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Nicole Robinson

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Running head: HUD CULTURE AND HOW IT AFFECTS

Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

HUD CULTURE AND HOW IT AFFECTS EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

Nicole Robinson

September, 2016

June Schmieder-Ramirez, Ph.D. - Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Nicole J. Robinson

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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DEDICATION

"...As we are liberated from our own fear, our presence automatically liberates others."

-Marianne Williamson

This dissertation is dedicated to all cancer survivors and remembering those who have lost the fight to such debilitating disease. I gratefully acknowledge my Lord and Savior, who has given me hope and courage to "Press" through the impossible. Victory is my greatest triumph. Thank you my family and closest friends who have supported me throughout this entire process. To my beautiful sister who has always been my number one supporter and the greatest cheerleader. To the heartbeat of my family, my beautiful daughter, and son; it's because of you that I persevere to leave a family legacy of which we all can be proud. To my strength, my grandchildren, nieces, and nephew who give me the greatest joy. Thank you, Mom, Dad, and brother; you have stood by me through the toughest of times.

I am most grateful to my committee member, Christy Cooper, who gracefully encouraged and guided me through this process. Thank you, Dr. June, Dr. Mallette, and Dr. Granoff for helping me to the "pretty green lawn." To EDOL's finest professors, I am truly honored and proud to be a part of the Pepperdine brand.

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I will forever cherish my Pepperdine family for your love of leadership, you have taught me to believe in the impossible dream. Thank you.

Gratefully,

Nicole J. Robinson

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ABSTRACT

Many federal agencies contend with systemic employee relation challenges due to an ingrained culture fostered by the absence of trust and job satisfaction. The organizational structure within federal agencies is complex and represents a bureaucratic corporate culture. There is limited research related culture within the federal government and the relationship between trust and employee job satisfaction. The purpose of this research is to conduct a secondary analysis that examines various aspects of organizational culture and the effects on employee job satisfaction.

Federal agencies administer annual Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) in the effort to assess factors to influence change in the federal workforce. The annual survey provides feedback relative to engagement, work environment, leadership, and other organizational influences critical in measuring agency progression toward meeting performance objectives.

The Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) has received FEVS results administered through Office of Personnel Management since the survey's 2002 inception. FEVS's measuring criteria highlight both negative and positive performance results. The result identifies best and worst practices of organizational environment. Survey results are comprised of

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benchmark indicators that identify areas requiring change, monitoring trends, and determining agency outcomes that represent improvement or decline. The overall objective focuses on evaluating the pulse within the work environment, which promotes enhancing strategic goals in transforming the organization's culture and perception to foster improved employee relations and job satisfaction.

Few studies draw the distinctive correlation between the characteristics of culture, organizational trust, and its relation to job satisfaction. While many studies escape linear relationships, this study provides a distinct correlation between the three characteristics. The concept of organizational culture is distinctive based on elements of value and practice that emphasize the potential for dissonance and tension.

The department's culture is highly bureaucratic; which studies have shown can have grave effects on employee job satisfaction. A bureaucratic culture can stifle operational capabilities incapable of precisely assessing the environment, which provides distinctive variables that affect organizational trust and its ability to influence an organization's climate. There is a general misconception that exists within HUD's culture and the overall perception and how culture affects an organization's environment.

Chapter 1: Introduction

History

In recent years, many federal agencies have experienced operational challenges that are a direct result of budget cuts, downsizing, outsourcing, attrition, and the retention of a skilled workforce. The Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD) is a government agency that provides a wide variety of housing programs, assist low-income families with obtaining housing, community development grants, rental subsidies, direct and loan guarantees and public housing programs (U.S. Government Accountability Office [GAO], 2013). The primary mission of the organization is creating strong sustainable communities, which provides families with quality and affordable housing.

HUD has seen a steady decline in its staffing, and the agency continues to rely on contractors in carrying out many of the programs (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2013). "Achieving HUD's mission continues to be an ambitious challenge for its limited staff, given the agency's diverse programs" (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2013, p.1). According to the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) regulations, performance management modules are used as a systematic process used to engage employees. OPM is a branch of the federal government that functions as an independent federal agency and

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manages the civil service of the federal government; working in several categories to recruit, provides human resources, leadership, and support to federal agencies. Assessments are performed in individual and group settings in an effort to improve organizational efficiency toward accomplishing the agency's mission and goals (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2013).

Since 2002, the OPM has administered the Federal Viewpoint Survey (FEVS), which provides a snapshot of perceptions and viewpoints of federal employees. The survey essentially measures the organizational climate. The FEVS is a confidential web-based survey designed to provide agencies with information linked to employee satisfaction, commitment, engagement, hiring, and the retention of a skilled workforce. Data results are separated by agency in order to rank performance management. FEVS also assesses varying conditions that characterize and monitor the overall success of an organization.

In 2014, over 300,000 federal employees participated in the surveys. HUD's overall employee population consisted of 8,416 employees; however, only 3,890 participated in the annual survey. The benefits of survey results provide a shared insight regarding the organizational climate. Survey trends over the past 3 years indicate a continual decrease, specifically, related to employee(s) views of HUD's leadership standards

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associated with honesty and integrity. If utilized properly, results from FEVS can be a powerful internal tool that supports fostering change. The general concept for advocating change management relies partially on building cohesive relationships and developing influential leaders. Agency leaders find it challenging when identifying organizational values, which provide the framework for strengthening leadership and its practices. According to Schneider, White, and Paul (1998), organizations are run based on their value systems and assumptions assist in guiding business practices. Sempane, Rieger, & Roodt (2002) mentioned,

Controversy exists amongst researchers regarding the distinction between organizational culture and climate. Organizational culture defines a set of expected behavior patterns that are generally exhibited within the organization. These norms have a great impact on the behavior of the employees. (p. 24)

On the other hand, an organization's climate measures if certain expectations are being met within the environment (Sempane et al., 2002). The influence of an organization's culture is dependent upon the climate, which determines how the organization conducts business.

This study will examine variables relative to organizational culture and the connection to trust and job satisfaction. Schein (1984) defined organizational culture as basic patterns of assumptions created within any given group,

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patterns revealed or developed learning skills that contribute to coping with problems of exterior adaptation and internal integration. Culture is deeply rooted and is challenging to change due to resistance as a result of giving up something of value. Although changing an organizations' culture may be difficult, the possibility exists through alterations of facilitating job satisfaction. Locke (1976) described consequences commonly experienced by employees that have grave effects on job satisfaction, which can impact physical health, longevity, mental health, and general social life. Trending FEVS results provide a snapshot of employee views that represent an organizational climate that is facing decline because of a bureaucratic culture.

HUD presently operates at a high level of accountability to the public, its customers, and its industry partners. Historically, as administrations change, agencies undergo substantial organizational changes because of sequestration, looming government shutdowns, and retaining skilled and talented employees. The dynamics of the organizational structure are constantly changing. The bureaucratic organizational structure is rigid and comprised of tight procedures, which provide many constraints that constrict controls. Hierarchal structural layers exist within every department. Decisions and responsibilities are administered through an organized process

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of strict command and control. This organizational structure impedes effective communication and overall employee engagement, which has caused difficulty in maintaining a structure of uniformity and reliability.

Trust is one component of an organization's social system. The survival of any organization requires continual relationship building that aids in promoting a sense of empowerment among employees that result in job satisfaction. Empowerment has the capability of stimulating employees while incurring an of sense ownership resulting in global satisfaction. The impact of global satisfaction explores opportunities that influence employee performance that is critical to organizational culture. There are contentions that focus on the possibility of creating a positive organizational culture that reinforces relationship building. The objective is transformation through change, which can motivate both employees and managers. The motivation to provoke change can dispel negative images caused by a diminishing workforce, removing barriers related to employee engagement, and past practices that hinder productivity and performance.

Statement of the Problem

Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey is an assessment tool designed to assess the organizational climate with federal agencies. Over the past 3 years, HUD has experienced a decline

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in its overall performance ranking. The decline in part is linked to the agency's bureaucratic organizational culture that affects trust and employee job satisfaction. According to the 2014 FEVS Engagement Index, HUD ranked 35 amongst 37 government-wide agencies. Results revealed, over time, HUD has been subject to challenges closely related to employees' lack of trust in the department's ability to manage more effectively. The organizations' bureaucratic culture has negatively influenced employee job satisfaction and workplace morale.

Research studies have proven that job satisfaction does not occur in isolation. Isolation has dependent variables based on an organization's structure, working conditions, size, pay, and leadership, which constitutes organizational climate (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1974; Kerego & Muthupha, 1997; Peterson, 1995; Schneider & Snyder, 1975; Sempane et al., 2002). As a result of years of disregard, there are entrenched cultural norms and biases that have manifested within the HUD's organizational structure. Many of these norms are influence by individual values and behaviors that stimulate the climate while creating an environment that fosters mistrust.

According to Dansereau, Cashman, and Graen (1973), the theory of *leader-member exchange* investigates consequences linked to trust. Leader-member exchange (LMX) offers a

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distinguished leadership theory focused on dyadic relationships between a leader and member (Dansereau et al., 1973; Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975). This theory suggests high levels of mutual influence and the responsibility between superiors and subordinates, which emphasize the need for positive relationships. Such influences insist results based on positive outcomes consistent upon employee job satisfaction, loyalty, low turnover rates, and higher subordinate performance (House & Aditya, 1997). Research implied levels of high-quality leader-member exchange produced positive performance evaluations. Leader-member exchange possesses higher frequencies of promotions, commitment, better attitudes, attention, and support from the leader as well as faster career progress (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993).

Bureaucratic organizations consist of layers of management that is considered as one of the most impersonal places to work. HUD's organizational challenges hamper its ability to effectively carry out its mission as referenced in (U.S. Government Accountability Office, 2013). Previous studies contend that the agency's decline is in part associated with HUD's bureaucratic organizational structure. Typically, this structure creates internal constraints reflective of trust, which in turn has effects on employee job satisfaction. Many of

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the challenges are subject to overall agency risk of sustainability associated with investing in the agency's human capital. Other challenges present a risk to the agency and are inherent as a result of different leadership styles. There are contributing risks factors that often accompany a top-down decision-making process, communication, and the ability to remedy internal behaviors resistant to change, which in turn stifle organizational growth and can negatively impact HUD's overall mission.

Statement of the Purpose

Federal agencies have a tendency to possess mixed cultures due to its bureaucratic organizational structure embedded from centuries of traditions. HUD's organizational culture is a result of age-old norms fostered through mistrust. This study explores the effectiveness of survey results in measuring how culture impacts trust and employee job satisfaction. The purpose of this research analyzes the relationship between the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) factors and its effect on trust and employee job satisfaction. FEVS factors are influencers that correlate with the literature sources and are identifiable through its relation to the survey questions.

Significance of the Study

Researchers assert that mutual trust within organizations places higher levels of value on job satisfaction because of

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cohesive relationships between managers and employees. The significance of this research adds to the body of knowledge and studies related to trust and job satisfaction, which confirms the benefits of a strong organizational culture. A strong organizational culture provides elements that identify a work community that fosters a sense of uniqueness and a connection of its members within the organization. There is a general belief that managers either possess capabilities, which positively or negatively affect relationships that foster trust. This study further supports the importance fostering strong employee relations while strengthening leadership capabilities that identify internal strengths and challenges, while sustaining organizational viability.

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework was derived from public management researchers of the OPM, peer-reviewed journals, previous research of Callaway (2006), and other research studies that explore bureaucratic culture within the federal government, organizational trust, and job satisfaction. In the effort to explore systemic culture norms, there must be an understanding of varying leadership styles and internal situations that place constraints on departmental functions. The core of this research and analytical assessment revolves around 10 studies related to job satisfaction and bureaucracy within federal

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agencies. The focus exists upon the reliability of maintaining an organizations' human capital while developing the leader-member exchange that is fostered through relational leadership. The utilization of the leader-member exchange has the capability of transforming culture norms that have the ability to create cohesive work environments. The philosophy behind relational leaders' places a high reliability upon building trust reflective of the organization's values.

Department subcultures are contributors to employee engagement challenges between management and non-management employees that have resulted in the historical decline of department relationships. These contributors are determined based upon responses regarding engagement practices. Over the past 3 years, trending survey results reflect challenges closely related to employee engagement (U.S. Office of Personnel Management [OPM], 2014). However, survey results depict presumptions of mistrust developed due to a bureaucratic culture and agency boundaries.

The 2013 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) results included comparisons to past survey results that highlight areas that either improved or declined. The results represent a glimpse of the perception of the agency's organizational climate. The survey captures multiple perceptions that provide delineations of strengths, challenges, items to celebrate, and

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caution items. The survey data adjusts for differences in respondent characteristics and the population surveyed. There are 98 survey questions. The questions are divided into categories that consist of leadership abilities, performance culture, knowledge management, talent management, and job satisfaction. The focus of my analysis will closely examine survey results of the top 10 positive and negative results that represent survey response items that increased and decreased the most. In short, if survey responses increased with positive results, this indicated agency success; however, the decrease in positive responses indicates areas requiring change. The survey results have a margin of error of plus or minus of one percent. Survey results reflective of HUD's positive image declined during the period of 2012, 2013, and 2014. Significant declines in percentages over a 3-year period categorized as "caution items." Caution items are questions that depict best place to work, organizational satisfaction, accomplishing the mission, and employees' satisfaction with pay. The most startling finding was in the area known as "Items to Celebrate," where the results revealed HUD had no items that met the specific criteria over a 3-year period. At a glance, these results reveal challenges that affect overall satisfaction.

Ideally, the focus and mission must realign organizational values by changing the perception of HUD's leadership.

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Developing strategies for changing the perception is the catalyst for change while simultaneously operating in transparency. According to Northouse (2013),

Fiedler's contingency theory suggests situations characterized in terms of three factors: leader- member relations, task structure, and position power. Leader-member relations consist of the group atmosphere and the degree of confidence, loyalty, and attraction that followers feel for their leader. (p. 172)

Northouse (2013) explained that a group atmosphere that is positive and subordinates trust one another and get along with management, the leader and employee relations are defined as good. While, an atmosphere that exhibits unfriendliness and friction within the group, the leader-member relationships are generally poor (Northouse, 2013). If positive exchange is accomplished, employees will feel a sense of assurance valued and part of the overall success of the agency (Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998).

Adler and Bartholomew (1992) suggested development through five cross-cultural competencies. Adler and Bartholomew (1992) explained,

First, leaders need to understand the business, political and cultural environments worldwide. Second, they need to learn the perspectives, tastes, trends, and technologies of many other cultures. Third, they need to be able to work simultaneously with people from many cultures. Fourth, leaders must be able to adapt to living and communicating in other cultures. Fifth, they need to learn to relate to people from other cultures from a position of equality rather than cultural superiority. (p. 53)

Trust. Trust is a human action that reveals individual characteristics prone to suspicions of presumptive trust. The three characteristics identified through trust demonstrate integrity, benevolence, and individual abilities (Lewicki et al., 1998). These characteristics are displayed by listening to employee concerns, being empathic, and showing genuine interest in meeting needs of the employee. Presumptive trust is a general safety mechanism by which individuals are reluctant in trusting others. The presumptions are based on experiences that demonstrate areas where trust has been misused. In this instance, individuals become more suspicious of others based on previous events that cause questions of motives and agendas. A trusting environment encourages taking risks, facilitates information-sharing, trusts more effectively, and enhances productivity (Lewicki et al., 2003).

The concept for advocating organizational change relies partially on building cohesive relationships and developing influential leaders. Lencioni (2002) suggested teams who lack trust tend to waste an enormous amount of time when attempting to manage their behaviors and interactions. They often display their dislike of attending team meetings and are simply hesitant of taking risks in asking for assistance from others. As a result, their perception on distrusting teams is typically low, and unwanted turnover is high (Lencioni, 2002). Members of

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great teams improve relationships by holding its team members accountable, which demonstrates the necessity for one another. They require high expectations from its members and their performance. Lencioni (2002) referred to a positive approach toward developing trust amongst leaders, peers, and teams. The positive approach exhibits behaviors of cohesive teams that include:

- Trust must exist between one another
- Engage in ideas with unfiltered conflict
- Commit to plans of actions and decisions
- Hold subordinates accountable
- Focus on collective results and achievements

This positive approach offers assistance to leaders in fostering trusting relationships that create a certain level of satisfaction with the environment that eliminates barriers of trust. Ultimately, this approach reinforces intrinsic values, integrity, and commitment that have the ability to alleviate challenges within an organization.

In Five Dysfunctions of a Team, Lencioni (2002) identified five dysfunctions of a team, which is depicted in (see Figure 1). The figure depicts five levels and the stages of overcoming common pitfalls. The pitfalls are interrelated, and the dimensions of each level can significantly hamper the success of

a team. This framework design is geared more for the development of executives; however, is highly effective for managers and employees at various levels, particularly in military and government organizations. The author provided suggestions for overcoming dysfunctions that consist of acknowledged, identified, and overcome in stages. Lencioni (2002) also provided suggestions for addressing dysfunctions that consist of acknowledged, identified, and overcome in stages.

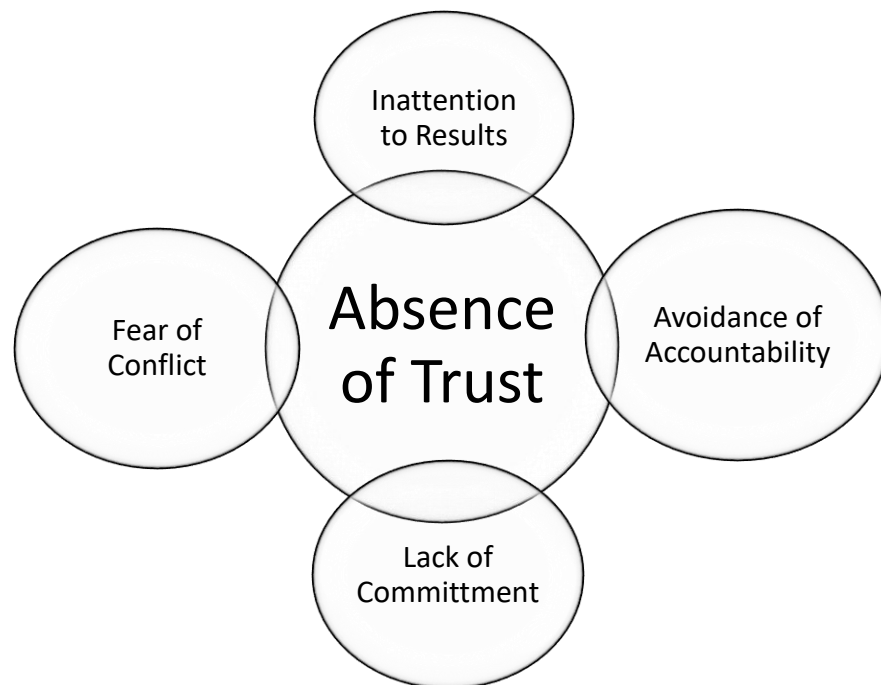


Figure 1. Five dysfunctions of a team.

Job satisfaction. Hoppock's (1935) seminal framework suggested the premise that defines employee job satisfaction in terms of psychological, physiological, and environmental attributes. Hoppock (1935) offered that an individual who is

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satisfied in his or her work setting is normally content in his or her work life. Otherwise, job satisfaction presupposes that the individual is physically and mentally capable of performing work tasks without distress or fatigue. Job satisfaction is contingent on the environment, which allows the psychological and physiological attributes to emerge if there is some distress. An employee may demonstrate dissatisfaction if his or her environmental surroundings attributed to a certain level of perceived tolerance. Individual's whose tolerance level falls below a given threshold has the potential of experiencing negative effects of employee job satisfaction.

Research Questions

Research questions are as follows:

- RQ 1. Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction?

Hypothesis related to research question (RQ1)

None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction.

Alternative related to research question (RQ1)

At least one of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors is related to the employee's level of job satisfaction.

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- RQ 2. Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors, if any, are related to the employee's level organizational trust?

Hypothesis related to research question (RQ2)

None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to organizational trust.

Alternative related to research question (RQ2)

At least one of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors is related to organizational trust.

- RQ 3. Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction after controlling for employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.)?

Hypothesis related to research question (RQ3)

None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction after controlling the employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.)

Alternative related to research question (RQ3)

At least one of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction after controlling the employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.).

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- RQ 4. Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of organizational trust after controlling for employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.)?

Hypothesis related to research question (RQ3)

None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to organizational trust after controlling the employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.)

Alternative related to research question (RQ3)

At least one of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to organizational trust after controlling the employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.).

Limitations of the Study

This study is limited to the number of participants who voluntarily participate in the annual Federal Employee Viewpoint Surveys administered through the Office of Personnel Management. The U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development 2014 FEVS Engagement Index ranked HUD at 35 amongst 37 government-wide agencies. Although the agency's overall rankings have declined, factors regarding influencing change through the sole use of

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FEVS may present further challenges. Further limitations include

1. The number of survey respondents does not provide a clear representation of HUD's entire population (employees).
2. Employee experiencing personnel challenges such as: (grievances, litigation proceedings, and poor performing employees, etc.) outside influences may cause employees to respond negatively to survey questions.
3. The validity of the survey instrument clearly depicts the organizational climate.
4. The researcher is an employee supervisor at HUD and cannot impose opinions represented through official duties.

Assumptions of the Study

The assumptions to this study pertain specifically to the validity and effectiveness of FEVS.

1. Does FEVS positively influence organizational change?
2. HUD organizational culture and trust challenges impede employee job satisfaction.
3. Tenured employees possess a sense of entitlement based upon their extended years of services.

Definition of Terms

The study uses specific terms. For the purpose of this study, definitions and terms are provided.

Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS). A source of information used in evaluating the success of categories of my work experience, my work unit, my agency, my supervisor/team leader, leadership, my satisfaction, and work/life (Fernandez, Resh, Moldogaziev, & Oberfield, 2015, p. 383).

Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) factors. FEVS factors are influencers that correlate with the literature review and are identifiable through survey questions.

Felder's contingency theory. The theory suggests situations categorized by three factors: task structure, leader member relations, and position power. Leader member relations existent within a group atmosphere and shares a certain degree of loyalty, confidence, and attraction that followers feel toward their leader (Northouse, 2013).

Job satisfaction. A combination of psychological, physiological, and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say "I am satisfied with my job" (Hoppock, 1935, p. 77).

HUD. Another term for the U.S. Department of Housing & Urban Development.

Leader-member exchange. A leadership theory that focuses on the relationships between a leader and member (Dansereau et al., 1973).

Organizational culture. The pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration (Schein, 1984, p. 3).

Relational leadership. Two perspectives of relational leadership: an entity perspective that focuses on identifying attributes of individuals as they engage in interpersonal relationships, and a relational perspective that views leadership as a process of social construction through which certain understandings of leadership come about and are given privileged ontology (Uhl-Bien, 2006, p. 654).

Sequestration. Balanced Budget and Emergency Deficit Control Act of 1985, the President ordered a budgetary resource reduction across the board (GAO, 2013).

Trust. Trust is one's willingness to display a certain vulnerability toward another party (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995).

Trustor. An individual who has the general propensity to trust others (Mayer et al., 1995).

United States Government Accountability Office (GAO). An independent government agency that investigates how the government spends taxpayer dollars.

United States Office of Personnel Management (OPM). An independent federal agency that manages the civil service of the government.

Summary

This study analyzes variables that impact organizational trust and job satisfaction. A strong organizational culture supports the overall health of an organization that provides opportunities for reinforcing intrinsic values within an environment. Analyzing factors that influence outcomes after controlling variable provides an understanding of cause and effect, which has the potential to alleviate challenges and foster organizational change.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

The purpose of this study is to examine variables regarding organizational culture and their relation to trust and job satisfaction within HUD. The review of this literature establishes the basis for examining the relevance and importance of this study in correlation with previous research in determining the significance of this study. The eight sections include (a) history, (b) bureaucratic culture, (c) employee job satisfaction, (d) leader member exchange theory, (e) organizational climate, (f) organizational culture, (g) organizational trust, and (h) relational leadership. The areas of importance include various research and measurements that provide a linear linkage between organizational culture, its effects on trust and employee job satisfaction. The eight sections provide support in determining the importance of this study and the impact of distinctive cultures that affect an organization's overall performance and success.

History

Government has undergone many reforms and has a constant theme throughout the history of the United States government. Government Reform began in the late 19th century, known as the Progressive Era. The progressive era sought to modernize government, strengthen the economy, reform the culture, and rid itself of corruption. Reforms have fostered many changes

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through the years. For decades, scholars have recognized various government initiatives developed to reform the US federal bureaucracy (Park & Joaquin, 2012). Certain reforms have similarities that have a tendency to overlap with many different approaches in the overall attempt of transformation. These reforms focused on 12 substantial and highly visible reforms associated with transforming age-old culture norms and job satisfaction (Kellough & Selden, 2003). Park and Joaquin (2012) explained the United States federal management reforms using various metaphors toward alternating management in government.

Bureaucratic Culture

A corporate culture is defined as a common set of mutual values that is shared between members in a certain structure. There are specific functions within an organization utilized for the following: solving internal managerial problems and making a contribution to improve management in a public body (Claver, Llopis, Gasco, Hipolito, & Conca, 1999). However, a bureaucratic culture is a hierarchical organizational structure with multiple levels, where authorities and general responsibilities are disseminated to departments. This type of organizational structure functions through either a central or a main administration. Weber's (1979) theory of bureaucracy provided specialization of the workforce, the merit system,

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standardized principles, and structure and hierarchy in the workplace. "The fundamental premise of the theory is that bureaucratic officials, like all other agents in the society, are significant though not solely motivated by their self-interest" (Downs, 1966, p. 2). Weber (1979) focused on the idea that a bureaucracy differs from a traditional managerial organization because employee activities based upon promotions, merit, and performance rather than measurable qualities.

According to Weber (1979), characteristics of bureaucracy in specific cultures appear to be negative within public administration and operate in a manner of inefficiency, inflexibility, and irresponsibility. Bureaucracies in large organizations are predictable and accountable, but the character traits make presenting change resistant. Weber (1979) found that bureaucratic characteristics are classified as subcultures within hierarchical organizational structures. These classifications of subcultures are characteristics reached through many aspects of modern life. Bureaucracies not only exist in public agencies but within larger private organizations, which are more complex structurally. A bureaucratic culture depicts negative characteristics that are characterized as highly inefficient and inflexible and possesses irresponsible management techniques. At this stage, it is difficult to confirm categorically whether a bureaucratic

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culture is negative. Although implications allude to a bureaucratic culture having a negative connotation in a work environment, there is the appearance of conformism amongst employees and a higher authority on the members of management.

Weber (1979) offered that leaders and employees in most cases gravitate to this type of culture because it offers the perception of comfort, which threatens the notion of change and its stability. Research shared by Claver et al. (1999) argued that a bureaucratic culture is considered:

Cultural typology, which is widespread among many public agencies, described in plenty of ways, depending on the specific traits, which are highly emphasized. Thus, Feldman (1985) called it culture of conformity, Adams and Ingersoll (1990) termed it culture of technical rationality, for Ban (1995) it is a culture of control, and Deal and Kennedy (1982) defined it as a culture of process. All these labels help us to have a general notion of the distinctive features of this classification; however, we would like to delimit further its specific characteristics. (p. 458)

Claver et al. (1999), feature of a bureaucratic culture has tendencies that include management styles consisting of authoritarian style and a great level of control, but provides minimal communication, a top-down leadership style, and repetitive and centralized decision-making. In addition, a bureaucratic culture is usually in need of stability and is reluctant to either begin innovative processes or change. The composition of a bureaucratic culture plays a major role in the assembly of public policy that applies to program rules (Lipsky,

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1980; Prottas, 1977). To understand public policy, it is also important understand the factors involved in bureaucratic behaviors. (Peters & Pierre, 1998). The factors are dominant in understanding bureaucratic behavior that focuses its attention on how multiple organizational layers create constraints on bureaucratic behavior. Another aspect of bureaucratic behavior anticipates ideals by which positive theorists argue that bureaucracies involve attitudes driven by civil servants and their responsiveness of to political pressures (Peters & Pierre, 1998).

The concept of a bureaucratic culture leads to actions of passiveness, mechanisms, and absence of new ideas, which are considered negative organizational traits (Claver et al., 1999). Government bureaucracies pose special problems that influence factors within the government agencies. Four factors of influence involve the following: (a) must answer to competing sources of political authority, (b) must function in a constitutional system that fragments power, (c) are asked to achieve vaguely and competing goals, and (d) lack incentive systems that value efficiency (Weber, 1979). Routine habits that exist in a bureaucratic culture may have effects on the environment, leaving the feeling of safety but forces employee conformity. According to Weber (1979), attempting modifications in routine habits cause employees to function in a mode that

produces anxiety and discomfort. Kim, Pindur, and Reynolds (1995), described cultural change as a process that involves various degrees of change that require modification in operational and management practices, which can present a certain level of difficulty in facilitating change in public agencies.

Scholars have argued that refocusing attention on a bureaucratic task and processing will, in turn, provide a behavioral approach to understanding bureaucratic organizations (Jones 2003; Workman, Jones, & Jochim, 2010). Johnson and Duberley's (2011) theory of anomie assumes that people think and act subjectively toward meanings and values, which conjoins the processes of social influences and shared culture that normatively regulate both the means to the ends of human behavior. Anomie theory has a resonance the contemporary management discourse (Johnson & Duberley, 2011). Conditions of Durkheim's theory examines the processes developed through converges of moral norms and patterns of social interactions (Johnson & Duberley, 2011).

According to Bolin and Harenstam (2008), characterizations of a bureaucratic organization have shifted as a result of earlier studies measured in comparison to Weber's (1979) empirical study of organizations and bureaucratic characteristics. Another rationale behind the bureaucratic

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theory explains societal change and servicing consequences that exist in larger labor markets (Bolin & Harenstam, 2008). The principles of bureaucracy are specializations and have dimensions within an organizational structure that are considered a process-oriented integration (Bolin & Harenstam, 2008). Additional observations within the dimensions of an organizational structure have societal changes that also affect the environment. Empirical studies performed on bureaucratic organizations reference the existence of the lack of clarity within process integration. A lack of clarity in many contemporary organizations is often characterized as a consequence associated with this particular organizational structure (Bolin & Harenstam, 2008).

In the 1980s, New Public Management (NPM) reforms placed emphasis on values of individuality and economic consistency (King & Stivers, 1998). "NPM is known for systems and cultures of productivity improvement, reinvention, process re-engineering, entrepreneurial leadership, privatization, and performance measurement" (King & Stivers, 1998, p. 524). The concept was surrounding Child (2005) who described the significance of control and the process that follows predictable levels and performance outcomes. "Within the bureaucracy, performance is controlled by formalized rules and standardization of how tasks should be performed" (Bolin &

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Harenstam, 2008, p. 546). NPM offers a concept that shifts in "how we think about the role of public administrators, the nature of the profession, and how and why we do what we do" (Denhardt & Denhardt, 2000, p. 550). In their study, King and Stivers (1998) wrote that citizens as taxpayers and consumers lead "people to evaluate government according to what each receives rather than what the community as a whole receives" (p. 257). The key elements of NPM vary in concept and link to reform values associated with (a) performance and results values, (b) customer and market-oriented values (decentralization, privatization, and downsizing), and (c) strategy and goal-oriented values associated with workforce management (King & Stivers, 1998).

Bolin and Harenstam (2008) conducted a study that focused on data collected from 90 workplaces between the years 2000 and 2003 that investigated the association between risk factors in a bureaucratic organization. Bolin and Harenstam (2008) highlight dimensions of organizational norms and values defined through internalization criteria and approaches used to measure the internal structure. Interview questions related to the study were driven by the production process, personnel and power structure, and control systems (Bolin & Harenstam, 2008). The dimensions measured the differentiations that exist in

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functional flexibility and concerns regarding power structure.

Bolin and Harenstam (2008) results indicated:

In total, 16 items constructed the eight indices measuring the three main dimensions of the organizational structure. The response alternatives ranged from 1= low to 3= high. Two of the 16 questions had only two responses alternatives 1= no or two= yes. The correlation was used to investigate the correlation be the original items. However, as the indices were theoretically constructed, variables with low correlations were kept in the indices. Frequencies of the original questions from which the eight indices were derived. (p. 549)

The findings revealed questions concerning individual responsibility resulted in a degree of external power, which influenced the centralized power structure. The power structure consists of performance controls executed by top management (Bolin & Harenstam, 2008). The bureaucratic technique emphasizes mechanisms that educate bureaucratic communities in the benefits of commitment and perpetuation. The purpose and benefits of techniques present economic activities that perpetuate cultural patterns in bureaucratic organizations. Seemingly, the mechanism and idea spark a movement of rebellions that are significant with the characteristic of changing organizational structure (Bolin & Harenstam, 2008).

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has become a widespread focus among some researchers; the concept of job satisfaction has generated vast interest among social scientists who are concerned with the

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problems that influence a work environment (Kalleberg, 1977). Weiss (2002) defined job satisfaction as a reaction to the perception of one's job that has the potential to cause either pleasure or disdain. Reaction assessments are determined based on the work environment that focuses on demands, social interactions, and expectations (Ivancevich & Donnelly, 1976). Research theories related to job satisfaction found that characteristics of satisfaction comprised of four categories: social influence, cognitive judgment theories, dispositional, and affect theories.

Historically, theories aligned with cognitive judgment relate to theoretical positions of job satisfaction that affect recent theories. The cognitive judgment approach relates to the stability of job satisfaction and factors associated with work attitudes. Cognitive judgment describes changes that occur within an environmental, which measures satisfaction and affective reactions that fluctuate on a daily basis (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) shared,

Within the cognitive judgment approach a dimensional structure for satisfaction has evolved which focuses on the attributes or features of the environment. This is the distinction generally made between overall and facet satisfaction and it is a natural result of a feature evaluation model of work attitudes. (p. 5)

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) referenced the social influences approach that recognized as social information processing theory

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(SIP). This basis of SIP in the social environment has both directly and indirectly influenced judgments about work. Direct influence is related to overall attitudes and indirect influences are related to perceptions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Dispositional theories focus on characteristics in the personality that influence satisfaction. According to Weiss and Cropanzano (1996), an individual's job satisfaction "reflects his or her general tendency to feel good or bad about all aspects of life and this general tendency is independent of the specific nature of the job, its positive or negative features" (p. 7). Weiss and Merlo (2015) found evidence an individuals' tendencies for satisfaction that shows stability in a job develops over time, which correlate to factors that establish personality constructs that influence perception. Lastly, affective theories influence new interests that affect emotions and moods. Weiss and Merlo (2015) discussed the importance how discrete affective experiences that drive behaviors that affect attitudes.

Widely tested theories surrounding job satisfaction are determinants that utilize two-factor variables characterized as structural determinants, which are direct reflections of attitudes of workers in the workplace. "It appears that there is little evidence in the available literature that employee's attitudes of the type usually measured in morale surveys bear

any simple - or for that matter, appreciable - relationship to performance on the job" (Weiss & Merlo, 2015, p. 835). In previous research, many concepts surrounding the language generated confusion that implied parts associated with relationships and various attitudes. Weiss and Merlo examined individual beliefs and attitudes that may propose greater influences that can impact overall evaluations of jobs and various tasks in the workplace. However, the study suggested that theoretical positions understood as differences present emphasis on attitude rather than incompatibility of individual beliefs (Weiss & Merlo, 2015).

In recent years, job satisfaction has attracted cross-national and intercultural researchers. Recent studies focus on cross-national variances within individual stages of job satisfaction levels, and show remarkable differences (e.g., Jones & Sloane, 2009; Llorente & Macias, 2005; Pichler & Wallace, 2009; Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000). This study contributed to the literature by offering a systematic and comprehensive conceptual framework into the specific effects which different cultural facets that correlate among job characteristics and job satisfaction. Jones and Sloan (2009) found the study offered explanations to the importance of situational job characteristics to job satisfaction, which might

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vary between different cultural environments. According to Ellickson and Logsdon (2002),

Regardless of the theoretical approach used to study job satisfaction, most studies have identified at least two general categories of antecedent variables associated with job satisfaction: environmental factors and personal characteristics. Environmental antecedents of job satisfaction pertain to factors associated with work practices or work environment while personal factors focus on individual attributes and characteristics. (p. 343)

Environmental antecedents described efforts that explain job satisfaction, which provide identifications of some important environmental factors. There is an abundance of literature linked to antecedents, which are described as extrinsic rewards. To increase job satisfaction, extrinsic rewards offer promotional opportunities and the potential for pay to increase (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2002). The impact hinges on the benefits related to job satisfaction, which suggest positive relationships that must exist within an environment (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2002). Extrinsic rewards are characterized by "investments" that organizations practice to support and reinforce relations between managers and their employees (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2002).

Romzek (1990) refers to "investments" in the public sector as a focus that provides various benefits that involve opportunities for career advancement, salaries, and performance bonuses (p. 376). Variables in the study explained influences

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within the variations of job satisfaction amongst government employees. The research data included surveys of over 1,200 full-time employees. Among the study group participants, the research tested environmental influences of 11 variables and three factors within demographic variations of job satisfaction (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2002). The overall analysis revealed environmental factors related to supervisory relationships, promotional opportunities, benefits, training resources, performance appraisals, equipment and workload that are all significantly relate to fostering positive relationships that impact job satisfaction (Ellickson & Logsdon 2002).

Ellickson and Logsdon's (2002) study outlined administration reforms that describe engagement efforts involving various primary values. Administration values evolve through reoccurring processes in competing values (Kaufman, 1956) and supplement new values per administration (Klingner, 1998). Madlock (2008) wrote, "the most common factors leading to worker stress and dissatisfactions are those emanating from the nature of the job itself within which interpersonal relationships between employees and supervisors take place" (p. 65). According to Madlock (2008),

The literature reviewed for the study appears to support the notion that communication between employees and supervisors has an influence on the employee job satisfaction. Based on the research review and the gap in prior research relevant to the influence that supervisor

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communicator competence, task leadership style has on employee job and communication satisfaction. (p. 66)

According to Locke (1976), job satisfaction, organizational effectiveness, and provisions of organizational change are important factors within the government structure and employees who have experienced administrative reforms. Administrative reforms are classified by dominant values consistent in presidential administrations whose organizational values are identified to reflect their responsiveness, effectiveness, and performance in governing policy initiatives for United States (Locke, 1976). Locke (1976) referenced administrations from Jimmy Carter through George W. Bush Jr., detailing each presidency's administrative intent and the major implementations established platforms that focused primarily performance and labor management. Although administrative reforms were intended to improve overall efficiency and organizational changes, none focused on developing values associated with job satisfaction. Locke defined job satisfaction as the "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (Locke, 1976, p. 1300) or "how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs" (Spector, 1997, p. 2). Lawler (1981) argued, "50 percent or more employees are dissatisfied with pay... there is a continual 'noise' level about its adequacy and equity" (p. 116).

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According to Locke (1976), job satisfaction is a key determinant that contributes to the government's organizational performance, which employee job satisfaction may influence interaction with customers and customer satisfaction (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1994; Rucci, Kirn, & Quinn, 1998). Ting (1997) stated that federal employee's job satisfaction is based variables within the job characteristics that affected satisfaction with pay, promotional opportunities, task significance, and utilization of skills. Organizational characteristics as stated in Ting's research entails characteristics that ultimately affect an employee's commitment and relationships between supervisors and coworkers. The correlation is known as an interrelationship connecting staff and their work environment (Wright & Davis, 2003). This type of satisfaction impacts internal rewards that affect the way employees maximize skills, work environment, experiences obtained from coworkers, and competent supervisors who engender personal relationships, promotion opportunities, and job security (Durst & DeSantis, 1997).

In summary, research has uncovered organization barriers that may impact culture that have positive influences on employee job satisfaction (Taber & Seashore, 1975). However, Sabri, Ilyas, and Amjad (2011) contend that some components of organizational culture may not present a positive connotation

toward job satisfaction. Navaie-Waliser, Lincoln, Karutri, and Resich (2004) concluded, "there is no single measure to find out the level of job satisfaction and the impact of the organizational culture on the job satisfaction of the employees" (p. 7).

Leader-Member Exchange

Over the past 25 years, research related to Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) was highly based upon characteristics that diminish high turnover rates, increase positive performance evaluations, expand the level of organizational commitment, improve attitudes on the job, and cultivate support of the leaders (Liden et al., 1993; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). According to Dansereau et al. (1975), leader-member exchange theory is closely related to the social exchange theory, which highlights interactions among leaders and followers. However, LMX is rather broad in terms of details specific to leader behavior, which establishes strong relationships. It suggests that attending to employees who have the potential to create and maintain strong partnerships (Bodie, 2012; Steil & Bommelje, 2004). The foundational concept of LMX is subject to that authority of the supervisee or worker (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975).

The relationship between supervisor and employees is crucial in maintaining workplace balance and high-quality

relationships, which fosters a healthy work environment (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Fostering a healthy environment promotes change and strengthens the overall health of an organization that is generated by adopting and implementing a leadership style conducive to changing employee perceptions and building new relationships. In the past, many discussions regarding leadership and trust have been associated with fields that coexist within communities, which consist of religion, philosophy, and psychology. These communities are all intertwined with the concept of LMX and trust. "Theories related to leadership and trust has developed independently, although there is significant overlap in the concerns and the effect of each component" (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000, p. 227). Leadership research argued that LMX represents characteristic of leader behaviors and their individual traits that lend toward the leader-member exchange that fosters job satisfaction built through trust. Brower et al. (2000) offered the following:

The trust literature can be used to inform us about relational leadership by helping to clarify some of the difficulties that have plagued the LMX literature. Also, the LMX literature serves to inform the field about trust in the hierarchical relationships. (p. 228)

Research studies examined vital roles that supervisors play within social services in organizations. Researchers found that effective supervision contributes to positive relationships

among workers. Positive outcomes are created through relationships that equate to job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and worker retention (Abu-Bader, 1998; Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2003; Landsman, 2001; Mor Barak, Travis, Pyun, & Xie, 2009). Previous research associated with the LMX theory indicated that effective supervision could buffer the negative effects and human service organizations (Mor Barak et al., 2009).

Mor Barak et al. (2009) submits the conceptual model (see Figure 2) to depict dimensions of outcomes that are considered beneficial to the leader member relationship. The purpose of the model is to foster the exchange of beneficial outcomes and limits detrimental outcomes. Three dimensions emerge from a systematic review of the literature that consists of (a) supervisory interpersonal interaction, (b) social and emotional supervisory support, and (c) task assignment support. "These dimensions are conceptualized here as the antecedents to beneficial and detrimental outcomes for workers" (Mor Barak et al., 2009, p. 5). Mor Barak et al. (2009) reported,

The model, as it stands, describes how effective leadership relationships develop between dyadic "partners" in and between organizations (e.g., leaders and followers, team members and teammates, employees and their competence networks, joint venture partners, and supplier networks). This type of leadership occurs when relationships are generated based on incremental influences (Katz & Kahn, 1978) that are necessities for effective leadership. (p. 225)

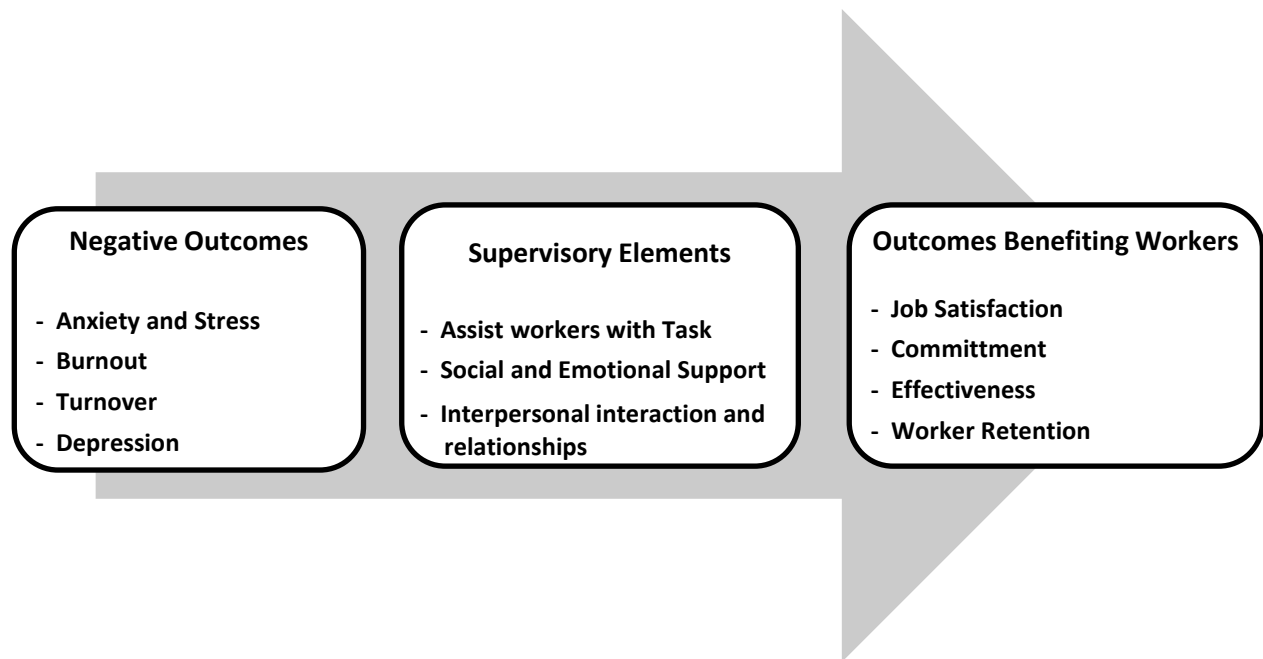


Figure 2. Conceptual model.

Cook (1977) explained the social exchange theory as ways in which an individual thinks about the relationship, which creates a balance between the leader-member and their overall exchange. The theory implies that the supervisor's exchange with workers is beneficial to the worker who will reciprocate positive emotions toward the supervisor (Cook, 1977). The study examined how workers respond in setting where satisfaction provides more effort toward work. "For example, if the exchange is deemed to be beneficial, a worker's attitudes toward work may improve (i.e., greater job satisfaction or organization commitment) and there may be declines in intention to leave or in turnover" (Cook, 1977, p. 8).

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According to Hunt and Dodge (2000), LMX theory is a predominant approach to relationships in leadership. Although the leader member exchange approach offers the notion of valuing relationships, the concept explains a theoretical depiction of how relationships are formed and the likelihood of reaching the "evolution of concept" stage of Reichert and Schneider's framework (Hunt & Dodge, 2000, p. 672).

Previous studies suggested that supervisors who engage and interact more with employees are subject to encounters deemed beneficial as they produce various outcomes. Beneficial outcomes produce employee retention, empowerment, and organizational citizenship behaviors. Curry, McCarragher, and Dellmann-Jenkins (2005) contended that when supervisors' help employees prepare for specific training and workshops preceding discussions with employees regarding their individual learning needs, employees are more likely to stay (e.g., retention) rather than an employee who receives no pre-counseling from his or her supervisor. According to Cearley (2004), changing an employee's perception regarding retention is critical and fosters positive engagement with the supervisor. If an employee receives individual counseling by their supervisor, the encounter is inclined to provide employees' with a sense of being empowered (Cook, 1977).

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According to Cohen and Laufer (1999), LMX research examined the outcomes and benefits related to job satisfaction, leader-member relationships, and its relation to an employee's self-assessment of his or her professional competencies. Abu-Bader (1998) and Cole (2004) found that quality supervision positively associates with levels of job satisfaction. Quality supervision and satisfaction in the workplace are closely related to an employees' sense of personal accomplishments (Webster & Hackett, 1999). "Several studies on LMX examine the quality of the working relationship between a supervisor and a supervisee" (Cook, 1977, p. 11). According to Cook (1977), these studies link the relationship concerning positive LMX and beneficial outcomes for employees (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Liden et al., 1993). For example, research indicated that LMX is related positive organizational citizenship and behavior (Hopkins, 2002) that creates a sense of empowerment (Wallach & Mueller, 2006). Relational interactions between the leader-member are shown to link positive outcomes that increase commitment, performance, and job satisfaction (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Empirical research in the context of organizational leadership suggest that listening is a skill crucial to the relationship between the supervisor and employee that can affect other work-related attitudes (Ellinger, Ellinger, & Keller, 2003) and anticipated outcomes linked to individual behavior

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(Lloyd, Boer, Keller, & Voelpel, 2014; Stine, Thompson, & Cusella, 1995). The study of Cook (1977) introduces dialog that advances empathetic listening between the leader and employee. Specifically, the focus integrates listening and LMX in a holistic model that is substantiated by theoretical aspects that foster powerful relationships between leaders and their followers (Cook, 1977). The theory establishes the validity and criteria of how to distinguish the listening skill as a quality in context to the relationship associated to work-related variables (Cook, 1977). The analysis of reliability links components of discriminant, convergent, and predictive validity that intends to enhance relations to improve listening between the leader and the follower (Cook, 1977).

The components of inherent constructs of LMX is wide-ranging and supports various elements, which foster responsiveness and consideration, leaves little chance that improved performance and a positive perception creates strong relationships (Cook, 1977). However, the theory does not stipulate which behavior supports a stronger bond between the leader and follower. Bass and Avolio (1994) considered listening as a means for actively demonstrating follower's acceptance of their opinions and suggestions as part of the relationship. Acceptance is an element toward increasing sustainable relationships between the leader and follower.

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Listening facilitates mutual trust and develops understanding (Lloyd, Boer, Kluger, & Voelpel, 2014; Stine et al., 1995), the basis is reliant on productive partnership and strong relationships.

In particular, relationship concerns become apparent, leaders and followers focus on characteristics that identify what scenarios promote an anticipated outcome. In contrast, the example list, in this case, the direction of causation introduces leadership as the dependent variable. The study provides a narrow view of utilizing experimental designs and longitudinal domain toward leadership approaches (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The domains of leadership are provided in Figure 3. The domain of leadership provides narratives that integrate concepts of the relationship-based approach toward leadership. This theory is based upon the use of applicable leadership and the process that occurs when the relationship between leaders and followers is strengthened (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

According to Volmer, Niessen, Spurk, Linz, and Abele (2011), cross-sectional results propose strong bidirectional overtones toward job satisfaction and the exchange amongst leaders and members. Volmer et al. suggested that the similarities between the two theories of job satisfaction and LMX advocate cross-sectional exhibits:

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The longitudinal results yield a significant effect over time from LMX to job satisfaction and a significant and equally strong effect from job satisfaction to LMX. This study suggests that people can actively shape their environment at work and that they should be encouraged to take responsibility for their own careers, thereby constructing their own workplace outcomes. (p. 526)

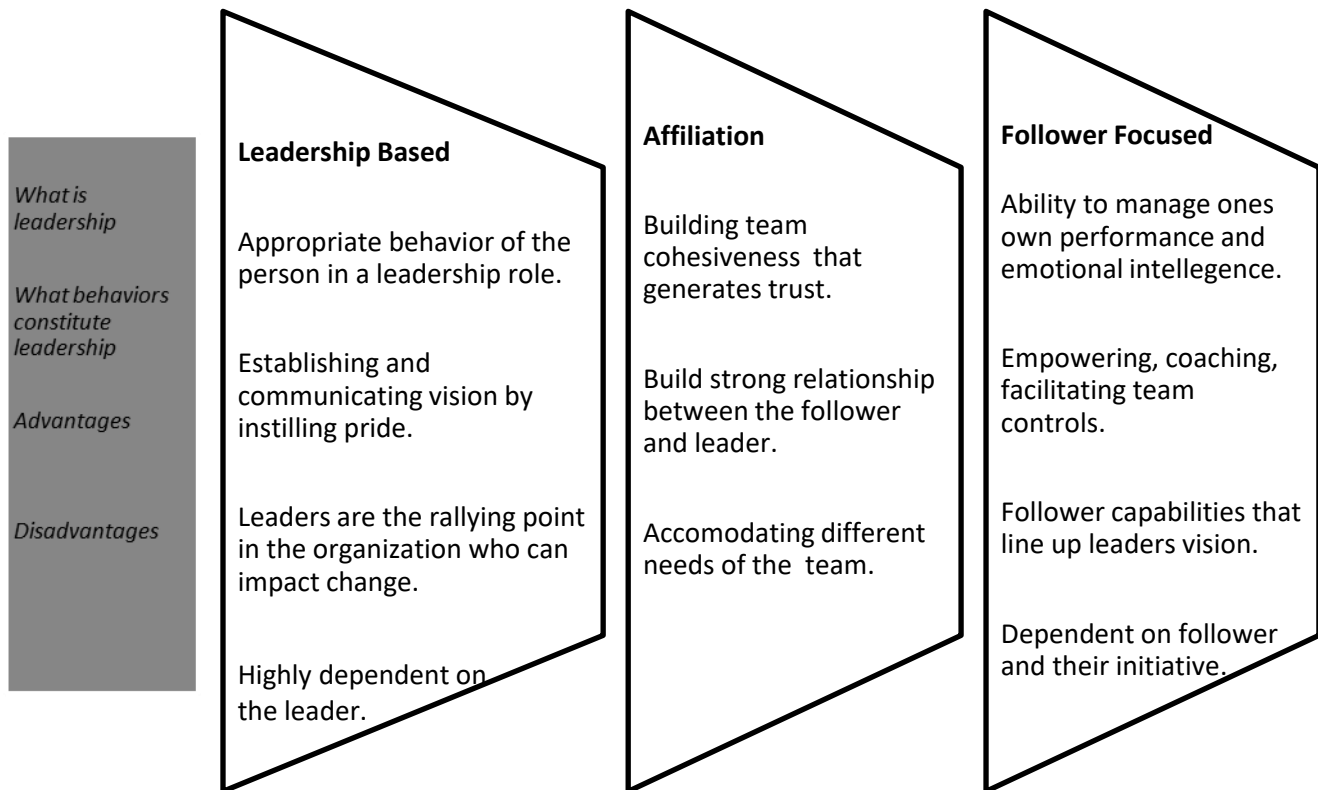


Figure 3. Three domain approaches to effective leadership.

The LMX relationship endows a high quality of resources for employees with a number of privileges that consist of “(intrinsic: e.g. empowerment, decision-influence; extrinsic: e.g. salary progress, advancement) and positive socio-emotional experiences” (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005, p. 525), is linked to job satisfaction. Similarities exist within job satisfaction

and the results displayed through the reality of what to consider and what is expected (Locke, 1976), members are at an advantage and considered superior in contrast to other members not selected as part of the group. Consequently, this increasingly impresses the work design models as suggested by LMX and it is associated with job satisfaction (Volmer et al., 2011). Volmer et al. referenced a more realistic point of view with common effects to both LMX and job satisfaction. This view is considered practical due to interventions that can cause a downward spiral, which, as a result, generates low job satisfaction and is immediately interrupted in the effort to prevent any negative outcomes (Volmer et al., 2011).

In addition, LMX has positive effects on job satisfaction and prompt both an upward and downward progressive spiral. Cunliffe (2010) emphasized the beliefs that focus on the evolution of relationships and its effects on leadership; the focus brings a perspective abstracting elements of leadership. Dachler and Hosking (1995) referenced LMX as a relational foundation, which offers the following:

There are questions surrounding the social aspect involving the LMX process and understanding its association to leadership. Cunliffe (2010) argues that relational leadership requires a relational ontology, which means going back to the fundamental philosophical issue of understanding social experience as intersubjective and leadership as a way of being-in-relation-to-others. (p. 1430)

In summary, there is compelling support for positive cross-sectional job satisfaction and its association with LMX. The association related to LMX and job satisfaction is mainly reciprocal (Volmer et al., 2011), it has been publicized that job satisfaction is interrelated in providing numerous positive outcomes (Judge & Klinger, 2008; Warr, 1999). Volmer et al. (2011) cited that empirical studies are limited that test the parallel connecting job satisfaction and LMX. However, Volmer et al. (2011) provided research toward relationships that lead to speculation regarding the power of LMX relationships.

Organizational Climate

Organizational climate research establishes a popular position in the organizational psychology literature (James & Jones, 1974). Studies indicated a growing awareness of employee attitudes and behaviors that influence organizational performance and outcomes (Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1997). However, many of the conceptual and operational definitions that measure techniques to ensure results are highly diverse and even contradictory (James & Jones, 1974). According to James and Jones,

A representative of the multiple measurement organizational attribute approaches the definition of organizational climate as a set of characteristics that describe an organization. The description distinguishes one organization from other organizations; are relatively enduring over time and influence the behavior of people in the organization. (p. 1096)

Figure 4 provides authors and definitions of organizational climates.

Definitions of Organizational Climate	
Author	Definition
Forehand and Gilmer (1964)	Encompasses their description of organizational climate as a broad-spectrum approach toward attributes, which other authors have referred to as situational components of variance or structure.
Poole (1985)	References as an empiricist substitute for a richer culture and is viewed as a measurable concept.

Figure 4. Definitions of organizational climate.

Forehand and Gilmer's (1964) study reviewed climate organizational literature in an attempt to gain order and direction for its diversity in conceptualizing the approach regarding organizational climate. The study took into consideration the implications of other research and provided recommendations for future organizational climate research (Forehand & Gilmer, 1964). Forehand and Gilmer (1964) suggested individual behavior can affect the organizational climate. Social exchange is a stimulus related to work-related attitudes that its individual members place constraints on the freedom of

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choice regarding behavior, and the reward or punishment process (James & Jones, 1974). Dimensions of an organization's climate have variations, which include the organization's structure, size, the systems complexity, leadership style, and directional goals (James & Jones, 1974).

According to James and Jones (1974), measuring organizational climate duplicates other organization and individual domains that provide rationale in differentiating the effects of climate and the psychological or individual climate. Differentiating and understanding the effects of measuring distinctive practices support individual outcomes recognized as key explanatory variables within an organization's climate. The emphasis and distinction rely on measurements and levels of explanations related to organizational climate Gould-Williams (2007). The rationale associated with previous organizational climate research is differentiated by three categories: Various measurements attribute to the organizational approach and a perceptual individual that is attributed to the approach. These similarities and differences attempt to address some theoretical concerns (Gould-Williams, 2007):

Regard climate as collective attitudes among individuals and makes its members experience the distinction of qualities. Collective attitudes within an internal environment place consideration on the following factors; (a) influences their behavior; and (b) can be described in terms of the values of a particular set of characteristics (or attitudes) of the organization. (p. 1631)

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According to Gould-Williams (2007), a large extent of positive attitudes depends on the employees' perceptions. Their perception affects how the employee feels about the organization and its values that contribute to the climate (Allen, 2003; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 1997). This interpretation is consistent with social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), which assumes exchange generates an awareness and obligation to indebtedness (Gould-Williams, 2007). In the contrast, the exchange theory proposes that HR practices can introduce a positive interaction in relationships between managers and employees. The evidence provided consideration to the needs and concerns of the individual worker (Gould-Williams 2007). Traditionally, organizational climate identifies concerns intended to encourage high exchange amongst relationships that lead to intensified work-related pressures and may reduce quality exchange in the workplace. Gould-Williams (2007) contended that public sector jobs largely consider the paternalistic approach toward management and the well-being of its employees and their concern. Gould-Williams (2007) reference individuals and their work activities exhibit discretionary behavior, which prompts one's willingness to engage. This practice is not recognized within reward systems that encourage engagement. However, engagement promotes

efficient and effective functions in an organization. Dension (1996) found,

The primary epistemological issues framed in the climate literature centered on whether climate was a property of the individual social environment or the interaction of the two, and researchers generally did not question the validity of comparing any of these features of social context. The epistemological critique of positivism that was so central to the early evolution culture research as a prime example of "what not to do" and to resist discussion of areas of integration and overlap, suggesting instead that research on the phenomenon of organizational culture. (p. 632)

In summary, Gould-Williams (2007) highlighted ways that create social exchange and relationships that they developed in organizations that foster satisfaction. Namely, the demonstrations of voluntary actions are the initiation of employing organizational well-being and development (Gould-Williams, 2007). In previous research in this area, the focus utilizes practices supportive suggestions and norms of reciprocity predicated on imposing organizational climate change, which that is beneficial in building relationships.

Organizational Culture

The history of organizational culture is rooted in the early research of organizations and human relations that originated in the 1940s (Hatch & Zilber, 2012). Organizational culture is a concept that became popular in the early 1980s (Hatch & Zilber, 2012). Early on, popularity became more prevalent as a scientist and with practitioners who were

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disillusioned with principles associated with quantitative organizational research (Hatch & Zilber, 2012). Many definitions of culture are reliant on cognitive components that entail individual assumptions, beliefs, and values. Schein (1992) viewed fundamental assumptions as core aspects of organizational culture that establish the following classification of organizational culture:

A pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems. (p. 12)

Expansions of the culture concept also include behaviors and common distinctions between levels within an organizational culture (Kotter & Heskett, 1992). According to Scott (1994), there are coercive pressures that involve categorical processes that encompass monitoring, rule-setting, and sanctioning activities. Normative pressures are comprised of values and norms that "introduce a prescriptive, evaluative, and obligatory dimension into social life" (Scott, 1994, p. 54). Mimetic pressures are derived of "shared conceptions that constitute the nature of social reality and the frames through which meaning is made" (Scott, 1994, p. 57). Hatch & Zilber (2012) wrote the following about organizational culture:

Many of the early proponents of organizational culture assume that a strong, pervasive culture was beneficial to

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all organizations because it fostered motivation, commitment, identity, solidarity, and sameness, which, in turn, facilitated internal integration and coordination. Some, however, noted that a strong culture might be more important for some types of organizations than other organization. (p. 4)

Emphasis on organizational culture over time has shifted from the functional and technical aspects of management quantified by empirical analysis associated with interpersonal studies of the organizational life (Hatch & Zilber, 2012). Belias and Koustelios (2014) outline four organizational culture elements:

1) The openness to change/innovation culture: this type of culture is human-oriented and promotes affiliation, achievement, self-actualization, and task support and task innovation. 2) The task-oriented culture: organizations with this type of culture focus on detail and quality of products or services, while superiors are characterized by high ambitions and chase success. 3) The bureaucratic culture: this type of culture is rather conservative and employees are characterized by centralized decision-making. 4) The Competition/Confrontation culture: organizations with this type of culture are highly competitive, goal-oriented, while superiors chase perfection and achievement. (p. 134)

In the words of researchers' Phillips, Lawrence, and Hardy (2004) and Phillips and Malhotra (2008), institutions have established beliefs, practices, and structures are embedded in an individual lifestyle that supports a shared system. Phillips and Malhotra (2008) contended,

These shared understandings, termed discourses, are comprised of spoken, written, performance, and spatial "texts" grounded in specific contexts and power relationships. Discourses constitute institutions by

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defining the taken for granted the structures, practices, and beliefs in a specific field. (p. 88)

Hatch & Zilber (2012) referred to organizational culture as a concept that has influences on an organization and legitimizes the concept of social uniformity that complements the environment. Organizations, according to Schein (1984), exist in a parent culture derived from assumptions that emphasize different elements in the environment.

Schein (1992) noted that a strong organizational culture is a conservative force. Schein's view considers characteristics in a strong organizational culture that indicate areas of dysfunctions in an organization and may require change. Schein argued that in light of a strong organizational culture, it is fair to assume that stability does not always alleviate opportunities of experiencing resistance to change (Schein, 1992). Denison's (1990) study pinpoints four perspectives of organizational culture that translate into distinct hypotheses:

- Consistency - the common perspectives, shared beliefs, and values will enhance internal coordination and promote a sense of identification.
- Mission - a shared sense of purpose, direction, and strategy that can stimulate collective goals.

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- Involvement/participation - involvement and participation contribute to a sense of responsibility, ownership, organizational commitment, and loyalty.
- Adaptability - norms and beliefs that improve the environment with the ability promote behavioral changes, growth, and development. (p. 208)

Denison (1990) stated that the four hypotheses focus on different aspects and functions of culture. Distinctive identifications reference various types of organizational cultures and have the tendency to recognize cultural complexities (Denison, Hooijberg, & Quinn, 1995). Denison's (1990) study details one approach toward incorporating cultural complexity to recognize, balance, and manage the mixed culture sense of coherency. In this instance, it is difficult to recognize culture as a means of providing motivation to its members. Schein (1992) contended that organizational culture could provide a greater chance for change while adapting to external and internal changes in the environment. Such change has the capability to maximize organizational values, which promote intellectual participation. This change facilitates a mutual aspect of how individuals and organizations learn through their willingness to share knowledge with others (Schein, 1992). Schein offered assumptions of cultural paradigms that influence perception and have the ability to create potential problems

that may surface. Schein (1984) referenced the composition and design of organizational culture and the elements that create remedies for solving problems. Figure 5 depicts problems of external adaptations and survival influences that may surface.

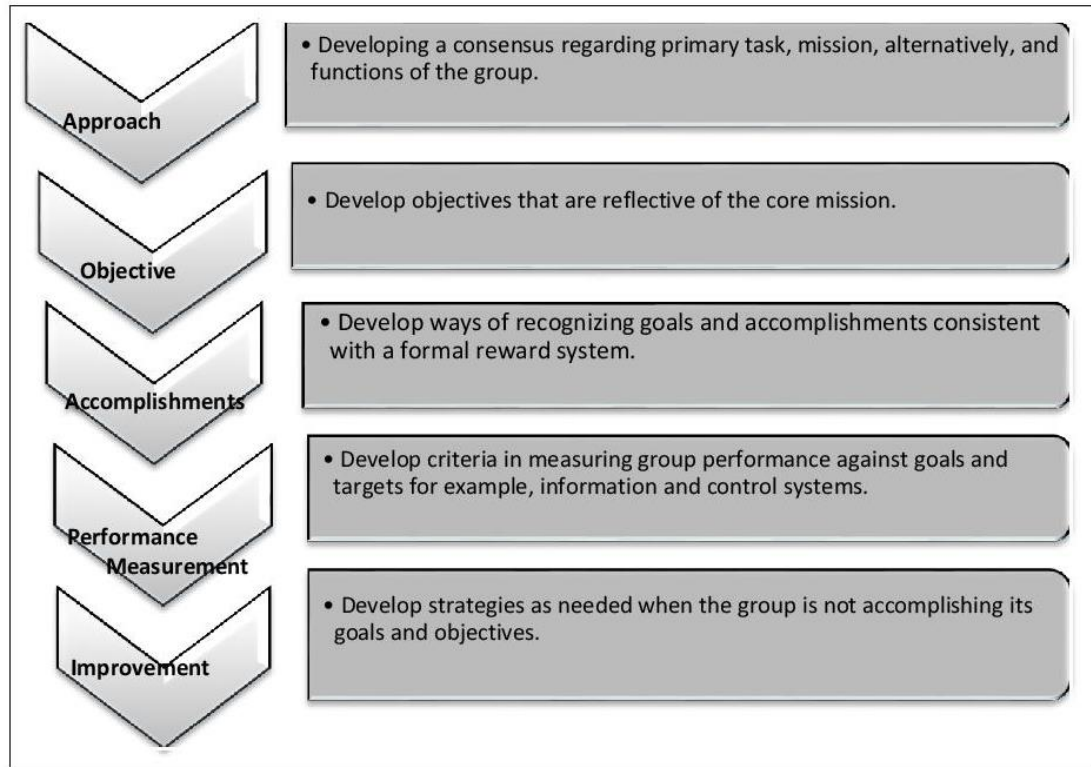


Figure 5. Problems of external survival and adaption.

According the Schein (1984), problems of external adaptation are determined by the individuals' survival within a group environment. Group interactions take place within an environment categorized by the stages of survival in the problem-solving cycle. Schein (1984) cited the impact of each stage of the problem-solving cycle, which focuses on solutions

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to characteristics that are learned assumptions of the group's culture. The consensus is such that characteristics support trust, morale, recognition, fairness, rewards equity, and leader integrity (Gould-Williams, 2007). Organizations that reach stages within the problem-solving cycle exhibit a level of maturity or decline resulting from excessive internal stability and comforts that prevent innovation needed to impart the change in their culture (Schein, 1984). Schein's (1984) study references basic assumptions of culture that aide in the development of an organization's core mission.

According to Sabri et al. (2011),

Changes in the organizational culture affect the job satisfaction of the employees, and it also changes their behaviors and attitudes. Hellreigel et al. (1974) report the existence of relationships between organizational culture, climate and job satisfaction. Wallach (1983) reveals that job performance and job satisfaction related to organizational culture. Further, he observes that job satisfaction and culture of the organization are interdependent. (p. 122)

Finally, the study further supported that managers of organizations foster enhancing a positive organizational culture, which will increase overall performance and the satisfaction level of the workers (Sabri et al., 2011).

Organizational Trust

There have been many studies conducted on organizational trust within the private sector; however, the study of trust in U.S. federal government has not been specifically investigated.

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Trust is one of the many elements that are important within any organization as part of the social system. Gambetta (1988) offers an argument that scholars elude trust as a major ingredient or component, which is an inescapable feature of social interaction. Williams (2007) regarded trust as an essential element factor of an organization's climate and considered a basic pre-requisite toward positive exchanges within an organization. Kramer (1999) stated,

The definition of trust proposed in this research references the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to actions of another party based on expectations that others will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party. (p. 1)

Kramer (1999) pointed out, "the rise of trust as a major focus organizational theory and research during the 1990s was hardly accidental" (p. 6). Scholars view trust as a social exchange that is based on an unspecified nature of reciprocal obligations that elapse involving receipt of a favor and repaying of a favor (Haas & Deseran, 1988). In spite the emergent views of trust, organizations that quantify the trust factor have observed declining trust among employees (Farnham, 1989). Specifically, the fueling interest presented research that examined unyielding problems of distrust in organizations (Farnham, 1989).

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According to Gould-Williams and Davies (2005), "current trends in both workforce composition and the organization of the workplace in the United States suggest that the importance of trust is likely to increase during the coming years" (p. 710).

Kramer (1999) stated,

Over the past two decades, the topic of trust moved from bit player to center stage in organizational theory and research. Whereas previously it often had been treated as a mediating variable in empirical studies - a variable of secondary interest, at best trust emerged in the 1990s as a subject deemed important and worthy of study in its own right. Illustrative of the new significance afforded as a serious and central subject for the organizational sciences is a series of special journal issues. (p. 2)

Johnson-George and Swap (1982) claimed, "Willingness to take risks may be one of the few characteristics common to all trust situations" (p. 1306). In comparison to McCauley and Kuhnert (1992) who found participative systems associated with organizations that consist of

Characterizations by managerial confidence and trust, solicitation, and utilization of subordinate input, open and accurate communication, integrated and involve the decision-making process jointly established and fully accepted goals, low control procedures, high productivity, low absence and turnover and less waste and loss. (p. 267)

Kee and Knox (1970) argued that the study of trust has some meaningful incentives. However, incentives may involve certain risk that a trustor must be familiar. The theory of organizational trust is applicable to relationships with other identifiable actions that are perceived as reactions that are

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violated in the workplace (Kramer, 1999). This definition is parallel to Gambetta (1988), which provides the critical addition of vulnerability related to trust.

Kramer (1999) proposed that trends related to trust suggest development models of trust in organizations within the workplace are considering both timely and practical concepts. Independent teams declare that trust takes place when management focuses on avoiding employee practicality (Kramer, 1999). The study provided a comprehensive perspective of trust and the causes that impede consistency and teamwork in the workplace. The facilitation takes place amongst an individual by fostering trust through personal similarities and relationship (Kramer, 1999). Kramer acknowledged the importance of building trust and its composition to interact within the workforce that increases uniformity. Jamieson and O'Mara (1991) referenced projects that are considered the minority and is shared in the workforce, which indicate a level of growth "from 17 percent in the late 1980s to over 25 percent by the year 2000" (p. 710). Jackson and Alvarez (1992) argued the point of growth increases workforce diversity that requires people with various upbringings can deal with others on a personal level.

Bateson's (1988) conceptual study on trust found that trust is often confused with cooperation in the workplace and contends that the difference between trust and cooperation is unclear.

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Axelrod (1984) suggested that additional research is required to examine the association between trust and cooperation generated within an organization. "Although trust can frequently lead to cooperative behavior, trust is not a necessary condition for cooperation to occur, because cooperation does not necessarily put a party at risk" (Bateson, 1988, p. 712). Bateson (1988) emphasize that trusting someone requires "the probability that he will perform an action that is beneficial or at least not detrimental to us is high enough for us to consider engaging in some form of cooperation with him" (p. 712). According to Mayer et al. (1995),

Trust is the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectations that the recipient will perform a particular action important to the trustor, irrespective of the ability of the trustor who monitors or controls the recipient. (p. 712)

Mayer et al. (1995) developed a theoretical model that describes a trustor as an individual who has the general propensity to trust others. Their proposed model explained the trustor and the relationship between two parties are developed (Mayer et al., 1995). The study referenced relationships as a developmental process where the trustor obtains data regarding the trustee's integrity (Kramer, 1999). Although the study referenced little information related to the trustee's goodwill toward the trustor, it has suggested that integrity the formation of trust early in the relationship is important

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(Kramer, 1999). Mayer et al. (1995) reinforced trust in relationships that take place between individuals, which causes a certain level of vulnerability. Kramer (1999) described the development of trust:

As the relationship develops, interactions with the trustee allow the trustor to gain insights about the trustee's benevolence, and the relative impact of benevolence on trust will grow. Thus, the development of the relationship is likely to alter the relative importance of the factors of trustworthiness. (p. 5)

Kramer (1999) found a proposed model that explains trust based on the propensity of occurrences encountered before any relationship between two parties develops.

Axelrod (1984) referenced many theorists who suggested trust has evolved over time entered around a series of studies and observations. Critical issues associated with many of the studies have evolved, providing a framework toward examining organizational trust (Axelrod, 1984). These studies supported claims that trust has mutually declined in the public and private sector over several decades. For example, Kramer (1999) provided data from the 1964 study that suggested 75% Americans said, "they trusted federal government; however, indications of pervasiveness of intuitional distrust and suspicion was provided by data regarding frequency with many Americans endorsed various conspiracy theories and abuses of trust involving public institutions" (p. 8). According to Kramer (1999),

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A number of studies highlighted the importance of unmet or violated expectancies in explaining why public trust in institutions has eroded. The decline of public trust in government might be attributed, at least in part, to its perceived failure to solve a variety of social ills. (p. 8)

The question herein is to what extent does an organization's cooperation attributes to motivations that develop trust. Further developmental studies and operationalization of models intended to provide an increased understanding associated with the top topic of organization trust and the linkage to job satisfaction (Mayer et al., 1995). Without trust, the organizational community is lessened and the community gains resentment, which is considered as a defense of ambitious managers. Flores and Solomon (2003) referenced,

People will do their jobs, but they will not offer their ideas, their enthusiasm, or their souls. Trust should never to be taken for granted. It is something we make, we create, we build, we maintain, we sustain with our promises, our commitments, our emotions, and our sense of our own integrity. (p. 3)

According to Shockley-Zalabak, Ellis, and Cesaria (2000), dimensions of trust have the ability to measure an organization's leadership effectiveness and reference the ability to survive in the market. Dimensions of trust focus on the concept of openness and honesty that exist among an organization's members. These dimensions measure the accuracy of information and how it is communicated throughout the workplace (Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000). Additionally, the

research provided identification to dimensions that are measured and the degree that employees possess mutual ambitions, values, and beliefs related to an organization's culture. These dimensions indicate the connections that employees feel toward their management and to other coworkers (Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000). Figure 6 depicts the dimensions of organization trust.

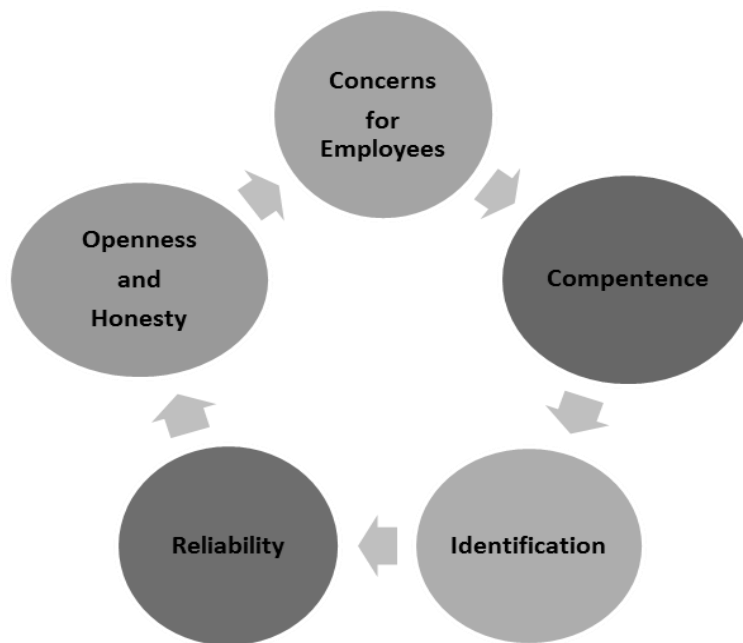


Figure 6. Dimensions of organizational trust.

Psychology of Job Satisfaction

Psychologist emphasis conducting evaluations in its entirety to assess dimensions of trust, which impact satisfaction levels to eliminate assumptions in determining overall job satisfaction (Weiss & Merlo, 2015). "Research on job satisfaction began in the early 1930s and was heavily

influenced both by the economic and employment crises of the Depression and by the new developments in attitude measurement" (Weiss & Merlo, 2015, p. 834). The published research in the 1930s detailed the significance in a broader aspect of what individuals' experience at work rather than what is captured through the construct of job satisfaction (Weiss & Merlo, 2015). Traditional psychologists have made distinctions between overall satisfaction and various aspects of an individual's job (e.g., supervision, pay, the work completed, etc.; Weiss & Merlo, 2015). Schmidt et al. (1985) found,

Most people spend a high percentage of their waking hours at work; studies of the workplace are of great interest for psychologists, sociologists, economists, anthropologists, and physiologists. The process of managing and improving the workplace is of great importance and presents great challenges to nearly every organization. So, it is vital that the instruments used to create change do, in fact, measure workplace dynamics that predict key outcomes that a variety of organizational leaders would consider important. (p. 4)

Ivancevich and Donnelly (1976) provided in-depth research on a substantial theoretical framework that support the argument regarding appraisal-based reactions. Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal's (1964) findings indicate,

A lack of structure in the workplace is associated with decreases in job satisfaction; highly structured expectations produced opposite effects, such as decreased evaluation apprehension and reduced stress. Specifically, a lack of clarity regarding job requirements engenders negative reactions to accountability, as employees are not certain which behaviors will promote the accrual of desired outcomes. (p. 100)

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This concept implies that undistinguishable expectancies yield adverse psychological reactions, which include a decrease in job satisfaction, the absence of common expectations that may hinder the employees' ability to accomplish tasks (Dose & Klimoski, 1995).

Ferris, King, Judge, and Kacmar (1991) stated that ambiguity is essential in a work environment where characteristics provide the opportunity to develop various types of office politics. In situations such as these, work environments are characterized by functions that are highly ambiguous, which causes the employee to experience feelings of uncertainty regarding their work requirements and are unable to establish proper behaviors necessary in securing success. In this case, individuals are expected to engage in behaviors that create a linkage between individual behaviors and subsequent rewards. Although behaviors potentially provide an opportunity for creating certain responses (Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Ferris, 2003), research suggested that behaviors would likely display adverse effects on employees' psychological state of mind, particularly if employees sense a lack of clear behavioral expectations (Ferris et al., 1991).

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Measuring employee job satisfaction has obtained substantial notoriety in recent years. The notion of job satisfaction implies that the empirical examination process that is distinguished by specific dimensions of conceptualization (Kalleberg, 1977). The interpretation is dependent on the perception and dynamics of the relationships between employee morale and job satisfaction. This conceptualization infers that job satisfaction is a unitary perception, which individuals are characterized contingent on attitudes and their association with their total job situation (Kalleberg, 1977).

Studies draw specific attention to interaction, leadership, and the relationship of factors associated with morale and productivity. Speroff (1955) examined a new psychological technique that measures morale through a systematic analysis that determines formation effects of organization's structure. Kalleberg (1977) emphasized three types of explanations that historically suggest accounting for differences in the job satisfaction among employees. Kalleberg expanded on two of the explanations>

The first has sought to explain this variation solely in terms of the personalities of individual workers and has attempted to establish a relationship between measures of adjustment or neuroticism and job satisfaction. The second views variations and functions of job satisfaction based on the jobs people perform. (p. 124)

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Some measures are considered the dominant views due to studies that measure job satisfaction in the attempt to establish the relationship structure and the span of control (Kalleberg, 1977). Kalleberg stated, "personality variables undoubtedly have some effect on job satisfaction, which some explanations are inadequate because they ignore the association of job satisfaction with characteristics of the job" (Kalleberg, 1977, p. 124). The third explanation views individual motives within the individuals work activities and job expectations. Russell (1975) contributed to the body of knowledge of job satisfaction by endeavoring to create behaviors that an individual's expectations and wants are attached to their work activities. These activities form their attitudinal and behavioral patterns of their work functions. In their study, Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) explained,

Some scholars have speculated that the paucity of job satisfaction research regarding government employees. This belief stems from the belief that the work motivations and attitudes of those employed in the public sector are essentially the same as their private sector counterparts. Public management scholars often make sharp distinctions between public and private sector employees in terms of organizational behavior. (p. 344)

Relational Leadership

Leadership is a philosophy, which at its core places an understanding on the philosophy of values. Uhl-Bien (2006) discussed leadership philosophy:

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Affect motives, attitudes, beliefs, values, ethics, morals, will, commitment, preferences, norms, expectations, responsibilities such are the concerns of leadership philosophy proper. Contemporary leadership theories promote ways of theorizing which ensures a leadership style that differ from traditional views and informed through philosophical traditions. (p. 661)

The relational leadership theory integration proposes consequences within the relationships among leaders and their followers, which has the ability to foster a level of trust.

Cunliff and Eriksen (2011) emphasize the 'relational' approach, which indicate three main themes that are explained in the leadership studies. Each theme focuses on the social process of leadership but offers a more comprehensive view, which provides differences in terms of what social processes entail (Cunliff & Eriksen, 2011). Hodgkinson (1983) explained in his study, that leadership is a practical philosophy that is paramount in understanding values because of the nature known as "philosophy-in-action" (p. 50). Cunliff and Eriksen (2011) found,

One function of leadership focuses on relationships and the roles that cannot overstate characteristics of a relational leader. Wheatley (1992) cites that leadership is inherently a relational, communal process. Leadership is always dependent on the context established by researchers regarding the relationships we value. (p. 144)

Hosking and Morley (1988) argued the study of leadership in the distinguished physicality of organization structures and the social construct. The constructs of social organizations

deserve great attention toward a leaders' organizational reality that is identified as a social-psychological processes. This process occurs within the social-psychological relation with other people (Hosking & Morley, 1988).

According to Uhl-Bien (2006), the behavior linked to the "concept of relationship oriented behavior has been around since the earliest formal studies of leadership in organizations (Stogdill & Coons, 1957), the term relational leadership is surprisingly new" (p. 654). As stated in the study (Grint, 2005), researchers have embraced various social constructionist and the orientation regarding relational responsiveness (Cunliffe, 2008, 2009). Cunliffe and Eriksen (2011) stated that leadership establishes a hermeneutic-phenomenological nature of relational and grounded in human experiences.

Likert (1961) indicated that conventional research regarding leadership explores styles of behavior that are relationship-oriented. Relational leadership explores structural benefits from based on a qualitative approach that "uncover[s] the invisible assumptions that generate social structures" (Bradbury & Lichtenstein, 2000, p. 557). The meaning of relationships is the composition of characteristics of being supportive and attentive (Stogdill, Goode, & Day, 1962). Leadership behaviors focus on enhancing trusting relationships in the work environment (Brower et al., 2000;

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Graen & Scandura, 1987; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Uhl-Bien, Graen, & Scandura, 2000). Osborn, Hunt, and Jauch (2002) defined relational leadership as social influences processed through engagement. This concept requires developing coordination and change that promote (e.g., ideologies, new values, attitudes, and behaviors). Social influences on engagement produce results as described in the engagement process (Osborn et al., 2002). However, the process does not confine leadership within hierarchical positions or job functions. Instead, relational leadership is viewed behaviors or practices of a leader who possesses an uncanny ability of persuasion and empowerment. The dynamics of relational leadership and positive outcomes acknowledges the importance dynamic in context to studies related to relational leadership (Osborn et al., 2002).

Pearce and Pearce (2000) argued,

Relational leadership is both a way of theorizing leadership and being a leader: a practical theory that increases the prudence or social eloquence of practitioners by enhancing their ability to discern and draw upon the resources of particular social settings. (p. 420)



Figure 7. Leadership components knowledge and being-doing model.

According to Hesselbein and Shinseki (2004), leadership requires employee engagement that is connected to those who are considered knowledgeable (knowing), self-aware (being), and to those who act (doing). There are three components in the model that are interrelated and provoke action caused by certain behavioral influences (Hesselbein & Shinseki, 2004). Figure 7 identifies leadership components of the knowing being-doing model and shows the importance of leader's understanding, attitude, and skills. Hesselbein and Shinseki (2004) indicated an action as elements that reflect the knowledge and skills

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beneficial in understanding relational leadership. The authors described these elements as "brief applications of the core elements of the knowing-being-doing model conclude each section" (p. 76). The examples in the process, according to Hesselbein and Shinseki (2004) referenced practices inclusively within various elements and should include:

- Know yourself and others; engage yourself in learning new information as you develop the competencies required in your role (knowledge)
- Be open to difference and value other perspectives (attitudes)
- Practice listening skills, coalition building, interpersonal skills, and effective civil discourse (skills) (p. 76).

Hesselbein and Shinseki (2004) found that an individual's character and knowledge are not enough to facilitate transforming the leadership process. The term "doing" in the model refers to efforts that produce results, create change, accomplishes a vision, and causes others to act (Hesselbein & Shinseki, 2004). The authors indicated that sometimes leaders fail to act due to indecision or their obsession with perfection. "Competent, confident leaders tolerate honest mistakes that are not the result of negligence. A leader who

sets a standard of 'zero defects, no mistakes' is also saying, 'don't take any chances'" (Hesselbein & Shinseki, 2004, p. 76).

Similar to Hesselbein and Shinseki (2004), Robbins and Judge (2012) explained the possibility of leading change through building relationships between the leader and followers. The relational concept provides positive outcomes that are progressive in recognizing organizational values. The framework of relational leadership identifies social influences that are not restrictive in many leadership styles.

The survival of any organization requires continual relationship building, which can generate a sense of empowerment among employees, and in turn, results in job satisfaction (Robbins & Judge, 2012). Sjostrand, Sandberg, and Tyrstrup (2001) suggested that leaders attempt to influence patterns of interactions but have significant impact on a larger scale of dynamics in an organizational structure. Traditional leadership theory proposes a much more illusory of control (Sjostrand et al., 2001; Streatfield, 2001). The relational leadership theory extends possibilities of avenues that continue to explore aspects of relational leadership and the dynamics that offer a variation of opportunities to the body of knowledge and future research. One critical factor in understanding the current discussion amongst theorist; however, suggests differences between relational leadership studies and approaches against

those of traditional leadership (Hollander, 1979). Sjostrand et al. (2001) examined relationships by analyzing individual attributes and values that affect engagement and interactions between the leader and follower. "Influence in the abstract tells us little about the progress of the system represented by leader-with-followers-seeking-results" (Hollander, 1979, p. 162). Hollander explained, "Style is a relational concept, and fundamentally different from the idea of a trait because its effect and utility very much depend upon the reaction of followers" (p. 163). According to Bradbury and Lichtenstein (2000),

Variables used to capture a relational understanding and methodologies that provide richer insight into process and context than has been offered by traditional leadership approaches. Such methodologies found in Bradbury & Lichtenstein's (2000) review of rationality in organizational research. For example, relational leadership research may benefit from an understanding of participatory methods. These methods are "highly interpersonal, requiring direct communication between everyone involved in the project as to the goals, means, and outcomes of this research. (p. 558)

The concept involving relational leadership, according to Barker (1997), has come under criticism. Rost (1993) argued, the "focus on the periphery and content aspects of leadership (i.e., 'scientific' traits, contingencies, techniques and knowledge about organizations, human behavior, etc.) and understanding 'the essential nature of leadership as a

relationship'" (p. 5). Social network theories are important elements in sustaining and managing relationships between environmental, social, and organizational network elements (e.g., Balkundi & Kilduff, 2005; Manning, 2010). In contrast, network elements concentrate on processes that focus on organizing and constructing identities that support how leaders manage strategies through a common language (Hosking, 2007). Cunliffe (2001) believed there are critical variances with how relational processes manage meaningful experiences in an environment. Cunliffe offered that some studies speculate how organizations and leadership share collaborative routines between the leader and the follower (Vine, Holmes, Marra, Pffiefer, & Jackson, 2008), relational dynamics (Ness, 2009), or through the selective use of language or linguistic resources (Cunliffe, 2001).

Hamed (2010) contended that relational leadership fosters trust and considered as an important ingredient to organizational success. Hamed (2010) believed relational leadership provides employees with a sense ownership that lies within the cohesiveness among leaders and followers. The competitive advantage of trust and job satisfaction provides important factors that lead the charge in overall organizational health (Hamed, 2010). According to Cunliffe and Eriksen (2011), relational leadership encompasses conceptual and practical

recognition to the constitutive dialog that is subjective and fundamentally moral in natural conversations and relationships. Relational leadership means identifying the intertwined nature of our relationships with others that been absent in many organizations (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011).

Belias and Koustelios (2014) believed organizational culture is a multifaceted phenomenon, which is the outcome of a dynamic social process. An organization's culture possesses characteristics that relate to how employees play a strong role in generating job satisfaction. As researchers continue to explore the impact of bureaucratic organizational culture within the confines of federal agencies and its effects on employee trust and job satisfaction, there remains a gap in the overall interest related to this subject matter. As stated by Belias and Koustelios (2014), "cultures are ever changing and emergent; they are invented and reinvented in social environments" (p. 135). This study supports the furtherance in this research topic through examining the linear relationship between the three characteristics to expand upon key factors that prove the theoretical significant.

Summary

The literature reviewed in this chapter supports the body of knowledge that an organizations' culture has significant

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effects on organizational trust and job satisfactions. Belias and Koustelios (2014) proposed that the concept of organizational (bureaucratic) culture is not clearly defined. However, a bureaucratic culture is observable and has significant aspects within the functions of an organization. The characteristics of a bureaucratic culture strongly affect individual decisions and group actions based on shared beliefs, values, and behaviors (Belias & Koustelios, 2014). Consequently, "organizational culture is linked to many occupational phenomena, like human resource management, job commitment, job satisfaction, and in cases of occupational stress and burnout" (Belias & Koustelios, 2014, p. 135).

Many researchers support facts that reveal interpersonal relationships are a dominant factor in developing trust (Farris, Senner, & Butterfield, 1973). The relationship between organizational culture and trust is closely related to employee commitment and job satisfaction (Belias & Koustelios, 2014). Furthermore, dominant factors substantiate assertions that encompass viability to strengthen an organization's strategy and direction for success and sustainability.

Chapter 3. Methodology

The Department of Housing and Urban Development administers annual Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) in the effort to assess factors to influence change in the federal workforce. The focus of this research will examine variables that affect overall outcomes within FEVS. The intent of this study will provide a secondary analysis of the FEVS, which will determine if the survey provides accurate response reliability. The purpose of the survey focuses on evaluating the pulse within the work environment, which promotes enhancing strategic goals in transforming the agency's culture and perception to foster improved employee relations and job satisfaction.

Survey results are reflective of HUD's positive image that has declined during 2012, 2013, and 2014. Significant declines in percentages over a three-year period are categorized as "caution items." Caution items are questions that depict the best place to work, organizational satisfaction, accomplishing the mission, and employees' satisfaction with pay. The most startling finding was in the area known as "Items to Celebrate," where the results revealed HUD had no items that met the specific criteria over a three-year period (OPM, 2014).

According to FEVS (OPM, 2014), the survey measures various criteria that highlight both negative and positive performance results. The results from this study identify best and worst

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practices of the organizational environment. The objective and survey design of FEVS produces statistically reliable outcome that closely examine survey results amongst the top 10 positive and negative results. The results represent responses that are more likely to either increase or decrease (OPM, 2014). The annual surveys provide feedback about engagement, work environment, leadership, and other organizational influences critical in measuring agency progression toward meeting performance objectives. Survey results are comprised of benchmark indicators to identify areas in need of change, monitoring trends, and determining agency outcomes that represent improvement or decline. In short, survey responses increased with positive results, this indicated agency success; however, the decrease in positive responses indicates areas requiring change.

Table 1 depicts literature review sources known as Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) factors. FEVS factors are influencers that correlate with the literature review and are identifiable through its relation to the survey questions. Table 2 depicts literature review sources as influencers identified as primary dependent variables linked to the research questions.

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Table 1

Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Factors

Influencers that affect FEVS factors	Definitions (Literature Review)	Survey Questions
Bureaucratic Culture	Bureaucratic culture is considered a cultural typology, which is widespread among many public agencies, described in plenty of ways, depending on the specific traits, which are highly emphasized (Claver et al., 1999).	#34, 37, 57, 58, 59
Leader-Member Exchange	Leader member exchange approach offers the notion of valuing relationships; the concept explains a theoretical depiction of how relationships are formed, and the likelihood of reaching the "evolution of concept" stage of Reichert and Schneider's framework (Hunt & Dodge, 2000, p. 672).	#42, 43, 44, 45, 46
Organizational Climate	Broad-spectrum approach toward attributes, which other authors have referred to as situational components of variance or structure (Forehand & Gilmer, 1964).	#1, 9, 14, 38, 53, 54
Organizational Culture	The pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration (Schein, 1984, p. 3).	#3, 11, 12, 20-24, 39
Relational Leadership	Two perspectives of relational leadership: an entity perspective that focuses on identifying attributes of individuals as they engage in interpersonal relationships, and a relational perspective that views leadership as a process of social construction through which certain understandings of leadership come about and are given privileged ontology (Uhl-Bien, 2006, p. 654).	#42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 50, 52, 55

Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) is a confidential web-based survey designed to provide agencies with information linked to employ satisfaction, commitment, engagement, hiring, and the retention of a skilled workforce.

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The benefits of survey results provide a shared insight regarding the organizational climate. Survey trends indicate a continual decrease, specifically, related to employee(s) views of the Agency's leadership standards associated with honesty and integrity. Trending FEVS results provide a snapshot of employee views that represent an organizational climate that is facing decline because of a bureaucratic culture. This organizational structure impedes effective communication and overall employee engagement, which has caused difficulty in maintaining a structure of uniformity and reliability.

Table 2

Primary Dependent RQ Variables

Influencers that affect FEVS factors	Definitions (Literature Review)	Survey Questions
Job Satisfaction	Job satisfaction as a reaction to the perception of one's job that has the potential to cause either pleasure or disdain (Weiss, 2002).	#63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71
Organizational Trust	Trust is ones willingness to display a certain vulnerability toward another party (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995).	#15, 16, 17, 47, 48, 51

The above factors are primary dependent variables that correlate to the research questions.

Research Design

This study will use two methods in determining the correlation analysis. Correlation analysis will examine the relationship between organizational culture and its relation to trust and job satisfaction. Pearson's correlation and partial correlation will analyze the correlation between multiple

variables. Pearson's correlation measures the linear relationship between multiple variables (Algren, Garnering, & Rousseau, 2003). Guilford (1973) described partial correlation is a difference between a correlation and the product of the removable correlations divided by the product of the coefficients of alienation of the removable correlations. The coefficient of alienation and its relation with joint variance through correlation. The correlation coefficient of alienation is significant because it measures two dependent variables considered as problematic outliers.

Statement of the Purpose

Federal agencies have a tendency to possess mixed cultures due to its bureaucratic organizational structure embedded from centuries of traditions. HUD's organizational culture is a result of age-old norms fostered through mistrust. This study explored the effectiveness of survey results in measuring how culture impacts trust and employee job satisfaction. The purpose of this research analyzed the relationship between the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) factors and its effect on trust and employee job satisfaction. FEVS factors are influencers that correlate with the literature review and are identifiable through its relation to the survey questions. Also, analyzing the simple bivariate relationships using Pearson Correlation and Partial Correlation will utilize factors to

examine the relationship after controlling the employee demographic variables.

Statement of Research Questions

Research questions for this study are as follows:

- RQ 1. Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction?

null Hypothesis related to research question (RQ1)

None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction.

Alternative related to research question (RQ1)

At least one of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction.

Statistical Test: Pearson correlation

- RQ 2. Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors, if any, are related to the employee's level of organizational trust?

null Hypothesis related to research question (RQ2)

None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to organizational trust.

Alternative related to research question (RQ2)

At least one of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to organizational trust.

Statistical Test: Pearson correlation

- RQ 3. Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction after controlling for employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.)?

null Hypothesis related to research question (RQ3)

None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction after controlling for employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.)

Alternative related to research question (RQ3)

At least one of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction after controlling for employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.).

- RQ 4. Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of organizational trust after controlling for employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.)?

null Hypothesis related to research question (RQ4)

None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to organizational trust after controlling for

employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.)

Alternative related to research question (RQ4)

At least one of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to organizational trust after controlling for employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.).

Statistical Test: Partial correlation

Quantitative Research Method

The quantitative methodology approach was used to conduct research, which applies a natural science, in a particular positivist method, and social trends (Creswell, 2003).

Quantitative measurements are dependent upon the use of the instrument that provides a homogeneous framework, which will limit data collections to predetermine responses (Tucker, Powell, & Meyer, 1995). Quantitative research provides two types of validity: internal and external. The internal validity is significant when quantitative research is dependent upon cause and effect relations. The external component is significant the when researchers generalize their research studies Creswell (2003) found,

The quantitative approach is one that primarily uses post-positivist claims in developing knowledge that employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys; used through predetermined instrument for collecting data that yield statistical data. Identifying factors influence the

outcome, and utility of an intervention, which provides the best predictors of the outcome. (p. 18)

According to Creswell (2003), the quantitative approach tests theory or explanations of positivism characterized as a methodological approach that exhibits the preoccupation of operational definitions such as objectivity, reliability, and causality. Proponents of quantitative research's use of a survey methodology is viewed as being confirmatory in seeking clarification, oriented toward the phenomena where accurate information is lacking and deductive in nature (Huberman & Miles, 2002; Robson, 2003).

Surveys are instruments that make epistemological assumptions though investigative and experimental designs. A secondary analysis consists of pre-collected data that are often known for exhibiting the same fundamental philosophical premise of the design (Alwin & Krosnick, 1991). Typically, social surveys are preferred instruments for traditional research due to questions that operationalized based on the following finding from Alwin and Krosnick (1991):

The objectivity of the analysis maintain distance between the observers and observed along with the possibility of external checks upon one's questionnaire; replication can be carried out by employing the same research instrument in another context; and the problem of causality have eased the emergence of path analysis and related regression techniques to which surveys are well-suited. (p. 173)

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Electronic surveys have a distinctive format and methodological approach with various components that explore survey design, sampling, distribution, participant selection, response management, and participant privacy and confidentiality (Andrews, Nonnecke, & Preece, 2003). Andrews et al. classified surveys as imperfect vehicles for collecting data. Researchers have established the meaning of the interpretations of survey participants. This process means classifying culture sharing groups and studying how it developed shared patterns of behavior over time (i.e., ethnography). One of the key elements of collecting data is to observe participants' behaviors by participating in their activities (Creswell, 2003). "They require participants to recall past behavior that can be more accurately captured through observation (Andrews et al., 2003, p. 186). Additionally, Andrews et al. (2003) proposed that participants exhibit certain bias when answering questions.

Population

HUD is a federal agency that assists families in obtaining housing through various housing and community development grants, rental subsidies, direct and loan guaranties and public housing programs (GAO, 2013). The primary mission is creating strong sustainable communities, which provides families with quality and affordable housing. At the end of 2012, HUD had

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approximately 8,300 employees in comparison to 9,700 employees a decade earlier (GAO, 2013).

HUD's population in 2014 consists of 8,416 employees that include demographics of the Agency's workforce. The demographics within the population derived of the following: The FEVS participants are not identified and present no risk to the government agency. Many of the employees who participate in the annual FEVS are full and part-time permanent employees; this also includes non-seasonal employees (OPM, 2014). The survey population criteria consisted of HUD employees who possess the minimum tenure of at least one year with the agency (OPM, 2014). The population demographics include components of the survey that factors in sections pertaining to retirement planning, self-identity, veteran status, and disability (OPM, 2014). The survey data adjusts for differences in respondent characteristics and the population surveyed (OPM, 2014).

Validity

According to Resh and Moldogaziev (2015), the summation of survey questions and the measuring concept must be relevant and unambiguous to capture validity of FEVS. "Given the complexity of these concepts and their distinctiveness, the decision to use a single survey item to measure them both is perplexing" (Resh & Moldogaziev, 2015, p. 8). Resh and Moldogaziev (2015) found that researchers using survey data demonstrate the validity in

the measuring approach. Unifying the framework in determining validity and reliability through the FEVS provides evidence that demonstrates validity in OPM measurement concept (Resh & Moldogaziev, 2015). Cronbach's alpha test, according to Resh and Moldogaziev, measures the construct within the response process and the determinants associated with capturing strengths of FEVS. However, measuring the validity of the survey imposes significant limitations (Resh & Moldogaziev, 2015).

Reliability

Resh and Moldogaziev (2015) equated measuring the reliability of FEVS presents some shortcomings of the survey that are unique. Alwin and Krosnick (1991) argued that survey reliability is a function primarily based on the instrument used to measure outcomes. Alwin and Krosnick (1991) viewed reliability as a function that includes a number of factors: The characteristics of the population, topics assessed by the survey questions (e.g., facts vs. attitudes, or the type of attitudes), design questions that include proper wording, and context. Additional factors of a survey include conditions of the measurements such as its observational design, the mode that the surveys are administered, and the social setting of the survey instrument. Other contributing factors to surveys are associated with potential reliability of the functions in the instrument (Alwin & Krosnich, 1991).

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According to Bohrnstedt, Rossi, Wright, and Anderson (1983), estimating the reliability of surveys display measurement errors that may be inflated because of the overall response variances. The consequences of inflation are derived from a sampling error that presents coefficient biases that rely on variances that are existent in the measurement errors (Alwin & Krosnich, 1991). FEVS identifiers are unique as they present the absence in the data gathering process the affects sampling and respondents participating in the surveys. Resh and Moldogaziev (2015) found,

Summated rating scales were used in 31 of the 42 research articles that we examined; in 26 of those 31 articles, a Cronbach's alpha test was used. In most cases, the test results indicated an adequate or higher level of reliability (alpha of 0.70 or higher). (p. 8)

The Cronbach's Alpha test impedes the undertaking of the data analysis that accounts for differences in the respondents' individual experiences as a HUD employee and their biases that may influence the overall reliability of the survey results.

Resh and Moldogaziev (2015) wrote,

OPM does not appear to have capitalized on existing research by using measures of concepts that have been validated across settings and samples, even though management researchers have often gone to great lengths to demonstrate the reliability and validity of measures. (p. 9)

The validity of the survey results provides limitations as to its effectiveness in capturing the authenticity in identifying

the agency's strengths, challenges, and leadership capabilities within HUD.

Data Collection Process

The Office of Personal Management (OPM) administers the FEVS on an annual basis via electronic email. The web-based survey references to employees its confidentiality that is designed to provide agencies with information linked to employee satisfaction, engagement, commitment, hiring, and the retention of a skilled workforce. For the purpose of this study, FEVS archived published reports and raw data was collected for calendar year 2014. The archived reports consist of survey results both weighted and unweighted, Government-wide Management Reports, Trend Analysis, Comparisons, and Demographic Results are downloadable from the OPM.gov website. FEVS raw data files may be requested online by completing a public use data file form, which allows the requestor to imported files to Excel format. The steps for downloading publish reports and accessing raw data is provided in Figure 8 FedView Data Retrieval Access Flow. The flow chart specifies steps for retrieving FEVS archived data.

OPM utilizes the following process in administering the annual Federal Employee Viewpoint survey. The surveys are administered in two waves to accommodate the large scale of surveys issued to employee's government-wide. The waves are

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grouped by agency and require a 6-week administration period, which provides an opportunity to improve the overall survey response rate. The first wave of surveys is administered from April 23rd through June 7th and the second wave from April 30th through June 14th. The Federal Employee Viewpoint Surveys are administered to employees through emails that include survey instructions and the invitation to participate, all survey respondents are anonymous. Employees are advised that completing the survey will take no more than 30 to 45 minutes and may be completed during official duty hours.

The collection of surveys requires disposition codes allocated to specify indicators within the status of the survey. Disposition codes are identified in sections to calculate survey responses and survey analysis weights (OPM, 2014). The weighting process refers to the development of an analysis weights assigned to the respondent(s). "The weights are necessary to achieve the survey objectivity of an unbiased inference regarding the perception of the full population of HUD employees" (OPM, 2014, p. 23).

According to OPM (2014), disposition codes abide by guidelines of the American Association of Public Opinion Research's (AAPOR). Once respondents' complete surveys, the sorting process divides the responses into categories of complete or incomplete. Survey response rates are calculated in

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two parts (OPM, 2014). A data collection and management company who is known for their innovation in managing large-scale data collection manage the first part of calculations. OPM (2014) referenced AAPOR that utilizes a response rate formula: Eligible employees returning completed surveys/Number of eligible employees + estimated number of eligible employees among cases of unknown eligibility ($RR = ER + ENR + UNK$; p. 13).

Accessing Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) Data and Reports

OPM manages and maintains raw data and archived reports of all federal agencies throughout the United States. FEVS survey results and raw data are accessible to the public through OPM's (FedView) website. The data results represent all federal employees who complete the annual survey. The raw data, also known as unweighted data, represents collected data from the survey respondents. According to the OPM (2014), weighted data consist of general findings from the population of respondents covered by the survey.

The Office of Personal Management - FedView is accessible via the internet at <http://www.fedview.opm.gov/>. Extrapolating raw data and archived reports are obtained by accessing OPM's FedView website, which requires four steps in retrieving and accessing FEVS Public Release Data Files. There are three

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public use data sets accessible by request, requiring inquirer to complete a data file request form or select pre-existing published reports. Three data sets include your preference of the following:

1. FEVS full data extract for each year the survey administration.
2. A separate data extract contains variables beginning in 2012.
3. A data set extracts for trend analysis.

Figure 8 FedView Data Retrieval Access Flow chart specifies steps for retrieving archived data.

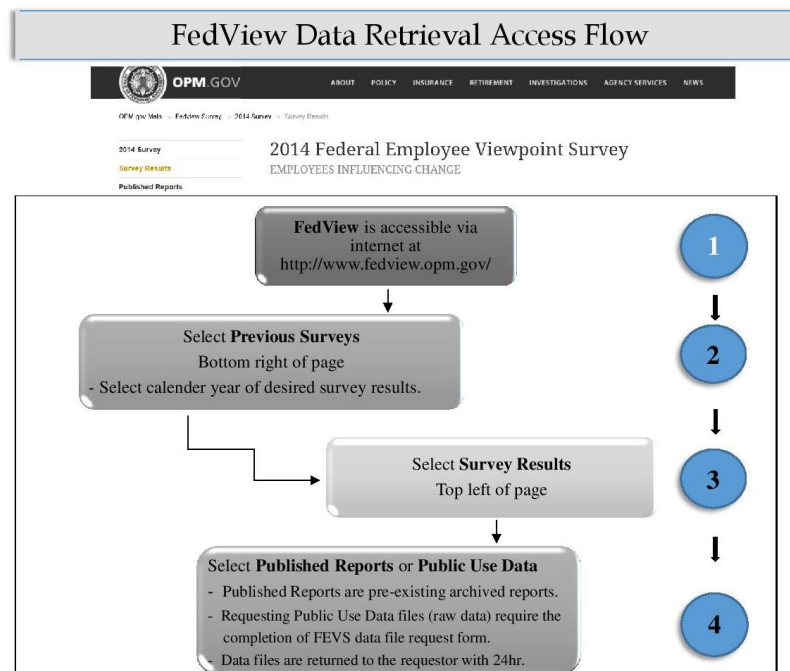


Figure 8. FedView data retrieval access flow.

Data Analysis

The survey captures multiple perceptions that provide delineations of strengths, challenges, items to celebrate, and caution items (OPM, 2014). Sanchez (1992) found that certain survey's and questionnaire designs have the ability to introduce errors in the data collection process. Resh and Moldogaziev (2015) asserted,

In general, when it comes to question order, it is important to control for the possibility of biases such as consistency (or anchoring) bias, response set bias, or social desirability bias. Careful sorting and ordering of questions can help limit anchoring bias. To mitigate potential response set bias, the usual advice is to alter the order or scale (or both) of questions. (p. 8)

FEVS is comprised of 98 survey questions, which is divided into categories consisting of performance culture, leadership, knowledge and talent management, and job satisfaction. Resh and Moldogaziev (2015) contended,

The vast majority of items on that survey are grouped into a set of thematic categories that consistently reappear from one year to the next in order to gauge trends over time. However, these "trend" questions are supplemented every year by short batteries of items that focus on additional themes or topics of interest (e.g., innovation), with the topics changing from one year to the next. (p. 9)

The survey covers eight topic areas:

- Demographics
- Work Experiences (Personal)
- Work Unit
- Agency

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- Supervisor
- Leadership
- Satisfaction
- Work/Life

According to OPMS FEVS technical report (2014), the survey instrument includes 14 demographic questions and 84 core questions (addressed in Appendix A), which have three areas related to human capital management. Survey items covered in the eight topic areas provide the following questions that includes:

1. Personal Work Experience: Questions 1-19 involve the employees' opinion of his or her personal work experiences.
2. Work Unit: Questions: 20-28 involve opinions regarding the employees' perception of management, quality, and recruitment.
3. Agency: Questions 29-41 involve opinions of the agency's practices and policies that relate to job performance, appraisals, employee's views of the agency, fairness, and workplace diversity.
4. Supervisor: Questions 42-52 involve the employees' perception of his or her supervisor. These questions specifically relate to work life balance, the demonstration of leadership skills, and workplace culture.

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5. Leadership: Questions 53-62 relate to the efficiency of the agency's senior leadership staff and managers, which involve motivating staff, upholding ethical standards, communicating the organization's policies and their ability to generate respect.
6. Satisfaction: Questions 63-71 involve employee satisfaction within different aspect of their jobs, which includes recognition and opportunities for advancement.
7. Work/Life: Questions 72-84 related to the employees' satisfaction regarding teleworking and overall employment benefits.
8. Demographics: 14 Questions that involve the employees' duty location, gender, race, education, pay grade, employee tenure, disability and veteran status, and sexual orientation.

FEVS was administered in the format of a 5-point Likert scale that ranges from *Strongly Agree, Agree, Neither Agree nor Disagree, Disagree, Strongly Disagree and No Basis to Judge/Do Not Know*. Based on the 2014 participant response rate of 3,890 completed surveys with an eligible sample size of 7,558, survey results have a margin of error of plus or minus of 1%. The ineligible employee status provides adjustment in the overall sample size (OPM, 2014). Adjustments in the sampling size are

also dependent upon higher levels of the non-response rate among HUD employees.

A correlation analysis of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) utilizes questions in the data analysis process to isolate variables associated within with each research question. The applied statistical approach for analyzing the data and its association to the research questions are based the statistical approaches that yield anticipated outcomes. As a point of reference, Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey questions are found in Appendix A and B. Figure 9 identifies research questions and the applied statistical test associated with each question.

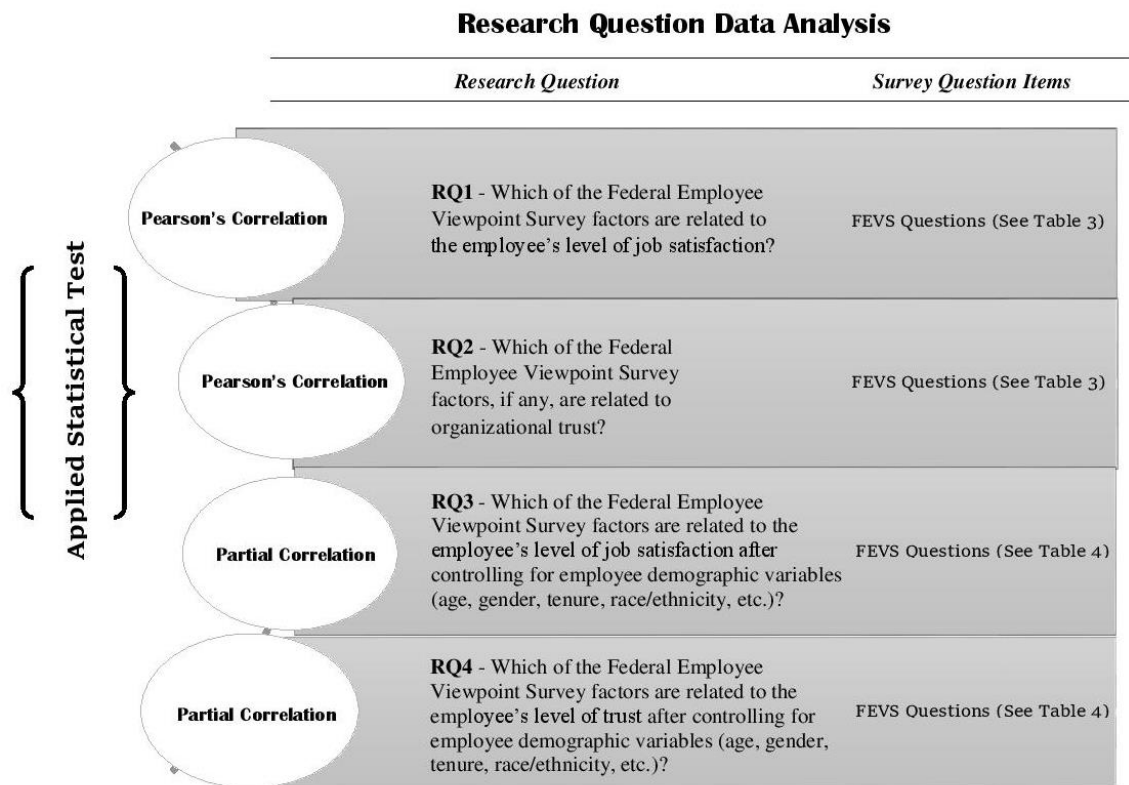


Figure 9. Research question data analysis

The applied statistical test for this study utilizes both Pearson's correlation and partial correlation. The anticipated outcome derived from the data analysis is anticipated to determine multiple factors and determinants that depict survey's validity and will provide a positive, negative, or a same correlation. The alpha level for this study is p , is less than .05.

- Pearson's Correlation - correlation coefficient that measures the strength of the linear relationship between two variables (Algren, Garnering, & Rousseau, 2003).
- Partial Correlation - correlation between two variables that remain after controlling one or more variables (Guilford, 1973).

Factors related the employee's level of job satisfaction is identified by survey questions categorized as "my satisfaction."

- *Research Question (RQ1)* correlate to survey items # 63 - 71. FEVS factor influencers are identified in (Table 2). Factors related the employee's level of trust are identified by survey questions categorized as "my work experience and my supervisor."
- *Research Question (RQ2)* correlate to survey items # 15, 16, 17, 47, 48, 49, 50, and 51. FEVS factor influencers are identified in (Table 2).

Factors related the employee demographics are identified by survey questions categorized as "demographics."

- *Research Question (RQ3)* correlate to survey items in Table 3, which are identified as demographic influencers.
- *Research Question (RQ4)* correlate to survey items in 3, which are identified as demographic influencers.

Table 3 represents controlling demographics that my affect the employee level of organizational trust. The basis after controlling the demographics variables that may or may not affect the respondents level job satisfaction and organizational trust.

Table 3

Controlling Demographic Variables

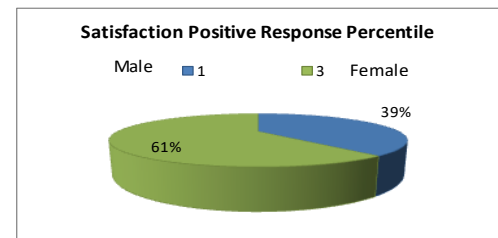
Controlling Demographic Variables	
Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey - Demographic Questions	
85	Where do you work?
86	What is your supervisory status?
87	Are you male or female?
88	Are you Hispanic or Latino?
89	Are you American, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander?
90	What is your highest degree or education level?
91	What is your pay category/grade?
92	How long have you been an employee of the Federal Government?
93	How long have you been with your agency?
94	Are you considering leaving your organization within the next year, and if so, why?
95	When do you plan to retire? Within one year, between one to three years, and if so, why?
96	Do you consider yourself the following? Heterosexual or Straight, Gay or Lesbian, Bisexual, Transgender, I prefer not to say.
97	What is your military service status?
98	Are you an individual with a disability?

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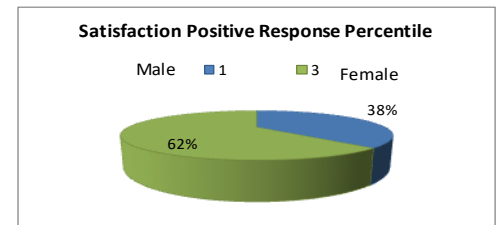
At a glance, Figure 10 represents a sample of four survey items related to job satisfaction after controlling the demographic variables for the gender classification. The following definition describes how employees respond to survey questions, which reflects positive percentages that correlate to survey responses.

Department of Housing and Urban Development 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (Satisfaction Results) Controlling Demographic - Gender

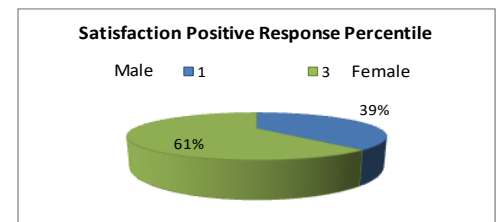
Q63) How satisfied are you with your involvement in decisions that affect your work?		
		**Positive
Gender	Male	1,174
	Female	1,832
	Total	3,006



Q64) How satisfied are you with the information you receive from management on what's going on in your organization?		
		Positive
Gender	Male	1,045
	Female	1,710
	Total	2,754



Q65) How satisfied are you with the recognition you receive for doing a good job?		
		Positive
Gender	Male	1,203
	Female	1,888
	Total	3,091



Q66) How satisfied are you with the policies and practices of your senior leaders?		
		Positive
Gender	Male	919
	Female	1,375
	Total	2,294

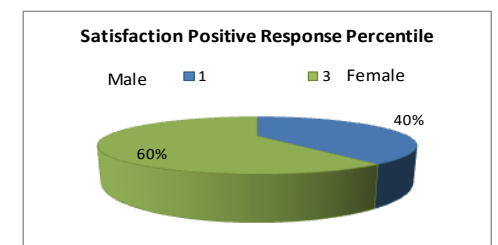


Figure 10. FEVS Satisfaction Demographic (Gender) Response

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Variable. Positive - Represent employee responses: Strongly Agree and Agree, Very Satisfied and Satisfied, Very Good and Good. **Positive - Represent responses: Strongly Agree and Agree, Very Satisfied and Satisfied, Very Good and Good.

Although FEVS satisfaction questions are reflective through survey items, number 63-71. As a point of reference, a sample of satisfaction questions consists of items 63-66, which are shown in Figure 10. Figure 10 indicates positive response rates among female employees after controlling the gender variable. The data supports that yielding positive survey response rates after controlling the demographics may influence how employees (respondents) respond to survey questions. Chapter 4 will provide statistical correlation testing is designed to either prove or disprove the null or alternative hypotheses as discussed in the data analysis process.

Institutional Review Board Plan

This research an exempt study and provides a secondary analysis of the FEVS to determine the survey's validity and response reliability. The FEVS is a web-based survey that utilizes pre-collected data, its collection and methods process is archived data, and survey results are all existing sources and materials obtained through the OPM. OPM is a branch of the United States Federal Government who annually administers and collects data from federal employees. OPM resource materials

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and data sources are public information and accessible to the public.

Human subject considerations for this research are exempt, protected, and meet the exemption requirements under federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.101(b) (2), governed by the U.S. Department of Health and Human Services ("Protection of Human Subjects," 2009). The population for this research is federal employees of the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). The population demographics consist of diverse employee characteristics that are inclusive of varying respondents: gender, age, salaries, work locations, and federal service tenure. The human subjects who participate in the FEVS are anonymous. The survey has an exempt status since its 2002 inception and presents no risk to the subjects or government agency.

The researcher obtained formal ethics clearance and approval by HUD's Regional Office of General for conducting research and analysis purposes (see Appendix B). In accordance to 5 CFR 2635.101(b) (14), the researcher will avoid any actions that will violate the law and ethics standards governed by the U.S. Office of Government Ethics ("Standards of Ethical Conduct," 1989). The data and findings from this research will be safely managed on the researchers HP Envy Laptop that is password protected and stored on the local hard drive.

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The Institutional Review Board (IRB) application was submitted by the researcher to Pepperdine University to request an exempt review and claim of exemption category 4, which explained the exemption category and human subjects related to the study that are identified as anonymous participants in a study. However, before submission, a preliminary meeting prior to actual submission provides clarification in the overall process. The researcher was counseled by member(s) of the IRB review board to ensure the proper exemption is claimed. Additional communication with IRB member(s) discussed adequate documentation to be included in final submission that supports the study. The researcher submitted the initial IRB approval request to the dissertation chairperson and committee members. The application and appropriate supporting documentation met the required IRB standards (see Appendix C). No subsequent data was collected at the time of final IRB application submission.

Summary

Conducting a secondary analysis of pre-existing data, archived data reports, and statistically weighted survey results will provide an opportunity to test the validity of survey results produced by FEVS. Analyzing factors may influence survey outcomes after controlling the employee demographic variables, which can influence how survey participants respond to each question. Correlation testing analyzed multiple factors

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that can solidify the soundness of FEVS survey results while determining its reliability. Further, clarifying how positive bivariate relationships provide a linear association, which support previous studies related to organizational trust and its effect on job satisfaction.

Chapter 4. Results

The purpose of this study was conducted to determine the correlation of organizational trust and job satisfaction that quantitatively assesses organization climate based on 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) results in the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD). A correlation statistical test isolated variables that were identified as factors that had effects on job satisfaction and organizational trust; determined after controlling for demographic variables. Influencing factors were derived from literature sources that suggested linear relationships between (a) bureaucratic culture, (b) leader member exchange, (c) organizational climate, (d) organizational culture, (e) relational leadership, (f) job satisfaction, and (g) organizational trust.

The total number of employees surveyed was 7,558, while only 3,890 employees participated in the survey (overall response rate of 51.5%). After removing those respondents who did not complete the entire survey, results revealed the total number employees was 1,187(overall response rate of 16%). The respondents identified in the sample size are categorized as employees who completed the survey in its entirety by answering 84 core survey questions. The data scales provided by the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) data scale is format based

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on a 3-point: 1 = *Negative* 2 = *Neutral* 3 = *Positive*. However, the researcher notes that the 2014 published FEVS was presented as a 5 point Likert scale survey instrument (see Appendix A).

Table 4 displays the frequency counts for selected demographic variables. The supervisory status classification had 925 respondents (77.9%), which represent employees identified as non-supervisory/team leader and 262 respondents (22.1%) that represent employees identified as supervisor/manager/senior leader. The sex classification is identified as male and female; 479 respondents were male (40.4%); female respondents were 708 (59.6%). The minority status classification is identified as minority and non-minority; 521 respondents were identified as minority employees (43.9%) and 666 respondents were non-minority employees (56.1%). Government tenure is identified as the employees' years of service with HUD, which the classifications are identified as: 5 or fewer years is 239 (20.1%), 296 respondents had 6-14 years of service (24.9%), and 652 respondents had 15 or more years of service (54.9%). The final demographic classification is identified by the respondents' age group: Under the age of 40 is 217 (18.3%); 268 respondents were between the age of 40-49 (22.6%); 450 respondents were between the age of 50-59 (37.9%); and 252 respondents were between the ages of 60 or older

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(21.2%). Table 4 displays the frequency counts for selected demographic variables.

Table 4

Demographic Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (N = 1,187)

Variable	Category	n	%
Supervisory Status	Non-Supervisor/Team Leader	925	77.9
	Supervisor/Manager/Senior Leader	262	22.1
Sex	Male	479	40.4
	Female	708	59.6
Minority Status	Minority	521	43.9
	Non-minority	666	56.1
Government Tenure	5 or fewer years	239	20.1
	6-14 years	296	24.9
	15 or more years	652	54.9
Age Group	Under 40	217	18.3
	40-49	268	22.6
	50-59	450	37.9
	60 or older	252	21.2

The demographic frequency table represents primary percentages among FEVS respondents. Slightly over half the respondents were non-minority employees (56.1%). Specifically, employees who participated in the survey were made up of predominately (59.6%) non-supervisory females whose government tenure or years of service was 15 or more years. The results

indicate that at least (37.9%) of the employees were between the ages of 50-59.

Table 5 details literature review influencers classified as FEVS Factor Influencers. The table also identifies questions from the FEV survey that are related to specific factors that influence the research questions. The influencers are referenced in chapter 3 as factors and also presented as primary dependent variables. Additionally, the FEVS factors correlate with literature sources previously referenced in chapter 3 and are identifiable through FEVS survey items questions. FEVS are factor influencers directly related to the survey questions that are categorized as factors variables, explicitly linked to each variable that are inclusive of the primary variables: job satisfaction and organizational trust.

Table 5

FEVS Factor Influencers

Factor Influencers	FEVS Survey Items
Bureaucratic culture	#34, 37, 57, 58, 59
Job satisfaction	#63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71
Leader-Member Exchange	#42, 43, 44, 45, 46
Organizational Culture	#3, 11, 12, 20-24, 39
Organizational Climate	#1, 9, 14, 38, 53, 54
Relational leadership	#42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 50, 52, 55
Organizational Trust	#15, 16, 17, 47, 48, 51

Table 6 displays the psychometric characteristics for the seven summated scale scores. Psychometric characteristics include the primary dependent variable of job satisfaction ($M = 2.17$) and organizational trust ($M = 2.54$) as well as five factors scores. The highest score among the five factors was the relational leadership score ($M = 2.53$) while the lowest mean factor scores were shared by organizational climate and organizational culture.

Table 6

Psychometric Characteristics for Summated Scale Scores (N = 1,187)

	Number						
Score	of Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Low	High	α	
Bureaucratic Culture	5	2.28	0.65	1.00	3.00	.85	
Leader-Member Exchange	5	2.51	0.65	1.00	3.00	.91	
Organizational Climate	6	2.19	0.59	1.00	3.00	.79	
Organizational Culture	9	2.19	0.57	1.00	3.00	.87	
Relational Leadership	10	2.53	0.60	1.00	3.00	.94	
Job Satisfaction	9	2.17	0.66	1.00	3.00	.91	
Organizational Trust	6	2.54	0.57	1.00	3.00	.86	

Note. Scales were based on a 3-point scale: 1 = Negative 2 = Neutral 3 = Positive.

Among the five factors, both organizational climate and organizational culture shared the mean of $M = 2.19$. Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients range in size from $\alpha = .79$ to $\alpha = .94$ with the medium coefficient of $\alpha = .87$. This suggested that all scales had adequate internal of reliability (Creswell, 2003). The summated scale scores are characterized in Table 6 also identify the standard deviations associated with each characteristic known as factor influencers.

Answering the Research Questions

Research Question (RQ1): Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction? The related null hypothesis was, None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction. To answer this question, Table 7 displays the Pearson Correlations between job satisfaction and organizational trust, along with the five factors scores. Inspection of the table found significant positive correlations between all five factors scores. In other words, job satisfaction was significantly related to (bureaucratic culture, leader-member exchange, organizational climate, organizational culture, and relational leadership). Thus, rejecting the null hypothesis for RQ1 which states that none of the factors are related the employee's level of job satisfaction. The alternative hypothesis was supported, finding

that at least one of the factors is related to the employee's level of job satisfaction. Appendix D displays the bivariate scatterplots for each of the five factors and job satisfaction.

Research Question (RQ2): Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors, if any, are related to the employee's level of organizational trust? The related null hypothesis was, None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to organizational trust. To answer this question, Table 7 displays the Pearson Correlations between organizational trust and five factors scores. Inspection of the table found significant positive correlations between all five factors scores. In other words, organizational culture is significantly related to (bureaucratic culture, leader-member exchange, organizational climate, organizational culture, and relational leadership). Thus, rejecting the null hypothesis for RQ2, which states none of the factors are related to organizational trust. Appendix E displays the bivariate scatterplots for each of the five factors and organizational trust. Pearson correlation scales between the primary dependent variables of job satisfaction and organizational trust found significant positive correlations with the highest scores among the five factors with .82 for organizational culture and .91 for relational leadership.

Table 7

Pearson Correlations for Selected Scale Scores with Job Satisfaction and Organizational Trust Scales (N = 1,187)

Variable	Job Satisfaction	Organizational Trust
Bureaucratic Culture	.76 ****	.66 ****
Leader-Member Exchange	.64 ****	.87 ****
Organizational Climate	.83 ****	.67 ****
Organizational Culture	.82 ****	.74 ****
Relational Leadership	.67 ****	.91 ****

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Research Question (RQ3): Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction after controlling for employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.)? The related null hypothesis was, None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction after controlling for the demographic variables. To answer this question, Table 8 display the Partial Correlations between job satisfaction and five factors scores controlling for the demographic variables. Inspection of the table found all five to be significant positive partial

correlations. In other words, job satisfaction had significant positive partial correlations with each of the five factor scores (bureaucratic culture, leader-member exchange, organizational climate, organizational culture, and relational leadership). Thus, the null hypothesis for RQ3 was rejected and is detailed in (Table 8).

Research Question (RQ4): Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of organizational trust after controlling for employee demographic variables (age, gender, tenure, race/ethnicity, etc.)? The related null hypothesis was, None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to organizational trust after controlling for the demographic variables. To answer this question, Table 8 display the Partial Correlations between organizational trust and five factors scores controlling for the demographic variables. Inspection of the table found all five partial correlations to be significant and positive. In other words, organizational trust had significant positive partial correlations with each of the five factor scores (bureaucratic culture, leader-member exchange, organizational climate, organizational culture, and relational leadership). Thus, the null hypothesis for RQ4 was rejected and is detailed in (Table 8).

Table 8

Partial Correlations for Selected Scale Scores with Job Satisfaction and Organizational Trust Scales (N = 1,187)

Variable	Job Satisfaction	Organizational Trust
Bureaucratic Culture	.76 ****	.65 ****
Leader-Member Exchange	.64 ****	.87 ****
Organizational Climate	.83 ****	.67 ****
Organizational Culture	.81 ****	.74 ****
Relational Leadership	.67 ****	.91 ****

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Partial correlation scales between the primary dependent variables of job satisfaction and organizational trust found significant positive correlations with the highest scores among the five factors with .82 for organizational culture and .91 for relational leadership. Correlation scales are identical for all five factors with exception to bureaucratic culture, which differs by one point (.66 verses .65).

Additional Findings

Additional findings provide an analysis explored in Table 9 that display Pearson Correlations between five demographic variables, which include several scale scores. To further explain, the correlations are a combination of factor

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influencers, dependent variables (job satisfaction and organizational trust), and demographics. Thus, resulting in a total of 35 correlations, which 18 were found significant at $p < .05$.

Table 9

FEVS Correlation Variables

<i>Pearson Correlations</i>	Supervisory Status	Sex	Minority Status	Government Tenure	Age Group
Bureaucratic Culture	0.205**	-0.016	0.071*	0.057*	0.105**
Leader-Member Exchange	0.104**	0.011	0.093**	0.002	0.051
Organizational Climate	0.104**	-0.009	0.015	0.045	0.105**
Organizational Culture	0.226**	0.022	-0.013	.0110**	0.123**
Relational Leadership	0.106**	0.000	0.104**	0.004	0.044
Job Satisfaction	0.180**	0.022	-0.016	0.082**	0.127**
Organizational Trust	0.123**	0.021	0.076**	-0.005	0.037

Note. **Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

As previously discussed in chapter 3, Tables 1 and 2 explain factor influencers classified as a bureaucratic culture, leader-member exchange, organizational climate, organizational culture, relational leadership, job satisfaction, and

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organizational trust. The demographic scale scores are identified as supervisor status, sex, minority status, government tenure, and age group. Table 9 details the 35 correlation variables and each level of significance per scale scores.

Table 10 and Table 11 display Pearson Correlations between the five demographic variables with the seven primary scale scores (the five factor influencers along with job satisfaction and organizational trust). Factor influencers are classified as bureaucratic culture, leader member exchange, organizational climate, organizational culture, and relational leadership. Demographic variables are classified as supervisor status, sex, minority status, government tenure, and age group. For the resulting 35 correlations, 18 were found significant at the $p < .05$. The largest correlations among the 35 correlations were that supervisors gave more positive ratings than non-supervisors for bureaucratic culture ($r = .21, p < .001$) and organizational culture ($r = .23, p < .001$).

Summary

The quantitative correlations study used survey responses for 1,187 employees to explore the effectiveness of survey results in measuring how culture impacts trust and employee job satisfaction. The purpose of this research analyzes the relationship between the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey

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(FEVS) factors and its effect on trust and employee job satisfaction, which all four alternative hypotheses are supported and detailed in (Tables 10 and 11). Both Pearson and Partial correlation scale scores revealed significant positive correlations. The factor influencers are classified as a bureaucratic culture, leader-member exchange, organizational climate, organizational culture, and relational leadership.

Table 10

Correlations for Selected Scale Scores with Supervisory Status, Sex, and Minority Status (N = 1,187)

Variable	Supervisory Status ^a	Sex ^b	Minority Status ^c
Bureaucratic Culture	.21 ****	-.02	.07 *
Leader-Member Exchange	.10 ****	.01	.09 ***
Organizational Climate	.10 ****	-.01	.02
Organizational Culture	.23 ****	.02	-.01
Relational Leadership	.11 ****	.00	.10 ****
Job Satisfaction	.18 ****	.02	-.02
Organizational Trust	.12 ****	.02	.08 **

^aCoding: 1 = Non Supervisor /Team Leader; 2 = Supervisor /Manager /Senior Leader. ^bCoding: 1 = Male; 2 = Female. ^cCoding: 1 = Minority; 2 = Non-Minority.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Table 11

Correlations for Selected Scale Scores with Government Tenure and Age Group (N = 1,187)

Variable	Government Tenure ^d	Age Group ^e
Bureaucratic Culture	.06 *	.11 ****
Leader-Member Exchange	.02	.05
Organizational Climate	.05	.11 ****
Organizational Culture	.11 ****	.12 ****
Relational Leadership	.00	.04
Job Satisfaction	.08 ***	.13 ****
Organizational Trust	-.01	.04

^dCoding: 1 = 5 or fewer years; 2 = 6-14 year; 3 = 15 or more years. ^eCoding: 1 = Under 40; 2 = 40-49; 3 = 50-59; 4 = 60 or older.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$. **** $p < .001$.

Pearson Correlations revealed significant positive correlations between the dependent variables of job satisfaction and organizational trust. The highest scores among the five factors were .82 for organizational culture and .91 for relational leadership (see Table 7). Partial correlations also revealed significant positive partial correlations between the dependent the variables of job satisfaction and organizational trust. The highest scores were among the five factors was .82 for organizational culture and .91 for relational leadership

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(see Table 7). As shown in Table 09, 18 out of 35 correlations were significant at the $p < .05$. Considering factor influencers among the demographic variables, the largest correlations among the 35 correlations revealed supervisors gave more positive ratings than non-supervisors for bureaucratic culture ($r = .21$, $p < .001$) and organizational culture ($r = .23$, $p < .001$).

In the final chapter, these findings will be compared to the literature. Additionally, conclusions and implications will also be explored, and a series of recommendation will be suggested.

Chapter 5. Discussion

This study offers a secondary analysis of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) results to examine linear relationships using Pearson Correlations and Partial Correlation. For the purpose of this study, literature sources are identified as FEVS factors that correlate with the research questions. This study also explores the effectiveness of survey results in measuring how culture impacts trust and employee job satisfaction. An applied statistical approach utilizes correlation testing to isolate variables after controlling demographics that influence how culture affects trust and job satisfaction while determining if results have positive or negative outcomes. This chapter discusses findings, provides a summary, and answers questions to the research. Additionally, providing an analysis of the Department of Housing and Urban Development's bureaucratic culture and how it affects employee trust and job satisfaction. The analysis determined the association between organizational trust and job satisfaction among survey responses and its relation to the five factors and after controlling demographic variables investigate the utilization of a 3-point scale: 1 = Negative, 2 = Neutral, and 3 = Positive.

Summary of Findings

The interpretation of results derived from the data analysis is aimed toward answering four research questions, which support hypothesis testing. All four research questions test of statistical significance based on an alpha level of .05. The null hypotheses for all four questions were rejected and all four alternative hypotheses were supported. The theoretical framework regarding research results is supported in conjunction with previous studies related to job satisfaction and organizational trust.

Research Question 1 (RQ1). Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (FEVS) factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction? As previously referenced in chapter 4, FEVS factors are influencers that correlate with the literature review and are identifiable through its relation to the survey questions. There were significant positive correlations between the employee's level of satisfaction. The related null hypothesis was None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected. The dependent variable job satisfaction revealed 58.3% coefficient determination account for the employee's level of satisfaction is linked to reasons associated with bureaucratic organizational

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culture and 40.5% is linked to leader-member exchange (see Appendix D).

The results are consistent with historical research related to job satisfaction, which described major theoretical positions surrounding the concept that individual beliefs and attitudes influence cognitive judgment in distinguishing overall satisfaction (Weiss & Merlo, 2015). Job satisfaction research is driven by the continued interest to broaden the position that confirms the importance of measuring an individual's psychological construct in understanding the correlation related to satisfaction (Weiss & Merlo, 2015). Romzek (1990) supported results that are similar to current findings among employees who work in the public sector who are partial to benefits that cause satisfaction that involve opportunities for career advancement, salaries, and performance bonuses. Such opportunities are considered to support variables that explain influence variations of job satisfaction amongst government employees.

Research conducted in 2002 by Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) tested environmental influences of 11 variables and three factors demographic variations that have effects on job satisfaction. Among the study of participants of 1,200 full-time employees, results revealed environmental factors related to supervisory relationships, promotional opportunities, benefits, training resources, performance appraisals, and the

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employee's workload can foster positive relationships that impact job satisfaction (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2002). In an early study, Kahn et al. (1964) supported findings that resemble the argument that finds,

A lack of structure in the workplace is associated with decreases in job satisfaction; highly structured expectations produced opposite effects, such as decreased evaluation apprehension and reduced stress. Specifically, a lack of clarity regarding job requirements engenders negative reactions to accountability, as employees are not certain which behaviors will promote the accrual of desired outcomes. (p. 100)

Dose and Klimoski (1995) also supported the concept in connection with findings that implies an employee's unrealistic expectations may cause adverse psychological reactions that decrease overall job satisfaction. Volmer et al. (2011) supported results that suggest similarities between the two theories of job satisfaction and leader-member exchange. Also yielding results of significant effects with relation to leader-member exchange, which have strong effects on an employee level of job satisfaction. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) pointed to the relation of leader-member exchange in the attempt to map out a leadership structure that is dependent on quality relationships that have the ability to influence outcomes. While on the other hand, a bureaucratic organizational culture may have significant influence on an organization's structure. Research conducted by Park and Joaquin (2012) concludes factors related to challenges

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in assessing and reforming bureaucracy in federal agencies has become increasingly complex in shifting "managerialist values" (p. 530). This suggestion for future public reform initiatives persists, which further research should be explored.

Research Question 2 (RQ2). Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors, if any, are related to organizational trust? There were significant positive correlations between the employee's level of trust. The related null hypothesis was None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. The dependent variable organizational trust revealed 43.3% coefficient determination account for the employee's level of trust is linked to reasons associated with bureaucratic organizational culture and 76.2% is linked to leader-member exchange (see Appendix E).

Although Axelrod (1984) suggested additional research requires a distinctive examination of organizational trust, existing studies provide an increased understanding associated with the top topic of organizational trust and the linkage to job satisfaction (Mayer et al., 1995). Without trust, the organizational community is lessened and the community gains resentment, which is considered as a defense of ambitious managers. Research offers identification to dimensions of trust measured in concert with the employees' degree of mutual

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ambitions, values, and beliefs related to an organization's culture. The dimensions detailed in the literature sources are identified through connecting the way an employee feels toward their management and to other coworkers (Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000). Dimensions of trust focus on the concept of openness and honesty that exist among an organization's members. According to Shockley-Zalabak et al. (2000), supporting data regarding the dimensions of trust and its ability to measure leadership effectiveness are referenced as part of the ability to survive within the marketplace. These dimensions measure the accuracy of information and flow of communication existent throughout the workplace (Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2000). Other studies provide comprehensive perspectives in relation to trust and causes that impede consistency in the workplace.

However, despite emerging views of trust, organizations that quantify the trust factor have observed declining trust among employees (Farnham, 1989). Specifically, the fueling interest presented research that examined unyielding problems of distrust in organizations (Farnham, 1989).

Research Question 3 (RQ3). Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction after controlling demographic variables (age, gender, education, location, race/ethnicity, etc.)? Findings concluded that there were significant positive correlations.

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The related null hypothesis was None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Research Question 4 (RQ4). Which of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of organizational trust after controlling for employee demographic variables (age, gender, education, location, race/ethnicity, etc.)? Findings concluded that there were significant positive correlations. The related null hypothesis was None of the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey factors are related to the employee's level of job satisfaction. Thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Research widely supports job satisfaction is based on one's satisfaction with pay, supervision, and actual work functions. In contrast to historical research and studies, Weiss and Merlo (2015) referenced facets of job satisfaction that are typically determined around an employee's attitude. Weiss and Merlo pointed out,

Satisfaction is assessed both in research and organizational practice context (e.g., organization-specific morale survey, climate surveys, etc.) and while researchers tend to use a few well developed, widely available measures, organizations tend to use proprietary measures either developed in-house or by consulting firms. (p. 833)

The research community measures overall satisfaction that is based on an employee's perception of his or her job. Facets

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measure specific job experiences, which are consider convenient assessments derived from the concept of overall satisfaction.

However, what was found to be problematic is the evaluation assumes employee satisfaction is based on mental intentions.

Weiss and Merlo (2015) contended mental intentions that are not supported. This concept was explained based on the following:

As employees can contribute to organizational effectiveness in many ways, through their task performance, commitment to the organization, reliability of attendance, provision of support and mentoring, and so on, no single statement can be made about satisfaction and performance. Instead, the importance of work attitudes to performance appears to be a function of what aspect of performance one is referring to. (p. 835)

The researcher's conclusion is referenced as being rather surprising, which suggests limited literature surrounding an employee's attitude that's represented in surveys are somewhat ambiguous because they don't measure employee morale (Weiss & Merlo, 2015). The research further argues that the approach regarding behavior and attitude related to satisfaction is inconsistent (Weiss & Merlo, 2015).

The findings confirm the quantitative correlations study used 2014 survey responses for 1,187 employees to explore the overall effectiveness of survey results in measuring how a bureaucratic organizational culture impacts trust and employee job satisfaction. This study revealed primary findings were supported and concluded that job satisfaction ($M = 2.17$) and

organizational trust ($M = 2.5$) as well as five factors scores. Among the five factors, bureaucratic culture and leader-member exchange coefficient determination are link variances or reasons associated with an employee's level of job satisfaction and organizational trust. Therefore, results provide significant correlations that FEVS factors affect trust and employee job satisfaction, which all four alternative hypotheses are supported, based on the chapter 4 results.

Comparison of Results

A comparison to previous studies focus on U.S. federal employees of selected federal agencies, primary discussion revolves around job satisfaction. Each of the comparative studies analyzes factors that influence variations of job satisfaction. The results from chapter 4 indicate a lower mean score compared to responses from a 2006 study that examined attitudes of federal employees. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) suggested "regardless of the theoretical approach used to study job satisfaction," this topic has become a more favorable subject matter to researchers (p. 344). According to Lee, Cayer, and Lan (2006) who examine factors inclusive of job satisfaction over a seven-year period. This "study conducted ANOVA tests to identify significance of mean differences among the years" (p. 28). The comparative study measures 14 factors; however, the primary dependent variable was job satisfaction

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with a mean value of ($M = 3.72$). Although the 2006 study encompasses a number of federal agencies, the results represent a significant correlation in conjunction to the present study. Ellickson and Logsdon (2002) job satisfaction mean was 2.48 ($M = 2.48$) and Ting's (1997) mean was 3.83 ($M = 3.83$). Chapter 4 statistical correlation results from 2014 revealed $M = 2.17$, which indicates the perception of job satisfaction among federal employees was higher means are represented in older studies; highlighting mean differences with a significance at the $p = .05$ level. Table 12 displays a comparison of job satisfaction and arithmetic means from three previous studies organizational climate, organizational culture, and relational leadership.

Table 12

Job Satisfaction Mean Comparison

Research Study Title	M	Researcher(s)
HUD Culture and How it Affects Employee Job Satisfaction*	2.17	Robinson, N.J. (2016)
Changing Federal Government Employee Attitudes Since Civil Service Reform Act 1978	3.72	Lee, H., Cayer, N.J., & Lan, G.Z. (2006)
Determinants of Job Satisfaction of Municipal Government Employees	2.48	Ellickson, M.C., & Logsdon, K. (2002)
Determinants of Job Satisfaction of Federal Government Employees	3.83	Ting, Y. (1997)

*Researcher's present study analyzing 2014 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey data

Among the three studies outlined in Table 12, the score fluctuates with the highest of 3.83 in 1997 to 2.17 in 2016, which indicates a decrease in job satisfaction. Although

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varying studies related to job satisfaction continue to flourish, the decrease may be universal and potentially attributed to the five factors as provided in chapter 4; inclusive of a bureaucratic culture, leader-member exchange,

Additional comparative results places higher significance results are based on Callaway (2006) who examined the relationship between organizational trust and job satisfaction administered through two survey instruments. The survey instrument was comprised of 63 questions encompassing seven federal agencies. The level of job satisfaction indicated 68.86% of the survey respondents were not satisfied with the organizations' efficiency. In relation to organizational trust, 51.3% of the respondents indicated that they did not trust in the agency's ability to compete in the market place (Callaway, 2006). The Callaway study also utilized demographic variables is its correlation testing which similarities persist among the age group classification of employees between the ages of 50-59.

Recommendations

The FEVS is a valuable tool in partly measuring certain aspects of an organizations overall viability in pursuing government accountability within the federal government. The Office of Personnel Management continues to expand its use of FEVS data and statistical government reports that is available

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for public use. The Department of Housing and Urban Development should refocus its utilization in the attempt to facilitate an in-depth dialogue toward implementing a new approach that encompasses transforming overall employee perception. As previously stated in chapter 2, relational leadership encompasses developing conceptual and practical constitutive dialog that is subjective, which fosters fundamentally more natural conversations that build relationships (Cunliffe & Eriksen, 2011). This concept is supported by research said to establish hermeneutics grounded in human experiences. Developing strategies that demonstrate proven results to aid in transforming the agency's perception by first identifying root causes of mistrust and job satisfaction.

Shifting an organization's culture begins with truly examining change models that will reinvigorate the agency's dialogue with employees. This dialogue can launch a change management initiative to influence strategic organizational shifts within culture climate.

Improving communication filtered through top-down management that erodes speaking with one collaborative voice. Creating a change management initiative will focus on engaging employees through empowerment.

Practitioners Usage

Assessing the environment plays a significant role in evaluating an organization's climate. In the attempt to implement change, as part of a strategic planning goal, the SPELIT Power Matrix offers social and intercultural environmental assessments that analyze and evaluate an environment. SPELIT is an assessment tool utilized by practitioners in determining an organizational diagnosis. Schmieder-Ramirez and Mallette (2007) suggest that evaluations take place prior to implementing any transition or setting benchmarks in anticipation of introducing a change intervention (Schmieder-Ramirez & Mallette, 2007). This assessment component places emphasis on highlighting organizational views about both the social and intercultural framework. The social aspect focuses on how people interact with one another. On the hand, "intercultural competence impacts the social environment, particularly because cultures exist based on ethnic background, gender, generations, sexual orientation and various other factors" (Schmieder-Ramirez & Mallette, 2007, p. 94). Thus examining the results, the environment itself is attitudinal in nature and produces positive and negative perceptions within the workplace.

According to Adkins (2015), "Gallup defines engaged employees as those who are involved and enthusiastic about and

committed to their work and workplace.” (p. 24). The Gallup (2013) report categorizes workers based on their level of engagement within the workplace. For this purpose, elements of change are predicted to improve employee engagement that affects organizational performance outcomes (Adkins, 2015). Engaging more with employees will connect essential management practices that will begin removing barriers of age-old organizational norms. U.S. business leaders boost engagement based developing strengths to enhance satisfaction. Gallup (2013) showed that integrating engagement and empowerment techniques between management and non-management employees will have lasting effects on building relationships that engender trust. In a study, “State of the American Workplace” (Gallup, 2013), best organizational practices focus on developing four key areas:

- Strategy and Leadership Philosophy
- Accountability and Performance
- Communication and Knowledge Management
- Development and Ongoing Learning Opportunities

The 2013 report referenced that “great managers help employees understand how every role in the organization connect through the company’s mission and purpose” (p. 56).

FEVS’ measuring capabilities should be reassessed to enhance survey content that directly address management practices. Assessing management practices will reinforce

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developing the agency's existing practices that will improve overall performance and engagement. Additionally, condensing the actual number of survey questions and the length of the investigation may prove to have more significance in targeting organizational outcomes

In summation, future studies should explore underlying challenges related to the effects of organizational trust and job satisfaction. This requires eliminating any ambiguities related to personnel issues that may lead to the determination of mistrust and overall dissatisfaction, for example styles of formal communication, effective decision-making, work system enhancements, policies/procedures, performance appraisals, mentoring, and coaching. HUD must focus efforts toward improving employee engagement to produce positive relational change between management and non-management employees. These improvements will focus on leaderships' ability to enhance employee engagement practices. This approach establishes a platform for rebuilding organizational trust in effort to create desired outcomes in achieving success and organizational viability.

Research Limitations

Since FEVS's 2002 inception, the survey questions have changed over the years, which present challenges for researchers attempting to provide comparative data analysis and results.

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Data retrieval determined inconsistencies in survey question during the period ranging from years 2012 - 2014.

Inconsistencies are related to core and demographic survey questions that have adjusted over time. OPM does not provide reasoning as to the changes within the survey instrument. The researcher also notes data retrieval inconsistencies directly related to the survey design based on the 5-point Likert scale verses raw data received from the OPM consisting of a 3-point scale of: 1 = Negative, 2 = Neutral, and 3 = Positive. Other limitations are consistent with Resh and Moldogaziev (2015) study:

FEVS items are grouped by the thematic area (e.g., leadership or job satisfaction). However, very few, if any, explanations are provided in the technical notes as to how these batteries of questions were developed or selected. (p. 8)

Resh and Moldogaziev (2015) questions measuring FEVS reliability, which references the commonly used Cronbach's alpha test; however, the study reports, "When it comes to measurement validity, the FEVS imposes significant limitations" (p. 8).

The survey sample size administered in the 2014 calendar year decreased from the reported number of surveyed employees of 7,558 while referencing in OPM's 2014 technical report that 3,890 employees participated in the survey. The overall response rate is noted as 51.5% of the sample size. However, after analyzing the data that prompted removal of respondents

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who did not complete the entire survey, the result was a new sample size. The number employees who participated in 2014 survey was 1,187(overall response rate of 16%). The sample size was stratified based on controlling demographic variables of primary respondents represented by non-supervisory, non-minority females between the ages of 50-59 with 15 or more years of service. Finally, limitations persist within the representation that the overall HUD population is fully represented to accurately classify HUD employee perception.

Summary and Conclusion

As the OPM and HUD continue to administer its annual Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey, results revealed further need to substantiate the survey's reliability. The relationship between job satisfaction and trust requires a more in-depth study that focuses on investing longstanding relational managerial practices. Thus, this study did not attempt to uncover questions related to the validity of the FEVS survey instrument itself.

Research results provide evidence of significant positive correlations that support all four research questions associated with factors that affect an employee's level of trust and job satisfaction. With that in mind, the researcher acknowledges previous studies that focus more intently on web-survey usability, which also requires further exploration (Elo, 2009).

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Elo strongly suggested reactive responses and cognitive judgment may affect individual responses to questions in web surveys. The suggestion of reactive responses insinuates that web-based surveys should not be independent in drawing a definitive conclusion. This approach is due in part to variables that impede a respondents' cognitive judgment in honestly and accurately responding to survey questions. In this instance, studies indicate that some respondents may lack motivation in participating in the survey process. Additionally, the design or the surveys' content may poorly reflect the overall impact of the questions. Thus, future research should carefully examine usability and reliability of web-based surveys. As the departments' leadership continually places a shared value on reaffirming commitment to building a stronger HUD. The responsibility relies upon realigning the organizational structure that foster continuous efforts in changing employee perception of management. Producing positive outcomes achieved through implementing collaborative strategies to improve organizational trust and employee job satisfaction conducive to the overall health of the agency.

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APPENDIX A

Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Questions



Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Instrument

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
My Work Experience						
1. I am given a real opportunity to improve my skills in my organization.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
2. I have enough information to do my job well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
3. I feel encouraged to come up with new and better ways of doing things.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
4. My work gives me a feeling of personal accomplishment.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
5. I like the kind of work I do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
6. I know what is expected of me on the job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
7. When needed I am willing to put in the extra effort to get a job done.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
8. I am constantly looking for ways to do my job better.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Do Not Know
9. I have sufficient resources (for example, people, materials, budget) to get my job done.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. My workload is reasonable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. My talents are used well in the workplace.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. I know how my work relates to the agency's goals and priorities.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. The work I do is important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Physical conditions (for example, noise level, temperature, lighting, cleanliness in the workplace) allow employees to perform their jobs well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. My performance appraisal is a fair reflection of my performance.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. I am held accountable for achieving results.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Instrument (cont'd)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Do Not Know
17. I can disclose a suspected violation of any law, rule or regulation without fear of reprisal.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. My training needs are assessed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Basis to Judge
19. In my most recent performance appraisal, I understood what I had to do to be rated at different performance levels (for example, Fully Successful, Outstanding).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My Work Unit						
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
20. The people I work with cooperate to get the job done.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Do Not Know
21. My work unit is able to recruit people with the right skills.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Promotions in my work unit are based on merit.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. In my work unit, steps are taken to deal with a poor performer who cannot or will not improve.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. In my work unit, differences in performance are recognized in a meaningful way.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Awards in my work unit depend on how well employees perform their jobs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Employees in my work unit share job knowledge with each other.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. The skill level in my work unit has improved in the past year.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Instrument (cont'd)

	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very Poor	
28. How would you rate the overall quality of work done by your work unit?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Do Not Know
29. The workforce has the job-relevant knowledge and skills necessary to accomplish organizational goals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. Employees have a feeling of personal empowerment with respect to work processes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. Employees are recognized for providing high quality products and services.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. Creativity and innovation are rewarded.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. Pay raises depend on how well employees perform their jobs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. Policies and programs promote diversity in the workplace (for example, recruiting minorities and women, training in awareness of diversity issues, mentoring).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. Employees are protected from health and safety hazards on the job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. My organization has prepared employees for potential security threats.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. Arbitrary action, personal favoritism and coercion for partisan political purposes are not tolerated.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. Prohibited Personnel Practices (for example, illegally discriminating for or against any employee/ applicant, obstructing a person's right to compete for employment, knowingly violating veterans' preference requirements) are not tolerated.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. My agency is successful at accomplishing its mission.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
40. I recommend my organization as a good place to work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Instrument (cont'd)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Do Not Know
41. I believe the results of this survey will be used to make my agency a better place to work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
My Supervisor						
42. My supervisor supports my need to balance work and other life issues.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43. My supervisor provides me with opportunities to demonstrate my leadership skills.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44. Discussions with my supervisor about my performance are worthwhile.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
45. My supervisor is committed to a workforce representative of all segments of society.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
46. My supervisor provides me with constructive suggestions to improve my job performance.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
47. Supervisors in my work unit support employee development.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	
48. My supervisor listens to what I have to say.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
49. My supervisor treats me with respect.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
50. In the last six months, my supervisor has talked with me about my performance.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
51. I have trust and confidence in my supervisor.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very Poor	
52. Overall, how good a job do you feel is being done by your immediate supervisor?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	

Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Instrument (cont'd)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Do Not Know
Leadership						
53. In my organization, senior leaders generate high levels of motivation and commitment in the workforce.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
54. My organization's senior leaders maintain high standards of honesty and integrity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
55. Supervisors work well with employees of different backgrounds.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
56. Managers communicate the goals and priorities of the organization.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
57. Managers review and evaluate the organization's progress toward meeting its goals and objectives.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
58. Managers promote communication among different work units (for example, about projects, goals, needed resources).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
59. Managers support collaboration across work units to accomplish work objectives.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very Poor	
60. Overall, how good a job do you feel is being done by the manager directly above your immediate supervisor?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Do Not Know
61. I have a high level of respect for my organization's senior leaders.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
62. Senior leaders demonstrate support for Work/Life programs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Instrument (cont'd)

	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
My Satisfaction					
63. How satisfied are you with your involvement in decisions that affect your work?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
64. How satisfied are you with the information you receive from management on what's going on in your organization?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
65. How satisfied are you with the recognition you receive for doing a good job?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied
66. How satisfied are you with the policies and practices of your senior leaders?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
67. How satisfied are you with your opportunity to get a better job in your organization?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
68. How satisfied are you with the training you receive for your present job?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
69. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your job?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
70. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your pay?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
71. Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your organization?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Work/Life					
72. Have you been notified whether or not you are eligible to telework?					
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes, I was notified that I was eligible to telework.					
<input type="checkbox"/> Yes, I was notified that I was not eligible to telework.					
<input type="checkbox"/> No, I was not notified of my telework eligibility.					
<input type="checkbox"/> Not sure if I was notified of my telework eligibility.					

4 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Instrument (cont'd)

73. Please select the response below that BEST describes your current teleworking situation.

- ☐ I telework 3 or more days per week.
- ☐ I telework 1 or 2 days per week.
- ☐ I telework, but no more than 1 or 2 days per month.
- ☐ I telework very infrequently, on an unscheduled or short-term basis.
- ☐ I do not telework because I have to be physically present on the job (e.g., Law Enforcement Officers, Park Rangers, Security Personnel).
- ☐ I do not telework because I have technical issues (e.g., connectivity, inadequate equipment) that prevent me from teleworking.
- ☐ I do not telework because I did not receive approval to do so, even though I have the kind of job where I can telework.
- ☐ I do not telework because I choose not to telework.

	Yes	No	Not Available to Me
74-78. Do you participate in the following Work/Life programs?			
74. Alternative Work Schedules (AWS)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
75. Health and Wellness Programs (for example, exercise, medical screening, quit smoking programs)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
76. Employee Assistance Program (EAP)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
77. Child Care Programs (for example, daycare, parenting classes, parenting support groups)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
78. Elder Care Programs (for example, support groups, speakers)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	No Basis to Judge
79-84. How satisfied are you with the following Work/Life programs in your agency?						
79. Telework	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
80. Alternative Work Schedules (AWS)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
81. Health and Wellness Programs (for example, exercise, medical screening, quit smoking programs)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
82. Employee Assistance Program (EAP)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
83. Child Care Programs (for example, daycare, parenting classes, parenting support groups)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
84. Elder Care Programs (for example, support groups, speakers)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

4 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Instrument (cont'd)

85. Where do you work?

☐ Headquarters

☐ Field

86. What is your supervisory status?

☐ Non-Supervisor: You do not supervise other employees.

☐ Team Leader: You are not an official supervisor; you provide employees with day-to-day guidance in work projects, but do not have supervisory responsibilities or conduct performance appraisals.

☐ Supervisor: You are a first-line supervisor who is responsible for employees' performance appraisals and leave approval.

☐ Manager: You are in a management position and supervise one or more supervisors.

☐ Senior Leader: You are the head of a department/agency or a member of the immediate leadership team responsible for directing the policies and priorities of the department/agency. May hold either a political or career appointment, and typically is a member of the Senior Executive Service or equivalent.

87. Are you:

☐ Male

☐ Female

88. Are you Hispanic or Latino?

☐ Yes

☐ No

89. Please select the racial category or categories with which you most closely identify (mark as many as apply).

☐ American Indian or Alaska Native

☐ Asian

☐ Black or African American

☐ Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

☐ White

90. What is the highest degree or level of education you have completed?

☐ Less than High School

☐ High School Diploma/GED or equivalent

☐ Trade or Technical Certificate

☐ Some College (no degree)

☐ Associate's Degree (e.g., AA, AS)

☐ Bachelor's Degree (e.g., BA, BS)

☐ Master's Degree (e.g., MA, MS, MBA)

☐ Doctoral/Professional Degree (e.g., Ph.D., MD, JD)

A [REDACTED] Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Instrument (cont'd)

91. What is your pay category/grade?

- ☐ Federal Wage System (for example, WB, WD, WG, WL, WM, WS, WY)
- ☐ GS 1-6
- ☐ GS 7-12
- ☐ GS 13-15
- ☐ Senior Executive Service
- ☐ Senior Level (SL) or Scientific or Professional (ST)
- ☐ Other

91. What is your pay category/grade?

- ☐ Federal Wage System (for example, WB, WD, WG, WL, WM, WS, WY)
- ☐ GS 1-6
- ☐ GS 7-12
- ☐ GS 13-15
- ☐ Senior Executive Service
- ☐ Senior Level (SL) or Scientific or Professional (ST)
- ☐ Other

92. How long have you been with the Federal Government (excluding military service)?

- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ 1 to 3 years
- ☐ 4 to 5 years
- ☐ 6 to 10 years
- ☐ 11 to 14 years
- ☐ 15 to 20 years
- ☐ More than 20 years

93. How long have you been with your current agency (for example, Department of Justice, Environmental Protection Agency)?

- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ 1 to 3 years
- ☐ 4 to 5 years
- ☐ 6 to 10 years
- ☐ 11 to 20 years
- ☐ More than 20 years

Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Instrument (cont'd)

94. Are you considering leaving your organization within the next year, and if so, why?

- ☐ No
- ☐ Yes, to retire
- ☐ Yes, to take another job within the Federal Government
- ☐ Yes, to take another job outside the Federal Government
- ☐ Yes, other

95. I am planning to retire:

- ☐ Within one year
- ☐ Between one and three years
- ☐ Between three and five years
- ☐ Five or more years

96. Do you consider yourself to be one or more of the following? (mark as many as apply).

- ☐ Heterosexual or Straight
- ☐ Gay or Lesbian
- ☐ Bisexual
- ☐ Transgender
- ☐ I prefer not to say

97. What is your US military service status?

- ☐ No Prior Military Service
- ☐ Currently in National Guard or Reserves
- ☐ Retired
- ☐ Separated or Discharged

98. Are you an individual with a disability?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

APPENDIX B

HUD Ethics Opinion Approval



U.S. Department of Housing and Urban
Development

www.hud.gov
espanol.hud.gov

MAR 19 2015

MEMORANDUM FOR: Nicole Robinson, Supervisory Enforcement Analyst,
Departmental Enforcement Center, CVS9

FROM: [Redacted] Office of Counsel, [Redacted]

SUBJECT: Ethics Opinion Concerning Your Dissertation

You requested written ethics approval for your dissertation topic focus on the Department's Employee Viewpoint Scores ("EVS"). After reviewing the information provided, I have concluded that the topic of your proposed dissertation, as described, does not relate to your official duties, and your proposed writing is not precluded under the ethics rules. Please carefully review this guidance.

I. Background

You serve as a Supervisory Enforcement Analyst in the Departmental Enforcement Center ("DEC"), Los Angeles Satellite Office. You are pursuing a doctoral degree in Organizational Leadership at Pepperdine University. You advised that using your personal time, outside of your HUD duty hours, and utilizing personal resources you wish to write on the topic of HUD's EVS after conducting a secondary analysis of the EVS via publically available information from OPM's website. You explained that your dissertation will focus on the impact of organizational culture and how it affects employee job satisfaction. You advised that you are taking a quantitative approach to analyzing the existing EVS data to determine trends over the past three years. You stated you will not conduct interviews of HUD employees or use any nonpublic sources of information to further interpret the EVS data. You further explained that your dissertation will not quote any HUD officials in their official capacity or represent that any of the information was obtained through HUD.

II. Analysis

The Standards of Ethical Conduct for Executive Branch Employees ("Standards") provide that an employee must endeavor to avoid any actions creating the appearance that she is violating the law, the ethical standards or would cause a reasonable person to question the employee's impartiality. 5 C.F.R. §§ 2635.101(b)(14), 2635.501, 2635.502.

A Federal employee may not engage in any outside employment or activities that conflict with her official duties. 5 C.F.R. § 2635.802. An activity will be deemed to conflict with the employee's official duties if: (1) it is prohibited by statute or by a Department supplemental regulation, or (2) it would require disqualification from matters so central or critical to the performance of official duties that the employee's ability to perform the duties of her position would be materially impaired. *Id.*

The Standards further provide that an employee is prohibited from receiving compensation from any source other than the government for teaching, speaking or writing that relates to the employee's official duties. 5 C.F.R. §2635.807(a). Employees may not use nonpublic information from their HUD work to further their own private interest. 5 C.F.R. § 2635.703. Nonpublic information is defined as information that the employee gains by reason of Federal employment and that she knows or reasonably should know has not been made available to the general public, including information that: (1) is routinely exempt from disclosure under 5 U.S.C. 552 or otherwise protected from disclosure by statute, Executive order or regulation; (2) is designated as confidential by an agency; or (3) has not actually been disseminated to the general public and is not authorized to be made available to the public on request. *Id.*

Employees are also prohibited from using their public office for private gain. 5 C.F.R. § 2635.702. Generally, employees may not use, or permit the use of, their official title, authority or status as a government employee in connection with their outside activities, nor do anything that suggests that the government sponsors, endorses or otherwise supports their outside activity, enterprise, product or service. *Id.* An employee who is engaged in writing as an outside activity, such as a dissertation, may use, or permit the use of, her title or position provided that is no more prominent than other significant biographical details, and is accompanied by a reasonably *prominent disclaimer* stating that the views expressed in the dissertation do not represent the views of HUD or the United States. 5 C.F.R. § 2635.807(b)(1)-(2). However, in this instance because the use of your title might create the appearance that you are writing in your official capacity, you are advised against using your title except as a part of a biographical sketch and provided that there is a prominent disclaimer that your views do not represent the view of HUD or the United States.

Additionally, the Standards provide that an employee's outside activities must not interfere with her official duties and must not take place during official time. 5 C.F.R. § 2635.705. An employee may not use government resources, including email, office supplies, telephones, and online research services in furtherance of her outside activities. 5 C.F.R. § 2635.704.

Because your dissertation: (1) will narrowly conduct a secondary analysis of HUD's publicly available OPM-EVS data; (2) will not discuss your HUD official duties; (3) will not utilize Departmental resources of any kind, including its personnel; (4) will include appropriate disclaimers; and (5) you will not receive any compensation for the writing or publishing your dissertation, it is ethically permissible for you to author your dissertation under the guidelines outlined above. Each of the above conditions must continue to be satisfied in order for this ethics opinion to remain operative.

III. Conclusion

I have concluded that writing and publishing your dissertation, as you have outlined it, do not violate the ethics rules. Please note that the guidance provided is based on the information as you presented it to our office. If any of the facts of this memorandum change,

HUD CULTURE AND HOW IT AFFECTS

please write to me apprising me of the changed circumstances so that this opinion may be appropriately amended, supplemented or rescinded. If you have any questions, please contact me at [REDACTED] or the attorney assigned to this review, [REDACTED] at [REDACTED].

APPENDIX C

IRB Letter - Permission to Conduct Research



Pepperdine University
24255 Pacific Coast Highway
Malibu, CA 90263
TEL: 310-506-4000

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: February 08, 2016

Protocol Investigator Name: Nicole Robinson

Protocol #: 15-11-125

Project Title: HUD Culture and How It Affects Employee Job Satisfaction

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Nicole Robinson:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at community.pepperdine.edu/irb.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

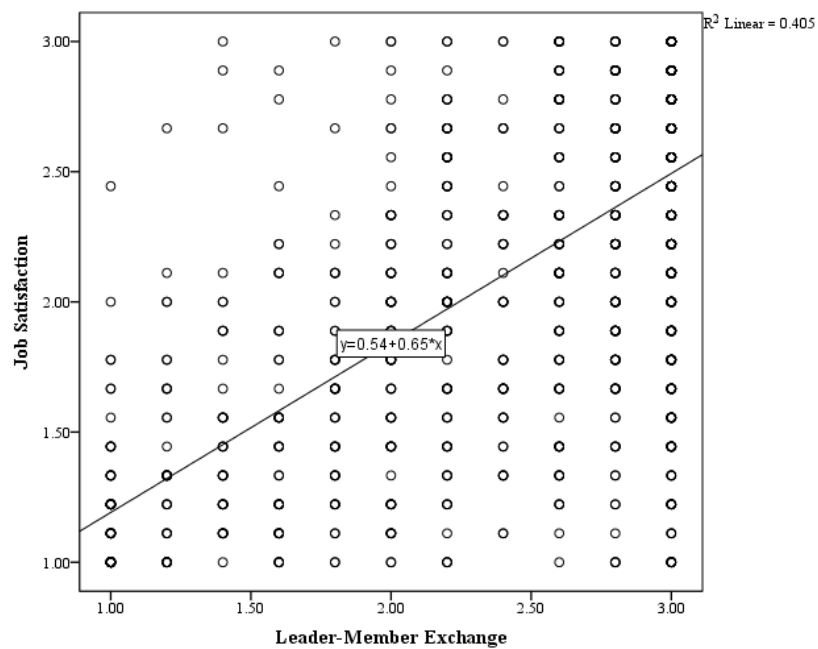
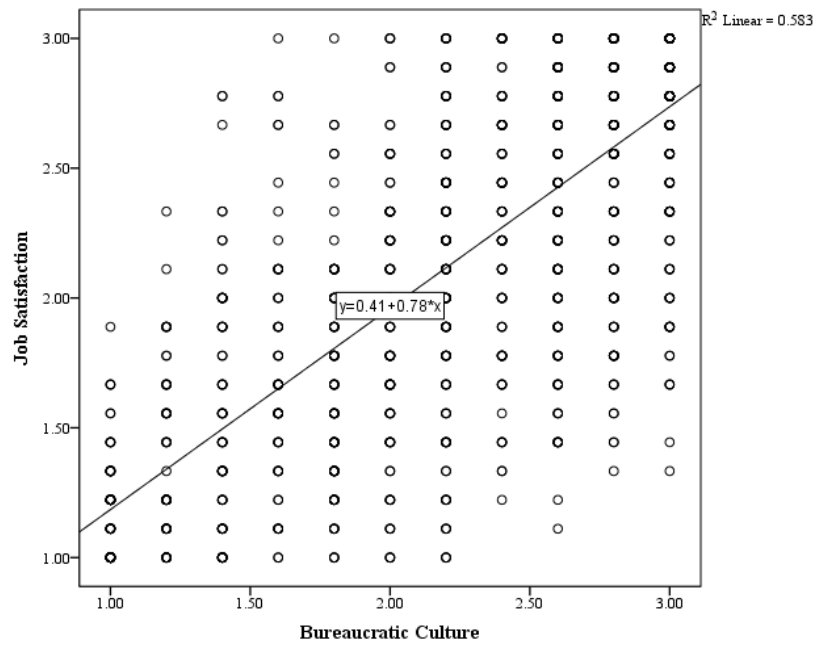
Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chairperson

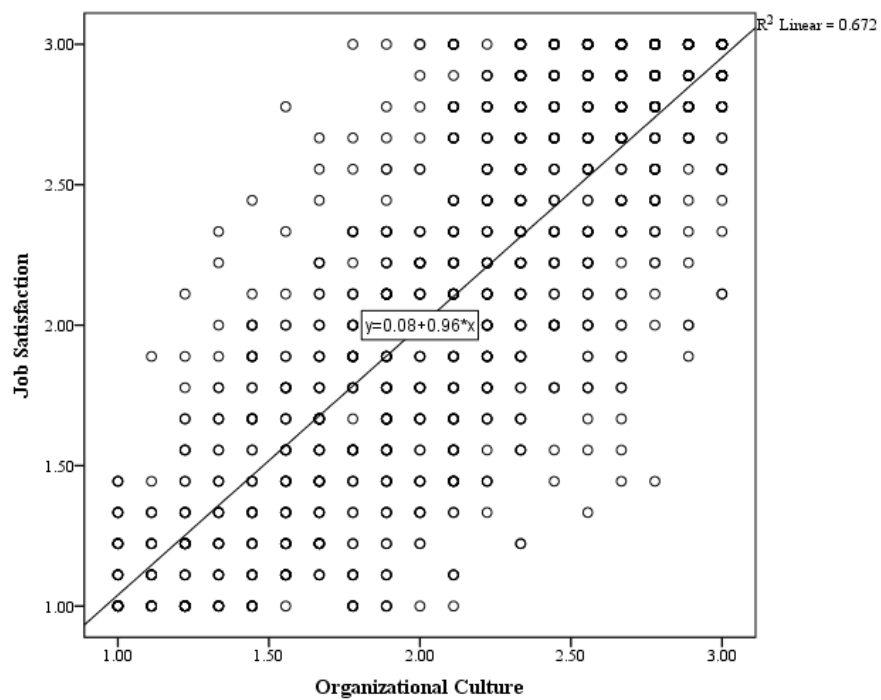
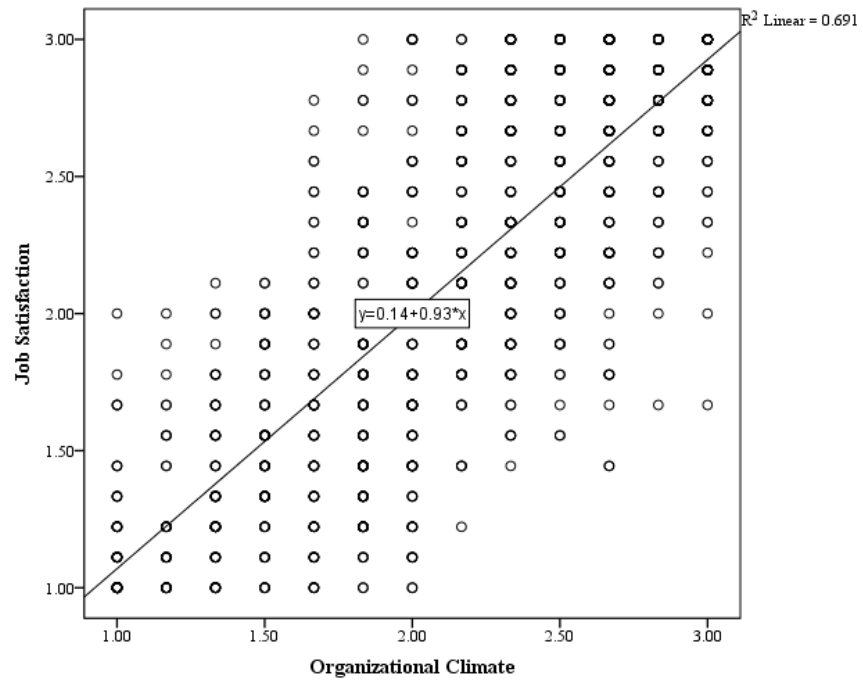
cc: Dr. Lee Kats, Vice Provost for Research and Strategic Initiatives

APPENDIX D

Scatterplots for the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Factors
with Job Satisfaction (H1) ($N = 1,187$)

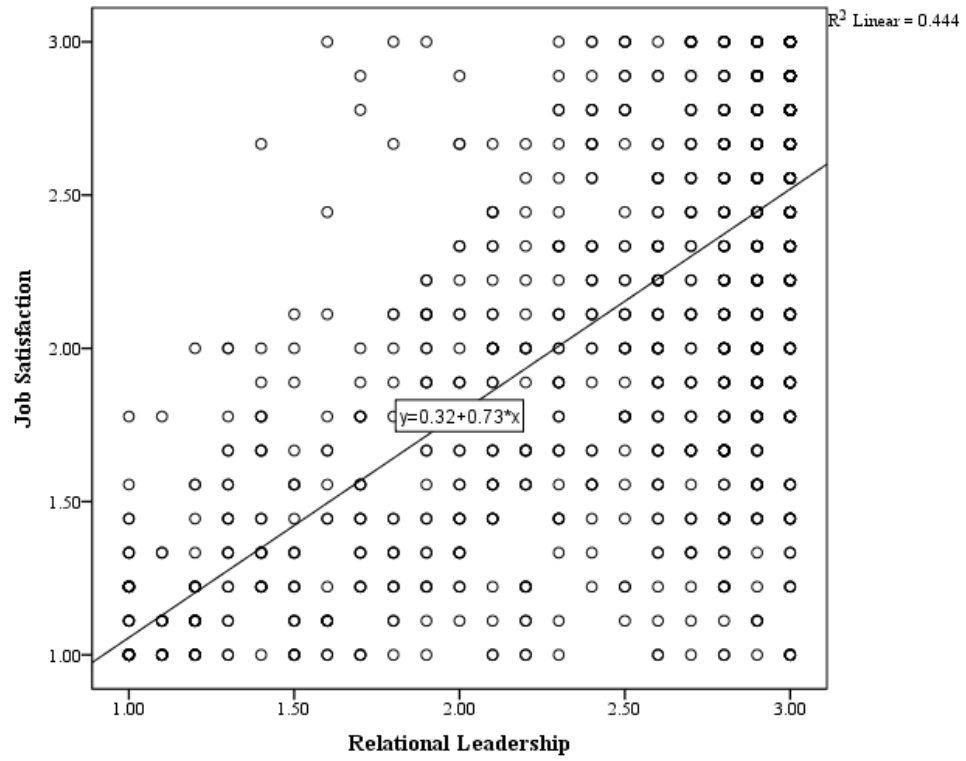


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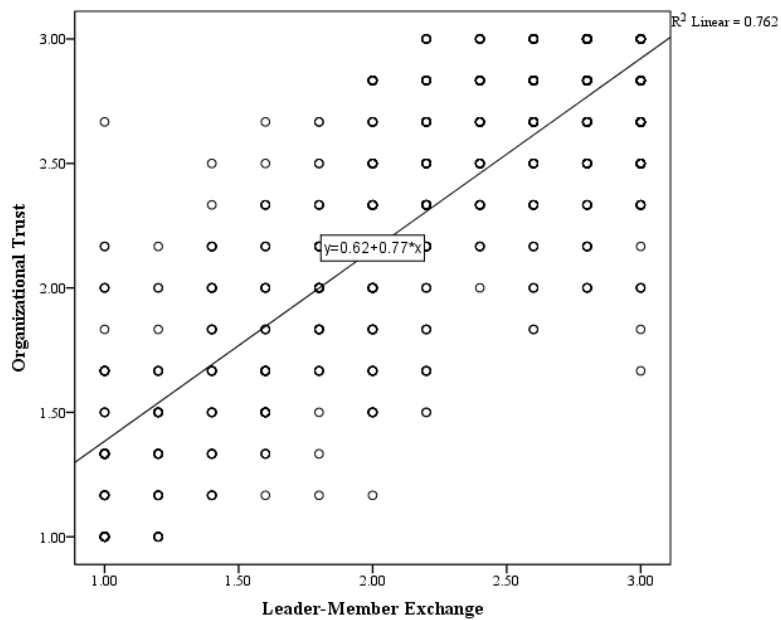
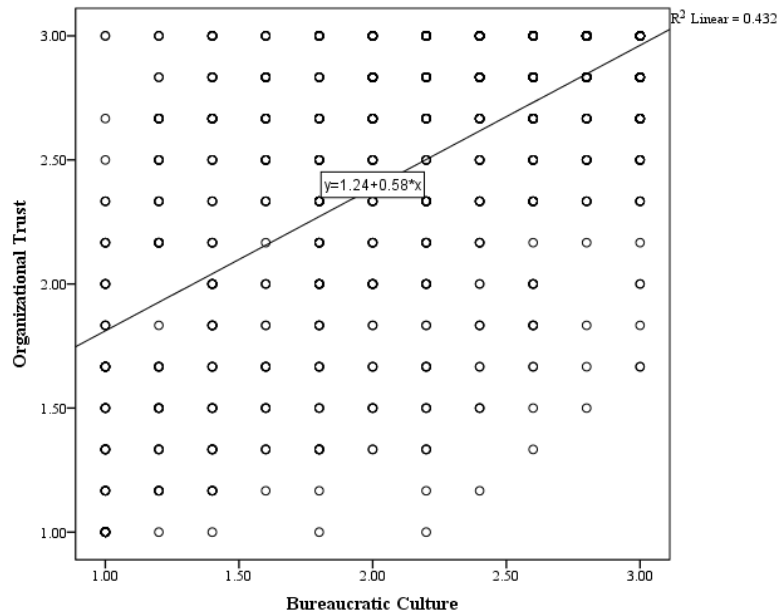
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HUD CULTURE AND HOW IT AFFECTS

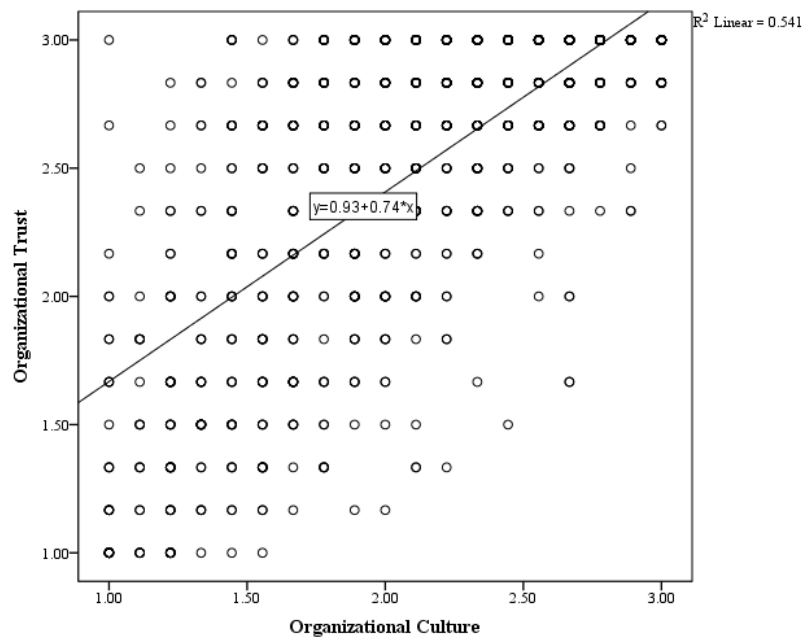
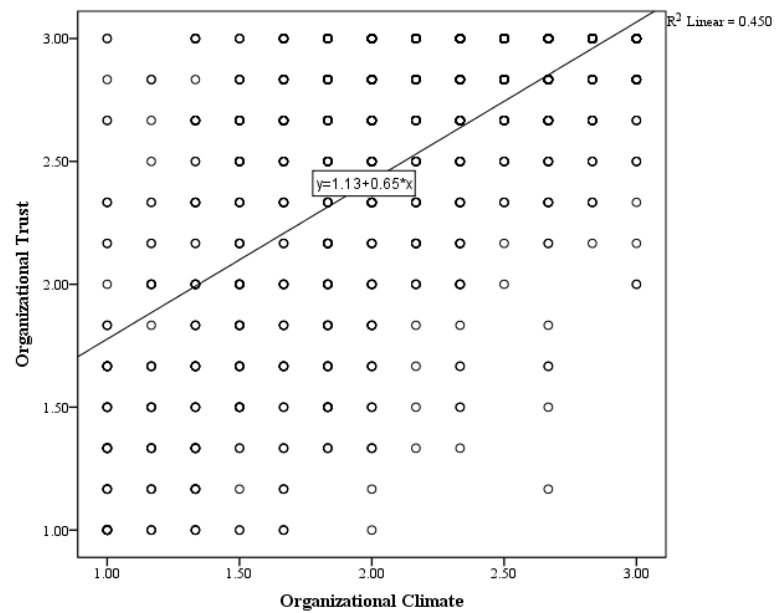


APPENDIX E

Scatterplots for the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey Factors
with Organizational Trust (N = 1,187)



(continued)



(continued)

HUD CULTURE AND HOW IT AFFECTS

