THE EFFECT OF RESOURCE MUNIFICENCE ON WORKER MOTIVATION: FACTORS AND RESOURCES THAT MOTIVATE COMMUNITY COLLEGE ADMISSIONS OFFICE RECRUITING

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ACCEPTANCE

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ABSTRACT

Steven M. Scheer

THE EFFECT OF RESOURCE MUNIFICENCE ON WORKER MOTIVATION: FACTORS AND RESOURCES THAT MOTIVATE COMMUNITY COLLEGE ADMISSIONS OFFICE RECRUITING

There may be many factors that motivate a worker to maintain or modify his/her behavior; and the mere presence of employee motivation is insufficient to ascertain whether worker behavior will enhance attainment of organizational goals. One factor that may influence worker motivation is resource munificence, defined as the level of generosity of commodities that enable the achievement of an objective. Thus, this research examined the question: Can resource munificence alter job behaviors?

Within the context of the admissions offices at U.S. community colleges, this research sought to answer whether the intervening variable of resource munificence moderated job behaviors associated with employees' self-efficacy or affective commitment.

To answer this question, admissions recruiters at community colleges and other two-year colleges, stratified geographically throughout the United States, were invited to participate in an online survey. The process resulted in 304 usable survey responses; a quantity sufficient to provide a 95% confidence level.

Utilizing correlation coefficients, survey results showed that self-efficacy, affective commitment, and job satisfaction are each positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors. These findings helped establish that the community college admissions environment is not all that dissimilar from other

environments in which prior researchers have made similar linkages.

With evidence that this community college environment is not anomalous to other environments, a path analysis was conducted to assess the effect size of resource munificence on job behaviors. Utilizing a maximum likelihood estimate regression method, and the resource munificence motivation formula proposed by Klein (1990), it was demonstrated that the effect of resource munificence on organizationally desirable job behaviors associated with self-efficacy and affective commitment is small and statistically insignificant. Organizationally desirable behaviors do not appear to be moderated by resource munificence in the community college admissions recruiting context.

This research did not confirm that resource munificence altered employee behavior. But these results help uncover issues and contexts beyond the community college that can be further explored so that managers in other occupations may better understand and deploy resources that help enhance employees' behaviors in a manner consistent with the expectations of their organization

TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS (cont.)

TABLES AND FIGURES

Tables

Figures

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the chapter

Concern about motivating workers to perform at their job as expected may be nearly as old as human work itself. One need look no further than the second book of the Bible, Exodus Chapter 5. At a point in history circa 1300 B.C., we find reference to workers' resistance to perform the work as directed, and the employer's action in response so as to motivate the worker to produce the required quota of bricks. (Exo. 5 1:23, King James Version). While the relationship in this context was an Egyptian Pharaoh as master and Jewish slaves, the story clearly amplifies issues of worker motivation and the consternation attendant with the incongruence of worker performance to organizational mission.

Issues of worker motivation and alignment with organizational goals almost certainly predated Moses and the Jewish slaves some 3,300 years ago. And it persists to present day business management, as evidenced by the Academy of Management Review July 2004 *Special Topic Forum on the Future of Work Motivation Theory.* Through the millennia, much has been learned about worker motivation. But over the last eighty or so years, a vast amount of worker motivation and organizational effectiveness research has been conducted; and much more has been learned.

While much has been learned, there is still much more not yet explained. There are many motivational theories posited and not yet fully validated. There are practices employed and not yet fully verified as efficacious. Also, there are many contexts of worker motivation and organizational mission not yet explored. The latter of these, a particular worker/organizational context, is the subject of this research. One area for which little appears to have been studied concerns employee motivation and incentive systems within the nonprofit social service industry of community colleges.

Background

The field of management has always had the task of marshalling and then utilizing resources to produce desired outcomes. The process of converting inputs into outputs is not limited to any particular type of activity; nor is it limited to any type of organization. The resource of the most significance in cost of its use is the human resource; with approximately two-thirds of national income being distributed in the form of compensation to employees (U.S. Department of Commerce-Bureau of Economic Analysis, 2007). And the field of human resources management may have added emphasis in nonprofit organizations. This assertion is supported by Salamon (2005) who reported that nonprofit organizations, typical of community colleges (American Association of Community Colleges, 2007), tend to concentrate in labor intensive fields and not in capital intensive industries.

Effective use of the human resource, workers if you will, is much studied. The perspectives of study vary widely and include fields, such as economics, psychology and other social sciences, management, human resources, and ethics. Much research has been conducted in an attempt to better understand how to most effectively use the human resource. Issues of motivation and incentives for workers have been explored most thoroughly in the area of for-profit organizations. The relationships (or at least the perception of the relationships) between motivation, incentives, and performance appear to be more easily established in organizations where there is a profit motive; and where there are performance-contingent rewards, and a residual claim. The effectiveness of the incentives to motivate employees toward improved performance in for-profit organizations is well studied and often argued.

There is however, also a body of information regarding motivation and incentives for workers in not-for-profit organizations (Courty, P. & Marschke, G., 1997 and 2002; Vinojur-Kaplan, D., Jayaratne, S. & Chess, W.A., 1994; Preston, A. E., Ban, C., Boris, E. T., Masaoka, J., McKenna, T., Roomkin, M., Stricklin, M. L. & Young, C., 2002; Spicer, M.W., 1985); though the quantity of research seems to be less extensive. As evidence, in an interview with Jorge Nascimento Rodrigues in 2000, Peter Drucker is reported as stating that one of the areas for which good management is dramatically lacking, and which holds the most promise of improvement for the twenty first century, is in the nonprofit social industry.

Many of the activities at community colleges are representative of activities at nonprofit social industries. Yet there is strong evidence that the college admissions recruiting occupation is substantially similar to sales occupations. There is strong evidence of the similarity. The National Association for College Admission Counseling (NACAC) addresses issues regarding promotion and recruitment and admonishes members of their responsibility for ensuring accurate representation and promotion of recruitment materials (NACAC, 2007). Further, there are several examples of college admissions recruiting job opportunities and advice concerning desirable applicant characteristics that were advertised in the summer of 2007. For example, a sample job description provided by the NACAC described the need for travel and territory management, and the need to call prospects to action by encouraging application to the college. As well, Jobs.net posted a position opening for a college admissions recruiter for a salaried position that was described as a sales opportunity. Another example of the sales orientation of admissions representatives came from a job description from Vincennes University in Indiana, wherein essential duties were described as execution and management of a territory plan, representation and promotion of the college, and follow-up of prospects via telephone, email or U.S. mail. Similarly, an admissions counselor advertisement at Wagner College in New York listed the duties of student recruitment, and management of a recruitment territory. The listing also stated that the candidate for the position must own a car and be willing to travel. It seems clear that the activities of promotion of the organization's product or service, calling on prospects, a sales orientation, territory management, and follow up communications with prospects, are notably parallel to sales occupations.

While the tasks performed by admissions representatives have similarities to sales occupations, monetary incentives (performance-contingent rewards) and residual claims (gain-sharing) that are prevalent in sales occupations are absent in college recruiting. College admissions ethical standards preclude any such compensatory measures that can provide that type of extrinsic motivation.

Hence, the problem to be addressed in this research is to measure worker motivation in an environment substantially similar to the environment prevalent with sales occupations, but in which specific motivating factors of performance specific incentives and gains-sharing are absent. The problem specifically is to assess the effect of resource munificence on employee motivation. To accomplish this, a measure is necessary to reliably ascertain whether the factors employed to motivate community college admissions recruiters actually attain the focal task orientation of job behaviors consistent with attaining shared organizational goals, or whether the factors encourage job behaviors either in lieu of, or in addition to focal task behaviors more consistent with attainment of personal goals and an alternate task orientation.

The framework utilized in this research is provided by Klein (1990) and is informed by the tax rate/output curve concept seen in economics. Resources and worker motivation can behave in a manner much like the tax rate/output curve described in economics. When there is no tax rate, there is no regulation in the economy, and no infrastructure to support the production and exchange of goods. Therefore at a zero tax rate, there is zero output in the market economy. When the tax rate is 100% there is no incentive to produce, and the output in the market economy is also zero. Graphically, it is shown in Figure 1.

Figure 1

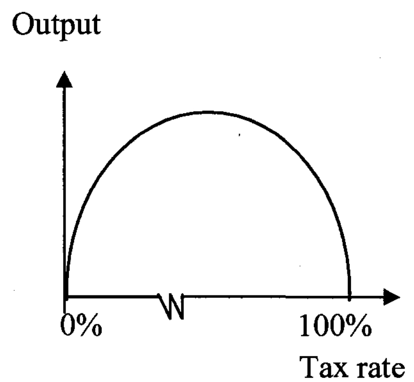
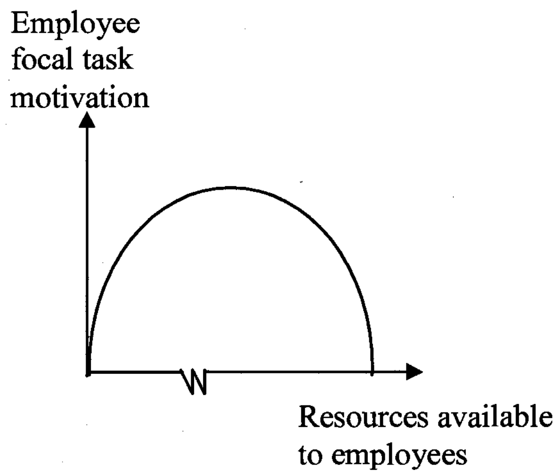


Figure 2



In this research, it is proposed that the amount of resources available or accessible to a worker affects his/her motivation. If there are too few resources, the employee feels there is little use behaving in ways consistent with organizational goals because there is little hope of success. Motivation to behave in a manner consistent with organizational goals is very low. At the other extreme, if there are too many resources available and accessible to employees, the employee is likely to perceive organizational goals as very easy to achieve. Klein (1990) suggests that this abundance of resources frees the worker from persistently behaving in ways consistent with organizational goals, and allows the worker to conduct alternate, personal behaviors. Again, motivation to behave consistent with organizational goals is very low. Its graphical depiction is shown in Figure 2.

Klein (1990) proposed, but did not test, nor is there evidence of testing by anyone else, that a large amount of physical and human resources – Klein termed it resource munificence – affected motivation. He further proposed that the level of motivation and the direction of motivation could be measured. He proposed a Feasibility Model, which yields a simple formula that can assess both intensity and direction of worker motivation. Consistent with the inverted U-shaped curve described above, calculating the net effects of motivational factors relies on a simple mathematic formula which acknowledges that the leveraging and compounding effects of motivating factors may be additive, subtractive, or multiplicative. The specific methodology and computation of the Feasibility Model formula will be explained in detail in Chapter 3 regarding methodology.

Statement of the Problem / Purpose and Scope of Research

Very succinctly, the specific purpose of this research is to answer the question: Can resource munificence alter job behavior? The scope of this research is to attempt to answer the research question through research of employee motivation and incentive systems within the nonprofit social service industry of community colleges. In conversational terms, the research question asks: "When monetary incentives do not exist, does the level of generosity of resources available and/or accessible to admissions employees affect their motivation and alter their job behaviors?"

In more detail, there is scant information that this researcher could find regarding factors that motivate admissions office personnel charged with the task of recruiting new students to their schools. As such, research into the some of the factors and resources that are employed to motivate admissions recruiters at U.S. community colleges is the research project which was undertaken.

As will be explained in further detail later, admissions recruiters at community colleges are specifically precluded by the code of ethical practices established by the National Association for College Admissions Counseling (NACAC) from receiving incentive pay that is a function of the number of students recruited to their respective schools. As such, the potential motivating force of gains-sharing and performance-contingent rewards are not available to admissions personnel. This situation provides a rich environment for research because it simultaneously confounds, countervails, and controls for the impact of motivational forces on employees.

The code of conduct of admissions recruiters confounds some motivational forces because some of the extrinsic motivational tools of incentives and gains-sharing are unavailable. But motivational forces may also be present that facilitate motivation by creating a countervailing force in the form of resource munificence. Resource munificence can be described as an abundance of resources. This abundance of resources provided by the college to the employee countervails the lack of performance-contingent rewards by providing an abundance of resources that make the task of recruiting easier for the admissions employees.

Further still, the community college student recruiting environment helps to control the research in the area of resource munificence because the often-used motivational methods of performance-specific incentives and gains-sharing are not present. The absence of these specific incentives and gains-sharing opportunities help eliminate what might otherwise be significant extraneous factors that could otherwise bias the research results.

With the benefit of these controlling factors, the research seeks first to establish that positive associations of organizational commitment and job behaviors (Denison, Haaland & Goelzer, 2004; Locke & Latham, 2004; Manville & Ober, 2003; Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004; Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982), and self-efficacy and job behaviors (Amrose & Kulik, 1999; Bandura, 1986; Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1995; and Strajkovic & Luthans, 1998) exist in the community college admissions office context as those associations have shown to exist in other contexts. Then, the research question seeks to determine if resource munificence can alter those job behaviors.

This research is specifically narrow in focus so as to make the findings valid within this specific context, yet the usefulness of the research could prove instructive, or lead to additional research within other nonprofit contexts

Professional significance of the problem

There can be many factors that motivate a worker to maintain or modify his/her behavior. The modifying or refractory nature of resource munificence is an important component of the framework to be introduced in this paper. The mere presence of motivation is insufficient to ascertain whether worker behavior will enhance attainment of shared organizational goals. Worker motivation may be high, but the factors present may modify behavior in a manner that encourages the conduct of job behaviors more consistent with personal goal attainment (alternate task orientation), and not encourage the conduct of employee behaviors consistent with shared organizational goal attainment (focal task orientation).

Thus, objective measures of performance are poor measures of employee motivation. A more appropriate, though imperfect, measure is employee self-reports of effort. Yet effort may be channeled toward either a focal task orientation that is more consistent with organizational goals, or toward an alternate task orientation more predominately in pursuit of personal goals. As indicated above, it should be noted that an "orientation" toward either a focal task or an alternate task does not require that the two task orientations are necessarily mutually exclusive. The resource munificence model proposed by Klein (1990) produces a formula which measures both an employee's focal task and alternate task orientation. It produces a result that indicates whether the preponderance of behaviors performed by the employee are more akin to either a focal or alternate task orientation.

Resource –munificence (Klein, 1990)–the generosity of which physical and human resources are made available and accessible to employees–suggests that organizational goals can be achieved by the sheer number of resources in place to attain goals, regardless of the level of an employee's job behaviors consistent with organizational goals (focal task orientation). This suggests that there is a potential for intrinsic motivator mitigation in the presence of both resource munificence (Klein, 1990) and high levels of extrinsic motivating factors (Calder & Straw, 1975; Daniel & Esser, 1980; Deci, 1975; and Pinder, 1976). The potential consequence is that organizationally desirable job behaviors and attainment of common organizational goals can be difficult to achieve. Therefore, the impact of the resource munificence factor must be measured, and its moderating effect on job behaviors assessed. This is done through use of a feasibility theory model that discriminates between the focal and alternate task orientation of employees.

Hence, following are six perspectives that have professional significance, and from which value and contribution to knowledge will emanate from this research:

1. A better understanding of what factors might refract/moderate/redirect employee task orientation in a way that helps ensure behaviors consistent with attainment of shared organizational goals.
2. Research exists that has sought to define, understand, and measure worker motivation. Much *less* research seeks to discriminate between:
   (a) factors of motivation that foster employee behavior toward attainment of shared organizational goals
   (b) factors that promote motivation toward employee behaviors that attain goals that are personal and not in congruence with organizational goals
3. Research has been conducted (Benabou & Tirole, 2003; Maidani, 1991; Miner, Crane & Vandenberg, 1994; and Sherman & Smith, 1984) to help understand the combination of extrinsic performance-specific incentives and intrinsic worker factors that motivate workers in occupations typified by performance-contingent reward systems and residual claims sharing. Much

less research has been conducted to ascertain motivation of these workers when extrinsic performance-contingent incentives are specifically precluded.

4. The nature of recruitment of students to community colleges provides a unique environment which is a combination of activities substantially similar to personal selling typical in the private sector, and a nonprofit public service orientation more closely aligned to public sector employment. While a fair body of research exists regarding the intrinsic and extrinsic factors that motivate, and possibly motivate differently, within each sector, there appears to be scant evidence of any research that identifies motivating factors in this combinative work environment.

5. This research improves the understanding of the management of nonprofit organizations. Clearly there is research in, and there are publications that address nonprofit management. Yet, it would appear that much more research in this area would be warranted. By virtue of the stipulations in the U. S. tax code that mandate certain activities of nonprofit organizations, nonprofit organizations may have different forms of governance and operate with a set of expectations that are not measured by such things as the market forces of profit and revenue generation. Merely exporting or adapting for-profit decision tools and management practices may be insufficient. Further, research in this area is also likely to expand because the nonprofit sector of the U.S. economy is where job growth is the strongest. Utilizing statistics from the state of Indiana as an example, Gronbjerg and Park (2003) revealed that 7.7% of employees in the state of Indiana work for nonprofit organizations

and that growth in the Indiana nonprofit sector is growing at a rate of 3.3% per year. Gronbjerg and Park further showed that this growth in employment more than offsets the loss of jobs in Indiana's durable manufacturing sector. Gronbjerg and Eschmann (2005) revealed similar statistics about Indiana employment within nonprofit organizations, showing that for-profit employment decreased by almost 6 percent during the same period. Buttressing those observations in Indiana, national increases in employment at nonprofits are also increasing. Wilmeth (2007) reports that the work force in nonprofit organizations grew by more than 5 percent between 2002 and 2004; at the same time overall employment declined by 0.2%.

6. The research suggests that the impact which nonprofit organizations will have on the economy is growing (Gronbjerg, K.A., & Eschmann, E.T., 2005; Gronbjerg, K. A., & Park, H.M., 2003; Wilmeth, 2007). Future research and study in the management and development of management tools for use in nonprofit organizations would seem a valuable contribution. The intent of this research is to establish ground work for future research that may be used to create a new managerial decision tool to measure, quantify, and conduct a marginal analysis of the motivating nature of resources. This managerial decision rule may allow managers to optimize employee job behaviors in a manner consistent with organizational goals. Adopting concepts from managerial economics, managers would be able to assemble a variety of resources, and make them available and/or accessible to employees so as to maximize desirable employee job behaviors. This bundle of resources could

be constructed uniquely for individual employees; or recognizing that employees in similar roles encounter similar job characteristics, resources could be bundled to maximize desirable employee behaviors on a role basis. Role based resource assembly suffers from a lack of discrimination and fine-tuning to attain the optimum resource bundle for each employee, but offers the benefits of efficiency that may offset any loss of individual employee motivation and behavior optimization.

This concluding section of the significance of the research question demonstrates that the potential value and contribution to knowledge from this research is validated by the writings of several researchers of motivation.

Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe (2004) asserted that there have been few attempts to examine how commitment and motivation combine to influence behavior. They argue that motivation and commitment are distinguishable, yet related concepts. Further, they assert that commitment is one component of motivation, and that understanding the two processes gives a better understanding of workplace behavior. They also suggest that motivation theory benefits in at least two ways by integrating motivation theory with commitment theory. First, they asserted that commitment is an important energizing force that has not yet been fully acknowledged. Combining them enhances understanding of the reasons for motivated work behavior in general. Second, they asserted that putting the two theories together helps make a distinction between discretionary and nondiscretionary behavior (Meyer, Becker & Vandenberghe, 2004).

The benefit of examining the impact of motivating factors in the community college setting is also amplified by the presence of conflicting research results that cast doubt on the generalizability across various workplace settings. Emmert and Taher (1992) found that public sector employees' social relations on the job and fulfillment of intrinsic needs were the best predictors of attitude. Gabris and Simo (1958) found no difference, and Vinokur-Kaplan, Jayaratne, and Chess (1994) found that opportunities for promotion and job challenge were the most important factors influencing people in nonprofit and public agencies. Maidani (1991) found that while both public and private sector employees identified intrinsic factors as important, public sector employees rated extrinsic factors more important than private sector employees did (Ambrose & Kulik, 1999). These conflicting results demonstrate that motivating factors in nonprofit sectors are clearly not fully resolved and further amplifies the benefit that may be accrued by this research.

Further evidence of the potential value of research in areas of employee motivation is offered by Ambrose and Kulik (1999) who suggest a need to link job attributes to work behavior. Also linking employee intention with action, Alchian and Demsetz (1972) identify the need to discriminate between the goal orientation of job behaviors; and Locke and Latham (2004) demonstrated the disparity in employee goal commitment and the employees' actions to achieve them. In the same research, Locke and Latham assert that work motivation needs to be studied from new perspectives.

Similarly, Seo, Barrett, and Bartunek (2004) suggest the need for further studies that examine how individual differences in valence (pleasant-unpleasant) and arousal (high-low activation) have different implications for work motivation. Consistent with this line of reasoning, Bandura (1977) proposed that self-confidence is central to an individual's incentive to act or to be proactive, and Deci (1975) suggested that an employee's locus of control influences their behaviors. Strajkovic and Luthans (1998) found that work related performance is influenced by self-efficacy, especially as it relates to task complexity and locus of control.

Further evidence of the potential value of research in areas of employee motivation is offered by Ambrose and Kulik (1999). They report that "limited research on motives during the 1990s is disappointing . . ." (p. 235) and "much of the research on motives is atheoretical and none of the studies we reviewed attempted to link preferences for job attributes to work behavior" (p. 236). Still further evidence of the value of examining worker motivation in a new context is offered from Deci (1975) and Klein (1990). Deci (1975) described, and Klein's (1990) resource munificence model formulated, that extrinsic and intrinsic motivation need not necessarily be additive in nature; that situations and work conditions are influenced by resource munificence. As such, Wiersma (1992) stated that "This suggests that the effect is closely associated to how the intrinsic motivation is operationalized, and as such, means the situations to which this proposition may be generalized are limited" (Wiersma, 1992, p. 110).

And finally, there is industry specific significance to this research. Shannon (2004) identified that the biggest challenge to face community colleges is to hire, train and retain good employees; and Amey and VanDerLinden (2004) identify in their research that among the three most pressing internal issues facing community college administrators, one of those is student recruitment and marketing.

These researchers help demonstrate that motivating factors are not fully resolved, and amplify the benefit that may be accrued by this research.

Overview of the methodology

As the literature review will show, there is sufficient research to suggest that self efficacy is positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors, that affective commitment is positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors, and similarly that positively reported job characteristics are positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors. The research does suggest however, that these associations may be situationally and contextually sensitive. As mentioned, the work typically conducted within the admissions office of a community college is a unique amalgam of occupational job characteristics typical of sales occupations, without the usual contingent reward system. Yet to a large extent it exhibits a nonprofit public service orientation more closely aligned to public sector employment. Because of this unique arrangement, the purpose of the research is to first determine if the positive associations of self efficacy, affective commitment, and job characteristics to employee job behaviors is applicable in the context of community college admissions offices.

Conducting this research required some preliminary qualitative research to assist in the identification and validation of the resources most significant in the community college recruiting process. Twenty-eight (28) admissions directors and other admissions recruiting staff persons from several geographic areas of the U.S. were surveyed. The intent of the qualitative research was to assist in the development of a Thurstsone type scale as suggested by Klein (1990), to measure the specific resources that affect worker motivation.

The next component of the research was the use of an online self-report survey mechanism that was collected from a sample of community college admissions representatives throughout the United States that was sufficiently large and geographically distributed to be generalizable to the entire community college population. The survey collected data utilizing an itemized rating scale methodology that incorporated a combination of valid and reliable scales that measured self efficacy, affective commitment, job satisfaction, and job behaviors. Five (5) scales were utilized. The scales were: the Job Satisfaction Survey by Spector (1985); the Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979); the General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale by Jerusalem and Schwarzer (1995); the On-the-Job Behaviors: Positive work behaviors and psychological withdrawal behaviors subscales by Lehman and Simpson (1992); and a rating and ranking scale intended to assess resources specific to community college recruiting activities.

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to measure the extent of correlation of self-efficacy to job behaviors, to correlate affective commitment to job behaviors, and to correlate job satisfaction attendant with job characteristics to job behaviors.

Once the independent variables of self efficacy and affective commitment were shown to sufficiently correlate with the dependent variable of job behaviors, and the moderating variable of job satisfaction attendant with job characteristics sufficiently correlated with job behaviors, it was necessary to conduct the next stage of data analysis. That second stage consisted of path analysis to ascertain the moderating effect of job characteristics on job behaviors.

Finally, the job characteristics factors and resources were evaluated using the feasibility model formula. The feasibility model formula was employed to attempt to ascertain the resource munificence attendant with job satisfaction and was then utilized to conduct a new path analysis to assess the moderating effects of resource munificence on job behaviors. The resource munificence value resulting from the feasibility model formula was intended to distinguish between employees' focal-task and alternate-task orientation.

Feasibility theory predicts that when the quantity and type of resources available and/or accessible to an employee creates an environment that mitigates intrinsic motivation toward organizationally desirable job behaviors, employee motivation will be toward alternate task orientation. In this case, the product of the feasibility theory motivation measurement tool as described by Klein (1990), and shown in chapter three (3) of this document, will have a negative value. When the quantity and type of resources available and/or accessible to an employee creates an environment that enhances intrinsic motivation toward organizationally desirable job behaviors, employee motivation will be toward focal task orientation. In this case, the product of the feasibility theory motivation measurement tool will have a positive value.

While not specifically a part of this research, the intent of the analysis is to be able to calculate a value which this researcher will call the "motivational product." If this can be accomplished, it then may be possible for managers to apply managerial economics decision rules of marginal analysis to derive a marginal motivational product. Derived marginal motivational product values could then be assessed so that managers can assemble an optimal combination of quantity and type of resources designed to maximize employees' organizationally desirable job behaviors.

This concluding section demonstrates that researchers of motivation validate the methodology to be employed. For instance, the feasibility model to be employed for this research employs the concepts of expectancy, valence, and instrumentality attendant with expectancy theory. Direct tests generally support expectancy theory (Georgopoulis, Mahoney & Jones, 1957; Graen, 1967; Lawler, 1973; Porter, 1968; Vroom & Deci, 1971). Further, Landy and Trumbo (1983) have positively correlated all three variables of valence, instrumentality and expectancy. They further show that expectancy theory is predictive of effort when expectancy and instrumentality are self reported because it reflects the performer's capacity to successfully complete a task, and because it is controllable; whereas performance is not (Landy & Trumbo, 1983).

Feasibility theory and resource munificence is an appropriate methodology because resources drive performance by their absence and presence through a motivating and enabling function. Resources that are present exert an enabling but de-motivating effect on performance. Resources that are absent exert a motivating but disabling effect on performance (Klein, 1990).

Locke and Latham (2004) report that "In recent years, conscious, self-reported traits has become popular, especially traits such as conscientiousness, which is fairly consistently related to effective job performance" (p. 389). Finally, observing that information technology has changed work relationships, and that worker output per man hour seems increasingly more elusive to measure, Cascio (1995) and Gutek (1999) reported that there is an increasing number of employees providing services and exchanging knowledge, rather than producing goods. And Ellemers, Gilder, and Haslam (2004) suggested that it is more difficult to define individual work performance or to assess individual productivity. Thus, self reporting appears a valid survey instrument when factors sufficiently confound objective measures of productivity and organizational goal attainment.

Delimitations of the study

This study of the effects of resource munificence on worker motivation was of sufficient size, and comprised of sufficiently contextually relevant considerations to be instructive to nonprofit organizations, with specific generalizability to community colleges throughout the U.S. While one might logically apply the results obtained from this research to other nonprofit organizations, the reader should be cautioned that the study is specifically and contextually limited to community college admissions offices.

Further, this research employed responses from community college admissions recruiters, or holders of similar responsibilities with other titles. While this sampling process benefited by helping to ensure that research results were obtained from admissions recruiters who are the target respondents, the respondents may not have been as fully aware of the resources that are available to the organization as others, such as admissions directors. As such, the perceptions of the quantity and types of resources available or accessible to admissions recruiters might not be fully represented in admissions recruiters' responses, and the motivating effects of resources may be either overstated or understated. However, the dual survey approach of inquiring about the perception of the motivating power of specific resources from both admissions recruiters and admissions directors showed strong congruence. This helped indicate that the proper job factors and resources may well have been identified.

Still further limitation of this research can be demonstrated in the timing of the administration of the research. While this researcher attempted to conduct the research during a time of year when admissions offices are expected to be "off cycle" from the heavy recruitment times of the year, there are likely community colleges whose activities and schedules precluded their participation. This research suffered then from valuable insights from persons at those institutions who found it impossible, or decided not to participate.

Lastly, while this researcher attempted to establish the viability of self reports for the survey, such as that intended to be conducted, it is acknowledged none-the-less that the subjective nature of self reported surveys can impact the results. While the possibility of over- or under-reporting of the motivating effects of resource munificence certainly exists, this research did not include direct observations of self-reported actions that would serve to confirm or refute the self reported activities and perceptions obtained in this research.

Definition of key terms

It would appear that the value of continued research in areas of motivation borne of commitment, of self-efficacy, of job characteristics and satisfaction consistent with resource munificence, and of job behaviors is warranted. The value of the work however, is better understood when the reader has a more complete understanding of the key terms employed in this research. This section is of particular value as the work of Klein (1990) yields some unique definitions or applications of words which might otherwise connote something else to the reader.

Following are the definitions of key terms:

Affective commitment is the strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organization, and is operationalized as a strong belief and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, eagerness to work hard for the organization, and desire to remain a member of the organization (Informed by Crewson, 1997; and Meyer & Allen, 1997). As an example, there are many community college employees who have chosen to work at a community college because they can either identify with, or recognize the value of making education and training available to students who would not, by virtue of prior academic experience, family income, or life situations otherwise be able to attend college. These employees believe strongly in the goals and values of an open admission college and the value of developmental coursework that enables students to enter college and complete coursework that can lead to rewarding careers.

Commitment is a force that binds an individual to a course of action that is of relevance to a particular target (Informed by Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001, p. 301).

Extrinsic task motivation involves positively valued experiences that individuals receive from factors that are distinctly outside the person and are not contained in or derived from the essential nature of the task (Informed by Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Within the context of a community college, examples of extrinsic task motivation would include a comfortable and collegial work environment, some discretion over task sequence and scheduling of daily work activities.

Feasibility as defined in terms of the resource munificence model, is the quantity of resource units that are under the control or available for use by the employee (Informed by Klein, 1990). Feasibility within the community college context could be described as the quantity of all those resources that are routinely issued to any employee conducting that particular type of work, and are not issued solely as reward or incentive for performance.

Intrinsic task motivation involves positively valued experiences, such as feelings of competence and self-determination that individuals derive directly from a task. It involves those conditions by an individual that pertain directly to the task and that produce motivation and satisfaction (Informed by Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; and Wiersma, 1992). Intrinsic motivation in a community college admission setting might include such things as the opportunity to work with highly educated co-workers that promote an employee's feeling of worth by being accepted in that group of persons. It might also include the flexibility to determine one's own schedule that includes having Fridays off, or the flexibility to take time off for family events and appointments.

Job Characteristics are described as the various aspects, traits, or qualities of the work environment (Informed by Dwyer & Ganster, 1991). Job characteristics that may be typical of college admissions offices would include: a fast paced, sometimes high pressure work environment, varied tasks and workplaces that can change from day to day, working out of a car, and typically safe and physically non-demanding work.

Job satisfaction is defined as an employee's multifaceted feelings and affective reactions about a variety of both extrinsic and intrinsic job elements based on comparing actual outcomes with desired outcomes (Informed by Hackman & Oldham, 1980).

Moderating variable is a variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between a predictor or independent variable and a dependent variable. A moderating variable causes the relation between two other variables to change, and explains when certain effects will hold (Informed by Baron & Kenny, 1986). In the case of this research the specific moderating variable will be the quantity and type of resources available to individual recruiters in the admissions office.

Motivation is defined as internal factors that impel action, and external factors that can act as inducements to action and that explain the direction, amplitude, and persistence of an individual's behavior, holding constant the effects of aptitude, skill, understanding of the task, and the constraints operating in the environment. Motivation can affect not only the acquisition of skills and abilities, but also the extent to which the skills and abilities are utilized. It is a process governing choices made by persons among alternative forms of voluntary activity and is concerned with factors or events that energize, channel, and sustain goal-directed rather than reflexive or inertial behaviors (Informed by Steers, Mowday & Shapiro, 2004; Vroom, 1964; and Locke & Latham, 2004).

Organizationally desirable job behavior is behavior that promotes the satisfaction of a common organizational interest and requires that individuals adopt converging goals and sacrifice individual interests in order to align with others in the organization to achieve collective outcomes. It is defined as behaviors that are normative for that organization by virtue of the acquisition of shared goals, and that ensure that a collective good has been provided for that group. Individual motivation is projected on, informed by, and adapted to the needs, goals, expectations or rewards of the organization (Informed by Ellemers, DeGilder, &

Haslam, 2004; Spicer, 1985; and Tubbs & Ekeberg, 1991). Typical of organizationally desirable job behaviors would be activities that result in development of targeted number of prospects, behaviors that result in conversion of prospects into applicants, behaviors such as on-time and active participation in college fairs and high school visits, and working a full day when one is out in the recruiting territory.

Personal Goal Attainment is defined as the satisfaction of self-interested outcomes that may be normative for the individual only and for which there is no requirement of the acquisition of any collective organizational good, or satisfaction of any collective organizational interest (Informed by Ellemers. DeGilder, & Haslam, 2004; Spicer, 1985). Within the community college admission office, there would be ample opportunity to schedule visits away from the office that allows for more time away from the office than is necessary; spending time in professional organizations that accrue benefit to the employee, but minimal or no benefit to the college; and utilization of college supplied vehicles for personal trips beyond those otherwise allowed or expected.

Resource is defined as a commodity that enables the achievement of an objective, and includes physical assets, such as raw materials, capital, equipment, supplies, and information; and human resources, such as knowledge, skills, and abilities. (Informed by Klein, 1990). As described earlier, resources would include physical resources such as laptop computers and college supplied vehicles, and human resources, such as access to Deans of Enrollment and clerical staff available to manage the databases of prospects and event staff who coordinate college tours.

Self-Efficacy is the self-assurance possessed by an individual that he/she can perform task activities skillfully when he/she tries and has the capacity to interact efficiently with, and has some level of control over, his/her environment (Informed by Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Bandura 1986 and 1997; White, 1959; and Kehr, 2004). Self-efficacy in the community college admissions office environment might include the confidence to determine one's own schedule, and confidence that one can adequately manage his/her recruiting territory; confidence to make informal presentations one-on-one to individual students or parents, or to make a formal presentation to high school guidance personnel; or the ability to "close a sale" and convince a student to apply to a particular college.

Task is a set of activities directed toward a purpose. A task includes both activities and purpose (Informed by Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Tasks are myriad within a community college admissions office. They would include activities, such as office appointments with prospects, course advising with certain student populations, appointments at high schools, participation in college fairs, consultation with marketing departments on promotional collaterals, phone call and email correspondence and follow ups, contact management reports, and many other activities.

Valence is generally the ability of the outcome of a task to satisfy a need. Valence as defined in terms of the resource munificence model is the quantity of resource units not under control by the employee, but that are accessible through performance of a task (Informed by Klein, 1990). Valence in the community college context could be the reward or benefit that accrues to a worker because of his/her performance of organizationally desirable behaviors, and could include items such as compensatory time in exchange for hours worked on weekends or nights, tuition reimbursement availability after a prescribed length of employment with a college, and appointments to committees which influence college policy.

Contribution of research

The research helps identify factors that moderate employee behavior: "The strength of the relations between organizational commitment and job performance should be stronger if the measures of commitment are constructed to include working toward attainment of organizational objectives as the focal behavior" (Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe, 2004, p.1003). Meyer, et al. further acknowledge work environments that in some cases are becoming more uncertain and as a result have implications for job design theories and employee empowerment. They suggest that a deeper understanding of factors affecting employee behaviors might help stem any decline in organizational commitment due to instability and uncertainty in economic environments:
"Organizations need to consider very carefully what they want from employees, both in terms of nondiscretionary and discretionary behavior, and then determine what forms and foci of commitment are likely to facilitate fulfillment of those requirements" (Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe, 2004, p. 1004). Further, they assert that commitment can serve as a powerful source of motivation and can often lead to persistence in a course of action, even in the face of opposing forces; that integrating commitment with motivation theory is both warranted and plausible (Meyer, Becker and Vandenberghe, 2004).

Bridging the gap in research, Steers, Mowday, and Shapiro (2004), wrote that while other fields of management research such as leadership, decision making, groups and teams, and organizational design continue to develop conceptually, theoretical developments on work motivation have lagged behind.

And finally, research in the area of motivation at community college admissions offices which portray a unique blend of characteristics typical of for-profit sales activities and nonprofit social service administration seem warranted based on the observations of Spicer (1985). Spicer suggests that the concept of the economic self-interest in for-profit sales activities leads employees to pursue organizational goals only to the extent that such behavior yields personal extrinsic benefits to them, but the concept of the economic self-interest assumption seems less well known in social service administration. Understanding the concept of self-interest from the perspective of resource munificence in a community college setting more akin to social service administration adds to the body of knowledge about worker motivation.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction to Chapter

Davis and Parker (1997) suggest a stream of research approach as a method to guide the literature review and research process, and suggest a process that identifies the academic field, the area of interest, the stream of research, and the theory base. As an introduction to the literature review, these areas will be identified.

Following that identification of the overarching stream of research, will be a generally chronological literature review of motivation theory. From that review of general motivational theory that establishes the foundational motivational theory research, the balance of the literature review will begin in iterative steps to parse and more narrowly focus motivational literature.

Following the introduction of motivation theory in general, will be a review of literature addressing worker motivation, then to a still further contextually focused literature review related to the motivational impact of worker incentives and motivation in nonprofit organizations, and leading ultimately to the literature that instructs the development of research hypotheses. The literature that supports the research hypotheses will be categorized four ways. These four areas of focus will be literature that supports: motivation resulting from a worker's self efficacy, literature that supports motivation resulting from affective commitment, literature related to the impact of job characteristics that affect motivation, and literature that addresses the potential for incongruence between employee behaviors and those behaviors that organizations desire of their employees. That literature review will establish the foundational aspects for the introduction of the literature regarding feasibility theory which addresses the effect of resource munificence on employee motivation, and plays a key role in the research methodology.

Overview of the Fields of Inquiry that Inform the Research

In a very general sense, the academic field of management informs this research, and is captured in the following literature review. More specifically, the management sub-fields of the Empirical School and the Human Behavior School as segmented by Koontz (1961) inform this research.

The area of interest for this research is employee motivation. The stream of research addresses the factors that motivate employees in the absence of performance-contingent rewards or residual claims.

The theory base for this research emanates principally from Self-Determination and Cognitive Evaluation Theory (Deci, 1975), Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964), and Feasibility Theory (Klein, 1990).

A Chronological Literature Review of Motivational Theory

There is a great deal of literature regarding motivation. What follows in this section will first be a chronologically oriented descriptive review that is foundational to the greater specificity directed toward work motivation theory. Then following will be further steps that narrow the focus and provide a more prescriptive literature review perspective that guides the specific research questions and methodology.

While evidence of an understanding of human motivation can be traced to several thousand years ago, some of the earliest literature that revealed scholarly reviews and investigations of motivation seemed to appear in the first third of the twentieth century. Formal research and writing in areas of motivation are impacted by the seminal work of Maslow. His research *A theory of Human Motivation* (1943) described the now well-known hierarchy of needs. Yet it is interesting to note that Maslow's 1943 work lists writings from as early as 1932, by researchers such as Adler and Freud, and referred often to psychology journals from the 1930 and early 1940 period.

Then, influenced by the Hawthorne studies conducted during that time frame, organizational and industrial research and investigation began in the areas of working conditions, the effects of supervision, and the role of incentives. Dennison (1931) suggested modifying jobs so that they could provide improved worker satisfaction. McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953) researched the subconscious achievement, affiliation and power motives that are partially a result of life experiences. By the mid 1950s, Argyris (1957) researched the degree of congruence between the demands of an organization and workers' individual needs, and wrote of the incongruence of the needs of healthy individuals and the requirements imposed upon them by the organization. Simon (1955) introduced the concept of bounded rationality, and noted that people are more likely to be willing to find satisfaction at a point at less than optimum results. As such, Simon challenged motivational theory that relied on the presupposition of optimal performance. Four years later Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) directed attention toward sources of worker satisfaction and aspects of job design leading to job enrichment. Herzberg asserted that there are both motivators and hygiene factors that influence worker satisfaction – those hygiene factors associated with dissatisfaction, and those motivators associated with worker satisfaction. Moving beyond mere job design and its impact on worker satisfaction, Adams (1963) introduced equity theory as an explanation for motivation viewed through the lens of distributive justice.

The period of the middle to latter 1960s was a period of much motivational theorizing. Vroom (1964) developed expectancy theory that built upon motivational research in development of the valence-instrumentality-expectancy model. This model suggested that motivation is a function of the product of the perceived probability of success, the connection of success and reward, and the value of attaining the goal. Later that decade, and similar to Maslow's motivation through satisfaction of needs theory, Alderfer (1969) introduced the ERG theory that viewed motivation through the satisfaction of the three needs categories of growth, relatedness and existence needs.

Alderfer's work drew less from Maslow's more psychological traits perspective and more from a cognitive and rational perspective. In the same year as Alderfer's 1969 work, McClelland and Winter (1969) reexamined McClelland's earlier work on the need for achievement and its effect on economic growth.

Physiological, psychological, and rational influences of motivational theory perspectives continued to take turns at the forefront of motivational research. Adapting the earlier work of B.F. Skinner in behavioral modification and operant conditioning, Luthans and Kreitner (1975) addressed issues of organizational behavior modification through the role of feedback and rewards.

The year 1975 also yielded a motivational theory, called cognitive evaluation theory, by Deci (1975) that instructs and underpins the research project described in this paper. Extending the work of Vroom's expectancy theory and Atkinson's achievement theory concepts, Deci discussed the role played by extrinsic rewards in intrinsic motivation. In contrast to Miner (2005) who asserted that extrinsic and intrinsic motivating factors are only additive, Deci asserted that the role of extrinsic rewards is not necessarily additive to intrinsic rewards. Further, because of the nature of cognitive evaluation theory, Deci asserted that a self-reporting methodology is justified and suggested as the means of assessing employee motivation.

Over a quarter of a century later, Deci teamed with Ryan (Ryan & Deci, 2001) and asserted that their self-determination theory, which is the overarching theory of cognitive evaluation theory, embraces the concept of eudaimonia. They assert that eudaimonic principles of self-realization underpin the three basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness, which are central to self-determination theory. The concepts of autonomy and competence play a central role in the control aspects of job characteristics, and the self efficacy components of the research to be conducted.

Two years after Deci's original development of cognitive evaluation theory, Locke (1977) introduced concepts regarding the motivating presence of goals and self-efficacy. Extending goal setting theory, Locke and Latham (1990) researched goal setting and motivation. They demonstrated that employees with high goal commitment had higher task performance when the employees were issued a specific challenging goal, as opposed to a vaguer goal such as "do your best."

The role of personality traits and the motivational role of goal orientation were examined by Dweck and Elliott (1983); and in separate research in 1988, Elliott and Dweck, and Mueller and Dweck (1998) demonstrated that a person's goal orientation, despite its trait-like quality, was moldable.

Continuing a pattern used by many researchers of extending the work of previous researchers, Hackman and Oldham (1980) broadened the earlier work of Herzberg and suggested that work characteristics and psychological traits and processes affect employee motivation and satisfaction. And Bandura (1986) extended the earlier research in the area of the motivational role of self-efficacy. Bandura (1986 and 1997) also introduced and later refined social-cognitive theory, which attributes motivation to the effects of role modeling. Lord and Hanges (1987) combined the concept of cybernetics to goal theory to explore how conscious goals serve as task performance motivators. In 1989 Kanfer and Ackerman (1989) conducted research in an area they called resource allocation theory and described how a person allocated more attention to observing their performance when they felt the task was important than when the person felt the task was not important.

Employee perceptions of the importance of the work are not the only relevant perceptions. According to organizational behavior researchers Bertz and Judge (1994), the perceptions of employee-organizational fit also play a role in motivation toward organizationally desirable job behaviors. They concluded that the person-environment fit is an important characteristic of job satisfaction. And those whose person-environment fit is the strongest tend to have higher job satisfaction, have greater career success, and are judged as better performers by supervisors.

In the same year, the importance of the degree of person-fit was further researched by Miner, Crane, and Vandenberg (1994). Miner et al. explored role motivation theories and noted that organizations need inputs that serve as the source of energy for output production. This research examined workers' identification to the codes, values, norms, and ethical expectations of conduct of the profession to which they belong; and the extent to which the workers' identification to their profession enhances or mitigates workers' performance toward meeting organizational goals. The authors conducted research in an area they identified as professional role motivation theory, surveying professionals who were university faculty, lawyers, government workers, and workers engaged in private practice. Miner et al. determined that the greater the degree of fit or congruence between organizational values, norms and codes of conduct, and those same characteristics imbedded within a profession, the greater the degree of organizational effectiveness. The particular value of this research showed that professional identification and performance toward organizational effectiveness was not occupationally specific. Their research found that the value of congruence of professional norms and expectations to the norms and expectations of the organization are consistent, regardless of organizational context.

Yet not all research is supportive of person-environment fit as an indicator of attainment of shared organizational goals. Blau (1987) demonstrated that person-environment fit helps predict job involvement, but not organizational commitment. It would seem that person-environment fit is a valuable indicator, but is insufficient in and of itself in predicting organizationally desirable job behaviors.

Another perception important to workers is the perception of procedural justice. The impact of procedural justice and its impact on employee satisfaction that are spawned by organizational decisions were the focus of research by Greenberg (2000). And two years later, Locke and Latham (2002) asserted that goal-setting theory, moderated by knowledge, commitment and feedback can serve as a task performance motivator. Locke and Latham (2004) also observed other worker perceptions and measures of worker intent. They asserted that researchers do not know that much about what people do to regulate their own actions, but by collecting workers' introspection, researchers can ascertain how people energize themselves to undertake and persist at tasks. How persons are energized to perform job activities is especially relevant to those tasks: a) that have a conflict of any sort inherent with them, b) when they encounter initial failure, and c) that indicate what people can do to get themselves committed to a task. Further, Locke and Latham assert that workers with intent do not necessarily act on the intent. People with commitment to goals will not necessarily act to achieve them. Locke and Latham (2004) state that additional studies should be conducted to understand the choices people make after formulating intentions and committing themselves to a goal.

Literature regarding <u>worker</u> motivation theory

The literature reveals a multitude of theories and much research in the area of motivation. In general, the literature separated factors that influence motivation into either intrinsic or extrinsic motivation: the self generated factors – intrinsic factors; and the factors that indicate what is done for people to motivate them – extrinsic factors. Maintaining that same categorization, the current literature addresses both internally generated and externally generated factors that can serve as motivators. What the reader may notice in the continuing literature review are two important perspectives that tend to separate the previous literature review from that which follows. Those two distinctive factors are: a decidedly more focused perspective on worker motivation rather than the concept of motivation in general, and a stronger research emphasis on the intrinsic factors of motivation. This research is more germane to the purpose of this research as it relates to factors and resources that motivate admissions recruiters at community colleges.

Just five years ago, the editors of Harvard Business Review posited an apt observation of worker motivation:

> Ever since Elton Mayo ran his famous Hawthorne experiments – in which factory workers' productivity rose when Mayo turned up the lights and rose higher still when he turned them back down – people have struggled to understand workplace motivation. It's a slippery topic. As Frederick Herzberg noted in his 1968 HBR article, "What has been unraveled [about the psychology of motivation] with any degree of assurance is small indeed." That's still true 35 years later, but we keep trying to understand motivation better because it's so central to organizational success (Introduction, 2003, p. 86).

Intrinsic motivation was one of the core aspects of performance researched by Hackman and Oldham (1980). They argued that intrinsically motivated workers perform tasks at a higher level because performing well has positive affect. They also argued that intrinsic motivation has a positive effect on work quality. They identified that there are five core job characteristics that impact intrinsic motivation, and those characteristics are variety, identity, significance, autonomy, and feedback. Detecting the presence of these characteristics should prove instructive in helping to ascertain the factors that motivate community college admissions recruiters.

Ghoshal and Bruch (2003) addressed a perspective that they called going beyond motivation, and introduced research in the area of volition, or willpower. The authors made a distinction between motivation, whether extrinsic or intrinsic, and volition.

Goshal and Bruch described workers with volition as holding a "deep personal attachment to an intention" and those that "have a powerful need to produce results, and aren't driven by rewards or even enjoyment" (2003, p. 52). In fact, the authors asserted that while a worker's motivation might disappear in the face of negative feedback, resistance or loss of interest, workers with volition find inspiration in obstacles; workers appear to have what the previous literature referred to as the need for achievement. Goshal and Bruch asserted that the acquisition of volition is a formative process wherein an exciting opportunity has captured the interest of a worker. That opportunity then leads often to some catalytic event or conversation that begins to build commitment, and through the process of commitment formation, the worker begins to build mechanisms to protect the now strongly formed intention to achieve the goal.

In other research, Klein, Wesson, Hollenback, and Alge (1999) also identify volition as an antecedent of goal commitment. It would seem that this volitional process would appear to have the potential to serve as a factor that moderates individual behavior, though that behavior may or may not be in alignment with organizational goals. Attempting to determine the power of volition to encourage workers to conduct organizationally desirable job behaviors therefore seems of merit in this research.

In his original writing for Harvard Business Review, and the republication three and one-half decades later, Herzberg (2003) discussed his now oft-cited hygiene and motivation factors, and reminded the reader that workers are motivated by interesting and challenging work, and the increasing responsibilities that go along with the work. Herzberg identified those intrinsic factors that satisfy workers' needs for achievement and growth. Specifically, Herzberg identified seven (7) principles that can serve to motivate: removing controls; increasing accountability; giving workers a natural unit of work to complete (a sense of job closure); job freedom; keeping workers informed; introduction of new and more challenging work; and creation of jobs that allow workers to become experts at what they do. Thus it would seem that measuring job characteristics will prove beneficial in ascertaining the motivating factors of community college admissions recruiters.

In research about high achievers, whom Berglas (2006) calls "*A Players*," it was noted that keeping these types of workers productive entails first understanding that many *A Players* suffer from a lack of confidence. Berglas cites Adler who argued that human's most fundamental need is for superiority; that superiority is spawned from a time in a person's early childhood when children have feelings of inferiority. Berglas wrote that these feelings manifest themselves in adult *A Players* in the form of a superiority or inferiority complex, and produce "insecure overachievers" (Berglas, 2006, p. 106). According to Berglas, these insecure overachievers do not typically challenge the organization's rules, and have unconscious motivations that drive them to gain praise as a way to acquire self-esteem. Their motivation to achieve certainly exists. But their likelihood to persist with the organization is small as they seek out other organizations which might better help them find the self-esteem they crave. The author suggested a need for genuine and personalized praise for these individuals to keep the rule-following *A Players* within the organization. Thus it would seem that an awareness by managers of the presence of these types of personalities and the sincere delivery of deserved praise would moderate the *A Player's* action toward acquisition of their own self-esteem, feelings of self-efficacy, and also toward a closer alignment to organizational goals.

Another decidedly psychoanalytic view of motivation research was undertaken by Maccoby (2004). Examining motivation from the perspective of the worker or follower as opposed to the leader or manager, Maccoby wrote that "followers are as powerfully driven to follow as leaders are to lead" (2004, p. 77). Maccoby's research led him to conclude that there are two categories of follower motivation: rational and irrational. Rational motivation is the conscious and well-known motivation that entails motivation for money, power, and status. In contrast, according to Maccoby, the irrational motivation is comprised of factors for which followers are less aware and less able to control. The aspect of these irrational motivators which the author addressed were what Freud called transference – relating to the leader as if he/she were some important person from the follower's past. Outside of clinical psychoanalysis, this concept is little understood according to Maccoby, and may be what he calls the missing link in leadership theories. Transference is complicated and can take on a multitude of faces. The important person from the past could have been a father, mother, sibling or someone else, and each brings managerial and leadership challenges. Maccoby suggests that one method to manage transference is for the organization to occasionally create a common enemy and promote mutual understanding. By doing so, the leader can channel and manage workers transference in a way that taps into the followers' need to follow, and to follow in a manner consistent with organizational goals. This has implications to resource munificence. Too few resources, and the enemy is not a common enemy around which a mutual understanding can be developed. Instead, all those within the organization are competing against each other, and are not competing against a common enemy. The result is competition that can be counterproductive to attaining shared organizational goals. On the other hand, with an overabundance of resources available, there is little effort necessary in conquest of the common enemy. Thus, the appropriate bundle of resources available to employees is necessary to create appropriately channeled employee job behaviors.

Another view of worker motivation seen through the perspective of the manager was conducted by McClelland and Burnham (2003). Their research in the 1970s and republished nearly 30 years later revealed that 63% of managers they studied had a managerial style that was a coaching or democratic style. These managers were considered successful in part because their subordinates had higher morale. Yet these managers were noted to have had a style that McClelland and Burnham called institutional managers. These managers had a high need for power but seemed to enjoy the discipline of work, were willing to sacrifice some self-interest for the common good of the organization, and have a sense of justice that hard working employees should be justly rewarded. McClelland and Burnham suggested that institutional managers engendered high morale because they produce esprit de corps and a sense of organizational clarity. These resources, though not physical are also part of the human resource bundle specifically referred to in resource munificence and feasibility theory.

Despite the research by Zenger and Marshall (2000) that indicated higher incentives tended to produce higher effort, and yields higher worker performance, Morse (2003) reported that a survey by the National Opinion Research Center at the University of Chicago revealed that on average, respondents listed pay as only the third most important aspect of their job. Of the five factors of pay, security, free time, chances for advancement and the opportunity to do important work, the most important aspect was the intrinsic factor of the opportunity to engage in important work.

Consistent with the concept of an employee's perception of the importance of work, Manville and Ober (2003) utilize the phrase *company citizenship* to describe what is necessary to provide a sufficiently motivating environment for workers who have greater autonomy, greater sense of self-governance, and greater self-determination. Manville and Ober suggest that participatory structures, communal values and practices of engagement that promote broad participation by the entire workforce are necessary to develop organizational citizenship. Since "management is forever arbitrating the bounds between personal freedom and corporate interest." (2003, p. 51), communal values help to mitigate the differences between individual employee's will and the will of the organization. As citizens, each person owes his/her best to the community and the community owes each person the opportunity to fulfill his/her potential in return. This is operationalized in an organization when the employee commits to performing at his/her highest level and in return, the employer promises to further the employee's professional development and career opportunities. Organizations more closely align workers' needs to organizational goals by creating an organizational culture of citizenship that fosters an "emotional commitment to the common good" (Manville and Ober, 2003, p. 53). The authors identify that the organization must clearly define what benefits, rights and responsibilities accrue to, and are expected of its citizens. This concept of moral reciprocity would seem to make the worker feel more of an organizational citizen and less of a mere employee. As such, this could serve to modify employee behavior toward attainment of the "common good" – in this case, the organizationally desirable job behaviors. It would therefore seem beneficial to determine if community college admissions recruiters are aware of their rights, benefits and responsibilities; and if they feel they have opportunities to develop their career in return.

Predating Manville and Ober by over 40 years, but demonstrating the staying power of the concern for person-organization fit, Barnard (1938) recognized the need for congruence of personal goals to organizational goals. Barnard listed four (4) conditions that legitimize authority of communication within organizations. Two of the conditions are an understanding of communication, and the mental and physical capability to comply with those in authority within an organization. The other two conditions specifically address the need for goal congruence. Barnard believed that the legitimacy of communication from authorities within an organization required that a worker a) believes the communication is not inconsistent with the purpose of the organization, and also b) that the communication is compatible with the personal interest of the worker. As with many other researchers and writers of motivation, Barnard noted that personal interest and organizational interest are not presumed to be congruent.

Drucker (1999) also wrote of the incongruence of worker and organizational interest when he wrote that "To work in an organization whose value system is unacceptable or incompatible with one's own condemns a person both to frustration and to non performance" (p. 69). Drucker does not suggest that a person's and an organization's values be indistinguishable from one another, yet they must be sufficiently similar or complementary to allow for coexistence. Absent the similarity in values, the worker will produce less than desired results. Drucker added that today's workers engage daily at their jobs with persons whose tasks and responsibilities may differ significantly from worker to worker. But this clearly was not the first time that Drucker recognized the necessity of worker and organizational congruence and compatibility. In an earlier writing, Drucker (1959) acknowledged the necessity, first, for the entire organization to know the organization's goals, direction, and expectations; and, second, for upper level managers to know of the decisions, efforts and commitments of the employees. Drucker intentionally separated the two foci as demonstration that the actions of the employees may not be congruent with the desires of the organization.

Just two years after Drucker's observations of 1959, Scott (1961) wrote from the same frame of reference when he listed the essential function of organizations. Scott wrote that an organization is formed for the "ultimate purpose of offsetting those forces which undermine human collaboration", and that an "organization tends to minimize conflict, and to lessen the significance of individual behavior which deviates from the values that the organization has established as worthwhile" (Scott, 1961, p. 7). And further that an "organization has to be free, relatively, from destructive tendencies which may be caused by divergent interests" (Scott, 1961, p. 8). Clearly the recognition of the existence, or the potential for the existence, of an employee's alternative task orientation as opposed to an organizationally desirable focal task orientation has shown persistence, and the solution to competing task orientation foci has not yet been found.

Thus it is necessary that each worker be aware of his/her role and strategic importance relative to others within the organization. Establishing a combination of value congruence and the organizational relevance of individual workers was espoused by Drucker. He suggested that feedback analysis is an effective means of ascertaining congruence and relevance.

Issues of congruence and relevance were also addressed by Carroll and Gillen

(1987). They state that managers should be concerned not only with their own goals, but of the goals of others within the organization. They indicated that managers allocate their time around not only the formal goals and plans of the organization, but also around both their own "life agenda" (Carroll and Gillen, 1987, p.45), as well as the goals of other managers. Carroll and Gillen acknowledge that much of the research regarding managerial function does not take into consideration the pursuit of "life agendas" as a significant portion of an employee's workday. This is further observation that there is no presumption of uniformity of mission or dedication to task by and between the organization and its employees.

Worker motivation can also be assessed vicariously through measuring manager's effectiveness. In still another connection between worker motivation and managerial effectiveness, Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) evaluate transformational leadership, job behaviors and what they call "the mediating role of core job characteristics" (2006, p. 327). Piccolo and Colquitt claim that transformational leaders, through careful creation of job characteristics and encouraging worker' intrinsic motivation, can appeal to followers' values and ideals, and as such can augment followers' commitment to organizational goals. Much like the writing of Drucker reported earlier, Piccolo and Colquitt recognize the value of providing workers with positive feedback. This feedback and other tools of transformational leaders, such as emphasizing the ethical and moral implications of work decisions, and appealing to ideological values, improve workers task performance and encourage "extra- role behaviors that are discretionary and not directly recognized by the organization's formal reward system, and that help improve organizational functioning" (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006, p. 328). As with the previous concept of company citizenship described by Manville and Ober (2003), Piccolo and Colquitt identify what they call organizational citizenship behavior. Piccolo and Colquitt showed that follower intrinsic motivation is positively related to organizational citizenship behavior and follower task performance as measured by Hackman and Oldham's (1980) five core job characteristics.

Tangential to the concept of organizational citizenship, Van Yperen and Hagedoorn (2003) demonstrated the value of job social support and high job control. They noted high levels of intrinsic motivation accompany job social support and report that as job demands increase, high job control can help offset job fatigue. Further they note that either high job control or high job social support is necessary to improve intrinsic work motivation. Van Yperen and Hagedoorn conclude that their findings suggest that increasing job social support is the most effective way to improve intrinsic motivation. Since it would seem that much of the motivation available to community college recruiters is in the form of intrinsic motivation, the level of job social support and job control could be indicative of performance, and would be valuable to assess.

Aligning the performance of community college recruiters, some of which is not directly tied to the organization's financial viability, to their respective college goals is central to organizational effectiveness and a key component of this research. In accordance with this, Ittner and Larcker (2003) conclude from their research that organizations are measuring performance with metrics that include non-financial performance. Ittner and Larcker assert however, that their research leads them to conclude that organizations have not done an effective job of matching the non-financial performance measures to strategic goals. The authors suggest that organizations ought to establish models that create causal relationships of non-financial measures to specific outcomes, conduct statistical analysis of the validity of the causal models, and then implement a set of action plans that will lead the organization toward attainment of its strategic goals. Their suggestion is representative of the Balanced Scorecard (Kaplan & Norton, 1992) approach to assessing organizational performance. Thus, within the field of community college recruiting, it would seem appropriate to inquire as to the presence of specific job characteristics that are demonstrative of well communicated action plans and goals.

As has been shown thus far, the literature reveals a great deal of research and theory development in the area of worker motivation. Sullivan (1989) and Kehr (2004) attempted to categorize and combine many of the disparate motivational theories described herein. Sullivan explored employee motivation from the context of agency and non-agency approaches. He suggested a work motivation meta-theory that accepts the reality that there is a predictive nature to motivation theories. The meta-theory predicts that worker initiation, intensity, persistence, direction, and work termination can be categorized into either an agent-like self who is motivated by extrinsic factors, and the non-agency self that is influenced heavily by external manipulation. Where the organizational and task environment are familiar, characterized by low uncertainty, low stress, and high significance to the worker, theories such as need theories, equity theories, economic theories and expectancy theories best explain worker motivation. Conversely, when the task and organizational environment is unfamiliar and characterized as highly uncertain, highly stressful, and of low significance, theories such as self-efficacy, self-esteem, goal setting, job enrichment, and intrinsic motivation best explain how workers are motivated.

In Kehr's (2004) work to combine and categorize motivational theories, he asserted that there are a variety of questions relating to work issues such as recruitment, leadership, compensation, organizational behavior, and other factors that are not fully addressed by the work motivation approaches available at the time of his writing. Citing the work of many of the well-known motivational theorists, such as Adams, Bandura, Deci, Kanfer, Latham, Lawler, Lewin, Locke, Maslow, McClelland, and Vroom, the author posits a compensatory model constructed of three components of implicit motives, explicit motives, and perceived abilities. These concepts in Kehr's model overlap to show how implicit behavioral impulses, explicit action tendencies, and volitional support interact, and according to Kehr, show where all or some of the three components of motivation are lacking. The basis of Kehr's model is that volitional regulation compensates for insufficient motivation from implicit/explicit motive discrepancies. From this, Kehr suggests an agenda for future research which integrates concepts from each of the motivational theorists mentioned. His suggestion is for research is in areas of implicit motives and volitional regulation. The search for, understanding of, and quantification of implicit worker motives is central to the research to be conducted.

Finally, an apt summary directs attention specifically upon this research. Michaelson (2005) wrote that "Among other things, motivation usually involves the manipulation of values that motivate individuals to work for organizational ends. In other words, factors that individual workers regard as valuable need to be channeled or redirected to augment organizational productivity" (Michaelson, 2005, p. 235).

Toward a more Contextually Focused Literature Review

As has just been shown, there is a great deal of literature on the subject of employee motivation, incentive systems, and both intrinsic and extrinsic factors that influence worker motivation. That literature is particularly instructive in establishing the foundations and iterative improvements in motivation theories. Just as the observations of Michaelson (2005) helps to sharpen the focus on the concept of motivation and worker performance in alignment with organizational productivity, the next logical step is to begin to narrow the focus more contextually. This step begins to reveal the areas for which specific research questions can be developed and points the way toward appropriate research methodology involving factors and resources that motivate admissions recruiters at community colleges. Guidance in the appropriate context is provided by Koontz (1961); he segmented the field of management into six (6) "schools" of management theory. This research relies upon two of those schools: the Empirical School and the Human Behavior School. According to Koontz, the Empirical School analyzes cases or history and draws some generalizations that are applicable to future situations, and the Human Behavior School recognizes that management is centered at interpersonal relations, and puts a heavy emphasis on psychology and social psychology. The reader will note the influence of empiricism and the fields of psychology and social psychology throughout the literature review.

Much of the more practitioner-based literature consists of incentive systems and motivation wherein some monetary reward or other instrumental extrinsic factor exists. For instance, Landau and Leventhal (1976), demonstrated the positive relationship between performance-contingent rewards and increased worker effort. Gerhart and

Milkovich (1990) showed that rewards based on performance lead to higher organizational performance. Still, a body of written work regarding non-monetary incentives and motivating factors exists. A review of the literature reveals a good deal of instructive observations by authors from both monetary as well as non-monetary employee reward and motivation perspectives. Included in this section of the literature review will be an examination of motivation and incentives, and motivation issues within the nonprofit setting.

Literature addressing motivation and incentives

There is a variety of literature that assesses the role of incentives in impacting worker motivation and behavior. Aggarwal and Samwick (2003) discussed performance incentives and the effect of managerial responsibility and tested predictions from principal-agent models. Their assertion was that the primary method to ensure that managers take actions that optimize shareholder's returns is to tie manager's compensation to the firm's performance. More specifically, they tested predictions that the sensitivity of compensation to overall performance of the firm is a function of the precision of individual performance signals of effort. Looking at individuals and their efforts, they also note that opportunities for career and promotion incentives play a larger role in motivating a worker who is young than on an older worker who expects stronger explicit incentives in exchange for greater effort.

Emphasizing the interplay between social environment and an individual's personal motivation, Benabou and Tirole (2003), talk extensively about intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. They show that incentives are only weak reinforcers in the short run, and in the long run are negative reinforcers. Benabou and Tirole spoke of the theme in economics that contingent rewards serve as positive reinforcers, but that there is a large body of evidence that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation can sometimes conflict. They show that extrinsic motivation in the form of such things as piece-rate pay, are compromised when the system undermines the intrinsic motivation of workers. They noted that rewards will often focus the worker's attention on the product of getting the reward, and not on the intended activity. They even introduce the subject of "forbidden fruits" (Benabou & Tirole, 2003, p. 498); in economic parlance, it is called compensating wage differentials (Ruffin & Gregory, 1990). Benabou and Tirole show that a higher reward is associated with less attractive work and as a result the higher pay reduces an individual's intrinsic motivation. Further, they show how a reward, when withdrawn, can actually encourage people to work less than they did before the reward was originally given. Lastly, they show that empowerment is good for the worker because it reinforces the worker's confidence in his/her own ability and also changes the worker's attitude toward the task, which serves to the benefit of the owner as well.

Also addressing the issue of ownership, Case (1995) suggested that it is necessary to get employees to act more like owners, and thus better help meet the owner's goals. His suggestion is to employ open book management wherein the employee gets access to "the books" so workers can see how their actions directly influence the success of an organization. He suggested that employees should get involved in setting the organization's goals, and to have employees give short periodic reports on how their activities helped accomplish the organization's goals. Sharing much of the same philosophy of consistency and timeliness, Yukl, Latham, and Pursell (1976) conclude in their research that a continuous reinforcement schedule is more effective for improving performance than a variable ratio schedule.

Drago, Estrin and Wooden (1992) conducted research about worker attitudes that portrays incentives from a completely different perspective. Their work is still very instructive, as it highlights the differences in both culture and workforce. Drago, Estrin and Wooden looked at private sector manufacturing industry employees in Australia. In their work, they assert that participatory management and job security are insignificant. This contrasts notably with much of the research on incentives in nonprofit organizations in the U.S. Drago, et al. show that participation in quality circles or similar teams was only weakly correlated to job satisfaction, and that only slightly more strongly does management consultation with workers add to worker satisfaction. As in many U.S. studies, they found a positive effect on job satisfaction from pay, but not on commitment to the job. The authors stated that their greatest surprise was that the bundling of incentives and participatory management did not lead to greater job satisfaction as studies have shown it does in the U.S. They conclude from their research that company gains-sharing can increase commitment to the organization, and that worker and work-group bonuses improve job satisfaction, but they did not discover a system of wage incentives that would increase both.

Other research shows similar results. Jones (1999) writes of motivation and compensation for substitute teachers, relaying the story his grandfather told that "The better the bait, the better the catch" (Jones, 1999, p.2). However, that better bait need not necessarily mean better pay. Similar to results shown elsewhere regarding nonprofit incentives, Jones suggested that substitute teachers respond well to non-monetary incentives, such as having some control over their use of human resources manifested in things such as professional acceptance and social inclusion. In a comparable vein, Nelson (1997) writes that individuals want to be recognized for the contributions they have made to an organization. Nelson gives a small litany of non-monetary incentives that encourage performance toward an organization's goals. He summarized what many researchers have discovered: that autonomy, flexibility, involvement in decision making, substantial communication, and interesting job assignments all serve to motivate workers in a manner consistent with organizational goals.

Knight, Durham and Locke (2001) examined incentives as they relate to team concepts. They relate work about a key determinant of motivation which is the difficulty of the performance or outcome goals for the team. Their results indicated that teams performed the highest when they had both an incentive and a difficult goal to reach. Similar to that, Knight, Durham and Locke noted that team confidence also plays a role in success because teams are more willing to take on relatively more risky strategies to accomplish a task. They posit the caveat however, that the goal must be perceived as reachable. If it is not perceived so, then even offering an incentive can lower the motivation to perform. These concepts are in alignment with instumentality, expectancy, and valence which are key to the research to be conducted.

Spicer (1985) also researched teams and collective behavior and concluded with a very prescriptive list of job characteristics that enhance employee motivation. He suggested that a public choice approach applies economic analysis to the study of political behavior. Through the application of public choice, Spicer attempted to explain how rational individuals work together to attain common, shared or collective goals in large bureaucratic organizations. Spicer asserted that common goal achievement means that a collective or public goal has been provided for that group. As such, public interest approaches to evaluating the effectiveness of attainment of common interests are appropriate tools. The author's public choice research led him to conclude that an appropriate reward system is contingent upon the size of the group, the interdependence of work amongst employees, and the extent to which opportunities for mutually beneficial cooperation is repeated over time. Spicer concluded that when the group size is small, interdependence is high, and the opportunities to repeat interdependent activities is low, the prescribed reward system would be rewards for group effort. When the group is large, the degree of interdependence is low, but there are high opportunities to repeat activities, a reward system based on relative individual effort is warranted. In other words, if rewards are based on group effort, reducing group size, increasing job interdependence and reducing personnel rotation will raise effort levels. If rewards are based on relatively more individual effort, reducing group size and reducing job interdependence will raise effort levels. Again, apt distribution of, and access to resources, play a central role; Spicer suggests that the resource bundle differs depending upon the situation.

In more recent research on individual motivation within team environments, Ellemers, DeGilder, and Haslam (2004) posited what appears to be a rather novel view of motivation borne of the realization that more and more work within an organization is done in teams. These team arrangements have created a range of situations wherein individual goals, expectations, needs and rewards are seen not only from the perspective of personal considerations. Rather, Ellemers, DeGiler and Haslam suggested that the "self" is not rigidly separate from the group and that individual motivation is informed by, projected upon, and adapted to the expectations, goals, needs and rewards of the team of which the individual is a part. The authors note that contemporary work environments require workers to sacrifice short term individual interests and align themselves with teams or organizations as a whole in order to attain long term collective goals. They suggest that individual workers "may come to adopt a primary definition of the self in collective terms" (Ellemers, et al , 2004, p. 461) and that group based goals, outcomes and expectations, which by traditional accounts would be considered extrinsic motivation, can sometimes come to be seen as intrinsic sources of motivation. Throughout, the authors are careful not to interchange the team with the organization. They recognize that when it is necessary to direct workers toward team performance, the focus should be on how the individual identifies with the team, and not necessarily on the organization as a whole. Thus, there is value to addressing goal congruence both at the team or departmental level and at the organizational level.

In further prescriptive research evaluating the overall organizational structure rather than team structures within an organization, Sherman and Smith (1984) evaluated intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and the interplay between the two; with special emphasis on the internal versus external locus of causality. Specifically the authors conducted research to ascertain the effect of organizational structure on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. The authors concluded that the more mechanistic is the organizational structure, the more intrinsic motivation decreases. They found that organizational centralization, standardization, hierarchy, and formalization all were statistically significant and negatively correlated to intrinsic motivation. Sherman and Smith asserted that their findings reinforce other research that external constraints can have a negative impact on intrinsic motivation. These results, the authors suggest, argue for greater decentralization of decision making and authority and a reduction in bureaucratic formalization. Again, control over resources is an important factor of motivation.

Utilizing the concept of the expectancy theory upon which feasibility theory partially rests, Kren (1990) extends the theory and builds a model that combines an individual's perceived value of an outcome with the individual's expectation of achieving an outcome. She believes that higher motivation is associated with greater effort to reach an objective when the perceived value and expectancy are both high, and when the two are combined. Kren's results indicated that performance is maximized where difficult objectives are combined with attempts to build high levels of commitment to a goal.

In other research regarding workers' perception of value from another perspective, Sorauren (2000) suggested that people ought to be considered as persons first, rather than just another input in the production process. He claimed that this is so because organizations are demanding not just a means of production, but are expecting human capital when they hire new workers. As such, Sorauren set out to show that monetary incentives by themselves do not motivate employees to meet an organization's needs. He made an observation that it is not possible for material things to be shared perfectly, and as such material things do not serve adequately as motivators toward promotion of a common interest. He suggested that with monetary rewards, there is a finite amount, and giving more of the profits to shareholders for instance, by definition, there is less for employees. Sorauren asserted that:

As long as the incentives considered by economists neither are perfectly shareable, nor promote a common interest, they cannot be perfect motivators. ...economic theories overweight the conflict of interest. The reason is the conception of human beings: as long as persons cannot be interested on anything different from their narrow interest, they can neither share a goal nor be motivated by anything apart from money (2000, p. 927).

Sorauren then asserted that common goals are required for a stable and dynamic organization; and that can be accomplished by sharing what is not finite – the sharing of ideas (knowledge). This concept suggests that the accessibility of the resource of knowledge about what and how the organization is doing is an effective way to increase job appeal and get employees to work toward attainment of shared organizational goals.

Job appeal and job performance through nurturing of employee self esteem was the subject of research by Arnolds and Boshoff (2002). The authors utilized Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness, and Growth needs theory and established a linkage between job performance and employee motivation. They showed that esteem exerts significant influence on job performance. Arnolds and Boshoff empirically assessed the causal relationship between the Alderfer ERG motivation theory and work behavior. Their research was intended to investigate whether job performance could be improved by satisfying an employee's human needs which the employee values in the work situation. Their results showed that pay and fringe benefits had no significant influence on self-esteem; but that by increasing an employee's self-esteem through opportunities for self-fulfillment, creativity, autonomy, and advancement; job performance increased significantly. These results also support the theory of the mere hygiene nature of motivation attendant with lower order needs as posited by Herzberg. The work of

Arnolds and Boshoff pointed to job characteristics that promote self-fulfillment, creativity, autonomy, and advancement as moderators that may induce workers to more closely align their work activities with overall organizational goals.

Literature addressing motivation in nonprofit organizations

As has been shown, much of the literature views motivation from the context of for-profit organizations. Still, there is substantial information regarding worker motivation in nonprofit organizations as well. Anne E. Preston, in collaboration with seven other authors (Preston, A. E., Ban, C., Boris, E. T., Masaoka, J., McKenna, T., Roomkin, M., Stricklin, M. L. & Young, C., 2002), wrote a report titled "Compensation in Nonprofit Organizations" in which she addressed issues of salary levels, and pecuniary and non-pecuniary benefits that can be considered to attract and retain employees in nonprofit organizations. Preston et al. reminded the reader that compensation packages should not be one-dimensional, but a combination of pecuniary and non-pecuniary benefits. She made careful distinction between for-profit and nonprofit organizations and identified how nonprofits may not distribute "profits" to those in charge of the organizations. She connects the nonprofit mission with the expectation of fiduciary care by nonprofit employees, and lack of stock options and employee ownership. These factors further limit the flexibility of compensation to employees, she asserts. Noting that non-pecuniary benefits are the primary tool to create incentives for nonprofit employees, Preston suggested that nonprofits should stress the social value of the work and the potential collegiality present in the work place. Preston then reminded the reader of Maslow's needs hierarchy and noted that Maslow's work buttresses the concept that motivation is drawn from psychological rewards that build self esteem. Three examples of non-monetary benefits consistent with the Maslow hierarchy, which Preston mentioned are: an interest in the service produced, identification with the organization's mission, or comfort with the management style. Compensation, according to Preston, must meet the three goals of attracting competent people, retaining them, and motivating them to work to meet organizational goals.

Waller and Chow (1985) called the former and latter of these three goals "self-selection effects" and "effort effects." They conducted empirical research to show that a worker's perceived skill level and effort preference play a key role in the process of selecting an employer. Consistent with this, Preston (2002) indicated that non-pecuniary benefits, such as a more democratic or consensus type decision-making process, a comfort with cooperative rather than competitive work environment, adversity to risk, and flexibility of the work are all features that attract, retain, and provide a motivating atmosphere for nonprofit workers. In her closing observations, Preston acknowledges that "academic research on compensation in the nonprofit sector is still in the early stages" (2002, p. 17).

Writing for a nonprofit, credit union journal, Bator (2004) identified a key point that the determination of which incentive works depends upon who it is that is receiving the incentive. Bator asserts that often times it is the "thrill of the chase" (Bator, 2004, p. 4) to some; the monetary incentive can have a negative connotation and leads to apprehension on the part of workers in some industries. Thus, the author is suggesting that there is value in fashioning individual or role based resource bundles toward maximizing employee job behaviors in organizationally desirable ways.

A fair body of research regarding incentives and measuring public service sector performance has also been conducted by Courty and Marschke (1997) in their studies of the incentive program created to accompany and encourage successful outcomes from casework done under the auspices of the Job Training Partnership Act (JTPA). They state early in their writing that "the lack of well defined goals and the lack of residual claim in government bureaucracies make it unlikely that incentives will improve efficiency in public bureaucracies in the same way as in private ones" (Courty and Marschke, 1997, p. 383). In fact, they concluded that their research shows that the monetary incentive system induced training center bureaucrats to maximize their own private rewards even at the expense of social welfare and that even small rewards did not eliminate bureaucrats' dysfunctional behavior. They concluded that implementing market based incentive systems impose a moral hazard cost that reduces any efficiency that might have theoretically occurred from the incentive system. The JTPA research is an apt example of what Kerr (1975) identified when he wrote of the folly of attempting to motivate persons toward a specific goal while issuing a reward that motivates the person to accomplish something else. As the JTPA situation demonstrates, care must be taken not to establish a reward system that engenders motivation inconsistent with organizational goals for: "management apparently was not getting the behaviors it was hoping for, but it certainly was getting the behaviors it was perceived by subordinates to be rewarding" (Kerr, 1975, p. 778). Kerr recognized that managers and subordinates possess divergent goals, and therefore are not likely to pursue the same outcomes. This amplifies the necessity to ensure that this research seeks to find both what motivates employees, and for what the employees' are rewarded – and not to presume that they are one in the same.

In later research concerning the JTPA, Courty and Marschke (2002) discussed the principal-agent problem and further observe how the moral hazard arises because the principal does not observe the agent's effort directly, but instead sees a measure of performance that doesn't adequately or accurately measure the agent's effort. The consequence according to Courty and Marschke, is that the agent sometimes receives a reward in excess of the contribution because the JTPA incentive program is constrained so that even the poorest of agents does no worse than getting no bonus at all; as reducing an agent's income was not allowed in the law. The JTPA program offered a rich opportunity for researchers to look at incentive system effectiveness. Heckman, Heinrich, and Smith (2002) also researched the results of the JTPA and demonstrated similar results. They sought to determine if JTPA performance incentives actually encouraged the intended outcomes, and found that the performance standards put in place to motivate managers did not promote efficiency. As with Courty and Marschke, the market based incentive systems were not shown to be effective in achieving JTPA goals.

Courty and Marschke referenced the concept of residual claims in their evaluation of the market based incentives system employed at the JTPA. Their choice of the term *residual claim* is clear reference to the concept of the motivation recognized by economists when owners have an incentive to operate efficiently and thus be able to *claim* a *residual* in the form of income in excess of total costs. This concept of motivation in the form of a residual claim has been researched by several individuals. They imply that there are proxies to residual claims available to non-owners that could mimic the motivation of firm owners who actually do get to claim the residual.

According to the American Association of Community Colleges (2007), over

83% of community colleges are public institutions. Thus, by virtue of their public status, a large majority of community colleges are not-for-profit organizations. The actions of managers in not-for-profit organizations, and the congruence of managers' activities to the organizational mission have been evaluated by several researchers. For instance, Aizenman and Isard (1983) demonstrated that uncertainty regarding future tax policy affects manager's effort. In particular, Aizenman and Isard wanted to show that there are more and less effective incentive systems for managers transitioning from a command economy toward more market based enterprise privatization. While Aizenman and Isard have adopted a perspective of applicability in economies transitioning from command to market based, the applicability is not limited there. Transitioning from a position in which an employee receives a pre-specified income and all residual accrues to the state, is strikingly analogous to situations within the community college admissions office where managers earn a salary and are not eligible for a share of the "profits" from effort and output. Thus according to the authors' model, a system that offers quarterly bonuses will generate a higher level of effort than a salary-only compensation arrangement, but will generate less effort than a system that allows a manager to keep the full return from his/her increased effort.

Eisenstadt and Kennedy (1981) also evaluated nonprofit organizations and observed the potential for incongruence in employee performance and organizational goal attainment. Their research of administrators at nonprofit hospitals showed that the presence of a residual claimant in nonprofit organizations affects the extent to which administrators control costs. Of particular value, Eisenstadt and Kennedy observed that the presence of competition can serve as a partial proxy to a residual claim. Since job preservation can serve as a viable motivator, the presence of strong competition can serve to motivate managers even if there is no residual claim accruing to them. The presence of competition among colleges for students may also serve to motivate admissions office recruiters in the absence of a residual claim.

Implicit within the potential for incompatibility between managerial behavior and organizational goals in nonprofit organizations, including community colleges, is the principal-agent problem. Srinivasan and Phansalkar (2003) researched how organizational structure, specifically co-operative design, can partially overcome agency theory problems. The authors showed how variations of organizational design can serve to exaggerate or mitigate managers' actions in the absence of a residual claim. The work of Srinivasan and Phansalkar is somewhat far-reaching. Implied from the research is that nonprofit organizations could adopt some design features of co-operatives and thereby operate as a sort of quasi-cooperative organization. Through adoption of design features that mimic arrangements in co-operatives, managers may be able to encourage actions by workers that might likely not be otherwise taken by the workers when the incentive of receipt of a residual claim does not exist. This research aligns well with the research of Maccoby (2004) who addressed cooperation and mutual understanding, and creation of a common enemy as motivationally energizing aspects with implications to resource munificence.

The job characteristics implications of worker motivation in not-for-profit organizations were also examined by Benson (1984). He demonstrated how persons in a nonprofit bureaucratic organization might not only allow, but actually encourage the expansion of rent seeking behavior on the part of other groups about which the bureaucracy enforces property rights. This process of encouraging continually expansive rent seeking activity can serve as a proxy to performance incentives that accrue to residual claimants and that are not available to government agencies. This research has a significant managerial contribution. It has exposed another possible explanation for the reasons why employees and managers do what they do; and how they are, or can be motivated to perform to serve their constituency. Herendeen and Schechter (1977) contribute to the understanding of the importance of resource munificence as a measure of employee motivation. Herendeen and Schechter embarked on the task to develop growth and value models of a corporation and evaluate whether a residual claim available to the firm's managers influenced whether the firm pursued a growth or a value strategy. Herendeen and Schechter indicated that maximizing residual profits is not the ultimate goal, but the tool toward earning the ultimate goal of survival and growth. The authors shared that their work suggests that corporations enjoying high profits "will use the profits to pursue growth, even if there is little or no long run gain to shareholders for this policy" (Herendeen & Schechter, 1977, p.1514). This assertion sheds light on an alternate view of residual claims and indicates that the enterprise itself (and by extension its participants), might actually share more fully in the residual profit than the more narrow view which asserts that much more of the accrual of the residual profit goes to the shareholders. It would seem that appropriate distribution of resources, and the availability and control of the use of the resources by employees can serve as a proxy to residual claim accrual, and may be explained by the resource munificence model.

Introduction to Development of Research Hypotheses

The research shows that motivation theories and worker motivation observations that emanate from the literature are disparate, yet interconnected. The literature review has briefly explored the foundational writings about motivation. In addition, the literature review reported on the work of Deci regarding cognitive evaluation and self determination theory. Deci's research and writing serve as the basis of the locus of control issues upon which resource munificence and feasibility theory is built. The literature also included research in areas of self-efficacy, job characteristics, and organizational fit; all of which play a role as variables in the research that will be conducted. Also contributing to the understanding of the particular nonprofit organization status was a literature review of research that revealed instructive and relevant research regarding employee motivation in nonprofit organizations. This included a literature review of issues such as organizational type, collective behaviors and teamwork, and the impact of residual claims and agency theory impacts. The final step before introduction of the research is to weave a contextually common thread through this diverse yet interrelated patchwork of motivation literature. The contextually common thread allows for the integration of seminal work, theory extension, worker/employee-oriented, and practitioner-based literature into five (5) research hypotheses upon which the research is laid.

For the purposes of this research, the motivation literature will be categorized in four (4) ways: research and theory that supports motivation borne of self efficacy; research and theory that supports motivation resulting from affective commitment; literature addressing the impact of job characteristics that impact job satisfaction on motivation; and writings and research acknowledging the presence or potential for incongruence between employee behaviors and those behaviors that organizations desire of their employees. Following the categorization of motivation literature, will be a brief introduction of feasibility theory which assesses the impact of resource munificence on employee motivation. Then, as the literature converges upon and supports the development of a relevant research hypothesis, that hypothesis will be introduced throughout the literature review narrative that follows.

Research and theory regarding self-efficacy

There is wide research and theory supporting the impact of self-efficacy on motivation. Self-efficacy is generally described as person's conviction of his/her own capabilities to reach a goal. Vroom's model (1964), and the research of Kren (1990), implied that perceptions of probability of success may be a function of many things, one of which may be a worker's self-efficacy – irrespective of whether or not an objective evaluation would corroborate the justification for a worker's own perception of their self-efficacy. Further, Benabou and Tirole (2003) show that empowerment is beneficial to the worker because it reinforces a worker's confidence in his/her own ability.

Locke (1977) and Bandura (1986) conducted research which demonstrated that self-efficacy is an important moderator of motivation. And Hackman and Oldham (1980) asserted that persons attained intrinsic motivation through the process of knowing that they performed well. Knowing that one performs well is in itself insufficient to ensure that workers will perform in a manner consistent with organizational goals. So Hackman and Oldham demonstrated that job characteristics such as variety, autonomy, and feedback served to help channel strong performance toward accomplishing organizational goals.

Also addressing self-efficacy, Ambrose and Kulik (1999) asserted that self-efficacy has been found to be associated with goal commitment, and that the 1990's avoided defining motivation and measuring moderating affects of motivation. Ambrose and Kulik wrote that their research revealed little empirical research that directly examined how employee motivation influences subsequent task behavior. Examining the connection between locus of control and self-efficacy, Deci's (1975) cognitive evaluative theory indicates that a person's locus of control is influenced by that person's perception of self-efficacy. Consistent with the thoughts of Deci, Klein (1990) recognized that perceptions of self-efficacy emanating from the extent of control of resources influence worker motivation. The literature review suggests that self-efficacy spawned of personal confidence is not necessarily dependent upon the presence of other motivators, but job characteristics and conditions that foster self-efficacy would seem to positively correlate with attainment of shared organizational goals. So the first hypothesis is:

H*1: In community college admissions offices, self-efficacy is positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors.*

Research and theory regarding affective commitment

Work supporting motivation toward accomplishment of a mission often leads to the concept of affective commitment. Meyer and Allen (1997) describe affective commitment as the emotional attachment a person has to the organization of which he/she is employed. That emotional attachment manifests itself in the employee identifying strongly with the goals of the organization and conducting job behaviors consistent with organizational goals.

In addition to the work conducted by Meyer and Allen, who built on the work of Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982), many other researchers have addressed commitment and commitment related motivational factors. Denison, Haaland, and Goelzer (2004) showed that the traits allied with affective commitment of mission, consistency, involvement, and adaptation were related to organizational effectiveness. The research of Denison et. al showed that mission and consistency were the best predictors of profitability; that mission and adaptability best predicted sales growth, and that involvement and adaptability predicted innovation. Similarly, McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953) identified needs of achievement, affiliation, and power that motivate workers toward attainment of a mission. But their work leaves relatively unidentified whether the mission pursuit is for personal or organizational goals. Later, McClelland and Burnham (2003) identified managers, which they called institutional managers, who produced high employee morale through the development of esprit de corps and clarity of organizational purpose.

Dweck and Elliott (1983), and Mueller and Dweck (1998) identified the trait-like, but moldable quality of goal orientation that helps ensure dedication to task. And Berglas (2006) very directly addressed employees' dedication to task in his description of very high achieving "*A* players". Berglas asserted that one of the large challenges for firms is to retain this type of performer. He stated that these "*A* players" have a high need for reinforcement of their self esteem, and absent that reinforcement, these high achievers often seek employment elsewhere. This would tend to signal that high achieving workers achieve much through dedication to the mission; but it is possible, as suggested by Berglas, that their mission is primarily a personal one, and may or may not be consistent with the organizational mission.

Alderfer (1969) wrote of the motivational power of the need for growth, relatedness and existence; and Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) extended Alderfer's work to include the importance of self esteem in motivation. Kanfer and Ackerman (1989) identified resource allocation theory and described how workers were motivated toward mission accomplishment when they felt the work they were doing was important. Klein, Wesson, Hollenback, and Alge (1999), and Ghoshal and Bruch (2003) researched motivation from the perspective of volition, and demonstrated how volition modifies individual behavior to accomplish the mission to a level beyond just what motivation alone could explain. They assert that persons with volition have a strong need to produce results and are not driven solely by enjoyment or the need for rewards.

In identifying commitment and motivation, Goleman (1998) suggested that it is necessary to find people who have a passion for the work itself and who are not motivated by the external rewards. He suggested that organizations should seek out persons who take pride in doing a job well, and to hire people who seek out creative challenges. Goleman observed that these types of employees "are driven to achieve. They are forever raising the performance bar, and they like to keep score" (1998, p.99). Goleman further suggested that a determinant of high levels of achievement motivation is commitment to the organization. This leads to the second hypothesis.

H2: In community college admissions offices, affective commitment is positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors.

Research and theory regarding job characteristics

Job characteristics, those traits or qualities of work, can play a significant role as motivating, or de-motivating factors. Within the context of hygiene and motivating factors, Herzberg (2003) identified seven principles that can serve to influence workers toward mission accomplishment. And Case (1995) argued that the perception of a form of ownership through "opening the books" to employees, serves as a motivator toward organizationally desirable job behaviors.

Dedication-to-task research revealed work by Adams (1963), who introduced the concept of a worker's perception of equity. He observed that a worker's perception of the fairness of the effort and the job characteristics that produced rewards relative to the effort and reward of others can have effects upon a worker's dedication to a task. Job characteristics that manifest themselves in outcomes of value to the employee are also evident in an extension of Vroom's Instrumentality-Valence Theory discussed by Campbell and Dunnette (1970). These authors wrote of the distinction between first and second level outcomes. They describe first level outcomes as those outcomes contingent upon accomplishing a goal. Second level outcomes are outcomes that are instrumental in the employees attaining such things as food, housing, and community status. First level outcomes, upon which organizations rely in part to motivate employees, manifest themselves in the form of incentives or rewards. One example of a first level outcome is a performance-contingent reward; however, this type of reward is not typically available for admissions recruiters as it may be for persons engaged in a sales activity for which performance-contingent rewards are the norm. To measure rewards available to admissions recruiters, other forms of first level outcomes, such as the job characteristics of job security, recognition, and increased autonomy would be more relevant to measure. Ascertaining the valence of these characteristics, the strength of an employee's preference for those non-performance contingent outcomes, would be instructive for this research.

Further evidence of job characteristics that impact dedication-to-task comes from the research of Ittner and Larcker (2003). They suggest that there is value in specific and well communicated action plans that serve as a tool to enhance employees' dedication to the task. Aggarwal and Samwick (2003) also indicate that job characteristics attendant with the level of precision of the communication of performance to expectations affects employees' performance. The precision of communication was shown to affect employee performance in the research conducted by Locke and Latham (1990). They evaluated goal setting and noted the effect of motivation and goal commitment when persons were asked to do their best. Knight, Durham and Locke (2001) evaluated team performance and motivation. They showed that teams performed better when they had a high goal to reach and an incentive to reach it; though not necessarily when all they had was a high goal. They showed how high team confidence may lead the team to undertake more risky strategies in the pursuit of task accomplishment. As suggested by Herendeen and Schechter (1977), neither the job characteristics of the level of risk nor the task itself may be congruent with what is acceptable to the organization.

As well, Srinivasan and Phansalkar (2003) showed how cooperative arrangements motivated workers to act in ways consistent with the way that owners would act in attempting to meet organizational goals. While Srinivasan and Phansalkar studied co-ops, several other researchers explored the motivation of job characteristics from other forms of organizational structures. Sherman and Smith (1984) researched areas of internal versus external locus of control and stated that their research suggested that a more mechanistic organizational structure lent itself less to intrinsic motivating factors and that external constraints attendant with a mechanistic organizational structure have a negative impact on intrinsic motivation.

Other forms of employee organization that impact job characteristics were evaluated by Spicer (1985) who suggested his research identified that group size determines the appropriate reward; and Ellemers, DeGilder and Haslam (2004) evaluated motivation and "self," and determined that the self can be defined in collective terms, and is not rigidly separate from the group.

Zenger and Marshall (2000) reported that the results of the National Opinion Research Center survey revealed that the intrinsic factor of opportunity to engage in important work was the most important factor to workers. Also, Manville and Ober (2003), and Piccolo and Colquitt (2006), demonstrated the value of solidifying the importance of work through the development of a sense of company citizenship that modifies workers actions and attitudes toward the attainment of the organizational common good. Van Yperen and Hageboom (2003) and Preston (2002) concur, indicating the value of job social support as a modifying factor to assist in alignment of personal and organizational dedication to task and mission.

Jones (1999) suggested that interesting job assignments, involvement in decision making, flexibility, and autonomy all serve to align workers actions toward organizational goals. Further evidence of the moderating effects of job characteristics in aligning worker pursuit of mission and dedication to task is provided by Ramlall (2004). Ramlall reviewed research regarding employee motivation theories and suggested that there are five (5) core job dimensions: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. These core job dimensions lead to three (3) critical psychological states: experiences of meaningfulness, responsibility for the outcomes of the work, and knowledge of the actual results of the work activity. These in turn lead to four (4) personal and job outcomes: a high degree of internal work motivation, high quality work performance, high job satisfaction, and lower employee turnover and absenteeism. Ramlall identified the personal and job outcomes derived from job dimensions and the creation of critical psychological states as measures of organizational performance. Hence identification of the presence of these core job dimensions and/or these psychological states seems to add significant guidance to research that seeks to ascertain moderators to employee job behaviors. Hence, the third hypothesis is:

H3: In community college admissions offices, favorably reported job characteristics are positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors.

Research and theory regarding the incongruence of employee behaviors and organizationally desirable behaviors

It can be readily seen, and has been well demonstrated in the literature that self-efficacy, affective commitment, and favorably viewed job characteristics are generally positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors. Yet, the literature reveals research that demonstrates the incongruence of employee behaviors and goal orientation relative to those of the organization at which the worker is employed.

Courty and Marschke (1997) and Heckman, Heinrich, and Smith (2002) showed that performance standards and incentives can sometimes actually work at cross purposes to achieving organizational goals. They assert that a sense of confidence spawned from a sense of employment security, and through the opportunity for workers to accrue their own pecuniary benefits may not advance organizational effectiveness. Kerr (1975) amplified the potential for cross purposes when he wrote of the folly of organizations that reward one aspect of employee performance while desiring something else. And further, Herendeen and Schechter (1977) also demonstrated how managers at highly profitable firms pursue organizational growth to accrue power and comfort even at the expense of gains to shareholders. Further, the possibility for the subtractive nature of motivational factors is at the center of the research and theory suggested by Deci (1975), and is foundational to the development of Klein's (1990) resource munificence and feasibility theory that quantifies the motivational product of resources as motivating employees principally toward either a focal (organizationally desirable) task or alternate (personal) task orientation.

As with Courty and Marschke (1997) and Heckman, Heinrich, and Smith (2002), and Herendeen and Schechter (1977), many other researchers have identified the potential for an incongruence between employee behaviors and behaviors desired by organizations. Miner, Crane and Vandenberg (1994) demonstrated that employees have a tendency to identify more with their professional organization, and that identification can mitigate employee performance toward organizational goal attainment. Drucker (1959) and Scott (1961) identified the potential for incongruence between employee behavior and the behavior expected by the organization. Carroll and Gillen (1985) identified the incongruent employee behavior as an employee's "life agenda"(p. 85). Also identifying the value of employee and organizational congruence in motivation and performance, Barnard (1938), and Bertz and Judge (1994) cited the significance of person-organization fit; and Blau (1987) suggested that his research shown that person-organization fit predicts job involvement but not commitment to the organization.

Further evidence of incongruence of behaviors from those that are organizationally desirable emanates from the research of Alchian and Demsetz (1972). They showed that organizational and employee relationships are played out through the prisoners' dilemma game. Even though firms and employees may both be better off by engaging in cooperative rather than adversarial activities, each has the incentive to take advantage of the other.

Finally, research suggesting the need for substitute motivators when performance-contingent rewards and residual claims are absent, points first toward work by Maslow (1943). Maslow's needs hierarchy at the higher levels includes those factors that serve to motivate workers in ways that help them meet their higher order needs. Maslow's work suggests the necessity for the presence of factors in the workplace that facilitate the simultaneously dual purpose of attainment of both individual workers' needs and organizational goals. That congruence of needs was also identified by Argyris (1957), and Drucker (1999). In further research, Maccoby (2004) suggested that some workers are constrained by the concept of transference as described by Freud. He, and Aizenman and Isard (1983) suggested that motivation is improved through the creation of a common enemy that allows a follower's need to follow be met, and allows workers' attention to be channeled toward actions that meet organizational goals. Along with Maccoby, Michaelson (2005) also acknowledged the importance of manipulation of employees' values to channel and redirect workers as a way to improve organizational effectiveness.

The well-researched possibility for incongruence of worker personal goals and organizational goals does not in itself lead to hypotheses development. However, the conceptual model acknowledges and reflects the possibility that the factors inducing employee motivation can manifest themselves in worker behavior that is either more in concert with worker behaviors desired by the organization, or is more aligned with behaviors consistent with personal goals.

Introduction to feasibility theory: the impact of resource munificence

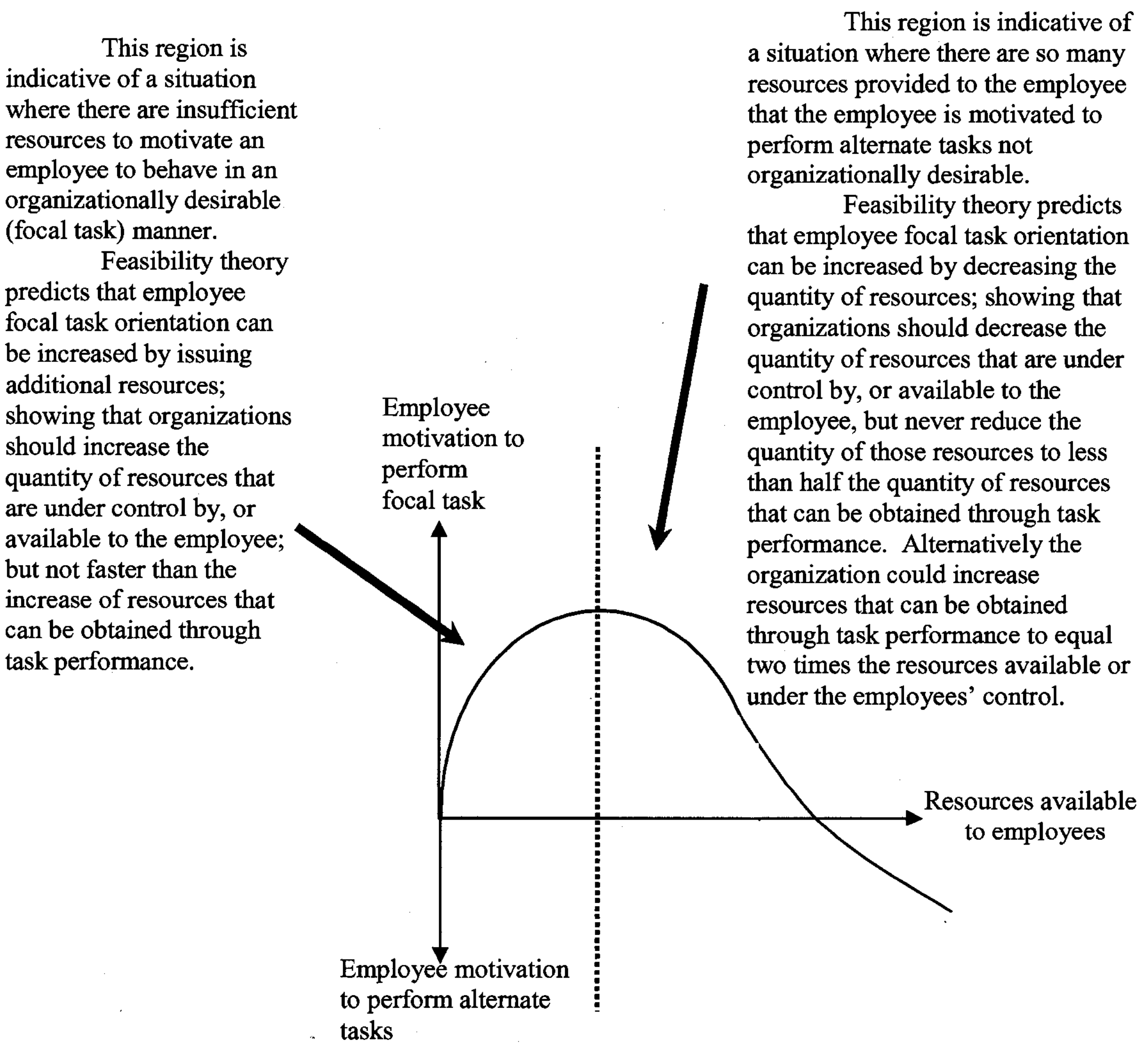
The literature shows that there can often be a divergence in worker task orientation and the task orientation that is organizationally desirable. The literature also shows that the theoretical approaches to motivation are diverse and constrained by context. There needs to be some concept, some theory that unifies the situational specificity and helps explain why employee behavior is often not consistent with the behavior that would be considered optimal by the organization.

Klein's (1990) concept of resource munificence may present an explanation for the incongruence in organizational and employee goal and job behavior orientation. Further, it is suggested that the impact of resource munificence on employee motivation can be assessed utilizing Klein's (1990) feasibility theory. Feasibility theory suggests that the level of generosity of the provision of resources available and/or accessible to employees moderates employee motivation.

In the context of this research, it is proposed that the level of resource munificence can be measured; and that Klein's feasibility theory formula can be applied to job characteristics to measure employee performance. Through respondents' self reporting of the availability and accessibility of organizational resources, values can be assigned that can then be computed to determine each respondent's motivational product. The computed value will have either a positive or negative value. Positive values indicate employee behavior consistent with organizationally desirable behaviors, and negative values indicate employee behavior that is incongruent with organizationally desirable behaviors. Thus, the implementation of the feasibility model of motivation is a valuable tool to discriminate between different types of employee behaviors.

The model can determine whether an employee possesses a principally focal task orientation that is consistent with organizationally desirable job behaviors, or a principally alternate task orientation which is not consistent with the behaviors that are desired by the organization. Figure 3 depicts the regions that show the predictive nature of feasibility theory and the effect of resource munificence on worker motivation.

Figure 3



There is a key distinction that must be amplified at this point. It is important to note that Klein and many of the other previously mentioned authors are not suggesting that assessing motivation entails measurement consistent with a dichotomous choice of a worker being either motivated or not motivated. Further, it is not even suggested that there are merely multiple points of motivation along a scale from very high motivation to very low motivation. Instead, it is suggested that worker motivation is understood not by asking how much motivation, but by asking how much motivation toward what activity. The distinction resides in not just the intensity, but also direction of motivation and is better understood when examining the research of Seligman (1975). Seligman has conducted research in an area he describes as learned helplessness. The premise of his research is that a person can come to believe in the futility of whatever he/she does, and will adopt a passive stance even when the person does indeed have some power to change the situation and circumstances. It is not suggested that a worker's lack of motivation to behave on the job leads to learned helplessness. It is asserted that researchers are *not* measuring helplessness, rather they are measuring whether the motivation is to do something that is consistent with organization goals, or to do something other than that which is organizationally desirable. Motivation exists toward workers doing *something,* but that "*something*" may or may not be closely aligned with behaviors consistent with accomplishing organizational goals.

Consistent with Klein's feasibility theory and North's (1996) observation of the ubiquity and incremental nature of economic change that is a consequence of the choices of individuals, the initially increasing and then diminishing marginal utility of additional resources, either available to workers or accessible through job performance (represented by the inverted U-shaped curve in Figure 3) helps explain how resource munificence channels a worker's motivation. As such, feasibility theory suggests that the level of generosity of the provision of resources available and/or accessible to employees moderates the positive correlation between an employee's self-efficacy and organizationally desirable job behaviors. It suggests this hypothesis:

H4: Job behaviors associated with self-efficacy are moderated by the level of resource munificence.

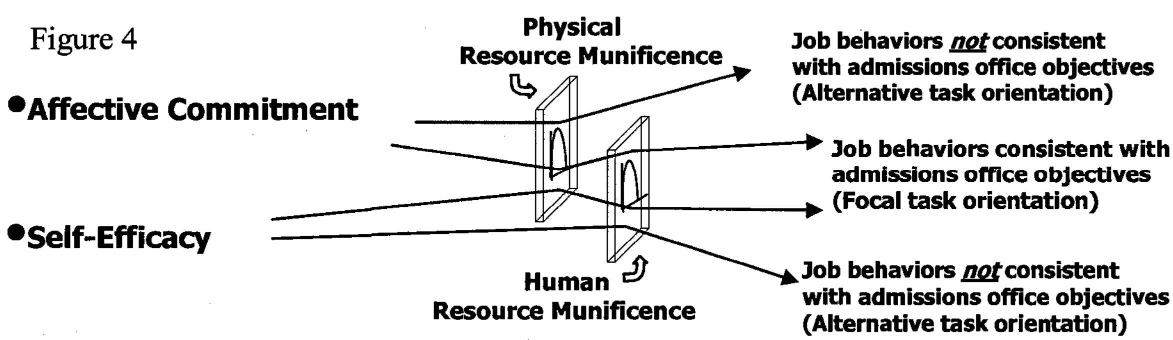
Further, feasibility theory suggests that the level of generosity of the provision of resources available and/or accessible to employees moderates the positive correlation between an employee's affective commitment and organizationally desirable job behaviors, and suggests the hypothesis that:

H5: Job behaviors associated with affective commitment are moderated by the level of resource munificence.

Measuring the impact of resource munificence takes on particular importance because motivating factors that foster employee job behaviors consistent with attainment of shared organizational goals must be "corrected" or refracted just as light is refracted through a corrective eyeglass lens. Straightforward adaptations of market based incentives for non-market-based organizations may not achieve the desired outcome, but it is proposed that a bundle of resources available and/or accessible to employees can be constructed and can be "corrected" or arranged/assembled to serve as proxies to two important facets. First, if one can ascertain the bundle of resources that serve as a proxy to the motivation inherent in those who accrue the residual claim, one can construct dedication-to-the-task incentives that mimic such. Second, if one can determine the bundle of resources that are a proxy to the organizational mission internalization possessed by the owners of for-profit organizations, one can create environments that unify workers to perform job behaviors consistent with shared organizational goals. (Note that this proxy refractory approach is not conditional upon there actually being even a single organizational owner; only that persons are influenced by a quantity of resources that provide the proximate motivation that induces individuals to *act* as though they were owners.)

In the context of a community college, that bundle of resources could include such physical resources as laptop computers and automobiles that employees may also use for personal purposes, and human resources, such as tuition reimbursement for employees and tuition waivers for employees' family members. One could envision a situation with several of these resources wherein the use of the resources by the employee will encourage behaviors that will further organizational goals. Yet, these resources can also be used in a manner that serves the employee but not serve the organization. Some combination of access and control over organizational resources can serve as tools to help meet organizational goals. But some other combination of access and control of resources may induce the employee to behave in a manner inconsistent with organizational goals. Figure 4 shows the model that describes the research.

Figure 4



The next chapter details the methods employed in an attempt to ascertain the effect of the access, control, and quantity of resources, on worker motivation by admissions recruiters at U. S. community colleges.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

General Methodology

As the literature review revealed, there is sufficient research to suggest that self-efficacy is positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors; that affective commitment is positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors; and similarly that positively reported job characteristics are positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors. The research does suggest however, that these associations may be situationally and contextually sensitive. As mentioned, the work typically conducted within the admissions office of a community college is a unique amalgam of occupational job characteristics typical of sales occupations, without the usual contingent reward system. Yet, to a large extent, the work exhibits a nonprofit public service orientation more closely aligned to public sector employment. Because of this unique arrangement, the purpose of the research is to first determine if the positive associations of self efficacy to employee job behaviors, affective commitment to employee job behaviors, and job characteristics to employee job behaviors is applicable in the context of community college admissions offices.

Candidate community colleges and other two-year colleges from which admissions recruiters were gleaned were obtained from the listing of colleges identified by the American Association of Community Colleges (American Association of Community Colleges, 2007). As such, a list of candidate respondents specifically targeted for this research was created, and the list creation maximized the likelihood that the audience invited to participate in the survey matched the desired sample frame.

An online search was conducted to find persons with titles in admissions, recruitment, enrollment management, outreach, etc. who appeared to have specific student recruitment responsibilities. Anticipating that some of the names and emails gathered would not yield desired results, wherever possible, multiple names and contact information was gathered from each community college. Thus, when it was identified that a person from a particular school did not meet the respondent qualifications or did not respond with a usable survey, another person from that institution could be contacted. This process dictated the need for data collection that was intentionally iterative. The process of data collection resulted in invitations being sent to 1,104 individuals. Three (3) iterations were necessary to obtain the required quantity of at least 299 respondents necessary to attain a 95% confidence level and a 5% confidence interval. The three-step iterative process yielded 390 responses, of which 304 were usable. Thus the effective yield rate of the data collection process was 27.54%.

Survey responses and non-responses were monitored at each iteration. The email tool used, (Constant Contact, 2008), provided the user with data regarding the number of opt-out recipients, and the rejected or undeliverable emails. The online survey tool, (Survey Monkey, 2008), provided the surveyor with the Internet Service Provider number for each respondent. As well, each respondent was asked to give both the state and the regional accrediting body in which their institution was located. Each respondent was also given the option to have results of the survey provided they share an email address to which they would like to have the results sent.

This multi-faceted cross checking method of discernment of the location of each respondent allowed for multiple rounds of survey invitations while mitigating the likelihood of multiple results from the same community college location. And to further mitigate multiple responses from a single responder, the settings on the online survey instrument were set so that only one response could be received from any one computer. To test the effectiveness of the setting, this researcher submitted a survey response and then attempted to submit a second survey response from the same computer. The second attempt was not allowed.

In each iteration, prospective respondents were sent an invitation email approximately five (5) days prior to the electronic delivery of the survey instrument. The purpose of the first email was to provide advance notice of the survey request, to explain the purpose of the survey, to encourage participation, and allow for opt-out for any who wished to do so.

Five (5) days following the first email, a second email including the encouragement to participate and the invitation with the link to the survey instrument was sent. A third email sent ten (10) days following the delivery of the second email was sent to all respondents reminding and encouraging them to complete the survey.

To minimize potential response bias from responders who complete the survey at a point in time very distant from receipt, and only out of persistent urging from those requesting the survey, no survey reminder was sent to any individual after the 10-day reminder email. Consistent with response bias avoidance, and to be able to discern the time between date of invitation and date of receipt of responses, each iteration of data collection was kept separate. For the purpose of data analysis and hypothesis testing, data was merged only after it was confirmed that a sufficient number of qualified responses were received. The quantity of qualified survey responses was determined by eliminating survey responses that were incomplete, received from institutions which did not meet the community/two-year college requirement, or from respondents who indicated that they did not have student recruitment responsibilities. This parsing process ultimately yielded 304 usable survey responses that met the sample frame.

As mentioned, the research entailed the use of an online self-report survey mechanism that was collected from a sample of community college admissions representatives throughout the U.S. that was sufficiently large and geographically distributed to be generalizable to the entire community college population. The survey collected data utilized an itemized rating scale methodology; and utilized a combination of valid and reliable scales measuring self-efficacy, affective commitment, and job behaviors. Since the data collected were of a parametric nature, Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to measure the extent of correlation of self efficacy to job behaviors, to correlate affective commitment to job behaviors, and to correlate job characteristics to job behaviors.

Once the independent variables of self-efficacy and affective commitment and job satisfaction were shown to sufficiently correlate with the dependent variable of job behaviors, it was necessary to conduct the next stage of data analysis. The second stage consisted of path analysis to ascertain the moderating effect of resource munificence on job behaviors.

In this stage, the moderating effects of job factors were linked to survey-relevant subscales of the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985), and feasibility theory was utilized to ascertain admissions recruiters' self-report of the resource munificence attendant with job satisfaction. This resource munificence value was then utilized to conduct a path analysis to assess the moderating effects of resource munificence on job behaviors. The resource munificence value emanating from the feasibility model formula is designed to distinguish between employees' focal-task and alternate-task orientation. When the quantity of resources available and/or accessible to an employee creates an environment that mitigates intrinsic motivation toward organizationally desirable job behaviors, employee motivation will be toward alternate task orientation and the product of the feasibility theory motivation measurement tool will have a negative value. When the quantity of resources available and/or accessible to an employee creates an environment that enhances intrinsic motivation toward organizationally desirable job behaviors, employee motivation will be toward focal task orientation and the product of the feasibility theory motivation measurement tool will have a positive value.

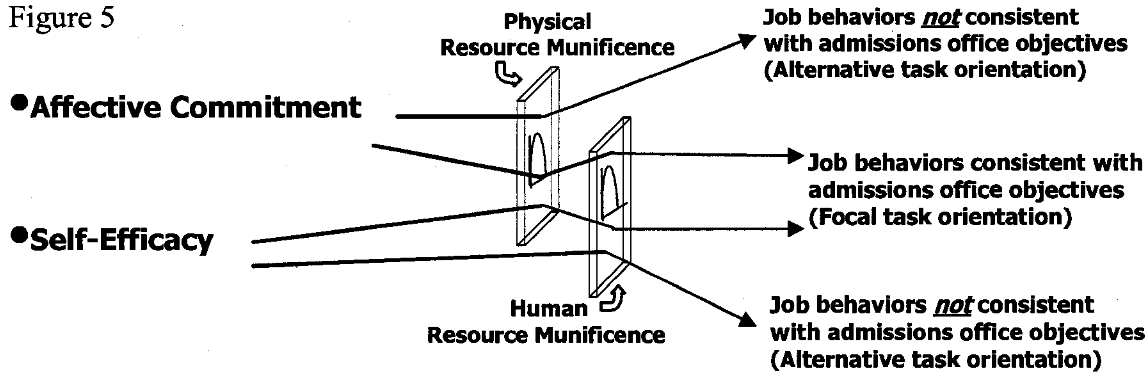
The literature review revealed that there are a variety of theories that can be utilized as possible explanations of what is, and what is not effective in motivating workers. There is expectancy theory which states that motivation is a function of the worker's expectation of success from conducting a particular activity. There is agency theory that suggests that the ultimate theoretical goal is to get the agent to act in a manner that is indistinguishable from the actions the principal would make, and are grounded in concepts of accrual of a residual claim. Some theory is based on Maslow's needs hierarchy approach wherein motivation can only be achieved by fostering an atmosphere in which the employee is striving to satisfy the unmet need higher up the hierarchical pyramid. There are combinative theories that suggest both pecuniary and non-pecuniary rewards together are necessary to get workers to meet organizational goals, and there are theories that posit just the opposite – that the combination of pecuniary and non-pecuniary factors are not additive, but subtractive. There are property rights theories, and not-all-that-dissimilar theories of rent-seeking behavior wherein motivation comes from the accrual of power and control that one can attain by virtue of ownership, rank, or ability to impose rules. There are theories of behavior reinforcement, with all its variants of frequency of reinforcement and theories of moral hazard problems which occur when the incentive designed to motivate the worker to attain organizational goals actually motivates the worker to alter his/her post-contractual actions. All of these theories, and much of the empirical research, shows that many motivational theories are valid – contextually; though it would seem that none are always valid irrespective of context.

The research context

The objective of this research was to first determine if self-efficacy, affective commitment, and favorably reported job factors linked to job satisfaction were positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors in not-for-profit organizations; utilizing the community college admissions office environment as the test organizations. The second objective was to determine if resource munificence moderates job behaviors in community college admissions office context, or in other words, helps explain why employee motivation to behave in certain ways is altered in the presence of resource generosity - even in the presence of employee self-efficacy and/or employee affective commitment.

Graphically, the model for this research looks as follows:

Figure 5



Now that the theoretical framework and model have been developed, information was acquired to determine the effect of resource munificence on the motivation of community college admissions recruiters. Information was collected to determine what quantity and type of resources, produced or synthesized within the organization and made available or accessible to employees, encouraged job behaviors that are consistent with shared organizational goals.

To ascertain and evaluate the motivating factors, the admissions staffs at representative community colleges were reached. They were surveyed using a self-report mechanism. The benefit of a self-reporting mechanism is amplified in the work of the teams of researchers of Locke and Latham (2004), and of Seijts, Latham, Tasa, and Latham (2004).

Locke and Latham suggested six (6) areas of research which they identified as a valuable extension of motivation theory. One of their six suggestions was that introspection be explicitly used as a method to study and understand motivation. Their recommendation for the use of introspection is the suggestion that seems best to inform this researcher's work. They suggested that there is value in self-reporting since self-reporting is a better assessment tool for determining the direction of motivation, not in merely ascertaining its presence. Self-reporting has the benefit of more accurately measuring effort, which is a better gauge of motivation than performance, whose results can be confounded by many other factors other than employees' motivation.

Seijts, et al. also built a case for the value of self-reporting to measure worker motivation. These authors conducted research in areas of performance goal orientation and performance goal. The authors made a clear distinction between the concept of performance goal orientation and the concept of performance goal. They define performance goal as the desire to attain a specific proficiency standard on a given task. Seijts, et al. define a performance goal orientation as a predilection for attaining relatively certain success, and in doing so, increase the likelihood of favorable judgments by others. Performance goal is intrinsic and tends to encourage accomplishment of a task requiring high performance; whereas a performance goal orientation is more outwardly focused and tends to encourage performance at a lower level where the likelihood of success is high even if the performance level is not. Seijts, et al. reported that their research suggests "that goal setting is a theory of ability as well as a theory of motivation" (2004, p. 235). This research suggested that research questions need to be carefully asked, and self-reported, so as not to confuse and interchangeably assign the presence of employee goals as measures of organizational accomplishment; when they may merely describe the presence of an employee's desire for favorable judgments, without regard for necessarily accomplishing organizational goals.

In a stream of research similar to Seijts et al., Silver, Dwyer, and Alford (2006) conducted research to better understand the learning goal orientations and performance goal orientations of salespeople. While admissions recruiters are not technically engaged in a selling activity wherein a commercial exchange takes place as in a market economy, the activities of admissions recruiters are substantially similar to sales activities. As such, the Seijts, et al. research has applicability. Their research showed that learning goal orientation–an intrinsic motivation orientation exhibiting a preference for challenging tasks, new skills acquisition, and persistence in the face of failure–is positively associated with sales performance. Further, Silver, et. al showed a similar association to sales performance with a performance goal orientation; that those with an interest in demonstrating their ability in relation to others, are also likely to be high sales performers. However, Silver et al. and similar to the valence and instrumentality concepts which underpin expectancy theory, demonstrated that performance goal orientation can also manifest itself in a performance-*avoidance* goal orientation wherein a salesperson will not attempt sales activities for which the potential reward may be high, but the likelihood of success is low. This research is instructive for evaluating motivating factors for community college admissions personnel. As such, the work of Silver et al. has application, and helps guide the research to adequately capture and distinguish between employee job behaviors and self-efficacy, and the moderating effect of resources.

Amplifying the unique contextual nature of this research, it is noted that according to the National Association for College Admissions Counseling (NACAC) survey (2004), representatives at 48% of two-year colleges rated the admissions employee qualifications of marketing/public relations skills as very important, and 37% felt that personnel/resource management skills were very important. Thus, some of the skills that appear to be most requisite when hiring new admissions recruiters are identified. This lends credence to the assertion of the sales and sales management oriented nature of college recruiters' activities. Yet, one of the most significant issues that influence motivation at colleges is a result of the Statement of Principles of Good Practice for members of the National Association for College Admission Counseling. As was clearly indicated in the literature review, both monetary and non-monetary incentives exist for employee motivation. One of these two do not directly exist for college admissions recruiters. Aside from salary, college admissions recruiters are precluded from other compensation. The National Association for College Admission Counseling statement of principles states that:

> All members agree that they will not offer or accept any reward or remuneration from a college, university, agency, or organization for placement or recruitment of students. Members will be compensated in the form of a fixed salary, rather than commissions or bonuses based on the number of students recruited; and will not contract with secondary school personnel for remunerations for referred students (NACAC, 2006, p.6).

The research methodology employed herein should prove useful in ascertaining the effects of resource munificence on employee motivation within this unique employment context.

Data Analysis

To measure the net effects of motivational factors, this research relied on what Klein (1990) called a Feasibility Model. The model relied on a simple mathematic formula which acknowledges that motivating factors may be additive, subtractive, or multiplicative. The formula is:

$$\text{Motivation} = \text{Feasibility} \times (\text{Valence} - \text{Feasibility})$$

$$M = F \times (V - F)$$

Where:

M = Motivation = the product of the summative and multiplicative combination of valence and feasibility, whose direction and intensity are indicated as follows:

If $M > 0$, focal task orientation

If $M < 0$, alternate task orientation

If $M = 0$, worker indifference to alternate or task orientation

The nearer to M is zero, the lower the strength of either alternate or task orientation.

F = Feasibility = the quantity of resource units that are under the control or available for use by the employee.

V = Valence = is the quantity of resource units not under control by the employee but that are accessible through performance of a task. (Informed by Klein, 1990).

Klein's Feasibility Model relies on the work of Vroom's expectancy theory, Atkinson's achievement theory, Deci's locus of control influences on behaviors, concepts of task difficulty/ease, trait theory, and situational analysis to fashion a theory that measures motivation is a very discriminating way. Klein suggests that through resource munificence, organizational goals can be achieved by the sheer number of resources in place to attain goals, regardless of the level of an employee's focal task orientation. Therefore, the factors of resource munificence and intrinsic motivation mitigation must be measured. The feasibility model discriminates between the focal and alternate task orientation of employees. It recognizes that the mere presence of motivation is insufficient to ascertain the direction of worker actions. Worker motivation may be high, but the factors present may modify behavior in a manner that encourages an alternative task orientation, and not encourage a focal task orientation. Klein asserts that when factors exist that mitigate intrinsic motivation toward organizationally desirable behaviors, employee motivation will be toward alternate task orientation, and the product of the feasibility theory motivation measurement tool will have a negative value. When factors exist that enhance intrinsic motivation, employee motivation will be toward focal task orientation and the product of the feasibility theory motivation measurement tool will have a positive value.

The data collected to ascertain intensity and direction of motivation were descriptive and cross-sectional, and were evaluated using path analysis, which extends regression analysis and tests the fit of the correlation matrix against two or more causal variables. In the case of this research, the causal variables are self efficacy, affective commitment, and the resource munificence of job characteristics. The resource munificence of job characteristics were evaluated using path analysis to determine the extent of moderation resource munificence had upon job behaviors associated with self-efficacy, and job behaviors associated with affective commitment.

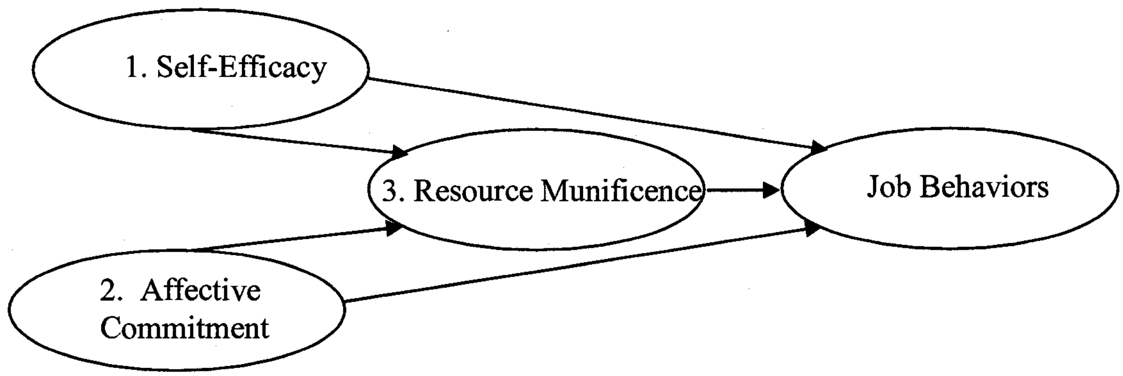
The operational path analysis model that will establish the relationship, and strength of relationship, of the independent, intervening, and dependent variables is as follows:

Independent, exogenous variables: Self-Efficacy and Affective Commitment

Intervening, endogenous variable: Resource Munificence of Physical and Human Resources

Dependent, endogenous variable: On-the-Job Behaviors

Figure 6



This model specifies the following path equations:

Equation 1. Job Behaviors = b_{11} self-efficacy + b_{12} affective commitment + b_{13} resource munificence + e_1

Equation 2. Resource Munificence = b_{21} self-efficacy + b_{22} affective commitment + e_2

(Where "b" is the regression coefficient, the subscripts are the equation number and variable number, and "e" is the error term.)

The Research Participants

The population for the research was easily identified and was readily located. The names, addresses, and number of community colleges are available from the American Association of Community Colleges. Since the population was known with a fairly high degree of certainty, and the likelihood of the questionnaire reaching the correct respondents is high, the systematic sampling error was expected to be small; the sampling frame was well matched to the population.

The possibility of non-sampling error loomed somewhat, though not much larger. Given that there was reasonable reliability that the survey would reach the target population, the collection and response rate was fairly high. While a 30% rate for a mailed survey is considered satisfactory (Cooper and Schindler, 2003), it was hoped that the online survey to as many of the 1,337 community college admissions offices as possible would produce the required number of responses to accumulate sufficient data to yield statistically reliable results.

To understand the motivating factors, the admissions staffs at representative community colleges were reached. According to the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC) (2007), there are 1186 community colleges in the U.S. So as to verify this number, a quick sample of a few states' totals was checked. It was noted that the AACC recognizes schools by name, not necessarily by number of locations. Thus the many campuses located in different cities operating under the same name are counted only once. Since these individual sites have their own admissions staffs, it was more appropriate to count the individual community college locations, regardless of the name of the institution. So this researcher counted the itemized listing of community college sites for each state. That count revealed, as expected, a higher total number of schools. The total population of community colleges in the U.S. was 1,337. This is higher than the 1,186 listed by AACC, but represents a more complete and comprehensive list.

The target research respondents who were in possession of the information sought were the admissions representatives/recruiters at the 1,337 community colleges in the U.S. Further, as mentioned earlier, the target population was admissions recruiters, admissions counselors, admissions advisors, or other similar variants of titles held by those whose responsibility it is to recruit students to attend their respective campuses.

The Research Instrument

Admissions recruiters at community colleges were sent an online survey using the *Survey Monkey* online survey tool, and asked to complete and return it. The scales of measurement used for this research project were interval scales. Some scale questions were intentionally reversed to mitigate the rating scale errors of leniency and the halo effect. A codebook delineated which variable was assigned the ascending and which was assigned a descending scale, so that proper correlations were discerned, and the hypotheses evaluated.

In addition to the main survey instrument, a qualitative survey was conducted (see Appendix C). A combination of personal interviews, telephone, and an email questionnaire was sent to 48 directors of admission at community colleges listed by the AACC. This process yielded 28 usable survey results. The intent of the qualitative interviews was to help verify the relevance of the survey questions in assessing the extent and direction of motivation of admissions office personnel. The specific purpose of the qualitative survey was three-fold. The first purpose was to help validate that the factors identified in the physical and human resources scale identified were indeed relevant factors that represent resources generally accessible or available to community college recruiters. The second purpose of the qualitative survey was to help determine the reliability of statements regarding the identification of resources as being either a valence resource or a feasibility resource. The third purpose of the qualitative survey was to ascertain respondents' ranking of the importance of the resources.

The data collection measurement instrument used was a questionnaire comprised of survey questions from these five (5) scales:

- Job satisfaction facets – *Job Satisfaction Survey* (Spector, 1985); thirty-six (36) question, six (6) point itemized rating scale.

- Rating and ranking scale of physical and human resources - scale specifically targeted to assess resources specific to community college recruiting activities.

- Organizational affective commitment – *Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire* (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979); nine (9) question, seven (7) point itemized rating scale.

- Self-efficacy – *General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale* (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1995); ten (10) question, four (4) point itemized rating scale.

- Employee job behaviors – *On the Job Behaviors: Positive work behaviors and psychological withdrawal behaviors subscales* (Lehman & Simpson, 1992); thirteen (13) question, seven (7) point itemized rating scale.

Research demonstrating the validity and reliability of the scales used in the survey prepared for this research (see Appendix A) was provided by several authors. Blau (1999) determined that the *Job Satisfaction Survey* (Spector, 1985) had a reliability coefficient alpha of 0.89. In a longitudinal study of validity, Blau (1999) found that job satisfaction was positively correlated with professional commitment and expected job utility in the previous year. Further regarding validity, Spector (1997) found that all nine (9) job facets were positively intercorrelated.

For the physical and human resource survey items (see Appendix A) unique to the community college student recruiting process, a Thurstone-type scaling technique utilizing college admissions experts' evaluations of phrases regarding relevant motivational factors, was used to validate the relevance of these factors. Admissions directors from 28 community colleges in various regions of the U.S. were queried to help determine the nature of the feasibility, and the valence of the factors in the Job Satisfaction survey. These directors were also queried to help validate the prevalence and importance of the physical and human resource items identified in the survey tool developed for this research.

Regarding the *Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire* (Mowday, et al., 1979) (see Appendix A), Dulebohn and Martocchio (1998) report a reliability of scale coefficient alpha of 0.85; Huselid and Day (1991) report an alpha of 0.92; Jones, Scarpello, and Bergmann (1999) achieved a coefficient alpha of 0.98; Mathieu and Farr (1991) of 0.88; Mossholder, Bennett, Kemery, and Wesolowski (1998) report a 0.86 for a seven-point scale and 0.77 alpha for a five-point scale; Thompson and Werner (1997) achieved an alpha of 0.90; Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997) established reliability of the scale alpha of 0.87; and Vandenberg and Lance achieved a coefficient alpha reliability value of 0.84. Validity of the *Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire* (Mowday, et al., 1979) was established by Huselid and Day (1991) who found that organizational attitudinal and continuance commitment was positively correlated with perceived advancement opportunities, and with employee job involvement. It was further shown that organizational commitment correlated negatively with employee turnover. Using confirmatory factor analysis, Mathieu and Farr (1991) found that job satisfaction, job involvement, and commitment were empirically distinct.

Establishing the reliability of the *General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale* (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1995) (see Appendix A), Schwarzer (2007) reported that scale reliability is demonstrated by virtue of samples from 23 nations showing Cronbach's alphas ranging from 0.76 to 0.90, with the majority of the alpha values showing high 0.80 values. Schwarzer's (2007) research indicated that criterion-related validity showed positive coefficients of self-efficacy with work satisfaction, emotions, and dispositional optimism; that data show a positive correlation of 0.43 with failure or action orientation, 0.49 with decision or action orientation, and 0.46 with hope for success.

Cropanzano, et al. (1997) evaluated the *On the Job Behaviors: Positive work behaviors and psychological withdrawal behaviors subscales* (Lehman & Simpson, 1992) (see Appendix A) and established reliability coefficient alpha value of 0.68 for positive work behaviors, and 0.70 coefficient alpha value for psychological withdrawal behaviors. Cropanzano et al. (1997) helped establish the validity of the psychological withdrawal behaviors subscale, showing a negative correlation with job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational support, and organizational commitment. Cropanzano et al. also showed positive correlations with psychological withdrawal behavior and turnover intentions, burnout, general fatigue, and organizational politics. In the same research, Cropanzano et al. found a positive correlation of positive work behaviors with job satisfaction, organizational commitment, job involvement, general fatigue, and job tension.

Permission was sought and was received to use each of the four (4) existing scales. The authors of two of the scales, the Spector Job Satisfaction Survey, and the Jerusalem and Schwarzer General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale, grant general permission to use their survey instruments. The Job Satisfaction Survey is free for use for research and noncommercial educational purposes. Permission to use the General Perceived Self-Efficacy scale is granted conditionally upon appropriate recognition of the source of the survey. Express permission to use the On the Job Behaviors Scale was granted to this researcher by Simpson on August 6, 2007. Express permission to use the

Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire was granted by Mowday on August 6, 2007.

Information regarding the proper scoring of each scale was also obtained. By virtue of the number of subscales and the number of total questions, the Job Satisfaction Survey employs the most complex scoring method. There are four (4) items for each job satisfaction factor/facet. A summated itemized-rating scale is employed. Each response within each factor/facet can be assessed using a six (6) point itemized scale ranging from strongly disagree with a value of one (1), to strongly agree with a value of (6). Again, some survey questions are reverse scored. The nine (9) facet subscales can be scored from a range of 4 to 24; and the sum of all 36 items can range from a score of 36 to 216. The scoring is done in a manner that the higher the score, the higher the respondent's job satisfaction. In the event of missing items, the scoring is prescribed in a manner wherein the best procedure is to calculate the mean score per item for the respondent, and then substitute the mean for the missing item(s).

Scoring for the physical and human resources scale is done by assigning a value from one (1) to seven (7) to each of the factors. Response items 1 through 7 describe factors in the physical and human resources scale (Appendix A) are feasibility factors. These are resource units that are under the control or available for use by the employee; they are resources that are not limited to availability only on a performance-specific basis. The higher the value on each factor, the greater is the feasibility to the employee.

Some factors listed the questionnaire (Appendix A) are valence factors. These are resources not under control by the employee, but that are accessible through performance of a task. The higher the value on each of these factors, the higher the employee valence.

The values of both the valence resources, and the feasibility resources identified in the prior paragraph, were calculated using Klein's (1990) feasibility model formula. The formula generated a motivational product for each respondent. The value of the motivational product were either positive – indicating focal task orientation (behaviors consistent with organizational goals); negative – indicating an alternate task orientation (behaviors inconsistent with organizational goals); or zero – indicating worker indifference to behaviors.

There are nine (9) questions in the Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. Along the seven (7) point itemized-rating scale, strongly disagree is assigned a value of one (1), and strongly agree is assigned a value of seven (7). The results of the survey are summed and divided by nine (9). As is often employed in scales to mitigate response bias, this questionnaire also employs some negatively phrased items. These are reverse scaled. The results of the questionnaire indicate a measure of respondents' organizational commitment, with higher scores representing higher organizational commitment.

The General Self-Efficacy Scale employs a similar scoring method. All of the responses from the factors are summed. The scoring range from this instrument is from 10 to 40 points. The summed score is then divided by ten (10), representing the number of factors in the survey instrument. Schwarzer (2007) reports that in many samples, the mean tends toward a score of 2.9 and that scores are valid as long as there are responses to seven (7) or more of the items. If the respondent does not give a response to all ten (10) items, the mean is calculated using the number of responses given. Schwarzer does not endorse a score that rigidly creates a dichotomous characterization of a person as being either self-efficacious or not self-efficacious. Instead, the score achieved measures each respondent's level of self-efficacy along the interval scale, and thus serves this research well in correlating the relationship between self-efficacy and employee behaviors.

The On the Job Behaviors Scale is scored using unit-weighted means of the factors. Scoring is calculated by determining the total score for each respondent on the questions within each category, divided by the number of questions in each category. Responses are assigned a numerical value from 1 to 6 for each response. Within the Positive Work Behaviors Scale, there are five (5) factors/items. Hence, the numerical value corresponding with each factor/item are summed and then divided by five (5). The Psychological Withdrawal Behaviors Scale is an eight (8) factor/item scale. As such, the summed scores of the responses representing their numerical value is divided by eight (8).

Motivational product can also be calculated using the Spector (1985) Job Satisfaction Survey. Within this thirty-six (36) point scale are nine (9) subscales representing different job satisfaction factors/facets, with four (4) survey statements in each subscale. Each of the subscales contains one statement that was intended to be identified as representative of a feasibility resource, and one statement identified as representative of a valence resource. As previously mentioned, each response within each factor can be assessed using a six (6) point itemized-rating scale ranging from "strongly disagree" with a value of one (1), to "strongly agree" with a value of six (6). Adjusting as necessary for reverse scoring, each respondent was assigned a feasibility value and a valence value for each factor. Once again using the feasibility model formula, a motivational product was determined for each factor. However, as will be described in detail in Chapter 4 results, statistical analysis allowed for a paring down of the nine (9) subscales to the five (5) subscales identified as relevant within the community college admissions recruiters' context.

Research Procedure

As indicated previously, a qualitative survey was conducted with community college admissions office directors to help verify the relevance of the survey questions. The introductory letter to accompany the full survey is shown in Appendix B.

With the population to be sampled identified, a description of the sampling process and sample size is necessary. The population was earlier identified as the admissions recruiters at the 1,337 community colleges in the U.S. In order to obtain a representative and statistically sound sample, a proper sample size is necessary. The intention of this research was to produce results with a 95% confidence level and $\pm$ 5% confidence interval. Using the typical convention of conservative assumptions about the nature of the true values of the population, a preliminary sample size of 384 would be required:

$$n = \frac{p(1-P)Z^2}{E^2} \qquad n = \frac{0.5(1-0.5)\,1.96^2}{0.05^2} \qquad n = 384$$

Where Z = value associated with the desired confidence level ; P = estimator of the population proportion; and E = desired precision level.

However, since the population is well known at 1,337, the sample size can be adjusted to 299 utilizing the finite population correction method:

$$n_c = \frac{nN}{N+n-1} = \frac{384\,(1337)}{1337+383} = \frac{513{,}408}{1{,}720} = 299$$

Therefore, if all admissions offices at all 1,337 could be reached, it would be necessary to yield about a 22% usable survey response rate to capture a sufficient sample size. However, there was a very low likelihood of reaching all community colleges. Reaching approximately 2/3 of the total population (894 out of 1337 community colleges) seemed more achievable. The survey process ultimately yielded a 27.54% usable survey response from 1,104 survey invitations sent. Thus, 304 usable surveys were obtained, in excess of the requisite 299 surveys necessary to achieve the targeted 95% confidence level.

As well, a review of the location of community colleges in the U.S. revealed that some states and certain regions of the country have a disproportionate number of community colleges. A simple random sample could have been utilized, but a more appropriate method was to employ a stratified random sampling technique. Stratification was accomplished by first dividing all the community colleges into regions as defined by the six regional accrediting bodies of colleges and schools. A review of the distribution of community colleges by the regions established by the accrediting bodies revealed that of the community colleges:

*32.6% are in the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools (NCACS)

*34.6% are in the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS)

*7.3% are in the Northwest Association of Colleges and Schools (NACS)

*11.3% are in the Western Association of Colleges and Schools (WASC)

*4.7% are in the New England Association of Colleges and Schools (NEACS)

*9.4% are in the Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools (MSA)

Using these percentages, 292 community colleges were randomly selected from the community colleges in the NCACS region; 310 randomly selected from the SACS region; 65 randomly selected from the NACS region; 101 randomly selected from the WASC region; 42 randomly selected from the NEASC region; and 84 randomly selected from the MSA region.

A search of the websites for each of the randomly selected community colleges produced the names, titles, and contact information for potential respondents. As mentioned earlier, wherever possible, more than one potential respondent was initially identified from each institution. This was done in anticipation that many invitations would not yield usable survey results and that another person from the same institution could subsequently be invited once it was determined that the invitation to the first potential respondent did not produce a usable survey. This intentionally iterative process that was described earlier ultimately resulted in invitations being sent to 1,104 potential respondents, and ultimately yielded 304 usable survey responses.

The goal of the research was to use inferential statistical tools to assess the hypotheses. An alpha level of 0.05 was used for measurement of the possibility of a Type I error. Since the data collected was derived from interval measurements, parametric tests were conducted. Statistical analysis using a combination of correlation coefficients and path analysis utilizing a maximum likelihood estimation regression method were conducted to determine associations between the independent, moderating, and dependent variables. Descriptive statistics of respondent demographics, central tendency, and variance were also calculated and analyzed to measure whether there was any statistically significant variation in survey results attributable to respondent characteristics.

Internal validity of this research was calculated and determined using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. As to external validity, the purpose of this research was not intended to have validity outside the community college arena. The external validity extends only beyond the sample size to the community college institutions that comprise the population. The external validity to the community colleges was established by the sample size. These results might have some applicability at colleges and universities other than community colleges, but that is not the intent of this research. A research project that extends beyond the community college arena to other colleges and universities might be a subject for further research.

Summary Statement of Methodology

In summary, the research methodology sought to better understand the effect of resource munificence on employee motivation in the community college admissions context. Two (2) surveys were conducted. A qualitative survey yielded responses from 28 admissions directors. The second, much larger survey, employed a five-scale geographically stratified online survey that was conducted to acquire survey responses from 304 community college recruiters.

Utilizing correlation coefficients, path analysis employing a maximum likelihood estimation regression method, and the feasibility formula, results of the surveys were used to answer each of the five (5) hypotheses regarding the relationships between self-efficacy, affective commitment, resource munificence, and job behaviors, with the intention of establishing the effect of resource munificence on the motivation of community college admissions recruiters.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

As stated in the chapter one (1), the research conducted here sought to examine whether or not resource munificence alters job behavior. The environment in which this investigation occurred was the admissions offices of U.S. community colleges and other similar two-year colleges. The research sought to answer the research question "Can resource munificence alter job behaviors?" More conversationally, the research sought to ask: "When performance-contingent monetary incentives do not exist, does the level of generosity of resources available and/or accessible to admissions employees affect their motivation and alter their job behaviors?"

This chapter is organized in a manner that specifically addresses the five (5) research hypotheses identified in chapter three (3). The first three (3) hypotheses examined the variables of self-efficacy, organizational affective commitment, and job characteristics. The intent was to ascertain whether those three variables were positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors as the literature suggests.

As a review, Ambrose and Kulik (1999), Bandura (1986)Vroom (1964), Benabou and Tirole (2003), Deci's (1975), Hackman and Oldham (1980), Kren (1990), and Locke (1977) all demonstrated a link between self-efficacy and job behaviors, but none were specific to the community college admissions context.

Similarly, Alderfer (1969), Arnolds and Boshoff (2002), Denison, Haaland, and Goelzer (2004), Dweck and Elliott (1983), McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell

(1953), Meyer and Allen (1997), Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982), and Mueller and Dweck (1998) established some linkage between organizational commitment and job behaviors. These authors acknowledged that their research was contextually specific; none of the above authors examined the linkage in a community college admissions setting.

In addition, authors such as Aggarwal and Samwick (2003), Durham and Locke (2001), Ellemers, DeGilder and Haslam (2004), Herendeen and Schechter (1977), Ittner and Larcker (2003), Locke and Latham (1990), and Sherman and Smith (1984) have shown that the effects of job characteristics can impact job behaviors. Again however, none demonstrated these effects within the admissions activities at community colleges.

And finally, this research extended beyond the scope of self-efficacy, affective commitment, or job characteristics. Authors and researchers such as Argyris (1957), Barnard (1938), Bertz and Judge (1994), Blau (1987), Courty and Marschke (1997), Deci (1975), Drucker (1959, 1999), Heckman, Heinrich, and Smith (2002), Miner, Crane and Vandenberg (1994), and Scott (1961) wrote of the presence or potential for incongruence between employee behaviors and organizationally desirable behaviors.

The research conducted here sought to identify whether or not resource munificence could help align employee behaviors with work behaviors that organizations desire of employees. Specifically, this research examined the moderating effect of resource munificence on employee behavior, and sought to ascertain the degree of the moderation. As a reminder to the reader, resource munificence is defined as the level of generosity of commodities that enable the achievement of an objective, and include physical assets such as raw materials, capital, equipment, supplies, and information, and human resources such as knowledge, skills, and abilities.

This study set out with no presumption that the community college worker or the community college work environment was akin to other workers and other environments in which prior research was conducted. In fact, there was some reason to believe that the community college context was unique because the community college recruiting environment is substantially similar to the environment prevalent with sales occupations. But in the community college environment, specific motivating factors of performance-specific incentives and gains-sharing are absent.

Hence, what follows first is a discussion of the descriptive statistics emanating from this research. Then there will be a discussion of the research results regarding the associations between self-efficacy and job behaviors; between organizational commitment and job behaviors; and between job characteristics and job behaviors. The next step will then discuss the results of the tests of the hypotheses regarding resource munificence. That discussion will help to determine whether, and to what degree, resource munificence moderates the associations between self-efficacy and job behaviors, and between affective commitment and job behaviors.

Descriptive Findings: Respondent Characteristics

As indicated in the research methodology, the survey of community college admissions recruiters yielded 304 usable responses. From this point further, all reference to responses will refer specifically to the usable responses received as a result of the survey conducted. Owing to the finite population of community colleges in the U.S., a quantity in excess of 299 responses, yields data which is characterized as possessing a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error. Hence, the 304 usable responses achieved from the survey meets the confidence targets established for this research.

College type, shown in Table 1, indicates that all usable responses meet the targeted sample frame, and that the vast majority of responses came from public community colleges.

Table 1

Respondents by Type of Institution (N = 304)

Type of College	Number of Colleges	Percentage of Total
Public community college	281	92.4
Two-year private college	3	0.99
Two-year private technical/vocational college	2	0.66
Two-year public technical/vocational college	18	5.92

Table 2 shows the geographic area of the U.S. from which the responses were received. Regions are defined by the states comprising them as defined by each of the six (6) regional accrediting organizations. Invitations were sent to community college recruiters in all fifty (50) of the U.S., and responses were received from colleges located in forty three (43) states. Only the states of Delaware, Hawaii, North Dakota, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Utah, and Vermont were not represented in the survey responses.

Table 2

Respondents by Geographic Location (N = 304)

Region	Number from region	Percentage of Total
Middle States	27	8.88
New England	17	5.59
North Central	112	36.84
Northwest	21	6.91
Southern	109	35.86
Western	18	5.92

Table 3 shows that the majority of the respondents were female. This proportion of female to male is not substantially dissimilar to the gender distribution indicated by the American Association of Community Colleges (AACC). The AACC (2008) reported that within community colleges, 64% of full-time professional staff is female. This demographic category identified by the AACC is specifically segmented to address staff professionals who are not executive/administrative and managerial staff, and therefore would seem to adequately represent the professional admissions personnel at community colleges. Further evidence of similar gender proportions as found in this research comes from the American Association of College Registrars and Admissions Officers (AACRAO). The AACRAO (2008) membership by gender data shows that 66% of the membership is female, with the other 34% male.

Table 3

Respondents by Gender (N = 304)

Gender	Number	Percentage of Total
Female	214	70.4
Male	88	28.9
Not indicated	2	0.7

The highest percentage of respondents were below 30 years of age, with the smallest percentage of the respondents comprised of those 60 years old or older. The distribution of respondent ages is listed in Table 4. The distribution of age of respondents is not significantly different from that shown by the Bureau of Labor Statistics (U.S. Department of Labor, 2008) labor force statistics. The 2008 labor force statistics for workers between the ages of 25 and 65 shows that 26.0% of all workers are between the ages 25 to 30; 26.38% are between 30 and 40 years old; 29.1% are between the ages of 40 and 50; 26.2% are between 50 and 60 years old; and 6.5% are between the ages of 60 and 65. While this researcher could find no demographic data on age distribution of college admissions recruiters, anecdotal observations seem to indicate that younger persons tend to be attracted to college admissions recruiting, and a relatively few persist to a lifelong career as a college admissions recruiter. If that is so, it would help to account for the lower age skewness of the respondents' ages compared to the overall labor force statistics.

Table 4

Respondents by Age (N = 304)

Age of respondent	Number	Percentage of Total
Less than 30 years old	97	31.91
Between 30 and 40 years old	85	29.96
Between 40 and 50 years old	61	20.07
Between 50 and 60 years old	50	16.45
60 year old or older	11	3.62

Table 5 below shows that there was nearly an equal distribution of respondents with bachelor's and master's degrees and that these two segments combined accounted for over 87% of the respondents.

Table 5

Respondents by Academic Degree Earned (N = 304)

Respondents by degree type	Number	Percentage of Total
Less than bachelor's degree	32	10.53
Bachelor's degree	133	43.75
Master's degree	132	43.42
Doctoral degree	7	2.3

Nearly three-fourths of the respondents had ten (10) or less years of service in college admissions. Table 6 shows the segments by years of service. The large percentage of respondents with ten (10) or less years of service seems to further corroborate and help explain why (compared to overall labor force statistics) the data shown in Table 5 indicates that there is a larger proportion of respondents younger that 40 years of age.

Table 6

Respondents by Years of Service (N = 304)

Years of service	Number	Percentage of Total
Less than 5 years	128	42.11
Between 5 and 10 years	94	30.92
Between 10 and 15 years	36	11.84
More than 15 years	44	14.47
Not indicated	2	0.66

Impact of Respondent Characteristics on Survey Responses

To determine the impact of the variability of responses that might be attributable to respondent characteristics, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The analysis sought to discern if there was any statistically significant impact on the independent variables that were attributable to respondent characteristics. As such, ANOVA calculations were performed on each variable and each respondent characteristic.

Analysis of variance was conducted on each of the characteristics of age, gender, degree type, years of service, and region. Variation of each of these characteristics was evaluated by the survey responses generated for self-efficacy and organizational commitment. For each of the characteristics evaluated with each of the two independent variables, there was no statistically significant variance in any of the analyses. Table 7 below summarizes the results.

Table 7

Analysis of Variation by Respondent Characteristics

Analysis of variation	P-value	F-ratio	F-critical
Self-efficacy by age	0.3985	1.0173	2.4018
Self-efficacy by gender	0.5437	0.3694	3.8728
Self-efficacy by degree type	0.9598	0.1001	2.6347
Self-efficacy by years of service	0.7569	0.3945	2.6347
Self-efficacy by geographic region	0.2631	1.3015	2.2442
Organizational commitment by age	0.0589	2.2984	2.4018
Organizational commitment by gender	0.0832	3.0202	3.8728
Organizational commitment by degree type	0.0788	2.2854	2.6347
Organizational commitment by years of service	0.3015	1.2229	2.6352
Organizational commitment by geographic region	0.1181	1.7732	2.2442

Note: In all cases, there is no statistically significant difference: P>0.050; and F-ratio < F-critical

Analyzing the first three hypotheses:

moving from descriptive to inferential statistical analysis

Now that a brief description of the respondent characteristics has been provided, and there is insufficient statistically significant variation among the characteristics possessed by the respondents, survey results can be analyzed to assess these three hypotheses:

H1. In community college admissions offices, self-efficacy is positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors.

H2. In community college admissions offices, affective commitment is positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors.

H3. In community college admissions offices, favorably reported job characteristics are positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors.

Before employment of any inferential statistical analysis, the research data was evaluated for normality. Inferential statistical analysis of the hypotheses listed above, and of the structural equation modeling tool of path analysis required to answer hypotheses four (4) and five (5) necessitated an evaluation of the normality assumption of the data responses. Hence, z-residual histograms and normal probability p-plots were created to examine the correlation between the independent and dependent variables' normality assumption. Three separate correlations were conducted, each using the dependent variable of organizationally desirable job behaviors, and one correlation calculation each using the independent variables of self-efficacy, affective commitment, and job satisfaction. For all three correlations, normality appeared to be satisfied.

Noting the satisfaction of normality of data, and the statistically insignificant variation in responses by respondent characteristic, hypotheses one (1) through three (3) can be answered.

Following is the statistically significant evidence that supports the hypothesis that self-efficacy is positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors.

Pearson correlation of the dependent variable of organizationally desirable job behaviors with the independent variable of self-efficacy shows a weak to moderate, but statistically significant positive correlation (Pearson correlation = .251; p-value <.001). A general guide of the measure of associations in behavioral sciences measured by Pearson correlations indicates that associations with values below 0.20 are considered weak; associations with values near 0.30 are considered moderate; and associations with correlation values above 0.40 are considered strong (Cozby, 2004). Thus it can be inferred that self-efficacy is weakly to moderately positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors.

Hypothesis 1, which stated: "**In community college admissions offices, self efficacy is positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors,**" is supported.

Similarly, the Pearson correlation of the dependent variable of organizationally desirable job behaviors with the independent variable of affective commitment shows a statistically significant positive correlation (Pearson correlation = 0.393; p-value <.001). Thus, it can be inferred that affective commitment is positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors. This analysis shows that the positive association of organizationally desirable job behaviors with affective commitment is considered moderate, and stronger than the positive association shown in hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2, which stated: "**In community college admissions offices, affective commitment is positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors,**" is supported.

One additional Pearson correlation of the dependent variable of organizationally desirable job behaviors with the independent variable of favorably reported job characteristics shows a weak, but statistically significant positive correlation (Pearson correlation = .212; p-value <.001). Thus it can be inferred that job characteristics are weakly and positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors.

Hypothesis 3, which stated: "**In community college admissions offices, favorably reported job characteristics are positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors,**" is supported.

Thus, with respect to self-efficacy, organizational commitment, and job characteristics, there is statistically significant evidence that the community college admissions recruiters' environment is not materially different from some of the other environments that have been previously researched. As examples, a meta-analysis of 114 studies of the association of self-efficacy and behaviors by Strajkovic and Luthans (1998) revealed results consistent with the results of this research. Similarly, in a study of over 500 employees at four (4) different organizations conducted by Glick, Jenkins and Gupta (1986) demonstrated a positive association between job characteristics and employee effort and job outcomes. Also, meta-analyses by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Riketta (2002) show results that demonstrate a positive association between commitment and behaviors. Additional details of several of these prior findings is discussed in the final chapter which addresses summaries and conclusions.

Research findings to answer the key research question

The key research question was "Can resource munificence moderate job behavior?" Research findings show weak, and statistically insignificant evidence that resource munificence does moderate job behavior within the context of the community college admissions environment. Following is the detailed description of the data obtained from the national survey of admissions personnel which supports the evidence.

With the exception of job satisfaction survey results which are described later, the data was collected, codified and summed as prescribed by authors of each scale. As well, ranking scales values were measured. The summed and codified results served as the output values upon which all data analysis was conducted. A Cronbach's alpha calculation was conducted of the independent and intervening variables to measure internal consistency. The calculation yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .815, demonstrating sufficient internal consistency.

One component of the research was an online survey invitation that was sent to 1,104 respondents who appeared to meet the survey sample frame. The invitation to participate yielded 390 responses. After removing incomplete survey responses, and survey responses received from persons outside the targeted sample frame, 304 responses remained that were usable. Thus, the effective yield was 27.54% (304 / 1,104 = .2754). Respondents were asked to complete and submit an online survey, which included requests for descriptive data as well as survey responses addressing respondents' self-report of self-efficacy, affective commitment, job satisfaction, and job behaviors. Scales used in the survey were itemized summated rating scales, plus one ranking scale for job characteristics.

As indicated in the previous chapter, there was one additional component of the research which captured responses from community college admissions directors. The purpose of seeking responses from admissions directors was primarily to help parse and confirm factors used in the research. Twenty eight (28) community college admissions directors evaluated the statements that were associated with the nine (9) subscales of the

Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985). (See survey in Appendix C). The intent of the evaluation was to have directors identify which statements were more closely associated with resources that just come with the job, and which statements were more closely associated with resources that are available only through job performance. Identification of these factors helped identify which job characteristics were more closely associated with Klein's (1990) feasibility resources, and which were more closely associated with Klein's valence resources; from which a resource munificence value could be calculated.

The results of the survey showed that the admissions directors had consensus on statements involving five (5) factors of the nine (9) factor subscale in the job satisfaction survey. Specifically, there was consensus ($\geq$ 50% of respondents agreed) about statements regarding subscales of pay, reward, work itself, communication, and co-workers. Consensus was not reached on the subscales addressing issues of operating procedures, opportunities for promotion, feelings toward supervisor, and fringe benefits. The lack of consensus of these four (4) factors of the subscale hinted at either the ambiguity of the statements or lack of relevance of these job satisfaction characteristics in the community college admissions environment. To measure this possibility, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. The first ANOVA utilized the entire job satisfaction scale results for each respondent as the independent variable, and job behaviors as the dependent variable. A second ANOVA was conducted. In this analysis, only the five (5) factor subscale for which consensus was reached by admissions directors were utilized as the independent variable. Again, job behavior results from each respondent were the dependent variable. Comparison of the ANOVAs showed that the reduced, five (5) factor subscale job satisfaction results had a slightly higher correlation

(Pearson correlation = 0.251) with organizationally desirable job behaviors than did the entire job satisfaction scale (Pearson correlation = 0.220).

Further, the admissions directors were also asked to rank the motivating power of a list of resources that may be present within the community college admissions environment. The directors were asked to rank the same fifteen (15) resources that were ranked by the community college admissions recruiters. All were asked to assign a rank of high, moderate, or low motivational strength with each resource/factor. Results of the ranking, listed from highest rank to lowest rank are shown in Table 8, which follows. The summed ranking of the top seven (7) of both the high and moderate responses in Tables 8 and 9 are circled to highlight the consonance of agreement between admissions recruiters and admissions directors.

Table 8

Responses from Admissions Recruiters – Ranking of Motivational Power of Job Factors

Job Factor	Rank by High motivating power only (1 = highest)	Rank by sum of high and moderate power	Number of Recruiters Ranking factor as highly motivating	Number of Recruiters Ranking factor as moderately motivating	Number of Recruiters Ranking factor as low motivating
Pay Raises	1	2	246	43	11
Job Promotion	2	3	235	53	13
Viewbooks and other materials	3	1	218	74	10
Podcasts and other electronic tools	4	4	189	99	16
Access to supervisor	5	5	181	103	19
Awards and other recognition	6	6	176	105	21
Alumni to assist in recruiting	7	7	157	115	30
College issued automobiles	8	11	133	94	74
Laptop computers	9	10	127	113	62
Assignment of territory closer to home	10	9	124	118	59
Appointment to committees that influence college policy	11	8	119	129	53
Assignment of territory richer in prospects	12	15	113	69	117
College issued cell phone	13	13	100	90	109
Less geographically dispersed territory	14	12	62	146	89
Telecounselors to assist in recruiting	15	14	48	141	110

The top seven (7) ranked job factors were identified by more than half of the respondents as having high, or a combination of high and moderate motivating power. While the order of ranking varied slightly, there was consensus both by viewing the highest ranked, and by viewing the sum of the highest and moderately ranked job factors. It showed that pay raises, job promotion, viewbooks and other materials, podcasts and other electronic tools, access to supervisor, awards and other recognition, and alumni and faculty to assist in recruiting, were the factors that most highly motivated the community college recruiter respondents.

To look for differences or to confirm the recruiters' responses, admissions directors were also asked to rank the same job factors. The rankings results which follow in Table 9, show strong confirming evidence of ranking agreement of the same seven (7) job factors; highlighted again by the rankings which are circled. While the order of ranking varied slightly from the order of ranking identified by the admissions recruiters, the admissions directors also identified the same seven (7) factors as most motivating.

Table 9

Responses from Admissions Directors - Ranking of Motivational Power of Job Factors

Job Factor	Rank by High motivating Power only (1 = highest)	Rank by sum of high and moderate power	Number of Directors Ranking factor as highly motivating	Number of Directors Ranking factor as moderately motivating	Number of Directors Ranking factor as low motivating
Pay Raises	1	1	20	2	0
Job Promotion	2	3	16	6	0
Viewbooks and other materials	5	5	14	6	2
Podcasts and other electronic tools	4	6	15	3	4
Access to supervisor	6	4	10	10	2
Awards and other recognition	3	2	16	6	0
Alumni to assist in recruiting	9 (tie)	7	6	11	4
College issued automobiles	9 (tie)	9 (tie)	6	9	7
Laptop computers	9 (tie)	9 (tie)	7	8	7
Assignment of territory closer to home	8	12 (tie)	8	6	7
Appointment to committees that influence college policy	9 (tie)	8	6	10	6
Assignment of territory richer in prospects	9 (tie)	12 (tie)	6	8	8
College issued cell phone	7	9 (tie)	8	7	7
Less geographically dispersed territory	14 (tie)	14 (tie)	5	8	9
Telecounselors to assist in recruiting	14 (tie)	14 (tie)	5	8	9

There appears to be agreement in thought among admissions recruiters and admissions directors about the job factors which motivate workers in the community college admissions recruiting environment. There also seems to be an intuitive linkage between these top seven (7) job factors and the five (5) job satisfaction subscales that correlate most highly with job behaviors. Table 10 shows the linkage:

Table 10

Linkage of Job Satisfaction Subscales to Job Factors

Most Relevant Job Satisfaction Subscales	Most Motivating Job Factors
Pay	Pay Raises
Reward	Awards and recognition, Job promotion
Work Itself	Viewbooks, Electronic tools, etc.
Communication	Access to supervisor
Co-Worker	Faculty and alumni assisting in recruiting

Because of the stronger Pearson correlation using the five (5) factor job satisfaction subscale, rather than the nine (9) factor overall job satisfaction scale, through the congruence of agreement between community college admissions recruiters and directors on motivating job factors, and through the linkage of these job factors to the job satisfaction subscales, there appears to be merit to utilizing the five (5) factor job satisfaction subscale and the seven (7) most highly ranked motivating factors as the relevant variables in this research analysis.

In diagrammatic form, the data output resulting from the national survey appears in Figure 7. The diagram shows not only the data, but also the hypothesized paths which will be evaluated to answer hypotheses 4 and 5, which follow this diagram. The evaluation utilized to answer hypotheses 4 and 5 employed path analysis.

Path analysis is a type of structural equation modeling, and is a method for studying the direct and indirect effects of hypothesized variables. Path analysis employs a type of regression analysis that evaluates the correlations between independent and dependent variables using the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) method of regression analysis. In other words, the correlations of all the values of the variables described in the model were evaluated using a mathematical technique that does not produce least squares estimates. Instead, based on the measured data from the survey, and the parameters given and hypothesized, effects of one variable upon another were measured by an iterative trial and error method. After initial estimates of the parameters were selected, the likelihood of the data given the parameter estimates was calculated. Then parameter estimates were improved slightly and the data was recalculated in successive new iterations.

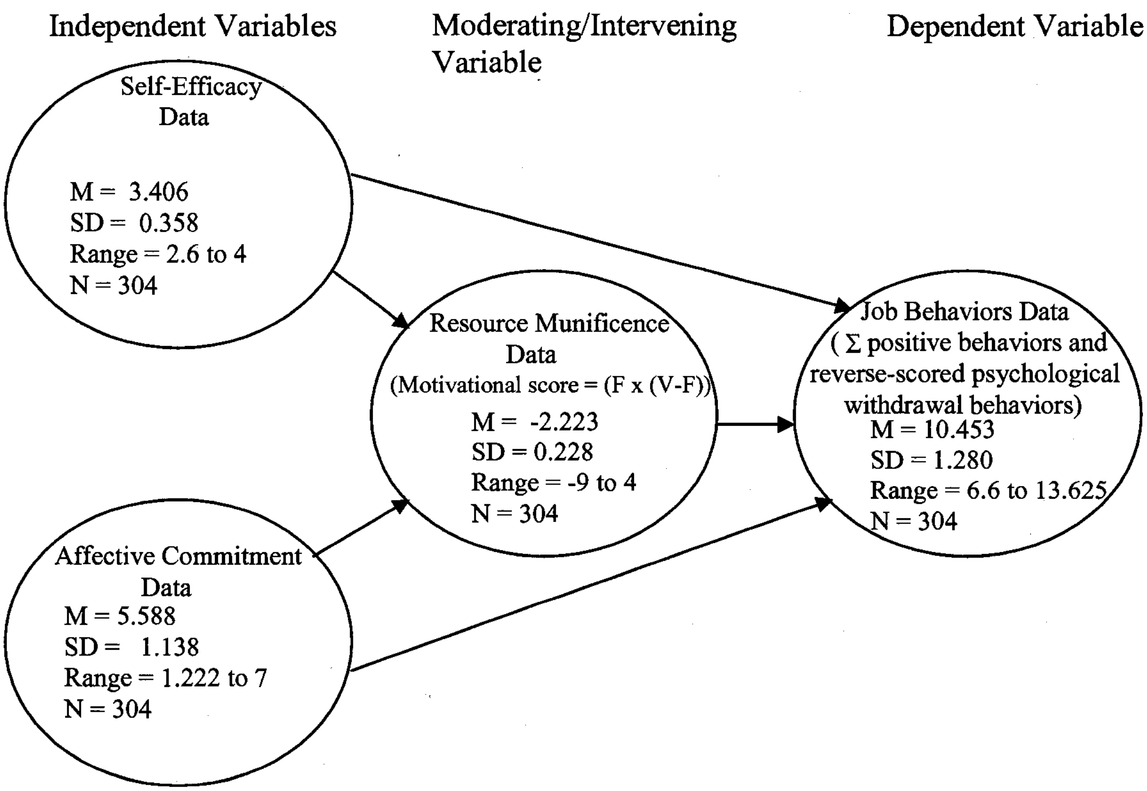
This process of parameter estimate improvement continued until the parameter estimates improved by such a small amount that additional steps did not add to improvements in results. At that point, the values produced that measure the effect of one variable upon another were the values more likely than any other values to show the effect of one variable upon another – hence the maximum likelihood estimation.

Through this process, correlations found in the direct paths from independent to dependent variables were compared with the paths that had moderating or intervening variables in between the direct paths. From that, direct and indirect paths were calculated and compared to measure how much the moderating variable changed the effect that the other variables had upon one another.

In the case of this research, the effect of self-efficacy on employee behavior was measured. The effect of affective commitment on employee behavior was also measured. Then, as shown in Figures 7 and 8, the changes in the effects of the relationships between self-efficacy and behavior, and between affective commitment and behavior were measured using the MLE method to determine what impact resource munificence had on behavior.

Figure 7

Hypothesized Paths – Variables Relationships and Survey Outcomes



Path Analysis to answer Hypotheses 4 and 5

Preliminary data analysis, including verification of the normal distribution of the data, has established the viability of utilizing Path Analysis to assess the moderating affects of resource munificence on job behaviors. Analysis has also been conducted on the independent, moderating and dependent variables as shown in Figure 7 above.

The scales used for data collected in this research utilized prior-developed scales about which validity and reliability were already established. Data emanating from the survey produced z-residual histograms and p-plots that demonstrate the normal distribution of the data. The data was collected from a sample size sufficient to demonstrate a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error.

ANOVA analyses demonstrated that there were no statistically significant differences in the independent variables attributable to respondent characteristics, such as respondent's age, years of service, gender, geographic location, or academic degree earned. Pearson correlations demonstrate positive correlations between self-efficacy and job behaviors, between affective commitment and job behaviors, and between job satisfaction and job behaviors, and these results help show that the environmental context of this study is not statistically dissimilar from other environments in which the survey scales were used.

The seven (7) resources relevant to resource munificence that serve as the moderating variable were evaluated from multiple perspectives. The evaluation included: comparative Pearson correlations, job satisfaction relevant subscale agreement by admissions directors, dual-perspective (admissions recruiters and admissions directors) job factor rankings, and linkages of job satisfaction subscales to relevant job factor rankings. As well, Cronbach's alpha analysis of the variables demonstrates the internal consistency of the data.

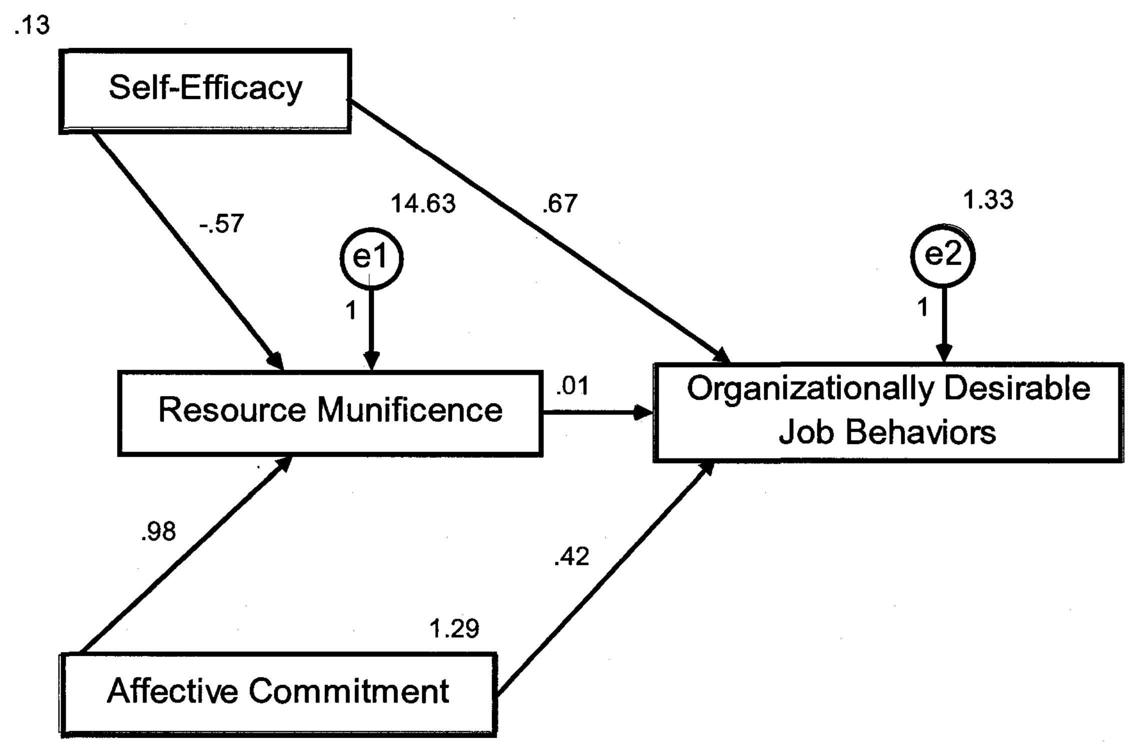
As such, the data appears suitable for use to employ the path analysis tool of structural equation modeling as a final step to answer the final two (2) hypotheses and to answer the research question: "Does resource munificence moderate job behavior?"

Hypothesis H4 stated: "Job behaviors associated with self efficacy are moderated by the level of resource munificence." And hypothesis H5 stated: "Job behaviors associated with affective commitment are moderated by the level of resource munificence."

Both hypotheses were evaluated using the Path Analysis tool; and the results of the analysis are shown in Figure 8.

Figure 8

Path Diagram with Path Analysis Output



Subjecting the four (4) variables listed above to analysis by the path analysis tool, utilizing the software available from SPSS 16.0, and AMOS 16.0, yields an output result which indicates that there is not a statistically moderating effect of resource munificence on organizationally desirable job behaviors. A decomposition of the data showing the effects of resource munificence will follow the model fit analysis. But before the results were deemed suitable for answering hypotheses 4 and 5, a model fit analysis was conducted. The results follow.

The complete Path Analysis output is shown in Appendix D, and it shows eight (8) model fit analyses that demonstrate adequate model fit. First, the analysis shows a Chi-square value of 1.375, and a p-value of 0.241. A p-value of 0.241 attendant with the Chi-square value indicates that the path values derived from the path analysis are not statistically significantly dissimilar to the values of the full model.

The second model fit analysis is the CMIN/DF and is a Chi-square statistic. It is equal to the Chi-square value divided by the degrees of freedom and measures the degree to which the fit of the data to model has been reduced when one or more paths are dropped. The CMIN/DF value is 1.375. A CMIN/DF value less than 2 indicates good fit. Third, the RMR value is the root mean square residual index which measures the amount by which the AMOS path model estimates of variances and co-variances are different from the observed variances and co-variances. The smaller the RMR value, the better is the fit (a small 0.019 RMR indicates good fit).

The fourth measure of goodness of fit is called the GFI or Goodness of Fit Index and measures the proportion of the variance in the variance-covariance matrix that is accounted for in the model generated. A perfect fit would give a value of 1.0, and values in excess of 0.9 demonstrate adequate fit. Thus the GFI value of 0.998 demonstrates goodness of fit. The fifth and sixth measures of goodness of fit are the Normed Fit Index (NFI) and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI). The NFI value was 0.985 and the CFI value was 0.996. Goodness of fit criteria for these two indices is demonstrated when the values of each is greater than or equal to 0.9. Therefore, goodness of fit is further demonstrated.

Finally, there are two additional values produced from the path analysis diagnostic output that demonstrate goodness of fit. One diagnostic output value is the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), and estimates lack of fit compared to the full model. In this case, goodness of fit is demonstrated by a low value for RMSEA. A value of 0.05 or less indicates good fit and therefore, a RMSEA value of 0.035 demonstrates good fit. Finally, the Hoelter value also demonstrates good fit. Goodness of fit is demonstrated when the Hoelter value is greater than the research sample size. Since the research sample size was 304, and it is less than the Hoelter value of 418, goodness of fit is demonstrated with this diagnostic tool as well.

With confidence in the goodness of fit of the path model, a decomposition and reconstruction of the data showing the effects of resource munificence was conducted. The output values of the path analysis are shown both in Figure 8 above and in Appendix D. The values shown in Figure 8 are rounded values, and as such the more precise values shown in Appendix D were used as the basis to calculate and demonstrate the effects of resource munificence on job behaviors.

To measure effect, the path analysis output was decomposed into a three (3) step process: an assessment of the direct effects of independent variables on the dependent variable, an assessment of the effect of the moderating variable on the dependent variable and finally, a comparative analysis to measure the differences in results.

As the data indicate, the direct effect of the independent variable of self-efficacy (reported in the data output in Appendix D as exogenous variable "geneff") on the dependent variable of organizationally desirable job behaviors (reported in the data output in Appendix D as endogenous variable "behavtot"), was calculated using the maximum likelihood estimation method of regression, and yielded a regression weight of 0.669, and a p-value indicating statistical significance.

The indirect effect of the moderating variable of resource munificence (reported in the data output as exogenous variable "srklnmot") was calculated as the product of the effect from the path from self-efficacy to resource munificence, times the effect from the path from resource munificence to organizationally desirable job behaviors. This calculation yields a value of -0.0034 (-0.567 x 0.006 = -0.0034).

Therefore the total effect on organizationally desirable behaviors from self-efficacy, moderated by the effects of resource munificence is 0.6656 (0.669 - 0.0034). But an examination of the p-value ($p = 0.729$) accompanying the regression weight of the path between resource munificence and organizationally desirable behavior, and the p-value accompanying the regression weight of the path from self-efficacy to resource munificence ($p = 0.356$) show that both effects are statistically insignificant.

Due to no statistically significant moderating effect of resource munificence on behaviors associated with self-efficacy, Hypothesis 4: "**Job behaviors associated with self efficacy are moderated by the level of resource munificence**" within the context of community college admissions offices is not supported.

The same process was repeated for the other independent variable of affective commitment. Again, as the data indicate, the direct effect of the independent variable of affective commitment (reported in the data output in Appendix D as exogenous variable "orgcom") on the dependent variable of organizationally desirable job behaviors (reported in the data output in Appendix D as endogenous variable "behavtot"), was calculated using the maximum likelihood estimate method of regression and yielded a regression weight of 0.423 with a p-value indicating statistical significance.

The indirect effect of the moderating variable of resource munificence (reported in the data output as exogenous variable "srklnmot") was calculated as the product of the effect from the path from affective commitment to resource munificence, times the effect from the path from resource munificence to organizationally desirable job behaviors. This calculation yields a value of 0.00586 (0.976 x 0.006 = 0.00586).

Thus the total effect on organizationally desirable behaviors from affective commitment, moderated by the effects of resource munificence is 0.42886 (0.423 + 0.00586). Yet again however, the difference is statistically insignificant due to the p-value ($p = 0.729$) of the regression weight accompanying the path between resource munificence and organizationally desirable behavior.

Due to the statistically insignificant moderating effect of resource munificence on behaviors associated with affective commitment, Hypothesis 5: "**Job behaviors associated with affective commitment are moderated by the level of resource munificence**" within the context of community college admissions offices is also not supported.

Summary of Research Results

Within the context of the community college admissions recruiters' environment, resource munificence does not impact job behaviors. Survey results and analysis of the data to ascertain its validity yields findings that in the community college context, all three (3) independent variables of self-efficacy, affective commitment, and job satisfaction are each positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors. These findings support the first three (3) hypotheses posited in this research, and help establish that the community college admissions environment is not all that dissimilar from other environments.

Further, the impact of demographic and geographic characteristics of the respondents in this research did not show statistically significant differences which might have otherwise impacted job behaviors. As well, the community college admissions recruiting context helped minimize further unaccounted variability by virtue of the code of ethics of admissions recruiters that precludes them from the availability of the resources of either gains-sharing or performance-contingent monetary incentives.

Table 11

Matrix of Survey Instrument Findings

Item	Description	Finding	Basis of Finding	Notes
Survey Scale Used	Job Satisfaction facets – *Job Satisfaction Survey* (Spector, 1985); 36 question, 6 point itemized rating scale.	Valid and reliable scale	Prior Research	See Blau (1999) (Scheer, p. 97)
Survey Scale Used	Organizational Affective Commitment – *Shortened Organizational Commitment Questionnaire* (Mowday, Steers and Porter, 1979); 9 question, 7 point itemized rating scale.	Valid and reliable scale	Prior Research	See Mathieu and Farr (1991), Jones, Scarpello, and Bergmann (1999), Dulebohn and Martocchio (1998) and others (Scheer p. 98)
Survey Scale Used	Self-Efficacy – *General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale* (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1995); 10 question, 4 point itemized rating scale.	Valid and reliable scale	Prior Research	See Schwarzer (2007) (Scheer, p. 98-99)

Table 11 (cont.)

Matrix of Survey Instrument Findings

Item	Description	Finding	Basis of Finding	Notes
Survey Scale Used	Employee Job Behaviors – *On the Job Behaviors: Positive work behaviors and psychological withdrawal behaviors subscales* (Lehman & Simpson, 1992); 13 question, 7 point itemized rating scale	Valid and reliable scale	Prior Research	See Cropanzano , et al. (1997) (Scheer, p. 99)
Survey Scale Used	Resource/factor ranking of physical and human resources	Rankings demonstrate relevance for research	Pearson correlation of resource/factor item used for analysis higher than Pearson correlation for entire item list; Admissions directors and admissions recruiters ranked 15 items. Both groups agreed on the same factors as top seven.	(Scheer, pp. 120-121; and see Chapter 4, pp. 122-125, tables 8, 9, and 10)
Overall Survey Instrument	Scales combined to create the survey instrument	Internally consistent	Cronbach's alpha of 0.815	
Sample Size	Invitations sent to community college admissions recruiters in all 50 states in USA	95% confidence level	304 usable survey responses achieved	Finite population adjustment allows sample size of 299 or higher for minimum 95% confidence (Scheer, p. 103)

Table 11 (cont.)

Matrix of Survey Instrument Findings

Item	Description	Finding	Basis of Finding	Notes
Impact of respondents' characteristics	Measure for possibility of variability of responses that might be attributable to respondent characteristics	No statistically significant variance in any variable	ANOVA values for each respondent characteristic had p value >0.05 Self-efficacy by age p = 0.3985 Self-efficacy by gender p = 0.5437 Self-efficacy by degree type p = 0.9598 Self-efficacy by years of service p = 0.7569 Self-efficacy by geographic region p = 0.2631 Affective commitment by age p = 0.0589 Affective commitment by gender p = 0.0832 Affective commitment by degree type p = 0.0788 Affective commitment by years of service p = 0.3015 Affective commitment by geographic region p = 0.1181	(Scheer p. 115, table 7)

With research variables and data analyzed and demonstrating validity, and the environment selected and evaluated to help mitigate unaccounted variability, the moderating effects of resource munificence on employee behavior was evaluated. That evaluation showed that the effect of resource munificence on organizationally desirable job behaviors borne of both self-efficacy and affective commitment is statistically insignificant in both cases. Organizationally desirable behaviors do not appear to be moderated by resource munificence in the community college admissions recruiting context. The following tables summarize the survey instrument findings and the survey research hypotheses findings:

Table 12

Matrix of Hypotheses Findings

Item	Description	Finding	Basis of Finding	Notes
Hypothesis 1	In community college admissions offices, self efficacy is positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors.	Hypothesis supported	Pearson correlation = .251; p-value <.001	Weak to moderate association (Standards per Cozby, 2004)
Hypothesis 2	In community college admissions offices, affective commitment is positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors.	Hypothesis supported	Pearson correlation = .393; p-value <.001	Moderate association (Standards per Cozby, 2004)
Hypothesis 3	In community college admissions offices, favorably reported job characteristics are positively associated with organizationally desirable employee job behaviors.	Hypothesis supported	Pearson correlation = .212; p-value <.001	Weak association (Standards per Cozby, 2004)

Table 12 (cont.)

Matrix of Hypotheses Findings

Item	Description	Finding	Basis of Finding	Notes
Hypothesis 4	Job behaviors associated with self efficacy are moderated by the level of resource munificence.	Hypothesis not supported	Total effect of resource munificence is 0.6656, and is not moderated by a statistically significant amount in the path model because both paths show large p-values where p = 0.729 and p = 0.356.	Path analysis model fit demonstrates adequate model fit; see appendix D; path values shown p. 129, figure 8.
Hypothesis 5	Job behaviors associated with affective commitment are moderated by the level of resource munificence	Hypothesis not supported	Total effect of resource munificence is 0.42886, and is not moderated by a statistically significant amount in the path model because one path segment shows statistical insignificance due to p-value of p = 0.729.	Path analysis model fit demonstrates adequate model fit; see appendix D; path values shown p. 129, figure 8.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

This section of the dissertation takes a final look at the research question and the methodology employed to answer the inquiry posited in this research. The primary purpose of this final chapter however, is to summarize the results of this research and discuss the managerial implications.

Statement of the Problem

As has been indicated throughout, this research examined the question: 'Can resource munificence alter job behaviors?" The context for this research was admissions recruiters at community colleges throughout the U.S. So as to help control the research, community college admissions recruiters were chosen because the code of ethics established for college admissions recruiters. As defined by the National Association for College Admissions Counseling (2007), college admissions recruiters are specifically precluded from performance-incentive pay in the form of commissions paid for the number of prospective students recruited. As well, the not-for-profit nature of most community colleges minimized the likelihood of recruiters receiving any gains-sharing that might accrue to employees in for-profit settings. Hence, the potentially biasing factor of monetary performance incentives was mitigated in the examination of resource munificence. Resource munificence, the moderating/intervening variable in this research, is defined as the level of generosity of commodities that enable the achievement of an objective, and include physical assets such as raw materials, capital, equipment, supplies, and information, and human resources such as knowledge, skills, and abilities.

In a more conversational tone, the aim of this research was to ask: "When performance-contingent monetary incentives do not exist, does the level of generosity of resources available and/or accessible to admissions employees affect their motivation and alter their job behaviors?"

Review of the Methodology

To answer this question, community colleges and other two-year colleges stratified geographically throughout the U.S., and listed by the American Association of Community Colleges (American Association of Community Colleges, 2007), were invited to participate in an online survey. The online survey approach employed a process that was intentionally iterative in nature; inviting admissions recruiters in three (3) separate phases. The survey invitation phasing approach increased the likelihood of responses from community college recruiters by offering other recruiters from the same institution to respond if the first (or second) person invited from that institution failed to produce a usable survey response. The process resulted in 304 usable survey responses and an effective yield rate of 27.54%. This quantity of responses allowed for the research to have the attribute of a 95% confidence level and a 5% margin of error.

An additional survey was also conducted of admissions directors. The first purpose of the query of admissions directors was to ask them, as well as admissions recruiters, to rank the motivating power of a list of resources that may be present within the community college admissions environment. The second purpose of seeking responses from admissions directors was primarily to help parse and confirm factors used in the research by asking them to evaluate statements that were associated with subscale factors of the Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector, 1985). (See survey in Appendix C).

Summary of the Results

Analysis of survey results showed that in the community college context, both independent variables of self-efficacy and affective commitment, and the intervening variable of job satisfaction were each positively associated with organizationally desirable job behaviors. These positive associations helped show that the community college admissions environment is similar to other environments in which these associations were previously researched.

Also within the context of community college admissions recruiting, the research ultimately yielded an answer to the main research question. Utilizing correlation coefficients, path analysis employing a Maximum Likelihood Estimate regression method, and the feasibility formula, it was demonstrated that organizationally desirable job behaviors associated with self-efficacy and affective commitment are not statistically significantly moderated by resource munificence.

Discussion of the Results

This section is the heart of the chapter and will discuss the interpretation of findings results from six (6) perspectives: relationship of this study to previous research, data suggesting the validity of a resource munificence effect, potential masking of variable effects, limitations of the research, implications for managers, and suggestions for additional research.

Interpretation of Findings: Relationship of this study to previous research

This research revealed some results consistent with prior research, some results that may or may not be contextually specific, and spawned some issues potentially worthy of future research. The first discussion will center on the results that add further confirmation of earlier findings by previous authors.

This research revealed another instance wherein there is a positive association of self-efficacy and job behaviors. The research of Kren (1990) implied that perceptions of probability of success may be a function of many things, one of which may be a worker's self-efficacy. Similarly, Benabou and Tirole (2003) showed that empowerment is beneficial to the worker because it reinforces a worker's confidence in his/her own ability. And Locke (1977) and Bandura (1986) conducted research which demonstrated that self-efficacy is an important moderator of motivation.

Other research demonstrated the association of self-efficacy with job behavior. Hackman and Oldham (1980) demonstrated that job characteristics such as variety, autonomy, and feedback served to help channel strong performance toward accomplishing organizational goals. Ambrose and Kulik (1999) also asserted that self-efficacy has been found to be associated with goal commitment. And examining the connection between locus of control and self efficacy, Deci's (1975) cognitive evaluative theory indicated that a person's locus of control is influenced by that person's perception of self-efficacy.

Raghuram, Wiesenfeld, and Garud (2003) showed a positive association between self-efficacy of telecommuters and employee behavioral strategies. In another study, a meta-analysis of 114 studies conducted by Strajkovic and Luthans (1998) the average weighted correlation of self-efficacy and behavior was 0.38. The findings in the meta-analysis are in line with the findings in this research. Strajkovic and Luthans' meta-analysis showed that self-efficacy and behavior correlations, depending upon the research conducted and the task complexity, ranged from 0.20 to 0.50. In the research conducted in this study, the Pearson correlation was 0.251, within the range identified by Strajkovic and Luthans.

The previous research regarding the association between affective commitment and job behaviors shows some results that are consonant with the research conducted here, and show that the positive association is generally not strong.

A review of the research reveals that several authors have shown positive, but relatively weak associations with employee commitment and job behaviors. Riketta and Landerer (2002) reported that their research revealed that affective organizational commitment correlated positively and significantly with in-role performance work behaviors, recording a correlation of 0.30. Lehman and Simpson (1992b) stated that the two (2) factor scales of job behaviors that are reported by a majority of employers, are positive job behaviors and psychological withdrawal. Their research produced a 0.096 correlation of organizational commitment and positive job behaviors and a -0.479 correlation of organizational commitment and psychological withdrawal behaviors. These two (2) factors were the factors used in this research, with a summed value wherein positive job behaviors scores were forward scored and psychological withdrawal behaviors were reverse scored. The research conducted here in the community college admissions recruiters context produced a correlation of 0.393 between affective commitment and job behaviors. These results show non-strong correlations consistent with Riketta and Landerer, and Lehman and Simpson. Further, in a meta-analysis conducted of 111 samples from 93 published studies by Riketta (2002), attitudinal organizational commitment and job performance produced a corrected mean correlation of 0.20. Thus, the results of this research conducted of community colleges regarding affective commitment and job behaviors are in line with the results of many other researchers.

A meta-analysis by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) also showed a weak relationship between affective commitment and job behaviors. Their research of the association between organizational commitment and an output measure of job performance yielded a correlation of only 0.18; again showing a non-strong correlation similar to the results produced in the community college admissions recruiting environment.

The findings of this research also yielded a congruence of opinion between admissions recruiters and admissions directors regarding the rankings of the motivational power of job factors. This congruence strengthened validation of the relevant job factors that might impact employee behaviors. With both worker and manager agreement of the motivating power of job factors, there may also be agreement and alignment of other effective work processes that utilize those job factors. As such, the congruence might also help explain the positive correlations between self-efficacy, commitment, and job characteristics to organizationally desirable employee behavior.

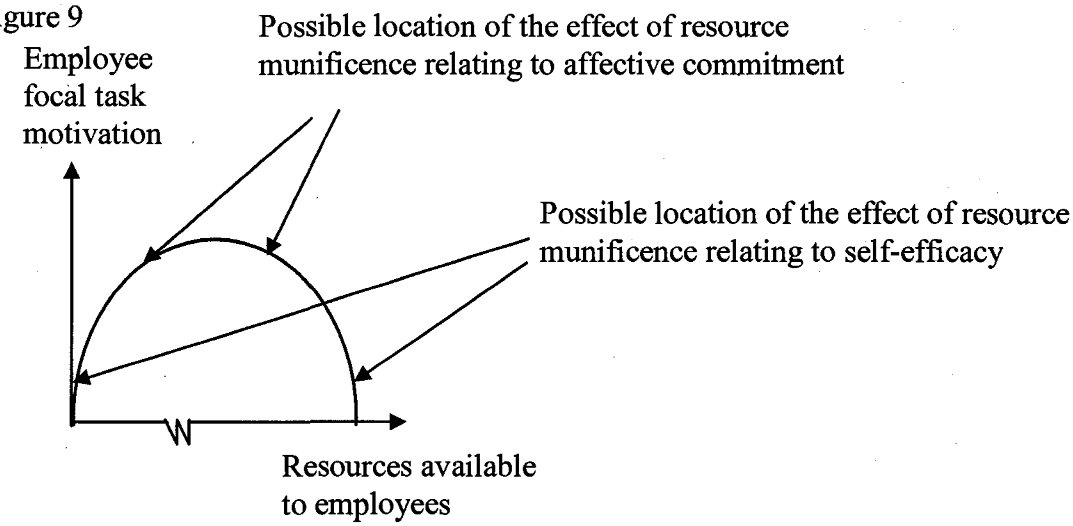
Identification of the value of congruence of employee behaviors with employer desired behaviors is amplified by many writers and researchers. Bittel and Newstrom addressed the issue directly when they wrote: "It is a mistake to assume too much about another person's motivations" (Bittel & Newstrom, 1990, p. 253). Kerr (1975) amplified the potential for cross purposes of employee behaviors with those desired when he wrote of the folly of organizations that reward one aspect of employee performance while desiring something else. Drucker (1959) identified the potential for incongruence of effort. Miner, Crane and Vandenberg (1994) demonstrated that employees may have a tendency to identify more with their professional association than with the firm or organization by whom they are employed. Jones (2004) wrote of the problems of incompatible performance criteria not because goals are incompatible, but because reward systems and other factors are not perceived to be equitable. And Glueck (1977) addressed the potential for dysfunctional group behavior when there is perceived inequity in factors such as pay and status.

The presence of incongruence, and perceptions of inequity in prevalence of motivating factors seems mitigated in this research of community college admissions offices. While the quantity of resources available or accessible to admissions recruiters might not have had the predicted affect on behavior, the congruence of agreement by admissions recruiters and admissions directors of the relevant motivating factors possibly helps explain why the correlation between affective commitment and job behaviors tended to be stronger than shown in the previous studies as identified by Riketta (2002).

Interpretation of Findings: data that suggest the validity of the effect of resource munificence

The impact of resource munificence proved to be statistically insignificant in this research. As a result, the production of one positive and one negative coefficient in the path analyses results may have occurred by chance alone. But the results of the path analysis might suggest that there is no one quantity of resources that truly optimizes employee behavior. Recalling the inverted U-shaped curve that describes Klein's (1990) theory of the impact of resource munificence, the quantity of resources that enhances behavior associated with affective commitment might be different than the quantity that enhances behavior associated with self-efficacy. As an example, the quantity of resources that impact behaviors associated with affective commitment in this research may be closer to the peak of the inverted U-shaped curve; whereas the quantity of resources that impact behaviors associated with self-efficacy in this research may be closer to either the left or right "foot" of the U-shaped curve. Figure 9 below shows this possible relationship.

Figure 9



Thus, the lack of statistical significance of the effects of resource munificence may be attributable to the fact that there is no one resource quantity level that motivates employees regardless of employee predisposition for such things as affective commitment and self-efficacy. However, it might point toward the possibility of tailoring a unique quantity of resources that is employee-specific, and which might maximize organizationally desirable behaviors. Discussion of this possibility will take place later in this chapter in the suggestions for further research.

From another perspective, it is noted that the mean value of the moderating variable of resource munificence was negative (see figure 7, p. 127). According to

Klein's (1990) munificence theory, a negative value for resource munificence indicates that the quantity of resources available to the employee tends to motivate workers to have what Klein called an alternate task orientation. This orientation would lead workers to perform in a manner not strongly consistent with behaviors the organization might desire of the employee. Given the negative mean value for resource munificence, and the statistically insignificant resource munificence effect, there may be theoretical merit to the moderating effects of resource munificence. The negative mean value of resource munificence in combination with the statistically insignificant resource munificence effect is much more consistent with the resource munificence theory than, for instance, a negative mean value for resource munificence and a large resource munificence effect.

Interpretation of Findings: the potential masking effects of variables used in the study

The correlation between affective commitment and organizationally desirable job behaviors that was registered in this research at community colleges was notably higher than the mean score in the Riketta (2002) meta-analysis of commitment and behaviors. Perhaps the much stronger 0.393 correlation in this research compared to the 0.20 corrected mean in the Riketta research points to the possibility that the relatively strong affective commitment of the admissions recruiters masks the impact of resource munificence on job behaviors.

Another masking affect could have arisen from the very characteristics of the community college admissions environment that helped to control variability of this research. Recall that the code of ethics of college recruiters precludes performance-contingent incentives in the form of commissions for the number of prospective students recruited. Since that potentially motivating resource is unavailable to all recruiters and institutions who abide by the code of ethics, perhaps pay raises and job promotions are under-weighted in the application of Klein's resource munificence model. The true valence of pay raises and job promotions might be higher in this community college admissions environment than it might be in other settings wherein performance-contingent incentives exist. If that is so, valence in this environmental context is undervalued, and the effect of resource munificence would be understated.

Interpretation of Findings: limitations of this research

A limitation of this research is the geographic distribution of the respondents. While the ANOVA calculations did not show a statistically significant variance between geographic regions, one region in particular was under-represented in this research. With the exception of the western region, the actual versus targeted number of responses of all six (6) geographic regions was within plus or minus 20%, with three of the regions' total responses within 6% of the target. However, the actual number of respondents from the western region was only 52% of the targeted number of responses. A higher response rate from colleges located in the Western Association of Colleges and Schools would have made the results of this study more geographically representative.

Another potential limitation of this research was the timing of the survey. The survey results were collected during the months of May and June. This was intentional so that respondents could be reached during an "off-cycle" recruiting time. While the number of usable responses generated by the survey was sufficient to meet the desired confidence level, the participation rate might have been higher if the survey was conducted at a time other than the beginning of summer when many recruiters may have been away from their offices. Perhaps a survey conducted in late December or early January may have garnered more respondents. The calendar year end/year beginning is also often a slower recruiting time, and more recruiters might have been in their offices. If that were so, a lower no-response rate would possibly have generated more usable responses and therefore possibly yielded a higher confidence level to accompany the survey results.

A third limitation of this study that may have impacted the results was the decision to utilize only the reduced job factor subscale identified by both admissions recruiters and admissions directors as the moderating variable in the research. These job factors were identified by both directors and recruiters as the factors that were the most motivating. The Pearson correlation was higher for the reduced job factor subscale that served as the basis for the resource munificence calculation than it was for the full list of job factors. However, if resource munificence is more of a "numbers game," where the total quantity has greater impact than the product of the feasibility and valence of the resources, a larger list of job factors might have demonstrated a larger effect size. Perhaps a list of resources as large as conceivably possible, and not just a list of those resources ranked high in motivation value would better represent the true effect of resource munificence on employee behaviors.

Interpretation of Findings: implications for managers

The research of factors and behaviors within the community college admissions office environment called to attention at least six (6) issues that have implications for managers. A discussion of each of those six (6) implications follows.

Managerial Implication 1: Confirmation of Herzberg's hygiene factors

The research buttressed Herzberg's hygiene factors argument. Herzberg asserted that some job factors have motivating power while others only have de-motivating power in their absence. Admissions recruiters and admissions directors ranked job factors. The two groups were in substantial agreement about which factors motivated workers in the admissions recruiting environment. They were also in substantial agreement about which factors had low motivating value. Several of those factors arguably demonstrate Herzberg's assertions that some job factors are hygiene factors. Among the list of factors judged by both admissions recruiters and directors as low in motivational power are items which seem to be fairly essential resources for successful recruiting in the college admissions environment. For instance, college automobiles, laptop computers, cell phones, and telecounselors to assist in recruiting seem to be basic "tools of the trade." Recruiters would tend to expect the provision of these items. Their presence does little to motivate a recruiter, but their absence would likely make a recruiter ask how they were to be expected to complete their recruiting tasks without them.

Managerial Implication 2: The need for managers to be aware of resource valence

The awareness of resource valence, and communication of the awareness by managers to employees, speaks fairly directly to Klein's observation of the valence (akin to motivating power) and feasibility (associated with Herzberg's hygiene factors). Knowing which resources are expected to be provided so that an employee can effectively perform the job and then acknowledging them merely as essential tools, helps show workers that managers are aware of the basic job needs and also can distinguish them from other factors that really help enhance behavior.

Managerial Implication 3: Further confirmation of linkages of self-efficacy and organizational commitment with job behaviors

This research also illustrates another environment that shows linkage between self-efficacy and positive job behaviors, and organizational commitment and positive job behaviors. Associations of positive job behaviors with both self-efficacy and affective commitment helps affirm that managers should seek to hire people with, or instill in them, a sense of both a passion for the work performed by the organization, and a sense of empowerment and control over their work situation.

Managerial Implication 4: Quantity and type of resources provided to employees impacts employee behavior

As had been mentioned previously, the path analysis evaluation of the effect of resource munificence on desirable job behaviors did not show a statistically significant effect. Yet, the difference in the explanatory value of resource munificence is large when measured using the non-linear-constrained maximum likelihood estimation regression method compared to the least squares linear regression method. Perhaps this helps explain that the quantity of resources, and resource quantity associated with improvements in behavior is truly not linear. As Klein suggests, perhaps there is a point where more resources available to the employee does not improve desired employee behavior. It helps amplify that more is not necessarily better; that managers might be better served to spend more time understanding both the necessity and valence of each new resource. It would seem more instructive for managers to ensure that there is the correct type of tools in the toolbox rather than merely counting the number of tools in it. Unused tools in the toolbox add to weight and burden, but do not add to employee effectiveness. This research helps further confirm for managers that there is value in ensuring employees have the proper type and quantity of tools/resources.

Managerial Implication 5: Resource balance may impact employee behavior

Another implication for managers centers on a notion somewhat akin to the previous implication. In this case, further discernment by the manager allows him/her to extend the examination of resources provided or available to employees beyond an understanding of just the type and quantity of resources issued to the employee. The additional extension focuses on resource balance. In the path analysis of this research, self-efficacy and organizational commitment show different effects. Organizational commitment and resource munificence showed a positive association; whereas self-efficacy and resource munificence indicated a negative association.

Perhaps managers could improve employee behavior by assessing each employee's sense of self-efficacy and organizational commitment. Valid and reliable scales, as those used in this research, are readily available to assess each employee's perception of their own self-efficacy and organizational commitment. If a measure for each employee was known, it may be possible to better tailor a combination of resources available to each worker to enhance their individual performance. For instance, a person with higher values for self-efficacy might perform better if he/she has more chances to serve on committees, and other activities that reinforce his/her sense of his/her own abilities to be successful and affect change within the organization. These employees may find real motivation in activities that reinforce their self-efficacy, and have less need for other physical resources.

On the other hand, a person with higher organizational commitment might find that additional physical resources are an outward display by the organization of reward to those employees who are committed to the organization. These employees who already demonstrate high commitment to the organization might feel rewarded and motivated by the tools that make the job more efficient and effective. The correct combination of resources–and a combination different from the person scoring higher in self-efficacy–may therefore help reinforce organizational commitment. This effort on the part of managers would be consistent with the wise admonition of Drucker (1967) who suggested that managers should strive to make each employee's strengths more productive and their weaknesses irrelevant.

Managerial Implication 6: A possible new optimization tool

The sixth managerial implication of this research may be its potential to be added to decision-making tools used in the study of managerial economics. Specifically, it may be possible one day to calculate a marginal motivating product on resources issued to employees.

This research may serve for managers as a foundation for the development of a managerial decision making tool to assess and optimize employee behavior. In managerial economics there are three (3) principal optimization rules that address the levels at which total organizational profits are maximized. These levels are ascertained by evaluating the marginal value and marginal costs of resources. Specifically, managerial economics instructs managers that total profit is maximized at that point where:

1. Marginal Cost = Marginal Revenue
2. Marginal Factor Cost = Marginal Revenue Product
3. Marginal Physical Product per dollar of capital = Marginal Physical Product per dollar of labor = Marginal Physical Product per dollar of land (natural resources)

Looking still at resources, but now not toward resources directly utilized to produce output, rather evaluating the capacity of resources to motivate (or de-motivate) employees, managers could apply marginal analysis to motivation theory and add a fourth decision rule, which states that: The motivational power of each resource (R) is optimized when the marginal motivational product (MMP) of the last resource is zero (or the nearest positive value to zero). Recognizing some trade offs, mutual exclusivity, and resource constraints, employees' motivation toward organizationally desired behaviors is optimized when the motivational power per dollar of all resources are bundled such that:

4. $\text{MMP/dollar}_{R1} = \text{MMP/dollar}_{R2} = \text{MMP/dollar}_{R3} = \text{MMP/dollar}_{R4} = \ldots\ldots$ MMP/dollar_{Rn}.

In other words, when the marginal motivational product per dollar of each resource is equivalent, overall employee motivation is maximized.

The rationale for this decision rule is precisely the same as with the other three (3) decision rules. In rule one, whenever the marginal (additional) revenue from producing another unit of output is greater than the marginal (additional) cost, the additional unit of output should be created. This process of evaluation of the marginal revenue relative to the marginal cost should continue and output should be expanded up to the point where marginal revenue equals marginal cost. At that point profit is maximized, there is no more additional net revenue increases that can be accrued from the expansion process, and expanding production further would reduce total profit.

The rationale for decision rule two is the same argument as listed for the decision rule described above. The difference between decision rule one and two is simply a matter of focus. In decision rule one, the focus is an output focus. It is intent on measuring the additional costs and additional revenues attendant with producing additional output. With decision rule two, the focus is an input focus. It is intent on measuring the additional costs and additional revenues attendant with employing additional factors of production. Once again, as long as the additional revenue from employing an additional factor of production is greater than the additional cost of employing that additional factor of production, it is wise for the profit maximizing firm to hire the additional worker. It is wise for the organization to continue employing additional factors of production up to the point where the marginal revenue product (additional revenue accrued from the value of the output produced by employing an additional factor of production) equals the marginal factor cost (additional cost of employing an additional factor of production).

The rationale for decision rule three is the argument that applies most directly to the proposed new decision rule suggested by this research. Decision rule three indicates that total profit is maximized when the marginal values of each category of factor of production are equal. The rationale for this decision rule is that an organization desiring to maximize total profit will expand the employment of a particular factor of production as long as its marginal physical product per dollar (in colloquial terms, bang for the buck) is greater than the marginal physical product per dollar (bang for the buck) available from employing any additional units of any other factor of production. The organization will continue to increase the amount of a particular factor of production up to the point where its marginal physical product per dollar is equal to the marginal physical product per dollar of the other factors of production. At that point, profit is maximized.

Similarly, the same decision making process can be employed in an organization seeking to maximize its employees motivation toward organizationally desirable behaviors. As long as the marginal motivational product of a particular resource is greater than the marginal motivational product of another resource, an organization will increase an employee's motivation more by employing those resources than by employing any other resource. As with the decision rule three, the organization should continue to exploit the motivational product of a resource as long as that resource motivates more highly than another resource. A marginal analysis of the incremental changes in the motivational product will allow the manager to measure motivational power, to know when the incremental (marginal) motivational power is at or near zero, and hence know that the motivational power of that resource is maximized. Then, once the marginal motivational product (the additional motivation) of each of the resources is equal, the organization has maximized its employees' total motivation toward organizationally desired behaviors.

This bundle of resources could be constructed uniquely for individual employees; or recognizing that employees in similar roles encounter similar job characteristics, resources could be bundled to maximize desirable employee behaviors on a role basis. Role based resource assembly suffers from a lack of discrimination and fine-tuning to attain the optimum resource bundle for each employee, but offers the benefits of efficiency that may offset any loss of individual employee motivation and behavior optimization.

If this can be accomplished, it then may be possible for managers to apply managerial economics decision rules of marginal analysis to derive a marginal motivational product. Derived marginal motivational product values could then be assessed, so that managers can assemble an optimal combination of quantity and type of resources to maximize organizationally desirable job behaviors.

Suggestions for Additional Research

This research into the effects of resource munificence on employee motivation within the context of community college admissions offices calls to attention other research that may have value to managers and to a further understanding of employee motivation. A few suggestions for additional research follow.

Conduct similar research at four-year institutions

It was mentioned earlier that certain factors may have masked or contravened the effect of resource munificence on employee behavior. Some of those factors may be contextually specific and unique to community colleges and other similar two-year institutions. This same research conducted at four-year institutions could yield additional and/or differing results.

Community colleges, by their very name, are intended to be community oriented and commissioned to serve the community in which they reside. This community specificity may have a significant impact on the effects of resource munificence. As just one example, the factor of admissions recruiter territory size, proximity to home, and richness of prospects showed to be a factor of little significance for community college recruiters. That may well be the case due to the proximity of the community college to the prospective students they serve. However, in the case of four-year colleges and universities, the geographic reach may be national or international in nature. Factors such as composition of territory, may prove much more significant for recruiters at four-year schools.

Research at four-year colleges and universities is a logical extension of this research. Further logical extensions would seem to exist within specific segments of higher education institutions. For instance, a segment of strictly for-profit higher education institutions could be researched. These institutions' recruiters might not be precluded from earning performance-contingent income that is a function of the number of prospects recruited. This factor alone may have a large impact on the results of resource munificence on recruiter behavior.

Conduct research with additional refinement of self-efficacy

The research of Strajkovic and Luthans (1998) evaluated prior research of the impact of self-efficacy on behavior. Their meta-analysis categorized prior research according to task complexity. Perhaps this research would have shown stronger correlations of self-efficacy to both resource munificence and employee behaviors if a more discriminate, task difficulty/complexity component had been included. Additional research that associates task complexity with self-efficacy rather than merely measuring overall self-reported employee self-efficacy may yield more informative results.

Conduct research to determine the shape of the curve that correlates resource munificence with task behavior

Klein suggested that the shape of the curve indicative of the relationship between resource munificence and task behavior was an inverted U-shape. The research conducted here provides a hint that the relationship between resource munificence and task behavior is not linear. Yet the results do not necessarily validate that the curve indicative of the relationship between resource munificence and behavior is of an inverted U-shape. Perhaps the relationship is more complex. Perhaps there are threshold values with more than one asymptotic point. Perhaps the curve indicative of the relationship between resource munificence and task behavior is represented by not only a peak level, but also a valley wherein additional resources once again show a stronger correlation. For instance, maybe the curve indicative of the relationship is more akin to a macroeconomic business cycle curve that has both peaks and valleys with turning points.

Perhaps as well, borrowing another concept from economics regarding the price elasticity of demand, the relationship between resource munificence and task behavior is only positive within a relevant range. The relationship may indeed approximate linearity within a certain quantity of resources, but beyond – above or below that range – the relationship is still linear but with a notably different line slope. Research to seek the shape of the curve, or separate and discrete lines representing the relationship would add to knowledge about which, and how many, resources enhance task behavior; and which and how many detract from it.

Conduct similar research within a notably different context and environment

It was suggested that research be extended to four-year colleges and universities. Substantially similar research in an environment quite different to college admissions would seem a logical extension of this research. Because the environments could be notably different, research of resource munificence in for-profit organizations may yield either confirmatory or refuting results and would merit research to ascertain such.

Conduct research with a different or expanded set of job factors

Effort was taken at a preliminary stage of this research to try to capture the resources that might be relevant to admissions recruiters. Still, that attempt might have failed to yield significant job factors which could serve to motivate admissions recruiters to behave as the organization desires. Perhaps a larger separate survey that includes a more comprehensive investigation of all relevant resources would yield more instructive and compelling results.

Conduct research to ascertain strength of valence, not merely its presence

While this research applied the methodology suggested by Klein to calculate a value for resource munificence, additional research that discerns not only the presence of valence of a resource, but also the *strength* of the valence, would produce a more discriminate value. This research assigned a resource as representing either the characteristics of valence or feasibility as defined by Klein (1990). Particularly with regard to valence, an either/or, yes/no, valence/non-valence attribute assignment ignored the gradient. A factor/resource that shows a strong valence may need to be assigned a greater weight. Research which generates an interval value measuring the extent of strength, rather than a dichotomous value, would produce a more accurate reflection of the effect of resource munificence on employee behavior.

Concluding remark

As with much that is researched, the work conducted here helps answer a few questions, and introduces some new ones. This research sheds light on factors and behaviors in the community college admissions recruiting environment. As a result, the observations produced are limited to that environment, and are not intended to represent other employment contexts. Still, the results help uncover issues and contexts beyond the community college that can be further explored. By doing so, managers in a variety of occupations may better understand and deploy resources that help enhance employees' behaviors in a manner consistent with the expectations of their organization.

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Appendix A (Admissions Recruiter Survey)

Thank you very much for consenting to complete this survey. This survey is the research portion of my doctoral dissertation, and you are really helping me out by completing this.
The purpose of the survey is to help determine some of factors that affect the motivation of people at colleges who recruit or influence students to enroll in college.

This survey should only take about 10 to 12 minutes; and please know that your responses are confidential. Just simply left click on the response you choose for each statement.
You will have an option at the end of the survey to receive the results of this nationwide survey.
Again, thank you very much!

Following are statements about resources and factors that may be available to college admissions recruiters. Please select the response that most closely describes your reaction to each statement.

1. Telecounselors are effective in helping to recruit new students.

Not Used, Do Not Know, Or Does Not Apply	Disagree Very Much	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Moderately	Agree Very Much

2. Laptop computers are used by recruiters for personal use more than college use.

Not Used, Do Not Know, Or Does Not Apply	Disagree Very Much	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Moderately	Agree Very Much

3. Recruiters extensively use college autos for personal use.

Not Used, Do Not Know, Or Does Not Apply	Disagree Very Much	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Moderately	Agree Very Much

4. Recruiters often use college issued cell phones for personal calls.

Not Used, Do Not Know, Or Does Not Apply	Disagree Very Much	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Moderately	Agree Very Much

5. Expenditures on viewbooks, brochures, college fair displays, etc. are sufficient to support the recruiting effort.

Not Used, Do Not Know, Or Does Not Apply	Disagree Very Much	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Moderately	Agree Very Much

6. Electronic tools such as emails, podcasts, and web page expenditures are used to assist recruiters' efforts.

- Not Used, Do Not Know, Or Does Not Apply
- Disagree Very Much
- Disagree Moderately
- Disagree Slightly
- Agree Slightly
- Agree Moderately
- Agree Very Much

7. Alumni and faculty are actively involved in new student recruitment.

- Not Used, Do Not Know, Or Does Not Apply
- Disagree Very Much
- Disagree Moderately
- Disagree Slightly
- Agree Slightly
- Agree Moderately
- Agree Very Much

One area that may influence worker motivation is job satisfaction. For each of the following statements about job satisfaction, please select the response that most closely describes your reaction to each statement.

1. I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.

- Disagree very much
- Disagree moderately
- Disagree slightly
- Agree slightly
- Agree moderately
- Agree very much

2. Raises are too few and far between.

- Disagree very much
- Disagree moderately
- Disagree slightly
- Agree slightly
- Agree moderately
- Agree very much

3. I like my supervisor.

- Disagree very much
- Disagree moderately
- Disagree slightly
- Agree slightly
- Agree moderately
- Agree very much

4. I am unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.

- Disagree very much
- Disagree moderately
- Disagree slightly
- Agree slightly
- Agree moderately
- Agree very much

5. Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.

- Disagree very much
- Disagree moderately
- Disagree slightly
- Agree slightly
- Agree moderately
- Agree very much

6. There are benefits we do not have which we should have.

- Disagree very much
- Disagree moderately
- Disagree slightly
- Agree slightly
- Agree moderately
- Agree very much

7. I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.

- Disagree very much
- Disagree moderately
- Disagree slightly
- Agree slightly
- Agree moderately
- Agree very much

8. There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.

- Disagree very much
- Disagree moderately
- Disagree slightly
- Agree slightly
- Agree moderately
- Agree very much

9. My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.

- Disagree very much
- Disagree moderately
- Disagree slightly
- Agree slightly
- Agree moderately
- Agree very much

10. People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

11. I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

12. My supervisor is unfair to me.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

13. I am satisfied with the benefits I receive.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

14. When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

15. My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

16. The benefits package we have is equitable.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

17. I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

18. The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

Please continue to select your responses to these job satisfaction statements.

1. There are few rewards for those who work here.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

2. My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

3. I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.
○ Disagree very much ○ Disagree moderately ○ Disagree slightly ○ Agree slightly ○ Agree moderately ○ Agree very much

4. I like the people I work with.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

5. Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

6. I have too much to do at work.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

7. I enjoy my co-workers.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

8. The goals of this organization are not clear to me.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

9. I find I have to work harder at my job than I should because of the incompetence of people I work with.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

10. There is too much bickering and fighting at work.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

11. I like doing the things I do at work.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

12. I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

13. I have too much paperwork.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

14. I feel a sense of pride in doing my work.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

15. I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

16. My job is enjoyable.

Disagree very much | Disagree moderately | Disagree slightly | Agree slightly | Agree moderately | Agree very much

17. Communications seem good within this organization.

- Disagree very much
- Disagree moderately
- Disagree slightly
- Agree slightly
- Agree moderately
- Agree very much

18. Work assignments are often not fully explained.

- Disagree very much
- Disagree moderately
- Disagree slightly
- Agree slightly
- Agree moderately
- Agree very much

Following are a few more statements about resources and factors that may be available to college admissions recruiters. Please select the response that most closely describes your reaction to each statement.

1. Through on-the-job performance, recruiters at my institution can:

Gain access to supervisor

- Does Not Apply Not Used, Or Do Not Know
- Disagree Very Much
- Disagree Moderately
- Disagree Slightly
- Agree Slightly
- Agree Moderately
- Agree Very Much

Be assigned a less geographically dispersed territory

- Does Not Apply Not Used, Or Do Not Know
- Disagree Very Much
- Disagree Moderately
- Disagree Slightly
- Agree Slightly
- Agree Moderately
- Agree Very Much

Earn awards and recognition

- Does Not Apply Not Used, Or Do Not Know
- Disagree Very Much
- Disagree Moderately
- Disagree Slightly
- Agree Slightly
- Agree Moderately
- Agree Very Much

Earn appointments to committees that help influence college policy

- Does Not Apply Not Used, Or Do Not Know
- Disagree Very Much
- Disagree Moderately
- Disagree Slightly
- Agree Slightly
- Agree Moderately
- Agree Very Much

Be assigned a territory closer to home

- Does Not Apply Not Used, Or Do Not Know
- Disagree Very Much
- Disagree Moderately
- Disagree Slightly
- Agree Slightly
- Agree Moderately
- Agree Very Much

Be assigned a territory richer in prospects

- Does Not Apply Not Used, Or Do Not Know
- Disagree Very Much
- Disagree Moderately
- Disagree Slightly
- Agree Slightly
- Agree Moderately
- Agree Very Much

Earn job promotions

- Does Not Apply Not Used, Or Do Not Know
- Disagree Very Much
- Disagree Moderately
- Disagree Slightly
- Agree Slightly
- Agree Moderately
- Agree Very Much

Earn pay raises

- Does Not Apply Not Used, Or Do Not Know
- Disagree Very Much
- Disagree Moderately
- Disagree Slightly
- Agree Slightly
- Agree Moderately
- Agree Very Much

How people feel about the organization in which they work may also affect employee motivation. Listed below are statements that reflect possible feelings that individuals might have about the organization in which they work. With respect to your own feelings, please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements.

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this organization be successful.

○ Strongly Disagree ○ Moderately Disagree ○ Slightly Disagree ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree ○ Slightly Agree ○ Moderately Agree ○ Strongly Agree

2. I talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.

○ Strongly Disagree ○ Moderately Disagree ○ Slightly Disagree ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree ○ Slightly Agree ○ Moderately Agree ○ Strongly Agree

3. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization.

○ Strongly Disagree ○ Moderately Disagree ○ Slightly Disagree ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree ○ Slightly Agree ○ Moderately Agree ○ Strongly Agree

4. I find that my values and the organization's values are very similar.

○ Strongly Disagree ○ Moderately Disagree ○ Slightly Disagree ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree ○ Slightly Agree ○ Moderately Agree ○ Strongly Agree

5. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.

○ Strongly Disagree ○ Moderately Disagree ○ Slightly Disagree ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree ○ Slightly Agree ○ Moderately Agree ○ Strongly Agree

6. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.

○ Strongly Disagree ○ Moderately Disagree ○ Slightly Disagree ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree ○ Slightly Agree ○ Moderately Agree ○ Strongly Agree

7. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined.

○ Strongly Disagree ○ Moderately Disagree ○ Slightly Disagree ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree ○ Slightly Agree ○ Moderately Agree ○ Strongly Agree

8. I really care about the fate of this organization.

○ Strongly Disagree ○ Moderately Disagree ○ Slightly Disagree ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree ○ Slightly Agree ○ Moderately Agree ○ Strongly Agree

9. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.

○ Strongly Disagree ○ Moderately Disagree ○ Slightly Disagree ○ Neither Agree nor Disagree ○ Slightly Agree ○ Moderately Agree ○ Strongly Agree

Another area that may influence worker motivation is a person's beliefs about their ability to perform and influence events in their lives. Following are statements about that. Please select the response that most closely describes your reaction to each statement.

1. I can always manage to solve difficult problems if I try hard enough.
Not at all true / Hardly true / Moderately true / Exactly true

2. If someone opposes me, I can find the means and ways to get what I want.
Not at all true / Hardly true / Moderately true / Exactly true

3. It is easy for me to stick to my aims and accomplish my goals.
Not at all true / Hardly true / Moderately true / Exactly true

4. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected events.
Not at all true / Hardly true / Moderately true / Exactly true

5. Thanks to my resourcefulness, I know how to handle unforeseen situations.
Not at all true / Hardly true / Moderately true / Exactly true

6. I can solve most problems if I invest the necessary effort.
Not at all true / Hardly true / Moderately true / Exactly true

7. When I am confronted with a problem, I can usually find several solutions.
Not at all true / Hardly true / Moderately true / Exactly true

8. If I am in trouble, I can usually think of a solution.
Not at all true / Hardly true / Moderately true / Exactly true

9. I can usually handle whatever comes my way.
Not at all true / Hardly true / Moderately true / Exactly true

10. I can remain calm when facing difficulties because I can rely on my coping abilities.
Not at all true / Hardly true / Moderately true / Exactly true

Following are statements about job behaviors. Please select the response that most closely describes your reaction to each statement.

1. In the past twelve months, how often have you . . .

Done more work than required
Never / Very Rarely / Rarely / Seldom / Sometimes / Often / Very Often

Volunteered to work overtime.
Never / Very Rarely / Rarely / Seldom / Sometimes / Often / Very Often

Made attempts to change work conditions.
Never Very Rarely Rarely Seldom Sometimes Often Very Often

Negotiated with supervisors to improve job.
Never Very Rarely Rarely Seldom Sometimes Often Very Often

Tried to think of ways to do the job better.
Never Very Rarely Rarely Seldom Sometimes Often Very Often

Thought of being absent.
Never Very Rarely Rarely Seldom Sometimes Often Very Often

Chatted with co-workers about nonwork topics.
Never Very Rarely Rarely Seldom Sometimes Often Very Often

Left work situation for unnecessary reasons.
Never Very Rarely Rarely Seldom Sometimes Often Very Often

Daydreamed.
Never Very Rarely Rarely Seldom Sometimes Often Very Often

Spent work time on personal matters.
Never Very Rarely Rarely Seldom Sometimes Often Very Often

Put less effort into the job than should have.
Never Very Rarely Rarely Seldom Sometimes Often Very Often

Thought of leaving current job.
Never Very Rarely Rarely Seldom Sometimes Often Very Often

Let others do your work.
Never Very Rarely Rarely Seldom Sometimes Often Very Often

Whether or not these factors are present or available at your school, please select the response that best describes your perception of the motivating power of these items to admissions recruiters.

1. Please rank the following:

Telecounselors to assist in recruiting new students
High Motivating Power Medium/Moderate Motivating Power Low Motivating Power

College autos issued to recruiters
High Motivating Power Medium/Moderate Motivating Power Low Motivating Power

Appointments to committees that help influence college policy
High Motivating Power Medium/Moderate Motivating Power Low Motivating Power

Laptop computers issued to recruiters
High Motivating Power Medium/Moderate Motivating Power Low Motivating Power

Assignment of a territory richer in prospects

High Motivating Power   Medium/Moderate Motivating Power   Low Motivating Power

College issued cell phones

High Motivating Power   Medium/Moderate Motivating Power   Low Motivating Power

Viewbooks, brochures, and college fair displays to support the recruiting effort

High Motivating Power   Medium/Moderate Motivating Power   Low Motivating Power

Pay raises

High Motivating Power   Medium/Moderate Motivating Power   Low Motivating Power

Electronic tools such as emails, podcasts, and web page expenditures to assist recruiters' efforts

High Motivating Power   Medium/Moderate Motivating Power   Low Motivating Power

Awards and recognition

High Motivating Power   Medium/Moderate Motivating Power   Low Motivating Power

Alumni and faculty assistance in new student recruitment

High Motivating Power   Medium/Moderate Motivating Power   Low Motivating Power

Access to supervisor

High Motivating Power   Medium/Moderate Motivating Power   Low Motivating Power

Assignment of a less geographically dispersed territory

High Motivating Power   Medium/Moderate Motivating Power   Low Motivating Power

Assignment of a territory closer to home

High Motivating Power   Medium/Moderate Motivating Power   Low Motivating Power

Job promotions

High Motivating Power   Medium/Moderate Motivating Power   Low Motivating Power

This is the last section of the survey. Please answer these final few questions about yourself and the institution with whom you are employed

1. Your gender.

   Male   Female

2. Your age.

   Less than 30   Between 30 and 39   Between 40 and 49   Between 50 and 59   60 or older

3. Highest level of academic attainment.

   Less than bachelor's degree   Bachelor's degree   Master's degree   Doctoral degree

4. Your total years of service in admissions/enrollment management (include current and any past colleges for which you have worked).

- Less than 5 years
- More than 5 but less than 10 years
- 10 to 15 years
- More than 15 years

5. Type of institution for which you work.

- 2 year public community college
- 2 year private community college
- 2 year public technical/vocational college
- 2 year private technical/vocational college
- 4 year college/university

6. Regional accrediting body which accredits your school.

- North Central Association of Colleges and Schools (NCACS)
- Southern Association of Colleges and Schools (SACS)
- Northwest Association of Colleges and Schools (NACS)
- Western Association of Colleges and Schools (WASC)
- Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools (MSA)
- New England Association of Colleges and Schools (NEACS)
- Do not know

7. Please indicate the state where your college is located.

State ______________________________

8. I am involved either directly or indirectly in student recruitment.

- Yes
- No

9. I am aware of the National Association for College Admissions Counselors guidelines.

- Yes
- No
- Unsure/Don't know

10. To the best of my knowledge, my institution adheres to National Association for College Admissions Counselors guidelines.

- Yes
- No
- Unsure/Don't know

11. The job title that most closely matches your job title.

- Recruiter
- Advisor/Counselor
- Enrollment Specialist
- Admissions/Enrollment Director or Manager
- Other

12. Yes, I would like to receive a copy of the survey results. Please send the results to me at the email address I indicate below.

Email: ______________________________

You have completed the survey.
Thank you very much.
Please submit the survey by clicking the "done" button.
Again, thank you!

Appendix B (Letter accompanying admissions recruiter survey)

Dear [*prospective respondent first name*] ,

My name is Steve Scheer and earlier this week I sent you an email requesting your assistance as a participant in my doctoral dissertation research study. If you are willing to take the online survey, thank you very much; and please either click on the link that follows, or copy and paste the link to your browser.

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=tCULPnPG269nQjtv0jVAmQ_3d_3d

If you wish to read more before deciding to participate, I am the Director of Admissions at Ivy Tech Community College Northeast in Fort Wayne, Indiana. I am also a Doctoral Candidate in Business Administration at Anderson University.

The research involves factors that influence the motivation of community college admissions recruiters. Your participation is voluntary and there are no expected risks or direct benefits to you for your participation. Your responses to the questionnaire are very important, and it is expected that the survey should take only around 10 to 12 minutes to complete.

If you agree to participate, please complete the questionnaire and submit it to me electronically. Submitting the survey to me will serve as your implied consent to participate in this study; and please know that the data collected from individual surveys will remain confidential.

Your assistance in this survey is very much appreciated, and the results of this research can be shared with you if you request. There is an option at the end of the survey to select to have the results sent to you.

If you agree to participate, thank you very much!

Sincerely,

Steven M. Scheer
Director of Admissions - Ivy Tech Community College - Fort Wayne, IN
And Doctoral Candidate, Anderson University

Appendix C (Admissions Directors Questionnaire)

Hello. My name is Steve Scheer and I am the Director of Admissions at Ivy Tech Community College Northeast in Fort Wayne, Indiana. I am also a Doctoral Candidate in Business Administration with Anderson University and am conducting my dissertation research. The research involves factors that influence the motivation of community college admissions recruiters.

I am seeking the opinions and insight of several community college admissions directors from across the U.S.; and you are one of the people I would like to interview. Your opinion is important to me. None of your responses requires that you reveal anything about your job performance, and deals only with resources and items that might be available to admissions recruiters. The only identifying information I intend to include in the research is to identify the state in the U.S. in which your community college is located. Could I have about 5 or 10 minutes of your time to ask you a few questions?

<u>Interview segment 1:</u>

Are you a director of admissions, or hold a similar title at your community college?

Yes _____ No _____

Please validate for me the state in which your community college is located.

State: ____

<u>Interview segment 2:</u>

Following is list of items that have been identified as items which might influence or motivate community college recruiters in the course of their job. In your opinion, please indicate which of the following might influence or motivate community college admissions recruiters. Please assign a ranking of their importance – assigning an "H" to the most motivating factors, an "M" to moderately motivating factors, and an "L" to factors that have low motivation power. Then please include any items or factors not listed that you feel may motivate admissions recruiters and that should be added to the list.

Motivational
<u>Ranking</u>
_______ Telecounselors to assist in recruiting new students
_______ College autos issued to recruiters
_______ Appointments to committees that help influence college policy
_______ Laptop computers issued to recruiters
_______ Assignment of a territory richer in prospects
_______ College issued cell phones
_______ Viewbooks, brochures, and college fair displays to support the recruiting effort

_______ Pay raises
_______ Electronic tools such as emails, podcasts, and web page expenditures to assist recruiters' efforts.
_______ Awards and recognition
_______ Alumni and faculty assistance in new student recruitment.
_______ Access to supervisor
_______ Assignment of a less geographically dispersed territory
_______ Assignment of a territory closer to home
_______ Job promotions

____ Other suggested item

____ Other suggested item

____ Other suggested item

____ Other suggested item

____ Other suggested item

____ Other suggested item

There are just three segments of this short interview. You have already completed two. This last segment should not take any longer than the first two sections you have already completed.

<u>Interview segment 3:</u>

The research I am conducting is intended to measure the quantity of resources and motivating items that may motivate community college recruiters. Some items that might motivate recruiters are tangible things, others are intangible items. A key part of the research is to differentiate between resources that are generally available to recruiters in the course of their work; and those resources and motivating items that may be attained only as a sort of reward by the recruiters because they have done a good job.

As such, following are some phrases. For each of the following 9 sets of paired phrases, one phrase is more closely associated with "a feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed" (It comes with the job).

The other phrase is more closely associated with "a feeling generally only held by employees if they perform" (Is performance related).

Please select which statement is most closely associated with the employee feeling which follows the statement.

Paired phrases 1
(Please select the response that you feel is most closely associated with each statement. Try not to select the same response for both phrases in the paired set, but you can respond with "Can't tell/neither" as often as you feel you need to.)

1A. *Employees are paid fairly.*

□ A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□ A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□ Can't tell/Neither

1 B. *Employees have opportunities for salary increases.*

□ A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□ A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□ Can't tell/Neither

Paired phrases 2
(Please select the response that you feel is most closely associated with each statement. Try not to select the same response for both phrases in the paired set, but you can respond with "Can't tell/neither" as often as you feel you need to.)

2 A. *Doing well on a job enhances chances for promotion.*

□ A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□ A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□ Can't tell/Neither

2 B. *Employees get ahead here as fast as anywhere else.*

□ A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□ A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□ Can't tell/Neither

Paired phrases 3
(Please select the response that you feel is most closely associated with each statement. Try not to select the same response for both phrases in the paired set, but you can respond with "Can't tell/neither" as often as you feel you need to.)

3 A. *Supervisor is competent in doing his/her job.*

□ A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□ A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□ Can't tell/Neither

3 B. *Supervisor is fair to employees.*

□ A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□ A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□ Can't tell/Neither

Paired phrases 4
(Please select the response that you feel is most closely associated with each statement. Try not to select the same response for both phrases in the paired set, but you can respond with "Can't tell/neither" as often as you feel you need to.)

4 A. *Benefits here are as good as most other organizations.*

□ A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□ A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□ Can't tell/Neither

4 B. *There are benefits we do not have which we should have.*

□ A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□ A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□ Can't tell/Neither

Paired phrases 5
(Please select the response that you feel is most closely associated with each statement. Try not to select the same response for both phrases in the paired set, but you can respond with "Can't tell/neither" as often as you feel you need to.)

5 A. *When employees do a good job, they receive recognition.*

□A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□Can't tell/Neither

5 B. *There are few rewards for people who work at the organization.*

□A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□Can't tell/Neither

Paired phrases 6
(Please select the response that you feel is most closely associated with each statement. Try not to select the same response for both phrases in the paired set, but you can respond with "Can't tell/neither" as often as you feel you need to.)

6 A. *When an employee tries to do a good job, his/her efforts are often blocked by red tape.*

□A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□Can't tell/Neither

6 B. *Employees are expected to do too much work.*

□A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□Can't tell/Neither

Paired phrases 7
(Please select the response that you feel is most closely associated with each statement. Try not to select the same response for both phrases in the paired set, but you can respond with "Can't tell/neither" as often as you feel you need to.)

7 A. *Employees enjoy their co-workers.*

☐A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

☐A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

☐Can't tell/Neither

7 B. *Some employees have to work harder because some of their co-workers are incompetent.*

☐A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

☐A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

☐Can't tell/Neither

Paired phrases 8
(Please select the response that you feel is most closely associated with each statement. Try not to select the same response for both phrases in the paired set, but you can respond with "Can't tell/neither" as often as you feel you need to.)

8 A. *Employees like the things they do at work.*

☐A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

☐A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

☐Can't tell/Neither

8 B. *Employees achieve a sense of pride when they do their job.*

☐A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

☐A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

☐Can't tell/Neither

Paired phrases 9
(Please select the response that you feel is most closely associated with each statement. Try not to select the same response for both phrases in the paired set, but you can respond with "Can't tell/neither" as often as you feel you need to.)

9 A. *Employees do not know what is going on in the organization.*

□ A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□ A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□ Can't tell/Neither

9 B. *Communication within the organization is good.*

□ A feeling generally held by employees simply because they are employed.

□ A feeling generally held by employees if they perform.

□ Can't tell/Neither

Would you like a copy of my research results? Yes _____ No _____

Again, thank you. I really appreciate your time and input.

Steve Scheer

Director of Admissions at Ivy Tech Community College in Fort Wayne, Indiana
and Doctoral Candidate at Anderson University in Anderson, Indiana

Appendix D (Path Analysis Output from SPSS AMOS 16.0)

Variable Summary (Group number 1)

Your model contains the following variables (Group number 1)

Observed, endogenous variables
srklnmot
behavtot

Observed, exogenous variables
orgcom
geneff

Unobserved, exogenous variables
e1
e2

Variable counts (Group number 1)

Number of variables in your model: 6
Number of observed variables: 4
Number of unobserved variables: 2
Number of exogenous variables: 4
Number of endogenous variables: 2

Parameter summary (Group number 1)

	Weights	Covariances	Variances	Means	Intercepts	Total
Fixed	2	0	0	0	0	2
Labeled	0	0	0	0	0	0
Unlabeled	5	0	4	0	0	9
Total	7	0	4	0	0	11

Notes for Model (Default model)

Computation of degrees of freedom (Default model)

Number of distinct sample moments: 10
Number of distinct parameters to be estimated: 9
Degrees of freedom (10 - 9): 1

Result (Default model)

Minimum was achieved
Chi-square = 1.375
Degrees of freedom = 1
Probability level = .241

Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model)

Scalar Estimates (Group number 1 - Default model)

Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
srklnmot <--- orgcom	.976	.193	5.051	***	
srklnmot <--- geneff	-.567	.615	-.922	.356	
behavtot <--- geneff	.669	.185	3.611	***	
behavtot <--- orgcom	.423	.061	6.978	***	
behavtot <--- srklnmot	.006	.017	.347	.729	

Variances: (Group number 1 - Default model)

	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
orgcom	1.293	.105	12.309	***	
geneff	.128	.010	12.309	***	
e1	14.635	1.189	12.309	***	
e2	1.325	.108	12.309	***	

Minimization History (Default model)

Iteration		Negative eigenvalues	Condition #	Smallest eigenvalue	Diameter	F	NTries	Ratio
0	e	0	4.776		9999.000	48.785	0	9999.000
1	e	0	6.254		.688	34.058	1	.241
2	e	0	3.691		.175	6.147	1	1.191
3	e	0	3.291		.095	1.653	1	1.140
4	e	0	3.157		.031	1.377	1	1.049
5	e	0	3.044		.003	1.375	1	1.004
6	e	0	3.108		.000	1.375	1	1.000

Model Fit Summary

CMIN

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	9	1.375	1	.241	1.375
Saturated model	10	.000	0		
Independence model	4	89.784	6	.000	14.964

RMR, GFI

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	.019	.998	.977	.100
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	.474	.872	.786	.523

Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.985	.908	.996	.973	.996
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.167	.164	.166
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

NCP

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	.375	.000	7.937
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	83.784	56.772	118.239

FMIN

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	.005	.001	.000	.026
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	.296	.277	.187	.390

RMSEA

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.035	.000	.162	.402
Independence model	.215	.177	.255	.000

AIC

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	19.375	19.677	52.829	61.829
Saturated model	20.000	20.336	57.170	67.170
Independence model	97.784	97.919	112.653	116.653

ECVI

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	.064	.063	.089	.065
Saturated model	.066	.066	.066	.067
Independence model	.323	.234	.436	.323

HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	847	1462
Independence model	43	57

Execution time summary

Minimization: .047
Miscellaneous: .296
Bootstrap: .000
Total: .343

VITA

Steven M. Scheer

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Ivy Tech Community College
3800 N. Anthony Blvd.
Fort Wayne, IN 46805
260-480-4221
sscheer@ivytech.edu

Education

-Doctor of Business Administration Degree – ABD, 2004 to present Anderson University, Anderson, IN
-Master of Business Administration Degree, 1983 Saint Francis College, Fort Wayne, IN
-Bachelor of Science Degree – Business, 1978 Indiana University, Fort Wayne, IN

Professional Experience

Education Administration: 2000 to Present

-Ivy Tech Community College Fort Wayne, IN Summer 2008 *Acting Vice Chancellor of Student Affairs*
-Ivy Tech Community College April 2001 – Present *Director of Admissions*
-Ivy Tech Community College March 2000 - April 2001 *Program Chair*

Part-time Educator: 1991 to Present

-Associate Faculty
Part-time instructor of economics, and business courses. Instruct both in classroom and through distance education via the internet. Have instructed 177 courses totaling 565 credit hours; averaging nearly 10 courses and 31 credit hours per year.

Administrative Management: 1993 to 2000

-Huntington County Solid Waste Management District -Huntington, IN *Executive Director*

Marketing and Sales Management: 1984 to 1993

-Builders Mart, Inc. Huntington, IN 1990-1993 R*etail and Industrial Sales Representative*
-Lime City Manufacturing Co., Inc. Huntington, IN 1987-1990 *Sales and Marketing Manager*
-Fawnbuck, Inc. Huntington, IN 1986-1987 *Vice-President of Sales and Marketing*
-Huntington Laboratories, Inc. Huntington, IN 1986 *Sales and Marketing Manager*
-Huntington Laboratories, Inc. 1985 *Group Marketing Manager*
-Huntington Laboratories, Inc. 1984 - 1985 *Healthcare Products Manager*

Operations Management:

-Huntington Laboratories, Inc. 1982 to 1984 *Production and Distribution Manager*
-Huntington Laboratories, Inc. 1979-1982 *Support Services Manager*
-Huntington Laboratories, Inc. 1978-1979 *Assistant Technical Services Manager*

Steven M. Scheer

Dissertation

The Effects of Resource Munificence on Employee Motivation: Factors and Resources that Motivate Community College Admissions Office Recruiting

Teaching History

-Huntington University 2005 to present

Courses instructed: Managerial Economics Human Resources Administration, Marketing in a Global Economy, Ethics in Business, Management Concepts

-Indiana Wesleyan University 1992 to present

Courses instructed: Economics for Business, Advanced Managerial Economics, Basic Economics, Applied Microeconomics for Business, Applied Macroeconomics for Business, Managerial Economics, Personal Finance, Organizational Development, Introduction to American Business, Seminar in Business

-Ivy Tech Community College 2000 to present

Courses instructed: Principles of Macroeconomics, Personal Selling

-Indiana Tech and International Business College 1991-1993

Courses instructed: Money and Banking, Industrial Management and Supervision, Small Business Management, Production, Planning and Control, Business Principles

Professional Memberships

- Ivy Tech Community College Statewide Admissions Leadership Executive Committee - Chair
- Learning Management Platform Evaluation Task Force
- Call/Fulfillment Center Joint Task Force
- Prior Learning Assessment Development Committee
- Enrollment, Advising, Retention Committee
- Fast Track/Double-Up High School Dual Enrollment Steering Committee
- Team Writer of Indiana Wesleyan University MBA Advanced Managerial Economics Course
- Indiana Association of College Admissions Counselors