX. *Actual* value congruence on certain values (e.g., Protestant work ethic, preference for security, preference for surroundings, and teamwork orientation) was associated with TMX. That people were better able to predict team members' scores may be explained by the fact that team members are more likely to know what other team members actually value, whereas in leader-subordinate relationships, subordinates might be less able to accurately guess leaders' values. Since subordinates must rely on their perceptions of leaders' values, these perceptions are what count in determining high LMX relationships. However, in this study, data on what subordinates perceive their supervisors to value were not ascertained and only actual value congruence will be assessed.

Nonetheless, it is argued that employees can inaccurately perceive what their supervisors and/or coworkers value. Therefore, measuring and then comparing what employees, supervisors, and coworkers actually value probably results in a more accurate

understanding of value congruence. In the current study, employees' values will be compared with supervisors' and coworkers' actual values to determine value congruence.

Influence of value congruence on individual outcomes. Based on the above literature review, it is apparent that employees' values play an important role in individual and organizational outcomes. Individuals who prioritize values similarly tend to be better at predicting each others' behaviors and therefore have clearer role expectations of each other (Kluckhohn, 1951, as cited in Meglino et al., 1989). This could result in decreased stressors and increased organizational commitment (Fisher & Gitelson, 1983). Since values are stable over time (Rokeach, 1973), these outcomes become more salient because they are repeatedly experienced. In other words, employees with similar values are more likely to experience multiple positive interpersonal interactions with others because they are better able to predict others' behaviors as a result of low role ambiguity. Also, an employee's satisfaction with agents (coworkers, managers, and subordinates) is partially based on the extent to which an employee perceives these agents as having important values in common with him or her. Therefore, when employees espouse similar values with their supervisors it may result in greater feelings of affect, respect, and trust for their supervisors, leading to increased commitment, decreased role stressors, job anxiety, and intention to leave.

In contrast, employees with dissimilar values are more likely to experience negative interpersonal interactions with each other as a result of not being able to predict each others' behaviors and experience high role ambiguity. Furthermore, employees who experience low value congruence are more likely to report cognitive dissonance (Cable &

DeRue, 2002), which occurs when employees are required to behave in ways that are inconsistent with their beliefs and values. This experience ultimately causes dissatisfaction (Kraimer, 1997), an inability to identify with the organization (Cable & DeRue), and may generate feelings of alienation and resentment (Argyris, 1957). The extent to which value congruence exists has implications not only for individuals, but also for organizations.

What has not been addressed is how stressors and strains are impacted when one places greater priority on values than his/her coworker(s) or supervisor(s). Having strong values has been shown to be associated with a greater sense and certainty of self (i.e., “I know what I stand for”). This might translate into a more positive overall outlook on life resulting in outcomes, such as job satisfaction or organizational commitment (Kalliath et al., 1999). Thus, the direction in which values are incongruent might also provide information as to why stressors and strains develop.

Importance of studying value congruence. There are several reasons why value congruence is important for organizational success (Schein, 1985). First, since employees with compatible values interpret situations and events similarly it increases the effectiveness of interpersonal communication and fosters smoother transactions within the organization. Second, organizations emphasize values that, when adopted by employees, enable the organization to flourish in its existing environment (external adaptation). Third, Brown (1995, cited in Virtanen, 2000) posited that organizations with strong cultures tend to be comprised of employees with aligned goals based on values. When employees’ values and goals are congruent, it facilitates coordination of activities

and goals are congruent, it facilitates coordination of activities and social relations because the same outcome is desired. Moreover, as managers attempt to carry out these goals, motivation and social coordination between employees is stimulated. Fourth, in strong organizational cultures, employees learn from past mistakes. The objective in these kinds of organizations is always to find ways to “do it better” than before in order to achieve particular goals. Fifth, in organizations with strong cultures, there are norms that everyone subscribes to; well-known stories that are passed on; and integrative rituals and ceremonies. These three occurrences enable all employees to have access to similar information and therefore form similar values and goals.

Finally, as previously stated, an outcome of P-O fit and employee-supervisor value congruence is organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is vital for organizational success. Organizational commitment is an important construct primarily because it is strongly associated with employees’ well-being (Posner, 1992), intention to leave (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Steers, 1977), and actual turnover (Meyer et al., 1993).

Stressors and strains experienced by healthcare workers. French and Caplan (1972) asserted that stressor-strain research needs to be occupation-specific because generalizations that are made about stressors and strains across occupations may be inaccurate. This is particularly true for healthcare professionals, as the stressors nurses experience are unique (Calboun & Calboun, 1993; Payne & Firth-Cozens, 1987) to those of physicians or pharmacists. Nurses encounter countless workplace stressors (Wisdom, 1984) and thus many US and British studies utilize samples of nurses to research stressors and strains (Glazer, 1999). Examples of stressors nurses face include serving a

diverse customer base, using high-tech equipment, lack of support, role stressors, minimal job security, and few opportunities for promotion (Lu, Shiau, & Cooper, 1997). Nurses also work in environments where there is little room for error and mistakes that can literally cost patients their lives (Wisdom). Lu et al. found that inadequate guidance was the role stressor nurses reported most frequently. Further, role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload were implicated as antecedents of anxiety, organizational commitment, and intention to leave in Glazer and Beehr's (2005) study.

Another potential antecedent to strains is value incongruence. Examining value congruence in the healthcare industry is particularly fruitful because nurses, who make up the majority of the healthcare professionals (Lu et al., 1997), uphold values that tend to be at odds with their supervisors' and organizations' values. Raelin (1986) found that healthcare workers might experience low P-O fit because they are considered professionals whose values are at odds with management's values. Professionals across occupations typically value autonomy, excellence, ethics, customer service, and meaningful and challenging work. Management, however, tends to value close supervision, control, work standardization, and productivity. Moreover, third-party financiers and the government are increasingly enforcing regulations so that hospitals are run like businesses where the primary objectives are efficiency and productivity (Vandenberghe, 1999). Most likely this Modus Operandi is at odds with the values of those working in healthcare, who are more likely to value helping behaviors and encouraging health and well-being (Glazer & Beehr, 2002). The extent to which nurses experience value congruence is significant because its presence (or lack thereof) can have

consequences for the health of the nurses, the hospitals in which they work, and the patients to which they tend.

Human values. In the present study, nurses' values will be measured using Schwartz's (1992) Values Survey (SVS). Based on an assessment of 57 values, 10 value types were developed. These value types, or motivational goals, include power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, tradition, conformity, and security (see Table 1). Each value is defined in terms of its primary goal, followed in parentheses by specific values that represent it. Schwartz's human values were derived from a theory of universals, meaning they represent distinct motivations or values that occur for all people, regardless of background or culture (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000).

According to Schwartz (1992), to pursue a value an individual will behave in a way that has psychological, practical, and/or social consequences, which may be compatible with or at odds with pursuing another value. To represent the relationship between values, Schwartz's 10 human values are often depicted in a Smallest Space Analysis so that value types that are compatible with each other are in close proximity on the chart, and values that oppose each other are on opposite sides of the circular chart. This representation of the relationship between the 10 human values has been tested cross-culturally in over 155 samples and 55 countries (Schwartz, 1994; Schwartz & Sagiv, 1995).

Schwartz's (1992) 10 human value types can also be grouped into four higher-order values that are diametrically opposed (see Table 1). These higher-order value types

are self-enhancement (comprising power, achievement, hedonism) versus self-transcendence (comprising universalism and benevolence) and openness to change (comprising hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction) versus conservation (comprising tradition, conformity, and security). Schwartz surmised that higher-order values that oppose each other would relate in an opposite manner to the same variable. For example, if a variable correlates positively with the higher-order value type self-enhancement, then it should correlate negatively with self-transcendence, since self-transcendence is diametrically opposed to self-enhancement. Moreover, self-transcendence and conservation values are positively correlated with each other, and self-enhancement and openness to change values are positively correlated with each other. Therefore, a variable that is positively correlated with self-transcendence should also be positively correlated with conservation and a variable that is positively correlated with self-enhancement should also be positively correlated with openness to change.

Nurses' values. Nurses endure numerous workplace stressors (Wisdom, 1984), minimal recognition, minimal appreciation (Matteson & Ivancevich, 1987), and lower pay compared to physicians (Glazer & Beehr, 2005). Nursing is not a glamorous job and it is not an easy job. People do not go into nursing to acquire power, status, or extreme amounts of money. On a daily basis, however, nurses have the opportunity to care for the sick, alleviate patients' anxiety, and promote general health and well-being. This suggests that individuals who are attracted to the nursing profession might be more likely to value benevolence and universalism and less likely to value power and hedonism. Nurses are also required to be flexible and responsive in the face of hospital crises,

suggesting that nurses might value stimulation. The idea that nurses in Hungary, Italy, UK, and USA have similar value preferences was supported by Glazer and Beehr (2002).

In the first study to examine nurses' values cross-culturally, Glazer and Beehr (2002) found that nurses in the UK, the US, Hungary, and Italy rated the importance of Schwartz's 10 human values similarly. Nurses from all of these countries rated benevolence followed by conformity as most valued. Universalism, self-direction, and security were also important values to nurses in this study. Glazer and Beehr concluded that while some of the values that nurses upheld could be attributed to their individual cultures, typically they were not. Instead, the nursing profession attracts individuals with a relatively homogenous value set. Glazer and Beehr explain that the AS(A)A Framework supports the idea that people who are attracted to the field of nursing would be more likely to prioritize certain values similarly, for example, health and lifestyle choices that are conducive to health, and/or an opportunity to care for others. Second, they assert that the opportunity to promote health or to care for others is an inherent part of nursing, irrespective of culture. People who uphold these values, regardless of culture, would be more likely to go into nursing because it would give them the opportunity to exhibit and assert these values.

Culture. A culture develops and sustains itself through the socialization of its members (Erez & Gati, 2004; Schneider, 1987). Socialization is a process by which individuals learn through conditioning (rewards or punishments) and modeling (observation and imitation of others) what constitutes acceptable behaviors and attitudes within their culture. Through implicit and/or explicit messages, individuals decipher

what is valued and expected of them from their family, culture, and organization.

Therefore, the type of culture in which one lives likely influences the values that he or she upholds (Abrams, Ando, & Hinkle, 1998; Elizur, Borg, Hunt, & Magyari Beck, 1991; Jensen & Bergin, 1988; Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000).

There are multiple methods to categorize or describe cultures. One such way is to categorize cultures as either contractual or communal (Glazer et al., 2004). The present study will utilize this classification. A contractual culture (e.g., the United States and the United Kingdom) is characterized by its members' emphasis on *quid pro quo* interpersonal interactions. In contractual cultures dominance over other people and objects is valued (Abrams et al., 1998). Moreover, research shows partial support for the idea that individuals in contractual cultures uphold openness to change values and self-enhancement values (Glazer et al., 2004). These findings make sense in that individuals who value dominance over people and objects would also probably uphold values such as power, achievement, and self-direction.

In far Eastern compared to Western cultures, and in former Communist countries versus Western cultures, it was found that individuals rate work values (e.g., achievement at work, benefits, coworkers, feedback) differently (Elizur, Borg, Hunt, & Magyari Beck, 1991), lending further support to the idea that culture influences what individuals value. Research also shows that individuals in Western countries (typically categorized as contractual cultures), who uphold certain values, are more likely to experience well-being, whereas adhering to an alternative set of values is detrimental to the mental health of Westerners (Sagiv & Schwartz, 2000). Jensen and Bergin (1988) found that adhering

to self-direction (akin to openness to change values) was “healthy” in Western cultures. Similarly, Strupp (1980) showed that adhering to self-direction resulted in increased positive health.

Given that self-enhancement and openness to change values are generally more pronounced in contractual (vs. communal) cultures, it is expected that greater incongruence between employees and their coworker(s) or supervisor(s) will yield more stressors and strains in contractual cultures than communal cultures. Similarly, that (1) Glazer et al. (2004) found partial support for the idea that nurses in communal cultures are more likely to adhere to self-transcendence values, (e.g., universalism and benevolence), and conservation values (e.g., tradition, conformity, and security) than nurses in contractual cultures, and (2) that adhering to such values may be detrimental to nurses in contractual cultures (Strupp, 1980), it is likely that incongruence on these values would yield greater stressors and strains for nurses in communal cultures than contractual cultures.

Rationale

As diversity increases in organizations, it is critical to understand the role that culture plays in individuals’ job-related stressors and strains. Examining employees’ value congruence with coworker(s) and with supervisor(s), in relation to stressors and strains across cultures could provide useful information to supervisors and managers about the types of values that are important to embrace when working with people of certain cultures. This thesis will advance past research in that it will examine employees’ value congruence with their supervisor(s) and their coworker(s) in relation to role

stressors, organizational commitment, intention to leave, and job anxiety in the context of national cultures.

Hypotheses

Hypotheses 1a-1f: Employee-supervisor value congruence (for conservation, openness to change, self-transcendence, and self-enhancement) will correlate positively with employee (1a) organizational commitment and negatively with employee (1b) role conflict, (1c) role overload, (1d) role ambiguity, (1e) job anxiety, and (1f) intention to leave.

Hypotheses 2a-2f: Employee-coworker value congruence (for conservation, openness to change, self-transcendence, and self-enhancement) will correlate positively with employee (2a) organizational commitment and negatively with employee, (2b) role conflict, (2c) role overload, (2d) role ambiguity, (2e) job anxiety, and (2f) intention to leave.

Hypotheses 3a-3f: The extent to which employees' value congruence (with both coworker(s) and supervisor(s)) on the four higher-order values (conservation, openness to change, self-transcendence, and self-enhancement) relates with role stressors, organizational commitment, job anxiety, and intention to leave will be moderated by culture. The relationship between value congruence on both openness to change and self-enhancement with (3a) organizational commitment will be more positive and with (3b) intention to leave, (3c) role conflict, (3d) role

overload, (3e) role ambiguity, and (3f) job anxiety will be more negative in contractual cultures than in communal cultures.

Hypotheses 4a-4f: The extent to which employees' value congruence (with both coworker(s) and supervisor(s)) on the four higher-order values (conservation, openness to change, self-transcendence, and self-enhancement) relates with role stressors, organizational commitment, job anxiety, and intention to leave will be moderated by culture. The relationship between value congruence on both conservation and self-transcendence with (4a) organizational commitment will be more positive and with (4b) intention to leave, (4c) role conflict, (4d) role overload, (4e) role ambiguity, and (4f) job anxiety will be more negative in communal cultures than in contractual cultures.

METHODS

Participants

Archival data were obtained for 1,608 nurses across four countries. Of those, up to 1,136 were retained for the purpose of this study. A total of 404 nurses were from contractual cultures (USA and UK) and 732 were from communal cultures (Italy and Hungary). The determination of whether a country was representative of a contractual or communal culture was determined in Glazer et al. (2004). In assessments of supervisor-employee value congruence a total of 669 nurses were included (285 from Hungary, 147 from Italy, 77 from USA, and 160 from the UK), and in assessments of employee-coworker value congruence a total of 988 nurses were included (349 from Hungary, 299 from Italy, 112 from the USA, and 228 from the UK). The total number of participants was reduced for the two dyads because within any given unit there could have been only one respondent, only coworkers, or only an employee-supervisor dyad. In the cases of only one respondent for which no value congruence could be determined those participants were eliminated. Only when an employee's values could be compared with a coworker or a supervisor was the participant retained.

Of the total possible nurses that were included in the present study, the average age ranged from 32.6 years (S.D. = 7.24) in Italy to 41.3 years (S.D. = 8.59) in USA (see Table 2). The majority of nurses from each country were women (98.8 percent in Hungary, 75.6 percent in Italy, 86.8 percent in USA, and 96.0 percent in UK). The average time participants had worked in hospitals ranged from 6.87 (S.D. = 6.53) years in the UK to 12.26 (S.D. = 9.85) years in Hungary (see Table 2). The average time

participants had worked for their unit ranged from 5.12 (SD = 5.85) years in the UK to 10.34 (SD = 8.91) years in Hungary.

Measures

Data for this study are archival and were obtained from the thesis chairperson. Questions pertaining to this study, based on the US version of the questionnaire, are presented in Appendix A. The original questionnaire was divided into five sections. The first section was instructions and general information outlining the purpose of the study. The next three sections were questions regarding participants' feelings about their job and work environment, as well as questions about individual values. The last section asked participants' socio-demographic information. Socio-demographic data were collected so that the general sample could be described; all data were anonymous. Previous construct validity has already been determined and therefore it is unnecessary to present it here (Glazer, 1999; Glazer, 2002; Glazer, Daniel, & Short, 2004).

Role conflict, overload and ambiguity (see Appendix A, Section I, items 1-15).

Role conflict, overload, and ambiguity, adapted by Glazer and Beehr (2005), were assessed by five items each. Of these items, 2, and 11-15 were reverse coded. The adapted 7-point Likert-type scale had response options ranging from 1 indicating *strongly disagree* to 7 indicating *strongly agree* so that the response options would be consistent with the rest of the questionnaire. An example of an item measuring role overload is: "It seems like I have too much work for one person." A sample item measuring role conflict is: "I receive incompatible requests from two or more people." A sample item measuring role ambiguity is: "I know exactly what is expected from me." Across the four nations,

reliability coefficients for each role stressor ranged from .65 in Hungary on role conflict to .82 in the UK on role ambiguity (see Table 2).

Job anxiety (see Appendix A, Section I, items 16-19). Glazer and Beehr (2005) used four items adapted from Parker and DeCotiis (1983) to assess job anxiety. The response format was a seven-point Likert-type scale where responses options ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). A sample item assessing job anxiety is: "I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job." Across the four nations, the reliability coefficients ranged between .72 in Hungary to .83 in the UK (see Table 2).

Continuance and affective commitment (see Appendix A, Section I, items 20-35). Continuance and affective commitment to the hospital for which the nurses' worked was measured by a total 16-item scale, eight items each, developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). These included items 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, and 34 for affective commitment and items 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, and 35 for continuance commitment. Items 23, 24, 26, 27, and 29 were reverse coded. Based on prior research by Glazer and Beehr (2005), only five items (20, 24, 25, 26, and 34) for affective commitment and six items (28, 30, 31, 32, 33, and 35) for continuance commitment were retained for this study. The response format was a Likert-type scale where response choices ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Sample items assessing continuance and affective commitment are: "I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this hospital" and "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this hospital," respectively. Across the four countries, the reliability coefficients for the five affective commitment

items ranged from .61 in Italy to .78 in the UK and the reliability coefficients for the six continuance commitment items ranged from .66 in Italy to .81 in the US (see Table 2).

Intention to leave (see Appendix A, Section I, items 36-38). Intention to leave was measured using three items that Glazer and Beehr (2005) adapted from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979). The response format was a seven-point Likert-type scale where response options ranged from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). An example of an item used to assess intention to leave is: "I will actively look for a new job in the next year." The coefficient alphas across the four countries ranged from .66 in Italy to .84 in the US (see Table 2).

Values (see Appendix A, Section II, items 1-57). Values were measured using Schwartz's (1992) 57-item Value Survey. Four higher-order values, openness to change, conservation, self-transcendence, and self-enhancement, were constructed based on 45 of the 57 value items. The response format was a 9-point scale where -1 indicated the value "opposed the principles that guide my life," 0 indicated the value has "no importance in my life," and 7 indicated the value has "supreme importance in my life." Next to each value there was a brief description in parentheses. An example of a value is, "inner harmony (at peace with myself)." Across the four countries, the reliability coefficients for the 4 higher-order values ranged from .57 (on self-transcendence in Hungary) to .86 (on conservation in UK). Items comprising each of the 10 value types (which comprise the 4 higher-order values) are presented in Table 1.

Employee-supervisor value congruence. Congruence on the four higher-order values between an employee and her supervisor(s) was calculated on the basis of the

average value congruence of supervisors within employees' units. Supervisors were determined based on self-designated job titles (e.g., head of team, assistant nurse manager, nurse manager of a unit, or supervisor/administrator). Often, there were many supervisors of various job levels within a unit (i.e., a nurse manager and an assistant nurse manager worked within the same job unit) in which case the individual with the highest job level was determined to be the supervisor. If there was only one supervisor then only that person's score was used as the supervisor value score. If there were more than one supervisor, then an average of the supervisors' scores was calculated and used as the reference for calculation. Thus, each subordinate's score on each of the higher-order values was subtracted from the average of supervisors' values score on each higher-order values or (in the case of only one supervisor) the one supervisor value score on each of the higher-order values. The resulting score was then entered as a score of congruence. The greater the magnitude (regardless of direction), the greater the incongruence. For each higher-order value there were also two accompanying congruence variables: a variable when the supervisor valued the higher-order value more than her employee and a variable when the employee valued the higher-order value more than her supervisor.

Employee-coworker value congruence. Congruence on the four higher-order values between an employee and her coworkers was calculated on the basis of the average value congruence of employees within employees' units. Coworkers were people who shared the same job title. If there was only one coworker then only that person's score was used as the coworker value score. If there were more than one

coworker, then an average of the coworkers was calculated and used as the reference for calculation. Thus, each employee's score on each of the higher-order values was subtracted from the average of coworkers' values score on each higher-order values or (in the case of only one coworker) the one coworker value score on each of the higher-order values. The greater the magnitude (regardless of direction), the greater the incongruence. For each higher-order value there were two congruence variables, a variable for when the coworker valued the higher-order value more than the employee and a variable when the employee valued the higher-order value more than her coworkers.

Although the use of difference scores has been debated (Tisak & Smith, 1994), their use in this study was thought to be appropriate since a large number of individuals were sampled in a short period of time (Tisak & Smith).

Procedures

Survey distribution methods are detailed in Glazer's (1999) dissertation and publication (Glazer & Beehr, 2005). Head nurses, nursing vice-presidents, physician of a neonatal care unit in one Italian hospital, or Dr. Glazer herself randomly distributed surveys to nurses.

RESULTS

Employee-Supervisor Value Congruence with Stressors and Strains

Hypothesis 1 was partially supported. In Hypothesis 1 it was expected that employee-supervisor value congruence for the four higher-order values would be positively related with (a) organizational commitment and negatively related with employee (b-d) role stressors, (e) anxiety, and (f) intention to leave regardless of the culture. To test for this relationship partial correlations (controlling for age, gender, nationality, and the number of years that nurses worked for the hospital and their unit) were run for when the employee and again when the supervisor indicated greater importance for each higher-order value (see Table 3).

Congruence on openness to change values. In a pan-cultural analysis, a positive correlation was found between role overload (c) and employee-supervisor value congruence on openness to change values when a supervisor rated openness to change as both more important and less important than the referent employee ($r = .10, p < .01$ and $r = .13, p < .05$, respectively). That is, as the gap between the employee's values and the supervisor's values on openness to change increased, role overload increased. A significant relationship was also found between anxiety (e) and employee-supervisor value congruence on openness to change. An employee experienced greater anxiety when her supervisor rated openness to change as less important than she did ($r = .11, p < .05$). Also, when supervisors rated openness to change much higher than employees, employees indicated greater intention to leave (f) ($r = .08, p < .05$).

Next, within country analyses showed no significant partial correlations between employee-supervisor value congruence on openness to change in Hungary or the US. However, in Italy (see Table 5) when supervisors rated openness to change as more important and as less important than employees, employees' role overload increased, ($r = .20, p < .05$ and $r = .28, p < .05$, respectively), supporting Hypothesis 1c. In the UK (see Table 6), when supervisors valued openness to change more than employees did, employees' role conflict increased, supporting Hypothesis 1b.

Congruence on conservation values. Like with self-transcendence values, no significant correlations were found pan-culturally on supervisor-employee value congruence on conservation with stress-related variables. The only significant correlation was found in the UK. When supervisors in the UK (see Table 6) rated conservation as more important than employees, employees' role ambiguity (d) decreased ($r = -.41, p < .05$).

Congruence on self-enhancement values. Pan-culturally, as supervisors rated self-enhancement as less important than employees, job anxiety (e) decreased for employees ($r = -.12, p < .05$). This correlation was not in the anticipated direction and therefore there is only partial support for Hypothesis 1e. Within country analyses, again, yielded no significant correlations between supervisor-employee value congruence on self-enhancement and stressors and strains in Hungary, nor in Italy. However, there were significant correlations in the UK and US. In the UK (see Table 6), when supervisors indicated that self-enhancement was not as valuable as employees indicated, employees' role conflict increased ($r = .38, p < .05$) and intention to leave decreased ($r = -.34, p <$

.05), supporting Hypothesis 1b and 1f, respectively. When supervisors rated self-enhancement as more important than employees did, employees were more likely to experience continuance commitment ($r = -.28, p < .01$), refuting Hypothesis 1a. When US supervisors (see Table 7) placed more importance on self-enhancement than employees did, employees' continuance commitment increased ($r = .40, p < .05$), refuting Hypothesis 1a.

Congruence on self-transcendence values. A pan-cultural analysis yielded no significant correlations between supervisor-employee value congruence on self-transcendence values and stress-related variables. Moreover, within country, the only significant correlation was found in Italy (see Table 5). In Italy, when supervisors rated self-transcendence as less important than employees, employees' role conflict decreased ($r = -.27, p < .05$). This did not support Hypothesis 1b as the correlation was not in the hypothesized direction.

Employee-Coworker Value Congruence with Stressors and Strains

Hypothesis 2 was partially supported. In Hypothesis 2 it was hypothesized that employee-coworker value congruence for the four higher-order values would be positively related with (a) organizational commitment and negatively related with employee (b-d) role stressors, (e) job anxiety, and (f) intention to leave regardless of the culture. Hypothesis 2 was tested by computing partial correlations (the number of years that nurses worked for their hospital and unit, as well as age, gender, and nationality were controlled for) between stressors and strains (e.g., role stressors, intention to leave, job anxiety, and commitment) and employee-coworker congruence on the four higher-order

values. Whether an employee rated a higher-order value as more important or as less important than her coworkers was accounted for (see Table 3).

Congruence on openness to change values. Pan-culturally, results revealed greater role conflict and role overload when coworkers rated openness to change as more important than the employee ($r = .11, p < .05$ and $r = .10, p = .05$, respectively), as expected in Hypotheses 2b and 2c, respectively (see Table 3). Within country analyses revealed that in Italy (see Table 5) employees expressed greater role overload and role conflict when their coworkers rated openness to change as more important than they did ($r = .19, p < .01$ and $r = .28, p < .01$, respectively), supporting Hypothesis 2c and 2b. Also, in the US (see Table 7), when coworkers indicated greater value on openness to change than the referent employee, employees were more likely to indicate intention to leave ($r = .19, p < .05$). This supports Hypothesis 2f. However, the opposite was found in the UK. When coworkers did not value openness to change as much as employees did, employees tended to experience greater role conflict ($r = .32, p < .05$), refuting Hypothesis 2b.

Congruence on conservation values. In pan-cultural analyses, contrary to Hypothesis 2d, when coworkers rated conservation values as more important than coworkers, role ambiguity decreased ($r = -.13, p < .01$). However, when coworkers rated conservation as less important than employees role ambiguity increased ($r = .16, p < .01$), in support of Hypothesis 2d. In Hungary (see Table 4), like in the pan-cultural analysis, when coworkers rated conservation values as more important than employees did, employees' role ambiguity decreased ($r = -.15, p < .05$), again refuting Hypothesis 2d. In

Italy, like in the pan-cultural analysis, when coworkers rated conservation as less valuable than employees did, employees experienced greater role ambiguity ($r = .16, p < .05$), supporting Hypothesis 2d. Finally, in the UK (see Table 6), when coworkers indicated that conservation was less important than employees did, employees indicated less intention to leave ($r = -.34, p < .05$), opposing Hypothesis 2f.

Congruence on self-enhancement values. In the pan-cultural analysis (see Table 3), when employees indicated self-enhancement values as more important than their coworkers did, role conflict increased ($r = .12, p < .05$), supporting Hypothesis 2b. In Hungary (see Table 4) when coworkers indicated that self-enhancement values were less important than employees did, employees' role ambiguity increased ($r = .17, p < .05$). This correlation supports Hypothesis 2d. Likewise, in Italy (see Table 5), when coworkers placed less importance on self-enhancement than employees did, employees' role conflict increased ($r = .21, p < .05$), supporting Hypothesis 2b. Hypothesis 2a was supported in that employees also indicated decreased affective commitment when their coworkers rated self-enhancement as more important than they did ($r = -.17, p < .05$).

Congruence on self-transcendence values. Pan-culturally (see Table 3), when coworkers indicated that self-transcendence was more important than employees did, employees' intention to leave increased ($r = .09, p < .05$). This correlation partially supports Hypothesis 2f. Within country analyses revealed that when coworkers in Italy (see Table 5) rated self-transcendence more important than coworkers did, employees' experienced decreased affective commitment ($r = -.18, p < .05$), refuting Hypothesis 2a. Also, in the US (see Table 7), when coworkers indicated that self-transcendence was

more important than the referent employees did, employees were more likely to indicate intention to leave ($r = .19, p < .05$). This finding supports Hypothesis 2f. However, in the UK (see Table 6), employees indicated greater continuance commitment when their fellow coworkers rated self-transcendence as more important than they did ($r = .28, p < .05$). This finding refutes Hypothesis 2a.

Regression Analyses

Hypothesis 3 was minimally supported. To test for Hypothesis 3, moderated regression analyses were conducted to determine whether an interaction between value congruence (when an employee was higher or lower than her supervisors or coworkers) on each of the four higher-order values and culture (communal and contractual) would account for additional variance in stressors and strains, exceeding that which could be explained by either culture or value congruence individually. For all regression analyses, the number of years that nurses worked for their hospital and unit, as well as age and sex were controlled.

The only significant interaction between value congruence and culture was when an employee was higher than her coworkers on self-transcendence, $R^2 = .02, \Delta R^2 = .01, F_{\text{cha}}(1, 595) = 7.98, p < .01$. Specifically, as discrepancy for self-transcendence increased, continuance commitment increased in contractual cultures and decreased in communal cultures (see Figure 1).

DISCUSSION

This study sought to examine whether value congruence (between employees and supervisors and between employees and coworkers) on Schwartz's (1992) four higher-order human values would be associated with lower stressors and strains. Whether one's culture would affect the relationship between value congruence on the higher-order values and role stressors and strains was also explored.

Before delving into the findings, it is interesting to note that like Kalliath et al., (1999) more significant correlations were found between value congruence and stressors and strains when the value congruence was between employee and coworker(s) versus employee and supervisor(s). It is possible that significant correlations occurred more frequently between employee and coworker dyads (as opposed to employee and supervisor dyads) because employees probably interact more closely and regularly with their coworkers than their supervisors. Thus, it might be more unsettling for employees (manifesting in stressors and strains) when their coworkers (as opposed to supervisors), do not value the things they do, as nurses probably have more regular interactions with coworkers than with supervisors

Hypothesis 1 and 2, that value congruence would positively correlate with employees' organizational commitment and negatively correlate with employees' role stressors, job anxiety, and intention to leave, yielded interesting findings. For the most part, as employees' values became increasingly congruent with their supervisors or their coworkers, employees generally reported less stressors and strains. This finding corroborates those of Sagiv and Schwartz (2000) in which well-being was greater among

students who upheld similar values with students who were in the same department. Thus, according to findings in the current study, the opposite (i.e., value incongruence) generally yielded more stressors and strains. More specifically, however, in the pan-cultural analyses, stressors and strains were mostly greater for employees when they valued something more than their supervisors and/or coworkers, but it was mostly inconsequential for employees when those around them placed greater importance on a value (except for openness to change and conservation).

Openness to Change Values

Pan-culturally, employees' *incongruence* with supervisors and coworkers on openness to change was most associated with employees' stressors and strains. The increase of stressors and strains when employees' openness to change values differs from their supervisors and coworkers is not surprising considering the nature of hospitals and the responsibilities of nurses. This study indicated that when a supervisor or coworker valued openness to change more than the referent employee, the referent employee was more likely to experience role overload and/or role conflict. Hospitals are characterized as stable and unchanging environments where harmony is paramount (Glazer et al., 2004). When stability is disrupted, nurses tend to experience increased uncertainty and decreased affective commitment (Beehr, 1995, as cited in Glazer et al.).

One way that stability may be threatened in hospitals is by supervisors or coworkers who are guided by power and achievement values more than the employee. Treating patients under life threatening circumstances might require nurses to carry out physicians' or colleagues' requests without question or hesitation; nurses striving for

power or achievement (as in openness to change) can complicate fulfillment of job duties. Also, hospitals might require staff to adhere to strict and established protocols when carrying out job responsibilities in order to provide efficient and excellent care to patients. Under these circumstances, a coworker or supervisor who values openness to change *more* than the referent employee, might cause the referent employee to experience heightened role overload as she performs her “established” duties, as well as the duties that result from the whims of her supervisors and colleagues. Also, role conflict might occur if the referent employee is expected, by her supervisor and/or coworkers, to behave in ways that counter the traditional *modus operandi* of the hospital for which she works.

Another facet of openness to change is hedonism, defined as seeking personal pleasure and gratification (Schwartz, 1992). An emphasis on pleasure and gratification for one’s self might run counter to the value system of nursing, a profession that is typified by caring for others. Thus, when supervisors and/or coworkers express hedonistic values *more* than the referent employee, it may result in increased role stressors for the referent employee.

This study also showed that when supervisors and colleagues valued openness to change less than the referent employee, the referent employee was more likely to experience job anxiety, role overload, and role ambiguity. That nurses experienced heightened job anxiety, role overload, and role ambiguity as they valued openness to change more than their supervisors is not surprising. Job anxiety may be more likely when nurses are surrounded at work by individuals who do not uphold a value to the same extent that they do. Role overload might occur as nurses fulfill their expected

duties and simultaneously take-on newer duties which might fulfill their values associated with openness to change. Role ambiguity might result from nurses trying to pursue new endeavors, but not knowing if it is acceptable to do so or how to do so.

In Hypothesis 3a it was hypothesized that value congruence on openness to change would be more important in contractual cultures than in communal cultures. Within country analyses revealed, however, that value congruence on openness to change was most related to stressors and strains in Italy. Specifically, Italian nurses experienced more role overload and role conflict when their coworkers valued openness to change more than they did. Also, nurses indicated more role overload when either their supervisors valued openness to change more than they did or supervisors valued it less. In other words, greater congruence yielded less role overload.

There are several reasons why nurses in Italy might be more likely to experience stressors and strains when there is incongruence between supervisors and coworkers with employees on openness to change values. Italy is a predominantly Catholic country (Glazer & Beehr, 2005), and it is possible that Catholics are more comfortable following a defined and absolute set of guidelines by which to live their lives. Italian nurses, therefore appear to experience more stressors and strains when working with individuals who subscribe to openness to change values, characterized by pleasure, gratification, excitement, independent thought and action, and freedom (Glazer & Beehr, 2002). In other words, nurses that are guided by their own self-interests are probably creating more work and thus conflict for their coworkers who might need to pick up the slack.

That Italian nurses had low salaries and this might also contribute to the prevalence of stressors and strains in relation to value incongruence. At the time of data collection (1997-1998), Italian nurses made (in Lira) the equivalent of \$9,600 US dollars per year, which was much less than the per capita income in Italy, the equivalent of \$21,000 US dollars per year (Orosz & Burns, 2000, as cited in Glazer & Beehr, 2005). In comparison, the average middle manager in Italy made \$35,032.60 per year at the time of data collection (Warner, 2002, as cited in Glazer & Beehr, 2005). Because Italian nurses had low salaries, it is possible that working in “unfavorable” conditions is not tolerated.

Aside from Italy, the UK was the only other country where openness to change values for employee-supervisor and employee-coworker dyads were significantly correlated with stressors and strains. This might indicate that examining culture in terms of communal versus contractual characteristics might not be particularly fruitful or effective. Instead, on Schwartz’s (1999) culture values Italy and the UK are rather high on autonomy in relation to the US and Hungary. Which aspects of cultures need to be examined requires further investigation, which is beyond the scope of this thesis.

Self-Transcendence Values

Employee-supervisor value congruence. This study also revealed that nurses were more likely to consider leaving their place of employment when they rated self-transcendence as more important than their supervisors. The nursing profession is based on caring for others, and self-transcendence encompasses ideals such as enhancement of the welfare of others (Schwartz, 1992). Thus, it makes sense that nurses would be more likely to consider quitting their jobs when their supervisor does not espouse and express

values that are thought to be integral to nursing. This corroborates with Scott (1965) and Dose's (1999) findings that moral values, which might be likened to self-transcendence values in this study, are particularly influential in group exchange because they guide people in determining right from wrong. When there was incongruence between employees and supervisors on self-transcendence values, employees were more likely to experience stressors and strains. Thus, value congruence yields better health and well-being.

In Italy, when supervisors rated self-transcendence as less important than employees did, employees' role conflict decreased. Within country analyses revealed no other significant correlations between employee-supervisor dyads on self-transcendence with stressors and strains. This shows that in Italy, compared to the other three countries sampled in this study, it is especially important to nurses that there is value congruence with supervisors on self-transcendence values. This is aligned with previous research asserting that individuals in communal cultures are more likely to uphold self-transcendence values.

Employee-coworker value congruence. In the pan-cultural analysis employees' reported significantly more affective commitment when their coworkers valued self-transcendence less than they did. Although this finding did not support Hypothesis 2a, it is aligned with previous research (Kalliath, 1999) which indicates that having strong values is associated with a better sense of self. Having a stronger sense of self might be associated with a more positive outlook on life which may result in outcomes like increased commitment. Although most correlations in the pan-cultural analysis between

self-transcendence and organizational commitment for employee-supervisor and employee-coworker dyads were not significant, many indicate that when employees' value self-transcendence more than their supervisor(s) and coworker(s), affective and continuance commitment increases.

It is interesting that nurses did not experience increased strains when their coworkers valued self-transcendence less than they did. Since employees usually look up to their supervisors for professional guidance and direction it may be more important that supervisors uphold values that are supposedly integral and representative of the nursing profession. Also, it would seem reasonable, then, that nurses' stressors and strains would decrease and commitment would increase when supervisors and coworkers valued self-transcendence more than the referent employee, however this was not the case. That stressors and strains do not decrease and commitment does not increase when supervisors and coworkers value self-transcendence more than the referent employee, further evidences that when others uphold a value more than the referent employee, strain on the referent person is less likely to occur. This corroborates with Kalliath et al.'s (1999) assertion that having strong convictions to certain values yields a better outlook on life, including more organizational commitment.

Within country analyses showed that in Italy and the UK as congruence on self-transcendence increased, affective and continuance commitment increased respectively. Again this suggests, and supports Kalliath's et al. (1999) assertion that value congruence might have positive benefits for individuals.

Conservation Values

Employee-coworker value congruence. When employees' ratings of conservation values were greater than their coworkers', employees experienced greater role ambiguity and when employees' ratings for conservation values were lower than their coworkers' ratings of conservation, employees experienced less role ambiguity. This makes sense in that coworkers who value conservation are more likely to endorse a stable environment, which might decrease role ambiguity for referent employees. However, coworkers who do not value conservation may have little interest in maintaining a stable environment, engendering increased role ambiguity for referent employees. This study suggested that it was problematic for nurses when others valued conservation less than they did, and beneficial for nurses when others valued conservation more. This may allude to the importance of conservation for nurses.

Glazer and Beehr (2002) indicated that conservation is a value that one would expect nurses to uphold. Furthermore, Glazer and Beehr found that two of the ten human values that nurses indicated to be most important were conformity and security values, which are embedded in the higher-order conservation value. It was conjectured that it would be important for nurses to uphold conservation values, which might be akin to moral values (Dose, 1999; Scott, 1965), since conservation values seem to represent what is socially acceptable by a general consensus of people. When there is dissonance between the values that an individual upholds and the values that those around her adhere to, it may be unsettling, as indicated by this study. That nurses would be benefited when there was congruence on conservation makes sense in that conservation values oppose

openness to change values, and nurses experienced many stressors and strains when there was incongruence for openness to change.

In Hungary, nurses who rated conservation as less important than their coworkers were less likely to experience role ambiguity. In the UK, employees were more likely to express decreased intention to leave when their coworkers rated conservation lower than they did. That more significant correlations did not occur in the within country analyses for employee-coworker dyads for conservation values might, again, indicate that examining culture in terms of communal versus contractual might not be particularly effective.

Self-Enhancement Values

Employee-supervisor value congruence. This study found that when an employee rated self-enhancement as more important than her supervisor, it was associated with decreased job anxiety. This finding contradicts Hypothesis 1e. This makes sense when you consider that supervisors do not value achievement and power, values embedded in self-enhancement, they may be less likely to expect employees to excel at work. This might decrease employees' anxiety as there is less motivation and demand to be high performance employees.

Within culture analyses showed that in Italy nurses' experienced increased intention to leave and decreased continuance commitment when their supervisors rated self-enhancement as more important than they did. This finding makes sense in that in communal cultures, where self-enhancement values are typically not endorsed (Glazer et al., 2004), nurses would experience increased stressors and strains when others uphold

these values to a greater extent than they do. In the UK nurses experienced more role conflict when their supervisors rates self-enhancement as less important than they did. Thus, when an employee values achievement, but the supervisor does not then role conflict ensues. This occurs because the employee, in her attempt to achieve and gain power, is apt to do things that might not be accepted by her supervisor (see Appendix A, section I, item 9). In the US and Hungary there were no significant correlations on self-enhancement for employee-supervisor dyads.

Employee-coworker value congruence. When employees' valued self-enhancement more than their coworkers, employees' role conflict and job anxiety, increased and continuance commitment decreased. Nurses might experience greater role conflict and job anxiety, as well as decreased continuance commitment as they fulfill duties and work in a profession that emphasizes care for others as opposed to a focus on self.

In Hungary, nurses experienced increased role ambiguity when coworkers valued self-enhancement less than they did. In Italy, nurses experienced increased role conflict when their coworkers valued self-enhancement less than they did, and decreased affective commitment when coworkers valued self-enhancement more than they did. In the UK and the US there were no significant correlations. That in the two communal cultures more role stressors were experienced when coworkers valued self-enhancement less than the employees could be due to feeling that the less achievement-oriented coworker is slacking off. Nonetheless, emotional attachment decreased when coworkers pursued

achievement and power values. Perhaps such pursuits lead to destabilizing the harmony, implicit in communal cultures, like Italy (Schwartz, 1999).

Summary

Although correlations of value congruence on different values and between different dyads with stressors and strains across countries were rather inconsistent, there were also some consistencies. In general, the most meaningful finding was the importance of value congruence on openness to change in Italy between employees and supervisors and between employees and coworkers. That role stressors and strains were more prevalent for both sets of dyads when there was value incongruence on openness to change alludes to the importance of openness to change in Italy. Clearly, differences between countries on the higher-order values needs to be further explored.

Regression Analyses Findings

From the regression analyses, it appears that in contractual cultures when employees value self-transcendence more than coworkers, continuance commitment increases as the discrepancy increases, but in communal cultures it decreases. Also, in communal cultures continuance commitment is higher for nurses when there is value congruence and lower for nurses in contractual cultures when there is value congruence. This indicates that value congruence on self-transcendence may have more positive effects (manifesting in higher continuance commitment) for employees in communal cultures than in contractual cultures. This finding makes sense as self-transcendence values are expected to be “healthier” for people in communal versus contractual cultures.

A defining characteristic of a communal culture is that its members are socialized to believe one's identity is formed through his or her relationships with others (Abrams et al., 1998). In these cultures the organization might be like family for its employees and, therefore, employees are encouraged to trust and to be committed to the organization for which they work (Abrams et al., 1998). Therefore, when nurses in communal cultures experience incongruence with coworkers on self-transcendence values, their commitment might decrease. In contractual cultures job security is tenuous and trust is less likely to develop between employees due to short employment histories (Glazer et. al., 2004). Also, in contractual cultures, when better career opportunities present themselves employees are more likely to leave their organizations to pursue better opportunities. This helps one to better understand why continuance commitment is lower in contractual cultures (compared to communal cultures) even when there is value *congruence* on self-transcendence.

That the regression analyses and correlations did not lend more support to Hypotheses 3 and 4 might initially lead one to think that culture does not influence the relationship between value congruence on higher-order values with stressors and strains. However, culture was depicted as either communal or contractual and there are actually multiple ways to characterize cultures (Triandis, 1996). For example, instead of looking at communal versus contractual cultures, future researchers could explore value congruence for Western versus Far Eastern cultures, communist/former communist versus Western cultures, or loose versus tight cultures. This is made particularly evident

in that the correlations between value congruence on various values with stressors and strains were seemingly unique within country.

Implications on Theory and Practice

Three theories were raised in the literature review. First, related to AS(S)A, we see that greater value congruence indeed relates to better health and well-being. It is likely that value congruence is achieved through socialization but this needs more study. Second, with respect to LMX and third, with respect to TMX, greater value congruence generally yields less stressors and strains. Moreover, more significant correlations were found in the employee-coworker dyad than the employee-supervisor dyad. With respect to practice, these findings indicate that employers should assess applicants,' incumbents' and supervisors' values to ensure that each are socialized in ways that would prevent ill-health and premature departure from the organization. Also, employers ought to consider offering workshops where the intent is having employees share their values with their coworkers and supervisor(s). Another implication of this finding is that during the recruitment process, employers need to clearly define the prevailing attitudes of the hospital in terms of openness to change. Also, job seekers need to be cognizant of the values that are adhered to in different professions as they search for jobs. Hiring managers need to be cognizant of the importance of value congruence when selecting job applicants for positions and accurately portray the prevailing values of the organization to which they are hiring.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

A limitation of this study was the use of Schwartz's (1992) human values for a study about the workplace. Human values measure what one values in her day-to-day living. It may be more appropriate, and yield more meaningful results, to examine work values in the context of organizational commitment and work stressors and strains. It is quite possible that what one values in life may differ from what one values in the workplace. Future studies, therefore, may want to examine work values in relation to work stressors, as Burke (2001) did when studying managerial women and work-life balance.

Another limitation of this study may have been utilizing Schwartz's (1992) higher-order values instead of his 10 human values. Since higher-order values are a "catch-all" in which several values are grouped together to form one higher-order value, they may fail to capture what individuals' value specifically. Furthermore Glazer and Beehr (2002) found that the values that nurses rated as the most important (e.g., benevolence and conformity) were not grouped within the same higher-order value. This suggests that one higher-order value may not accurately represent what nurses' value, and a higher-order value may incorporate other values that nurses do not value. As a result of this, future researchers may consider using the 10 human value types.

It is also possible that using a different classification and subsequent measure for values would have yielded more meaningful results. The moral-preference and personal-social classification framework proposed by Dose (1997) may be more effective for future value congruence research. This framework, which is an extension of Rockeach's

(1973) moral-competence and personal-social values framework has several advantages. The framework recognizes the effects for individuals when there is value incongruence, the part that social consensus plays in value adherence, and that people come to uphold values for different reasons (Dose, 1999).

This study did not measure nurses' perceptions of what their supervisors' and coworkers' valued, which might have been a limitation of this study. Instead, nurses' reported values were compared with their supervisors' and coworkers' reported values. This was thought to be the most accurate way to examine value congruence, as relying on an individual to accurately perceive others' values may be a flawed method; individuals' "guesstimates" about others may be incorrect. In this study, however, it may have been useful to understand employees' perceptions of the values of those around them. That is, if an individual rates a value as very important and she perceives that her supervisors and/or coworkers also rate the same value as important, the referent employee's stressors and strains may be lower and commitment higher, irrespective of her supervisors' and/or coworkers' actual rating. However, if an individual deems a value to be important, but perceives that those around her do not uphold the value to the same extent, it might increase the referent employee's stressors and strains and decrease her commitment, irrespective of her supervisor's and/or coworkers' actual rating of the value. It is possible that an employee's perception of what others value greatly impacts reported stressors, strains, and commitment level, as one's perceptions form her reality.

Research by Kalliath et al. (1999) lends support for the notion that employees' perceptions about colleagues' values is consequential. Specifically, LMX was

determined by perceptions of employees' values while TMX was determined by actual value congruence. Since employees might have minimal face-time with supervisors they must rely on their perceptions to discern what supervisors' value. In contrast, employees probably have a better idea of what coworkers value because they most likely spend more time interacting with them.

Comparing an employee's perceptions with supervisors' and coworkers' actual value scores (as Kalliath et al., 1999 has done) might be a useful area for future research as it would lend insight into whether employees were better at perceiving coworkers' or supervisors' values and how this influences employees' stressors and strains. For these reasons, it is suggested that future researchers continue to use actual scores in congruence studies, however measuring perceived scores might also yield interesting findings.

Sampling only four rather Westernized countries with an uneven number of participants within each country was another limitation of this study. It is recommended that future researchers expand the scope and of this study by utilizing nurses from more countries, in particular countries in Asia, Africa, and South America. Nonetheless, as Glazer and Beehr (2005) point out, these four countries do have several cultural distinctions.

Another limitation of this study was examining value congruence for only one profession. Results of this study therefore might not be generalizable to other occupations. Nonetheless, a proponent in this study is that nurses in multiple organizations and in multiple job levels within a country were surveyed, and therefore results of this study are probably generalizable, at the least for the nursing profession.

The extent that culture moderated the relationship between value congruence and stressors and strains was examined in this study. Other possible relationships between congruence and stressors and strains need to be explored in future research. For example, based on Beehr and Newman's (1978) and Quick et al.'s (1997) definition of a workplace stressor, value incongruence could be considered a workplace stressor if it results in an adaptive response from employees. Correlations seemed to suggest that this might be the case. Moreover, value incongruence might be the cause of other workplace stressors, namely role ambiguity. This is because value incongruence hinders effective communication, and so when role expectations cannot be clearly communicated role ambiguity ensues. It is also plausible that the relationship between value congruence and strains may be moderated or mediated by role stressors. The relationship between value congruence, stressors, and strains deserves further attention in order to get a more complete understanding of how value (in) congruence affects individuals. One obvious way is to engage in longitudinal research in an applied setting.

Another limitation of this study was that in job units containing several supervisors, the dataset did not specify which supervisor managed which nurse for that job unit. When a job unit had more than one supervisor, the supervisors' value scores were averaged and then individual employees' value scores were subtracted from the averaged supervisors' score. Using an averaged value score for supervisors was probably not the most valid way to determine value congruence.

Furthermore, not every unit had as the referent supervisor a person with the same job title. For example, in a unit with a nurse manager and an assistant nurses manger, the

nurse manager's score reflected that of supervisor, but if only the assistant manager responded to the survey (along with other subordinates) then her score would reflect the supervisor level. This might have confounded results as it might be more impacting on an employee if her manager (as opposed to her assistant manager) shared (or did not share) her values. Moreover, some supervisor-subordinate dyads had larger hierarchical distances from each other than others (e.g., nurse manager or assistant nurse from nurse manager). The extent of this power distance was not taken into consideration here, but future studies ought to consider such power differentials as potential confounds to the results. Future researchers who study value congruence should consider accounting not only for the discrepancy between dyads, but also which individual within the dyad rated the value at hand as more important.

Conclusion

It has been widely supported that individuals whose values are aligned with the values of the prevailing social environment are more likely to experience increased well-being (Feather, 1975; Finegan, 2000; O'Reilly et al., 1991). This study showed partial support of such relationships. This study indicates that nurses are more likely to experience stressors and strains when they place greater importance on a value than their colleague(s) and supervisor(s), particularly for openness to change, which might allude to the importance of openness to change for nurses.

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APPENDIX A

Items Pertaining to this Study

Section I

All items in this section were rated on a 1 to 7 scale whereby, 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = sometimes disagree, 4 = neither agree nor disagree, 5 = somewhat agree, 6 = agree, 7 = strongly agree

1. I received an assignment without the manpower to complete it.
2. I am given enough time to do what is expected of me on my job.
3. It seems like I have too much work for one person to do.
4. On my present job, the amount of work seems to interfere with how well I can do the job.
5. I often notice a marked increase in my work load.
6. I have to do things that should be done differently.
7. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.
8. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.
9. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by other.
10. I work on unnecessary things.
11. I feel certain about how much authority I have.
12. I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.
13. I know I have divided my time properly.
14. I know exactly what is expected of me.
15. Explanation is clear of what has to be done.
16. I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.
17. My job gets to me more than it should.
18. There are lots of times when my job drives me right up a wall.
19. Sometimes when I think about my job I get a tight feeling in my chest.

19. Sometimes when I think about my job I get a tight feeling in my chest.
20. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this hospital.
21. I enjoy discussing my hospital with people outside of it.
22. I really feel as if this hospital's problems are my own.
23. I think I could easily become attached to another hospital as I am to this one.
24. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this hospital.
25. This hospital has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
26. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my hospital.
27. I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another one lined up.
28. Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my hospital now.
29. It would not be too costly for me to leave my hospital in the near future.
30. Right now, staying with my hospital is a matter of necessity as much as desire.
31. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this hospital.
32. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this hospital would be the scarcity of available alternatives.
33. One of the major reasons I continue to work for this office is that leaving would require considerable personal sacrifice – another hospital may not match the overall benefits I have here.
34. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my hospital.
35. It would be very hard for me to leave my hospital right now, even if I wanted to.
36. I will actively look for a new job in the next year.
37. I often think about quitting.
38. I will probably look for a new job in the next year.

Section II

All items in this section were rated on a -1 to 7 scale whereby, the higher the number (0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7), the more important the value and -1 = opposed to the value.

- 1 _____ EQUALITY (equal opportunity for all)
- 2 _____ INNER HARMONY (at peace with myself)
- 3 _____ SOCIAL POWER (control over others, dominance)
- 4 _____ PLEASURE (gratification of desires)
- 5 _____ FREEDOM (freedom of action and thought)
- 6 _____ A SPIRITUAL LIFE (emphasis on spiritual not material matters)
- 7 _____ SENSE OF BELONGING (feeling that others care about me)
- 8 _____ SOCIAL ORDER (stability of society)
- 9 _____ AN EXCITING LIFE (stimulating experiences)
- 10 _____ MEANING IN LIFE (a purpose in life)
- 11 _____ POLITENESS (courtesy, good manners)
- 12 _____ WEALTH (material possessions, money)
- 13 _____ NATIONAL SECURITY (protection of my nation from enemies)
- 14 _____ SELF RESPECT (belief in one's own worth)
- 15 _____ RECIPROCATION OF FAVORS (avoidance of indebtedness)
- 16 _____ CREATIVITY (uniqueness, imagination)
- 17 _____ A WORLD AT PEACE (free of war and conflict)
- 18 _____ RESPECT FOR TRADITION (preservation of time-honored customs)
- 19 _____ MATURE LOVE (deep emotional & spiritual intimacy)

- 20 _____ SELF-DISCIPLINE (self-restraint, resistance to temptation)
- 21 _____ PRIVACY (the right to have a private sphere)
- 22 _____ FAMILY SECURITY (safety for loved ones)
- 23 _____ SOCIAL RECOGNITION (respect, approval by others)
- 24 _____ UNITY WITH NATURE (fitting into nature)
- 25 _____ A VARIED LIFE (filled with challenge, novelty and change)
- 26 _____ WISDOM (a mature understanding of life)
- 27 _____ AUTHORITY (the right to lead or command)
- 28 _____ TRUE FRIENDSHIP (close, supportive friends)
- 29 _____ A WORLD OF BEAUTY (beauty of nature and the arts)
- 30 _____ SOCIAL JUSTICE (correcting injustice, care for the weak)
- 31 _____ INDEPENDENT (self-reliant, self-sufficient)
- 32 _____ MODERATE (avoiding extremes of feeling & action)
- 33 _____ LOYAL (faithful to my friends, group)
- 34 _____ AMBITIOUS (hard-working, aspiring)
- 35 _____ BROADMINDED (tolerant of different ideas and beliefs)
- 36 _____ HUMBLE (modest, self-effacing)
- 37 _____ DARING (seeking adventure, risk)
- 38 _____ PROTECTING THE ENVIRONMENT
(preserving nature)
- 39 _____ INFLUENTIAL (having an impact on people and events)
- 40 _____ HONORING OF PARENTS AND ELDERS (showing respect)

- 41 _____ CHOOSING OWN GOALS (selecting own purposes)
- 42 _____ HEALTHY (not being sick physically or mentally)
- 43 _____ CAPABLE (competent, effective, efficient)
- 44 _____ ACCEPTING MY PORTION IN LIFE (submitting to life's circumstances)
- 45 _____ HONEST (genuine, sincere)
- 46 _____ PRESERVING MY PUBLIC IMAGE (protecting my "face")
- 47 _____ OBEDIENT (dutiful, meeting obligations)
- 48 _____ INTELLIGENT (logical, thinking)
- 49 _____ HELPFUL (working for the welfare of others)
- 50 _____ ENJOYING LIFE (enjoying food, sex, leisure, etc.)
- 51 _____ DEVOUT (holding to religious faith & belief)
- 52 _____ RESPONSIBLE (dependable, reliable)
- 53 _____ CURIOUS (interested in everything, exploring)
- 54 _____ FORGIVING (willing to pardon others)
- 55 _____ SUCCESSFUL (achieving goals)
- 56 _____ CLEAN (neat, tidy)
- 57 _____ SELF-INDULGENT (doing pleasant things)

APPENDIX B


Human-Subjects Institutional Review Board Approval Letter



San José State
UNIVERSITY

**Office of the Academic
Vice President**
Academic Vice President
Graduate Studies and Research
One Washington Square
San José, CA 95192-0025
Voice: 408-924-2480
Fax: 408-924-2477
E-mail: gradstudies@sjsu.edu
http://www.sjsu.edu

To: Rachel Pickworth
883 S. Winchester Blvd. #99
San Jose, CA 95128

From: Pam Stacks, AVP 
Graduate Studies & Research

Date: June 17, 2005

The Human Subjects-Institutional Review Board has approved your request for exemption from human subjects review under category "D" in the study entitled:

"The Effects of Value Congruence on Commitment, Anxiety, and Intention to Leave in Supervisor-Subordinate Relationships and Employee-Coworker Relationships Using a Cross-Cultural Sample."

This approval is contingent upon the subjects participating in your research project or the subject's data collected for the research project being appropriately protected from risk. This includes the protection of the anonymity of the subjects' identity when they participate in your research project and concerning all data that may be collected from the subjects. The Board's approval includes continued monitoring of your research to assure that the subjects are being adequately and properly protected from such risks. If at any time a subject becomes injured or complains of injury, you must immediately notify Pam Stacks, Ph.D. Injury includes but is not limited to bodily harm, psychological trauma, and release of potentially damaging personal information.

Please also be advised that all subjects need to be fully informed and aware that their participation in your research project is voluntary, and that he or she may withdraw from the project at any time. Further, a subject's participation, refusal to participate, or withdrawal will not affect any services that the subject is receiving or will receive at the institution in which the research is being conducted. This approval is granted for a one-year period and data collection beyond June 17, 2006 requires an extension request.

If you have any questions, please contact me at (408) 924-2480.

Cc: Dr. Sharon Glazer

APPENDIX C

Tables

Table 1

The 10 Human Value Types Defined by Primary Goals and Examples of Values that Represent Them

Value types	Primary goals (examples of representative values)
Self-enhancement	
Power	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources (social power, wealth, authority, preserving public image)
Achievement	Personal success through competence according to social standards (ambitious, capable, influential, successful)
Hedonism	Pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself (pleasure, enjoying life, self-indulgent)
Openness to change	
Hedonism	
Stimulation	Excitement, novelty, and challenge in life (an exciting life, a varied life, daring)
Self-direction	Independent thought and action choosing, creating, exploring (freedom, creativity, independent, choosing own goals, curious)

Self-transcendence	
Universalism	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature (wisdom, equality, a world at peace, social justice, unity with nature, a world of beauty, broadminded, protecting the environment)
Benevolence	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact (loyal, responsible, honest, helpful, forgiving)
Conservation	
Tradition	Respect, commitment, and acceptance of customs and ideas that traditional religion or custom provide the self (respect for tradition, moderate, humble, accepting my portion in life, devout)
Conformity	Restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms (politeness, self-discipline, honoring of parents and elders, obedient)
Security	Safety, harmony and stability of society, of relationships and of self (social order, national security, reciprocation of favors, family security, clean)

Note. With Glazer's permission this table was adapted from Glazer, Daniel, and Short (2004).

Table 2

Socio-Demographic Stressors and Strains for Nurses in All Countries

Variables	Hungary (n = 405)		Italy (n = 311)		UK (n = 130)		US (n = 273)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Age	33.61	11.42	32.61	7.24	33.78	8.38	41.30	8.59
Years worked in hospital	12.26	9.85	10.02	7.20	6.87	6.53	10.39	7.97
Years worked in unit	10.34	8.91	6.15	5.18	5.12	5.85	8.12	6.23
Role Overload	3.99	1.27	4.84	1.25	4.57	1.14	4.40	1.25
Role Conflict	3.76	1.28	4.29	1.35	4.33	1.33	4.21	1.25
Role Ambiguity	2.65	1.07	3.73	1.33	3.16	1.23	3.16	1.06
Intention to Leave	2.57	1.50	2.27	1.36	4.17	1.68	3.41	1.66
Affective Commitment	4.43	1.10	4.05	.97	3.92	1.06	4.27	1.05
Continuance Commitment	4.29	1.17	4.79	.98	4.08	1.13	4.49	1.15
Anxiety	3.09	1.42	4.01	1.52	4.07	1.48	4.34	1.47

Table 3

Partial Correlations for Employee-Coworker and Employee-Supervisor Value Congruence on Higher-Order Values with

Stressors and Strains Pan-Culturally (Country, Age, Sex, Years in Unit and Hospital Held Constant)

Variables	Conservation		Openness to Change		Self-Transcendence		Self-Enhancement	
	Coworker high ¹ (n = 555)	Coworker low ² (n = 408)	Coworker high (n = 556)	Coworker low (n = 413)	Coworker high (n = 594)	Coworker low (n = 381)	Coworker high (n = 558)	Coworker low (n = 414)
RO	.00	.08	.10*	.02	.03	-.04	.05	.09
RC	.04	.08	.11*	.03	.06	.00	.09*	.12*
RA	-.13**	.16**	-.04	.06	.01	.05	-.06	.09
IL	.01	.04	.06	.00	.09*	-.04	.01	.04
ANX	-.04	.09	.00	.02	.02	.00	-.01	.03
AC	-.04	-.05	-.05	.01	-.07	-.11*	-.02	-.08
CC	.01	.00	.00	.06	.03	-.01	.03	-.09

Variables	Conservation		Openness to Change		Self-Transcendence		Self-Enhancement	
	Supervisor high ³ (n = 365)	Supervisor low ⁴ (n = 287)	Supervisor high (n = 660)	Supervisor low (n = 325)	Supervisor high (n = 336)	Supervisor low (n = 318)	Supervisor high (n = 368)	Supervisor low (n = 286)
RO	.06	.06	.10**	.13*	.05	.00	.02	-.05
RC	-.02	.07	.03	.08	-.02	-.09	.01	.05
RA	.03	-.04	.03	-.01	.09	-.06	.03	-.03
IL	-.03	.02	.08*	.10	-.02	.09	.00	-.07
ANX	.05	-.03	.07	.11*	.08	.04	-.04	-.12*

AC	.04	-.05	.00	-.04	-.05	-.01	-.04	.00
CC	.05	-.02	.00	-.02	.03	.06	-.05	-.03

Note. RO = Role Overload, RC = Role Conflict, RA = Role Ambiguity, ANX = Anxiety, AC = Affective Commitment,

CC = Continuance Commitment, IL = Intention to Leave. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

- ¹This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the coworker places greater importance on the value than the employees.
- ²This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the coworker places less importance on the value than the employees.
- ³This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the supervisor places greater importance on the value than the employees.
- ⁴This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the supervisor places less importance on the value than the employees.

Table 4

Partial Correlations for Employee-Coworker and Employee-Supervisor Value Congruence on Higher-Order Values with

Stressors and Strains in Hungary (Age, Sex, Years in Unit and Hospital Held Constant)

Variables	Conservation		Openness to Change		Self-Transcendence		Self-Enhancement	
	Coworker high ¹ (n = 191)	Coworker low ² (n = 142)	Coworker high (n = 197)	Coworker low (n = 139)	Coworker high (n = 214)	Coworker low (n = 127)	Coworker high (n = 195)	Coworker low (n = 144)
RO	-.04	.14	.06	.07	.00	-.15	.07	.08
RC	.06	.07	-.04	.00	.09	-.10	.12	.05
RA	-.15*	.15	-.07	.10	-.03	-.02	-.09	.17*
IL	-.03	.04	.05	.01	.06	-.07	.02	-.07
ANX	-.09	.06	-.06	-.03	.01	-.09	-.04	.00
AC	.08	-.10	-.06	.02	-.05	-.06	.00	-.05
CC	-.10	.03	-.14	.07	-.06	.10	.08	-.14

Variables	Conservation		Openness to Change		Self-Transcendence		Self-Enhancement	
	Supervisor high ³ (n = 171)	Supervisor low ⁴ (n = 104)	Supervisor high (n = 279)	Supervisor low (n = 134)	Supervisor high (n = 156)	Supervisor low (n = 118)	Supervisor high (n = 160)	Supervisor low (n = 114)
RO	.02	.03	.05	.04	.03	-.07	.06	-.03
RC	-.05	.05	-.03	-.04	-.07	.01	.00	.02
RA	.06	-.02	.04	-.08	.04	-.16	.10	-.02
IL	-.02	.07	.10	.14	-.07	.03	-.07	-.03
ANX	.00	.00	.07	.08	.07	.12	-.03	-.17

AC	.09	.01	.00	-.06	.03	.09	-.03	-.03
CC	.06	-.13	-.07	-.13	.11	.01	.00	-.04

Note. RO = Role Overload, RC = Role Conflict, RA = Role Ambiguity, ANX = Anxiety, AC = Affective Commitment,

CC = Continuance Commitment, IL = Intention to Leave. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

¹This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the coworker places greater importance on the value than the employees.

²This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the coworker places less importance on the value than the employees.

³This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the supervisor places greater importance on the value than the employees.

⁴This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the supervisor places less importance on the value than the employees.

Table 5

Partial Correlations for Employee-Coworker and Employee-Supervisor Value Congruence on Higher-Order Values with

Stressors and Strains in Italy (Age, Sex, Years in Unit and Hospital Held Constant)

Variables	Conservation		Openness to Change		Self-Transcendence		Self-Enhancement	
	Coworker high ¹ (n = 153)	Coworker low ² (n = 132)	Coworker high (n = 149)	Coworker low (n = 138)	Coworker high (n = 159)	Coworker low (n = 130)	Coworker high (n = 148)	Coworker low (n = 139)
RO	.07	.09	.19**	-.03	.09	.02	.01	.16
RC	.02	.09	.28**	-.01	-.01	.08	.07	.21*
RA	-.06	.22*	-.04	-.01	.01	.03	-.03	.15
IL	.01	.09	.07	.04	.10	-.10	.06	.15
ANX	-.05	.13	.05	.01	-.02	.07	-.01	.14
AC	-.01	-.01	-.02	.01	-.11	-.18*	-.17*	-.05
CC	.09	.01	.06	.09	-.01	.00	-.05	-.07

Variables	Conservation		Openness to Change		Self-Transcendence		Self-Enhancement	
	Supervisor high ³ (n = 85)	Supervisor low ⁴ (n = 50)	Supervisor high (n = 141)	Supervisor low (n = 82)	Supervisor high (n = 71)	Supervisor low (n = 65)	Supervisor high (n = 79)	Supervisor low (n = 57)
RO	.17	-.09	.20*	.28*	.16	-.09	.11	-.16
RC	.11	.07	.06	.18	.04	-.27*	.18	.03
RA	.09	-.12	.00	.08	.11	-.02	.10	.00
IL	.01	.10	.08	.09	.10	.22	.26*	-.02
ANX	.16	.05	.11	.24*	.16	-.07	.05	-.14

AC	-.18	.00	-.05	-.09	-.16	.02	-.07	-.05
CC	-.07	.09	.04	.05	-.05	.06	-.28**	.03

Note. RO = Role Overload, RC = Role Conflict, RA = Role Ambiguity, ANX = Anxiety, AC = Affective Commitment,

CC = Continuance Commitment, IL = Intention to Leave. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

¹This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the coworker places greater importance on the value than the employees.

²This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the coworker places less importance on the value than the employees.

³This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the supervisor places greater importance on the value than the employees.

⁴This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the supervisor places less importance on the value than the employees.

Table 6

Partial Correlations for Employee-Coworker and Employee-Supervisor Value Congruence on Higher-Order Values with

Stressors and Strains the UK (Age, Sex, Years in Unit and Hospital Held Constant)

Variables	Conservation		Openness to Change		Self-Transcendence		Self-Enhancement	
	Coworker high ¹ (n = 61)	Coworker low ² (n = 38)	Coworker high (n = 61)	Coworker low (n = 39)	Coworker high (n = 66)	Coworker low (n = 33)	Coworker high (n = 64)	Coworker low (n = 36)
RO	-.01	-.10	.07	.28	-.03	-.06	-.01	-.13
RC	.07	.09	.17	.32*	.15	-.03	.11	.18
RA	-.20	.20	.03	.25	.03	.12	-.20	.05
IL	-.22	-.34*	-.12	.13	-.13	-.12	-.18	-.06
ANX	-.19	.07	-.07	.28	-.05	-.22	-.02	-.20
AC	.14	-.01	-.14	-.07	.11	.14	.06	-.32
CC	.15	.08	.06	.03	.28*	.04	.24	-.18

Variables	Conservation		Openness to Change		Self-Transcendence		Self-Enhancement	
	Supervisor high ³ (n = 22)	Supervisor low ⁴ (n = 43)	Supervisor high (n = 71)	Supervisor low (n = 36)	Supervisor high (n = 28)	Supervisor low (n = 37)	Supervisor high (n = 27)	Supervisor low (n = 38)
RO	-.29	.18	.20	.14	-.16	.22	.01	.01
RC	-.11	.15	.41**	.29	.03	-.02	.15	.38*
RA	-.41*	-.05	.22	.13	.32	-.01	.03	-.07
IL	-.06	-.04	.11	-.05	-.16	-.10	.09	-.34*
ANX	-.27	.15	.00	-.08	-.01	-.05	.02	-.08

AC	.26	-.19	.01	.10	-.05	-.24	.08	.22
CC	.03	.13	-.01	.04	-.16	.01	.40*	.04

Note. RO = Role Overload, RC = Role Conflict, RA = Role Ambiguity, ANX = Anxiety, AC = Affective Commitment,

CC = Continuance Commitment, IL = Intention to Leave. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

- ¹This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the coworker places greater importance on the value than the employees.
- ²This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the coworker places less importance on the value than the employees.
- ³This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the supervisor places greater importance on the value than the employees.
- ⁴This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the supervisor places less importance on the value than the employees.

Table 7

Partial Correlations for Employee-Coworker and Employee-Supervisor Value Congruence on Higher-Order Values with

Stressors and Strains in the US (Age, Sex, Years in Unit and Hospital Held Constant)

Variables	Conservation (n = 135)		Openness to Change (n = 134)		Self-Transcendence (n = 140)		Self-Enhancement (n = 136)	
	Coworker high ¹	Coworker low ²	Coworker high	Coworker low	Coworker high	Coworker low	Coworker high	Coworker low
RO	.06	.02	.06	-.11	.08	.06	.10	.10
RC	.04	.06	.12	.04	.14	.06	.09	.10
RA	-.15	.04	-.04	.01	.09	.19	.01	-.11
IL	.09	.06	.19*	-.06	.19*	.05	.04	.09
ANX	.08	.09	.11	.03	.13	.11	.03	-.02
AC	.00	.01	-.05	-.05	-.13	-.15	.07	-.07
CC	.05	.03	-.11	-.05	.13	-.18	-.09	.04

Variables	Conservation (n = 72)		Openness to Change (n = 154)		Self-Transcendence (n = 66)		Self-Enhancement (n = 87)	
	Supervisor high ³	Supervisor low ⁴	Supervisor high	Supervisor low	Supervisor high	Supervisor low	Supervisor high	Supervisor low
RO	.07	.14	.07	.13	.06	.03	-.09	.01
RC	-.12	.05	-.06	.12	-.01	-.04	-.12	-.10
RA	.00	-.12	-.02	-.18	.08	-.01	-.17	-.06
IL	-.06	-.08	.07	.23	-.05	.16	-.02	-.07
ANX	.09	-.16	.10	.17	.03	.04	-.14	-.03

AC	.11	-.05	.10	.08	-.08	-.02	-.03	.03
CC	.18	.11	.09	.08	.01	.11	-.04	-.02

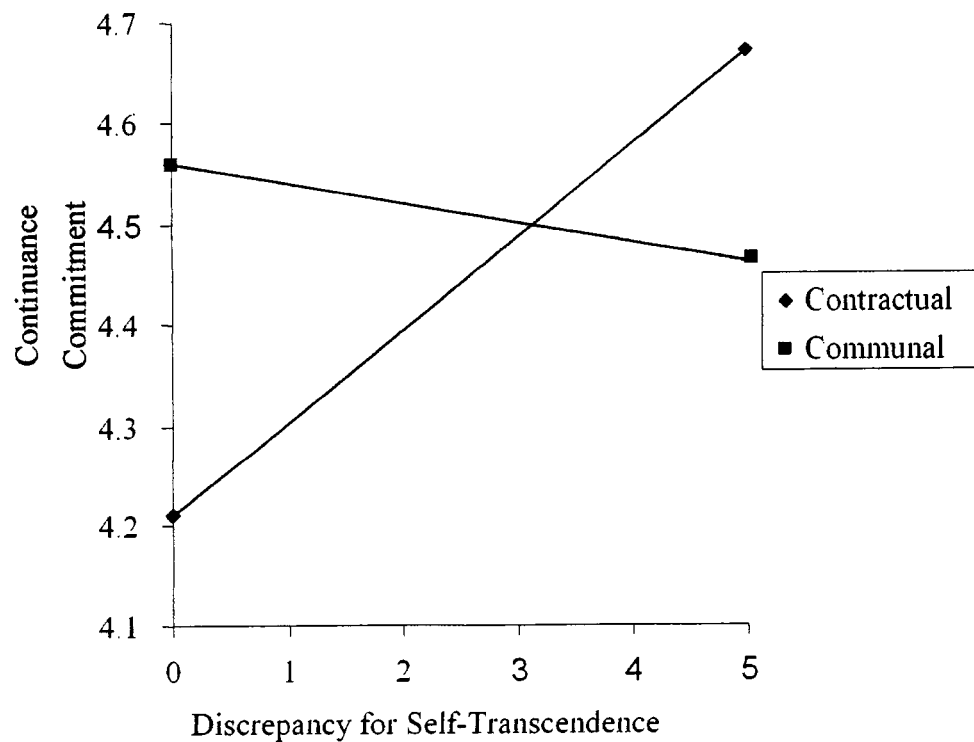
Note. RO = Role Overload, RC = Role Conflict, RA = Role Ambiguity, ANX = Anxiety, AC = Affective Commitment,

CC = Continuance Commitment, IL = Intention to Leave. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

- ¹This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the coworker places greater importance on the value than the employees.
- ²This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the coworker places less importance on the value than the employees.
- ³This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the supervisor places greater importance on the value than the employees.
- ⁴This column represents correlations between value congruence and both stressors and strains when the supervisor places less importance on the value than the employees.

APPENDIX D

Figure



Note. Continuance commitment ranged from 1 to 7. Discrepancy for self-transcendence ranged from 1 to 5.

Figure Caption

Figure 1. Employee-coworker congruence on self-transcendence for continuance commitment when employees valued self-transcendence more than coworkers.