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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEES' CONSTRUCTIVE THINKING
ABILITY AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

By
Richard D. Kimbel

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
The Wayne Huizenga Graduate School of Business and
Entrepreneurship
Nova Southeastern University

in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

2002

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A Dissertation
entitled

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEES' CONSTRUCTIVE THINKING
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By

Richard D. Kimbel

We hereby certify that this Dissertation submitted by Richard D. Kimbel conforms to acceptable standards, and as such is fully adequate in scope and quality. It is therefore approved as the fulfillment of the Dissertation requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Business Administration.

Approved:

CW Blackwell 2-22-02
Charles W. Blackwell, D.P.A. Date
Chairperson

Terrell G. Manyak February 22, 2002
Terrell G. Manyak, Ph.D. Date
Committee Member

Gerald Work 2.22.02
Gerald Work, Ed.D. Date
Committee Member

Joseph L. Balloun 2/26/02
Joseph L. Balloun, Ph.D. Date
Director of Doctoral Research

J. Preston Jones 26 Feb 2002
J. Preston Jones, D.B.A. Date
Associate Dean, Wayne Huizenga Graduate School of
Business and Entrepreneurship

Nova Southeastern University
2002

CERTIFICATION STATEMENT

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Richard D. Kimbel

ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEES' CONSTRUCTIVE THINKING ABILITY AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

by

Richard D. Kimbel

The purpose of this study was the investigation of the relationship between employees' constructive thinking ability (CTA) and organizational commitment (OC). The population for this study were, nurses at a medium sized hospital in the southwestern United States. The instruments used in this study were the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday et al. (1979) and the Constructive Thinking Inventory developed by Epstein (1987). The OCQ was used to measure organizational commitment and the CTI was used to measure the constructive thinking ability of the respondents in the study.

Data analysis indicated a significant correlation between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment. It was also determined that those employees who have good constructive thinking ability have more organizational commitment than those employees with poorer constructive thinking ability.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

This study examines the relationship between employees' constructive thinking ability (CTA) and their organizational commitment (OC) to the company that employs them. In today's work environment, employee commitment to the organization is essential for organizational survival (Woolridge, 2000). A recent article in the New York Times, "Come Back, Company Man!" (Woolridge, 2000) dealt with the loss of employee loyalty and commitment to the organization. The article asks the question of whether employee loyalty and the death of the company man are something to be lamented or celebrated. The article concludes that in an economic environment, in which capital and the latest technology are widely available, the only hope for building employee loyalty and commitment, and a sustained competitive advantage resides in the way companies manage their employees. This study, in an attempt

to understand employee organizational commitment, examines Seymour Epstein's Cognitive Experiential Self-Theory (CEST) and its analysis of employees' constructive thinking ability as the independent variable (Epstein, 1998), and organizational commitment as the dependent variable. Seymour Epstein developed the Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI), which will be used to measure the constructive thinking ability of the employees involved in the study. Employee organizational commitment will be measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979).

The sample employee population used for this study will be health care nurses at a medium-sized hospital in the southwest United States. The nurse population of this hospital facility is approximately 200.

Various statistical procedures will be used to determine the relationship between the construct of organizational commitment (OC) and the construct of constructive thinking ability (CTA). The results of this comparative analysis will be presented in Chapter IV of the dissertation

Background

Over the last 30 years, numerous studies have identified employee commitment to an organization as an important part of understanding work behavior in organizations (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

Numerous researchers and practitioners of these studies have explored the consequences and antecedents of organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1993, 1996; Beck & Wilson, 2000; Becker, 1960; Brown, 1969; Buchanan, 1974; Cohen, 1993; Cohen & Kirchmeyer, 1995; Coughenour, 1995; Dunham, Grube, & Castenda, 1994; Hrebineck & Alutto, 1972; Hunt & Morgan, 1994; Jaros, 1997; Kanter, 1968; Lee, Ashford, Walsh, & Mowday, 1992; Salancik, 1977; Sheldon, 1971; Somers, 1995; Weiner, & Gechman, 1977).

The concept of organizational commitment as it relates to employees of an organization refers to an individual's identification with an organization (Lee, Ashford, Walsh, & Mowday, 1992). While many definitions of organizational commitment (OC) have been developed, the one used for this study is "...relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 226).

Organizational commitment has also been identified as a highly negative correlate of employee turnover in the work place (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Mathieu and Zajac (1990) report a negative correlation between organizational commitment and employee turnover. Given the cost of turnover to organizations, organizational commitment and the antecedents must be analyzed to enhance organization health (Balfour & Weschsler, 1991).

Managers contend that employees who exhibit positive organizational commitment have a highly desirable psychological state (Aven, 1998). If true, this highly desirable psychological state leads directly to the Cognitive Experiential Self-Theory (CEST) developed by Seymour Epstein (1990). CEST is a cognitive/constructionist theory that assumes cognition is emotionally and experientially driven (Epstein, 1998).

CEST maintains that emotions and behaviors are determined automatically by the experiential conceptual system. Thus the experiential system (life experiences) plays an important role in determining an employee's success at work and living in general (Epstein, 1991a). The results of this study will test the relationship to see if a positive correlation exists between organizational

commitment and the constructive thinking ability (CTA) of health care nurses at a medium-sized hospital in the southwest United States.

Statement of the Problem

Employee loyalty is dead, the experts claim (Kimbel, & Stonestreet, 2000). According to Frederick F. Reichheld (1996), US corporations will lose half their customers in five years, half of their employees in four years, and half of their investors in less than one year. The loss of employee organizational commitment in the American workforce was first noticed following the massive downsizing that took place in the 1990s. Employers concluded that bonds of commitment with their employees was too costly and broke the social contracts they had with their employees (Clancy, 1999). The booming economy that followed World War II promised employees job security in exchange for loyalty and commitment to the organization. Downsizing in the 1990s changed this picture (Clancy, 1999).

In 1999, according to a report released by the Hudson Institute, only one in four employees is committed to his or her organization (Leonard, 2000). Michael De Scarto, a

Hudson Institute spokesman, states the study encompasses workers from business, the non-profit sector, and government employees (Leonard, 2000).

Today, where flattened organizations and empowered workers are needed for productivity and performance, employee commitment to the organization is crucial (Dessler, 1993). In this study, the particular organization that will be examined for employee commitment is a hospital in the southwestern United States. Specifically, the population to be examined will be the nursing staff. The relationship between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment as it relates to the nursing profession is unclear.

Purpose of this Study

One purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment within the nursing population at a major hospital in the southwestern United States. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) and the Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI) developed by Seymour Epstein

(1987) will be the data gathering instruments used in this study.

The second purpose of this study, is to re-examine organizational commitment when viewed through the lens of constructive thinking ability. The author was unable to locate any prior research involving constructive thinking ability and its correlation to organizational commitment.

This study will also expand the current organizational commitment research among hospital employees (Steers, 1977) to determine the influence of constructive thinking ability (CTA) as an antecedent to the organizational commitment of the nurses employed by a major hospital in the southwestern United States.

Studying the relationship between the two constructs, organizational commitment (OC) and constructive thinking ability (CTA), will add to the body of knowledge concerning organizational commitment of employees to the organizations that employ them. A more complete discussion of the organizational commitment literature, and the literature concerning the construct of constructive thinking ability can be found in Chapter II. The proposed relationship between Organizational Commitment (OC) and Constructive Thinking Ability (CTA) shown in figure 1 proposes that

employees with good constructive thinking ability (CTA), have more organizational commitment (OC) than those employees with poorer CTA.

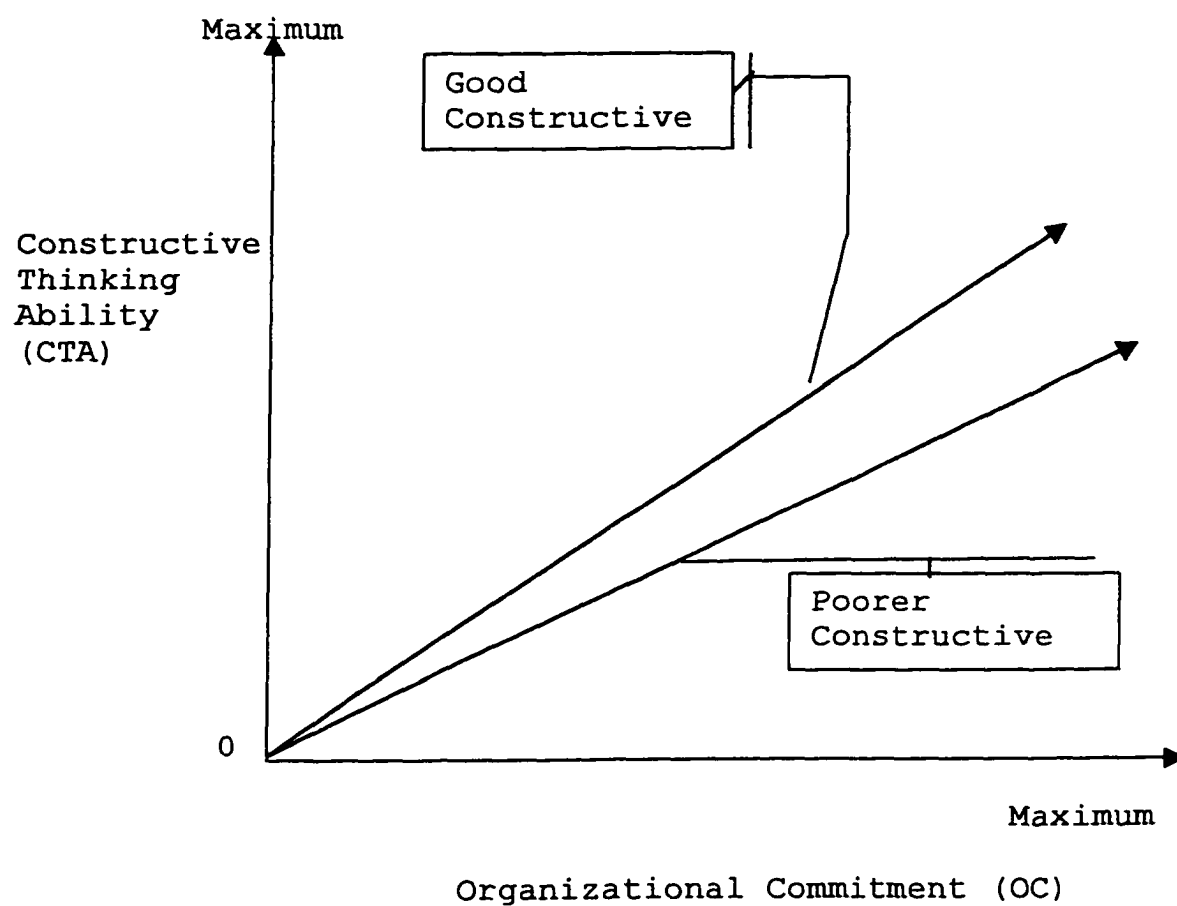


Figure 1: Proposed relationship between organizational commitment (OC) and constructive thinking ability (CTA)

Research Questions

To investigate the relationship between organizational commitment and constructive thinking ability, this study will seek to answer the following research questions:

1. Does a positive relationship exist between constructive thinking ability (CTA) and organizational commitment (OC)?
2. Do employees with good constructive thinking ability (CTA), have more organizational commitment (OC) than those employees with poorer constructive thinking ability?
3. Which of the scales of the Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI) show significant positive correlation relationships, if any, of employee commitment to the organization?

Definition of Terms

Employees are nurses employed by a hospital in the southwestern part of the United States.

Organizational Commitment (OC) is the "...relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday, et al., 1979, p. 226).

Three related characteristics of OC are:

1. A strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values.
2. A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization.
3. A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization.

The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) to measure employee commitment to their work organization.

Constructive Thinking Inventory Terms

The following terms are taken directly from the Constructive Thinking Inventory (Epstein, 1993a).

The Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI) is an instrument used to measure experiential or practical intelligence. The CTI measures an individual's tendency to think automatically in ways that are important for problem solving with minimal stress.

Constructive Thinking Ability (CTA) is the ability to solve every day problems at a minimal cost in stress (Epstein, 1993a). The CTA construct assumes a continuum of

differences in automatic thinking from very constructive to very destructive (Epstein, 1990).

The Constructive Thinking Inventory consists of a global scale and six other scales. The six scales are broad and all but one are divided into sub-scales. These scales indicate that constructive thinking is hierarchically organized, and is differentiated and integrated (Epstein, 1993a).

The major CTI scales are:

1. Global Constructive Thinking. Global constructive thinking is a broad bipolar Global Scale which includes items from all of the main scales except naïve optimism. Since it is bipolar, the scale includes items indicative of both constructive and destructive thinking. Good constructive thinkers are accepting of others as well as self-accepting. They give others the benefit of the doubt and think in terms of problem solving. Good constructive thinkers score high on emotional and behavioral coping, and low on categorical, superstitious, and esoteric thinking,

2. Emotional Coping. The Emotional Coping Scale is bipolar and the most strongly associated with the Global Scale. People with high scores on emotional coping are able to cope with distressing situations in a manner that does

not produce undue stress. They do not dwell on past misfortunes, do not overreact to present ones, and do not worry excessively about future ones. The nature of emotional coping is elucidated by its facets, which are (a) self-acceptance, (b) absence of negative overgeneralization, (c) nonsensitivity, and (d) absence of dwelling on adverse past experiences.

3. Behavioral Coping. The Behavioral Coping Scale is a bipolar scale and seeks to measure the tendency to think in ways that promote effective action. People with high scores on behavioral coping are optimistic, energetic, and conscientious. Their optimism contributes to their readiness to act and the confidence that their actions will be effective. The facets of behavioral coping are (a) positive thinking, (b) action oriented, and (c) conscientiousness.

4. Categorical Thinking. People with high scores on categorical thinking scale view the world in black and white terms and overlook important distinctions. This rigid thinking and lack of discrimination makes them prone to look for simplistic solutions. They feel annoyed and angry when confronted with situations that violate their stereotypes. On the positive side, categorical thinking

facilitates decisive action, as it allows people to come to rapid conclusions. The facets of categorical thinking are (a) polarized thinking, (b) distrust of others, and (c) intolerance.

5. Esoteric Thinking. The esoteric scale reveals the degree to which people believe in unusual, and scientifically questionable phenomena, such as ghosts, astrology, mind reading, omens, and conventional superstitions. High scores, however, suggest a lack of critical thinking and excessive reliance on feelings and inappropriate impressions that can lead people to behave irrationally. The facets of esoteric thinking are a belief in questionable phenomena (e.g., ghosts, mind-reading, clairvoyance), and formal superstitious thinking (e.g., belief in good luck charms, omens, and conventional superstitions).

6. Personal Superstitious Thinking. The personal superstitious scale reveals the degree to which people hold onto private superstitions. An example would be when one wants something to happen. What will keep it from happening, and if it is something very good, will be balanced by something equally bad to offset it. Personal superstitious thinking serves to reduce the sting of

disappointment by dampening enthusiasm and hope. People with high scores are oriented more toward defending themselves against threat than toward personal fulfillment. The personal superstitious scale is a homogenous scale that contains no facets. It is not surprising that personal superstitious thinking is positively correlated with measures of pessimism, helplessness, and depression.

7. Naive Optimism. The naive optimism scale indicates the degree to which people are unrealistically optimistic. Although reasonable optimism is highly adaptive, naive optimism is a mixed blessing. On the positive side, naive optimists have high spirits, are liked by others, and do well in politics. High scores on naive optimism, suggest a simple-minded orientation to life and a failure to face unpleasant realities and take obvious precautions. The facets of naive optimism are (a) positive thinking/over-optimism, (b) stereotypical thinking, and (c) pollyanna-ish thinking (e.g., the belief that everyone is basically good at heart, and that everyone should always look at the bright side of things).

CTI Validity Scales

The Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI) includes three validity scales. These three validity scales are not meant to provide substantive information for interpretation in their own right but are only used for validity checks.

They are:

1. Defensive Scale. A high defensive scale score indicates that a respondent has deliberately attempted to portray himself or herself in an unrealistically favorable light. A T-score of 70 on the Defensive Scale is required before the CTI is considered invalid.
2. The Lie-Free Scale. The Lie Free Scale is evaluated in conjunction with the Global scale. If the T-score on the Global Scale is more than ten points above that for the Lie-Free scale, there is reason to believe the respondent has presented an excessively favorable picture of himself or herself.
3. Validity Scale. On the Validity Scale, T-scores below 30 indicate the person is either careless or has difficulty understanding the items of the CTI. A T-score below 30 indicates that the test is invalid.

Organization of Subsequent Chapters

A review of the literature is presented in Chapter II. The major area of research that is related to organizational commitment and its evolution is discussed in detail. Additionally, the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), Personality Psychology and the Cognitive Experiential Self-Theory (CEST), and the Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI) are included with the seminal stream of literature outlining their relationships. Chapter II ends with a summary that connects the literature as presented.

Chapter III describes the design and methodology of this study. It includes descriptions of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), and the Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI), treatment of the generated data, and the statistical procedures used for analysis.

Chapter IV will present the results of the statistical analysis for each hypothesis. Chapter V will include the summary, conclusions, implications and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Organization of the Chapter

This chapter is divided into eight major divisions, (a) organizational commitment (OC), (b) the evolution of organizational commitment, (c) antecedents of organizational commitment, (d) the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, (e) the Cognitive Experiential Self-Theory, (f) constructive thinking, and (g) the Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI). A summary is also included.

Organizational Commitment

In today's world, organizational commitment is a central construct in management, sales, marketing, psychology, etc. (Mathieu, Bruvold & Ritchey, 2000). The importance of the construct of organizational commitment transcends cultural boundaries and is strengthened as

organizations grow and expand with worldwide markets (Mathieu et al., 2000). Research related to organizational commitment can be found in meta-analyses such as Brown and Peterson (1993), Cohen (1993), Mathieu and Zajac (1990), Tett and Meyer (1993). For most of the latter part of the last century, measures based on the concept of organizational commitment by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) have been used.

The phrase, organizational commitment, elicits and asks, "what is a committed employee?" and requests a definition for itself. Commentators typically agree that a committed employee is one who stays with the organization through thick and thin, attends work regularly, puts in a full day's work and more, protects company assets, and shares the goals and vision of the organization (Meyer & Allen, 1997).

The definition of organizational commitment is another matter. A review of organizational commitment literature quickly establishes that there is a lack of a clear and accepted definition for it. Salancik (1977) says that a common definition of the term organizational commitment is mandatory for conducting commitment research. This has yet

to be realized. Organizational commitment has been defined and measured in many different ways. The various definitions share one common theme in that commitment is considered to be a bond or linking of the employee to the organization (Lee, Asford, Walsh, & Mowday, 1992). Over the years, the following definitions of organizational commitment have emerged without the consensus that is necessary to establish a universal definition. A review of definitions from previous research present the following examples:

1. Commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side bet, links extraneous interest with consistent lines of activity (Becker, 1960).
2. Commitment describes the nature of the relationship of the member to the system as a whole (Grusky, 1966).
3. Commitment is exhibited by the willingness of an employee to exert high levels of effort on the behalf of the organization, and an acceptance of its major goals and values (Porter, & Lauer, 1968).
4. An attitude or an orientation toward the organization which links or attaches identity of the person to the organization can be termed commitment (Sheldon, 1971).

5. Commitment is a structural phenomenon that occurs as the result of individual and organizational transactions in side bets or investments over time (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972).
6. Commitment is viewed as a partisan affective attachment to the goals and values of an organization by an employee (Buchanan, 1974).
7. Commitment is "...a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his or her actions and through these actions to beliefs that sustain the activities of the organization and his or her involvement" (Salancik, p. 62, 1977).
8. Commitment is the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1979).
9. Commitment equals the sum of the internal normative pressures, pressuring an individual to act in a way corresponding to an organization's interest (Weiner & Vardi, 1980).
10. Commitment describes the bond between an individual and the organization (Wing, 1985).
11. Commitment is a three dimensional construct that consists of an affective component, continuous

component, and a normative component. The affective component refers to an employees emotional attachment, identification and involvement with an organization. The continuance component refers to commitment based on the costs that an employee associates with leaving the organization. Normative refers to an obligation an employee feels to the organization (Allen & Meyer,1990).

Common to all definitions of commitment is the idea that commitment binds an employee, for one reason or another, to an organization. For this study, the definition used for commitment is the one by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979), who define organizational commitment as "...the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p. 26).

Evolution of Organizational Commitment

The following chronological literature review shows how the organizational commitment concept has evolved over the last half century.

Howard Becker (1960) proposes that people often follow lines of activity for reasons quite extraneous to the activity itself. Becker states that "organizational commitment comes into being when a person, by making a side

bet, links extraneous interests with a consistent line of activity" (p. 32). Side bets are defined as anything an employee views valuable such as pensions, seniority, vacation, money, and organizational relationship. Becker's theory views commitment as behavioral; that it can be said without sophistry, that commitment or adaptive behavior to an organization results from the influence of side bets, which create employee commitment.

Oscar Grusky (1966) states that the "...greater the obstacles the individual had to overcome in order to obtain the organization's rewards, the stronger would be his commitment" (p.593). Grusky's commitment research is based on the rewards system; the greater the rewards of the organization are to the employees, the greater commitment the employee has to the organization (Grusky, 1966). His theory suggests that a person who receives high rewards from the organization, will respond with positive feelings for the organization (Grusky, 1966).

Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1968) takes a different view on commitment than other researchers of her time. She views commitment as a consideration and a cohesion, which is identified as an attachment to social relationships within an organization. Kanter argues that different types of

commitment flow from different behavioral demands imposed on employees of an organization. The three forms of commitment advanced by Kanter are (a) continuance, (b) cohesion, and (c) control. Continuance commitment represents the employee's recognition of an advantage associated with leaving the organization. Cohesion commitment represents commitment loyalty to the group or set of social relationships. Control commitment represents a commitment to the group's authority, and an agreement to uphold the norms of the group (Kanter, 1968).

Mary E. Sheldon (1971) views commitment to the organization as an investment orientation to the organization. This is similar to the side bet concept proposed by Becker (1960). Sheldon (1971) also proposes that both investments and social involvement are associated with commitment to the organization. Investments are the stronger of the two factors, particularly for older men and those with low commitment to their profession. Sheldon (1971) states that when "...viewed in perspective, both investments and social involvement's are a part of the motivational pattern that produces identification of the professional with the organization. Investments and social involvement therefore guarantee that an organization will

retain some of its employees with professional competence" (Sheldon, 1971, p. 41).

Lyman W. Porter, Richard M. Steers, Richard T. Mowday, and Paul V. Boulian (1974) view commitment to an organization as the "...strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Porter et al., 1974). Commitment can be characterized by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (c) a definite desire to maintain organizational membership. Porter et al. (1974), also predict that "individuals highly committed to an organization's goals and willing to devote a great deal of energy would be inclined to stay with the organization to realize its goals" (p. 604).

Yoash Weiner and Arthur S. Gechman (1977) propose that job involvement and commitment to the organization are interchangeable labels. They define work commitment behaviors as a special class of "...socially accepted behaviors that exceeded formal and/or normative expectations that were relevant to work" (p. 47). This definition measures normative behavior that is expected by

the organization. It does not consider performance, absenteeism, and tardiness as examples of commitment or job development (Weiner & Gechman, 1977). Weiner's and Getchman's model serves as a framework for understanding not only commitment to work but also the organization and career potential of the employees.

Gerald R. Salancik and Barry M. Staw (1977) attempt to organize the existing literature on organizational commitment. They divide their study into two aspects, (a) behavioral commitment and (b) attitudinal commitment. Behavioral commitment is founded on the idea that an employee's past behavior attaches the employee to the organization (Salanick & Staw, 1977). Attitudinal commitment is based on the employee's identification with the goals and values of the organization and a desire to remain (Porter et al., 1974). The models of Salancik and Staw (1977) are supported by Mathieu and Zajac (1990) in their meta-analysis of the organizational literature. Salanick & Staw (1977) conclude that support could be found in the reviewed literature for two separate constructs of commitment. Their study references the work of Ferris and Aranya (1983) which determines through factor analysis that two separate constructs of commitment have emerged

(Salancik & Staw, 1977). The analysis of organizational commitment research has progressed now to the point of examining the different perceived components of the construct (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

John E. Mathieu and Dennis M. Zajac (1990) conducted a meta-analysis of previous empirical studies that examine antecedents, correlates, or consequences of organizational commitment or both. Their search yielded over 200 articles that present empirical findings (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). "There were no restrictions placed on the inclusion of studies other than, they must have measured and analyzed OC at the individual level of analysis" (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990 p. 172). In total, 48 meta-analyses were conducted, and they include 26 variables classified as antecedents, 14 as correlates and eight as consequences (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Statistical artifacts account for the variance between studies in only one meta-analysis that uses attendance. Two types of organizational commitment emerged from the meta-analysis as dominant. They are attitudinal and calculated commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

The most commonly studied type of OC has been attitudinal (affective) commitment, and it is also the one

used in this study. The majority of the time, attitudinal or affective commitment has been measured using the Organizational Commitment Scale (OCQ) developed by Porter et al. (1979) & (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Attitudinal commitment is defined as:

The relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. Conceptually, it can be characterized by at least three factors: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. (Mowday et al., 1982, p. 27).

The second most popular form of OC in the study is calculated commitment. Calculated commitment is built upon the 1960 work of Becker (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Calculated organizational commitment is defined as "...a structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual organizational transactions and alterations in side-bets or investments over time" (Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972, p. 556). It must be noted that attitudinal and calculative commitment contain measures of each other (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990); the two forms are sufficiently distinct to permit comparisons between them and other variables.

Although several conceptualizations of attitudinal

commitment have appeared in the literature, each reflects on one of three general themes, (a) affective attachment (b) perceived costs, and (c) obligation (Meyer & Allen, 1987). The affective attachment model is perhaps best represented by the work of Porter and his colleagues (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; Porter, Crampton & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974) "...who defined organizational commitment as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p. 226). In 1987, Allen and Meyer (1990) developed a three component model that basically show's the different approaches to organizational commitment prevalent during this time period. The three approaches are labeled affective, continuance, and normative commitment, respectively. Affective, continuance, and normative commitment are viewed as distinguishable components rather than as types of attitudinal commitment. Employees of an organization can experience each of these psychological states to different degrees. Meyer and Allen (1991) indicate that employees with strong affective, continuance and normative commitment exhibited the following:

1. Employees want to continue employment with the organization (affective).
2. Employees need to continue employment with the organization (continuance).
3. Employees feel obligated to continue employment with the organization (normative).

These views of Meyer and Allen (1997) reflect the evolution of thought that generated their three component model. Table 1 depicts the evolution of organizational commitment over time with propositions that describe the work of the different researchers.

Table 1
Evolution of organizational commitment

| Researchers | Year | Propositions | | |
|------------------|--------------|---------------|-------------|-----------|
| | | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Becker | 1960 | — | Side Bets | — |
| Grusky | 1966 | — | Rewards | — |
| Kanter | 1968 | Continuous | Cohesion | Control |
| Sheldon | 1971 | Socialization | Investment | — |
| Porter et al. | 1974 | Affective | Continuance | — |
| Weiner & Gechman | 1977 | Socialization | — | Normative |
| Salanick & Staw | 1977 | Attitudinal | Behavioral | — |
| Mathieu & Zajac | 1990 | Attitudinal | Calculated | — |
| Allen & Meyer | 1990, 91, 97 | Affective | Continuance | Normative |

The table suggests that two common distinctions are found in the literature, (a) an attitudinal and behavioral

approach to commitment and (b) an affective and continuance (or calculative) commitment concept (Angle & Lawson, 1993, Meyer & Allen, 1984; Mowday et al., 1982).

Various distinctions have been drawn between the two approaches to commitment, attitudinal commitment, and behavioral commitment. The most important distinction is that there are three types of attitudinal commitment (a) affective, (b) continuance, and (c) normative (Brown, 1996). Together, these concepts form a typology of organizational commitment as depicted in Figure 2.

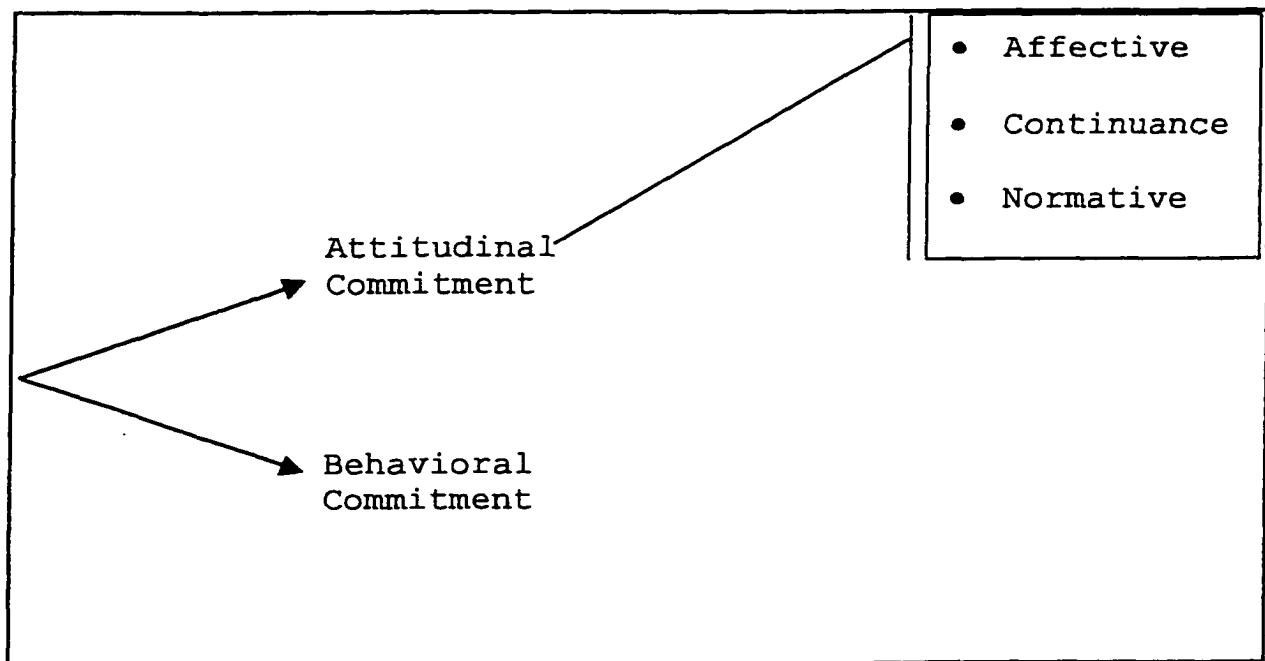


Figure 2: Current Organizational Commitment (OC) typology (Brown, 1996).

In accordance with Figure 2, Brown (1996) also offers the definitions of attitudinal and behavioral commitment:

1. Attitudinal commitment develops as a result of some combination of work experiences, perceptions of organizations and personal characteristics which lead to positive, committed feelings about an organization.
2. Behavioral commitment develops when an employee attains a state or position as a result of committing behaviors that, in effect, make it costly to reverse a position or disengage from some line of activity.

Angle and Lawson (1993), as quoted by Brown (1996) state that "...efforts made to reconcile the attitudinal and behavioral approach have not been universally accepted (p. 231)". In the attitudinal framework affective commitment is described as "...a set of strong, positive attitudes toward the organization manifested by dedication to goals and a strong sense of values" (Brown, 1996, p. 231).

This study utilizes the concept of affective commitment and its definition as outlined by Mowday et al. (1979), as does Brown (1996). It is anticipated that this study will answer the level of affective commitment exhibited by the population surveyed. Mowday et al. (1979)

developed the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) to measure affective commitment and it has since become the most popular measure of commitment (Brown, 1996). Cross-sectional studies using the OCQ have shown positive correlation's "...between the antecedent factors cited by Mowday et al., (1982)" (Brown, 1996, p. 238), which has made it such a popular measure. A discussion on antecedents and consequences of organizational commitment as determined by various researchers, is discussed next.

Antecedents of Organizational Commitment

This section primarily explores the research of several commitment researchers to identify and categorize various antecedents (causes) and consequences of organizational commitment.

Steers (1997) proposes and tests a preliminary model concerning the antecedents and outcomes of employee commitment to organizations. Steers (1997) states that regardless of prior research on commitment, several problems still remain. He outlines three problems:

1. Few studies have taken a comprehensive or systematic approach to the topic. As a result, there is little information to guide in model building attempts.

2. Cross validation studies in which hypotheses or models are tested and then replicated in diverse settings are rare.
3. The majority of existing studies treat commitment as a dependent variable. Consequently, little is known about the behavioral outcomes of commitment.

Steers (1977) in Figure 3 attempts to provide information concerning all the problems by suggesting a preliminary model.

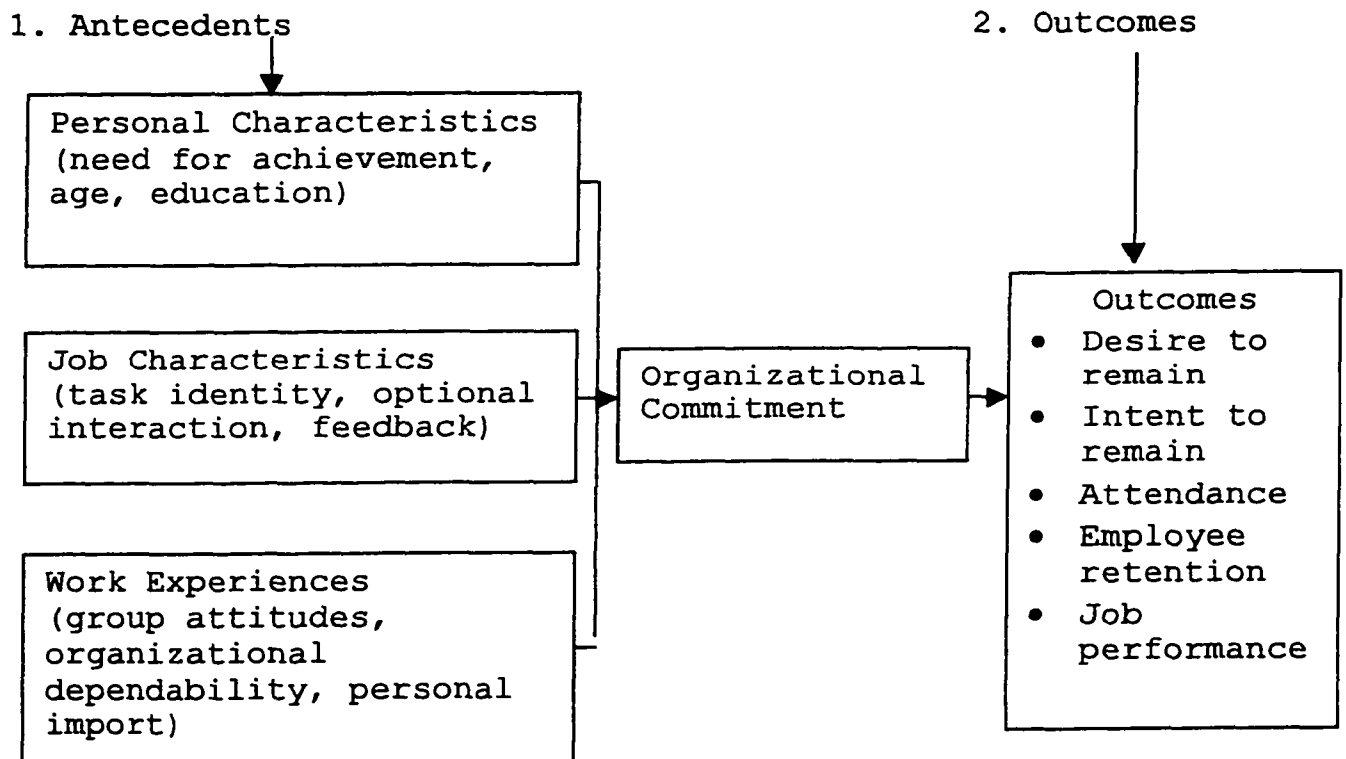


Figure 3: Hypothesized antecedents and outcomes of organizational commitment (Steers, 1977).

The model set out in Figure 3 consists of two components, (a) antecedents of commitment and (b) outcomes of commitment. The antecedents component draws heavily on previous research (Steers, 1977). Steers states, it becomes clear that when various studies are examined from determinants of organizational commitment, major influences can be found throughout the work environment. "For the sake of parsimony these influences can be grouped into three main categories, (a) personal characteristics, (b) job characteristics, and (c) work characteristics" (Steers, 1977, p. 47).

The second component of the model, outcomes, hypothesizes that commitment leads to several specific behavioral outcomes. Moreover, such behavioral outcomes should ensure employee retention or turnover (Porter et al., 1974). Steers' (1977) research suggests that highly committed employees will tend to perform to the extent that (a) organizations stress high achievement orientations concomitantly with good employee relations, (b) passive commitment (often called loyalty) can be translated into active commitment, and (c) employees possess the requisite skills and abilities and fully understand and accept their particular organizational roles. Steers (1977) offers his

model to stimulate more complex models to better understand organizational commitment and its antecedents and consequences.

Thomas S. Bateman and Stephan Strasser (1984) attempt to overcome the shortcomings in the current organizational commitment literature via a multivariate longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment. Their study is the first longitudinal multivariate analysis aimed at deriving causal inferences of a number of its presumed antecedents (Bateman & Strasser 1984). They measure 13 variables with organizational commitment as the focal outcome variable. The other 12 variables include four demographic and eight non-demographic predictors.

Organizational commitment is measured with the OCQ developed by Porter et al. (1974). The other 12 focal variables are discussed below:

1. Leader reward and punishment, are measured with scales developed by Johnson (1973).
2. Job characteristics are measured with the Job Diagnostic Survey developed by Hackman and Oldman (1975).

3. Centralization is measured using a six item scale of perceived participation in decision making by Morris and Steers (1980).
4. Need for achievement is measured with Steers (1975) short, five-item scale.
5. Perceived environmental alternatives are measured using a three-item scale assessing (a) the chances of finding an acceptable job alternative, (b) the desirability of the job alternative, and (c) the comparability of the alternative to the present job in determining the likelihood of accepting it.
6. Job tension is assessed using the job-related tension scale of Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snack, and Rosenthal (1964).
7. Job satisfaction is measured using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969).
8. Age, job tenure, career tenure, and education are recorded from four, single-item, self-report responses.

The relationship between the variables is assessed in several stages (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). Bateman and Strasser (1984) state that all of the published articles in the organizational commitment literature contain static

correlation relationships between commitment and its presumed antecedents (causes). The longitudinal data reveal significant findings, which suggest that commitment may be a construct that is neither simultaneous with, nor a consequence of, job satisfaction (Bateman & Strasser, 1984). Rather, organizational commitment appears to be one of many causes of satisfaction.

Bateman's and Strasser's (1984) findings suggest that "...the interventions implied by models of commitment, for example, improving the job itself or reducing job tension, may result in higher satisfaction but not commitment" (p. 109). Thus costs of these interventions will not be salvaged through their intended gains. They also state in their conclusion that if future research fails to demonstrate longitudinally the causes of commitment, other than demographic variables or the existence of other job alternatives, it may be that employee commitment can be influenced only through job selection techniques (Bateman & Strasser, 1984).

John E. Mathieu and Dennis M. Zajac (1990) summarize previous empirical studies that examined antecedents, correlates or consequences of organizational commitment both using meta-analysis. They conducted 48

analyses, which included 26 variables classified as antecedents, eight as consequences and 14 as correlates. Figure 4 classifies antecedents, correlates and consequences of organizational commitment that are the result of the 48 meta-analyses Mathieu and Zajac (1990) conducted.

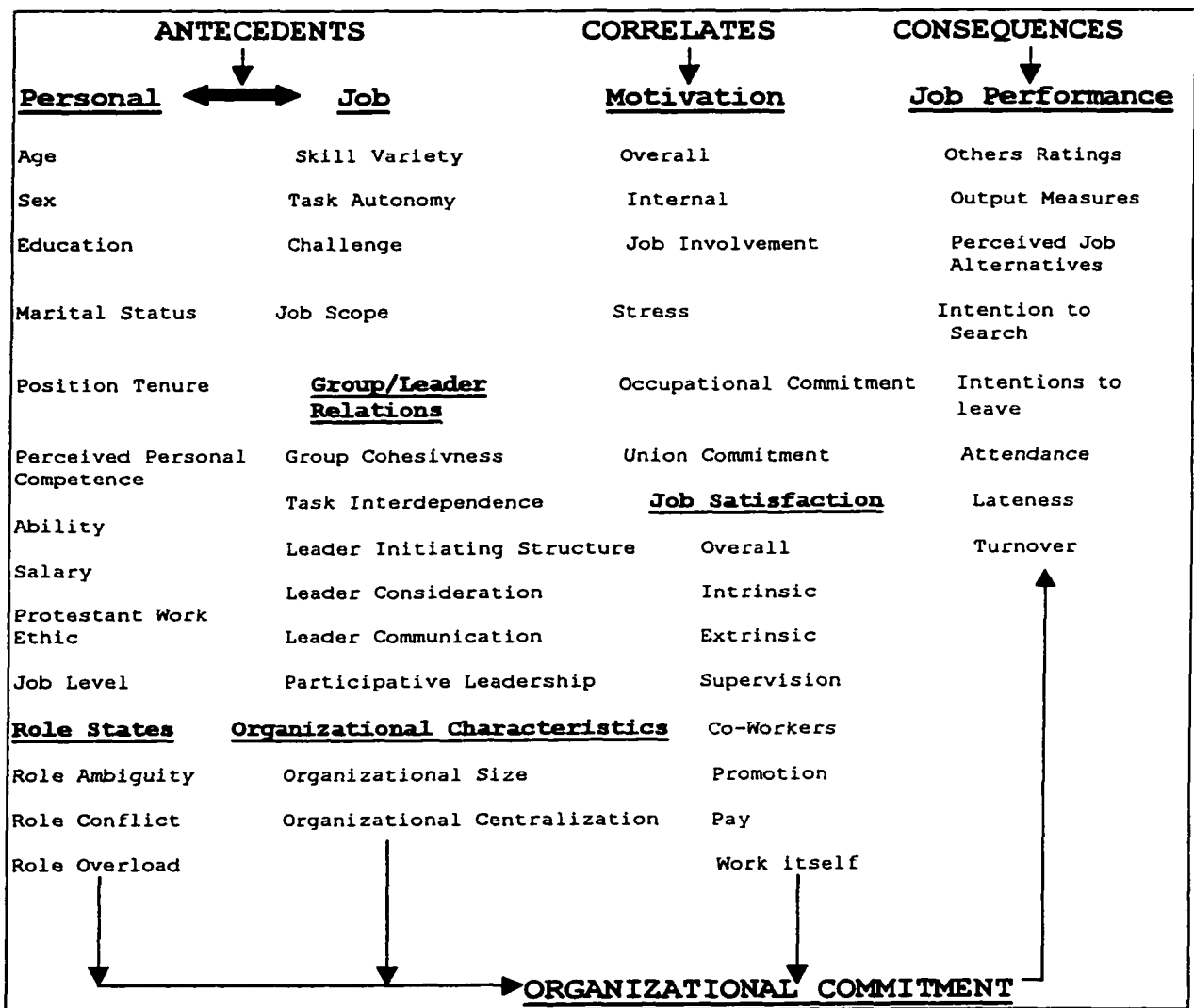


Figure 4: Classification of antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment.

Meta-analysis is recognized as a means of quantitatively determining consistency of findings from previous research on a certain topic suggesting the likelihood of moderated relationships (Glass, McGaw, & Smith, 1981; Hunter, Schmidt & Jackson, 1982; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Rosenthal, 1984). Mathieu and Zajac use the meta-analysis procedures as outlined by Hunter et al., (1982). The results of their meta-analysis are discussed in three general categories, (a) antecedents, (b) correlates, and (c) consequences.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) classify antecedents of organizational commitment into the five categories of (a) personal characteristics, (b) role states, (c) job characteristics, (d) group or leader relations, (e) organizational characteristics.

Affective responses are depicted in Figure 4 as correlates of commitment. These responses represent a category of variables that, like commitment, describe an employee's psychological response to the work environment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Since it is difficult to specify the causal relationships of these responses, these variables are simply considered as correlates of commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Consequences of OC are considered to be the behavioral intentions and actual behaviors of the employees of the organization. Behavioral consequences of organizational commitment can best be described as job performance variables which include the following categories: (a) others ratings, (b) output measures, (c) perceived job alternatives, (d) intention to leave, (e) attendance, (f) lateness, and (g) turnover (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Mathieu and Zajac find in reviewing their research on the meta-analysis that the relationships between OC and employees' behaviors do not produce many large correlation's. Yet, OC has demonstrated relatively high correlation's with behavioral intentions, regardless of the fact that OC's relationship with actual withdrawal behaviors has been only modest (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). This suggests that behavioral intentions mediate the influence on OC, and proposes that OC serves as a summary index of work-related experiences and also directly influences behavioral purposes (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Mathieu and Zajac take care to express that the relationship between OC and behaviors is not likely to be simple or direct.

In summation, Steers' (1977) models consist of antecedents and outcomes for OC. Bateman and Strasser (1984) conducted a longitudinal study that is aimed at determining the causal inferences of a number of antecedents projected by prior researchers, and Mathieu and Zajac (1990) conducted a meta-analysis of prior organizational commitment studies. In Figure 5 general relationships concerning antecedents and consequences have been extrapolated and referenced from the studies of Steers (1977), Bateman and Strasser (1984), and Mathieu and Zajac (1990).

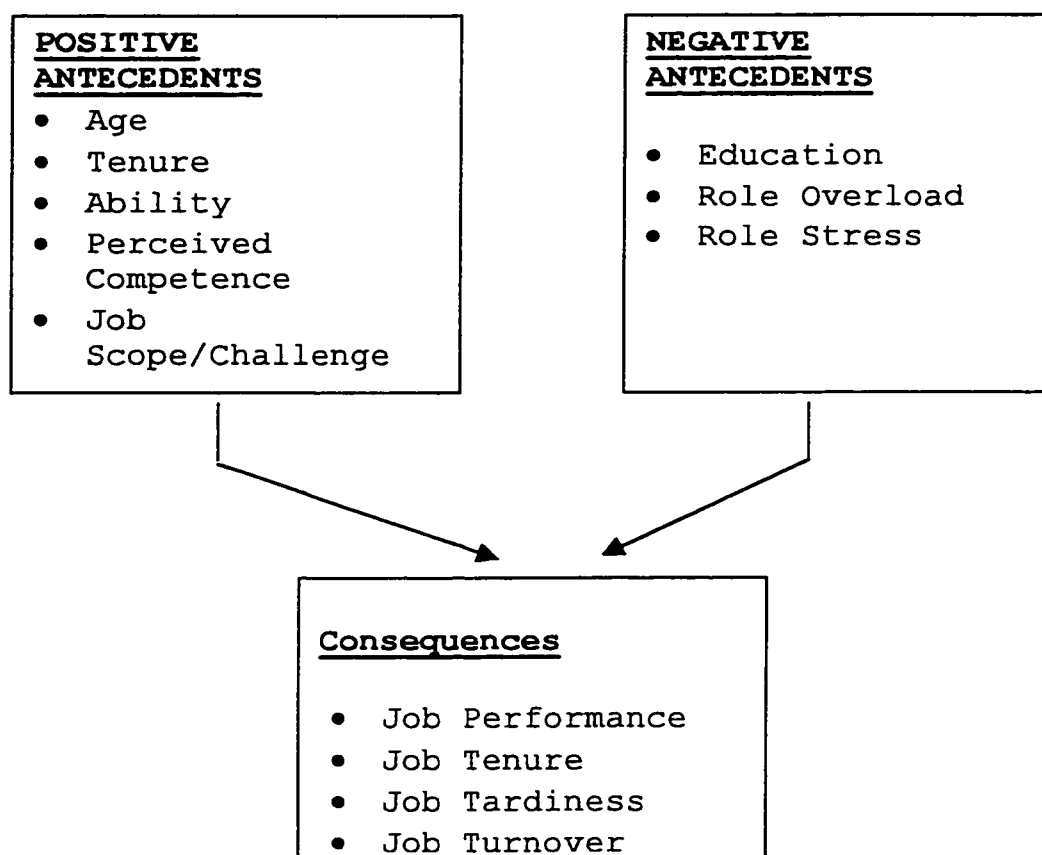


Figure 5: Positive and negative relationships of antecedents and their consequences

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Organizational commitment has been the topic of numerous studies (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) define organizational commitment as "...the relative strength of an individual's identification with and the involvement in a particular organization" (p. 226). Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979)

developed an instrument to measure employee commitment to an organization. This instrument is called the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The OCQ is the most widely used measurement of organizational commitment (Cooke, 1997). The questionnaire has 15 items rated on a seven-point, Likert scale. It determines the extent to which the respondent intends to stay or leave the organization, feels motivated to perform, and how strongly he or she accepts the organization's values and goals (Mowday et al., 1979).

Research on the topic of organizational commitment has proliferated over the last 20 years, partly because of the OCQ's overall desirable, well-documented psychometric properties, coupled with its relationship to turnover behavior and intentions to leave (Cooke, 1997). The OCQ can be characterized by three aspects of commitment which are (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. Mowday et al. (1979). developed and based the OCQ on a series of studies among 2,563 employees in nine organizations. Based

on the studies, satisfactory test-retest reliabilities and internal consistencies were found (Mowday et al., 1979). Additionally, cross-validated evidence of acceptable levels of predictive, convergent, and discriminant validity for the OCQ became evident (Mowday et al., 1979).

Numerous studies have used and validated the OCQ. Angle and Perry (1983) couple the OCQ with their side-bets model. Cooke (1997) uses it in her study of discriminant validity of the OCQ; her population consists of 176 air traffic controllers. Dunham, Grube, and Casteneda (1994) describe nine studies where the OCQ was administered to 2,734 people. In the nine studies, the construct definition, measurement, and validation of organizational commitment are evaluated using the OCQ as the measurement instrument. Their results suggest that the OCQ assesses the affective dimension of the three major dimensions, (a) affective, (b) continuance, and (c) normative.

Beck and Wilson (2000) use the OCQ to measure an examination of the change of tenure of 479 Australian police officers. Reichers (1985) suggests that the OCQ and its continued use will lead to increased consistency and coherence within the literature devoted to organizational commitment. Both Cohen (1993) and Dunham, Grube, and

Castenda (1994) report that the OCQ was a reasonable measure of affective commitment in regards to discriminant analyses results (Beck & Wilson, 2000).

The OCQ developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) has become the most popular measure of affective commitment that has emerged from studies linked to the positive experiences associated with the attitudinal process of development (Brown, 1996). This section of the literature review reviewed organizational commitment, the evolution of organizational commitment, antecedents of organizational commitment, and the (OCQ). The next section reviews constructive thinking ability.

Cognitive Experiential Self-Theory

In the book, Letters from Jenny, by Gordon Allport (1965), letters are presented from a woman named Jenny to her son, Ross. Jenny supports her son in an affluent life style at an Ivy League college, while living in poverty herself. All that matters to her is his well being. She fails in bringing happiness to either one of them (Epstein, 1998). When her son begins to form relationships with other women, Jenny disowns him and then derives more happiness from his memory than his presence (Epstein, 1998). An

interesting question by Allport (1965) is "...why does an intelligent lady behave so persistently in a self defeating manner?" (p. viii). He reviews several personality theories for an answer and concludes that no single theory is able to provide a satisfactory answer (Epstein, 1998). Allport concludes that each has something to offer and yet each has serious limitations. He believes the solution is to develop an eclectic theory that contains the cream of the current theories (Epstein, 1998).

Seymour Epstein (1998) suggests that the Cognitive Experiential Self-Theory (CEST) helps to fulfill Allport's vision. Epstein (1998) states that he himself was favorably impressed with several theories and certain of their characteristics, but was not yet sufficiently enamored to adopt any as his own. Epstein (1998), while trying to envision how Carl Roger's conceptualization of the self-concept could be reconceptualized into a more valid way, had an insight that would become CEST. His insight is that a person's self-concept (how people view themselves) is more correctly described as a person's implicit self-theory (Epstein, 1973). Thus, CEST was born.

In an article written by Epstein in 1973 entitled "The Self-Concept Revisted," he notes that a number of

behavioral scientists support his self-concept theory as a necessary construct (Epstein, 1973). Included in the list of supporters for his self-concept theory are James Cooley, Mead, Lecky Sullivan, Helgard, Synngg, Combs, and Rogers (Epstein, 1973). These theorists/phenomenologists consider the self-concept to be the most central concept in all of psychology, as it provides the only perspective from which an individual's behavior can be understood (Epstein, 1973).

Numerous examples abound of people who act or re-act the same as Jenny (Allport, 1965)- people that have high intellectual ability but who live their lives foolishly. Examples of other people of ordinary intellectual ability who live their lives well can also be found (Epstein & Meier, 1989). Epstein (1998) concludes that CEST answers why these behavioral experiences unfold. According to CEST, everyone develops an implicit theory of reality that contains subdivisions of a self-theory, a world theory, and propositions connecting the two (Epstein, 1990).

The most basic schemas in a personal theory of reality are called postulates. The four most important postulates of CEST's theory of reality as noted by Epstein (1990) are (a) to assimilate the data of reality, (b) to maintain a favorable pleasure pain balance, (c) to maintain

relatedness to others, and (d) to maintain a favorable level of self esteem

These four basic functions serve as checks and balances and form the perspective of CEST, the behavior is one of compromise (Epstein, 1990). In addition, there are four basic beliefs that the experiential system uses to allocate resources for the fulfillment of each function (Epstein, 1990). Each person, in his or her own personal theory of reality, intuitively assesses (a) to what degree the world is benign and meaningful (predictable, controllable, and just), (b) the degree to which people are considered to be worth relating to, and (c) the degree to which the self is viewed as worthy (including competent, good, and lovable) (Epstein, 1990).

Cognitive personality theorists such as Markus and Mischel assume that there is but one conceptual system (Epstein, 1990). They speak of cognition as being hot or cold but view emotions in a single system. CEST, on the other hand, offers that there are three conceptual systems. These are (a) a rational conceptual system that operates primarily at the conscious level, (b) an associationistic conceptual system that operates primarily at the unconscious level, and (c) an experiential conceptual

system that operates at the preconscious level (Epstein, 1990). Epstein's CEST agrees that a central role is played by the preconscious level of awareness, for it is here, primarily, that the system automatically interprets reality and directs thought and behavior in everyday life (Epstein, 1990, 1998).

The Experiential Conceptual System

The experiential conceptual system, unlike the rational system (which guides behavior by direct assessment of stimuli), is mediated by feelings (vibes) (Epstein, 1990). Both systems, experiential and rational, have advantages and disadvantages. Table 2 contrasts the rules of operation for both systems. The list is derived from an analysis of how people think when highly charged issues are discussed and compared to their thinking, and when impersonal issues are discussed (Epstein, 1990).

Table 2

A comparison of the Experiential and Rational Systems

| <u>Experiential</u> | <u>Rational System</u> |
|---|--|
| 1. Holistic | 1. Analytical |
| 2. Affective/pleasure-pain (what feels good) | 2. Logical: Reason oriented |
| 3. Associationistic connections | 3. Logical connections |
| 4. Behavior mediated by "vibes from past experiences | 4. Behavior mediated by by conscious appraisal of events |
| 5. Encodes reality in concrete images, metaphors, and narratives | 5. Encodes reality in symbols, words, and numbers |
| 6. More rapid processing: Oriented towards immediate action | 6. Slower processing: Oriented towards delayed action |
| 7. Slower to change: Changes with repetitive or intense experience | 7. Changes more rapidly: Changes with the speed of thought |
| 8. More crudely differentiated: Broad generalization gradient; stereotypical thinking | 8. More highly differentiated |
| 9. More crudely integrated: Dissociative, emotional | 9. More highly integrated Cross content processing |
| 10. Experienced passively and preconsciously: We are seized by our emotions | 10. Experienced actively and consciously: we are in control of our thoughts |
| 11. Self evidently valid: Experiencing is believing | 11. Requires justification via logic and evidence |

Note: From "Integration of the Cognitive and Psychodynamic Unconscious," by S. Epstein, 1994, American Psychologist, 49, p.711.

The rational and experiential systems each contain advantages and disadvantages. The rational system is better at analysis and for long term significance (Epstein, 1991a). However, without the experiential system, the rational system is devoid of passion. From an external scheme of reference a rational approach may arrive at solutions that are reasonable but counterproductive as they fail to take into account the emotional consequences of decision making (Epstein, 1991a).

CEST, like psychoanalysis, is a psychodynamic theory that presents two levels of information processing, which are conscious and preconscious. CEST, also like psychoanalysis, assumes that the preconscious (unaware) level successively influences processing at the conscious level (Epstein, 1998). Psychoanalysis emphasizes the pleasure principle, while CEST considers needs for coherence, relatedness, and self-esteem as no less important than the pleasure principle. CEST assumes that all behavior is the result of the joint operation of the experiential and rational systems (Epstein, 1998). Their influence through the different parameters, includes differences in thinking, emotional involvement, and certain situational variables. An example of this is solving

math problems which primarily involves the rational system, and interpersonal relationships, which primarily involve the experiential system. Emotional involvement and relevant past experiences swing the balance of influence towards the control of the experiential system (Epstein, 1998).

Epstein (1998), in his book Constructive Thinking, reminds us that there are two forms of intelligence. One form is the intelligence of the rational mind which is what an IQ test measures, and the other form is the intelligence of the experiential mind, which accounts for both emotional and practical intelligence. The concepts of experiential intelligence and automatic constructive thinking provides the key to understanding the cognitive experiential self-theory that describes how the emotional mind functions (Epstein, 1998).

Constructive Thinking

Why do smart people think stupidly? Intellectually smart people do not think dumbly, they just do not, on average, necessarily think more smartly. If only one cognitive system existed, people would solve abstract and practical problems in the same way. The answer to why people are smart in one realm and stupid in another is that

people operate by two minds. One is a rational mind suited for abstract problems, learning from books and lectures, but not good at solving practical problems, and the other is an experiential mind that has the opposite advantages and disadvantages (Epstein,1998). Research in this area has found that the correlation between the two types of intelligence is zero (Epstein,1998).

People can have high intelligence in both minds, in neither of their minds, in one but not the other or conversely. Epstein (1998) states that the rational mind that endows us to learn from books and lectures does not "...ensure that we will draw practical lessons from experiences any more than the experiential mind that learns from practical experience ensures that we will be good at solving abstract problems" (p. 26). The two minds and their abilities are independent. The intelligence of the experiential mind is determined by the degree to which the automatic thinking of the experiential mind is constructive. Epstein (1998) put it more precisely by defining constructive thinking "...as the degree to which a person's automatic thinking--the thinking that occurs without deliberate intention, facilitates solving problems

in everyday life at minimum cost in stress" (Epstein, 1998, p. 26).

Examples of good and poor constructive thinking follow.

1. Good constructive thinkers view situations as challenges rather than threats. They consider failures and rejections as unfortunate but not the end of the world, while seeing the positive side of things, but not unrealistically,
2. Poor constructive thinkers dwell on negative events, thinking and behaving extremely categorical, overgeneralizing, worrying needlessly, and thinking in ways that increase unhappiness, while not accomplishing anything worthwhile (Epstein, 1998).

The construct of constructive thinking and the logic behind it is best described by Epstein (1991a):

If emotions and, to a large extent, behavior, are determined automatically by the functioning of the experiential conceptual system, as CEST maintains, then the effectiveness with which the experiential system operates should play an important role in determining a person's success in everyday living. This raises an interesting question. Is it possible that one could obtain a measure of the overall effectiveness of the experiential system in a manner analogous to the use of intelligence tests to measure the effectiveness of the rational system? If so, what is it that would have to be measured? The answer is that one would have to sample a person's typical automatic thinking (Epstein, 1991, p. 101).

Leanne Atwater (1992) refers to constructive thinking as practical intelligence, which determines a person's place along the constructive thinking continuum.

Atwater (1992) studied naval officers and their constructive thinking ability, and as a result states that constructive thinking ability (CTA) may predict performance better than IQ or personality tests. She also suggests that CTA is a better predictor of performance than are specific traits (Atwater, 1992). Numerous populations have been studied and the results compared to the constructive thinking ability of the participants, but to the author's knowledge, there is no published research on organizational commitment and constructive thinking ability.

The following three components of the serenity prayer illustrate good constructive thinking ability: (a) accepting what cannot be changed, (b) changing what can be changed, and (c) knowing the difference between the two (Epstein, 1998). The question now becomes, as explained by constructive thinking ability (CTA), how does one measure it? Seymour Epstein (1987) developed the Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI) to measure this construct, and it is the next topic for discussion.

The Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI)

To measure the construct of constructive thinking ability (CTA) Seymour Epstein (1987) developed the Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI). Epstein's CTI allows respondents to report their thoughts on conscious awareness of their preconscious thinking (Spirrson & Gordy, 1993). The CTI allows the respondents to see how they view themselves and the world by indicating their characteristic constructive and destructive automatic thoughts (Epstein, 1998).

The CTI development was influenced by Epstein's (1987) CEST (cognitive experiential self-theory), which assumes that there are two types of intelligence, (a) intellectual and (b) experiential (Epstein & Meier, 1989). Although there are many intellectual measures, there were none to measure experiential intelligence until Epstein developed the CTI (Epstein, 1993).

The CTI measures a person's tendencies to think automatically in solving problems of everyday life with minimal stress (Epstein, 1993). Although the CTI is relatively new, it has been used in a number of empirical investigations (e.g., Epstein, 1990, 1991a; Epstein & Katz, 1992; Epstein & Meier, 1989; Hurley, 1990, 1991; Spirrson &

Gordy, 1993). The literature suggests that the measure is a predictor of life successes such as in love, socially, and in work relationships as well as physical and emotional health (Spirrson & Gordy, 1993).

Epstein's (1993) manual for the constructive thinking inventory describes the CTI in the following terms:

The CTI is a hierarchically organized test that provides measures at three levels of generality. At the most general level is a global scale of constructive thinking. The next most general level consists of six main scales that describe different fundamental ways in which people think constructively and destructively. The most specific level consists of sub-scales or "facets" of the main scales. These describe fundamental processes, such as overgeneralization and positive thinking, that identify highly specific ways that people tend to think, and that therefore have direct implications for remediation (Epstein, p. 1, 1993).

The CTI scales and their meaning can be understood by observing the item composition of the scales. A description of the constructs measured by the CTI are outlined in Table 3.

Table 3

Constructs measured by the Constructive Thinking InventoryGlobal Constructive Thinking:

1. Contains items from all scales except Naïve Optimism
2. There are an equal number of positive and negative items
3. High scores indicate:
 - a. Denial of destructive thinking/acknowledgment of constructive thinking
 - b. Self/other acceptance
 - c. Bias to interpret events positively is tempered by reality
 - d. Tendency not to use overgeneralizations, grandiose self-enhancement
 - e. Tendency not to use superstitious/magical thinking to explain/control environment
 - f. Automatic thinking contributes to positive feelings about self/others and assists one to cope with negative emotions & behave effectively

Emotional Coping:

1. Accounts for more variance than any other CTI scale
2. Items refer to tendencies not to:
 - a. Personalize
 - b. Be sensitive to disapproval
 - c. Worry excessively about failure/disapproval
 - d. Overgeneralize from/overreact to unfavorable experiences
 - e. Dwell on unpleasant past experiences
 - f. Worry about future unfavorable experiences
3. High scores suggest:
 - a. Self-acceptance
 - b. Failure to engage in negative thinking
 - c. Tendency not to react with great intensity to unpleasant events

Behavioral Coping:

1. Items refer to:
 - a. Thinking in ways that promote effective action
 - b. Maintaining optimism, which assists with challenges/failures
2. High scores indicate:
 - a. Action oriented-plans effective/instrumental behavior
 - b. Optimistic
 - c. Tendency not to dwell on past injuries/hold grudges

d. Others acceptance

Categorical Thinking:

1. Intolerance, distrust, and judgment towards others
2. Extreme, unmodulated, or rigid polarized thinking
3. High scores suggest tendency to:
 - a. Classify people as good or bad
 - b. Judge people as either for or against one self
 - c. Believe there is only one right way to do things

Esoteric Thinking:

1. Degree of belief in unusual/scientifically questionable phenomena such as ghosts, astrology, mind reading, clairvoyance, good luck charms, good/bad omens, and conventional superstitions
2. Very high scores indicate:
 - a. Lack of critical thinking
 - b. Reliance on feelings/unsubstantiated impressions

Personal Superstitious Thinking:

1. Degree of endorsement of private superstitions
2. Correlates with pessimism, helplessness, and depression
3. Examples: If one wants something badly, it will keep it from happening, if something very good happens, it will be balanced by something equally bad

Naïve Optimism:

1. Degree of unrealistic optimism
2. High scores suggest
 - a. Failure to face unpleasant realities in life
 - b. simple minded orientation to life
 - c. Failure to take precautions
3. Facets:
 - a. Over-optimism: e.g. following one, first success will always be successful
 - b. Stereo typical thinking: e.g. everyone should love their parents
 - c. Pollyanna-ish thinking: e.g. everyone is basically good at heart, one should always look at the bright side

Note: From Constructive Thinking: A Broad Coping Variable with Specific Components, by S. Epstein and P. Meier, 1989.

Table 3 outlines the seven scales of the CTI that make up the main body of the instrument, but the CTI also has three validity scales. These three validity scales do not provide substantive information for interpretation in their own right and are only used for validity checks of the scores on the instrument. The three scales are (a) a validity scale, (b) a defensiveness scale, and (c) a lie-free scale (Epstein, 1993).

Validity Scales

The Validity Scale

The validity scale requires a score of at least 30 to be valid. Scores under 30 indicate that either carelessness or the respondent did not understand the items of the CTI.

The Defensiveness Scale

The defensiveness scale determines how a respondent tends to represent himself or herself. A high defensive scale score indicates that a respondent has deliberately attempted to portray himself or herself in an unrealistically favorable light. A T-score of 70 or higher on the defensive scale is required before the CTI is considered invalid.

The Lie-Free Scale

The lie-free scale is evaluated in conjunction with the global scale. If the T-score for the global scale is more than 10 points above that for the lie-free scale, there is reason to believe that the respondent has presented an excessively positive picture of himself or herself. If the global scale is 10 points below that of the lie-free scale, it suggests that the respondent presented an overly unfavorable picture of himself or herself. Either scenario invalidates the result.

Construction of the Constructive Thinking Inventory

Construction of the CTI occurred in two stages. The first stage utilized a 64-item version of the CTI that was administered to 124 college students. The 64 items were selected from a bank of 200 items that were gathered by cognitive therapists from psychometric literature with examples of constructive and destructive thinking. Over the course of several semesters, this procedure yielded data from 79 students providing a total 4,740 emotional incidents (Epstein, 1993). These incidents were converted into simple statements for response on a five-point scale. Redundant items were removed and the remaining ones were

sorted into face-valid categories obtained from the literature review. Due to favorable and unfavorable items being initially assigned to separate categories, many preliminary scales existed in positive and negative form. Next, any category with three items or less was deleted and included in broader categories if appropriate.

Alpha reliability coefficients were determined and items reduced; the reliability of the initial face-valid scales were dropped. This procedure yielded 18 priori scales of three to 14 items with moderate to high internal consistency. A factor analysis of these 18 scales was conducted and analyzed. It was expected that the factor analysis would regenerate all or most of the 18 priori scales, yet no matter how many factors were extracted, only 6 interpretable factors emerged that included at least 5 items (Epstein, 1993). An oblique factor analysis produced the inherently same results as an orthogonal one. Once a single factor was eliminated, all scales except naïve optimism contributed factor items with loadings greater than .30. The basis for the global scale was created.

The six scales were formed from the six group factors by retaining up to 12 items in each scale that correlated the most with the sum of the other items. Most of the

scales are bipolar and consist of both constructive and destructive thinking examples. The final step was the elimination of items that reduced the internal consistency of the scale. In addition to the global scale and the six main scales constructed from factor analysis, a validity scale of five items was constructed. The validity scale provides a check for careless responding and lack of comprehension of the CTI (Epstein, 1993). The initial questionnaire consisted of 64 items, assembled into eight scales, consisting of a global scale, six mid-level scales, and a validity scale.

After the 64-item CTI was established and showed promise, it was decided to expand the test to include a defensiveness scale and a lie-free scale. Auxiliary items were included in this second version from the item-bank and others were introduced to fill gaps and increase the length and breadth of the scales. This resulted in a 108-item version of the CTI with addition of several facets or subscales and improved internal consistency reliability.

The first version of the current CTI used a different scoring system from the current one. It was used in several studies; then the scoring system was revised. The contemporary version of the CTI is based on factor analysis

of responses from 1500 college students. The item structure of the global scale and five of the six scales were reproduced. The only scale that was not reproduced was the personal superstitious thinking scale. It did not emerge as a factor in the analysis of the CTI items but has been retained for conceptual reasons, as it produced interesting correlations with health variables.

The facets (sub-scales) were constructed through factor analysis of the main scales and by canceling items that reduced the facets' internal consistency reliability (Epstein, 1993). All the scales, other than the personal superstitious thinking scale, could be subdivided into facets. Once the facets were constructed, factor analysis proved that the facets would distribute themselves under the appropriate scales (for complete statistical tables see the Manual for the Constructive Thinking Inventory (Epstein, 1993)).

The construct validity of the current 108-item CTI is based on a wide variety of studies, including a comparison of the CTI scales to other self-report tests, intelligence tests etc., and has communicated an impressive internal consistency reliability (Epstein, 1993). Internal

consistency reliability statistics for each scale and facet is located in Appendix C.

Summary

This chapter examines two constructs, organizational commitment and constructive thinking. The study examines the relationship between both of these constructs to determine if a positive relationship exists between constructive thinking and organizational commitment. Numerous studies have been done by other researchers to determine the organizational commitment level of employees. To the author's knowledge, this study is the first that investigates if there is a positive relationship between these two constructs.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the design and the methodology used for this research. It also presents the research questions, hypotheses, design, variables, population and sample, instruments, data collection, and data analysis.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study addresses the three research questions: (a) does a positive relationship exist between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment?, (2) do employees with good constructive thinking ability have more organizational commitment (OC) than those employees with poorer constructive thinking ability (CTA)?, (3) which of the scales of the constructive thinking inventory (CTI), show significant positive correlation, if any, with commitment to the organization?

The answers to these research questions can determine the relationship between the two constructs of organizational commitment and constructive thinking ability as they relate to employee organizational commitment.

The following hypotheses in both null and alternative form are cognate to these research questions.

Hypotheses

There are eight hypotheses used in this research. Each is listed below:

Hypothesis 1

H01: No positive relationship exists between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment.

HA1: A positive relationship exists between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2

H02: Those employees who have good constructive thinking ability, do not have more organizational commitment than those employees with poorer constructive thinking ability.

HA2: Those employees who have good constructive thinking ability, have more organizational commitment than those employees with poorer constructive thinking ability.

Hypothesis 3

H03: No positive relationship exists between the Emotional Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

HA3: A positive relationship exists between the Emotional Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4

HO4: No positive relationship exists between the Behavioral Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

HA4: A positive relationship exists between the Behavioral Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5

HO5: No negative relationship exists between the Categorical Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

HA5: A negative relationship exists between the Categorical Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6

HO6: No negative relationship exists between the Esoteric Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

HA6: A negative relationship exists between the Esoteric Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 7

H07: No negative relationship exists between the Personal Superstitions Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

HA7: A negative relationship exists between the Personal Superstitions Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 8

H08: No positive relationship exists between the Naïve Optimism Scale and organizational commitment.

HA8: A positive relationship exists between the Naïve Optimism Scale and organizational commitment.

Research Design

This study examines the relationship between constructive thinking ability and the organizational commitment of medical staff nurses at a medium-sized hospital in the southwestern United States. The base theory of this study is the Cognitive Experiential Self-Theory (CEST) developed by Seymour Epstein (1990). CEST is a cognitive constructionist theory, which maintains that emotions and behaviors are determined automatically by the experiential conceptual system and thus play an important

role in determining an employee's success at work (Epstein, 1991).

The construct of organizational commitment, as it relates to employees of an organization, refers to an employee's identification with the organization (Lee, Ashford, Walsh, & Mowday, 1992). The definition for employee organizational commitment used for this study is defined as the "...relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al., 1979, p. 26).

Earl Babbie (2001) asserts that social research serves many purposes, and the three most common are exploration, description, and explanation. The research design and purpose of this study is exploratory, as the research examines a new interest, and to the author's knowledge, is the first study of constructive thinking ability, as it relates or correlates to organizational commitment of employees of an organization. Organizational commitment has been identified as a highly negative correlate of employee turnover in the work place (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986). Given the cost of turnover to organizations, the objective of this research design is to test the relationship of both constructs to see if a positive correlation exists between

organizational commitment and the constructive thinking ability of the population studied.

Earl Babbie (2001) postulates that a scientific inquiry comes down to making observations and then interpreting them. He asserts that before one can do this one needs a plan outlining the different perspectives.

The research design perspectives for this study are:

1. It is exploratory.
2. Data collection is accomplished by survey.
3. It is an Ex Post Facto test of the association of the two constructs.
4. It is a justification test of association.
5. It is a cross sectional study in reference to the time period.

The author propositions that the data could corroborate a positive correlation between an employee's constructive thinking ability, and organizational commitment.

Variables

The variables used for this study are organizational commitment and constructive thinking ability.

Organizational commitment is the dependent variable, and it will be measured using the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter

(1979). Constructive thinking ability is the independent variable, and it will be measured using the Constructive Thinking Inventory developed by Seymour Epstein (1987).

Population and Sample

The target population for this study was health care nurses at a medium-sized hospital in the southwestern part of the United States. A total of 207 questionnaires were administered and 106 were returned. Two responses were unusable due to missing data. Therefore, the usable survey total was 104 for a return rate of 50.24%.

Instruments

The two instruments used for this study are the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) and the Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI). The OCQ is used to assess an employee's constructive thinking ability. The global constructive thinking ability scale of the CTI will determine constructive thinking ability. The other scales of the CTI will determine which are the real drivers of constructive thinking ability.

The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Now in the public domain, the OCQ was developed by Mowday et al. (1979) to measure organizational commitment. Mowday et al. (1979) determined that organizational

commitment has three related factors, (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organizations' goals and values, (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. The OCQ is composed of 15 questions utilizing a seven-point Likert scale, ranking choices as strongly agree, moderately agree, slightly agree, neither agree nor disagree, slightly disagree, moderately disagree, strongly disagree. A scoring value of 1 to 7 is assigned to each question. Results are summed and divided by 15 to arrive at a summary indicator of organizational commitment. Six questions are negatively phrased (items 3, 7, 9, 11, 12, and 15) and they are reverse scored with the purpose of making an effort to reduce response bias. Numerous studies have validated the OCQ (Angle & Perry, 1981, 1983; Beck & Wilson, 2000; Cooke, 1997; Dunham et al., 1994; Reichers, 1985).

The OCQ validation consists of a sample population of 2,563 employees working in nine different organizations, both private and public sector (Mowday et al., 1979). In all, the broad range of job classifications and organizations in the sample population is thought to be sufficient to be a representative sample of the working

population (Mowday et al., 1979). The mean level of commitment ranges from a low of 4.0 to a high of 6.1 across the nine samples. The mean scores are slightly above the mid-point on the seven-point Likert scale. The standard deviation indicates an acceptable distribution of responses within the samples (Mowday et al., 1979).

Internal consistencies reflect a consistently high coefficient alpha ranging from .82 to .93 with a median of .90. Correlations between each item of the commitment scale suggest that the 15 items of the OCQ are relevant with respect to the attitude construct that they measure (Mowday et al., 1979). Test-retest reliability scores were computed to examine the stability of the OCQ over time for two samples, which had multiple data points available. The sample population includes psychiatric technicians and retail management trainees. Psychiatric technicians' test and retest reliability's are $r = .53$, $.63$, and $.75$ over two-, three-, and four-month periods in the order designated. The management trainees test and re-test reliability scores are $r = .72$ over the two month period and $r = .62$ for three months (Mowday et al., 1979).

The OCQ's convergent validity and predictive validity were determined by Mowday et al (1979). Convergent validity

of the OCQ was tested with the Sources of Organizational Attachment questionnaire. This instrument assesses intent to leave, intended length of service, intrinsic motivation, motivational forces to perform, and life interest and establishes a behavior rating. The correlation between the two measures ranged from .63 to .74 with a median of .70. Consistent evidence of convergent validity is found for the OCQ after being compared with other attitude measures.

Predicted validity of the OCQ is also supported. The theory underlying the commitment construct suggests that committed employees are less likely to leave their jobs, and may under some circumstances, perform at higher levels than employees less committed. This has been substantiated among a widely diverse group of employees in five different studies (Mowday et al., 1979).

Somers (1995) validates the OCQ by discovering evidence through research indicating that affective commitment is the sole predictor of turnover and absenteeism. Also, the OCQ is a valid instrument for collecting quantitative data to determine affective commitment. The OCQ is in the public domain and a copy can be found in Appendix A.

The Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI)

Seymour Epstein (1993) developed the CTI to measure individual tendencies to think automatically in ways to solve problems in everyday life with minimal stress. The CTI is a 108-item, self-report measure of automatic constructive and destructive thinking designed to measure intelligence of the experiential system. CTI respondents rank answers to the questions on a five-point, Likert scale indicating the degree to which they feel each item is true or false (Epstein, 1993). The CTI has three primary scales, (a) the Global Scale, (b) the Emotional Coping Scale, and (c) the Behavioral Coping Scale. Sub-scales of the CTI are the Categorical Thinking, Superstitious Thinking, Naïve Optimism, and the Esoteric Thinking Scales.

The CTI exhibits adequate psychometric properties. The alpha reliabilities of the full CTI scales are: Global, .87; Emotional Coping, .85; and Behavioral Coping, .84 (Epstein & Meier, 1989). The construct validity of the CTI is based on several studies, many of which compare the relationship of the CTI scales to other self-report measures. Construct validity is not significantly correlated with IQ, but does elicit a broad coping variable distinct from intelligence (Epstein & Meier, 1989). The CTI

contributes an ample separate variance when compared to other performance measures such as the Attribution Style Questionnaire (ASQ), Internal Locus of Control Scale (I-E), Social Support Questionnaire (SSQ), Mother Father Peer (MFP) inventory, and Primary Emotions and Traits Scales (PETS) (Epstein, 1993).

Criterion validity tests suggest that the CTI forecasts success in living on several variables including work, love, social relationships, physical symptoms, psychological symptoms, self discipline problems, and drug and alcohol problems (Epstein & Meier, 1989). The contemporary version of the CTI is a product of factor analysis of 1500 college students. The Global Scale, which measures constructive thinking ability, exhibits an internal consistency reliability of 0.90 and test/retest reliability of 0.86 (Epstein, 1993). A copy of the CTI can be found in Appendix B, and the permission letter to use it can be found in Appendix C.

Data Collection

The data for this study was collected during the second half of 2001. A letter from the host organization granting permission to conduct the study is found in Appendix D. The two instruments have been combined for the

benefit of the respondents and completion time is estimated to be 30 minutes. General demographic data is asked of each respondent on the cover sheet of the survey instrument (Appendix A). The host organization will be given the instruments and the administrator of the organization will distribute them and also provide the time to the employees to complete them. Secured receptacles are available in the facility for submitting the completed instruments. The receptacle will also provide employee confidentiality. Participation is encouraged by the host organization but is completely voluntary. The survey instruments will be collected by the administrator of the facility and sent directly to the researcher.

Data Analysis

All data was examined using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). There were 8 hypotheses tested in this study. Pearson correlation analysis was used to test all hypotheses except hypothesis number 2. Step-wise regression was also performed to determine which of the Constructive Thinking Inventory Scales (other than the global scale) were highly correlated to organizational commitment, and the real drivers of commitment.

Hypothesis 2 was tested, by dividing the sample into good constructive thinkers and poorer constructive thinkers. This was accomplished by dividing the sample by the mean of the global scale. Those respondents with global scale scores greater than the mean were considered good constructive thinkers. Those respondents with scores at or below the mean were labeled as poorer constructive thinkers. Next, an independent samples T-test was performed to determine if good constructive thinkers had more organizational commitment than the poor constructive thinkers did.

The sub-samples of good vs. poor constructive thinkers did not overlap. All hypotheses were tested at the significance level of 0.05.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

Introduction

This study expands and extends the work of Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) in organizational commitment and the work of Epstein (1993) in constructive thinking ability. The answer to the following question was explored: Is there a positive relationship between employee's constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment?

This research was designed to determine the magnitude of the relationship between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment within the nursing population at a medium-sized hospital in the southwestern part of the United States. A three-part questionnaire was used consisting of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, et al. (1979), the Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI) developed by Seymour Epstein (1987) and a Demographic Characteristics Section.

Chapter IV discusses the results of the study, the demographic information of the respondent's positions, educational level, job tenure, gender, and age. The study's research questions and statistical hypotheses are discussed by analyzing data from Pearson correlation's, Pearson probabilities and Step-Wise Regression for the relationship of organizational commitment (OC) and constructive thinking ability (CTA).

Description of Study Respondents

The population for this study was health care nurses at a medium-sized hospital in the southwestern part of the United States. A total of 207 questionnaires were administered and 106 were returned. Two responses were unusable due to missing data. Therefore, the usable survey total was 104 for a return rate of 50.24 percent. Table 4 summarizes the response statistics.

Table 4: Survey Responses

| | Distributed Questionnaires | Returned Q's | Invalid Q's | Total Q's |
|------------|-------------------------------|-----------------|----------------|--------------|
| Number | 207 | 106 | 2 | 104 |
| Percentage | 100 | 51.2 | 1.9 | 50.24 |

Demographic Data

The respondents' level of education, years of full time work, years of service with current organization, ethnicity, gender, and age are presented in Table 5. By education, 68.9% of the sample had some college, 17% had a bachelors degree, 8.5% had a graduate degree and 6.6% were high school graduates. A total of 53.8% of the respondents had 10 or more years of full time employment, yet 36.4% of the sample had three or less years of service with the current employer. The gender of the respondents was 89.6% female, 8.5% male. Two left this question blank.

The ethnicity of the majority of the respondents was 75% white, 2.8% black, 8.5% hispanic, .9% other and 12 respondents left this question blank. The average age of the respondents was 40.1 years of age with a standard deviation of 10.16. Fifteen left this question blank

Table 5:

Demographic DataEducation Level

| <u>Education</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Percent</u> | <u>Valid Percent</u> |
|------------------|----------|----------------|--------------------------|
| High School | 7 | 6.6 | 6.6 |
| Some College | 73 | 68.9 | 68.9 |
| Bachelors | 17 | 16.0 | 16.0 |
| Graduate | 9 | 8.5 | 8.5 |
| Total | 106 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Years of full time employment

| <u>Years</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Percent</u> | <u>Valid Percent</u> |
|--------------|----------|----------------|--------------------------|
| 3 or less | 22 | 20.8 | 20.8 |
| 3 to 5 | 9 | 8.5 | 8.5 |
| 5 to 9 | 18 | 17.0 | 17.0 |
| 10 or more | 57 | 53.8 | 53.8 |
| Total | 106 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Years of service with current employer

| <u>Service</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Percent</u> | <u>Valid Percent</u> |
|----------------|----------|----------------|--------------------------|
| 3 or less | 39 | 36.8 | 37.1 |
| 3 to 5 | 13 | 12.3 | 12.4 |
| 5 to 9 | 22 | 20.7 | 20.9 |
| 10 or more | 31 | 29.2 | 29.5 |
| Blank | 1 | .9 | Missing |
| Total | 106 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Table 5: Continued

Ethnicity of the Respondents

| <u>Ethnicity</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Percent</u> | <u>Valid Percent</u> |
|------------------|----------|----------------|----------------------|
| White | 80 | 75.5 | 85.1 |
| Black | 3 | 2.8 | 3.2 |
| Hispanic | 9 | 8.5 | 9.6 |
| Asian | 1 | .9 | 1.1 |
| Other | 1 | .9 | 1.1 |
| Blank | 12 | 11.3 | Missing |
| Total | 106 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Gender of the Respondents

| <u>Gender</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Percent</u> | <u>Valid Percent</u> |
|---------------|----------|----------------|----------------------|
| Male | 9 | 8.5 | 8.6 |
| Female | 95 | 89.6 | 91.3 |
| Blank | 2 | 1.9 | Missing |
| Total | 106 | 100.0 | 100.0 |

Age of the Respondents

| <u>Age</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Percent</u> | <u>Valid Percent</u> |
|------------|----------|----------------|----------------------|
| 18 - 25 | 12 | 11.3 | 13.2 |
| 26 - 45 | 49 | 46.2 | 53.8 |
| 45 - 55 | 24 | 22.6 | 26.4 |
| 56 - 65 | 6 | 5.6 | 6.6 |
| Blank | 15 | 14.1 | Missing |
| Total | 106 | 100 | 100 |

Note: Age of the respondents, was from 19 years to 63 years of age. The mean was 40.6 years of age with a Std. Deviation of 10.16.

| | <u>Mean</u> | <u>Std Dev</u> | <u>Minimum</u> | <u>Maximum</u> |
|-----|-------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| AGE | 40.06 | 10.16 | 19 | 63 |

Descriptive statistics are shown in Table 6. The sample exhibited Constructive Thinking Inventory mean scores for esoteric thinking, naive optimism, behavioral coping, personal superstitious thinking, constructive thinking ability, emotional coping, and categorical thinking of 31.97, 51.18, 54.71, 14.34, 105.96, 88.77, and 44.68 respectively.

Table 6

CTI Study Means vs. Epstein's Study Means

| CTI Scales | Study Means | EPSTEIN'S Means |
|------------------------|-------------|-----------------|
| Esoteric Thinking | 31.97 | 25.68 |
| Naïve Optimism | 51.18 | 47.58 |
| Behavioral Coping | 54.71 | 56.02 |
| Personal Superstitious | 14.34 | 13.52 |
| CTA | 105.96 | 107.76 |
| Emotional Coping | 88.77 | 88.51 |
| Categorical Thinking | 44.68 | 37.24 |

These compared favorably to Epstein's (1993) mean scores for adults of 26.58 (esoteric thinking), 47.58 (naive optimism), 56.02 (behavioral coping), 13.52 (personal superstitious thinking), 107.76 (constructive thinking ability), 88.51 (emotional coping), and 37.24 (categorical thinking).

The internal consistency reliability coefficients for the 7 scales of the sample constructive thinking inventory questionnaire are: a) global scale (.7278), b) emotional coping scale (.7612), c) categorical thinking scale (.6843), d) esoteric thinking scale (.7258), e) naïve optimism scale (.6992), f) behavioral coping scale (.7043), g) personal superstitious thinking scale (.8027).

The organizational commitment questionnaire's mean score of 4.93 for the sample population as noted in Table 7, has a standard deviation of 2.70. The mean ranged from a minimum of 3.55 to a maximum of 5.98 resulting in the mean score of 4.93. The sample mean score of 4.93 compares favorably to the 4.86 mean score of the organizational commitment questionnaire as reported by Mowday et al. (1979).

Table 7

Sample Descriptive Statistics

| | N | Min | Max | Mean | Std. Dev |
|--------|-----|------|------|--------|----------|
| ESOINK | 104 | 14 | 51 | 31.97 | 8.05 |
| NAIVE | 104 | 33 | 66 | 51.18 | 5.76 |
| BEHAV | 104 | 40 | 69 | 54.71 | 6.13 |
| PERSUP | 104 | 7 | 25 | 14.34 | 4.40 |
| COMMIT | 100 | 3.55 | 5.98 | 4.93 | 2.70 |
| CTI | 104 | 79 | 140 | 105.96 | 11.02 |
| EMOT | 104 | 60 | 119 | 88.77 | 11.94 |
| CATINK | 104 | 24 | 65 | 44.68 | 7.81 |

| | | |
|-------|--------|-----------------------------------|
| Note: | ESOINK | = esoteric thinking |
| | NAIVE | = naive optimism |
| | BEHAV | = behavioral coping |
| | PERSUP | = personal superstitious thinking |
| | COMMIT | = organizational commitment |
| | CTI | = constructive thinking ability |
| | EMOT | = emotional coping |
| | CATINK | = categorical thinking |

Note: Study CTI mean is 105.96 and Epstein's was 107.76.

Table 7 shows that the study's global scale of the Constructive Thinking Inventory, which measures constructive thinking ability, presented a mean score of 105.96. This compares to a mean score of 107.76 for the adult population as reported in Seymour Epstein's study, the creator of the CTI (Epstein, 1993). This infers that the sample's respondents constructive thinking ability, would be comparable to Epstein's adult population sample.

The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) as developed by Mowday, Steers and Porter (1979) is an extensively validated instrument for establishing quantitative data. The OCQ uses a seven-point Likert scale with the following selections: a) strongly disagree value of 1, b) moderately disagree value of 2, c) slightly disagree valued at 3, d) neither agree or disagree value of 4, e) slightly agree value of 5, f) moderately agree value of 6, and g) strongly agree value of 7. Of the fifteen questions in the OCQ, six are negatively phrased and reversed scored to help reduce response bias. They are questions 3, 7, 9, 11, 12, 15.

The OCQ's high reliability and validity scores supports its selection for this study. Its uncomplicated design and convenience of administration are additional

reasons for its use. The sample population used for the validation of the OCQ was 2,563 employees working in a wide variety of jobs in nine different work organizations (Mowday, et al., 1979). The nine organizations consisted of both public and private sector employees. In all, the spread of work organizations and different job classifications was sufficiently broad to reflect a representative sample of the working population. The mean commitment level ranged from 4.0 to 6.1 across these nine organizations. Mean scores were typically above the midpoint on the 7-point Likert scale (Mowday et al., 1979).

The internal reliability of the sample commitment scale had a reliability coefficient alpha of .8756. This score compares with the validation results of Mowday et al., with respect to the nine organizations studied. The validation coefficient alpha's were consistently high, ranging from .82 to .93 with a median of .90 (Mowday, et al., 1979).

The Relationship Between the CTI and OCQ Data

The relationship between the inter-correlations among the constructive thinking inventory scales and the organizational commitment variable are presented in Table 8. Constructive Thinking Ability exhibited a strong (0.01 level of significance) correlation with organizational commitment. Constructive Thinking Ability also showed significance at the 0.01 level to behavioral coping and emotional coping. No such significance was displayed with naive optimism. However, categorical thinking (-0.01), esoteric thinking (-0.01) and personal superstitious thinking (-0.01) were correlated negatively with constructive thinking ability.

Table 8

Correlation's Among the Constructive Thinking Inventory Scale's and the Organizational Commitment Variable.

| | CTI | EMOT | CATINK | ESOINK | NAÏVE | BEHAV | PERS | COMM |
|--------|----------|----------|---------|----------|---------|---------|--------|------|
| CTI | - | | | | | | | |
| EMOT | .7848** | - | | | | | | |
| CATNIK | -.3479** | -.0997 | - | | | | | |
| ESOINK | -.3001** | -.2464** | .4623** | - | | | | |
| NAÏVE | 0.0333 | 0.0164 | .2057* | .3042** | - | | | |
| BEHAV | .7568** | .4415** | -.1843 | -.1289 | 0.062 | - | | |
| PERS | -.4457** | -.2323** | .5031** | -.4703** | .2162* | .3425** | - | |
| COMM | .2739** | .1437 | -.1572 | -.0694 | .3110** | .2658** | -.0576 | - |

Note:

CTI = constructive thinking ability (global scale)

EMOT = emotional coping

CATINK = categorical thinking

ESOINK = esoteric thinking

NAÏVE = naïve optimism

BEHAV = behavioral coping

PERS = personal superstitious thinking

COMM = organizational commitment

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

In Table 8, organizational commitment also exhibited strong (0.01 level of significance) correlation's with naïve optimism, behavioral coping and constructive thinking ability. No such significant relationships were found between categorical thinking (-.1572), esoteric thinking (-.0694) or personal superstitious thinking (-.0576), which were correlated negatively with the dependent variable organizational commitment.

Research Questions

This research investigated three research questions: (1) Does a positive relationship exist between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment?, (2) do employees with good constructive thinking ability have more organizational commitment (OC) than those employees with poorer constructive thinking ability (CTA)?, (3) which of the scales of the constructive thinking inventory (CTI), show significant positive correlation relationship, if any, with employee commitment to the organization? Eight hypotheses were developed to examine the statistical relationship between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

HO1: No positive relationship exists between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment.

HA1: A positive relationship exists between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 2

HO2: Those employees who have good constructive thinking ability, do not have more organizational commitment than those employees with poorer constructive thinking ability.

HA2: Those employees who have good constructive thinking ability, have more organizational commitment than those employees with poorer constructive thinking ability.

Hypothesis 3

HO3: No positive relationship exists between the Emotional Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

HA3: A positive relationship exists between the Emotional Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 4

H04: No positive relationship exists between the Behavioral Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

HA4: A positive relationship exists between the Behavioral Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 5

H05: No negative relationship exists between the Categorical Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

HA5: A negative relationship exists between the Categorical Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 6

H06: No negative relationship exists between the Esoteric Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

HA6: A negative relationship exists between the Esoteric Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 7

H07: No negative relationship exists between the Personal Superstitions Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

HA7: A negative relationship exists between the Personal Superstitions Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis 8

H08: No positive relationship exists between the Naïve Optimism Scale and organizational commitment.

HA8: A positive relationship exists between the Naïve Optimism Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypotheses Testing

Eight hypotheses were tested in this study. Pearson correlation analysis was used to test all hypotheses except number 2. Step-wise regression was also performed to determine which of the Constructive Thinking Inventory Scales (other than the Global Scale) were highly correlated to organizational commitment, and the real drivers of commitment.

Hypothesis 2 was tested by dividing the sample into good constructive thinkers and poorer constructive thinkers. This was accomplished by dividing the sample by the mean of the Global Scale. Those respondents with Global scores greater than the mean were considered good

constructive thinkers. Those respondents with scores at or below the mean were labeled as poorer constructive thinkers. Next, an independent samples T test was performed to determine if good constructive thinkers had more organizational commitment than poorer constructive thinkers. The sub-samples of good versus poorer constructive thinkers did not overlap. All hypotheses were tested at the significance level of 0.05.

Hypotheses Data Analysis

Hypothesis one proposed that a positive relationship exists between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment. The results of the Pearson product moment correlation indicate that a significant positive correlation ($r = .2739$; $p = .006$) exists between global constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment (see Table 8). Therefore the data supports the hypothesis that a positive relationship does exist between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis two proposed that employees with good constructive thinking ability have more organizational commitment than those employees with poorer constructive thinking ability. The global scale was summed and the mean of 105.96 was used to identify that those employees with Global scores greater than 105.96. These persons were labeled as good constructive thinkers, and those employees with scores equal to or below the mean were labeled as poorer constructive thinkers. An independent samples T-test was performed to determine if good constructive thinkers had more organizational commitment than poor constructive thinkers (see Table 9).

Table 9

T-test for Independent Samples of Good/Poor construction thinkers.

| Variable | N | Mean | SD | SE of Mean |
|------------|----|---------|--------|------------|
| Commitment | | | | |
| poor | 61 | 70.7377 | 13.896 | 1.779 |
| good | 38 | 79.4737 | 13.335 | 2.163 |

Mean Difference = -8.7360

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances: F= .444 P= .507

T-test for Equality of Means

| Variances | T-value | df | 2-Tail Sig | SE of | 95% CI for Dif |
|-----------|---------|-------|------------|-------|-------------------|
| Equal | -3.09 | 97 | .003 | 2.828 | (-14.349, -3.123) |
| Unequal | -3.12 | 81.10 | .003 | 2.801 | (-14.309, -3.163) |

The Levene' test for equality of variances considers variances to be equal. This means the results above this line are used. The unequal results below this line are not considered for this sample. The independent samples T-test determined that a significant difference ($t = -3.09$; Sig = .003) between these two groups.

The results indicate that good constructive thinkers have a significantly higher level of organizational commitment.

Therefore the data supports the hypothesis that employees with good constructive thinking ability have more organizational commitment than employees with poor constructive thinking ability.

Hypothesis three proposed that a positive relationship exists between the Emotional Coping Scale and organizational commitment. The results of the Pearson product moment correlation indicate that no significant positive correlation ($r = .1437$; $p = .156$) exists between the Emotional Coping Scale and organizational commitment (see Table 8). Therefore, the data does not support the hypothesis that a positive relationship exists between the Emotional Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis four proposed that a positive relationship exists between the Behavioral Coping Scale and organizational commitment. The results of the Pearson product moment correlation indicate that there is a significant positive correlation ($r = .2658$; $p = .008$) exists between the Behavioral Coping Scale and organizational commitment (see Table 8). Therefore, the data supports the hypothesis that a positive relationship

between the Behavioral Coping Scale and organizational commitment (see Table 8). Therefore the data supports the hypothesis that there is a positive relationship between the Behavioral Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis five proposed that a negative relationship exists between the Categorical Thinking Scale and organizational commitment. The results of the Pearson product moment correlation indicate that no significant negative correlation ($r = .1572$; $p = .120$) exists between the categorical Thinking Scale and organizational commitment (see Table 8). Therefore the data did not support the hypothesis that a negative relationship exists between the Categorical Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis six proposed that a negative relationship exists between the Esoteric Thinking Scale and organizational commitment. The results of the Pearson product moment correlation indicate that no significant negative correlation ($r = -.0644$; $p = .527$) exists between the Esoteric Thinking Scale and organizational commitment (see Table 8). Therefore the data does not support the hypothesis that a negative relationship between the Esoteric Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis seven proposed that a negative relationship exists between the Personal Superstitions Thinking Scale and organizational commitment. The results of the Pearson products moment correlation indicate that no significant negative correlation ($r = .0576$; $p = .571$) exists between the Personal Superstitions Thinking scale and organizational commitment (see Table 8). Therefore the data does not support the hypothesis that a negative relationship exists between the Personal Superstitions Scale and organizational commitment.

Hypothesis eight proposed that a positive relationship exists between the Naive Optimism Scale and organizational commitment. The results of the Pearson product moment correlation indicate that there is a significant positive correlation ($r = .3110$; $p = .002$) between the Naive Optimism Scale and organizational commitment (see Table 8). Therefore the data supports the hypothesis that a positive relationship exists between the Naive Optimism Scale and organizational commitment.

Step-wise Regression

The third research question asked which of the Constructive Thinking Inventory scales show a significant correlation relationship, if any, with employee commitment to the organization. Stepwise regression was performed to determine which of the CTI scales were most highly correlated with organizational commitment. The Global Constructive Thinking Scale was excluded as it is a predictor of constructive thinking ability and is composed of parts of the other CTI scales.

Stepwise regression selects independent variables for inclusion in a regression model than selects the variable that has the largest t value and inserts it into the regression model as the best predictor of the dependent variable (organizational commitment) (Hair, et al., 1998). In this study the Naive Optimism Scale ($t = 3.223$; Signif F = .0017) was selected for step 1 as the best predictor variable (see Table 10). The Global Constructive Thinking Scale ($t = 2.756$; Signif F = .0070) would be the next independent variable to be inserted into the model, but is excluded as it is a composite of all the CTI scales.

The default entrance criterion for the regression model has a t-value of 1.661 based upon the degrees of

freedom at a 0.05 level of significance. Table 10 contains the stepwise regression analysis data. When the Naive Optimism Scale and the Global Constructive Thinking Scale were removed as independent variables from the model, the t-values for the rest of the variables (scales) were all below the default entrance criterion and are excluded from the model consideration (see Table 10—Variables not in the Equation).

With the Global Constructive Thinking Scale being excluded because it is made up of the other CTI scales, the Naive Optimism Scale is left as the best predictor of organizational commitment among the other CTI scales on an individual basis.

Table 10

Stepwise Regression DataNaïve Optimism Scale---Step 1

| | | | |
|----------------------|----------|-----------------|------------------|
| Multiple R | .31105 | | |
| R Square | .09675 | R Square Change | .09675 |
| Adjusted R Square | .08744 | F Change | 10.38992 |
| Standard Error | 13.63055 | Signif F Change | .0017 |
| Analysis of Variance | | | |
| | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square |
| Regression | 1 | 1930.36335 | 1930.36335 |
| Residual | 97 | 18021.81847 | 185.79194 |
| F = | 10.38992 | T = 3.223 | Signif F = .0017 |

Global Constructive Thinking Scale---Step 2

| | | | |
|----------------------|----------|-----------------|------------------|
| Multiple R | .40369 | | |
| R Square | .16296 | R Square Change | .06621 |
| Adjusted R Square | .14553 | F Change | 7.59417 |
| Standard Error | 13.18960 | Signif F Change | .0070 |
| Analysis of Variance | | | |
| | DF | Sum of Squares | Mean Square |
| Regression | 2 | 3251.48799 | 1625.74399 |
| Residual | 96 | 16700.69383 | 173.96556 |
| F = | 9.34521 | T = 2.756 | Signif F = .0002 |

-----Variables not in the Equation -----

| Variable | Tolerance | VIF | Min Toler | T | Sig T |
|----------|-----------|-------|-----------|--------|-------|
| EMOT | .383273 | 2.609 | .382180 | -1.070 | .2872 |
| CATINK | .852616 | 1.173 | .852616 | -1.485 | .1409 |
| ESOINK | .825432 | 1.211 | .825432 | -1.008 | .3160 |
| BEHAV | .435561 | 2.296 | .435561 | .809 | .4207 |
| PERSUP | .769111 | 1.300 | .769111 | -.107 | .9147 |

Summary of the Results

This Chapter examined the relationship between Constructive Thinking Ability and Organizational Commitment. The results of the statistical analyses presented in this chapter concerning the three research questions and eight hypotheses are:

- 1). There is a significant positive relationship between Constructive Thinking Ability and Organizational Commitment.
- 2). Employees with Good Constructive Thinking Ability have more Organizational Commitment, than employees with Poorer Constructive Thinking Ability.
- 3). The Naive Optimism Scale predicts organizational commitment on an individual basis better than the other CTI scales on an individual basis.

Table 11 displays the hypotheses and if the Null Hypotheses were accepted or rejected.

Table 11

Hypotheses 1 thru 8 and Acceptance or Rejection of the Null

| <u>Hypothesis</u> | <u>Results</u> | <u>Test of the Null</u> |
|-------------------|------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 | $r = .2739; p = .006$ | Rejected |
| 2 | $t = -.309; p = .003$ | Rejected |
| 3 | $r = .1437; p = .156$ | Rejected |
| 4 | $r = .2658; p = .008$ | Rejected |
| 5 | $r = .1572; p = .120$ | Accepted |
| 6 | $r = -.0644; p = .527$ | Accepted |
| 7 | $r = .0576; p = .571$ | Accepted |
| 8 | $r = .3110; p = .002$ | Rejected |

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between employee constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment. The base theory investigated in this study was the Cognitive-Experiential Self-Theory (CEST) developed by Seymour Epstein (1973). CEST is a constructional/cognitive theory that assumes that cognition's are emotionally and experientially driven. It is assumed in CEST that ever day perception and behavior is largely automated and mainly organized and directed by the experiential conceptual system. It was to this end that Epstein developed the Constructive Thinking Inventory (CTI), a self-report measure of automatic constructive and destructive thinking. Epstein's CTI was used in this study to measure employee constructive thinking ability.

Numerous studies have identified employee commitment to the organization as an important variable in the understanding of work ethic in organizations (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979). Many definitions of Organizational Commitment (OC) have been offered over the last thirty years, but the one used for this study is "...the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (Mowday et al., 1979, p.226). Employee organizational commitment was measured in this study by the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed by Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979).

This study was designed to answer three questions:

- 1) Does a positive relationship exist between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment?
- 2) Do employees with good constructive thinking ability (CTA) have more organizational commitment (OC) than those employees with poorer constructive thinking ability?
- 3) Which of the scales of the constructive thinking inventory (CTI) demonstrate a significant positive correlation relationship, if any, with employee commitment to the organization?

A summary of significant results, conclusions, and limitations of the study are followed by the recommendations for future research.

Summary of the Research

To answer the research questions, a three part survey consisting of the Constructive Thinking Inventory, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and a demographic question section was administered to health care nurses at a medium-sized hospital in the southwestern United States. A total of 207 questionnaires were administered and 106 were returned. Two questionnaires were unusable due to missing data. Therefore, the usable survey total was one hundred and four for an acceptable response rate of fifty plus percent.

Eight hypotheses were developed to examine the three research questions and to determine the relationship between the two constructs of constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment. Data analysis was accomplished by using the SPSS program. In the alternate form and with the result of the data analysis, the hypotheses are:

HA1: A positive relationship exists between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment.

Result: The Alternate Hypothesis was accepted and the Null was rejected.

HA2: Those employees who have good constructive thinking ability have more organizational commitment than those employees with poorer constructive thinking ability.

Result: The Alternate Hypothesis was accepted and the Null Hypothesis was rejected.

HA3: A positive relationship exists between the Emotional Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

Result: The Alternative Hypothesis was rejected and the Null Hypothesis was accepted.

HA4: A positive relationship exists between the Behavior Coping Scale and organizational commitment.

Result: The Alternative Hypothesis was accepted and the Null Hypothesis was rejected.

HA5: A negative relationship exists between the Categorical Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

Result: The Alternative Hypothesis was rejected and the Null Hypothesis was accepted.

HA6: A negative relationship exists between the Esoteric Thinking Scale and organizational commitment.

Result: The Alternative Hypothesis was rejected and the Null Hypothesis was accepted.

HA7: A negative relationship exists between the Personal Superstitious Scale and organizational commitment.

Result: The Alternative Hypothesis was rejected and the Null Hypothesis was accepted.

HA8: A positive relationship exists between the Naïve Optimism Scale and organizational commitment.

Result: The Alternative Hypothesis was accepted and the Null Hypothesis was rejected.

Overview of Significant Findings

From the demographic questions asked in the survey, the following significant results were determined:

- 1) The study reported that 68.9% of the respondents had some college, 16.0% had a bachelor's degree and 8.5% had a graduate degree.
- 2) That 80% of the respondents were white (Caucasian).
- 3) That 89.6% of the respondents were female
- 4) The average age of the respondents was forty years of age.

From the demographic data it is significant that the nurse respondents had excellent educational credentials, 80.0% were Caucasian, and 89.6% were females with an average age of forty years. The answers to the three research questions were determined from the Hypotheses tests, and are as follows:

- 1) Research Question 1- Does a positive relationship exist between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment?

Answer: A significant positive relationship exists between constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment.

2) Research Question 2- Do employees with good constructive thinking ability have more organizational commitment than employees with poorer constructive thinking ability?

Answer: Employees with good constructive thinking ability have more organizational commitment than employees with poor constructive thinking ability.

3) Research Question 3- Which of the scales of the constructive thinking inventory (CTI), show significant positive correlation, if any, with employee commitment to the organization?

Answer: The Naive Optimism Scale predicts organizational commitment on an individual basis better than the other CTI scales on an individual basis.

Conclusion

The construct of constructive thinking ability has evolved from the field of psychology and is being tested in various organizational environments. Atwater (1992) reported that Behavioral Coping, one of the scales of the constructive thinking inventory (CTI) is related to employee satisfaction. She suggests that constructive

thinking ability should be examined in other organizational contexts.

In the past two decades managers and researchers have focused on organizational commitment because it is a predictor of organizational outcomes such as, turnover, absenteeism, and tardiness (Cohen et al., 1994). In a time of financial constraints in health care, the retention of nurses and commitment to the organization is the second major issue for health care (Kirsch, 1990). This study of constructive thinking ability and its relationship to organizational commitment, and being the first study of these two constructs, may hold a solution to the commitment problem, where flattened organizations and empowered workers are needed for productivity and performance in today's work environment (Dessler, 1993).

The significant relationship determined by this study of constructive thinking ability and organizational commitment, demands further research. Moreover, if the results are duplicated in other environments, constructive thinking ability will play a definite role in the selection of employees, who score high on the CTI in regards to the construct of constructive thinking ability.

Limitations of the Study

Limitations of this study includes the following: (a) no physical observation was made, (b) instruments were administered by hospital personnel, (c) approximately 90% of the sample were female and Caucasian, (d) the population from one facility in a fairly isolated part of the southwestern United States, and (e) the study was cross sectional in design.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research should continue to examine the relationship between these two constructs with various populations in other environments. This research was limited to one hospital, and was a cross sectional study.

A longitudinal analysis would be ideal to evaluate the two constructs more thoroughly so that definitive inferences can be made. This study is the first step and worthy of future research to help address the problem of organizational commitment.

APPENDIX A

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

II. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONS

Listed below are a series of statements that represent possible feelings that individuals might have about the organization for which they work. With respect to your own feelings about this company for which you are now working please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling one of the seven alternatives beside each statement:

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| Strongly Disagree | Moderately Disagree | Slightly Disagree | Neither Disagree Nor Agree | Slightly Agree | Moderately Agree | Strongly Agree |

- | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1) | I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that normally expected in order to help this company be successful..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2) | I talk up this company to my friends as a great company to work for..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3) | I feel very little loyalty to this company..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4) | I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this company..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5) | I find that my values and the company's values are very similar..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 6) | I am proud to tell others that I am a part of this company.. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 7) | I could just as well be working for a different company as long as the type of work was similar..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 8) | This company really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 9) | It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this company..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 10) | I am extremely glad that I chose this company to work for over others I was considering at the time I joined..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 11) | There's not too much to be gained by sticking with this company indefinitely..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 12) | Often, I find it difficult to agree with this company's policies on important matters relating to its employees..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 13) | I really care about the fate of this company..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 14) | For me this is the best of all possible company's for which to work..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 15) | Deciding to work for this company was a definite mistake on my part..... | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |

APPENDIX B

CONSTRUCTIVE THINKING INVENTORY

CTI

Use the scale below to rate the following statements about feelings, beliefs, and behaviors. Score “1” if the statement is definitely false, “2” if it is mostly false, “4” if it is mostly true, and “5” if it is definitely true. Use “3” only if you cannot decide if the item is mainly true or false.

| | | | | |
|---------------------|-----------------|--|----------------|--------------------|
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Definitely False | Mostly False | Undecided or Equally False and True | Mostly True | Definitely True |

This questionnaire contains some “silly” items, such as “I never saw anyone with blue eyes.” The purpose of these items is to check whether people have been careless or lost their place. Please answer these items correctly. The questionnaire also contains items to check whether people have made themselves look too good (or bad). If you select the best (or worst) answers, instead of answering honestly, your test will be found invalid. Do not fuss over any one item, as no single item is very important. Please simply respond honestly and rapidly.

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1. I believe almost all people are basically good at heart.
2. I sometimes think that if I want something to happen too badly, it will keep it from happening.
3. When I have a lot of work to do by a deadline, I waste a lot of time worrying about it instead of just doing it.
4. I believe that some people have the ability to read other people's thoughts.
5. When something good happens to me, I believe it is likely to be balanced by something bad.
6. If I do very well on a test, I realize it is only a single test, and it doesn't make me feel generally competent.
7. I believe there are people who can project their thoughts into other people's minds.
8. I tend to classify people as either for me or against me.
9. When doing unpleasant chores, I make the best of it by thinking pleasant or interesting thoughts.
10. I feel that if people treat you badly, you should treat them the same way.
11. When I have learned that someone I love loves me, it has made me feel like a wonderful person and that I can accomplish whatever I want to.
12. If something good happens to me, I tend to assume it was luck.
13. When I have a very frightening experience, the thought of it is likely to come back to mind several times.
14. I don't let little things bother me.
15. Astrology will never explain anything.
16. I look at challenges not as something to fear, but as an opportunity to test myself and learn.
17. I think everyone should love his or her parents.
18. I take failure very hard.
19. What others think of me bothers me not the least.
20. I believe if I think terrible thoughts about someone, it can affect that person's well-being.

21. I spend much more time mentally rehearsing my failures than remembering my successes.
22. People who express unreasonable views sometimes annoy me.
23. I believe that it is almost always better to come to firm decisions than to compromise.
24. If someone I know were accepted at an important job interview, I would think that he or she would always be able to get a good job.
25. I am very sensitive to rejection.
26. I've learned not to hope too hard, because what I hope for usually doesn't happen.
27. Most birds can run faster than they can fly.
28. I believe the moon or the stars can affect people's thinking.
29. If I said something foolish when I spoke up in a group, I would chalk it up to experience and not worry about it.
30. When faced with a large amount of work to complete, I tell myself I can never get it done, and feel like giving up.
31. When something bad happens to me, I feel that more bad things are likely to follow.
32. The slightest indication of disapproval gets me upset.
33. I never learned to read.
34. It is so distressing for me to try hard and fail, that I rarely make an all-out effort to do my best.
35. I believe that most people are only interested in themselves.
36. I worry a great deal about what other people think of me.
37. When I realize I have made a mistake, I usually take immediate action to correct it.
38. If I do poorly on an important test, I feel like a total failure and that I won't go far in life.
39. I believe if I wish hard enough for something, it can make it happen.
40. I believe in trusting my first impressions.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|-----------------|---------------------------------------|----------------|--------------------|
| Definitely False | Mostly False | Undecided or Equally False or True | Mostly True | Definitely True |
| 41. When I am faced with a difficult task, I think encouraging thoughts that help me do my best. | | | | |
| 42. I believe that people who wear glasses usually can see better without them. | | | | |
| 43. I believe that some people can make me aware of them just by thinking about me. | | | | |
| 44. My mind often drifts to unpleasant events from the past. | | | | |
| 45. I am the kind of person who takes action rather than just thinks or complains about a situation. | | | | |
| 46. There are two possible answers to every question, a right one and a wrong one. | | | | |
| 47. I believe it is best, in most situations, to emphasize the positive side of things. | | | | |
| 48. If someone I know does well on an important test, I feel that he or she is a total success and will go very far in life. | | | | |
| 49. I don't worry about things I can do nothing about. | | | | |
| 50. I have washed my hands before eating at least once in the past month. | | | | |
| 51. If I have something unpleasant to do, I try to make the best of it by thinking in positive terms. | | | | |
| 52. If I do well on an important test, I feel like a total success and that I will go far in life. | | | | |
| 53. I believe in ghosts. | | | | |
| 54. I feel like a total failure if I don't achieve the goals I set for myself. | | | | |
| 55. There are two kinds of people in this world, winners and losers. | | | | |
| 56. If I were accepted at an important job interview, I would feel very good and think that I would always be able to get a good job. | | | | |
| 57. Unless I do a perfect job, I feel like a failure. | | | | |
| 58. When I take an examination, I usually think I did much worse than I actually did. | | | | |
| 59. When something good happens to me, I feel that more good things are likely to follow. | | | | |
| 60. I am tolerant of my mistakes as I feel they are a necessary part of learning. | | | | |

61. When unpleasant things happen to me, I don't give them a second thought.
62. Most people regard me as a tolerant and forgiving person.
63. If I were rejected at an important job interview, I would feel very low and think that I would never be able to get a good job.
64. When I do poorly at something, so long as I know I have done my best, it does not bother me at all.
65. I tend to take things personally.
66. I have at least one good-luck charm.
67. I have never seen anyone with blue eyes.
68. I don't feel that I have to perform exceptionally well in order to consider myself a worthwhile person.
69. People should try to look happy, no matter what they feel.
70. I avoid challenges because it hurts too much when I fail.
71. The only person I completely trust is myself.
72. It doesn't bother me when people who know less than I act superior and give me advice.
73. I am very sensitive to being made fun of.
74. Although women sometimes wear pants, they do not wear them, on the average, as often as men.
75. I have found that talking about successes that I am looking forward to can keep them from happening.
76. Whenever good things happen to me, I have the feeling I deserved it.
77. I think there are many wrong ways, but only one right way, to do almost anything.
78. I spend a lot of time thinking about my mistakes even if there is nothing I can do about them.
79. I like to succeed, but I don't take failure as a tragedy.
80. At times when I've been ill or tired, I have felt like going to bed early.

81. It is foolish to trust anyone completely, as if you do, you are bound to get hurt.
82. When I have a lot of important things to take care of, I make a plan and stick to it.
83. When someone I love has rejected me, it has made me feel inadequate and that I will never be able to accomplish anything.
84. If you don't eat, you can die.
85. I tend to dwell more on pleasant than unpleasant incidents from the past.
86. I believe in good and bad omens.
87. I am not bothered in the least when people insult me for no good reason.
88. When someone I know is loved by a person they love, I feel that they are a wonderful person and can accomplish whatever they want to.
89. I get so distressed when I notice that I am doing poorly in something that it makes me do worse.
90. I try to accept people as they are without judging them.
91. When unpleasant things happen to me, I don't let them prey on my mind.
92. If I do poorly on a test, I realize it is only a single test, and it doesn't make me feel generally incompetent.
93. I believe once a criminal, always a criminal.
94. I believe there are people who can see into the future.
95. I believe that anyone who isn't lazy can always find a job.
96. I find it hard to change my mind once I have made a decision.
97. I do not believe in any superstitions.
98. I don't get very distressed over the mistakes of others, but try to deal with them in a constructive way.
99. When faced with a challenging situation, I try to imagine the best outcome and avoid dwelling on what might go wrong.
100. I believe that if I do something good, then good things will happen to me.

101. I believe in flying saucers.
102. I try to make an all-out effort in most things I do.
103. I have learned from bitter experience that most people are not trustworthy.
104. When I am faced with a new situation, I tend to think the worst possible outcome will happen.
105. When faced with upcoming unpleasant events, I usually carefully think through how I will deal with them.
106. Two plus two equals four.
107. There are basically two kinds of people in the world, good and bad.
108. When something unfortunate happens to me, it reminds me of all the other things wrong in my life, which adds to my unhappiness.

**PLEASE CHECK THAT YOU HAVE ANSWERED EVERY QUESTION
& THAT EVERY QUESTION HAS ONLY ONE ANSWER.**

APPENDIX C

RELIABILITIES SCORES FOR THE CTI

| CTI SCALE | Number of Items in Scale | College Students ^a | | Adults ^b |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|--|----------------------------|--|
| | | Internal Consistency Reliability | Test-Retest Reliability | Internal Consistency Reliability |
| Global Constructive Thinking | 29 | .90 | .86 | .89 |
| Emotional Coping | 25 | .92 | .90 | .90 |
| Self Acceptance | 7 | .80 | .78 | .70 |
| Absence of Neg Overgeneralize | 4 | .74 | .74 | .73 |
| Non-Sensitivity | 6 | .84 | .89 | .81 |
| Absence of Dwelling | 6 | .84 | .80 | .77 |
| Behavioral Coping | 14 | .82 | .81 | .82 |
| Positive Thinking | 4 | .76 | .76 | .79 |
| Action Orientation | 7 | .75 | .77 | .74 |
| Conscientiousness | 4 | .57 | .68 | .63 |
| Personal Superstitious Thinking | 7 | .79 | .77 | .73 |
| Categorical Thinking | 16 | .80 | .81 | .82 |
| Polarized Thinking | 6 | .72 | .79 | .74 |
| Distrust of Others | 5 | .74 | .82 | .72 |
| Intolerance | 4 | .58 | .71 | .69 |
| Esoteric Thinking | 13 | .86 | .90 | .86 |
| Belief in the Unusual | 6 | .84 | .89 | .79 |
| Formal Superstitious Thinking | 7 | .73 | .85 | .73 |
| Naive Optimism | 15 | .76 | .74 | .80 |
| Over-Optimism | 5 | .72 | .60 | .81 |
| Stereotypical Thinking | 3 | .45 | .70 | .60 |
| Pollyanna-ish Thinking | 7 | .65 | .79 | .65 |

Source: From Manual for the Constructive Thinking Inventory (p. 25),
Seymour Epstein, 1993. University of Massachusetts at Amherst.

APPENDIX D

PERMISSION LETTER FOR THE USE OF THE CTI



UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS
AT AMHERST

Department of Psychology

129

Tobin Hall
Amherst, MA 01003
(413) 545-2383

Date March 2, 2000

Dear Richard Kimbel:

Thank you for your inquiry about conducting research with the CTI. Enclosed are a copy of the test, the scoring key, and a manual with information on the CTI's development, administration and scoring instructions, normative data, and description of some of the research that has been done with the CTI. Please let me know if you would like reprints of any of the studies described in the manual.

Consider this letter as official approval to use the test for research purposes only, with the understanding that if you use it you will send me a summary of the results.

Sincerely,

Seymour Epstein
Professor of Psychology

Enclosures

APPENDIX E

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT & THINKING STYLE QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire will be used to assess your constructive thinking style and your commitment to the organization for which you are now working. **There are NO specific right or wrong answers. People answer these questions differently.**

I ASSURE YOU THAT YOUR RESPONSE TO THIS QUESTIONNAIRE WILL REMAIN CONFIDENTIAL.

You should be able to complete this questionnaire in approximately **thirty minutes**. Upon completion, **please place the finished questionnaire into the self-addressed stamped envelope provided and mail promptly.**

This questionnaire contains some “silly” items such as, “I have never seen anyone with blue eyes.” The purpose of these items is to check whether people have been careless or lost their place. Please answer these items correctly as dishonest answers will invalidate the survey. **Do not fuss over any one item, as no single item is specifically important. Please simply respond honestly and rapidly.**

As with all questionnaires used for research purposes, we would like to know a little about you. This information will help us to determine if different groups of people are similar or different based on these categories. **Please circle the response that most closely fits your circumstances.**

Are you:

- a. male
- b. female

Are you a supervisor at work?

- a. yes
- b. no

What is your age? _____

What is your ethnicity? _____

Have you completed: (circle the highest response)

- a. grade school
- b. high school
- c. some college
- d. bachelor's degree
- e. graduate degree

What is your current job arena?

- a. administrative staff (any level)
- b. medical staff (nursing)
- c. medical staff (physician)
- d. medical staff (other, i.e. RT, X-Ray)
- e. support staff

How many years of fulltime employment have you completed?

- a. less than 3 years
- b. 3 – 5 years
- c. 5 – 9 years
- d. 10 years or more

How many years of service do you have with your current company?

- a. less than three years
- b. 3 – 5 years
- c. 5 – 9 years
- d. 10 years or more

**THANK YOU FOR TAKING YOUR TIME TO ASSIST US WITH THIS RESEARCH
BY COMPLETING THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.**

APPENDIX F

PERMISSION LETTER

May 15, 2001

Hospital Administrator
Confidential Hospital
Confidential Street
Confidential, New Mexico

Dear Hospital Administrator:

I am requesting permission to distribute a questionnaire to the employees of your hospital. As you are aware, I am completing a doctoral degree in business administration at Nova Southeastern University. Collecting primary data is necessary for completing my dissertation entitled "The Relationship Between Employees Constructive Thinking Ability and Organizational Commitment".

The idea of organizational commitment has been identified as an important variable in the retention, performance, and work behaviors of employees. The intention of this study is to learn more about constructive thinking ability of employees and the role it plays in their commitment to the organization that employs them, if any. My literature review found no analogous studies using hospital personnel.

The questionnaire being utilized has been used and validated in other studies. The questionnaire will take approximately 30 minutes to complete. All individual responses will be anonymous, and the hospital as a survey site will be completely confidential and only identified in the dissertation and subsequent publications as a Southwestern United States Hospital.

Please contact me if you have any questions or concerns.

Best regards,

Richard D. Kimbel

60901 Whispering Hills Dr.
South Bend, In 46614
(219) 291-1296
kimbel@michiana.org

APPENDIX G

PARTICIPANT LETTER

May 1, 2001

To: Survey Respondents

From: R.D. Kimbel Doctoral Candidate

RE: Survey Study for Doctoral Dissertation

Dear Respondent:

You are cordially invited to be part of this research study concerning organizational commitment and constructive thinking at your medical facility. This is an approved research study at Nova Southeastern University and your survey will be used as part of my doctoral dissertation data collection.

It is anonymous and confidential study; your responses are important to the study of organizational commitment at medical facilities. The compiled results will help to better understand organizational commitment and its antecedents.

Your participation in this study is well appreciated by me in my pursuit of my Doctorate in Business Administration.

Thank you,

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