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## VISION SALIENCE AND STRATEGIC INVOLVEMENT: IMPLICATIONS FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL ATTACHMENT TO ORGANIZATION AND JOB

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*Managers' perceptions of their involvement in strategic planning were hypothesized to be positively related with their feelings of organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and job involvement. Further, it was also hypothesized that the relationship between strategic involvement and these work-related attitudes would be enhanced to the extent that the managers' felt that a salient strategic vision was guiding the company. We tested these two hypotheses using a sample of upper level managers in a large corporation undergoing a major strategic transformation. With the exception of finding no evidence that vision salience moderated the positive relationship between strategic involvement and job involvement, both hypotheses were supported. With regard to managers' psychological attachment to the organization, the results suggest that there are advantages afforded by involving them in the strategy making process, and that these advantages are magnified to the extent that the involvement occurs within the context of a salient strategic vision.*

Successful strategy formulation and implementation requires the commitment and involvement of managers of all levels (e.g., Hickson, *et al.* 1986; Imai, 1986; Mintzberg, 1990; Rhyne, 1986). Given today's competitive environment, it appears that such psychological attachment may become increasingly important. For example, Kim and Mauborgne (1993) found that the organizational commitment of subsidiary top managers was positively associated with their compliance with corporate strategies. There is

growing recognition that the commitment to an organization's strategic direction is enhanced by exposure to strategic information and strategic priorities (e.g., Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992) and by a compelling, salient strategic vision (e.g., Collins and Porras, 1991; Hamel and Prahalad, 1989; Hart, 1992; Schoemaker and van der Heijden, 1992). Unfortunately, support for these claims are based primarily on intuitive appeal and anecdotal evidence; little systematic empirical research is available regarding them. In this paper, we consider the role of exposure to strategic information and a salient vision in shaping the managers' psychological attachment to the organization and their job. Specifically,

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we examine the influence of managers' perceived involvement in strategy formulation on their feelings of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement. We also investigate the extent to which this influence is moderated by the perceived presence of a salient strategic vision.

### **Theoretical framework and hypotheses**

#### *Strategic involvement and psychological attachment*

Models of participative effects, whether cognitive or affective in perspective, suggest that various forms of involvement in decision making or problem solving activities should have a beneficial impact on a range of organizational processes and individual attitudes (Miller and Monge, 1986). For example, research suggests that direct exposure to strategic information and strategic priorities facilitates shared understanding of corporate strategy (Floyd and Wooldridge, 1992). However, we found no studies that directly examined how involvement in strategy formulation corresponded to managers' broader psychological attachment to the organization and their jobs as gauged by their job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment. However, studies conducted in other participative contexts provided relevant information from which to construct research hypotheses.

#### *Job satisfaction*

Across a variety of samples in the organizational behavior literature, the general relationship between participation in decision making and job satisfaction has been shown to be moderate (e.g., Cotton *et al.*, 1988; Locke and Schweiger, 1979; Miller and Monge, 1986). The influence that participation has on job satisfaction is generally viewed to be a result of the intrinsically appealing outcomes associated with participation, including enhanced self-esteem, feelings of control, responsibility, task identity, and task meaningfulness (e.g., Hackman and Oldham, 1980). In contrast, Westley (1990) discusses the demoralization that accompanies strategic exclusion among middle managers. Interestingly, strategic involvement may also be associated with job satisfaction because it is consistent with the need

for power that is prominent in the needs profiles of upper level managers (McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982). Little involvement in strategy formulation may lead to feelings of job dissatisfaction by reflecting a lack of power, blocking the development of power, and impeding managers' ability to use their power. In addition, there is evidence that participation also affects work attitudes, such as job satisfaction, partly by clarifying role ambiguities and reducing role conflicts (Schuler, 1980). In the context of strategic formulation, where choices and actions are complicated by many diverse factors, participation can potentially help participants to more fully understand and take ownership of company strategies (Pearce and Randolph, 1980). Taken together, the research on participation leads us to expect that greater perceived strategic involvement should correspond with greater job satisfaction.

#### *Job involvement*

Job involvement refers to the extent to which individuals feel that they are personally invested in and identified with their jobs (Kanungo, 1982). Strategy formulation is an expected part of the role of upper level managers (Mintzberg, 1990). Thus, strategic involvement can be considered a specific form of involvement through which individuals fulfill role expectations. Therefore, in line with the general argument presented for job satisfaction, we would expect job involvement to correspond with individuals' overall feelings of job involvement.

#### *Organizational commitment*

Wooldridge and Floyd (1990) suggest that one of the outcomes of middle management's involvement in strategy formulation is the enhancement of their commitment to that strategy. Having input into strategy development is believed to reduce the likelihood that the resultant strategy will compromise the participants' self-interest. Guth and MacMillan (1986) suggest that low commitment is one result of compromised self-interest. Elsewhere, in a study of procedural justice and global strategic decision-making, Kim and Mauborgne (1993) found a positive correlation between the extent that bilateral communication existed between managers of

primary offices and managers of subsidiary units and the latter's organizational commitment. Though this study did not measure strategic involvement directly, if it is assumed that greater communication reflects greater involvement, then these results can be interpreted as suggesting that strategic involvement will bolster managers' organizational commitment. The evidence suggests that individuals feel more committed to organizations which value their input and allow them some degree of input and influence over the making of important decisions. Obviously, strategic decisions are particularly important for the organization and therefore we would expect that being involved in them would lead to greater feelings of commitment to the organization.

The expectations outlined above can be summarized in hypothesis form as follows:

*Hypothesis 1: Perceived strategic involvement will correlate positively with job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment.*

### **The moderating effects of strategic vision salience**

A great deal of attention has recently been focused on the advantages, particularly for organizations facing turbulent environments, of a compelling strategic vision (e.g., Beckhard, 1988; Collins and Porras, 1991; Conger, 1990; Pettigrew, 1987; Sathe, 1985; Tushman and Romanelli, 1985). Across three surveys administered in over 200 organizations, Coulson-Thomas (1992) reported that respondents (typically director-level) considered strategic vision to be extremely important in the implementation of change. A strategic vision is an articulation by organizational leaders of the organization's desired future and is integral to the strategic planning process (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Westley and Mintzberg (1989) suggest that the process of visioning generally encompasses three stages: '(1) the envisioning of 'an image of a desired future organizational state' (Bass, 1987: 51) which (2) when effectively articulated and communicated to followers...serves (3) to empower those followers so that they can enact the vision...' (1987: 17-18). It becomes the guiding perspective and driving force of the organization and serves to generate commitment

and cohesion (Conger, 1990; Cravens, LaForge and Ingram, 1990; Hamel and Prahalad, 1989; Hart, 1992; Porras and Silvers, 1991; Schoemaker and van der Heijden, 1992). Strategic vision helps to provide a 'sense of whole' for the organization (Morris, 1987). Since vision amplifies leaders' ability to anticipate and respond to opportunities or pressures for change in order to remain competitive (Wiersema and Bantel, 1992), it becomes particularly important during times of transition.

Strategic planning efforts should both support and inform the organization's strategic vision. However, for strategic planning efforts to be guided by a strategic vision, that vision must be salient for planning participants. All too often, statements of vision remain just that: statements. Underscoring this point, Harris and Associates (Learning International, 1986) conducted interviews on the topic of organizational vision with 300 top executives from large U.S. industrial and service organizations. Although 82 percent of the executives said they had a definite vision of what their company should become and 79 percent thought that a long-term vision was necessary for their companies' survival, only 38 percent felt that their visions were broadly shared throughout the company. Rhetorical vision, as opposed to salient vision, can result in disillusionment and distrust instead of inspiration and motivation (Coulson-Thomas, 1992). For a vision to be salient, organizational members must feel that a clear vision has been articulated (there is a vision), that the leadership of the company shares the vision (there is support and agreement), and that the vision is appropriate (it is the right vision). Without these characteristics, true strategic vision cannot be said to exist—'strategic vision cannot exist without being so recognized by followers' (Westley and Mintzberg, 1989: 19). For example, it has been argued that a vision must be clear and shared to have an impact (Beach, 1993; Tregoe and Tobia, 1991). When managers find the vision salient they will be likely more motivated to engage in activities that coincide with the visionary direction (Beach, 1993). The importance of organizational members' reaction to the vision was also addressed by Westley and Mintzberg (1989). As they note, vision involves a dynamic interaction between leaders and followers and it should be empowering to all in the organization.

We suggest that the perception of vision salience acts to modify the benefits we have hypothesized to be related to strategic involvement. Specifically, the positive relationship between individuals' strategic involvement and psychological attachment should be magnified by the presence of a salient strategic vision. In the context of a salient vision, participants are more likely to view their participation as meaningful and important. This would not be expected to occur with managers for whom the vision is not salient. Such managers would have less of a psychological stake in the strategy or its formulation. In this case, their involvement may be the result of obligation rather than true enthusiasm. Moreover, if they feel that the strategic vision is inappropriate, such managers are more apt to impede the design and implementation of strategy. This resistance can surface in the form of roadblocks to implementation, outright sabotage of the strategy, or unnecessary delays in executing the strategy (Guth and MacMillan, 1986; Westley, 1990). Our expectations are summarized in the following hypothesis:

*Hypothesis 2: The positive relationship of strategic involvement with job satisfaction, job involvement, and job commitment will be moderated by vision salience such that a greater perceived vision salience will be associated with enhanced positive effects of strategic involvement.*

## METHOD

### Research setting

The data were collected as a part of a study of the organizational transformation efforts of a large corporation (*Fortune* 100) based in the mid-western United States that manufactured and marketed consumer goods. In response to growing domestic and global competition, the organization's leadership had focused on making the organization more aggressive, innovative and globally-oriented. Though the organization had been gradually adapting in response to marketplace changes, the transformation process dramatically accelerated in the years immediately preceding the study. During these years, the

CEO introduced and disseminated a set of principles that articulated the guiding vision for the transformation. In addition, several strategic changes were introduced in support of the vision. The most significant of these changes included a corporate-wide restructuring toward a decentralized business unit organization, a 10 percent reduction in the salaried work force guided by an analysis of the value of jobs throughout the organization, and beginning efforts to change the compensation system to provide greater recognition of individual and group accountability for performance. Primarily through acquisitions and joint ventures, efforts at expanding into the international arena were also intensified.

The survey project had the strong backing of the CEO, who viewed it as a viable means to elicit reactions of top-level managers to the ongoing strategic changes. An in-depth questionnaire was designed for this purpose which contained a variety of open- and closed-ended questions assessing strategic-oriented issues as well as relevant work-related attitudes and perceptions.

### Sample

The sample for the study was drawn from managers at the top echelons of the organization. Sample selection was based on an attempt to survey all of the top corporate executives and a subset of upper-level managers representing all major corporate locations and functions. Specifically, in addition to corporate-level executives representing six functional areas, we surveyed the executive management team from four semi-autonomous business units, 13 manufacturing plants, and a large technological support group. To a certain degree, we have collected data from 24 'organizations' while controlling macrolevel contextual factors by sampling within only one corporation. In the parlance of the organization, 19 percent of the sample was classified as officers, 49 percent as directors, and 32 percent as managers. Drawn from a *Fortune* 100 company, it is reasonable to infer that study participants possessed a respectable amount of responsibility and authority.

Questionnaires were distributed to 245 individuals through the corporate mail system and returned directly to the researchers. Confidentiality was guaranteed and participation was

voluntary. A total of 226 completed questionnaires were returned. The unusually high response rate (92%) suggests that participants saw the project as being important to the organization. The content of responses from semi-structured interviews conducted with 72 of the study's participants also supported this inference.

The mean age of the respondents was 46.7 years. The average length of company service was 19.7 years, and the average time spent in current position was 2.6 years.

## Measures

Measures used in the study are described below. All items comprising the measures employed a 5-point response scale. Scales were formed by averaging items comprising each particular scale. Example items and coefficient alphas for each of the scales are provided below.

### *Strategic involvement*

Similar to Pearce and Zahra's (1991) assessment of executive power, managers were asked to rate their strategic involvement. Four items were used to measure involvement. Two of the items assessed the extent to which managers were involved in strategic planning for the organization and their unit—'To what extent are you currently involved in strategic planning efforts in the organization' and 'in your unit' (1 = little extent, 5 = great extent). Two other items gauged the degree to which their jobs required respondents to think about the long-term future of their business unit and the degree to which they had a say in determining the long range plans of their business unit—'My job requires that I think about the long-term future of my business unit' and 'I have little say in determining the long-range plans of my business unit' (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree; the second item was reverse scored). Coefficient alpha reliability for the scale was 0.70.

### *Vision saliency*

The vision saliency measure was constructed to incorporate three characteristics that are important in terms of the experience of the strategic vision by organization members: clarity, sharedness, and appropriateness. Thus, three

items were employed to gauge respondents' degree of experienced vision saliency—'To what extent is there a clear vision guiding strategic change in [the organization]?' 'To what extent does the leadership of the company share a *common* vision of [the organization's] future?' and 'To what extent is the vision guiding change in [the organization] appropriate?' (1 = little extent; 5 = great extent). Coefficient alpha for this scale was 0.80.

### *General job satisfaction*

Three items, two of which were taken from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire—MOAQ (Cammann *et al.*, 1983), were used to measure general job satisfaction. These items were: 'All in all, I am satisfied with my job,' 'In general, I like my job,' and, 'I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do.' (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) Coefficient alpha for this scale was 0.79.

### *Job involvement*

Job involvement is considered a descriptive belief of the person's identification with his/her present job. It was assessed with five items taken from Kanungo's (1982) Job Involvement Questionnaire. These items were as follows: 'The most important things that happen to me involve my job,' 'I live, eat, and breathe my job,' 'I consider my job to be very central to my existence,' 'I am very much involved personally in my job,' and 'I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.' (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) Coefficient alpha for this scale was 0.82.

### *Organizational commitment*

Commitment to the organization was measured using the short form of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (Mowday, Steers, and Porter, 1979). This instrument measures affective or attitudinal commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). From the original 15-item scale, the short form containing only the nine positively worded items was used in order to avoid potential item wording confounds (*c.f.*, Mathieu, 1991). Examples of items used are as follows: 'For me, this organization is the best of all possible organizations for which to work,' 'I

Table 1. Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations of study variables

	M	S.D.	1	2	3	4
1. Job satisfaction	3.84	0.76				
2. Job involvement	3.24	0.77	0.29***			
3. Organizational commitment	3.65	0.63	0.57***	0.34***		
4. Strategic involvement	3.46	0.87	0.25***	0.24***	0.31***	
5. Vision salience	3.23	0.87	0.20***	0.16***	0.31***	0.16***

\* $p < 0.10$ ; \*\* $p < 0.05$ ; \*\*\* $p < 0.01$

talk up this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for,' 'I am proud to tell others that I am part of [the organization],' and 'I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for [the organization].' (1 = strongly disagree; 5 = strongly agree) Coefficient alpha for this scale was 0.84.

Data analysis

Hypothesis 1 was tested by calculating Pearson product-moment correlations between strategic involvement and the three measures of psychological attachment. Moderated multiple regression (Boal and Bryson, 1987—Interaction Effects model; Stone and Hollenbeck, 1989) was employed to test Hypothesis 2. For each attachment variable, the amount of variance attributable to interaction effects beyond that explained by main effects alone was determined by comparing full and restricted regression models. In the current study, a restricted model comprised of strategic involvement and vision salience was created by entering them as the first block in a hierarchical multiple regression model. Next, a full model was constructed by adding an interaction term (strategic involvement X vision salience) to the restricted model. Statistical tests were used to discover if adding the interaction term to the restricted model accounted for a significant amount of incremental variance. When significant incremental variance was detected, plots were constructed to determine the nature of the interaction.

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations and correlations for the study variables. A pattern

consistent with previous correlational studies emerged among the three attachment variables—job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment.<sup>1</sup> Some degree of intercorrelation among attitudinal variables was expected due to their overlapping construct domains. Low to moderate correlations were found between the moderator variable, perceived vision salience, and the dependent variables and strategic involvement.

Hypothesis 1

Because of the intercorrelations among the three attitudinal variables, we first examined the relationship of strategic involvement with these three variables as a set. A canonical correlation analysis (Hair *et al.*, 1992) was conducted where strategic involvement defined one variable set

<sup>1</sup> The correlations between the dependent variables found in this study correspond closely to those previously reported in the literature. Brooke, Russell and Price (1988: 140), using the same organizational commitment and job involvement measures as the present study, argue 'moderate zero-order correlations in the range of 0.30 to 0.56 between job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment have been observed repeatedly in studies that have investigated relationships between these constructs.' Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found correlations comparable to the present study in a meta-analysis involving correlates of attitudinal measures of organizational commitment. However, given their levels of intercorrelation, we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to determine the value of using all three in our subsequent analyses. Using EQS (Bentler, 1989), we found that the model positing three distinguishable factors fit the data very well (Bentler-Bonnett normed fit index (NFI) = 0.93, Bentler-Bonnett nonnormed fit index (NNFI) = 0.96, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.97) (fit indices of 0.9 or higher indicate an acceptable level of fit). However, a one-factor model (suggesting that the three independent variables are redundant) did not fit the data well (NFI = 0.59, NNFI = 0.51, CFI = 0.61). Therefore, each of the dependent variables was retained for use in the study.

and job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment comprised the other set. The canonical correlation between these two sets was 0.347, exact  $F = 9.66$ , ( $p < 0.000$ ). The squared canonical correlation was 0.121, indicating that 12 percent of the variance in the two sets was shared. Roy–Bargman stepdown  $F$  tests were computed for each variable, entering the job-referent variables (job satisfaction and job involvement) first, followed by the organizational-referent variable (organizational commitment). The stepdown  $F$  test statistics were: for job satisfaction, 14.05, ( $p < 0.000$ ); for job involvement, 7.46, ( $p < 0.007$ ); for organizational commitment 6.46, ( $p < 0.012$ ). Thus, each variable contributed significant incremental variance as it entered the attitudinal set.

Given that a significant relationship was found between strategic involvement and the attitudinal variables as a set, we examined the individual correlations between strategic involvement and these variables. As hypothesized, perceived strategic involvement was positively related to all three attitudinal variables. The correlation of strategic involvement with job satisfaction was 0.25 ( $p < 0.001$ ) and with organizational commitment was 0.31 ( $p < 0.001$ ). These results suggest that the more managers felt that they were involved in strategy formulation, the more committed they were to the organization and the more satisfied they were with their jobs. The correlation for job involvement ( $r = 0.24$ ) was also significant ( $p < 0.001$ ), indicating that increased involvement in strategy formulation was associated with increased feeling of personal involvement in one's job.

## Hypothesis 2

The results of the moderated regression tests of Hypothesis 2 are reported in Table 2. As shown there, Hypothesis 2 received partial support. The interaction of vision salience and strategic involvement added significantly to the variance explained for organizational commitment ( $p < 0.001$ ) and job satisfaction ( $p < 0.01$ ). The interaction of vision salience and strategic involvement did not add significantly to the variance explained for job involvement.

To determine the nature of the significant interactions, regression line plots were con-

structed. As per Cohen and Cohen (1983), points for the plots were determined using values of  $\pm 1$  standard deviation from the means of vision salience and strategic involvement. As hypothesized, the plots shown in Figures 1a and 1b indicate that among managers for whom the vision was salient, the positive association between strategic involvement and organizational commitment and job satisfaction was greatly enhanced.<sup>2</sup>

## Testing for common method variance effects

Since single source data were used in the study, questions about the degree to which the results may have been affected by common method variance might be raised. To address this potential problem, we employed two *post hoc* strategies, confirmatory factor analysis and a partialling procedure. Podsakoff and Organ (1986) reviewed procedures that address common method variance; including one called Harman's single factor approach. The logic of this approach is that if method variance accounts for the relations between two or more variables, an exploratory factor analysis should yield a single global (method) factor when all of the variables are factor analyzed together. Since researchers have generally viewed this approach as less than optimal but providing useful information, we combined it with theoretically stronger confirmatory factor analysis procedures, using EQS (Bentler, 1989). Confirmatory factor analysis permits comparisons of different factor analytic models. A rule of thumb for judging the goodness of factor models is that their fit index should be around 0.9 or above. A model positing that a single factor underlies study variables did not fit well at all (Bentler–Bonnett's normed fit index (NFI) = 0.470, nonnormed fit index (NNFI) = 0.441, comparative fit index (CFI) = 0.507). On the other hand, a five factor model comprised of the five study variables fit acceptably well (NFI = 0.88, NNFI = 0.94, CFI = 0.95). These results suggest that common method variance alone cannot explain our results. It is noteworthy that others have used this same

<sup>2</sup> Because the respondents' level in the organization may have correlated with some of the attitudinal variables, we also ran the regression analyses using level as a control variable. All results remained the same.

Table 2. Moderated regression analyses

Predictors	Organizational commitment			Job satisfaction			Job involvement		
	b	R <sup>2</sup> Δ	R <sup>2</sup>	b	R <sup>2</sup> Δ	R <sup>2</sup>	b	R <sup>2</sup> Δ	R <sup>2</sup>
Constant	4.20***			4.31***			2.26***		
Step 1:									
Strategic involvement	−0.34**	0.16***	0.16***	−0.31	0.09***	0.09***	0.19	0.08***	0.08***
Vision salience	−0.38**			−0.46			0.08		
Step 2:									
Vision salience × Strategic involvement	0.16***	0.05***	0.21***	0.18**	0.03**	0.12***	0.01	0.00	0.08***

\**p* < 0.10; \*\**p* < 0.05; \*\*\**p* < 0.01

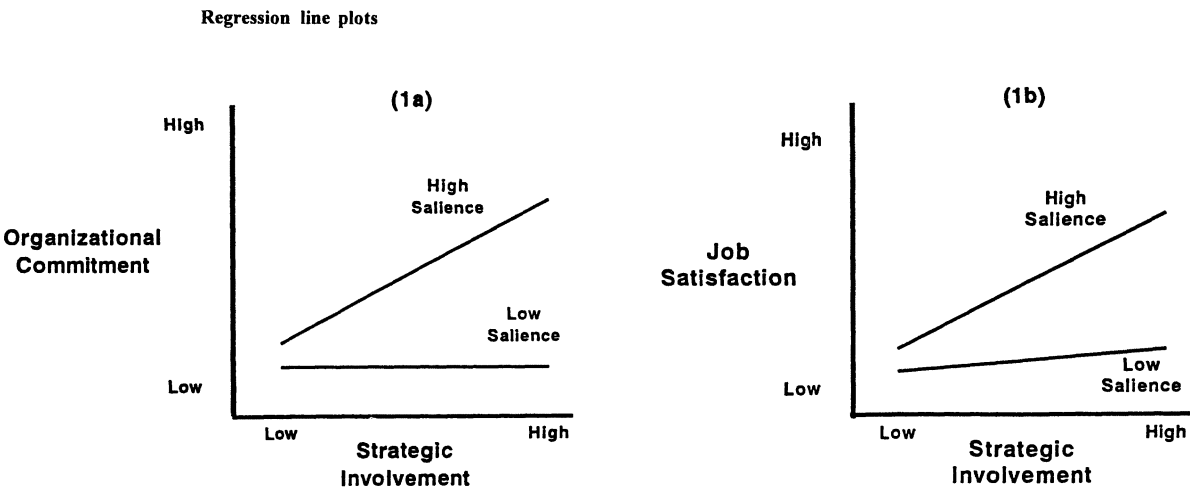


Figure 1 a–b. Regression line plots

confirmatory factor analysis approach to provide acceptable empirical evidence for countering common method variance (e.g., McFarlin and Sweeney, 1992: 630).

Another approach to countering potential common method variance effects involves identifying potential causes of artifactual covariance between self-report measures of what are presumed to be distinct constructs. Once such

sources of common method variance are identified, Spector and Brannick (forthcoming) note that statistically controlling for these variables in any analyses is a popular method of countering common method variance (e.g., Dobbins, Cardy, and Platz-Vieno, 1990). In the present study, the cultural context may be a potential source of common variance between the measured constructs. In their discussion of organizational

culture, Isen and Baron suggest that 'such shared beliefs, values, and expectations exert strong effects upon organizational members, influencing their actions and attitudes about themselves and others in pervasive and often subtle ways' (1991: 43). Given that organizational culture can have connections with both attitudinal and perceptual responses (e.g. Beach, 1993; Box, Odom, and Dunn, 1991) it may represent a potential source of artifactual covariance between individual affective states (job satisfaction, job involvement, and organizational commitment) and perceptions of strategic context (strategic involvement and vision saliency). More specifically, research has convincingly demonstrated the relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction and commitment (e.g., Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Odom, Boxx, and Dunn, 1990; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991). Also the culture literature treats the degree of participation and involvement encouraged from employees as a primary component of culture (e.g., Denison, 1984). Thus, we would also expect some degree of relationship between culture and job and strategic involvement. Finally, the culture literature is replete with discussions of the culture—leadership vision interaction (e.g., Lorsch, 1986). In sum, controlling for assessments of organizational culture offers a useful, albeit stringent, approach for determining the influence of common method variance on our results. We conducted additional analyses to determine whether the significant effects we found for both hypotheses would remain after controlling for respondents' organizational culture assessments.

Because the organization we studied was interested in exploring its culture, we administered the Competing Values Model (CVM) culture questionnaire (Cameron, 1985, as described in Quinn, 1988) as part of our research. The CVM model holds that there are four distinct dimensions against which an organization's culture can be described—group (people orientation), hierarchical (rules and policy orientation), developmental (change orientation), and rational (competitive orientation) (Quinn, 1988). Recent studies have demonstrated the utility of the CVM questionnaire for framing investigations of organizational culture (e.g., Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991; Yeung, Brockbank, and Ulrich, 1991; Zammuto and Krakower, 1991).

The four CVM dimensions were used as a means of countering the potential of artifactual covariance among the independent and dependent variables. For Hypothesis 1, *fourth order* partial correlations between strategic involvement and our dependent variables were computed. These partial correlations were as follows: for job satisfaction—0.16, ( $p < 0.02$ ); for job involvement—0.17, ( $p < 0.002$ ); and for organizational commitment—0.21, ( $p < 0.003$ ). With regard to Hypothesis 2, we entered all four culture dimensions at the first step in the moderated regression procedure. For these analyses, the  $R^2$  increment for the addition of the strategic involvement X vision saliency interaction term was 0.02 ( $p < 0.02$ ) for job satisfaction, 0.03 ( $p < 0.002$ ) for organizational commitment, and 0.00 (not significant) for job involvement. Even after controlling for cultural assessments, results for both hypotheses remained the same with regard to significant effects. Expectedly, after controlling for cultural assessments the magnitude of the results is not as strong. It is important to note that when partialling procedures are used, some amount of true (rather than artifactual) variance between the independent and dependent variables may also be removed (e.g., Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). In this regard, by controlling for individuals' assessments of four diverse dimensions of culture our results passed a stringent test of the degree to which they were accountable for by common methods effects.

## DISCUSSION

The findings of this study suggest that strategic involvement is associated with upper-level managers' psychological attachment to their organization and jobs. Specifically, the results indicate that the more involved managers were in strategy formulation, the more they were committed to the organization and satisfied with and involved in their work. This study supports the importance of involvement as a strategic management variable and reinforces previous discussions of this issue (e.g., Wooldridge and Floyd, 1990). Lack of involvement in managerial decisions that are interconnected with elements of corporate vision and strategy could result in less committed managers which, in turn, could impede cohesive-

ness (Kramm and Kramm, 1988). Cohesiveness within the management hierarchy is needed to respond effectively to competitive pressures, especially during times of increasing environmental change (Ansoff, 1976; 1991). Furthermore, the more managers participate in strategy formulation, the more likely they will be to accept and act to implement the strategy (Quinn, 1978). Thus, managers' involvement in strategic formulation may be a partial determinant of strategic effectiveness.

The major contribution of this study is its empirical support for the concept of compelling strategic vision. The results imply that for organizations to fully benefit from managers' strategic involvement, that involvement should occur within the context of a salient strategic vision. Managers participating in strategy formulation and implementation must believe that the activity has importance in terms of long-term consequences for the organization. Without a salient vision, managers may be 'caught up in a perpetual quicksand type of existence' (Harper, 1991: 13). Consequently, with the exception of feelings of job involvement, our findings suggest that strategic involvement alone does not guarantee psychological attachment to the organization or job; Figure 1 suggests that in the extreme, an absence of salient vision can nullify the potential beneficial effects of strategic involvement.

Managers for whom the vision is not salient do not appear to benefit from strategic involvement, perhaps because they perceive that their involvement is without sufficient justification. That is, since they may not share the vision of future directions for the organization or perceive a lack of leadership support for such direction, their increased involvement may seem to be an exercise in purposelessness or even futility. These managers could impede the implementation process by failing to prioritize strategy or intentionally sabotaging the outcomes (Guth and MacMillan, 1986). Reactions could also be manifested in negative communications about the company or its stakeholders (Westley, 1990).

### Study limitations

It is important to note certain limitations of this study. The results and implications have been based on managers' subjective responses. While it is argued that subjective data are a form

of reality and are appropriate measures for addressing the strategic process (Hart, 1992), inferences based on such responses must be viewed with proper caution. It is important to emphasize that in dealing with the influence of strategic involvement on individuals' affective attitudes, we have focused on individuals' experiences or perceptions of that involvement. How individuals perceive their involvement is more psychologically meaningful than any arbitrary objective assessment of that involvement. The objective nature of managers' strategic involvement depends upon such issues as organizational level, responsibility, and relationships with superiors. For example, lower level managers who perceive they are highly involved in strategy formulation may actually be behaving in a very different way than higher level managers who perceive they are involved at equally high levels. In making their assessments, managers are likely to make such judgements in the context of what is reasonable to expect given their position in the hierarchy and social structure of the organization. In addition, the results of this study are based on the responses of managers representing one firm and may thus have limited generalizability. It should be noted that the organization examined was keenly interested in strategic involvement and vision because of the transformation process it had been undergoing. Future replications which consider different organizational settings are necessary.

Together, the confirmatory factor analyses and partialling results described earlier suggest that common method variance alone is not a sufficient explanation for the results of the study. Ideally, however, future research which builds in multi-source data collection as a means of avoiding method variance problems should be conducted.

### CONCLUSION

There are several possibilities that might be considered for future research in this area, two of which are discussed. First, linking the present model with strategy implementation considerations would be a logical extension. Would a strong, positive relationship between involvement, vision salience, and psychological attachment to organization and job correspond with successful implementation? Our results coupled

with Kim and Mauborgne's (1993) finding that organizational commitment and satisfaction with strategic decisions (both of which should be enhanced by strategic involvement and vision salience) were positively associated with compliance with corporate strategic decisions would suggest such a correspondence. In recent years numerous books and articles have been published on implementation (e.g., Hrebiniak and Joyce, 1984; Sproull and Hofmeister, 1986), noting that many intended strategies are only partly implemented. This may occur because of a lack of commitment to the strategy, as discussed by Guth and MacMillan (1986). Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder (1993) argue the importance of creating readiness as a precursor to change in organizations. They suggest the need for first conveying the need for change, instilling in company personnel a commitment to change and maintaining a change readiness throughout the change process. By extension, since strategy formulation and implementation is a form of organizational change, it seems that increasing both involvement in strategy and vision salience would serve to create readiness for this change.

Second, the role of vision salience in strategic effectiveness needs to be explored. Beach (1993) notes that a vision may mesh with or run counter to an organization's current culture. In the latter instance, greater emphasis on communicating and building consensus about the vision will be necessary for it to have a positive impact on long-term organizational success. Our results suggest that if a 'new' corporate vision is not appealing to managers, involving them in the strategic process may be useless. As previously suggested, managers may impede the implementation process if they do not perceive it to be in their best interest. At the very least, a lack of vision salience could result in low personal commitment and only in passive compliance. Because of the intuitive appeal of vision to the strategic management process and the dearth of empirical studies, vision salience would seem to be an important area for future research. In addition, it would seem important to investigate other relationships that may be affected by the presence of vision salience.

In summary, the present study represents an examination of the influence of strategic involvement on upper level managers' psychological attachment to their organization and jobs.

Hopefully, in addition to providing empirical support for the importance of vision salience on the relationship between strategic involvement and job attitudes, this research suggests areas where more process-oriented strategic management research might be beneficial. The strategic conversation metaphor suggested by Westley (1990) might provide one avenue for such research. Understanding more about the processes included within the panoply of strategic management may be important, not only in its own right, but may ultimately contribute to our understanding of strategy effectiveness.

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