HOOD COLLEGE

Organizational Justice in the Proposal Development Industry: The Influence of Gender, Nationality, and Training on Business Ethics Perceptions and Job Satisfaction

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to the Faculty of the

George B. Delaplaine Jr. School of Business

In partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree

Doctor of Business Administration

by

Peggy Dufour

Frederick, Maryland

2020

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to the men and women of the proposal development industry—those unheralded professionals who work in challenging environments to produce high-quality, ethical, and competitive proposals, delivering excellent services fairly and honestly to customers.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Special thanks and sincere appreciation:

To my doctoral committee chair, Dr. Anita Jose, professor of management and coordinator of ACBSP accreditation for the George B. Delaplaine School of Business at Hood College. Dr. Jose gave generously of her time, energy, and expertise to shape and nurture this project and always believed that finding a more perfect understanding of organizational justice was worth that investment. I knew, as all her students do, that Dr. Jose would never let me fail.

To my committee members, Dr. Kathleen Bands, Dr. Jennifer Cuddapah, and Dr. Laura Moore of Hood College, for their dedication to academic excellence, their commitment to the success of the doctoral program and each of its students, and their belief that leaders are learners.

To my fellow members of the 2019 Inaugural Cohort of the Hood College Doctoral Program in Organizational Leadership—Dr. Preetha Abraham, Dr. Michele Baisey, Mr. John Butler, Dr. Linda Chambers, Dr. DeVeda Coley, Mr. Richard (Curt) Curtis, Dr. Lura Hanks, Mr. Jerry Lee Jones III, Mr. John Mauck, Dr. Eric Louérs-Phillips, Dr. Danny Rumpf, Dr. Jonathan Spaans, Dr. Kathy Swire, and Dr. Joshua Work—who provided inspiration, encouragement, and midnight laughter and support.

To Dr. Marcella Genz, Hood College research librarian, for her indispensable help in researching topics and ensuring the accuracy of my reference list.

To Toby Peterson, director of the Hood College Beneficial-Hodson Library, for his unwavering support of the doctoral program from its inception.

To Janet Kalinowski and Kaitlin May, who found the unfindable through Interlibrary Loan.

To the senior leadership team of the Association of Proposal Management Professionals, Rick Harris, CF APMP, chief executive officer; Ginny Carson, CPP APMP, chair, board of directors (2018–2019); and Peter Frank, CF, APMP, senior director of operations and membership, for their belief in this project and for their dedication to excellence in the proposal profession.

To the 1,254 members of APMP who generously donated their time to respond to the 2018 APMP Ethics Survey with honesty and courage; I hope this study accurately reflects your contributions and dedication to our industry.

To Dr. Erin George, assistant professor of economics, Hood College, for serving on my proposal committee and providing key literature on the economics of gender pay equity.

To the extended faculty of the Hood College Doctoral Program in Organizational Leadership for inviting me to be part of the inaugural cohort of students in this special program and for the exceptional education provided therein.

And finally,

To Drake Ogilvie, my husband and partner on this and so many pathways, for his patient encouragement, editorial skill, deep understanding of the issues, selfless support, and true-north moral compass.

Organizational Justice in the Proposal Development Industry: The Influence of Gender, Nationality, and Training on Business Ethics Perceptions and Job Satisfaction

Peggy Dufour, DBA

Committee Chair: Anita Jose, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

This study examines business ethics and organizational justice perceptions among members of the Association for Proposal Management Professionals (APMP), the only organization offering certification to bid and proposal practitioners. The study analyzes the effects of gender, nationality, and ethics training on member perceptions of business conduct, proposal practices, workplace treatment, and job satisfaction. Data were gathered through an online cross-sectional survey offered to 7,351 APMP members in 40 countries in 2018; 1,254 responded (17.1%), producing 1,113 valid cases analyzed using quantitative and qualitative methods. The study adds a previously unstudied professional group to the literature on business ethics (Abend, 2013; Baumhart, 1961; Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; De George, 1987, 2005; Donaldson et al., 1994; Hunt & Vitell, 1986; McClaren, 2013) and on organizational justice (Adams, 1963; Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1987; Leventhal, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). This study may also contribute to literature on job satisfaction (Dube, Giuliano, & Leonard, 2019; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Locke, 1969, 1976; Lu & Gursoy, 2013; Valentine, 2019) and human resource management issues such as gender pay inequity and workplace bias and abuse (Blau & Kahn, 2017; Fortin, 2006; Goldin, 2006; Joshi, Son, & Roh, 2015). In addition to developing a profile of this work population for the first time, significant findings include the unexpected dominance of interactional justice over procedural justice in determining job satisfaction ($p < .001$), alignment of the Herzberg et al. (1959) theory of job

satisfaction with organizational justice principal component analysis results, and the overweighting of females (93.6%) in the group that experienced toxic work environments, perceived pay inequity ($p < .001$), and experienced gender workplace penalties ($p < .001$). The study population reported concurrent high levels of positive job satisfaction indicators such as recognition (87.7%) with negative indicators such as overwork and burnout (82%). Women demonstrated a stronger ability to detect ethical misconduct than men ($p < .001$) while nationality was not significant ($p = .296$). Ethics training decreased the observation of workplace violations ($p < .001$), despite 88.6% believing such training to be ineffective or irrelevant. Wave analysis demonstrated a greater proportion of negative comments in later responses (Yessis & Rathert, 2006).

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Lt. Gen. John M. Pickler retired from the U.S. Army with the highest honors. During his distinguished 36-year career, he had led commands under fire in Viet Nam and served as Chief of Staff and Deputy Commanding General of U.S. Army Forces Command, with 750,000 personnel. Following his retirement, Gen. Pickler entered the private sector, helping to lead post-war reconstruction in Iraq. He then served as project manager for a large U.S. corporation on a year-long effort for to win a $5 billion government contract. As he left the proposal center after a particularly challenging day, this highly decorated leader stopped by the proposal manager's office and quietly voiced this question: "Why would *anybody* choose to do this for a living?"

This paper attempts to help answer that question by creating a profile of proposal development professionals, a previously unstudied population of international workers. Specifically, this research seeks to understand how their perceptions of business ethics are influenced by gender, national norms, and ethics training. This study also will attempt to determine how perceptions of organizational justice influence job satisfaction in this profession, and what effect workplace treatment and experiences play in moderating that relationship.

Because this study is occurring during a period of heightened public attention to ethics challenges facing women in the workplace, specifically gender pay equity and work-related sexual abuse, special attention will be given to this population's gender equity perceptions. In addition to its research purpose, this study also was designed to establish a baseline of member perceptions for an ethics training and certification program planned by the Association of Proposal Management Professionals (APMP).

The process followed for this dissertation was unusual in that data collection occurred prior to the proposal defense. Data collection was performed on an accelerated schedule to

coincide with APMP's annual international conference in May 2018. Conducting the online survey independent of the conference would have meant losing a great many respondents. Waiting a year until the next conference would have put this project too far behind schedule. Therefore, with my committee's consent, the survey instrument was developed, tested, and received institutional review board (IRB) approval before proposal submittal, and data were collected before proposal defense. A preliminary report containing descriptive statistics was written for APMP, but this study's formal statistical analysis did not begin until several months later. The survey questionnaire is included as Appendix A, and the APMP report as Appendix B.

Background

Globally, proposal workers have a powerful economic impact on the companies they work for. By developing and submitting competitive proposals, also known as bids or tenders, these professionals secure an estimated $1.4 trillion in new business from government and commercial sources each year in the United States (USASpending, 2018): The contractor-accessible portion of the FY 2018 U.S. federal budget alone was $560 billion (Bloomberg, 2019). This type of procurement occurs in every major country in the world. Proposals can range from a one-page letter bid prepared by one person, to a 10,000-page, multivolume government submittal prepared by a proposal team of more than one hundred, led by a proposal manager. Time pressures are great, as is the pressure to win—sometimes at any cost.

A search of the literature reveals no occurrences of studies on this population for either business ethics, organizational justice, workplace treatment, gender wage disparity, or ethics training, although studies of job satisfaction on salesmen appeared as early as the 1950s (Pearson, Barker, & Elliott, 1957). This lack of examination may be due to the competitive and secretive nature of the work, in which business developers vie for contracts that can be valued in

the billions of dollars, and in which corporate proprietary information is competitively sensitive and closely held. It is an industry that resists transparency and scrutiny.

Individuals performing proposal work represent a relatively small group of professional workers who tend to work in corporate settings and are unlikely to be represented by collective bargaining units. Another large segment comprises individuals working as subject matter experts and proposal consultants hired by corporations for the duration of a proposal. Skill sets include proposal organization and leadership, process management, research, writing, editing, graphic arts, document management and production, competitive analysis, estimating, procurement, and all the disciplines represented in jobs being bid, including engineering, construction, quality, safety, legal, human resources, and general management.

Professionals with these skills work in teams under pay schemes that range from basic hourly wage with no benefits or job security, to salary plus benefits and bonus for those inside corporations, to "at risk" work with a share of any work won. These individuals have in common the necessity to work long hours to meet demanding deadlines, working for very high stakes, working within classified and unclassified environments that demand secrecy, and working for corporate management teams that demand wins.

A single organization, APMP, represents proposal development professionals worldwide. At the time of this study, its membership numbers 7,500 professionals living in 40 countries (Appendix C), comprising this study's population. Founded in 1989, the organization's vision is to "promote the professional growth of its members by advancing the arts, sciences, and technologies of winning business; APMP is the worldwide authority for professionals dedicated to the process of winning business through proposals, bids, tenders, and presentations." (APMP.org).

Theoretical Framework

Three areas of theory ground this study: ethics, organizational justice, and equity. In this paper, these areas are examined as business ethics, as the three independent constructs within organizational justice, and as equitable treatment of women in the workplace.

Business ethics.

The study of ethics in business emerged in the late 19th century (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001), entered business schools in the early 20th century (Abend, 2013; Page, 1914; Sharp, 1937a, 1937b), became formally organized in the 1960s (Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001), and developed further in the 1970s and 1980s, each time in response to a major business scandal followed by landmark legislation. However, during these decades, despite the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and widespread social changes taking place in the United States and Europe with respect to racial and gender equality, disparities in these areas were not considered part of the business ethics framework.

In this regard, business lagged behind the social and cultural evolution in its midst. As one example, none of the histories of business ethics or early textbooks reviewed for this paper included discussions on gender pay equity. It was the Women's Suffrage Movement of the 1830s to 1920s in England and the United States, the Women's Movement of the 1970s—not the growing ethics movement in the business world—that carried fairness of pay issues into the social consciousness (Kessler-Harris, 2001).

Led by farsighted leaders like Robert Wood Johnson II, son of the founder of Johnson & Johnson, corporate codes of ethics and business ethics training came into being (Piper, 2008). Johnson's *Credo*, written in 1943, is possibly the best known of these codes and is credited with establishing codes of conduct as a corporate staple. Johnson also established the now-widespread

practice of providing ethics training to human resource management (HRM) and other employees, a practice that flourished in corporations in the second half of the century (Donaldson, 2000). However, even today, ethics training varies by company, industry, and country in terms of its content, robustness, and effectiveness.

Studies have shown that employee perceptions of an employer's workplace ethics environment are directly related to measures of job satisfaction and loyalty (Armstrong & Taylor, 2017; Roberts, Coulson, & Chonko, 1999; Pettijohn, Pettijohn, & Taylor, 2008). This study will explore how ethical APMP members believe their workplaces to be by asking questions in four areas related to the conduct of business in general; proposal work in particular; workplace treatment, including practices governed by HRM; and how ethics are transmitted in the workplace through training. Each of these subject areas is briefly described in the following paragraphs. Across these areas, the research emphasis will be on which ethics challenges proposal development professionals have personally observed or experienced, how significant they believe these challenges to be, and how these experiences and perceptions have influenced their job satisfaction.

General business ethics practices. Challenges dealing with the general conduct of business include behaviors relating to adherence to corporate codes and mission statements, compliance with laws and regulations, contract adherence, confidentiality, honesty in business dealings, adherence to employer policies, willingness to report violations, avoidance of fraud and theft, and lesser infractions such as travel account abuse. In addition, companies working for the U.S. federal government are required by the Federal Acquisition Regulation (FAR) to have a business code of ethics and mechanisms in place for employees to report waste, fraud, and abuse (McKinney, 2019).

Proposal ethics. The proposal industry has work-specific practices that the industry recognizes as ethical. Some are required by legislation such as the FAR, Truth in Negotiations Act, Procurement Integrity Act, False Claims Act, and Foreign Corrupt Practices Act in the United States, while others have grown out of decades of developing proposal industry best practices. Examples codified in the *Shipley Proposal Guide* (Newman, 2011) include proper treatment of competitor information, not using products paid for by one client for another client's proposals, maintaining confidentiality, avoidance of conflict of interest, honesty in representations in resumes and past performance, fair and accurate bid pricing, and honesty in bidding solutions that can be delivered.

HRM challenges. This is the area where business ethics, worker outcomes, and organizational justice most commonly intersect. Workplace treatment frames the environment in which employees live their work lives. It includes working conditions, hours, overtime, interpersonal behavior on the job, respectful treatment, the opportunity to learn, unbiased evaluation, fair compensation, and protections from verbal or physical abuse, sexual harassment, and hostile or demeaning conduct. Workplace treatment has a direct effect on employee job satisfaction (Arches, 1991; Bauer, 2004; Herzberg, 1966, 1968; Jaramillo, Mulki, & Solomon, 2006; Maslach & Leiter, 2008; Piotrkowski, 1998). This study will examine APMP member perceptions in these areas and the effect of those perceptions on job satisfaction.

Ethics training. Studies indicate that workplace ethical climate influences not only employee perceptions, but also performance (Luthar, DiBattista, & Gautschi, 1997; Weeks, Loe, Chonko, & Wakefield, 2004). This paper examines whether or not proposal professionals receive ethics training, and how it is delivered. Government contractors in the United States are required to provide ethics and compliance training to employees annually and to have ethics and

compliance officers and mechanisms for reporting violations. Practices and requirements are expected to differ across the 40 countries in this study. Of interest is whether or not ethics training influences proposal development professionals' perceptions of the work environment, including their observations of ethics violations.

Organizational justice.

Organizational justice is the second large theoretical framework for this study. It is the framework that fundamentally links social science research to business ethics and issues of equity, access to information, and fair treatment in the workplace. The theory set is founded on principles of fairness, had its origins in the 1950s and developed through the end of the 20th century. Traditionally arranged in the three-branch framework shown in Figure 1.1, more recent research has confirmed independent activity among subelements (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001). This framework includes distributive justice (fairness of rewards based on contributions), procedural justice (fair and fairly applied systems and processes), and interactional justice, with two subconstructs: interpersonal justice (respectful treatment) and informational justice (fair access to honest information) (Bies & Moag, 1986; Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano, Byrne, Bobocel, & Rupp, 2001; Greenberg,1987). Construct validity related to these elements has been debated for four decades.

All three primary organizational justice constructs can be perceived by workers and were examined in this study. Areas of inquiry included whether or not proposal professionals perceive that they are treated equitably, with fair procedures in which they have a voice, and whether they are treated with respect and provided information needed to determine fair treatment, such as fairness of compensation.

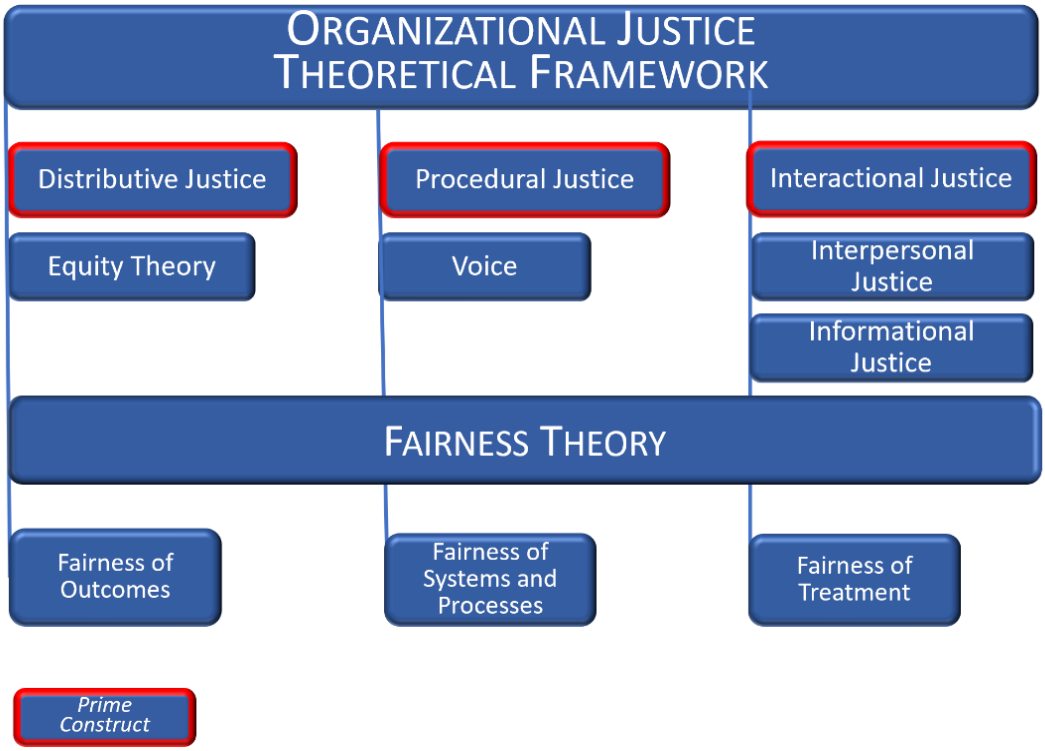


Figure 1.1. Organizational justice theoretical framework and its relationship to fairness theory.

Gender workplace equity.

One of the most hotly debated issues at this time is the persistent problem of differences in workplace treatment and rewards based on gender, which is now recognized as a global phenomenon (Chamberlain, Zhao, & Stansell, 2019; Harris, 2017). This issue is of importance to this study because APMP's multinational demographics indicate that two-thirds of its membership is female, and because perceptions of pay equity may affect the gendering of work roles, limit opportunities for promotion, and influence job satisfaction.

Beyond the proposal development industry, a gender pay gap occurs in a broad range of industries and professions, as demonstrated by studies by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2018), the European Commission (2019), and the World Economic Forum (Harris, 2017). While the gender pay gap was the primary area of inquiry, these studies included other areas of

workplace equity, such as ability to rise in the organization, and perceived fairness of treatment. Studies conducted on professional groups comprising lawyers (Klettner, 2016), nurses (DeCapua, 2017), physicians (Fitch, 2014), accountants (Buchan, 2005; Whiting & Wright, 2001), engineers (Fleming, 2018), and faculty and administrators in higher education (June, 2018; Okpara, Squillace, & Erondu, 2005) demonstrate that a gender pay gap exists and has persisted over time. Common to all of these professions is the presence of codes of ethics and high standards for professional conduct. However, despite these strong codes and standards, gender-related inequities in pay, promotion, and opportunity persist.

Job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is the central outcome of the organizational justice interactions and business ethics perceptions being studied. The survey questionnaire included questions that measured job satisfaction perceptions directly and situationally, and inferential statistical analysis was used to assess those responses across the total sample. As the primary dependent variable in the quantitative part of this study, job satisfaction was measured to determine its most important influences, including gender, working conditions, perceived fairness of treatment, and the impact of organizational justice in the workplace.

Job satisfaction has been studied in many countries and workplace environments. As foundational theory, I used the work of Locke (1969, 1976) and added works by authors who looked at specific populations, including the sales profession (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1974; Pearson et al., 1957; Rutherford, Bowles, Hamwi, Madupalli, & Rutherford, 2009), as well as gender studies important to this study (Clark, 1997; Clark & Oswald, 1996; Okpara et al., 2005). These studies investigate aspects of job satisfaction that include expectancy theory, distributive

justice, gender equity, and justification for changes in ethical behavior when perceptions of inequity are present.

Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman (1959) developed a motivation and job satisfaction theory that closely aligns with organizational justice, as shown in Table 1.1, and is loosely related to Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Their theory contains two factors, labeled motivation and hygiene: motivation being the stronger predictor of job satisfaction, and hygiene being the factor that keeps the workplace healthy. Motivators include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and the possibility of growth, all of which they considered intrinsic motivators. Hygiene, by contrast, includes company policies and procedures, relationships with a supervisor and coworkers, and working conditions and salary. Herzberg (1968, 2003) later stated that salary could serve as either a motivator or a hygiene factor.

Table 1.1

Relationship Between Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction and Organizational Justice Constructs

Theory	Motivation	Hygiene	
Herzberg et al. (1959–2003) *Two factors*	Need for growth or self-actualization **Intrinsic**	Need to avoid unpleasantness **Extrinsic**	
Impact	**Increases job satisfaction**	**Reduces job dissatisfaction**	
Factor components	Achievement Recognition The work itself Responsibility Advancement Possibility of growth	Relationship with supervisor Interpersonal relationships Working conditions and salary[a] Company policies and procedures	
Organizational Justice (1970s–2000s)	**Distributive Justice**	**Procedural Justice**	**Interactional Justice**
Predictive power	Strongest predictor of job satisfaction	Second strongest predictor of job satisfaction	Third strongest predictor of job satisfaction

Note: [a]Herzberg noted that salary can be either a Motivation or Hygiene component.

An unusual aspect of Herzberg's theory is its duality: Motivation and Hygiene do not rule each other out as factors, but in fact can coexist. Rather than being part of a continuum, the

factors operate independently (Herzberg et al., 1959). The absence of one does not create the presence of the other. In other words, the lack of motivators does not make a worker dissatisfied, it just fails to make her satisfied. Similarly, having all the Hygiene factors in place and working does not create job satisfaction; it just fails to make that worker dissatisfied.

Herzberg's theory has been used in many countries and has been controversial for decades, with some researchers able to validate it and others not. Chief criticisms were its overlapping factors, the confusion of the original placement of salary as a hygiene factor, and the original study's reliance on the critical incident method (Stello, 2011). However, other researchers addressed each of these criticisms with modified study designs and replicated his results at least 50 times by the 1970s (Dowling, 1971).

Statement of the Problem

The global proposal development industry represents an unstudied profession. It has workers in many nations but has neither a common code of professional practices nor a business ethics certification program. As a result, although guided by corporate or local norms, each worker must still determine when and how to address challenges such as overt legal violations (fraud, theft, contract violations), workplace abuse (overwork, hostile treatment, verbal or sexual abuse), inappropriate business practices (confidentiality or conflict of interest violations, expense account violations), or differences in pay and opportunity based on gender, age, or race.

While HRM policies exist in virtually all corporations, they vary from firm to firm and can be unevenly or unfairly implemented. Worker positionality within employment environments varies greatly, and employees with lower standing or less power are more at risk when confronted with ethics challenges. Proposal workers who are nonpermanent employees or consultants have no standing or protection against various forms of abuse other than to leave the

worksite and forego compensation. The extent to which proposal management professionals face these challenges and have the training to deal with them is unknown. It is also unknown if there are perceptual or experiential differences within this professional group, what levels of job satisfaction these professionals have, or how closely they identify their perceptions and workplace experiences with the domains of business ethics and organizational justice.

Purpose and Scope

The purpose of this study is to discover and describe the perceptions of proposal development professionals regarding business ethics, organizational justice, workplace treatment, and job satisfaction. The study samples APMP members to determine which ethics issues they consider important; which challenges they have experienced; how those challenges have impacted proposal practices, business conduct, workplace conditions, and behavior; and whether they have experienced harm or lower job satisfaction as a result. The study looks at the extent to which gender, nationality, and ethics training play a role in influencing these perceptions.

Perceptions were tested in a large baseline ethics survey conducted in 2018 and open to all APMP members, with 1,254 members responding. A preliminary report was provided to APMP in 2018 containing basic respondent demographics, descriptive statistics on all survey questions, and highlighting areas where respondents had strong preferences or concerns (Appendix B). This report, published on APMP's website, met the organization's immediate goal of increasing member awareness to ethics issues by releasing timely follow-up to the survey. It also will be helpful to the organization's longer-term goal to design certification training by providing data to focus that training on areas of greatest member need. The report was provided to APMP along with an Excel file containing the survey data, with the understanding that I would begin inferential statistical analysis on the dataset in the coming months. The data analysis

contained in this dissertation provides an evidence-based approach to help APMP definitize areas of greatest need as it develops it ethics certification and training program.

This study also had research goals that went beyond fulfilling a commitment to APMP. They included making a careful study of this population, comparing it to others reported in literature, and determining how prevalent key issues are in this population, including ethics awareness, workplace treatment, pay disparity, job satisfaction, and the role of gender, nationality and ethics training in influencing organizational justice and ethics perceptions.

Significance of the Study

This study contributes to the existing body of knowledge on business ethics by examining the organizational justice perceptions in the context of business ethics, by applying that combined set of well-studied constructs to a previously unstudied group of professional workers, and by linking organizational justice to the Herzberg et al. (1959) theory of job satisfaction. By sampling a broad spectrum of proposal industry members from several countries, the study has assembled perceptions on business ethics from different work cultures and different ethics bases among individuals who perform the same type of work. No previous study has been conducted on this industry group to examine perceptions of organizational justice or to correlate perceptions of business ethics and organizational justice to a specific theory of job satisfaction.

This study will be of particular interest to individuals in the multinational proposal industry and those who are members of APMP, as they will be able to see how broadly their perspectives are shared across the only international association representing this profession. This study will also be useful to APMP in its efforts to initiate a professional ethics certification program by establishing the first industry-wide baseline of member perceptions.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are provided to ensure uniformity and understanding of these terms throughout the study. I developed all definitions not accompanied by a citation.

APMP: Association of Proposal Management Professionals, a 7,500-member (2018) international association whose members support business development by creating bids, tenders, and proposals to win new work through competitive procurements.

Business development: the creation of long-term value for an organization from customers, markets, and relationships (Pollock, 2012).

Gender pay gap: the quantifiable difference, if any, between the average gross hourly earnings of men and women, often expressed as a proportion of men's earnings.

Proposal (also "bid" or "tender"): a document usually created in response to a request for proposal (RFP) or invitation to tender (ITT) issued by a government agency, commercial firm, or not-for-profit entity seeking goods or services to be procured through a competitive process. Proposal documents can be as short as a single page or many thousands of pages long. Bids usually contain proposed solutions to a customer's problem, statements of capability, resumes of key personnel, management and technical approach plans, examples of relevant past performance, cost estimates, and supporting documentation. Time frames for proposal development can range from a week to one year or more. Failure to fully and strictly comply with the RFP or ITT requirements or meet customer deadlines can result in disqualification. Bidding entities can be a single firm or a large group of companies with complementary capabilities. Proposal teams can be small (fewer than 10 people) or include hundreds of specialists on large, complex bids.

Proposal development professional: a collective term for individuals responsible for the creation of long-term value for an organization from customers, markets, and relationships (Pollack, 2012). This professional category can include company executives responsible for competing for and winning new work, as well as their designates, often referred to as capture managers. Also included are the managers who organize and lead the bidding process, known as proposal or tender managers, and other workers, such as administrators, writers, editors, estimators, contract specialists, compliance managers, lawyers, and subject matter experts. an individual whose work centers around the pursuit of new work through the creation and submission of proposals (bids or tenders) for commercial or government work.

Unexplained gender pay gap: Blau and Kahn (2017) define the unexplained gender wage gap as the portion of the gap that is "not accounted for by gender differences in measured qualifications" (p. 791). As defined by the European Commission (Eurostat), the unexplained gender pay gap is "the unexplained gap measuring the difference in financial returns to men and women in the labour market. In other words, it shows what a female worker with the average characteristics would have earned if she had been treated in the same way as a typical male worker and compares these earnings with what she actually earns" (Leythienne & Ronkowski, 2018). The unexplained gender pay gap is what remains after removing the impacts of factors such as time away from the workforce and selection of employment in traditionally lower-paying employment job categories.

Research Questions

This study contains three research questions that are intended to look at the data in two ways. In the first question (R1), I will use descriptive statistics to provide a comprehensive view of the sampled population's perceptions on a wide array of business ethics and organizational

justice issues. This step is important because this population has not been previously studied and the literature offers no reference studies for comparison. Next, using inferential statistics, I will attempt to answer questions about the influence of gender, nationality, and training on ethics perceptions (R2), and how perceptions of organizational justice and workplace treatment influence job satisfaction (R3). The questions follow:

R1: What are the perceptions of proposal development professionals regarding business ethics and organizational justice?

R2: How do gender, nationality, and training influence the business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals?

R3: How do perceptions of organizational justice, moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, influence job satisfaction among proposal development professionals?

These questions were selected because they provide the opportunity to take a broad first look at professionals in this industry, and because they examine how the theoretical framework meets workplace reality in this profession. Through that lens, we may begin to determine if ethics perceptions, treatment, and penalties differ between men and women in this profession, if those perceptions are impacted by nationality and training, and how any identified differences impact job satisfaction within the profession.

Overview of Methodology

While much has been written about business ethics and organizational justice, the study of proposal development professionals in this context is new. In addition, relatively little has been written that places organizational justice in a business ethics framework and further links them both to job satisfaction theory. This study attempts to do that. The study population was

accessed through a voluntary, anonymous, online survey offered to all members of APMP, the industry's only professional association. The survey was presented in English. Informed consent statements were included in the invitational email and the cover page of the survey. Participant confidentiality was ensured to the maximum extent. No personal or IP address information was collected by the survey instrument. Survey data were stored in password protected files controlled by the researcher.

Quantitative data analysis was performed using SPSS v24 and v26. Except for individual responses provided to open-ended questions, data were analyzed in an aggregated manner; as such, no individual participant or groups of participants could be identified except in relation to demographic information voluntarily provided. Descriptive and inferential statistics were generated on the quantitative data using standard analytical methods, including *t* tests, Mann-Whitney *U* tests, principal component analysis, and moderated hierarchical multiple regression.

Qualitative data were collected through three open-ended survey questions. In total, 264 respondents provided 332 answers containing 419 distinct statements. This content was analyzed using a priori coding to reveal any relationship to organizational justice constructs and reasons for not confronting ethics violations observed in the workplace. The study results were used by APMP to better understand the ethics challenges facing its members, and to support the establishment of a professional certification program in business ethics for the proposal industry.

Limitations of This Study

Creswell (2012) describes many ways in which the potential benefits of a study can be limited by predispositions or actions of the researcher and by constraints of time, language, funding, or unavailability of participants. Such limitations pose a threat to internal validity and reporting them may be of help to future researchers (Creswell, 2012).

Population limitation. This study sampled individuals who are current members of APMP. This population could differ in many ways from the population of proposal development professionals who do not chose to become members of this organization. While this limitation may inhibit generalizability to the entire profession or to other professions, the results of this study remain novel within this field.

Social desirability bias. Because the survey includes questions on biases and ethics, some sample respondents may have chosen to answer with less than candor, preferring to give a "correct" answer rather than one that expresses their true beliefs, even though they survey was anonymous (Fisher, 1993; Fisher & Katz, 2000; Grimm, 2010). Because of this, results may not accurately reflect the opinions of all members of the included population. To correct for this possibility, key questions were asked more than once at different points in the survey, using alternate and indirect phrasing (Fisher, 1993) and were reverse coded during analysis. In addition, opportunities were provided for respondents to add open-ended comments.

Nationality skew. The survey population mirrors that of the organization, with a preponderance of APMP members and eligible survey respondents located in the United States, followed by the United Kingdom, Canada, Germany, and Australia. This geographic distribution becomes important when interpreting differences across nations. During analysis, steps were taken to determine if skew existed.

Survey instrument error. The survey was long (37 questions, 100 data items). The invitation email from APMP erroneously said it would only take 10 minutes to complete, compromising face validity. When respondents reached the 10-minute mark and were only halfway through, this could have caused negative reaction. Other errors in the survey may have included an unconscious emphasis on one ethics area over another, or errors in wording of

questions that led to respondent confusion. This latter point is particularly true for questions relating to the dimensions of organizational justice, as issues of fairness of pay, discrimination, and gender are interrelated and many have been difficult to differentiate.

Extended survey period. The survey period lasted four weeks. Events such as sudden media focus on an ethics scandal or gender pay dispute could have transpired during that time in any of the 40 respondent countries, unduly influencing the perceptions of individuals who responded at the end versus at the beginning of the survey period. Wave analysis was undertaken to detect any difference in response between early and late responders as was shown by Yessis and Rathert (2006), whose early responders were significantly more positive in their evaluations than later responders (p. 55). This approach is examined in Chapters 3, 4, and 5.

Nonresponse bias. Nonresponse bias is a concern even with an extended survey period, and even if the response rate is high (Baines, Partin, Davern, & Rockwood, 2007; Montagni, Cariou, Tzourio, & González-Caballero, 2019). It is impossible to know who will fail to respond to a survey, but Rogelberg et al. (2003) describe nonresponders in two groups: passive nonresponders, who generally agree with the majority of responders, and active nonresponders, who do not. Both APMP and I had a vested interest in obtaining a robust and representative response. APMP encouraged its members to respond by offering an inducement (one continuing education unit credit), by keeping the survey open for 30 days, and by sending frequent email reminders. Those inducements produced an additional 450 responses that were submitted beyond the originally intended closure point at Day 9. To minimize the threat to internal validity from passive nonresponders, I manually checked the dataset Excel file and eliminated nonengaged responses, for example, those answering “3” on every question.

Delimitations.

To maximize the range of issues covered in the survey while minimizing its length for participants, the survey contained predominantly multiple choice, scale-based questions, with a limited number of open-ended response questions.

The study was designed for random sampling, but APMP requested that all members be allowed to participate, eliminating that possibility. APMP also requested the extended, four-week sampling period to maximize the opportunity for members in all parts of the world to respond.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 has presented the introduction, statement of the problem, research questions, significance of the study, definition of terms, and limitations of the study. Chapter 2 reviews the literature related to this study in two broad categories: business ethics and organizational justice. Literature on related subordinate issues of business ethics training gender, workforce gender inequity, and workplace treatment is also examined. As appropriate for each literature area, hypotheses are posed linking the literature to the study's research questions. Chapter 3 presents the methodology and procedures used to design the survey, gain approval, disseminate the survey, and gather data for this study. This chapter also discusses the methods, tests, and tools used to analyze the data, along with the reasoning behind their selection. The results of quantitative data analysis are presented in Chapter 4, while Chapter 5 contains the results of qualitative analysis of the narrative responses. Chapter 6 includes a summary of the findings, conclusions, a discussion, and recommendations for further study. Table 1.2 summarizes the key areas described in Chapter 1, including this study's research purpose, scope, methodology, and contributions to the field of business and to professional practice.

Table 1.2

Research Overview and Chapter 1 Summary

Element	Summary
Purpose of the Study	To identify the perceptions of proposal development professionals regarding business ethics, organizational justice, workplace treatment, and job satisfaction To determine the role of gender, nationality, and training on business ethics perceptions To determine the role of gender in perceptions of distributive justice and workplace penalties
Justification	Proposal development professionals are an unstudied professional group who influence annual procurements valued at an estimated USD $1.4 trillion. Understanding how these professionals work and what contributes to their ethical framework and job satisfaction may help industry maximize their contributions and contribute to worklife quality.
Methodology	This study is quantitative by design and includes qualitative analysis of 332 narrative survey responses.
Scope	Examination of proposal professional perceptions through a survey disseminated by APMP to 7,500 members, with 1,254 responses (17.1% response rate) from 40 countries.
Theoretical Framework	Fifty years of social science research has established a theoretical framework for organizational justice by examining issues of importance to human interactions in the workplace. The resultant framework includes distributive justice (DJ), procedural justice (PJ), and interactional justice (IJ). Three additional areas are examined in combination in this study: business ethics, gender workplace equity, and job satisfaction.
Limitations	Limitations include population (sampled through APMP); social desirability bias (respondents were aware that this was an ethics survey); gender and nationality skew (65.5% female, 66.2% U.S.); nonresponse bias (extended survey period produced 450 later responders).
Contribution to the Field of Business	This paper contributes to prior research by adding a novel worker population that is both impactful and global. It also attempts to address gaps in the literature, by: ▪ Examining organizational justice within the context of business ethics and the Herzberg et al. (1959) Two-Factor Theory of Motivation ▪ Combining gender, nationality, and training to assess business ethics perceptions ▪ Affirming the value of business ethics training in reducing ethics violations ▪ Determining the role of workplace treatment in moderating the job satisfaction ▪ Examining aspects of gender as they affect working conditions, treatment and response, and perceptions of workplace fairness ▪ Presenting a descriptive view of a previously unstudied worker population
Contribution to Practice	Proposal development practice may be improved by implementing measures to positively influence the workforce, including: ▪ Actively applying ethics codes and standards in daily proposal operations ▪ Providing ethics training that is annual, relevant, and goes beyond compliance to address pay and role inequity and interpersonal treatment; providing managers supplemental training for ethics oversight ▪ Ensuring that the proposal manager role has greater voice in determining bid opportunities ▪ Implementing negotiation training to produce gender-equitable outcomes

This page intentionally left blank.

CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This study focuses on how the application of business ethics through organizational justice influences the perceptions of men and women who produce bids and proposals for a living. It examines how gender, nationality, and business ethics training impact perceptions of workplace fairness and equity and perceptions of workplace ethics violations, and how those perceptions are related to overall job satisfaction in this professional group. While a large body of literature exists on business ethics, organizational justice, and workplace outcomes such as fair treatment, gender pay equity, and job satisfaction, nothing as yet examines these issues in the population of proposal development professionals investigated in this study.

Introduction

This chapter contains a review of literature in two broad theoretical domains—business ethics and organizational justice—and on gender pay and workplace treatment equity, which permeate and interconnect those domains. Within business ethics literature, an overview is provided to establish historical context and demonstrate how the field of business ethics developed in parallel with, but distinct from, considerations of the ethics of workforce treatment or gender pay equity. Business ethics training literature was examined to determine how effective this training is in preparing workers for the ethics challenges faced in the proposal development workplace. Special attention has been given to literature on sales professionals. This workforce group is somewhat similar to proposal professionals in that both must convince a customer to purchase something through persuasion. Unlike our study population, which has no presence in literature, salesmen have a presence that may be useful.

Next, literature on the theoretical framework of organizational justice was reviewed. Specifically, research is included on distributive justice and equity theory; procedural justice and

an individual's voice in workplace processes; and interactional justice, including both interpersonal justice and informational justice. Within the business ethics and organizational justice frameworks, literature was reviewed that looks at the impacts of gender, nationality and business ethics training, as well as on related outcomes such as perceptions of workplace treatment and job satisfaction. These issues are interrelated in the literature. They form the basis of this study and generated the questions on the survey questionnaire.

Finally, literature on gender workplace equity offers an effective way to examine the intersection of business ethics and organizational justice because it is multinational, workplace-based, goes back decades, is quantitative, and relates directly to perceptions of fairness and job satisfaction. This literature is particularly useful to this study because it offers a highly structured, rich collection of methods and outcomes that can be used as a substitute for literature on proposal development professionals that does not exist. I began this part of the review by looking at studies that examined alternative explanations for the gender pay gap, followed by studies that are global, national, conducted on professions, and on special populations to identify and explain disparities in compensation between men and women.

In summary, the purpose of this literature review is to identify the common thread between literature on two large theoretical frameworks—business ethics and organizational justice—and the relationship between these factors and workplace equity and job satisfaction as perceived men and women of several nationalities with different workplace experiences and levels of ethics training. This synthesis formed the foundation for the study of perceptions and experiences of business development professionals being undertaken.

Sources and methods.

Using standard library methodologies, ProQuest (PQDT Open), Google Scholar, Business Source Premier, PubMed, PsychLIT, and APA PsychNet, I reviewed literature on business ethics, organizational justice, and related constructs, including theories of job satisfaction and gender workplace equity. I worked with subject matter experts on my committee to identify foundational research works in these fields as well as business ethics training, research methodologies, and appropriate methods and tools for statistical analysis. I also worked with Hood College research librarian, Dr. Marcella Genz, to conduct searches on specific topics, including one that confirmed the absence of studies on perceptions of proposal development professionals.

Sources were evaluated on the strength of the journal in which they were published; their research lineage, currency and methodology; and by using such determinants as how often the publication was cited in the works of others. However, even studies that may have received little attention but were deemed relevant were examined to determine if they contributed to the theoretical foundation by adding new examples or by linking the theories under consideration. Preference was given to journal articles in peer reviewed publications over books or discussions in popular media, although a number of frequently cited books are included. I have attempted to identify and include the most influential and prolific authors in the field as well as the point of origin of a theory. Studies were discarded if the source publication could not be located for verification, and if the work was superseded by more recent version from the same authors.

Literature analyzing work-related perceptions, job satisfaction, ethics training, workplace treatment, pay, and gender issues within a range of professions was reviewed to establish the prevalence of perceptions among a variety of professional groups. This literature provided a basis for comparison with the data collected through this project. For the business ethics and

organizational justice literature, because I was interested in the progression of the development of these constructs, I included specific works marking the beginning of a line of thinking as well as more recent works challenging or expanding them. As the analysis phase of this project began, I added literature on statistical methodology (Cohen, 1988; Fox, 2016; Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012; Green, 1991; Pallant, 2016; Salkind, 2017; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

Literature searches to quantify gender pay equity were conducted using economic data by global region and country, wage surveys, and surveys on total compensation (wages plus bonus payments). Sources such as the U.S. National Bureau of Economic Research, the World Economic Forum, Eurostat, and the World Bank offer access to large scale data collection and, in many cases, a multi-decade view for comparison. From among the many available, sources were selected for inclusion based on the strength of the research organization or individuals conducting the survey, peer review, and the breadth and depth of the data set. Because no two data collections produce identical results, a range of studies has been included to ensure balance. Given the significance of the workplace experience to the perceptions being studied, preference was given to studies that measured perceptions of working adults versus those of students.

Population studied.

The members of APMP being studied live and work in 40 countries. Therefore, literature was reviewed that examines populations in related countries and regions. APMP's largest membership concentrations are in the United States and the United Kingdom, and the literature reflects that concentration. However, key studies have also been included from India, Australia, South Africa, and European Union countries, as well as from international organizations conducting global research. This practice was followed to ensure that the population represented

in the APMP survey results can be compared to research outcomes from respondents' home countries, where cultures, legal systems, and gender equity norms may differ.

Because the work that APMP members perform covers a range of disciplines, an equally wide range or professions was examined. For example, some APMP members lead large organizations and have profit and loss responsibility for winning new work. Information gathered on these individuals will be comparable to research results from studies on corporate executives. Some members are responsible for engaging and developing new customers; their responses will be compared to studies generated on salesmen and sales forces. Other APMP members are graphic artists, writers, or editors; their work is directly comparable to artists, writers and editors in medicine or publishing, as examples. Still others work as administrators, and their results may be comparable to studies of administrators in academia and industry. I reviewed studies conducted on a wide range of professions and skills to establish appropriate comparisons for this study's sample.

Theoretical Framework

In this section, I will review literature on the development of business ethics and the framework of organizational justice. This review will trace the development of business ethics, showing how the field and its related training developed apart from societal changes in the areas of workplace treatment and gender equity. Within organizational justice, three primary constructs are recognized: distributive, procedural, and interactional justice (Greenberg, 1987, 1990), with interactional justice having two distinct components, interpersonal and informational justice (Colquitt et al. 2001). The literature will show which elements of organizational justice emerged first, the sequence in which they appeared, and the backdrop against which they developed, and how perceptions of organizational justice influence job satisfaction.

Business ethics.

Business ethics can be defined as a system of moral principles applied in the commercial world. Although issues of morality, economics, and commerce had been discussed, codified, and debated as moral philosophy for centuries, business ethics first emerged as a coherent field of study in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Between 1900 and 1936, "at least 223 scholarly journal articles and 66 book reviews use the term 'business ethics'" (Abend, 2013, p. 195). Japanese author Masanobu Sato notes that business ethics became a burning issue among business leaders and academicians in the United States in the 1920s (Sato, 2005), with new codes of ethics and a surge of publications coming from philosophers as well as business and trade associations. Early 20th century works related to ethics in business included works on "trade morals" (Page, 1914); four large works in 1926 linking business ethics to moral standards (Heermance, 1926; Lee, 1926; Lord, 1926; Taeusch, 1926), and one in 1931 linking business ethics to commerce and state policy (Taeusch, 1931).

Development of business ethics education. Inseparable from the study of business ethics, particularly for business leaders, is the study of how ethics are taught. *The Wall Street Journal* reports that as early as 1905, "a special course of lectures of business ethics" was being offered at New York University that would include topics such as "Morality in Wall Street" (Abend, 2013, p. 178; New York University, 1906). Frank Chapman Sharp, a University of Wisconsin professor of philosophy, is credited by Ferrell and Ferrell (2008) with creating and teaching the world's first formal business ethics course in 1913 at that institution, although subsequent scholarship by Abend (2013) claims that honor credibly for New York University.

The first identified business ethics textbook, created by Sharp and Philip D. Fox, did not appear until 1937 (Sharp & Fox, 1937a, 1937b). No evidence of business ethics textbooks has

been found before this date, prior to which, teaching materials consisted of works of philosophy (Abend, 2013). Issues of right and wrong in a range of business undertakings were discussed in Sharp's textbook accompanied by a 56-page casebook; workplace issues related to gender were not included. Sharp's text consists of a volume of teaching and a volume of case studies used as exam material. In the preface to his text, he notes that this is his first text but that he has been teaching a business ethics course at his institution since 1913 (Sharp & Fox, 1937a, p. vi), confirming Ferrell and Ferrell's (2008) assertion. Lecture series and ethics education slowly grew during the ensuing decades, always outside the workplace, and considered academic study. However, it was not until 1986 that the first comprehensive, dedicated center for business ethics education was established in higher education, at what would become Harvard University's Edmond J. Safra Center for Ethics (Stark, 1993).

Applied business ethics. The study of applied business ethics emerged into the popular culture as a formal area of thought leadership in the early 1960s with works by French and Raven (1959) and Baumhart (1961, 1963, 1968). The results of a now classic business survey of U.S. business leaders are telling. The study, conducted by a Jesuit priest as part of his DBA studies at Harvard, polled U.S. businessmen and presented data from 1,700 respondents, a 34% response rate (Baumhart, 1961, p. 7). The survey demonstrates that while business leaders were strongly sensitized to what was ethical in terms of practices between businesses and between business and customers, 68% reported that there were generally accepted practices that were also unethical. No data are presented indicating that any respondents are women, and Baumhart (1961) refers to his respondents as the "men in this study" (p. 156, p. 164). When asked which unethical practice they would most like to eliminate, the highest ranked response (23%) was "gifts, gratuities, bribes and 'call girls'" (Baumhart, 1961, p. 159). When prompted for specific

reforms needed in their own industries, the personnel director of a western manufacturing firm responded, “The idea that industry should have a few women employees on the payroll for entertainment of prospective customers” (Baumhart, 1961, p. 159).

Concurrent with massive social and legislative changes taking place in the United States, Baumhart’s (1961, 1963, 1968) work, in particular, made a case in a broader arena for establishing a moral framework within the business community by which workplace actions should be guided, while French and Raven (1959) examine the identification and use of social power. Nearly contemporaneous academic studies on workplace equity (Adams, 1965) and business perceptions (Baumhart, 1968) strengthened the case that equality in the workplace, including equality of opportunity, access to power, pay, and benefits, was an issue appropriate for inclusion in the study of business ethics. In this decade, Rawls (1967) published his first major work on distributive justice. Also of note in this decade, 1963 marks the admission of the first female students to Harvard Business School (Harvard Business School, 2013).

The decade of the 1970s experienced a sharp rise in academic studies as well as diverse writing for the general business community (De George, 2005). Examples include a rich range of seminal works in business, social learning, and economics by Friedman (1970), Rawls (1971), Bennis (1973), Bok (1976), Bandura (1977), and Bowie (1979). Friedman’s 1970 work states that the ethical responsibility of a corporation is to deliver value to its shareholders and by so doing, it can deliver the greatest good most broadly across society—linking ethics and shareholder value. In a work subtitled “A Discourse on Distributive Justice,” Rawls (1971) states, “the distribution of wealth and income, and the hierarchies of authority, must be consistent with both the liberties of equal citizenship and equality of opportunity” (p. 214) (see also: Hart, 1973). Bandura (1977) observes the behavior of individuals sharing information on their relative

well-being in the workplace and forming reactions. Bennis (1974), counsels against the loss of ethical foundations within academic institutions, including schools of business, and Bok (1976) asks whether it is even possible to teach ethics, a viewpoint of historical interest, given the sexual harassment challenges that were to be visited on Harvard University in the 1980s during his presidency.

During the 1970s, "11 percent of the largest American firms were convicted of lawlessness, including bribery, criminal fraud, illegal campaign contributions, tax evasion, or price-fixing" (Cory, 2005, p. 11). Corporate scandals such as the 1976 Lockheed $12 million bribery case that crippled the Japanese government led to the creation of the Foreign Corrupt Practices Act in the United States, which mandates ethical business practice by U.S. corporations operating overseas (De George, 2005). The decade of the 1970s was also noted for the rise of shareholder protection, environmental protection, the specialization of business ethics along professional lines, and the emergence of the concept of corporate social responsibility as integral to a corporation's ethical framework (Abend, 2013; De George, 1987, 1993; Ferrell & Ferrell, 2008; Marcoux, 2006). The 1970s also produced the first business ethics conference, held at Kansas State University in 1974, marked by Bowie (1986) as the beginning of applied business ethics in the United States. The conference was followed by a study sponsored by the National Endowment for the Humanities Committee for Education in Business Ethics, and the publication of seminal business ethics texts (Bowie, 1986, p. 160).

Business ethics thinking in the 1980s was influenced by two works that entered the mainstream in 1979 relating ethics, philosophy and business practices: Beauchamp and Bowie's (1979) *Ethical Theory and Business* and Donaldson and Werhane's (1979) *Ethical Issues in Business: A Philosophical Perspective.* Both works, which remain in publication four decades

later, examine the deterioration of business practices and the emergence of legislation as remedy. Using case studies and essays, these works illustrate disparate economic and commercial philosophies, including those of Friedman, Marx, Locke, Kant, Mill, and Hegel, and in corporate discussions of distributive justice that place the equitable treatment of workers within the business ethics framework. In parallel with this literature, a shift in business school ethics courses was taking place, moving course content away from a traditional focus on the philosophical origins of ethics to their application in daily work through ethical decision making (Abend, 2013; Treviño, Den Nieuwenboer, & Kish-Gephart, 2014).

The 1980s saw two major scandals that changed public awareness of how ethics were practiced by business: the 1984 Union Carbide disaster in Bhopal, India, and the exposure in 1986 of U.S. defense contracting irregularities, particularly in work associated with other countries and cultures. Both led to industry-wide business ethics reforms: the chemical industry adopted the Responsible Care code of ethics, and 32 major defense contractors signed as inaugural members of the Defense Industry Initiative (DII) on Business Ethics and Conduct (De George, 2005). These industry-generated initiatives were accompanied by a spate of legislative actions intended to establish more rigorous federal oversight and greater penalties for infractions, as well as articles questioning the efficacy of business ethics education (Pamental, 1989) (see also: Stark, 1993). Also in this decade, the Society for Business Ethics was established in 1980 and journals dedicated solely to issues and solutions for business ethics challenges began to emerge, including the *Business and Professional Ethics Journal* in 1981 and the *Journal of Business Ethics* in 1982. These publications were followed a decade later by the *Business Ethics Quarterly* in 1991, and *Business Ethics: A European Review* in 1992 (Abend, 2013).

The business ethics work of Hunt and Vitell (1986) in the field of marketing is aligned closely with the population of business development professionals studied in this paper. Instead of providing an ethics framework for the marketing profession to market goods and services, Hunt and Vitell (1986) study how decisions are made in this environment. They examine the moment when an employee or executive is confronted with a situation that requires a decision based on business ethics. Immediately, deontological and teleological alternatives are evaluated through filters that include the right/wrong ethics value as well as an evaluation of outcomes on shareholders, stakeholders, or the individual's own well-being. Next, the answers to those questions are further modified by perspective, culture, religion, level of cognitive moral development, personal value systems, and ethical sensitivity. Hunt and Vitell (1986) track these processes and chart the outcomes but offer no information on how men and women differ, if they do, in their ability to make ethical decisions, or the filters they use when doing so. Because it is directly related to marketing, which is the business area in which proposal work is conducted, their work, known as the Hunt-Vitell theory, or H-V theory, holds important implications for the population I am studying.

HRM professionals. Folger and Cropanzano (1998) identified the importance of HRM professionals in developing, dispensing, and monitoring organizational justice. They examined workplace-based situations such as conflict resolution, grievance procedures, and performance evaluations, applying principles procedural, informational, interactional, and distributive justice. They look at "the conditions of employment that lead individuals to believe that they are being treated fairly or unfairly" (Folger & Cropanzano, 1998, p. vii) and the HRM role in maintaining the caliber and quality of those conditions. Finally, they conclude that higher perceptions of fairness and job satisfaction accompany higher application of organizational justice principles

(p. 173–180). Arches (1991), Bauer (2004), Ensher, Grant-Vallone, & Donaldson (2001), Jaramillo et al., 2006), Kim (2015), and Maslach and Leiter (2008) link HRM issues such as discrimination, workplace stress, and burnout to job satisfaction; Mele (2014) and Feffer (2017) connect ethical treatment to the functional role and responsibilities of HRM professionals; and Roxas and Stoneback (2004) stress the importance of maintaining gender equity to foster better, more ethical corporate decision making.

Business ethics and gender. With few exceptions, the issue of gender does not prominently appear in the previously cited literature on business ethics produced during the 20th century. Business ethics literature primarily dealt with the ethics of transactions, the processes by which individuals make decisions involving right and wrong, and, too frequently, discussions and actions taken in response to corporate lapses in ethics that created great harm.

The social contexts of the first and second halves of the 20th century were different from each other and different from those of today. Gender roles were more strongly fixed and women in the workforce remained largely in hourly wage work or piece work, and there were relatively fewer women in the workforce (Goldin, 1984, 1991). Tragedies such as the culturally iconic Triangle Shirtwaist Factory fire in 1911 that killed 123 women and girls, focused public attention on working conditions for women, produced changes to workplace fire regulations, and eventually reduced the workweek to 54 hours (von Drehle, 2003). In addition to regulatory changes, this event also fueled the movement for women to organize to secure the right to vote (von Drehle, 2003). Marriage bars prohibiting the hiring or retention of married women impacted female promotion and tenure and were common in the first half of the century. Firms offered dowries to women who stayed with the firm for 6 years before marrying and being terminated (Goldin, 1988, p. 20).

Except for the work of Adams (1963, 1965) and Baumhart (1968), a search of the works cited in the preceding paragraphs produced no responses for "gender," "sex," "pay equity," or "pay gap." Most do not even contain the word "women." Of particular note is *The Blackwell Encyclopedic Dictionary of Business Ethics*, the first of its kind, with contributors from 12 countries (Werhane & Freeman, 1997). Despite its business ethics mission, among its 350 entries on 700 pages, this comprehensive dictionary devotes no entry to gender pay equity and contains only a single mention of the term "pay gap" in an entry entitled "Women at Work" (Werhane & Freeman, 1997, p. 658).

This lack of presence in the literature is particularly interesting in a century during which women pressed forward so prominently in the public space for equality, first in terms of voting rights, and second in terms of pay. Instead of being a banner carried by the business community, the issue of pay equity was sustained throughout the century by women themselves, spearheaded by the same women leaders who pursued and won voting rights in 1919–1920. However, as seen in the foregoing paragraphs, the business community and the business ethics community were not overtly supportive.

By not including sex as a variable, many early studies discussed in this paper lost an opportunity to contribute an understanding of women's business ethics perceptions to the literature. Other literature, however, indicates that men and women may differ in their ethical approaches to decision making, with men more likely to ignore ethics restrictions based on necessity, while women were more likely to observe and react to ethical challenges than men. Dawson (1997) found that statistically significant differences in ethical decision making existed between male and female sales professionals, with women more likely to make sound ethical decisions if they were contextualized within relationship settings. These differences, however,

disappeared with extended career exposure to the sales environment. At about the same time, a meta-analysis by Franke, Crown, and Spake (1997) determined that most studies found significant differences between men and women in terms of ethical awareness and determination to act in accordance with ethical beliefs.

Friesdorf, Conway, and Gawronski (2015) demonstrated that men consistently showed a stronger preference than women for utilitarian judgments, and that women consistently preferred deontological reasoning, resulting in different ethical choices and outcomes based on gender ($p < .001$with moderate Cohen's *d* effect) (p. 703). However, a study of 222 executives in the United States and Spain was inconclusive, showing non-significant differences between men and women executives in ethical decision making, but that "women had higher intentions to act ethically than did the men" (Valentine & Rittenburg, 2007, p. 130) .

Business ethics and nationality. Studies reviewed for this paper emphasized the challenges of operating ethically in a global environment with different national ethical and cultural environments and norms in play (Ardichvili, Mitchell, & Jondle, 2009; Jondle & Ardichvili, 2017), and included a comprehensive literature review by Ardichvili and Jondle (2009). Studies vary as to whether or not differences exist in business ethics perceptions based on nationality or culture. Among many studies in this field, differences have been found to exist as to the importance of ethics between Thai, Turkish, and U.S. businesspeople (Burnaz, Atakan, Topcu, & Singhapakdi, 2009), in perceptions of unethical behavior between Thai and U.S. managers (Marta & Singhapakdi, 2005), and in idealism and personal moral philosophy between U.S. and Australian marketing professionals (Singhapakdi, Marta, Rao, & Cicic, 2001). Christie, Kwon, Stoeberl, and Baumhart (2003) found that differences in culture produced significant differences in ethical values in 345 business executives in the United States, India, and Korea,

using Hofstede's cultural typography and Value Survey Module. Similarly, Ho (2010) found significant differences between Chinese, Malay, and Indian managers to business ethics scenarios, which she attributed to cultural and locus of control differences. Conversely, in older studies, Lee (1981) found no significant differences between British and Chinese managers in Hong Kong; Abratt, Nel, and Higgs (1992) had a similar no-difference outcome with Australian and South African corporate managers; and Chan and Armstrong (1999) found that Canadian and Australian managers produced similar rankings of ethical problems in marketing, but "differed in terms of the importance of the problems when compared to the frequency" (Javalgi & Russell, 2018, p. 712). Finally, in their study of 711 businesses in the U.S., UK, Germany, and Austria, while finding significant differences in ethics issues identification, Schlegelmilch & Robertson (1995) also found similarities in the presence of corporate ethics policies and training that significantly influenced ethics perceptions.

Business ethics training. With ethics courses now common in business schools, annual ethics training mandated for all U.S. government contractors and provided by corporations on every continent, and codes of ethics posted almost universally on corporate websites, it was perhaps inevitable that a new school of thinking would arise, that corporate ethics are, in fact, impossible (Bevan & Corvellec, 2007). Examining the work of Emmanuel Levinas in the 1990s, Bevan and Corvellec (2007) tell us that that ethics is not a matter of distinguishing good from evil in action; true ethics can only exist in the space between two entities and does not exist as a third-party presence outside that relationship (p. 6), making, in their view, a universal standard of corporate ethics impossible. This view would lead to the widest possible range of perceptions on business ethics, influenced strongly by culture and other factors. The role of ethics training in shaping a corporation's desired workplace ethics view, then, becomes even more important.

Ethics training has been found to provide additional positive effects, including establishing an ethical context in the workplace, improving the understanding of corporate ethics and values, and increasing job satisfaction (Valentine & Barnett, 2003; Valentine & Fleischman, 2004). Valentine (2009) found that hours of ethics training had a significant and positive effect on an employee's job satisfaction with coworkers and supervisors and increased employees' perceptions of their companies as ethical, strengthening the workplace ethical culture (p. 238).

Our study population includes both men and women who share a common profession but who live and work in 40 countries and are likely to experience a range of cultural environments, business ethics standards, and training requirements that could impact their business ethics perceptions and practice. Therefore, because perceptions on these topics have not been previously measured in this population, the following hypothesis is offered:

H1: Gender, nationality, and training will influence the business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals.

H1a: Women will perceive higher occurrences of business ethics violations in the workplace than men.

H1b: Nationality will influence business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals.

H1c: Individuals who receive annual ethics training will observe fewer general business ethics violations than those who receive no training.

Gender workplace penalties. Agitation for improvement and equality was not new, nor was it restricted to America: As early as the 1830s in England, women organized to secure "equal pay for equal work" (Offen, 2018). However, throughout the 19th and early 20th centuries, the "breadwinner model" was also in play (Goldin, 1988; Kessler-Harris, 2001; Long, 1944, 1952;

Offen, 2018). Under this social convention, it was acceptable to pay women less than men for the same work because, as "breadwinners," men were expected to earn a greater share of the family income (Offen, 2018).

The lack of workplace ethics was not limited to issues of pay; at several points in our history the absence of business ethics led to blanket discrimination against women seeking the simple equal opportunity to work. Following both world wars, the U.S. government either enforced or supported the dismissal of women from the workplace to make room for returning male service personnel (Goldin & Olivetti, 2013) with no surge of objection recorded in the business ethics literature (Kessler-Harris, 2001; Offen, 2018). Displacement from the post–World War II workforce was disproportional, based on work type: those women who had worked in previously male-dominated occupations such as manufacturing were more greatly displaced by returning servicemen and tended to be less educated than those who took on professional "white collar" roles (Goldin, 1990, 1991; Goldin & Olivetti, 2013). Because the workforce participation rate by women and girls had doubled in four years, from 18% in 1940 to 37% in 1944 (Moody, 1988, p. 22; Schweitzer, 1980, p. 90), the societal impact of the post–World War II female workforce displacement was far greater than that of the post–World War I terminations. An estimated 2.2 million women were turned out of the workforce between 1945 and 1947, again, without extant evidence of any ethics concern being raised by the business community (Moody, 1988, p. 22).

The Equal Pay Act of 1963 should have marked a point at which significantly more references to gender pay equity are found in works on business ethics, but instead, those references fail to appear. However, moments of cultural clarity can emerge quickly and decisively. In October 2017, the #MeToo movement started a viral global conversation on

business ethics and gender equity. Immediately after the initial reports, an ABC News–*Washington Post* overnight telephone survey of 1,010 people found that 30% of women reported having experienced unwanted sexual advances from male co-workers and 23% had experienced them from men who controlled their work and compensation (Langer, 2017). Around the world, case after case emerged in which men were accused of using workplace power to encourage or force women to trade undesired sex for the most basic of economic opportunities—the right to work.

By moving beyond raising awareness to setting practical goals, such as securing funding to test backlogged rape kits and demanding corporate accountability for abuses of power, the #MeToo movement transformed the discussion from theory to workplace reality around the world seemingly overnight (D'Zurilla, 2017). This movement represented the intersection in global popular culture between the two primary constructs in this paper, business ethics and the equity principles of organizational justice, and leads to the following hypothesis:

> **H2:** Women will perceive higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties than men.

Workplace ethics training. If the first half of the century saw a weakening of the leadership role of corporate ethics as government controls increased, the second half saw a boom in corporate ethics programs and training. In an article summarizing 50 years of growth of corporate ethics training, Thomas Donaldson of the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton School examines how, where, and when these programs developed. Writing in 2000, he states:

> Corporate ethics programs were like hummingbirds in the 1950s. You didn't see one often and when you did it seemed too delicate to survive. Now, these curiosities have proved their sturdiness, flourishing and migrating steadily from

> their historical home in Europe and the U.S. to Asia, Africa and Latin America. Most of the 500 largest corporations in the U.S. now boast a code of ethics, and the proportion among a broader collection of U.S. companies has risen to 80% (Donaldson, 2000, p. 35).

Codes of ethics and statements of corporate values rapidly became common in American corporations, led by the efforts of Robert Wood Johnson II, son of the founder of Johnson & Johnson. Johnson's *Credo*, written and adopted by Johnson & Johnson's board of directors in 1943, is the best known and possibly earliest of these values-based codes. It established Johnson & Johnson as an ethics model for industry and served as a guidance document for crisis management (Piper, 2008).

In 1982, in response to a series of cyanide poisonings linked to Tylenol, Johnson & Johnson removed the product from store shelves despite no evidence of wrongdoing on the company's part. In a case of what turned out to be product tampering, seven people lost their lives. Johnson & Johnson kept the product off the market until packaging had been completely redesigned to make undetectable tampering impossible and extended tamper-proof packaging to all of its products. This move, the first in the industry, was driven by principles in the *Credo*, and cost Johnson & Johnson USD $100 million (Seglin, 2001).

Codes of ethics are a now-universal means of reinforcing corporate expectations and values (Messick & Tenbrunsel, 1996; Valentine & Barnett, 2003) and help to form a strong organizational identity for employees (Verbos, Gerard, Forshey, Harding, & Miller, 2007), but codes themselves are not training. In addition to an increase in corporate codes, the second half of the century also witnessed an increase in the delivery of corporate ethics training, first to executives, and then to the broader workforce (Donaldson, 2000; Marsh, 2013). Ethics training

programs are of two kinds: those based on corporate codes of values, and those based on compliance (Treviño, Weaver, Gibson & Toffler, 1999). Values-based training provides an ethics framework for decision making and helps strengthen overall culture (Paine & Piper, 1999), while compliance-based programs attempt to ensure that employees know the law and have a uniform understanding of what is expected of them in the workplace. In addition, a study by Treviño et al. (1999) found that compliance-based programs strengthen an employee's willingness to report ethics violations to management, "a particularly important attribute of an ethical culture" (Warren, Gaspar, & Laufer, 2014, p. 90).

Many authors focus on the importance of raising general ethics awareness and creating an ethical workplace climate or context (McDonald & Donleavy, 1995; Peppas & Diskin, 2001; Valentine & Fleischman, 2004), while others address industry-specific challenges, such as those related to accounting (Buchan, 2005). Proposal development professionals deal heavily in accounting and estimating practices to produce the certified cost estimates required for bidding highly competitive and lucrative contracts. Downward pressures on pricing are great; estimating personnel may be pressured to take measures and use assumptions that will enable lower than realistic pricing. Once the job is won, higher costs may be passed on to the customer.

Literature on the accounting profession may therefore be directly applicable. This literature offers examples of corporate ethics practices and reforms, particularly in ethics training, that do not exist for our study population. Benston (2003), Duska, Duska, & Ragatz (2011), and Thomas (2004) incorporate lessons learned from ethics failures in the accounting profession, most notably the Enron scandal that led to the fall of "Big Five" accounting firm Arthur Andersen, LLP (Toffler & Reingold, 2004). Post-Enron accounting practice reforms are incorporated in the compliance training for proposal professionals working for U.S. government

contractors. This literature is also relevant to business ethics and to this study because it teaches lessons about the ability of a workforce to perceive ethics violations and also about their willingness to report in a climate of fear of retaliation.

What training measures. Because our study population is international, literature was reviewed that evaluated training programs across many countries. Steele et al. (2016) conducted a review of 243 studies comprising 380 ethics training programs between 1979 and 2015 to determine how these programs were evaluated. They further grouped studies into 14 categories by the type of measures used. They conclude that the measures most frequently used were reaction measures (61.5% in post-test-only designs), followed by moral reasoning (17.4% in pre- and post-test designs), and that 10th on the list were behavioral measures. They counsel that "infrequent assessment of behavioral outcomes is a shortcoming in the evaluation of ethics training programs" (p. 333).

Because they had access to few studies outside the United States, Steele et al. (2016) grouped studies into U.S. and international categories. Their analysis found differences between the two groups: "while conceptual development and perceptions of others measures were only employed at a modest rate (0.9% and 1.4%, respectively) in the United States, they were never used in international ethics trainings" (p. 332). International ethics training more frequently favored knowledge and moral judgment measures and used reaction measures more often than U.S. studies (36.1% vs. 23.7%) (p. 332). Steele et al. (2016) remain concerned that what is being measured is not appropriate to determine or change behavior because it measures the reactions versus the behavior itself. They counsel that one way to change this is to compare trained versus untrained personnel (p. 334).

Modes of training delivery. Distinctions are also made between training programs that are computer-based and those that are instructor-led, with the latter considered more effective in delivering ethics content (Sekerka, 2009). Instructor-led training may have a more powerful impact because it enables employees to see someone modeling ethical behavior (Bandura, 1977; Treviño & Youngblood, 1990).

These distinctions are significant to our study of proposal development professionals in two ways. First, we know how employees are trained, e.g., computer-based versus instructor-led, but do not know the substance of their training (values-based or compliance-based). We know how many are trained and anticipate that requirements for training and the modes of training delivery differ across the 40 countries sampled. Given that ethics training varies by company, industry, and country in terms of its content, robustness, and effectiveness, our sample population revealed a diversity of experience and perception. That diversity and the range calls for a level of complexity in training that supports findings of Fraedrich, Cherry, King & Gao (2005), who found that simplistic Yes/No training was less effective than more immersive and situation-based training, and that training needed to cover a broad range of ethics topics to be valuable.

Ethics training for sales personnel. Literature on ethics training within the sales industry offers insights that are helpful to the study of proposal development personnel. Valentine (2009, p. 227) notes that:

> ethics is particularly relevant to the sales profession because it is recognized that salespeople negotiate many ethical challenges in their line of work, oftentimes unethically (Caywood & Laczniak, 1986; Chonko & Burnett, 1983; Hoffman, Howe, & Hardigree, 1991; Ingram, LaForge, & Schwepker, 2007; McClaren, 2013; Singhapakdi & Vitell 1990; Wotruba, 1990).

This excerpt is significant for two reasons: First, it highlights that this profession confronts, possibly with mixed success, numerous ethics challenges; and second, the cited works point to literature that does not exist for our study population, but that can be used as a proxy.

Using *Death of a Salesman* as an illustrative tool, Caywood & Laczniak (1986) offer examples of ethics challenges commonly found in the selling industry that our proposal development professionals inhabit. These challenges include expense account abuse induced by extensive travel for business (p. 82); a "business is business" mentality (p. 83); "falsifying product specifications to fit a customer's requirements to gain a sale" (p. 86); believing that kickbacks are "just the way you do business in some areas" (p. 85); and using industrial espionage (p. 84). Each of these ethics challenges confronts proposal development professionals today.

A later study by Hoffman et al. (1991) demonstrated that insurance salespersons who are customer-focused have fewer ethics violations than those who are driven by sales quotas, and that the latter group have higher premiums (they oversold their product to customers). Ingram et al. (2007) found that modeling ethical leadership moderated the frequency of unethical practices in the sales force. Chonko, Wotruba, and Loe (2002) support this conclusion and discuss the need for greater self-regulation in sales environments, and that small things like expense account violations can damage customer confidence. Chonko and Burnett (1983) observe that sales personnel occupy a "boundary position" (p. 42) and as such, must balance competing pressures and opposing expectations, such as from managers who pressure to sell and customers who want an honest deal. This competing-pressures environment bears strong resemblance to the work environment of the proposal development professionals in this study.

Hoffman et al. (1991) examined perceptions among insurance salespersons and offer a number of findings that could prove to be useful in our study. They found that more ethics training did not necessarily increase ethical behavior, but increased perception of unethical behavior among co-workers, which was "positively related to the size of the firm, negatively related to the age of the agent, and unrelated to job tenure." (p. 13). These items correspond to questions on the survey issued to our study population and provide useful comparisons.

Benefits of ethics training. While individuals receive the ethics training, the ultimate beneficiary is the corporation. As ethics principles and practices are institutionalized and reinforced over time and a healthier corporate culture is formed that in theory will engage in fewer activities that put the organization at risk (Frisque & Kolb, 2008; Treviño & Nelson, 2016; Weber, 2007). Interestingly, the salespersons in an early study by Dubinsky, Jolson, Michaels, Kotabe, and Lin (1992) found that sales personnel wanted more ethics training to clarify boundaries and to create a more beneficial and ethical organizational climate in which management and sales personnel operate to the same standards. Individuals do benefit, however. In examining a series of studies on sales professionals, Valentine (2009) found that greater awareness of ethical context had a mediating relationship between ethics training and job satisfaction, a benefit that is of interest in this study.

Determining right or wrong in a business situation is not always easy or clear. Proposal development professionals are often challenged by senior management to "win at all cost." Even in rigorously structured bidding environments such as those involving U.S. government contracts where governing regulations are in place, there are pressures to use information on competitors, misrepresent true costs, conduct inappropriate communications with contracting officers, or offer solutions that cannot be implemented—all of which are out of bounds.

It would seem reasonable to expect that business ethics training for both professionals and management would solve these dilemmas and perhaps even improve workplace interaction. With some personalities, however, ethics training may have the reverse effect. Schminke, Ambrose, & Noel (1997) studied individuals undergoing ethics training and found that the utilitarian personalities (get it done) were more influenced by distributive justice pressures, while the formalist personalities (do it correctly) were more influenced by procedural justice. These two types could relate to our management (win at all cost) and proposal professionals (turn in a compliant proposal). Post-training measurements indicated that the formalists had lower job satisfaction when workplace ethical practices were poor (Schminke et al., 1997, p. 1204).

Ethics and compliance training is required annually for all employees of corporations who do business with the U.S. government. One objective of this training is to increase ethical awareness (Jones, 1991). Another is to strengthen the capability of individuals to properly identify and report ethics breaches in the workplace. Therefore, testing whether observances go up or down could be a means to evaluate training effectiveness. However, at least one study indicates that the opposite may be true: Although counterintuitive, observances actually decrease.

This phenomenon was observed in a recent study by Warren et al. (2014), who examined employees in the U.S. banking industry and looked at formal ethics training to determine its impact on workplace behavior. They evaluated observances of ethics violations, willingness to report, and intent to engage in ethical behavior. They measured effects immediately after a single ethics training course and again two years later. The found that observations of ethics violations decreased after training while willingness to report increased. Employees had become better detectors and reporters of wrongdoing but had also become better trained and more strongly intentioned to avoid it (Warren et al., 2014, p. 102). Training had fortified the ethics culture of

the workplace. It had established a common understanding and acceptance of "right" and provided mutually beneficial interpersonal support for making ethical choices. This effect lasted over the two years of the study (p. 102). This study supports the concept that a strong ethical context in the workplace environment also strengthens interpersonal relationships and job satisfaction (Valentine, 2009, Valentine & Fleischman, 2004), which may interact to support ethical workplace behavior.

There is much in the foregoing literature that relates to our study population, and the survey instrument has collected data matching these topics. I therefore selected the following hypothesis to test in the sample to determine if results are similar to those of Warren et al. (2014) in areas specific to the practice of proposal development:

H3: Individuals who receive annual ethics training will be less likely to observe proposal ethics violations in their workplaces than those who receive no training.

Organizational justice.

Business ethics most closely aligns with the theoretical construct of organizational justice. As practiced, taught, and written about today, organizational justice has evolved from basic principles of fairness in organizations to an architecture that contains three branches: distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice, with interactional justice having two independent subcategories: interactional and informational justice (Greenberg, 1987; Greenberg, 1990; Colquitt et al., 2001). Aspects of organizational behavior researched within this framework have been sorted into these three branches, which have evolved since the 1960s and which contain significant overlap between categories. They are loosely aligned with (1) the equitability of what one receives as compensation or reward, (2) the procedures by which reward

decisions are made, and (3) the dignified treatment of individuals during this process, including providing access to information useful in determining whether compensation is just.

All three categories are based on the simple concept of fairness, which Cropanzano and Greenberg (1997) describe not as an absolute, but as being derived through social consensus. Distributive justice, an ancient concept, was the first to appear in the modern justice literature (Adams, 1963, 1965; Homans, 1961; Leventhal, 1976a), followed by procedural justice (Folger & Greenberg, 1985; Leventhal, 1980; Leventhal, Karuza, & Fry, 1980; Thibaut & Walker, 1975), and interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986).

After an introductory review of literature describing organizational justice as a whole and a brief discussion of fairness as a moral value, I will review each of the branches of organizational justice in the sections that follow. Studies reviewed for this paper included field studies, laboratory studies, meta-analyses, and philosophical works. Studies considered eligible for inclusion had in common their relevancy to the role of workplace fairness as described by Greenberg (1990).

Overview of organizational justice literature. By the late 1980s, the field of organizational justice had settled into its now recognized three-branch format and a body of research existed sufficient to support a number of historical reviews. These reviews included works by Byrne and Cropanzano (2001) and Greenberg (1987, 1990), who described and segmented the three constructs and charted their historical development. Figure 2.1 depicts the organizational justice framework, its three primary constructs and subdimensions, and seminal contributors to each. Moving from left to right across the diagram, we can see the evolution of thought during the second half of the 20th century, with each justice construct having an official date of origin marked by a landmark publication.

Figure 2.1. Organizational justice constructs and seminal theorists.

A debate over the distinctiveness of the constructs and their subdimensions consumed much energy in the 1980s and 1990s, fueled by the establishment by Bies & Moag (1986) of interactional justice as a third construct. Bies's subsequent retraction of this theory four years later stirred additional controversy. Colquitt et al. (2001, p. 427) describe a number of studies that accept Bies's retraction and combine procedural and interactional justice concepts into one construct, in part because of high correlations (> .7) between the measures (Colquitt, 2001, p. 387). To clarify construct validity, studies during this period test and address constructs in varying combinations include Greenberg (1987), Folger and Konovsky (1989), Tyler and Bies (1990), Moorman (1991), Brockner and Wiesenfeld (1996), Brockner, Siegel, Daly, Tyler, and Martin (1997), Mansour-Cole and Scott (1998), and Konovsky (2000). While attempting to clarify overall organizational justice structure, these studies blurred the distinctions between constructs, making it more difficult to determine their unique incremental impacts.

To address this uncertainty, Colquitt et al. (2001) conducted a comprehensive 25-year meta-analytic review of a quarter century of research covering this evolutionary period in organizational justice. They investigated the distinctiveness of the three dimensions to determine whether or not interactional and procedural justice should be collapsed into one dimension and whether informational and interactive justice are truly distinct. By examining the behavior of these constructs across the 183 studies included in their review, they found that each of the four constructs exerted uniquely identifiable and statistically clear influences on the various forms of perception and behavior studied. Their study definitizes organizational justice structure into three primary divisions, with interactional justice having two differentiated, independent subconstructs (Colquitt et al., 2001, p. 438). That framework is used in this paper, as illustrated in Figures 1.1 and 2.1. Several works produced after 2000 have solidified the field, including writings by Colquitt (2001); Colquitt, Greenberg, and Zapata-Phelan (2005); and Colquitt, Greenberg and Scott (2005) in *The Handbook of Organizational Justice* (Greenberg & Colquitt, 2005), and *The Oxford Handbook of Justice in the Workplace* (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015).

Underlying all of these studies are questions of morality and ethics in both the workplace and the business marketing environment. Important questions are asked, such as how consumers and business leaders make decisions—on the basis of accepted ethical or legal practices and ethical norms (deontology) or based on the consequences that may arise from their actions (teleology), including employee outcomes. Hunt and Vitell (2005) tell us that adults are likely to make choices using a sound ethical basis, doing what is right for its own sake. This concept is important to my study of gender pay equity and other workplace issues. What Hunt-Vitell theory (2005) and the organizational justice constructs have in common is their contribution to the historical development of the organizational justice field, their definition of a strong

interrelationship between the three constructs in both research and practice, and their contribution to establishing a unifying theory of fairness of process and outcomes.

Fairness as a moral value. Fairness and fairness theory are the foundation supporting all aspects of organizational justice (Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997; Folger & Cropanzano, 2001; Rawls, 1958; Rawls, 2001). Fairness formed the basis for laws and rules governing behavior dating back at least to the Code of Hammurabi in 1750 B.C., the writings of Plato and Aristotle, and the teachings of Christ and is fundamental to religions, codes of ethics, and systems of justice. Fairness in the workplace uses the work of Hume (2003), Locke (1969, 1976), Yaffe (2000), Niebuhr (2013), Homans (1961), Cahill (1996), Adams (1963, 1965) and others as a basis. Homans (1961) is credited with making the concept of fairness of distributed rewards prominent in modern business literature, although, as previously noted, distributive justice was discussed in the earlier business ethics textbook of Sharp and Fox (1937a, p. 51). Adams (1963, 1965) employed social exchange theory as a basis for describing and understanding just and equitable treatment in terms of contributions, outcomes, and expectations.

Writing at a time of civil unrest in America based on racial inequality and following the passage of the Equal Pay Act in 1963, Adams (1963, 1965) discussed how feelings of fairness must accompany actual distributive equity in the social exchange for an individual to perceive that justice has taken place. His work is strongly associated with equity theory, which suggests calculating the ratio of one's inputs (including skill, experience, and expertise) to one's compensation (pay, opportunity, or other), and then measuring that against another person's ratio as a measure of fairness (Adams, 1965; Carrell & Dittrich, 1978; Greenberg, 1982, 1989).

Cropanzano et al. (2001) explore the relationship between morality, fairness and organizations in their work, and Folger and Cropanzano (2001) are noted for individual and

collaborative works on fairness as deonance and its relationship to moral accountability and justice. Fairness and ethics are further examined using terms particularly significant in the workplace: reactance, the belief in freedom of behavior as a right, and deonance, which construes correct behavior as an obligation (Folger, Ganegoda, Rice, Taylor, & Wo, 2013). Finally, Shapiro and Kirkman (2001) examine the consequences of organizational environments in which injustice (inequity) is expected in the workplace and determined that if employees expect to be treated unfairly, they will perceive injustice whether or not the treatment is equitable.

What these studies have in common is their belief in fairness and equitable (versus equal) distribution as a moral value, and their recognition and promotion of the concept that an individual's *perception* of fairness is as important as fairness itself in determining organizational justice. This is important to the study of gender pay inequity in cases where individuals in a system believe there is inequity and also in cases where inequity may be present but the individuals involved are unaware of its existence. In terms of business ethics, using fairness as a guide, what is the moral obligation of a leader in these instances to reward employees equitably?

Distributive justice. Distributive justice for workers, as described by Homans (1961), is "justice in the distribution between men of the rewards and costs of their activities" and the proportionality of rewards, costs, and contributions (Homans, 1961, p. 232–235). It is justice of outcomes. This description of distributive justice parallels the foundational writings of Aristotle, who described this form of equitability in algebraic terms, A:B = c:d, where balance is achieved between two individuals based on their mutual distribution and possession of property (Boyles, Carusi, & Attick, 2009, p. 31). Property, in Aristotle's framework, consists of material goods,

compensation, and non-material goods such as recognition and other honors, all of which can be accumulated, divested, or taken away, i.e., distributed (Boyles et al., 2009, p. 32).

Using case examples from a variety of workplaces, Homans (1961) describes a state of social thinking in which it is considered fair to distribute workplace rewards differentially based on individuals' social status, sex, race, physical disabilities, education, difficulty of task, degree of responsibility, or rate of production. Relative pay is significant in social settings when people compare compensation and fairness evaluations are made: "problems not of the absolute amount of wages but of differences between groups in their wage rates . . . for problems of wage differentials are problems of distributive justice" (Homans, 1961, p. 240).

Workers in societies from the independent and democratic to the collectivist ends of the spectrum care about their level of compensation relative to others (Clark & Oswald, 1996) and believe that to be equitable, outcomes should be determined or at least strongly influenced by their level of workforce contribution (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978; Fisher & Smith, 2003). Writing in 1961, Homans describes the compilation of capabilities that individuals contribute to the workforce as "investments," a term we might associate today with human capital, and states that they change over time (Homans, 1961, p. 236). However, he also states with some drollness that:

> Not all investments change: to be a Negro or a woman, as compared with being white or a man, are investments that in some groups never change in value yet are always weighed in the scales of distributive justice, and so some of us might say it was absurd to speak of justice here at all; but we must remember that we are talking about justice as seen by members of a particular group and not about our own sense of justice, which is of course Olympian (Homans, 1961, p. 236).

Fair wage distribution also takes into consideration the "costs" of a job, including greater responsibility, which should also denote greater job superiority, and whether the job's responsibility is actually "congruent" with its superiority (Homans, 1961, p. 241). Homans (1961) further defines distributive justice in terms of profit, or reward-less-loss, where distribution is just "if the profits of two persons or members of two different job-groups are equal" (p. 241). Compensation may also include intangibles such as recognition and credit for work done (Graham & Cooper, 2013). Of note in Homans's text, which is indicative of its time, is his description of women in various roles in a fictitious accounting department. He refers to these women as the "ledger girls," "poster girls," and "address file girls," and to the newest man in a work group as the "lunch boy" (Homans, 1961, 236–238).

Equity theory. Fairness of rewards based on contributions is also the foundation of equity theory as defined by Adams (1963, 1965). Equity theory received a considerable scholarly attention between 1963 and 1990, as represented by significant contributions by Adams, Berkowitz, and Hatfield (1976); Adams and Freedman (1976); Carrell and Dittrich (1978); Deutsch (1975); Huseman, Hatfield, and Miles (1987); Lane and Messé (1972); Lawler (1968); and Leventhal (1980).

Although linked to all other aspects of organizational justice, equity theory serves as a foundation for distributive justice, and is easily recognizable as being tied to fairness theory. As such, equity theory frames fairness as being between all parties, e.g., a boss and an employee, and an employee and subordinates, and includes the concept of how an individual fares in this relationship compared to his or her perception of how others are treated. Workplace contributions, in this sense, is predominantly performance, but can also be level of effort, skill, or experience (Adams, 1963, 1965; Homans, 1961). These measures differentiate one worker from

another and call for different rewards for equity to be achieved. Equity is considered mutually beneficial: Equitable rewards produce better performance (Homans, 1976). Rewards need not be limited to pay. Status, recognition, and exacting lower "costs" can also be factored into the equity calculation. When rewards are in line with calculations, equity expectations have been met. When they are not, dissatisfaction and anger can result (Homans, 1976).

Expectations and expectancy theory are strongly correlated with equity theory. Lawler (1968) compared expectancy theory to equity theory and found equity theory the stronger predictor of job satisfaction, and Vecchio (1981) noted conflicts between the two theories and the range of individual responses to each. Expectations can be turned into action. Subjects in experiments by Lane and Messé (1972) distributed rewards to team members equitably when they viewed their overall payment as fair; when the experiment's subjects viewed their overall payment as unfair, they overcompensated themselves. This is similar to work by Leung, Tong, and Ho (2004), which determined that when outcomes or distributions favor ourselves, we are more likely to see them as fair. This thinking aligns with study results showing that individuals on the lower end of the pay scale will be less satisfied with pay distribution, regardless of whether the reason for pay differences is seniority, skill level, job classification, race, or gender (Card, Mas, Moretti, & Saez, 2010; Okpara et al., 2005).

Procedural justice. While distributive justice is concerned with equity of reward distribution, procedural justice focuses on the whether the procedures for deciding and implementing distributions and other outcomes are fair. It is justice of process. Thibaut and Walker (1975) introduced the concept of procedural justice to the literature through their examination of legal proceedings. They concluded that the manner in which proceedings were handled influenced how fairly the participants believe the outcome was decided, whether or not

it was in their favor (Thibaut & Walker, 1975). In other words, the perceived fairness of the process was a significant factor in participants' perceptions of a just outcome. This conclusion differentiates procedural fairness from the distributive justice in the literature and adds a new dimension to equity theory (Walker, Lind, & Thibaut, 1979). Colquitt (2004) takes a different view of procedural justice, examining what happens when the justice interests of an individual conflict with those of workforce teams. To this and subsequent work, a recent study has added the concept of timeliness to determinants of procedural fairness (Outlaw, Colquitt, Baer, & Sessions, 2019). Justice must be seen to be fair, be in line with group outcomes, and be meted out with immediacy.

HRM implications. Thibault and Walker's observations of the relationship between how fairly legal procedures are followed and participants' satisfaction with outcomes has been expanded upon by researchers studying how organizations establish and implement HRM (Tyler & Caine, 1981; Folger & Greenberg, 1985; Greenberg & Folger, 1983) and the special responsibilities placed on human resources organizations (McCabe et al., 2019). Considerations of fairness are significant for human resource professionals, who must handle inquiries and complaints of employees who feel that they have been unfairly treated in terms of raises or bonuses (Folger & Konovsky, 1989) and avoid, if possible, reactions of anger or revenge (Aquino, Tripp, & Bies, 2006). Bianchi et al. (2015) established the importance of trust as a potentiator of perceptions of the fairness of both procedures and outcomes, and Brockner et al. (1997) describe it as a strong moderator of outcome acceptance. In addition, Kuchinke (2005) describes the procedural environment of the workplace and the significance of work for the worker and organization. In each of these cases, having well-established procedures that can be pointed to and explained, offers the possibility that unhappy employees may be able to recognize

that, as with Thibaut and Walker's plaintiffs, even if the outcomes have not been as they wished, at least the procedures were followed, affording a measure of fairness leading to acceptance.

These conclusions support work by Alexander and Ruderman (1987) who examined 2,000 federal employees to determine how strongly distributive and procedural justice contributed to behavioral predictions. They found that procedural factors weighed more strongly than distributive factors in determining levels of trust in management and organizational commitment (Alexander & Ruderman 1987, p. 195), although some concerns have been raised about measures used in the study (Folger & Konovsky, 1989, p. 116). Sweeney and McFarlin (1997) found gender differences in determining perceived fairness, with men more strongly influenced by distributive justice and women more influenced by procedural justice.

Folger and Bies (1989) explored the role of the manager in administrating procedural justice from the perspective of the manager's role in ensuring fairness of decision-making procedures. They entrust the manager with responsibility for establishing, communicating, and implementing processes that produce adequate and honest communication, consistent application of rules, and fair and respectful treatment of employees. Their results are supported by Konovsky (2000), who extends their work by incorporating on organizational impacts.

Tyler and Bies (1990) sought to expand the definition of procedural justice by incorporating consideration of the interpersonal treatment perceived by individuals during a procedural exchange. Their broader view proposes that individuals are influenced not only by fairness of the procedures, but also by the perceived quality of the treatment they receive from the decision maker, and identify decision maker conduct as the "missing link" (p. 88).

Leventhal Criteria. Leventhal (1976a, 1976b, 1980) occupies a strong place in procedural justice literature and confirms that our understanding of the way things are handled influences

how fair we believe organizational processes are. We may not be happy about an outcome, but we may be more willing to accept that outcome if we believe that our organization's processes are fair and fairly applied. That sense of fairness affects the strength of our allegiance to our organizations. Leventhal is credited with developing the "Leventhal criteria" that individuals use to determine whether procedures have been established and conducted fairly. Leventhal, Karuza, and Fry (1980) described these criteria as consistency (uniformity of application), bias suppression (lack of self-interest), accuracy (based on valid information), correctability (ability to redress decisions), representativeness (views of all parties considered), and ethicality (adherence to moral standards).

Voice. Another factor important to perceptions of procedural justice is voice. When employees feel that they have had a say in how procedures were developed, or if they have been able to make their case prior to a decision that affects them, they are more likely to be willing to acknowledge procedural fairness and accept an unfavorable outcome (Lind & Kulik, 2009; Thibaut & Walker, 1975).

Interactional justice. Bies and Moag (1986) first described interactional justice as the "criteria of fairness" for dealings between people to establish just treatment during encounters (Bies, 1987, 2001; Bies & Moag, 1986), which makes this aspect of justice distinct from the procedures followed and rewards obtained (Bies, 2005, 2015). Their work focuses on the methods by which people behave toward each other, the boundaries and protocols that are established, and the information that is shared or withheld during interactions. Employees who feel that they are respected in the process perceive greater feelings of fairness (Bies & Moag, 1986), despite the outcome of a given workplace decision. Respectful treatment can support reductions in negative health impacts generated by stressful or unfair workplace environments

(Greenberg, 2006), and may help avoid overwork and burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). Interactional justice was further segmented into interpersonal and informational justice by Greenberg in 1993. Although the constructs are closely related, Greenberg (1993), Colquitt et al. (2001) and other researchers have determined that each has unique impacts.

Interpersonal justice. Jerald Greenberg (1987, 1993) has led the field in research on the relationship between how people are treated and how they react to different levels of inequity. In one study, workers receiving large (15%) equal pay cuts were exposed to high levels of interpersonal justice and information while others were not. The group who were treated well exhibited 4% workplace theft after the pay cut (3% was the norm) and the group who had been treated badly exhibited 8% theft, indicating a type of "revenge" taken to balance the scales and achieve justice equilibrium (Greenberg, 1993). Similarly, DeConinck (2010) demonstrates that interactional justice is a predictor of supervisory trust; if employees believe that a supervisor supports them, they will extend trust to that supervisor. How employees are treated and the behavior of supervisors in those interactions matter, and every action of a supervisor influences perception of fairness. Folger (1993) described this relationship in the context of both positive and negative outcomes:

> all aspects of the agent's conduct, whether or not they have a direct bearing on employee compensation or the means for determining compensation, can carry implicit messages about whether the agent views the employee as someone worthy of that minimal level of respect to which all humans should be entitled (p. 175).

Informational justice. How we interact in the workplace or network in a profession can impact how much information we receive. Access to accurate social information plays an

essential role in determining how we rank in work settings, evaluating the equity of our rewards, and framing our responses to inequity (Bies & Shapiro, 1987; Greenberg, 1993). If we are unaware that we are being treated unfairly and if our rewards meet our expectations, we are likely to experience a higher level of satisfaction than if we know that our compensation is not equal to (less than) our contributions or the compensation of our peers (Mitchell, 1974). When compensation levels vary greatly between individuals in an organization, such information is typically not made public. One survey of employers in the UK indicated that only 39% of employees in responding companies were aware of formal salary brackets, and 4% of employees had clauses in their contracts that actually prohibited them from discussing their salaries (Adams, Gore, & Shury, 2010, p. 15). This lack of formal information and prohibitions against sharing create an information vacuum within the workplace. This vacuum leads to the formation and use of extended informal networks of information exchange that help workers determine how equitably they are paid (Granovetter, 1973).

Studies demonstrate that an individual's level of job satisfaction is likely to change immediately and significantly when pay is disclosed if the employee is receiving less than his or her peers. One such study on the significance of access to information was conducted within the University of California (UC) system after *The Sacramento Bee* published the salaries of all university faculty and administrators after state legislation made them public. Individuals above the median in their organizations expressed higher levels of satisfaction than those who fell below, and those in the lower half expressed decreases in satisfaction following the disclosure. In addition, individuals below the median reported a 20% greater likelihood than those above the median that they would leave the UC workforce (Card et al., 2010, p. 3001).

Who we compare ourselves to matters. The researchers found that once the workforce knew that a database containing salaries was accessible to them and that they could see where they ranked among their peers, there was a large increase in visits to the website. Individuals made repeated visits to gain information that previously had been unavailable; with 85% checking the salaries of their closest co-workers or peers and fewer than 25% checking salaries at other campuses (Card et al., 2010, p. 2992). Conclusions reached in this article included the following: employers are incentivized to impose secrecy rules on pay disclosure; such disclosures result in declines in job satisfaction and pay satisfaction; and the lowest-paid employees will be the most dissatisfied and the most likely to leave the employer (Card et al., 2010, p. 3002). These results support conclusions reached by Manning and Avolio (1985), who also studied university faculty following pay disclosures and found that the lowest-pay-tier employees with the least perceived agency had the highest negative response to the pay disclosure (Manning & Avolio, 1985, p. 148). The two studies of university personnel included both men and women, but no differentiation in dissatisfaction was noted using gender as a variable, although Card et al. (2010, 2012) discuss the possible skew present in traditionally lower paying support jobs in which women have higher representation.

The findings on university personnel differ from those in a study of sales managers who expressed dissatisfaction because they could not determine if their high performers were being compensated fairly. A longitudinal control-group study found that pay satisfaction “increased in the experimental group following their firm's implementation of an open pay policy” but “there was no significant change in any of the satisfaction areas” such as satisfaction with promotion, coworkers, or the work itself for the managers in the control group (Futrell, 1978, p. 144). However, the authors note that the sample completing both of the study’s surveys was small (47).

Folger and Skarlicki (2001) discuss what happens in organizations when information, particularly negative information, is withheld or distributed unevenly. When the news is bad, it is more likely that managers will speak less and speak later, rather than provide fuller explanations as early as possible, because they distance themselves from the negative emotions involved. The delaying factor damages trust, increases perceptions of unfairness, and may cause employees to seek alternate sources of information (Folger & Skarlicki, 2001). Similarly, employees who are given honest, accurate, and time-appropriate information are less likely to perceive unfairness during layoffs (Wanberg, Bunce, & Gavin, 1999). In a more recent study, Shaw, Wild, and Colquitt (2003) conducted a meta-analysis on 54 studies published between 1986 and 2002, with sample sizes ranging from 19 to 612, to determine the impact of how and when negative information was relayed. The study confirmed the conclusions of Folger and Skarlicki (2001), Wanberg et al. (1999), Folger and Bies (1989), Tyler and Bies (1990), and Bies and Moag (1986) that delaying negative information and, more importantly, failing to provide an honest, adequate explanation for negative outcomes, increases the perception of unfairness, causes employee anger, increases lawsuits, and escalates cost for the company (Wanberg et al., 1999, p. 453). Unfortunately, in what may be a large missed opportunity, this study did not examine the effects of informational justice by gender.

Networking, an important element in building a successful business or practice, could also be important in sharing information about compensation. It is possible that information sharing in the workplace may differ between men and women, leading to imbalances in knowledge about where one fits in the overall pay scheme relative to peers (Forret & Dougherty, 2004). The work of Granovetter (1973) and others teaches the importance of building a network of loose ties to enable us to access far-reaching sources of information and support. Granovetter

(1973) does not differentiate between men and women as to how effectively or differently these networks are used, although popular culture tells us that men are better business networkers (Misner, Walker, & De Raffele, 2011). When information is unevenly distributed, it works to the disadvantage of women (Bowles et al., 2005).

Informational justice is most closely related to interpersonal justice but is often linked with procedural justice (Brockner & Wiesenfeld, 1996; Colquitt, 2004), although Colquitt et al. (2001) describe it as a separate measure. Given that informational justice plays such a pivotal role in linking the theories of organizational justice to the issue of persistent gender pay equity, it is interesting that, on its own, it occupies a small place in the literature relative to other aspects of organizational justice.

One important study that analyzes the integrated impact of procedural and interactional justice is the study of 651 university professional employees by Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, and Taylor (2000). They found that perceived interactional justice determined supervisor-related outcomes, while procedural fairness most strongly determined perceptions of the organization.

Before leaving the justice literature, it is worth noting one additional study, which looked at gender-based preference differences across all three categories: distributive, procedural, and interactional. This study found that in selecting a framework to determine what was fair, men significantly more frequently preferred distributive justice ($p < .01$), while women more frequently rated interactional justice higher ($p < .05$), but that there was no similar differentiation for procedural justice ($p < .05$) (Tata & Bowes-Sperry, 1996, p. 1329). This study was small (80 participants) and unlike other studies in this paper, comprised undergraduates with an average age of 22 and 3 years of work experience. However, it raises interesting questions about gender-based preferences among the three primary areas of organizational justice.

This review of the dimensions of organizational justice leads to questions about how these factors play out in the real world. How do proposal professionals fare in terms of these elements, and how do the pressures of their workplace environment, ethical conflicts, expectations for long workhours, unequal pay, and pressure to win combine to influence overall satisfaction with their work, employers, and profession? Do men feel differently than women about their environment? Do they perceive the same opportunities and limitations as women?

Gender workplace equity.

Over the past 40 years, studies have increasingly entered the literature and popular media citing various analyses of the differences between men and women in the workplace: how they perceive, prepare for and select their work roles; are hired, perform in, and are rewarded with pay and promotions; and how long they stay. The studies included in this paper have been conducted in the United States, Europe, Australia, and Asia. Almost without exception, they have shown disparity between men and women in terms of workplace treatment and compensation, with outcomes unfavorable to women.

A few examples are included here. Global studies across multiple countries have measured unadjusted median annual income as $21,000 for men and $12,000 for women, with women earning 57 cents for every dollar earned by men (World Economic Forum, 2017). In the United States, that unadjusted figure for what a woman earns for every dollar a man earns is widely reported to be 78.6 cents in the Glassdoor survey (Chamberlain et al. 2019). Using U.S. Department of Education data, studies of cohorts of equally prepared men and women graduates with advanced degrees who enter the workforce in comparable positions show rapid differentiation, with women falling an average $10,000 behind in the first decade. Similar results were found by Bertrand, Goldin, and Katz (2010). On the extreme end of the spectrum, Princeton

male graduates earned an average $136,005, while females earn $88,795, a $47,000 difference, without analysis for job selection (Flores, 2016).

Similarly, a study of newly trained physicians shows a $16,819 pay gap between men and women entering the profession (Lo Sasso, Richards, Chou, & Gerber, 2011). A 2008 Catalyst survey revealed that starting salaries for new MBAs in the United States were $4,600 lower for women, and that despite more mentoring (83% vs. 76% for men), high potential women received fewer promotions (65% vs. 72% for men) (Ibarra, Carter & Silva, 2010). One large controlled study found that promotion rates were significantly (39%) higher for men (Blau & DeVaro, 2007). Another large meta-analytic study found that, as careers progressed, the gender gap in rewards, including salary, bonus, and promotion, was 14 times larger than the gap in performance (Joshi, Son, & Roh, 2015).

The Staff Compensation and Demographics Survey of the Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) found that 75% of deans and 65% of associate deans were men and that 51% of all administrative leadership roles exclusive of department chairs were men (AACSB, 2019, p. 18). Unfortunately, the study's detailed breakdown of salaries for 30,799 business faculty members and 4,201 administrators in 27 countries does not include categorization by sex.

Dollars and percentages may differ, but the foregoing examples demonstrate that a gap exists across many professions and begin to hint at potential causation.

Organization of this section. In this review of gender-related workplace pay inequity, I will review a selection of the large number of studies conducted by international, governmental organizations, and academic research teams to identify, quantify, and explain gender pay gaps. This section begins with a review of literature offering alternative explanations of why the gap

wage gap exists. This literature is presented first because it offers perspectives that may apply to the studies that follow. After these alternative theories, I will cover studies that are multinational, national, and related to professions or special populations.

Competing perspectives: Alternative theories explaining inequality. A body of research exists that attempts to find explanations for why men and women have different workplace compensation and reward outcomes. These explanatory studies include research on gender-based risk aversion and how it affects competitiveness, differences in negotiating ability, the economic impact of the "motherhood penalty," and personality differences that may affect job selection and tolerance for less than equal treatment.

Risk aversion/acceptance and competitiveness. Logic tells us that if we are more open to accepting new challenges, we may have more opportunities that will lead to greater rewards. Literature on risk behaviors is rich in studies of children and adults that look for differences in preferences and behavior between males and females (Charness & Gneezy, 2012; Croson & Gneezy, 2009; Datta Gupta, Poulsen, & Villeval, 2006, 2013; Gneezy, Leonard, & List, 2008; Gneezy, Niederle, & Rustichini, 2003; Hanek, Garcia, & Tor, 2016). Such differences, if they can be shown to exist, could help explain career choice differences between men and women and resultant differences in compensation.

Datta Gupta et al. (2006) examine the competition scenario preferences of men and women and conclude that there are differences, including preferences of men for tournament-style competition, which is more public and overtly competitive. Further, men compete less forcefully against men than they do against women (Datta Gupta et al., 2013). These biases make a big difference in the choices men and women make in compensation. i.e., what jobs they choose to seek and how they choose to be paid for what they do. The outcomes of these studies is

consistent with others that identify differences between men and women in competitive situations. Gneezy et al. (2003) found that men perform better in mixed-gender tournament settings than women, but that women do better when competing against their own sex than when competing against men. Women perform better in competitive settings that are small (Hanek et al., 2016). Women also perform better when being paid at the piece rate, i.e., competing against their own best performance level, than when competing against men, particularly in a tournament setting (Gneezy et al., 2003). Given the competitive nature of proposal development work, these studies may provide insight into how to arrange work settings that bring the best competitive strengths of both men and women into the workplace.

Negotiation. Our response to competitive settings finds a nexus with gender differences in compensation at the point where we negotiate a starting salary, raise, or bonus. The sex of the person we sit across the table from matters, as does our level of willingness or aversion to negotiate. Babcock and Laschever (2003) found that women request the rewards they earn much less frequently than men and negotiate less aggressively. Women are more likely to anticipate a negative response from a man than from a woman in negotiations (Rudman, 1998), which may make them less likely to do well negotiating a starting salary and less likely to initiate negotiations for a raise or bonus. Bowles, Babcock, & McGinn (2005) reveal that women negotiated better when they were negotiating on behalf of a third party, which affirms the work of Borghans, Ter Weel, & Weinberg (2006) demonstrating sex differences in altruistic behavior. Small, Gelfand, Babcock, and Gettman (2007) found that when reframed as “asking” versus negotiating, women were more likely to make the request. This behavior was confirmed in studies that examined the significance of the situational role in influencing willingness to negotiate (Bowles, Babcock, & Lai, 2007; Bowles & McGinn, 2008).

The outcomes of Small et al. (2007) are similar to behavioral studies supporting politeness theory (Brown & Levinson, 1978, 1987), with gender-assigned rules of discourse. Bowles et al. (2007) further suggested that there is a gender penalty for initiating negotiations and being too assertive: Male evaluators preferred women who accepted their offer and did not argue over terms. This view is supported by a meta-analysis that includes 123 studies with a combined 10,888 participants in which Mazei et al. (2015) review the implications of social role theory (Stuhlmacher & Linnabery, 2013), including role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) that impact negotiation behavior and outcomes. They conclude that men are expected to adopt "agentic" behaviors, i.e., being competitive, assertive, profit-driven, and starting with an aggressive first offer, while women are expected to conform to their "communal" gender role, i.e., being accommodating, concerned with the welfare of others, or relationship-oriented (Wood & Eagly, 2012) or being accommodating, submissive, and conceding early (Babcock & Laschever, 2003; Kulik & Olekalns, 2012). When these roles are not adhered to or when prescribed behavioral tendencies are not displayed, injunctions occur in the form of social backlash or negative evaluations by negotiators; this resulted in more negative economic outcomes than if individuals had played their expected roles (Mazei et al., 2015, p. 86; Stuhlmacher & Linnabery, 2013). Women have been shown to anticipate backlash and adjust their negotiating behavior, negotiating less and accepting lower offers (Bowles et al., 2005, Bowles et al., 2007, Bowles & Flynn, 2010). Bowles & Flynn (2010) also found that women more experienced in negotiating persisted longer and settled higher.

Bowles et al. (2007) found that the gender pairing of the two parties in a negotiation affected the outcome, with male negotiators penalizing female applicants for initiating negotiations and for proposing a strong first offer, but not penalizing male applicants for the

same behaviors (p. 99). Bowles & Flynn (2010) found that pairing also affected negotiation style and persistence, with female–male dyads producing more "lower status" subordinate or indirect behavior on the part of female applicants.

Adjusting acceptance points downwards has long-term economic consequences. In settings where there is low understanding of the limits surrounding the negotiation ("high structural ambiguity"), female MBA graduates accepted salary offers that were 5% lower than offers accepted by males (Bowles et al., 2005, p. 955). After applying controls on their sample, "there still remained a $10,000 gender gap in MBA salaries in industries with high structural ambiguity" (Bowles et al., 2005, p. 956). Projecting the impact of this difference across an entire career, Bowles et al. (2005) calculate a gender earnings gap of more than $600,000 and, by applying interest on earnings, estimate a total wealth gap of $1.5 million at age 65 (p. 963). Mazei et al. (2015) conclude that these disparities in negotiating outcomes can be controlled by providing negotiating experience to applicants, providing information about the bargaining range, and positioning females to consider that they are negotiating for others (p. 98). The APMP ethics survey contains questions that identified perceptions related to negotiating behavior.

Time away from work: The motherhood penalty. One of the most definitive studies on the cost to a woman's wages for taking time away to bear and raise children was conducted by Budig and England (2001). Stating that "while the benefits of mothering diffuse widely, . . . the costs . . . are borne disproportionately by mothers," and they found that there was an "approximately 7% per child penalty among young American women" (p. 204). They enumerate the conditions associated with motherhood that impact compensation as "employment breaks, part-time employment, and the accumulation of fewer years of experience and seniority, all of which diminish future earnings" (p. 204). The research team used fixed effects modeling to

control for multiple measures of work experience and found that about 65% of the penalty is still there after controls. Adding job characteristics that allowed mothers to opt for less demanding jobs or jobs with more flexibility had "only a small effect in explaining the child penalty" (Budig & England, 2001, p. 204), with the greatest impact coming from whether the woman was working full-time or part-time, as may be expected. However, they conclude that "most job characteristics had no effect on the motherhood penalty—either because the characteristics don't affect pay or because motherhood does not affect whether women hold these jobs" (p. 204).

A three-decade retrospective study of U.S. female workforce determined that conditions had changed only slightly between 1986 and 2014; conditions worsened slightly for women with one child and, although greater human capital investments had been made by women through education and skills acquisition, they were not enough to offset the penalty for time away from the workplace (Jee, Misra, & Murray-Close, 2019).

As bad as these impacts are for women in general, the costs of motherhood are felt even more strongly by black and Latina women and by women having a second child or third child. With only half of the pay gap explainable, Budig and England (2001) speculate that the remaining 4% per child may "arise from effects of motherhood on productivity and/or from employer discrimination" (p. 204). Further, England, Bearak, Budig, and Hodges (2016) also found a disproportionally high impact in the opposite end of the pay spectrum, with higher paid, specially skilled women significantly impacted financially by motherhood absence.

Viewed over an entire work life, the motherhood penalty may explain findings in the most recent Glassdoor gender pay gap report, which found that "in the U.S., workers aged 18 to 24 years face a small adjusted gender pay gap of 1.4 percent. By contrast, older workers aged 55

to 64 years face a gender pay gap of 12.3 percent, over twice the national average" (Chamberlain et al., 2019, p. 5).

Personality. An early study by Phelan (1994) indicates that some women may be contented with lower wages for a variety of reasons, including personality differences with men. However, far more research has been done on personality traits such as risk aversion or entrepreneurialism and their connection to occupation selection (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Barrick, Mount, & Gupta, 2003; Lounsbury, Hutchens, & Loveland, 2005; Zhao & Seibert, 2006). Occupational choices can set individuals on a course for greater or lesser lifetime compensation. Women score higher on most factors, including altruism, that are predictive of financially less attractive labor market outcomes (Fortin, 2006). The greater the desire to help others in society, the more inclined an individual is to accept a lower paying mission-driven job, while higher levels of greed, a factor on which men scored higher, predict selection of more financially driven careers (Fortin, 2006). Delayed gratification, an area in which women score higher, may explain gender-related willingness to study longer to achieve college degrees, delaying workforce entry, and tolerate work environments that are less rewarding (Bjorklund & Kipp, 1996; Silverman, 2003). Personality traits expressed in youth may also affect the selection of adulthood careers. In a study using German and British data, Borghans et al. (2006) determined that a greater capacity for nurturing demonstrated in childhood led to the development of interpersonal skills` that in turn led to higher participation in careers in teaching and nursing associated with lower pay.

Societal role, gender, and confidence may also make a difference in how individuals derive satisfaction from pay. One study in South Africa looked at the role that core self-evaluation plays in this relationship with historically disadvantaged populations and concluded

that perceptions of organizational justice are a mediator between core self-evaluations and feelings of satisfaction with pay (Arya, Mirchandani, & Harris, 2017). An interesting finding was that gender and confidence also matter: Confident females are more satisfied with their compensation than are their male co-workers.

How much does personality explain the gender pay gap? Mueller and Plug (2006) report that by using the Big Five Model and the Wisconsin Longitudinal Study, only 3–4% of the gender pay gap is explained by gender differences. Among personality traits in the Big Five Model, they find that antagonism delivers higher pay for men (p. 12), whereas agreeableness is a financially beneficial personality characteristic for women (p. 14), and that women are penalized for assertiveness. Conversely, Manning (2006) found that adolescent personality was not predictive of lower wages in adult women. Commenting on the report of the UK's 2006 Women and Work Commission, he concluded that while there may be differences between adolescent men and women in terms of self-confidence, and that the self-confident may do better in later life in terms of earnings, the effects they found were too small to be significant (Manning, 2006, p. 16). He further suggested that employers should conduct pay audits and publish the results because employers are "often shocked to discover the size of this disadvantage as they think of their policies as non-discriminatory" (p. 16). Annual public reporting of exactly this nature is now mandatory in the UK for firms with 250 or more employees, a move that has broadened public awareness of the gender pay gap by quantifying it with current data from companies that are household names.

Job segregation and gendered work roles. Gendered identities for specific tasks and capabilities became the norm after World War I and became fully entrenched in American manufacturing, banking, retail, and insurance industries by the 1920s, based on assumptions that

men and women desired different types of work and that they could be most productive in different tasks (Kessler-Harris, 2001, p. 48). Gendered identity of tasks and capabilities lingers in today's workforce. Survey data from 1950 to 2000 show that women increasingly entered occupations that include health care and teaching, in which, as will be shown later in this paper, women are paid less than men, and that the U.S. government data show pay less overall than other professions (Levanon, England, & Allison, 2009).

The more women occupy a profession, the more devalued that work is, commanding lower pay (England, 1992; Levanon et al., 2009). This conclusion is supported in a recent study of employment in the UK, Germany, and Switzerland by Murphy and Oesch (2016), who found that as long as women do not outnumber men in a profession, there is no decrement to male and female wages; but once a tipping point of 60% was reached and the occupation became female-dominated, a wage penalty of 15% ensued *for both sexes* (p. 1238). They conclude that "employment in a completely female occupation is associated with substantially lower wage than employment in a completely male occupation" (Murphy & Oesch, 2016, p. 1240). This wage differential comes at a high price. Looking at data from the 1990s through the 2000s, the research team concluded that "moving from an entirely male to an entirely female occupation entails a loss in individual earnings of 13% in Britain, 7% in Switzerland, and 3% in Germany" (Murphy & Oesch, 2016, p. 1221). This study supports the work of Blau and Kahn (2017), which found similar percentages in Germany. England, Allison, and Wu (2007) describe this phenomenon in terms of cultural devaluation theory, in which employers extend greater privileges (pay and promotion) to men in the workforce over women because greater value is attached to "male" work, with "female" work being associated with caring and helping (nursing, teaching, human resources) (p. 1238).

Having reviewed areas of study that attempt to explain the existence of wage gaps, this review will now focus on the bulk of the literature, which details the extent and pervasiveness of this disparity. This literature is presented as multinational, national, profession-based, and special population–based studies.

Multinational studies. A number of large multinational studies have been undertaken over the past two decades to identify gaps between the earnings of men and women. These studies are highly relevant to this study because they capture data from the countries of greatest APMP membership. There is considerable debate about the quality and methodology of some of these studies, but they are reported here because they are the largest and most widely used points of reference.

Two studies place cross-national research in context. Weichselbaumer and Winter-Ebmer (2005) conducted a large meta-analysis covering 260 papers with data on 788 study sets from 63 countries between 1960 and 2000 and found that "raw wage differentials worldwide have fallen substantially from around 65% to only 30%" (p. 508). Their analysis concluded that most of this decline was due to "better labor market endowments of females which came about by better education, training, and work attachment" (p. 508). Two other findings are significant. First, they determined that the studies with more closely focused groups were able to make more comparable productivity assessments and found smaller wage gaps. Second, they found that the problem of the unexplained, discriminatory element in the wage gap persists and is difficult to analyze. In addition, work by Chiang and Birtch (2007) supports the belief that there may be cross-national differences in reward preferences between men and women, which should be considered when evaluating multinational studies.

World Economic Forum. In 2006, the World Economic Forum inaugurated a new index to measure differences in economic success factors between men and women. Called the Global Gender Gap Report, it measures differences (gaps) rather than absolute levels across 149 countries for four dimensions of gender parity: economic participation and opportunity, education, health and survival, and political empowerment. Using data sources ranging from the World Health Organization and United Nations to the *CIA Factbook* and European Union economic reports, the 2018 study's outcomes are positive in some areas, but show that two gender gap areas remain unimproved—access to earnings (58% of gap closed) and access to the political power to secure them (23% of gap closed). With only a 2.5% gain noted since the 2006 report, the authors estimate that it will take 202 years to reach gender economic parity (World Economic Forum, 2018, p. 15).

One interesting aspect of gender pay equity examined in this report is that of leadership parity. Using data acquired through a partnership with LinkedIn, the study reports that in the three professions showing complete participation parity among their workforces—law, public administration, and media and communications—leadership hires strongly favor males: 64%, 59%, and 61% respectively. This result supports a study published in *Harvard Business Review* following a cohort of high potential men and women who received mentoring: 72% of the men received promotions after 2 years, versus 65% of the women (Ibarra et al., 2010, p. 82). Disproportionate promotion and representation by males in the higher ranks of organizations would seem to perpetuate the gender disparities that currently exist.

The World Economic Forum study provides detailed country rankings in all dimensions for all 149 countries in the study; however, because the researchers were unable to independently verify data reported by countries and because much of the reported information contains

projections rather than individually collected data, this study primarily useful for year-over-year and country-to-country comparisons as progress is monitored over time. Nevertheless, data on the United States and the United Kingdom and other countries in this report are valuable as benchmarks for comparing other studies reviewed in this paper, and as benchmarks against which to measure data collected through the APMP ethics survey.

Glassdoor. Another large and impactful study is the annual multinational survey by Glassdoor, which provides data on 505,000 workforce participants in eight countries with direct relevance to APMP survey respondent nationalities: United States, Canada, United Kingdom, France, Germany, Netherlands, Singapore, and Australia. This study has the advantage of having direct contact with its participants. Through Glassdoor's website, opinions as well as job choices and demographics can be anonymously collected, and hundreds of thousands of salary reports can by analyzed. The current report, *Progress on the Gender Pay Gap: 2019,* states that 89% believe that men and women should be paid equally for equal work but that only 70% of employed adults in these countries believe that pay equity exists in their countries (Chamberlain et al., 2019, p. 2). This study describes the various (often confusing and misused) ways that the pay gap is expressed, using data for the United States:

- overall, men have 21.4% higher base pay—*a woman earns 78.6 cents* on every dollar a man earns;
- when matched by age, experience, and education, men have a 19.1% advantage—*a woman earns 80.9 cents* for every dollar a man earns; and
- when comparing workers by title and location within employers, that gap shrinks to 4.9%—*a woman earns 95.1 cents* on every dollar of base pay earned by a man. When total compensation is calculated and statistical controls applied, that fully adjusted

gap increases to 7.1%, with women earning *92.1 cents on every male dollar* (Chamberlain et al., 2019, p. 20).

The study reports similar results across all eight countries, with adjusted base pay gaps ranging from the smallest, 3.1% in Australia, to the largest, 6.6% in Netherlands (Chamberlain et al., 2019, p. 4). These gaps exist after applying multiple controls and represent the unexplained portions of overall difference in pay, calculated using ordinary least squares regression and Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition methods. The report points to gender sorting into different industries, occupations, and roles as the main explanatory factor (56.5%) for the unadjusted differences in male and female base pay (Chamberlain et al., 2019, p. 6).

The 2019 Glassdoor survey also reports that gender makes a difference in what they describe as the male-female "salary confidence gap" in applying for new positions: Men in the accounting and legal professions, for example, apply for jobs that pay 18.3% more than the jobs applied for by women, of similar age, education, and experience (Chamberlain et al., 2019, p. 6). After applying controls for age, education, experience, industry, job title, and firm size, and factoring in current salary, that gap shrinks to 0.7%, which is small, but statistically significant and impactful over decades of a worklife (Chamberlain et al., 2019, p. 68).

Academic multinational studies. Olivetti and Petrongolo (2016) examine 19 high income countries to chart changes in work patterns and examine the convergence of men and women's workplace compensation between 1850 and 2008. They document the changes in occupational choice and participation levels over the 150-year period and present findings indicating that changes in education, medicine, and technology have enabled women to participate more freely and longer in the workplace, leading to greater wage parity (Olivetti & Petrongolo, 2016).

Claudia Goldin has established a body of literature from the 1970s to the present documenting the changes in women's labor participation and compensation over the past century and across multiple countries (Goldin, 1984–2014). Similar to earlier work by Long (1944, 1952), Goldin's research links the introduction of broader precollege education, labor changes, lower effective birthrate before World War II, and oral contraception in the 1960s to an increase in women pursuing higher education (Goldin, Katz, & Kuziemko, 2006) and gaining higher salaried positions, which reduced occupational gender segregation (Goldin & Katz, 2002). As a greater percentage of women received more advanced degrees and were able to delay or decline maternity, more women gained entry into managerial positions and professional occupations and had the opportunity to make economic choices that advantaged them (Goldin, 1990, 1995, 2006). Goldin's (2014) more recent work traces what she terms a "grand convergence" of male and female employment, citing it as one of the great accomplishments of the century (p.1091). She traces the arc of that century of change, notes that women without children and men have approximately the same access to economic success in the workforce, and that the final chapter of this story must include not government intervention but employer flexibility in terms of working hours and conditions (Goldin, 2014).

Similarly, Nicole Fortin's work provides a comprehensive overview of the changes in women's perceptions, roles, and outcomes, particularly in economically advantaged countries (Fortin, 2005), and examines unexplained gaps that remain with women in top earning positions (Fortin, Bell, & Böhm, 2017). This latter study is of special interest because it involves countries that correspond to those of APMP survey respondents: Canada, United Kingdom, and Sweden.

Using large datasets and economic analyses, Blau and Kahn (2003, 2008) made major contributions to the field by conducting single-country and multinational cross-sectional studies.

In their 10-year international wage review of 22 countries, Blau and Kahn (2003) found that wages increased faster for women than men as a consequence of union wage leveling between 1985 and 1994. The rapid growth occurred because women's wages had further to go to reach the established level, confirming the presence of a previously undocumented wage disparity.

Another cross-national study with a strong relationship to the APMP survey pool is that of Daly, Meng, Kawaguchi, and Mumford (2006). This study examines pay outcomes and gender-related gaps in Australia, France, Japan, and the United Kingdom and finds that "the countries with the most decentralized and uncoordinated wage bargaining systems (Australia and Britain) had the smallest gender wage gaps" (Daly et al., 2006, p. 17) and "the shift away from a seniority-based pay structure to one more closely linked to results has benefited Japanese women compared with men" (p. 5). Of particular interest is the authors' examination of the difference in relative human capital endowments between males and females versus the differences in rewards matched to those endowments. By clearly segregating these factors in their analysis (see the study's Table 7, p. 17), the researchers are able to determine that the endowments are far more closely matched than the rewards and that differences in the endowment/reward gap vary by country (Daly et al., 2006, p. 17).

Literature that combines large scale global studies that use data from industrialized and non-industrialized countries conflates vastly different pay experiences and cultural gender roles to the extent that it is difficult to compare the results with other studies. Corley, Perardel, and Popova (2005) note, for example, the negative relationship between gender participation and wage gap—the gap is highest in countries where women participate in the labor market at a lower rate, such as Saudi Arabia and other Middle East countries (p. 26).

National studies. APMP's largest member contingents, and therefore, its greatest number of female members, are in the United States and the United Kingdom. Therefore, literature from these countries is included in this review.

United States. In 1896, a study of college-educated or specially trained women in the U.S. workforce found that only 38% were paid the same as male colleagues doing the same work and 60% were paid less (Conyngton, 1896). The report was based on a survey conducted by the Association of Collegiate Alumnae, now the American Association of University Women (AAUW), and was issued by the Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1995 under the authorship of its director, Horace G. Wadlin. The report stated that employer reasons for lower female pay included "men, as a rule, want women to work for them," that men are "fitted for trade employment by heredity," and that "a woman is more timid about asking for an increase and will accept a reduction with less protest than a man would" (Conyngton, 1896, p. 47). One employer respondent said that women were paid less because they were not expected to stay long in their employment (Conyngton, 1896, p. 47).

Alice Kessler-Harris (2001) traces the history of the social, ethical, legal, and economic contexts within which women have progressed toward wage parity, citing conditions in the 19th century, the 1908 Mueller v. Oregon decision and subsequent Supreme Court opinions, and changes in state law, followed by the Equal Pay Act of 1963 and the Lilly Ledbetter Fair Pay Act of 2009. In the 1920s, most in American society were thought to believe that if married men worked, their wives "ought to stay out of the labor force" (p. 47). However, among 8 million women working in the United States in 1920, 25% were married (p. 37), indicating more participation than was generally acknowledged. The formation of the Women's Bureau in the U.S. Department of Labor in the 1920s helped coalesce social forces that advocated studying

women in the workforce to understand their needs, advocating for women to be able to work if they wanted to regardless of marital status, and also, ironically, paying men more so that their wives did not have to work (p. 42.)

Fully 25% of the U.S. industrial workforce was female in the 1920s (Kessler-Harris, 2001, p. 38), including workers at America's leading corporations, such as Ford, GE, Heinz, and Westinghouse (p. 45). Aside from lower pay, this quarter of the workforce was also treated less well in other areas. Gerard Swope, president of GE, introduced benefit packages for male workers from which female workers were excluded. For example, when he introduced employee-paid life insurance, it was only for male workers under the age of 45. Swope later acknowledged this error, explaining that "Our company is a man-run company" and his belief at the time was that women "did not realize the responsibilities of life and were hoping to get married soon and would leave us" (Kessler-Harris, 2001, p. 47).

By far the most exhaustive data collection and analysis of U.S. wage earners is performed by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS), whose most recent report indicates that median weekly earnings of men and women varied 23.3% by gender in 2019 (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2019). This report provides detailed information by occupation and gender and affirms results from Semega, Fontenot, and Kollar (2017), who report a 20% gap.

United Kingdom. The UK has emerged as a leader among nations collecting and publishing data on gender pay inequity. In April 2009, the Government Equalities Office published the Equalities Bill containing an enabling clause that required corporations with 250 or more employees to measure the gender equality of employee compensation. A baseline survey conducted by the UK Equality and Human Rights Commission in 2010 to determine whether the clause should be activated found that 85% of corporations would not voluntarily measure or

report because they believed they were already at parity; 77% reported that they had no plan in place to address disparity (Adams et al., 2010; Equality and Human Rights Commission, 2010).

Today, by law, all organizations in the UK with 250 or more employees must report annually during a 3-month open filing period. The country's first reporting period, which closed on April 4, 2018, produced interesting results. The filings of 10,797 organizations revealed double-digit gender pay gaps occurred across all economic sectors, some larger than 50%, indicating a wide disparity between perceptions and reality (Barr & Topping, 2018). The weekly filings were followed with interest and reported on by the media. A trend emerged in which firms with the smallest gender wage gaps report early, while firms with large wage gaps tend to file in a large cluster during the final week, minimizing potential media coverage (Kommenda, Holder, Barr, & Duncan, 2018). In 2019, with only four days to go until the deadline, only 50% of companies had reported (Walker Morris, 2019).

Late reporters had reason for concern. The list of firms reporting the largest pay gaps included some on *The Times* "Top 50 Employers for Women" list, producing a significant blow to corporate reputations. Examples include Ryanair, 72% pay gap (the upper pay quartile is 97% male); JP Morgan Ltd, 54% gap; Lloyds Bank Plc, 42.7%; and Barclays Bank Plc, 43.5% (Barr & Topping, 2018; Khomami & Topping, 2018; Topping, Barr, & Duncan, 2018). These unadjusted figures do not include calculations for bonuses, which can dramatically alter outcomes. Warner Bros. Entertainment UK, for example, reported a base pay gap of 30.9% that grew to 67.3% for bonus pay, because, they reported that they had "more men than women in senior positions" (Barr & Topping, 2018). By contrast, the median gap in hourly earnings in 2017 in the UK was 18.4% and the mean gender pay gap was 17.4% (Office of National Statistics, 2018).

In 2019, the second year of mandatory reporting, women fared no better, and in some cases fell behind. Headlines featured the pay gap at HSBC, the UK's largest bank, growing from 59% to 61%, and Virgin Atlantic's pay gap moving from 28% to 31% (Makortoff, 2019).

Other UK government and academic studies provide multi-year analyses of pay gaps in full-time and part-time work, including the Office of National Statistics, which produces annual reports, including the 2018 report used in this study. Others include a 2010 Government Equalities Office report, which tracks the persistent gender pay gap from 1995 to 2007, and shows the unadjusted gap narrowing (Olsen, Gash, Vandecasteele, Walthery, & Heuvelman, 2010). For all working women, the pay gap in 1995 was 24%, which fell to 19% in 2007. Among women working full time, the 1995 gap was 18%, which decreased to 15% in 2007, indicating improvements in both populations, and hinting that part-time employment is lower paid (Olsen et al., 2010, p. 9). In 2007, the full-time wages of men averaged £12.71 per hour, while those of women averaged £10.85 per hour, a 15% difference. Importantly, because of the disproportionate presence of women in part time work, the 2007 part-time wage gap is much higher, at 31%, twice the gap for women working full-time (Olsen et al., 2010, p. 9). The impact of this gap is exacerbated by findings that women are disproportionately impacted by age discrimination (Duncan & Loretto, 2004). These findings could have implications for our study population, which includes proposal consultants, writers, and subject matter experts who do not work full-time, and who increasingly take part-time consulting work as they age.

Special populations.

Young earners gap. College and university students in the United States tend not to believe that they will experience a workforce in which there is a gender pay gap, with 90% in one study reporting that "their opportunities for advancement, networking, mentoring, and pay

would not be affected by their gender" (Sipe, Johnson, & Fisher, 2009, p. 344). However, the workforce reality for even the most talented is quite different. Just one year out of college, women will be paid 82% of what men in their graduating cohort earn (Corbett & Hill, 2012). Should they choose to go to medical school, they will find a $17,000 difference in starting salaries in their first job (Lo Sasso et al., 2011). If they choose to pursue an MBA, one study finds a nearly $5,000 difference in starting salary (Ibarra et al., 2010, p. 82). If they choose to study at America's elite universities, their differences will be even larger. An analysis conducted by the U.S. Department of Education found that the earnings gap 10 years after graduation was large: Duke male graduates, for example, earned $123,000 while female graduates earned $93,100, a $29,900 difference, while Princeton male graduates earned $47,000 more than their female counterparts (Carey, 2015). Similarly, a study by Bertrand et al. (2010) found that male and female MBA graduates of a top U.S. business school had nearly identical salaries at the beginning of their careers, but that only 5 years later, men had gained a 30-log-point advantage, which grew to 60 log points at the 10-year mark.

Top earners gap. A number of recent studies have shown clear and persistent pay disparity in the top tier of professions, from college presidents to executives in banking, publishing, and manufacturing (Bertrand & Hallock, 2001; Desai et al., 2016; Fortin et al., 2017; June, 2018; Song et al., 2018). Women who have reached the top tier can be presumed to have already compensated for or negated any months or years of worktime lost to child rearing or other workplace absences. At this stage of their careers, women executives should evidence compensation parity with men or, presumably, they would not be in the top tier, regardless of how they used their earlier years. Women in the top tier are assumed to have achieved their positions through investments in human capital and by successfully managing their way upward

in predominantly male-led organizations, and in the process become more tolerant of pay inequities and other "female" workplace issues in order to succeed (Blau & Kahn, 1997, 2017). However, the pay gap in this population segment has failed to narrow over the most recent decades, as it has in other segments (Blau & Kahn, 2017). This highly successful working population group presents an interesting opportunity for future study as they represent the potential for women in leadership positions to accelerate change.

Studies by profession. Some of the studies previously cited, including the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2018) and Glassdoor (Chamberlain et al., 2019) include data on professions that are comparable to the education and skill levels of jobs within the proposal development industry and will be useful for comparison. Two examples of professions that have been studied extensively, higher education and medicine, are presented here, as they provide interesting bases for comparison. The APMP ethics survey also seeks to determine perceptions of wage inequity by job type. Therefore, studies have also been included by Corley et al. (2005) for the United Nations International Labor Organization (ILO), the ILO's 2018 report, as well as studies by Townshend-Smith (1989) and Harkness (1996)—all demonstrating gaps in wages—and by Townshend-Smith (1989) demonstrating the presence of discrimination in hiring. These studies relate to the research purpose of this paper and to APMP's mission in that APMP requested that the survey include questions on perceived bias in hiring.

Higher education. The gender pay gap in higher education has been well established by a number of key studies supporting the government-gathered BLS data. These include a 2018 report on lawsuits brought by college administrators seeking equitable pay to address a 20% gap (June, 2018). In a study of full-time faculty at 80 universities, gender differences were reported in job satisfaction, with female faculty more satisfied with their work and colleagues, and male

faculty expressing greater satisfaction with pay, promotions, and total job satisfaction (Okpara et al., 2005). This study also found a significant difference between the satisfaction levels of lower- and higher-ranked faculty, with lower-ranked faculty less satisfied. This latter outcome supported Dube, Giuliano, and Leonard (2019), who also linked perceived inequity in raises and bonuses to significantly higher willingness to leave the position.

The U.S. Department of Education compiles data on salaries in 4,700 colleges and universities, for faculty, staff, and administrators. Data for the 2016–2017 academic year reveals that female professors at four-year private colleges earned $111,142 while male professors earned $129,415, or $18,273 (16.4%) more. Measured as a percentage of male earnings, the gap is 14.1%. Similar differences are observed across all faculty categories. When raises are applied, the gap grows and does not narrow, which can be seen by comparing current salaries with those of 2014 when the gap was $11,041 (10.7%) (Hatch, 2017 and https://data.chronicle.com). This difference is also experienced in the UK and has persisted over time, with recent pay gap studies matching or exceeding those of a decade ago. The Economic Journal of the Royal Economic Society reported that male faculty received £34,312 and female faculty earned £28,531, a 20% difference (Blackaby, Booth, & Frank, 2005). The researchers concluded that there was a promotion gap, a pay gap within ranks, a publications gap, with women submitting fewer papers, and no evidence of any part of the pay gap being attributable to time away for family considerations (Blackaby et al., 2005, p. F103–F104).

Medicine. Some of the best documented gap studies have occurred in the medical professions because of the ability to document billing and payments using publicly available government data. Beginning at the top, a study of CEO salaries in not-for-profit hospitals showed that the average unadjusted annual compensation for female CEOs in 2009 was $425,085

compared with $581,121 for male CEOs. After controlling for hospital characteristics and geographic area pay norms, female CEOs earned 22.6% less than male CEOs, an earnings differential of $132,652 (Song et al., 2018).

Physicians experience similar gap numbers. From 1987 to 2010, the male-female physician compensation gap increased from 20% to 25.3% (Jagsi et al., 2012). A study of physicians in New York State shows that the $16,819 gap in first-hire salaries of newly trained physicians in 2008 had widened beyond the $3,600 gap seen in 1999 and is unexplained by work hours, choice of specialty or other practice characteristics (Lo Sasso et al., 2011, p. 197), and cannot be associated with comparative job-related experience. Similarly, a 2018 study analyzed 3 million Medicare claims for the year 2012 and found that female providers across 13 specialties were paid $18,667.23 less than male providers (Desai et al., 2016).

Research shows that female nurse practitioners (DeCapua, 2017), physician assistants (Coplan, Essary, Virden, & Cawley, 2012), nurses (Jones & Gates, 2004; Kalist, 2002), and general healthcare industry workers (Seabury, Chandra, & Jena, 2013) all fare similarly poorly when compared to male counterparts performing the same work, even when adjusted for pay area and specialty and time in field—despite the overwhelming perception of these occupations as valuable and traditionally female. This willingness to pay men more in traditional female occupations echoes the cultural devaluation theme posed by England et al. (2007).

Some of this gap is explainable. Using the same 2012 Medicare provider utilization and payment data source as Desai et al. (2016), another study found that male physicians billed on average one additional service per office visit and charged 24% more for each visit ($262 for male physicians vs. $211 for females). This differential, added to the fact that male physicians

treated more patients (512 vs. 319), leads to a $55,437 annual difference in Medicare reimbursements per physician ($118,783 vs. $63,346) (Fitch, 2014).

Given the prevalence of gender pay gaps measured in multiple ways across multiple national, international, and professional studies, it is likely that women in the proposal development industry will experience similar inequities in pay distribution and promotions. Perceptions of proposal workers regarding pay have not been previously measured. Therefore, because our study population is professional and multinational, matching the literature, the following hypothesis is offered for this sample:

H4: Perceptions of distributive justice inequity will be higher among women than men.

Job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction has been increasingly studied over the past 50 years from a number of different viewpoints, including gender, age, and workplace treatment—factors related to this study. The works of Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman (1959), Locke (1969, 1976), and Kalleberg (1977) establish a foundation upon which many have built, creating what has become a broad investigative field. For purposes of this study, I examined works within a narrow spectrum that included this study's key variables as well as age cohort data collected from respondents.

Distributive justice. Many studies link job satisfaction to distributive justice. One study on university faculty affirms that gender differences in satisfaction are linked to compensation: women faculty are less likely to be satisfied with pay and express overall lower job satisfaction than their better paid male colleagues (Okpara et al., 2005). However, a study by Lydon and Chevalier (2002) disagrees with others in the literature and concludes that direct rather than comparative pay is the predominant determinant of job satisfaction (p. 17). This conclusion, in

addition to expectancy theory, may help interpret the work of Clark (1997) and Clark and Oswald (1996), who looked at British worker cohorts and found unexpectedly high levels of job satisfaction among women with relatively low pay.

Sales and marketing profession. Two early studies stand out in relation to this study's population. The first is by Pearson et al. (1957). Using 1,123 questionnaires, this study is among the earliest to examine job satisfaction in the sales worker population. Their findings are relevant to the study I am undertaking, and include:

> The striking contrast between the initial breakdowns and the final scaled response-patterns provides a graphic illustration of the utility of scale analysis as an internal measure of reliability. Preliminary observations, that "average" route salesmen of the "X" Candy Company tended to exhibit slightly greater job satisfaction than did those salesmen both with higher and lower sales ratings, were substantially negated and modified through scale analysis (Pearson et al., 1957, p. 427).

After scaling, Pearson et al. (1957) found that the most efficient (highest earning) route salesmen had significantly higher levels of job satisfaction than other salesmen. Questions asked on the Pearson survey are similar to those on this study's questionnaire and included items on communication with supervisor and information provided by the supervisor or company.

The second study is by Churchill et al. (1974), who attempted to develop a measurement scale for job satisfaction in industrial salesmen, and the third is Rutherford et al. (2009), who used this scale to measure job satisfaction and related behaviors in salesmen. These researchers found multidimensionality in the scale results and that some factors that had been linked in previous research, were not linked in their studies. For example, they determined that

organizational commitment, a measure of job satisfaction, does not necessarily indicate that an individual will remain with the company, and that the scale developed by Churchill et al. (1974) is superior to others for studying with this population (Rutherford et al., 2009). Finally, Ferrell, Johnston, Marshall, & Ferrell (2019) postulate the existence of a unique sales subculture, which may represent another avenue of research into this profession. The salesmen under study in this literature are not an exact match for our proposal development personnel, but they come the closest among groups found in the literature and can serve as a professional proxy group.

Gender. Job satisfaction has been measured using gender in many professions and across many countries. In one large study of medical professionals, gender was not independently predictive of burnout or overall workplace quality of life after controlling for age (LaFaver et al., 2018). However, the study showed that women "made proportionately more negative comments than men regarding workload, work–life balance, leadership and deterioration of professionalism, and demands of productivity eroding the academic mission" (LaFaver et al., 2018, p. e1928). Clark (1997) examined why women in lower-paid jobs reported being happier at work than their male counterparts despite the pay disparity. Satisfaction in workforce populations is also dynamic. A study of workers in Great Britain between 1991 and 2000 concluded that women's job satisfaction declined substantially in that decade, whereas men's job satisfaction had remained fairly constant (Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000). A recent study also demonstrated that gender had an impact on extrinsic motivation associated with job satisfaction, which is strongly linked to distributive justice, with women showing significantly lower scores than men (Andrade, Westover, & Peterson, 2019). This outcome is consistent with a study of 356 Indian female employees whose perceived gender inequality negatively influenced their job satisfaction and motivation (Memon & Jena, 2017).

Workplace treatment. Among the areas of workplace mistreatment most studied is the issue of employee burnout, an issue of concern with proposal professionals. Maslach (1979) is credited with developing formative studies on burnout in the 1970s, developing measurement tools (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), and creating the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI), the scale most frequently used to measure how seriously an employee is affected (Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, Schaufeli, & Schwab, 1986). The inventory includes emotional exhaustion, personal accomplishment, and level of employee engagement. Burnout is associated in the literature with long-term stress, often with employee overload from too much work for the time available, workplace situations over which employees have no control, as well as interpersonal treatment (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leitner, 2001). Similarly, work quantity, access to support, autonomy, and the meaningfulness of work were workplace treatment and employee satisfaction factors in a large professional population (LaFaver et al., 2018), with satisfaction decreasing as overwork increased and autonomy decreased (Broome, Knight, Edwards, & Flynn, 2009; Folger, 1993), leading to absence and turnover (Dittrich & Carrell, 1979).

Several studies find that when individuals feel that they have been treated or rewarded unfairly, their job satisfaction and organizational commitment decreases, they are less likely to contribute discretionary effort and "organizational citizenship" behaviors (e.g., volunteering, mentoring, etc.) (Moorman, 1991), are more likely to file grievances, and are more likely to leave the employer (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Ensher, Grant-Vallone, & Donaldson, 2001; Hamermesh, 2001). In contrast, Valentine (2009) noted the significant and positive effect that hours of ethics training had on employee job satisfaction with supervisors and colleagues, while Jones, Jones, Latreille, & Sloane (2009) established the positive correlation between general employee training and job satisfaction.

Motivation. Proposal managers lead teams and as such need to motivate their personnel and engender job satisfaction to achieve optimal performance. Herzberg et al. (1959) developed a theory of factors that led to job satisfaction that contained two tracks, motivators and what the authors termed "hygiene" factors that kept the workplace healthy and kept demotivation from occurring. Based loosely on Maslow's hierarchy of needs, motivation is the stronger predictor of job satisfaction and includes variables that fill a worker's need for growth and self-actualization. Motivators include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and the possibility of growth, all of which they considered intrinsic motivators. Hygiene, by contrast, included company policies and procedures, relationships with a supervisor and coworkers, and working conditions and salary. Herzberg et al. (1959) stated that salary could serve as a motivator or hygiene factor. What makes their theory unique is that satisfaction and dissatisfaction do not exist on a continuum but can coexist in a worker who loves a job but is unhappy with working conditions or has a poor relationship with a boss. Hygiene factors do not create job satisfaction; they merely prevent job dissatisfaction. To create job satisfaction, motivation factors must be present (Herzberg et al., 1959; Herzberg, 2003).

Age and generation. Studies vary as to the impact of age on job satisfaction. Some studies show no impact (Ghazzawi, 2011) or do not consider either age or gender but consider factors such as locus of control and promotional opportunities (Spector, 1997). However, others show that older cohorts are more satisfied at work than younger workers (Andrade et al., 2019; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; Ng & Feldman, 2010). Conversely, Gursoy, Chi, and Erdem (2013) found that younger workers were satisfied at work, but had different satisfaction requirements than older workers, including different rewards and relationships. Differences in job satisfaction by age cohort also were attributed to factors such as a greater focus by younger workers on extrinsic

factors such as leisure time (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010). Lu and Gursoy (2013) showed that younger workers were more willing than older workers to leave their jobs if that need for extrinsic factors was not met.

Recent research has indicated that baby boomers place much more importance on work and consider their job to be more central to their lives than it is for younger generations, i.e., Gen-Xers and millennials (Gursoy et al., 2013; Gursoy, Maier, & Chi, 2008; Park & Gursoy, 2012; Twenge et al., 2010). In addition, compared to Gen-Xers and millennials, "boomers" are more attached to their organizations, more likely to stay, more invested in mission-related employer outcomes and more strongly believe that hard work will pay off (Gursoy et al., 2008, 2013; Hart, 2006). Also, as the Families and Work Institute reported in 2006, boomers are more driven by goals and rewards in the workplace, showing a higher desire to land positions with greater responsibility than younger generations do. Gen-Xers and millennials are less willing to give up life outside the workplace, expect near-term rewards and recognition, and more likely to quit if they are displeased (Gursoy et al., 2008). Because my study's sample comprises five generational cohorts, the generational differences presented in the foregoing research were helpful in interpreting results, particularly the qualitative results related to job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction literature, therefore, presents a comprehensive theoretical base for investigating the questions in this study and the issues raised independently by respondents in their text comments, and leads to the following hypothesis:.

H5: Individual perceptions of three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, interactional), moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, will influence job satisfaction.

Literature Synthesis

The purpose of this literature review was to identify the leading voices and common threads that exist between literature on business ethics, gender pay equity, organizational justice, and outcomes such as job satisfaction. The review included the development and current state of business ethics literature and its focus or absence of focus on gender; the development of business ethics training; the principles and practice of organizational justice that impact how men and women are treated in the workplace, including women's relative financial outcomes. An examination of each area led to the hypotheses presented in this chapter.

Common among all of these is the concept of fairness—the core of organizational justice theory. This literature review included the examination of fairness and organizational justice as both empirical reality and as the perceptions of those affected. Fairness as perceived from the outside always requires analysis, balance, justification, and rationalization. Fairness from the inside requires only that the parties involved feel and believe that an equitable balance has been achieved. Driven in part by cultural and legislative changes, what constitutes equitable has also changed over time. Just as separate but equal education is no longer acceptable, paying people differently because of gender (or race or age) for making the same contribution should no longer be considered ethical corporate behavior.

Fairness in the context of organizational justice means fairness of outcomes (distributive justice), fairness of decision-making (procedural justice) and fairness of treatment (interpersonal and informational justice)—all of which influence our perception of overall fairness and our perception of the justness of our organizations, institutions, and governments. The literature tells us that distributive justice is more influential than procedural justice in determining our satisfaction with what we get, while procedural fairness is more important than outcome fairness

in shaping the way we think about our employers and institutions and how that motivates our work (Cropanzano & Folger, 1991; De George, 2010; Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Greenberg, 1990; Lind & Tyler, 1988; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Tyler & Caine, 1981).

In this literature review, special emphasis has been placed on the impacts of business ethics, organizational justice, and job satisfaction on women, noting that satisfaction can exist within frameworks of inequity or dissatisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Two-thirds of this study's sample are women, living and working in many countries. This literature review found evidence that the gender pay gap is global, larger in some areas of the world than others, and that individual countries are distinguishing themselves by the changes they have made in this century. The literature also tells us that while some of the gender pay gap can be explained, a nagging percentage hovering around 5% in the United States remains attributable to factors that are difficult to quantify, such as cultural male-female dominance preferences, identification of leaders as more male than female, and psychological stereotypes assumed by both genders.

Compounding this effect is the reality that men experience a selection preference for leadership positions (Harris, 2017). This means that not only do they realize greater financial rewards, but also that they are disproportionately positioned to make the hiring and promotion decisions that continue to feed disparity. If women do succeed in reaching upper levels of an organization or serve on boards of directors, they will remain in the minority, both in numbers and compensation (Mensi-Klarbach, Seierstad, & Gabaldon, 2017). Leadership parity must be achieved before inequities in pay distribution can be reversed.

In this review, one interesting finding has been the way gender pay inequity has been framed in literature intended for business leaders. In early 20th century discussions of business ethics, while distributive justice was included in early textbooks (Sharp & Fox, 1937a, 1937b),

gender differences in pay were not. The results of a now classic business survey of U.S. business leaders in the 1960s demonstrate that while business leaders were strongly sensitized to what was ethical in terms of practices between businesses and between business and customers, they also openly discussed "the idea that industry should have a few women employees on the payroll for entertainment of prospective customers" (Baumhart, 1961, p. 159).

Why, then, do male-female workplace disparities still exist, and why are they so prevalent? Budig and England (2001) offer the scholarly observation that "a weaknesses of social science research is that direct measures of either productivity or discrimination are rarely available" (p. 204). However, it may also be that because until recently, although reported, this topic has not captured the attention of the general public. The #MeToo movement did its part in late 2017 to ignite and spread change. By May 2018, after 10,000 companies reported on pay disparities in the UK as required by law, a new Internet-based global movement was launched—#PayMeToo (The Guardian, 2018). This era of open discussion and heightened awareness of the topic of gender pay inequity and role inequity is the environment in which this study was conducted, with data collection beginning in May 2018.

Conclusion

Literature reviewed for this study shows that the discipline of business ethics moved into business schools in the early 20th century largely absent consideration of women in the workforce. Deeply contested legislation rather than ethics drove much of the change early in the 20th century in terms of women's voting equality, and on controls placed on business to improve safety and limit abuse. These latter changes could have come from within businesses, guided by business ethics, but they did not.

Literature has been presented showing that issues of fairness in terms of pay and promotion in the global workplace and within professions have yet to be resolved (Chamberlain et al., 2019; Desai et al., 2016; Song et al., 2018; World Economic Forum, 2018). Literature postulates or explains some of the disparity (Borghans et al., 2006; Mueller & Plug, 2006), but a gap remains for which there is no identified explanation.

Literature examining job satisfaction showed ethics at work in the sales profession (Churchill et al., 1974; Pearson et al., 1957; Rutherford et al., 2009), the differences between genders (Andrade et al., 2019; Clark, 1997; Okpara et al., 2005; Sousa-Poza & Sousa-Poza, 2000;) among generational cohorts (Gursoy et al., 2013; Twenge et al., 2010), resulting from interpersonal treatment (Broome et al., 2009; LaFaver et al., 2018; Maslach et al., 2001), and postulating the existence of a unique sales subculture (Ferrell et al. 2019).

Finally, a synthesis of this literature points to a powerful intersection of business ethics and organizational justice theory in the domain of job satisfaction, affected by workforce treatment and gender equity. This intersection provides a strong theoretical base for this study and is displayed in Figure 2.2. Inspired by Heuer and Pherson (2014), Figure 2.2 presents organizational justice concepts across the top, ethics across the bottom, equity issues on the left side and interpersonal issues on the right. In the center is the primary dependent variable in this study, job satisfaction. Gender occupies the middle space and is linked and cross-linked to almost every other construct. The top border also shows the placement of Herzberg's two factors of job satisfaction, motivation on the left, aligned with distributive justice, and the hygiene factor on the right, aligned with procedural and interactional justice. Each of the study's five hypotheses is placed near its primary independent variable, with constructs linked as appropriate to show how each hypothesis is tested and how the result relates to job satisfaction. As one example, the upper

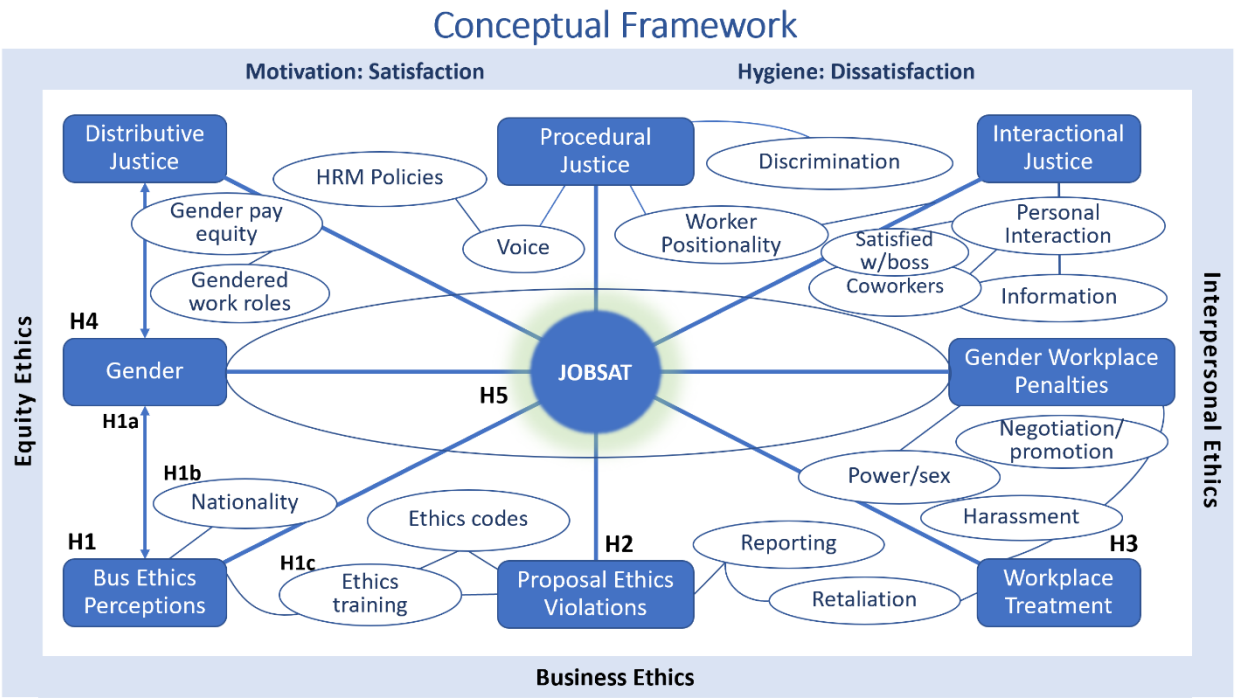


Figure 2.2. Conceptual framework: Organizational justice, ethics, gender equity, and interpersonal treatment constructs related to job satisfaction and this study's hypotheses.

left corner shows that gendered work roles are linked to gender pay inequity, which is further linked to distributive justice, gender issues, and job satisfaction. Similarly, the lower right quadrant shows how reporting of ethics violations may lead to retaliation that affects workplace treatment, which may further affect promotion negotiations and ultimately job satisfaction. To conclude this chapter, Table 2.1 presents a summary of the literature included in this study.

Table 2.1

Selected Major Works That Influenced This Study

Author	Date	Research Field	Research Contributions Used in This Study
Business Ethics			
Heermance	1927	Business ethics	Study of business ethics practices in United States
Baumhart	1961	Business ethics	First ethics perceptions survey of U.S. businessmen
Clark & Clark	1966	Business ethics	Personal Business Ethics Scorecard (PBES scores)
Donaldson et al.	1994	Business ethics	Business ethics and social contracts theory
Dawson	1997	Sales profession	Ethical/gender differences between men/women in sales
Ferrell et al.	2019	Sales profession	Postulates a sales ethics subculture
McClaren	2013	Sales profession	Ethics of selling; literature review
Javalgi & Russell	2015	Sales profession	International business ethics in sales

Author	Date	Research Field	Research Contributions Used in This Study
De George	1987–2008	Business ethics	Business ethics codes and practices in U.S.
Folger	2001	Business ethics	Fairness, deonance relationship to justice
Valentine & Barnett	2003	Business ethics	Corporate ethics code awareness
Hunt & Vitell	1986	Business ethics	General theory of marketing ethics
Hunt & Vitell	2005	Business ethics	Adults make choices using sound ethical basis
Sharp & Fox	1937	Bus. ethics educ.	First business ethics textbook in the United States
Abend	2013	Bus. ethics educ.	History of business ethics education in U.S. universities
Wang & Calvano	2015	Bus. ethics educ	Role of gender in ethics education
Jones	1991	Bus. ethics educ	Role in increasing ethical awareness
Roxas et al.	2004	Gender/ethics	Gender in ethical decision making across cultures
Valentine et al.	2007	Gender/ethics	Ethics decisions of international male/female executives
Friesdorf et al.	2015	Gender/ethics	Male utilitarian/female deontological ethical thought
Warren et al.	2014	Training effect	Workplace training reduces observations of violation
Frisque & Kolb	2008	Training effect	Trained personnel change office ethics culture
Burnaz, et al.	2009	Nationality	Turkish, Thai, and U.S. businessmen
Ho	2010	Nationality	No difference in ethics based on nationality
Organizational Justice			
Rawls	1971	Justice	Theory of justice, virtue, morality, fairness
Colquitt et al.	2001	Organizational	25-year meta-analysis; differentiated four constructs
Greenberg	1987–	Organizational	Studies in OJ over 30 years; org. context
Byrne & Cropanzano	2001	Organizational	Reviewed development of field
Cropanzano et al.	2007	Organizational	Clarified three constructs and their components; reviews management applications and benefits to employees
Homans	1961	Distributive	Compensation fairness (later distributive justice)
Adams	1963	Distributive	Feels of fairness must accompany distributive equity
Adams	1965	Distributive	Social exchange theory: just rewards
Cropanzano et al.	2001	Distributive	Fairness theory and ethics on a corporate level
Deutsch	1975	Distributive	Linked pay to performance
Graham & Cooper	2013	Distributive	Fair distribution of credit for work well done
Clark & Oswald	1996	Distributive	Compensation fairness relative to others
Carrell & Dittrich	1978	Distributive	Pay should be determined by contributions
Fisher & Smith	2003	Distributive	Pay should be determined by contributions
Thibaut & Walker	1975	Procedural	Processes explained produce better accepted outcomes
Walker et al.	1979	Procedural	Differentiated procedural/distributive justice constructs
Alexander & Ruderman	1987	Procedural	Differentiated procedural/distributive justice constructs
Leventhal	1980	Procedural	Leventhal Criteria: rules of fair procedure
Lind & Kulick	2009	Procedural	Concept of voice
Tyler & Caine	1981	Procedural	Outcomes influence perceptions of leaders
McCabe	2019	Procedural	Implications for HRM
Bies & Moag	1986	Interactional	Significance of good compensation information
Card et al.	2010	Interactional	Impact of open pay information: University of California
Greenberg	1993	Interactional	Information must be timely and accurate to be trustworthy
Folger & Skarlicki	2001	Interactional	Information control and power over pay
Carrell & Dittrich	1974	Interactional	Office politics determining compensation
Tyler & Bies	1990	PJ/IJ	Included decision-maker treatment as “missing link” in PJ
Konovsky & Folger	1991	PJ/IJ	Combined PJ and IJ in one PJ scale
Brockner et al.	1996	PJ/IJ	Combined PJ and IJ in one PJ scale
Mansour-Cole et al.	1998	PJ/IJ	Combined PJ and IJ in one PJ scale

Author	Date	Research Field	Research Contributions Used in This Study
Bies	2001	PJ/IJ	Constructs are still not clear
Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor	2000	PJ/IJ	IJ determines supervisor relationship, while PJ determines organizational relationship
Lind & Taylor	1988	DJ/PJ	DJ is stronger predictor of job satisfaction than PJ
Folger & Konovsky	1989	DJ/PJ	PJ is key predictor of organizational commitment, trust; DJ stronger predictor of satisfaction
McFarlin & Sweeney	1992, 3	DJ/PJ	Investigated relationships between distributive and
Sweeney & McFarlin	1993	DJ/PJ	procedural justice predictors and tests
Colquitt et al.	2001	Organizational	25-year meta-analysis; differentiated four constructs
Greenberg	1987	Organizational	Pursued each area of org. justice over 30 years
Gender Equity			
Conyngton/Wadlin	1896	Pay equity	Early study: unequal pay of college educated women
Kessler-Harris	2001	Pay equity	History of U.S. wage inequity disfavoring women
England	1992	Pay equity	Theory of comparable worth and compensation
Goldin	1984–2014	Pay equity	History of U.S. gender pay inequity, impact of WWII, college educated women closing the gap
Mensi-Klarbach et al.	2017	Pay equity	Gender non-parity on boards of directors
Desai et al.	2016	Pay equity	Male/female doctor Medicare billing/reimbursement
Corbett & Hill	2012	Pay equity	Gender pay gap at one year for university graduates
Carey	2015	Pay equity	Gender pay gap at 10 years for university graduates
Flores	2016	Pay equity	Gender pay gap of university graduates
Bertrand et al.	2010	Pay equity	Pay disparity between male/female MBA graduates
June	2018	Pay equity	Pay inequity in higher education institutions
Okpara et al.	2005	Pay equity	Pay inequity in higher education institutions
Hatch	2017	Pay equity	Pay inequity in higher education institutions
Fisher & Smith	2003	Pay equity	Gender differences: asking for a raise
Bowles & Flynn	2010	Pay equity	Ability to negotiate a raise
Babcock et al.	2003	Pay equity	Ability to negotiate a raise
Small et al.	2007	Pay equity	Ability to negotiate a raise
Blau & DeVaro	2006	Pay equity	Fewer promotions for women
Ibarra et al.	2010	Pay equity	Fewer promotions for women
Fortin et al.	2017	Pay equity	Unexplained wage gap: top earners
Daly et al.	2006	Pay equity	International wages: gender pay gaps
Murphy & Oesch	2016	Pay equity	Male/female occupational segregation and pay
Song et al.	2018	Pay equity	Hospital CEOs: gender pay inequity
Joshi, Son & Roh	2015	Pay equity	Gender gap in pay 14 times larger than gap in performance
Borghans et al.	2006	Role equity	Selection of lower paying jobs by gender/nature
Harris	2017	Role equity	Male selection bias for upper management positions
Fortin	2005	Role equity	Gender role attitudes in international labor markets
Blau & Kahn	1997–2017	Role equity Pay equity	Highly successful female executives may be more tolerant of gender inequity in the workplace
Goldin & Katz	2002	Workforce participation	Contraception increased female higher education, workforce participation, decreasing earnings gap
Budig & England	2001	Gender work-place penalties	Harassment and financial penalties for women in the workplace
England, Bearak, Budig & Hodges	2016	Gender work-place penalties	Motherhood penalty: highest impact is for highest wage earners
Duncan & Loretto	2004	Pay/age	Age and wage discrimination
Gneezy et al.	2003	Competition	Men outperform women in competitive situations

Author	Date	Research Field	Research Contributions Used in This Study
Job Satisfaction			
Herzberg, et al.	1959	Job satisfaction	Two-factor hygiene-motivation theory of job satisfaction;
Herzberg	2003	Job satisfaction	Motivation increases job satisfaction; Hygiene reduces job dissatisfaction
Locke	1969	Job satisfaction	General determinants/measures of job satisfaction
Kalleberg	1977	Job satisfaction	Satisfaction theory and survey constructs
Dittrich & Carrell	1979	Job satisfaction	Satisfaction linked to equity perceptions and turnover
Maslach et al.	2001	Job satisfaction	Burnout and job satisfaction
Broome et al.	2009	Job satisfaction	Leadership, burnout and interpersonal treatment
LaFaver et al.	2018	Job satisfaction	Gender and other factors affecting job satisfaction in the medical profession
Pearson et al.	1957	Salespersons	Satisfaction surveys on sales personnel: higher earners on efficient routes were more satisfied
Churchill et al.	1974	Salespersons	Satisfaction surveys of sales personnel
Pettijohn et al.	2008	Salespersons	Satisfaction and intent to stay
Rutherford et al.	2009	Salespersons	Seven dimensions of salesperson job satisfaction
Clark & Oswald	1996	Gender	Job satisfaction of women with low pay
Clark	1997	Gender	Job satisfaction of women with low pay
Okpara et al.	2005	Gender	Job satisfaction and gender
Andrade et al.	2019	Gender	Job satisfaction and gender
Sousa-Poza et al.	2000	Gender/nation	Gender, nationality, and job satisfaction
Lawler	1968	Compensation	Equity theory stronger predictor of job satisfaction than expectancy theory
Klein	1973	Compensation	Equity theory stronger predictor of job satisfaction than expectancy theory
Dube et al.	2019	Compensation	Unequal raises related to intention to quit
Valentine	2009	Ethics training	Impact of ethics training on job satisfaction
Twenge et al.	2010	Age	Generational differences in job satisfaction
Gursoy et al.	2013	Age	Generational differences in job satisfaction
Lu & Gursoy	2013	Age	Generation (age) influences how job burnout impacts job satisfaction and intent to leave

This chapter has provided a review of literature framing the research questions used in this study and generating its hypotheses. Chapter 3 will describe the methodology used to assess those hypotheses, examining the perceptions of business development professionals related to business ethics, organizational justice theory, and job satisfaction. Chapter 4 presents the results of statistical analysis, Chapter 5 offers a qualitative evaluation of respondent comments, and Chapter 6 concludes by presenting the study's outcomes and implications for research and practice.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

This study looks at one group of previously unstudied international workers, proposal development professionals, to determine the extent to which their perceptions of business ethics are influenced by gender, national norms, and ethics training. This study also examines how perceptions of organizational justice, such as distributive, procedural, and interactional justice influence job satisfaction and are moderated by positive or negative workplace treatment.

Introduction

Chapter 3 discusses the methodology that was used to design the research project, develop and administer the survey, and conduct data analysis. This chapter reviews how the population was selected and how the survey questionnaire was researched, constructed, validated, and pilot tested. This chapter will also address the study's ethical considerations, the review and approval processes for both Hood College and APMP, and finally, the procedures used to test each hypothesis.

Background

The population being studied comprises members of the Association for Proposal Management Professionals (APMP), which had 7,500 members in 40 countries in 2018 (Appendix C). APMP is the only professional organization representing this global population of professional workers, who support the efforts of corporations to acquire new business through the development of competitive bids and proposals. APMP's mission is to raise the standard of practice among proposal professionals. As such, it has a vested interest in its members' perceptions of their experience in the industry and on their professional training, including business ethics training.

I am interested in studying the membership of this organization because it has never been studied and because APMP is rapidly expanding in its effort to reach proposal development professionals across the globe. APMP is interested in this research as a basis for developing future programming, including ethics training and certification.

Results of literature review.

Literature reviewed in Chapter 2 traces the development of business ethics beginning in the 1880s, continuing into the early part of the 20th century and up to 2019. It shows how this development occurred at a time when the American workforce, laws, regulations, and business practices differed greatly from today's environment. The workforce was racially segregated and women of any color could not be universally equally educated, independently secure business loans, or vote. The first college lectures on business ethics could only be attended by men and it is noteworthy that one of America's leading business schools, Harvard Business School, did not admit women until 1963 (Abend, 2013). The first credited business ethics textbook, published in 1937, did not discuss workplace treatment, fairness, equity, or bias issues, but did contain a chapter entitled "Distributive Justice" that related more to classical theory than to practical application, like the balance of the book (Sharp & Fox, 1937a).

The first quarter of the 20th century witnessed societal disruptions that impacted the development of business ethics and the perceptions and expectations of workers. The early part of the century saw the first world war, with its effect on women coming into and later being dismissed from the workforce; the success of the women's suffrage movement and adoption of the 19th Amendment; and government regulation of hours and working conditions resulting from high profile incidents like the 1911 Triangle Shirtwaist Factory fire. In addition, the collapse of

equity markets in 1929 had devastating consequences on the world economy, jobs, family structure, work roles, and potential earnings of men and women for decades.

It is possible to argue that business ethics as taught and practiced could never have evolved fast enough to keep pace with the speed and scale of social change during this period. Instead, the federal government intervened with large-scale policy changes and new laws that, rather than emanating from the business community, were imposed on it from outside. Another factor was the economic reality that business ethics developed at a time when women had almost no business power. Women, in fact, gained power and societal positioning during the early 20th century by *opposing* business and by embracing federal policies that moved workplace treatment out of the realm of business ethics and control and into the realm of federal oversight. Business ethics became, by definition, obeying the law.

These changes altered the balance between business and government in America. Business actions were no longer taken within self-defined parameters guided by ethics; they were taken because they were required by legislation. From this point forward, business ethics became more extrinsically rather than intrinsically motivated, following rather than leading the law, resulting in a culture of compliance.

In the 1960s and 1970s, social, cultural, and legal changes in the United States led to workplace business ethics being linked more strongly to studies in the social science literature later codified under the heading of organizational justice (Greenberg, 1987). These studies looked at issues of fair compensation (distributive justice, Homans, 1961), equal access to opportunity (equity theory, Adams, 1963, 1965), understanding of and participation in procedures (Thibaut & Walker, 1975), respectful treatment (interactional/interpersonal justice,

Bies & Moag, 1986; Greenberg, 1990), and access to information (informational justice, Colquitt et al., 2001).

The literature also revealed that business ethics challenges are directly linked to workplace outcomes that are global (Chamberlain et al., 2019; World Economic Forum, 2018) and that are experienced in a variety of professions (Desai et al., 2016; Song et al., 2018). As one example, international studies on topics such as personality, the motherhood penalty, risk aversion and the ability to negotiate collectively explain some but not all of the pay disparities seen by women (Borghans et al., 2005; Mueller & Plug, 2006), but a percentage remains for which there is no identified explanation other than flawed business ethics.

Literature on the development of business ethics training demonstrated that although business ethics education had begun in the 1880s with lecture series at colleges (Abend, 2013), it was not until the 1950s that corporations began adopting codes of ethics and providing ethics training on a widespread and global basis (Donaldson, 2000). Today, according to the Ethics and Compliance Initiative (ECI), which produces the Global Business Ethics Survey (formerly the National Business Ethics Survey), virtually every major employer in the United States and throughout the industrialized world has established codes of ethics and provides some form of ethics information to employees (ECI, 2018, 2019).

Research purpose.

This research is being conducted for three mutually supportive reasons: to explore business ethics perceptions within the proposal development industry; to add to the business ethics literature by examining the challenges of proposal development professionals, a previously unstudied population; and to assist APMP by providing a research-based foundation for APMP's planned training and certification programs in ethics. This research is positivistic in that it is

searching for perceptions in the sample that can be generalized to the population of APMP members. Its goal is to produce unbiased, reliable information using descriptive and inferential statistics. One of the research objectives is to produce a useful baseline to support APMP's development of ethics training that improves the quality of practice in this community and helps APMP focus on areas of greatest need.

Research questions and hypotheses.

The literature review generates interest in how members of the previously unstudied proposal development industry, which exists in many countries, perceive the ethics of their industry as practiced by men and women in a variety of work settings. This interest leads to the following research questions and hypotheses:

R1: What are the perceptions of proposal development professionals with regard to business ethics and organizational justice?

R2: How do gender, nationality, and training influence the business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals?

- **H1:** Gender, nationality, and training will influence the business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals.
  - **H1a:** Women will perceive higher occurrences of business ethics violations in the workplace than men.
  - **H1b:** Nationality will influence business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals.
  - **H1c:** Individuals who receive annual ethics training will observe fewer general business ethics violations than those who receive no training.

H2: Women will perceive higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties than men.

H3: Individuals who receive annual ethics training will be less likely to observe proposal ethics violations in their workplaces than those who receive no training.

R3: How do perceptions of organizational justice influence job satisfaction?

H4: Perceptions of distributive justice inequity will be higher among women than men.

H5: Individual perceptions of three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional), moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, will influence job satisfaction.

Variables and measures.

The variables in Tables 3.1 through 3.3 will serve as the independent and dependent variables for this study. As shown in Table 3.1, the primary independent variables for H1 are gender (sex), nationality, and training. Because of the overweighting of U.S. responses and the small number of responses (< 5) from several countries, nationality will consist of two groups, U.S. (66%) and non-U.S. (34%), to create populations of more comparable size. Similarly, training will be categorized by combining the "No" and "Not really" responses into a single "No" category, and the "Yes, computerized training" and "Yes, instructor-led training" into a single "Yes" category. Table 3.1 lists additional demographic variables used in this study.

Index scales.

Seven index scale variables have been constructed using survey items to test all five hypotheses in this study. The questions asked in the survey were predominantly taken from existing surveys and scales used in studies referenced in Chapter 2. Wherever possible, original

Table 3.1

Primary Independent and Demographic Variables

Variable Name and Type	SPSS Variable Label	Nominal, Ordinal, Scale	Measurement Description	Related Survey Question
Primary Independent				
Gender	*sex*	Nominal (category)	Male/female	Q. 16
Nationality	*nation*	Nominal (category)	U.S., non-U.S.	Q. 12
Training	*training*	Nominal (category)	Yes/no	Q. 19
Demographic Variables				
Years in APMP	*yrsAPMP*	Continuous	Years	Q. 1
APMP Chapter	*chapter*	Nominal	List name	Q. 2
Professional experience yrs.	*experience*	Continuous	Number	Q. 3
Certification level	*certlev*	Ordinal	Likert scale	Q. 4
Employment status	*employstat*	Nominal	Employment categories	Q. 5
Company size	*compsize*	Ordinal/category	Size scale	Q. 7
Job role	*jobrole*	Nominal	Job from list	Q. 8
Years in role	*yrsinrole*	Continuous	Number	Q. 9
Organization level	*orglevl*	Ordinal/category	Job ladder scale	Q. 11
Age category	*agecat*	Ordinal/category	Generation scale	Q. 13
Highest education achieved	*educ*	Ordinal/category	Likert scale	Q. 14

question sequence was preserved and wording was altered only when needed to make it more specific to the bid and proposal industry Table 3.2 summarizes the seven scales used in this study and provides a description of items and measures linked to each hypothesis. Table 3.3 lists the items in each scale and their locations in the questionnaire.

Table 3.2

Index Scales: Summary Description

Index Scale Variable	Description	Hypothesis	Measures
1. BEP–Business Ethics Perceptions	38-item scale	H1	Frequency of observation and perceived severity of general business ethics violations
2. GWP–Gender-related Workplace Penalties	6-item scale	H2	Perceived workplace hindrances related to gender
3. PEV–Proposal Ethics Violations	21-item scale	H3	Perceptions of ethics violations related to proposal work
4. DJ–Distributive Justice	7-item scale	H4, H5	Perceptions of compensation fairness
5. PJ–Procedural Justice	6-item scale	H5	Perceptions of procedural fairness and voice

Index Scale Variable	Description	Hypothesis	Measures
6. IJ–Interactional Justice	11-item scale	H5	Perceptions of interpersonal and informational fairness
7. JOBSAT–Job Satisfaction	6-item index	H5	Perceptions of accomplishment and satisfaction with job, income, role, and coworkers

Table 3.3

Index Scales, Items, and Questionnaire Source

1. Business Ethics Perceptions (BEP)	**Item Name**	**Question**
Inappropriate use of a competitor's information	*competinfo*	Q. 21.1
Using one client's material on a future client's	*clientmatrl*	Q. 21.2
No ethics standard at kickoff meetings	*kickoff*	Q. 21.3
Deceptive bidding of key personnel	*keyperson*	Q. 21.4
Exaggerations or omissions on resumes	*resumes*	Q. 21.5
False or low pricing of bids/tenders	*lowprice*	Q. 21.6
Misrepresenting past performance information	*pastperf*	Q. 21.7
Bidding an undeliverable solution	*solution*	Q. 21.8
Theft of bid/proposal materials	*theft*	Q. 21.9
Confidentiality breaches	*confidential*	Q. 21.10
Violate non-compete/disclosure agreements	*NDA*	Q. 21.11
Failure to pay bid/proposal workers	*failtopay*	Q. 21.12
Violating national laws to win foreign business	*violatehome*	Q. 21.13
Verbal abuse or intimidating behavior	*IJ-verbal*	Q. 22.1
Emotional exhaustion	*IJ-exhaust*	Q. 22.2
Overwork and burnout	*IJ-burnout*	Q. 22.3
Hostile work environment	*IJ-hostile*	Q. 22.4
Lower pay/promotions based on gender	*GWP-genderpay*	Q. 22.5
Alcohol/drug abuse	*ETOH*	Q. 22.6
Demoralizing treatment by a supervisor	*IJ-demoralize*	Q. 22.7
Inappropriate sexual behavior at work	*IJ-inappsex*	Q. 22.8
Sexual harassment	*IJ-sexharass*	Q. 22.9
Discriminatory in hiring practices	*PJ-discrim*	Q. 22.10
Lying to customers, partners, or employees	*lying*	Q. 23.1
Travel or expense account abuse	*travel*	Q. 23.2
Falsifying timecards; adding hours not worked	*timecard*	Q. 23.3
Breaking or failing to fulfill a contract	*contract*	Q. 23.4
Illegal activity, e.g., bribery, fraud	*illegal*	Q. 23.5
Conflict of interest violations	*COI*	Q. 23.6
Failure to deliver what was bid	*failtodeliver*	Q. 23.7
Discrimination – race, ethnicity, or religion	*PJ-discprob*	Q. 25.1
Sexual misconduct/harassment	*GWP-sexmiscond*	Q. 25.2
Gender discrimination affecting pay/promotion disadvantages women in the proposal industry	*GWP-genderdisc*	Q. 25.3
Discrimination – age	*PJ-agedisc*	Q. 25.4
Discrimination – sexual orientation	*PJ-orientdisc*	Q. 25.5
Ethical misconduct in bid/proposal industry	*ethmiscond*	Q. 25.6
The company I work for is ethical	*(R)ethicomp*	Q. 25.7R
My boss behaves in an ethical way at work	*(R)ethicboss*	Q. 25.8R

2. Gender-related Workplace Penalties (GWP)	Item Name	Question
Seen or experienced fewer promotions/lower pay based on gender	*GWP-genderpay*	Q. 22.5
Seen or experienced sexual harassment	*GWP-sexharass*	Q. 22.9
Sexual misconduct/harassment disadvantages women in the proposal industry	*GWP-sexmiscond*	Q. 25.2
Gender discrimination affecting pay/promotion disadvantages women in the proposal industry	*GWP-genderdisc*	Q. 25.3
There are gender obstacles to my career success	*GWP-obstacl*	Q. 30.3
Family responsibilities have limited my professional opportunities	*GWP-famlimit*	Q. 30.5
3. Proposal Ethics Violations (PEV)		
Inappropriate use of a competitor's information	*competinfo*	Q. 21.1
Using one client's material on a future client's bid	*clientmatrl*	Q. 21.2
No ethics standard at kickoff meetings	*kickoff*	Q. 21.3
Deceptive bidding of key personnel	*keyperson*	Q. 21.4
Exaggerations or omissions on resumes	*resumes*	Q. 21.5
False or low pricing of bids/tenders	*lowprice*	Q. 21.6
Misrepresenting past performance information	*pastperf*	Q. 21.7
Bidding an undeliverable solution	*solution*	Q. 21.8
Theft of bid/proposal materials	*theft*	Q. 21.9
Confidentiality breaches	*confidential*	Q. 21.10
Violations of non-compete/disclosure agreements	*NDA*	Q. 21.11
Failure to pay bid/proposal workers	*failtopay*	Q. 21.12
Violating home country laws to win foreign business	*violatehome*	Q. 21.13
Lying to customers, partners, or employees	*lying*	Q. 23.1
Travel or expense account abuse	*travel*	Q. 23.2
Falsifying timecards; adding hours not worked	*timecard*	Q. 23.3
Breaking or failing to fulfill a contract	*contract*	Q. 23.4
Illegal activity, e.g., bribery, fraud	*illegal*	Q. 23.5
Conflict of interest violations	*COI*	Q. 23.6
Failure to deliver what was bid	*failtodeliver*	Q. 23.7
Ethical misconduct occurs in bid/proposal industry	*ethmiscond*	Q. 25.6
4. Distributive Justice (DJ)		
I am paid fairly for work compared to others	*DJ-fairpay*	Q. 32.1
I have access to good information to determine how fairly I am paid	*DJ-goodinf*	Q. 32.2
My performance matters in my salary increases	*DJ-perform*	Q. 32.6
The hours I'm scheduled to work are reasonable for the work I'm expected to do	*DJ-hours*	Q. 32.9
When I do a good job, I am noticed and given credit	*DJ-noticed*	Q. 34.3
When we win, the right people get credit	*DJ-credit*	Q. 34.5
My role has a lot of opportunity for promotion	*DJ-promote*	Q. 34.6
5. Procedural Justice (PJ)		
Have observed or experienced discrimination in hiring or rewards based on race, religion, nationality, or age	*(R)PJ-discrim*	Q. 22.10R
Discrimination based on race, ethnicity, or religion is a problem in the proposal industry	*(R)PJ-discprob*	Q. 25.1R
Age discrimination is a problem in the industry	*(R)PJ-agedisc*	Q. 25.4R
Sexual orientation discrimination is a problem in the industry	*(R)PJ-orientdisc*	Q. 25.5R
People of opposite sex are promoted and paid more	*(R)PJ-oppsex*	Q. 30.1R
Where I work, politics determines pay	*(R)PJ-politics*	Q. 32.5R

Interactional Justice (IJ)	Item Name	Question
Verbal abuse or intimidating behavior	*(R)IJ-verbal*	Q. 22.1(R)
Emotional exhaustion	*(R)IJ-exhaust*	Q. 22.2(R)
Overwork and burnout	*(R)IJ-burnout*	Q. 22.3(R)
Hostile work environment	*(R)IJ-hostile*	Q. 22.4(R)
Demoralizing treatment by a supervisor	*(R)IJ-demoralize*	Q. 22.7(R)
Inappropriate sexual behavior in the work environment	*(R)IJ-inappsex*	Q. 22.8(R)
Sexual harassment	*(R)IJ-sexharass*	Q. 22.9(R)
Process for raises/promotions is explained to me and fair	*IJ-explained*	Q. 32.4
Supervisor provides honest explanation for raise	*IJ-honestboss*	Q. 32.7
My job role is respected and deferred to	*IJ-role*	Q. 32.8
On bid/proposal teams, I am listened to/respected	*IJ-respect*	Q. 34.1
6. Job Satisfaction (JOBSAT)		
I get a feeling of accomplishment from my job	*SAT-accomp*	Q. 34.2
I feel valued by senior management	*SAT-valued*	Q. 34.4
I would like to change my bid/proposal role and perform a different role	*(R)SAT-rolechange*	Q. 34.7R
I would like to leave my job in the next year	*(R)SAT-leavejob*	Q. 34.8R
I am satisfied with my income	*SAT-income*	Q. 34.9
I am satisfied with my job	*SAT-jobsat*	Q. 34.10

Research Design

This study uses both a descriptive and inferential quantitative research methodology, with a cross-sectional online survey as its primary data collection tool. Online survey methodology was selected because it allows a large, widely distributed, multinational population to be studied economically, within a short time frame, and with minimal intrusion on respondents (Evans & Mathur, 2005; Fink, 2017; Fowler, 2014; Rea & Parker, 2014). The survey was administered during a four-week period in May and June 2018. Its purpose was to gather information from professionals working in disparate cultures where issues surrounding business ethics, gender roles, compensation, and working relationships may vary. While these issues may be sensitive and more difficult for some respondents to articulate fully in a survey versus an interview, it would have been impossible to reach respondents in 40 countries in the time available with a qualitative, interview-based approach. However, to enable respondents to speak to these issues in their own words, the survey questionnaire included three opportunities for respondents to add comments: Questions 27 and 31 included opportunities for open-ended comments related to the

effects of experiencing unfair treatment in the workplace and on reasons why respondents took no action when witnessing unethical conduct, while Question 37 provided an opportunity for comments related to any of the survey topics or on issues of concern that the survey did not address. From the three questions, 332 narrative responses were received, which were analyzed and are discussed in Chapter 5.

Sampling Plan

My doctoral committee provided guidance, review, and introductions to topical peer-reviewed research as a foundation for the research design and sampling plan.

Sample design.

The population being studied is inclusive of proposal development professionals who are members of APMP. This organization's mission is to improve the standard of practice within the profession. The total population of practicing professionals within the proposal development industry has never been quantified; however, within APMP, there are known to be 7,500 members. Using the online Sample Size Calculator provided by Creative Research Systems as a general guide, to reach a confidence level of 95% with confidence intervals of 5 to represent an estimated population of 7,500, a sample size of 365 is needed, or about 400 to accommodate pairwise and listwise exclusions during analysis. This equates to a 5% response rate. The survey received 1,254 responses, a 17.1% response rate, ensuring that it would be possible to reach statistical significance, conduct multiple regressions, ensure statistical power, and provide assurance of external validity (Cohen, 1988).

Study population.

The study population includes all members of APMP, an international organization with chapters in North America, Europe, Australia, New Zealand, Japan, Korea, and South Africa.

This population has two characteristics as unifying factors: all members work in some aspect of proposal development and management, and all hold active membership in APMP. Members may work full-time or part-time for corporations, work for themselves, or work in small groups of consultants. The amount of business at stake is vast: An estimated $1.4 trillion in contracts are issued globally, with $600 billion for goods and services contracted each year by the U.S. government alone (USASpending, 2019). Proposal development industry personnel around the world continuously submit bids to national, state, and local governments and to for-profit and not-for-profit corporations. Industry professionals perform a variety of tasks, from conceptualizing a potential bid opportunity to organizing and managing a proposal team and delivering finished bids customers.

The profession includes many skill sets, ranging from customer relations and business management, to proposal team organization, writing, editing, compliance, graphic arts, estimating, and document design and publishing. There are observations of gender segregation in the industry, with men frequently found in leadership positions and women in writing, editing, and administrative roles. Differences in pay exist between professional categories, as documented by the industry's comprehensive salary survey, conducted most recently in 2017 with a sample of 1,078 professionals (APMP, 2017), and a UK survey conducted in 2018..

Ethics principles guiding this research.

Principles and guidelines for the protection of human subjects in research were codified by the National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research, which produced what is known as the Belmont Report in 1979 (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1979). Those principles guide government funded institutional research today and include values such as respect for persons, beneficence, and justice. All

parties involved in conceptualizing this research project at Hood College and within APMP adhered to these values as guiding principles.

Respect for persons. Respect for persons is a principle of research ethics involving human subjects intended to ensure their ability to act independently and in their own interests. The online survey methodology was designed to ensure that respondents could provide autonomous, non-coerced responses. The invitational email and the opening page of the survey discussed informed consent, and respondents were required to provide affirmative concurrence by clicking an OK button to indicate consent before beginning the survey. There was no intentional deception in the survey. The research purposes were made clear on the opening page of the questionnaire (Appendix A). The closing page (not retrievable from the survey software and not reproduced in Appendix A) included contact information for the researcher at Hood College and the chair of the APMP Member Research Committee so that questions could be answered before, during, or after the survey and so that respondents could express opinions by email.

Beneficence. Issues of potential harm to respondents were analyzed during the survey construction period. As the survey developer and frequent survey respondent, my bias was to perceive low potential for harm from this survey. The APMP generally agreed with this position and requested that additional sensitive questions. However, the Hood College IRB requested changes to protect respondents from any discomfort at responding to questions about race, religion, or inappropriate workplace behavior.

The survey's invitational email to potential respondents provided information about the study's IRB process and gave information relating to informed consent. The survey's opening page explained the protections, including anonymity, and stating that by clicking on the "OK"

button on that page, the respondent gave consent to participate in the study. The respondent could not proceed to the first page of questions without affirmatively indicating consent to participate. Modifications suggested by the Hood College IRB were made to questions to enable any respondent who was uncomfortable with a question response to skip that question, and the online survey allowed the respondent to exit the survey process at any time with or without having to complete it.

Justice. This survey was designed to not overburden any already overburdened or disadvantaged group. Language was easy to understand, examples were drawn from familiar workplace scenarios, questions could be skipped or "no response" could be checked if discomfort was felt. SurveyMonkey allows respondents to translate the survey into multiple languages.

Confidentiality. The survey instrument is anonymous. It does not ask for any personally identifiable information, such as the respondent's name, email address, or APMP membership number, so there is no possibility of associating any individual with the survey unless the individual self-discloses to others that he or she participated. Confidentiality of the data were maintained and not disclosed beyond the researcher, the researcher's doctoral committee, and to a limited extent, APMP's executive director and Member Research Committee. The survey results, however, were made public by APMP and through this dissertation.

Risks and benefits to survey respondents.

The survey instrument was designed and reviewed to ensure that respondents encountered minimal risk as they completed the questions. General risks of completing a survey on a computer may include having responses viewed on screen or electronically by a third party. In the invitational email, respondents were encouraged to forward the survey link to their home

address and take the survey on their home computer to prevent physical or electronic observation in the workplace. By so doing, respondents may have felt greater freedom to reveal actual perceptions without fear of workplace consequences.

Regarding benefits, based on comments described in Chapter 5, some respondents considered it beneficial to have an opportunity to express their views on professional topics such as workplace conditions and issues of discrimination that they had not been asked to comment on before on a large scale. Also based on comments, they may have considered it beneficial to contribute to APMP's development of an ethics certification program, and to have access to the compiled survey results when the results were published on the APMP website.

As an inducement to take the survey, one continuing education unit (CEU) credit was offered by APMP. Individuals who took the survey self-reported their participation on their personal development page of the APMP website to claim the credit. Because the survey is anonymous, APMP had no way of knowing if individuals requesting the credit actually took the survey; however, APMP chose to honor all requests. CEUs are valuable to members because they must be accumulated to maintain certification. Credit for a one-hour webinar is typically 0.5 CEU, so the one-credit reward for taking a 15-minute survey is significant and indicates to members the importance that APMP's leadership placed on this initiative.

Instrumentation Development and Review

Data collection instrument.

The data collection instrument was an online survey created using an Advantage license on SurveyMonkey™. The survey questionnaire was anonymous, collecting no IP addresses or other personal identifying information linking responses to a specific individual. Questions for the confidential online survey were developed using several published sources, including

questionnaires developed by Carr et al. (2000); the Global Business Ethics Survey (ECI, 2018); Sipe, Johnson, & Fisher (2009); and the Society for Human Resource Management (2017).

Using questions from published questionnaires as a basis for this survey ensured that questions were worded and sequenced in a way that that had been professionally vetted and tested Andres (2012). This added to internal validity by using questions that had been proven to measure the desired constructs effectively. It also added to external validity be ensuring that the results of the APMP survey could be compared to the results obtained in published sources.

The draft survey was reviewed and tested by members of my doctoral committee, practicing professionals in the field, Hood College graduate student pilot testers, and by APMP's Member Research Committee, which included APMP's Ethics Committee chairman and members in the United States and Europe. The survey went through multiple edits to respond to issues raised by reviewers and by the Hood College Institutional Review Board.

SurveyMonkey was selected as the online data collection platform for several reasons. The academic rate for a one-year Advantage license cost $276.00 versus more than $1,000 for other products. Using this tool makes it quick and easy to develop and edit professional-looking survey that can handle large numbers of questions and respondents. The product is familiar to the respondent population offers many question formats, which gives respondents variety during testing and encourages completion. It offers the survey developer levels of control over each question, such as giving respondents the option to skip questions, requiring responses to some but not all questions, providing options for open-ended responses, and offering response logic to guide respondents through the survey. SurveyMonkey's editorial controls ensure that a question cannot be modified if data are already collected for that question, protecting data integrity. It provides an opening page to establish the purpose of the survey and give instructions and a

closing page to thank respondents and relate contact information for follow-up. The version I used offers instant data analysis and readouts in multiple numeric and graphic formats. All data are downloadable to Excel or SPSS for analysis. Data are backed up by SurveyMonkey and a Help Desk is available. Reviewers viewed drafts and made comments during construction. As the survey developer, I was able to provide a link for APMP's leadership team to view the responses. Responses are provided in clearly labeled, colorful charts that a reviewer can manipulate (change a pie chart to bar graph). Mean, median, raw numbers, and percentages are provided for all responses. Daily prompts were provided during the survey period, giving a summary of responses gathered; this information is viewable on mobile devices.

Despite these positive attributes, there were also challenges. Revisions had to be made to the structure of the question sets because SurveyMonkey could not accept two answers on the same line, matching paper formats used on benchmark surveys drawn from literature. For example, the survey could not include a matrix that asked on a single line if a condition existed and how severe the condition was, or similarly, if a problem existed in the workplace and how important that problem was to the respondent. Therefore, these questions had to be asked separately, which contributed to the length of the survey and potentially to respondent fatigue and a lower completion rate.

In order to obtain the maximum flexibility in question format and statistical computing power, an Advantage license was purchased to ensure that a large number of responses could be processed and that complex, multi-part questions could be handled. This license also provides access to telephone and email support during development and analysis, which proved beneficial.

Pilot testing.

The survey questionnaire underwent multiple reviews during development, including review and pilot testing by the director of the Hood College Doctoral Program in Business Administration. The survey was also pilot tested by APMP's executive director, ethics director, and Member Research Committee in March 2018, with feedback provided on March 23, 2018. This latter group of individuals was very familiar with APMP and the work of its members, and also experienced at developing and administering surveys to this population. This initial pilot group provided feedback requesting that survey questions be added on perceptions related to race, ethnicity, age, and religious discrimination, particularly in hiring. These questions were added to the survey, which was then edited and submitted for full pilot testing in its final form.

The final survey was again reviewed by APMP and was pilot tested by 16 graduate students in the MBA Capstone class in the George B. Delaplaine School of Business at Hood College on April 23, 2018. Only one of the students was familiar with the planned study and the nature of proposal development; no students were associated with APMP. None of the students had seen the survey prior to pilot testing, which was conducted during a regular class period. All 16 students completed the survey and two provided email feedback, which consisted of editorial comments and corrections, all of which were incorporated. Students were offered extra course credit for taking the survey.

Pilot testing of the draft and final surveys revealed no difficulty in understanding the questions or completing the survey, even by students unfamiliar with the material. Feedback from the draft survey testers indicated that with 36 questions, some of them with multiple sub-questions, the survey was long and required approximately 12–15 minutes to take.

Institutional review and approval process.

The survey required review and approval by two organizations in order to be ready for release on May 16, 2018. This date was selected because it coincided with the beginning of APMP's annual international bid and proposal conference and the executive director felt that he could more easily promote the survey to the 1,000 people expected to attend, many of whom represented industry leaders. APMP required review and approval by its Member Research Committee and Hood College required the same by IRB. The sequence was to secure all input and approvals from APMP first and submit for formal Hood IRB approval second.

APMP Member Research Committee. Discussions with APMP regarding this research project began in late 2017 when I initiated an exchange of emails and telephone calls with the executive director of APMP proposing the survey. He responded immediately, indicating his support of the idea and providing detail on his personal interest in the ethics perceptions of APMP members. At the time, news headlines contained stories about workplace conditions disadvantaging women, from pay inequity to sexual harassment and the #MeToo movement. The executive director felt that the timing was right to survey members on these challenges. In addition, he was developing plans for a professional certification in business ethics, which would set APMP apart from other associations in his professional organization of association executives. Therefore, rather than limiting the survey to gender pay equity and workplace sexual harassment issues, we determined that the survey should attempt to capture perceptions on a comprehensive array of ethics issues to provide a baseline for the planned ethics certification and training program. The executive director gave his approval to this approach and arranged for me to work with APMP's Member Research Committee. This committee conducts studies, including surveys, on APMP members and is responsible for ethical oversight of those studies.

The draft survey and a description of the research project were submitted to the Member Research Committee on March 8, 2018. The committee met on March 15, 2018 and provided feedback in writing and by teleconference on March 23, 2018. This feedback consisted of concern over length, accompanied by a request to include additional questions about perceived racial, ethnic, religions, and age bias in hiring and promotion. All requested changes were made to the survey questionnaire.

Hood College IRB. Hood College has a formal IRB that requires approval of all research protocols involving human subjects. All documents relating to the IRB approval process followed for this study are included as Appendix D, along with a timeline. The request for approval for the APMP ethics survey was submitted on April 13, 2018, along with a printout of the survey questions and a link to the online survey. The request for approval specified the principal investigator, doctoral committee chairman, the nature of the research, research question and hypotheses, characteristics of the survey population, and timeline for survey administration that identified May 16, 2018 as the target release date. The committee met on April 20, 2018 and issued a letter that day outlining four areas of concern that had to be addressed:

1. Informed consent procedures needed to be more clearly articulated;
2. Control of identifying information had to be described;
3. An explanation was needed as to how continuing education credit would be issued if responses are anonymous;
4. Some questions needed to add the option to opt out if respondents felt the questions were too sensitive.

On April 24, 2018, all four issues were addressed, changes were made to the survey and a response was submitted to the IRB addressing their concerns:

1. Informed consent was described in the invitational email and on the opening page of the survey. In addition, text was added saying that "By clicking on the 'OK' button below, you provide consent to take this survey."
2. No identifying information was collected in the survey. This fact was more clearly articulated on the opening page to provide greater assurance of anonymity.
3. The IRB was informed that the survey respondents would self-report survey participation on their professional development page on the APMP website and automatically receive one CEU credit. APMP would not know who took the survey, so respondents would use the honor system to claim this credit. The opening page of the survey was modified to describe this process more clearly.
4. The request to enable opting out of question responses was handled in two ways. First, a "no response" answer choice was added to some questions; second, some questions were made optional; third, "Neutral, N/A, or No Response" options were added to some Likert scale questions; and finally, open-ended response options labeled "Other" were added to some Questions 21 and 31, and Question 37 was added to enable respondents to provide additional open-ended comments, questions, or concerns.

A letter summarizing the changes and revised questionnaire were submitted to the IRB on April 24, 2018 and final approval was issued on May 17, 2018.

It is important to note that this arrangement of activities for approval was not ideal. When working with two independent organizations, additional time should be built into the schedule to allow for each organization to respond to and approve the changes requested by the other.

Additional challenges relating to this compressed timeframe are discussed in the data collection procedures section to follow.

Data Collection Procedures

Data collection period.

I worked with a defined population of APMP members and gathered responses over a four-week period in May and June 2018. To reach this population, an invitational email with a link to the survey was sent to all members by APMP's executive director and Member Research Committee chairman. Although I had planned for these invitations to be issued by random assignment, APMP requested that all members be allowed to participate, so the entire membership was invited. Similarly, at APMP's request, the survey remained open for four weeks to enable the maximum number of international members to respond.

Survey distribution methodology and timeline.

The survey was launched in conjunction with APMP's annual international conference, held in San Diego, California, in May 2018. The organization's executive director opted to move up the launch date to May 10, 2018. He took this action so that the invitational email could be separated from the activities occurring at the conference and not be overlooked, and also to enable him to promote the survey during the conference. The executive director championed the survey and presented it as a major initiative during the conference's opening plenary session. He reminded members at several points during the conference to take the survey and placed his personal message and link on the organization's website.

Responses and response rate.

The invitational email went out to all APMP members on May 10, 2018. Returns for bad email addresses and Unsubscribe requests reduced the survey recipient population to 7,403.

There was a 0.007% “bounce rate,” resulting in survey email invitations being delivered to 7,351 recipients. In total, 1,254 online survey responses were received, representing a response rate of 17.1%. The survey was promoted heavily during the APMP international conference, May16–18, 2018. Figure 3.1 shows the pattern of responses, with more than half coming in the first 9 days. Email reminders were issued by APMP every week, with an increase in responses following each reminder. This response pattern made wave analysis of qualitative data possible, as described in Chapter 5.

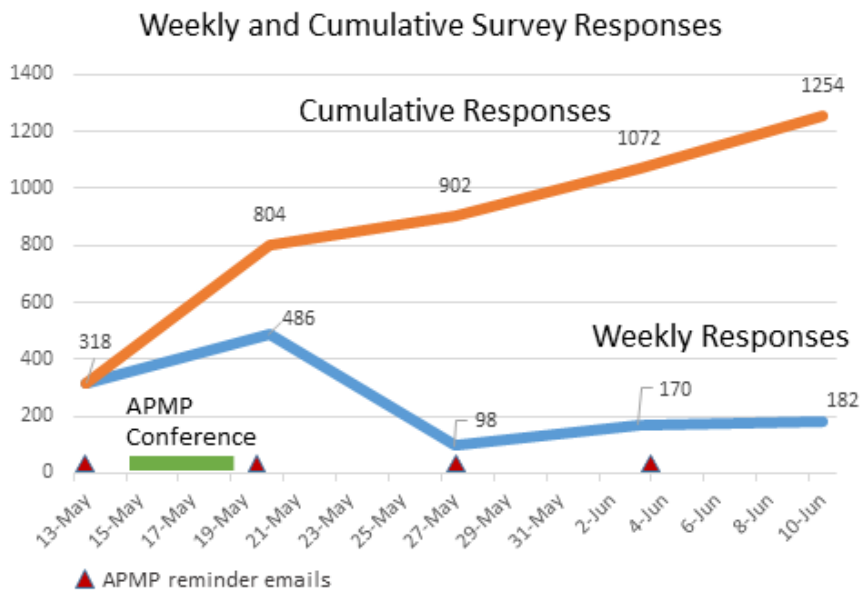


Figure 3.1. APMP ethics survey responses by week, showing totals and email prompts.

Adjustments during the survey period.

One of the first respondents was an experienced professional with advanced certification who was also an APMP fellow. She commented in an email to the researcher on May 10, 2018 that she felt it was important to have a place for respondents to add open-ended comments. In response to this suggestion from a knowledgeable respondent, a question was added to the end of

the survey that provided space for additional comments. That change was made on the first survey day, at a time when 105 people had begun the survey.

Validity, Reliability, and Research Limitations

Validity.

The goal of this research is to provide construct validity, to ensure that we are measuring the attitudes and perceptions we think we are; internal validity, so that causality can be firmly linked to results; external validity, so that the findings of this study can be generalized to the larger population of APMP members and beyond; and conclusion validity, by demonstrating a level of quality of data and method that affirm the reasonableness of our conclusions. To accomplish this, several aspects of validity will be examined, as discussed in this section, all intended to increase statistical power during analysis.

Construct validity. Difficulties in accurately measuring the domains of organizational justice have been noted by Bies and Moag (1986), Colquitt et al. (2001), and Greenberg (2015), among many others. To assure construct validity, I used questions and scales from published articles wherever possible, rewording them as needed to apply to proposal development environments. I also used this approach for job satisfaction, using Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM) job satisfaction survey questions, and for business ethics, using questions from the Ethics and Compliance Initiative survey deployed to thousands of respondents over many years. This approach has the advantage of using materials that have been well researched and adjusted over time, while also providing a firm basis for comparison with articles in peer-reviewed literature. Because workplace and social cultures change over time, using measures from 40 years ago may also pose problems, namely that the composition of certain scales may no

longer reflect the original underlying phenomena. Therefore, to further test construct validity, my methodology also includes principal component analysis, detailed later in this chapter.

Face validity. As the survey developer, I was aware that the survey would be taken by some APMP members whose primary language might not be English, but who routinely received communication from APMP in English. Therefore, I felt comfortable that most, if not all, of APMP's members should be able to respond to this survey if the questions were asked in clear, direct language that was easily translatable and understandable. To ensure translatability and a high degree of face validity, both the question content and wording were intentionally simple. This approach was further supported by including several questions from vetted, tested surveys such as the Global Business Ethics Survey (ECI, 2018) and the SHRM job satisfaction survey (2017), which were intended for broad population use.

Content validity. One potential threat to content validity was the compressed time frame during which the survey was developed, and the fluidity of the constructs and hypotheses under consideration during the same time period. The literature review and survey were developed concurrently. Therefore, there was insufficient time to pause after the literature review to make sure that it generated well-reasoned research hypotheses for testing, and to then ensure that the survey was properly constructed to test them. This time compression was unavoidable and occurred so that this project could benefit from being launched at an annual international conference in May 2018.

Internal validity. Random assignment to different versions of the survey was not used because APMP could not manipulate its email list to accomplish it in the time available. However, to maximize internal validity to the extent possible, questions were constructed that asked for the same information in different ways in locations is the survey. Opportunities were

also provided for narrative responses, which will be coded. In this way, it will be possible to compare paired question results to determine the level of consistency, and also determine whether the narrative provides evidence of inconsistency with the survey question responses.

External validity. The initial design of this cross-sectional study included random sampling of APMP members to provide external validity and enhance generalizability. However, APMP requested that all members be included in the survey population. Their rationale was that total inclusion would stimulate thinking about ethics issues and provide an opportunity for input into the resulting baseline prior to developing their ethics training and certification. While supporting the organization's mission, nonrandomization potentially limits external validity. To counter this generalizability threat, the sample was matched to APMP's overall demographics in terms of nationality, gender, age, and race, and I examined other points of alignment, such as years of APMP membership and certification levels.

Conclusion validity. This validity aspect is important because future investments will be made in designing training and certification programs based on our results. It is evident that the sample size is adequate and that data collection was successful. A discussion of the assumptions behind the data and steps taken to ensure that they are not violated during analysis is offered later in this chapter. In addition, the measures have been selected to be clear and of high-quality, and the Hood IRB has confirmed that the methodology is ethical.

Reliability challenges.

With a focus on studies measuring job satisfaction that is relevant to this study, Van Saane, Sluiter, Verbeek, and Frings-Dresen (2003) note a number of reliability challenges, which are listed here along with the steps taken to counter them.

Language. The survey link was sent to members all over the world but was produced in English. Despite the ability of SurveyMonkey to translate into multiple languages, using the English language may have hindered responses for non-English speaking members. However, English is the language in which all members currently receive APMP information.

Length. The survey is long (15 minutes) and people may have given give up, opted not to complete the survey, or chosen to skip through the questions and not provide their most thoughtful responses. Because we could not random sample, to increase internal validity, several questions were asked in different ways throughout the survey. APMP requested the addition of several questions relating to discriminatory hiring practices. Both of these added to the survey's length. Therefore, the question sequence was modified to put key demographic questions in front, to ensure that even if individuals did not complete the survey, there would be sufficient data on key independent variables (IV) to conduct analyses. Question sets were broken into small groups across several pages, providing a sense of completion as respondents moved through the survey. In addition, on each new question, SurveyMonkey lets the respondents know how far they are from the end. Also, because the population of individuals who worked outside their home country was expected to be small, the questions relating to behavior observed in those settings were placed at the end.

Social desirability bias. Because the survey includes questions on biases and ethics, some sample respondents may have chosen to answer with less than candor, preferring to give a "correct" answer rather than one that expresses their true beliefs (Fisher, 1993; Grimm, 2010; Krumpal, 2013). As a result, survey outcomes may not accurately reflect the opinions of all members of the sample or the population. To correct for this possibility, key questions were asked more than once at different points in the survey, using alternate and indirect phrasing

(Fisher, 1993). Reverse coding was used where appropriate during analysis to account for question format differences.

Confirmation bias. It is always possible that this type of bias, the "unwitting selectivity in the acquisition and use of evidence" (Nickerson, 1998, p. 175), is present. Nickerson (1998) further notes that "confirmation connotes evidence that is perceived to support—to increase the credibility of—a hypothesis" (p. 176). Measures taken to counter confirmation bias in this study are similar to those taken to counter researcher bias, namely, building the survey using questions selected from previously published sources rather than personally developing all; conducting multiple reviews and pilot testing by individuals familiar with the field and unfamiliar with it; and addressing all validity and reliability concerns in order to have a data set with strong statistical power that yields results that are mathematically clear and impervious to biased interpretation (Cohen, 1988; Rossi, 1990).

Research limitations.

This study is limited to examining perceptions in a single subset of proposal development professionals—those who are members of APMP. The significant advantages of working with an organization with access to 7,500-member professionals and whose leadership was fully engaged and motivated to support the study cannot be overstated. For those reasons, APMP was chosen as the population to sample for this study.

Sampling bias. The study is limited by not knowing how large the total population of proposal management professionals is and what percentage of that population is represented by APMP. It is therefore possible that APMP's members do not reflect the demographics of the proposal industry at large. As one example, it is possible that there is an overweighting of individuals who are top performers in their fields and that these individuals self-select to

participate in APMP and pursue advanced certification through the organization. These highly motivated individuals may not view as significant the gender, race, or age biases that less powerful individuals may face, and may also be in the upper quartile of their pay scales. It is also possible that there is an overrepresentation of members from large companies, because those companies are more likely to pay the cost of APMP membership, training, certification, and conference participation, whereas an equally talented individual who works for a small company or is self-employed may be unable to afford those fees and therefore not be a member represented in the survey sample.

Survey instrument limitations. This study may also be limited by not examining fully the qualitative aspects of ethics perceptions in this population. The quantitative methodology was chosen for purely practical reasons—to reach broadly into APMP's membership and touch as many members in as many countries as possible within a very short timeframe. In-depth interviews would offer a means to elicit member perceptions on a deeper level, particularly on the emotional aspects of perceived unfair treatment or bias. The survey attempted to counter this lack of interviews by providing opportunities for qualitative input from respondents. Questions 27 and 31 included opportunities for unstructured comments related to their topic. Question 27 asked, "Have you ever had to 'look the other way' when witnessing inappropriate actions of others?" and Question 31 stated, "Experiencing unfair treatment (including hostility, bias, discrimination, and harassment) had the following effect on me…" Question 37 was a dedicated open-ended comment question at the end ("Do you have any other comments, questions, or concerns?"). Responses to those questions were coded using an a priori structure relating to organizational justice variables and human resource management themes.

Limitations may also be present because the questionnaires on which this survey was based were developed for use in the human resources profession and for general business use rather than for the proposal industry. However, this method also had advantages: It enabled me to meet an accelerated time frame and provided points of comparison between the final data set and data published in the literature.

The length of the survey may have been a limitation. The survey contained 37 major questions, several of which required multiple responses. In all, 100 questions were asked. While APMP's invitational email stated that the survey would only take 10 minutes to take, it actually took closer to 15 minutes on average. Most of the survey questions had between 90% and 100% response rate, so length may not have been a factor in completion but could have been a factor limiting the consideration given to responses.

Unclear instructions on the final page may have contributed to lowering the completion rate. Even though response levels on all questions were high, SurveyMonkey reported an 88% survey completion rate. An initial review indicated that 112 of the first-day respondents had failed to click the exit button that indicates completion in the survey software. This problem was detected and remedied on Day 1 of the survey period. All subsequent respondents processed the survey correctly and the non-completion number never increased. Question response rates for most survey questions was greater than 94%.

Nonresponse bias. Halbesleben and Whitman (2013) counsel that response rate alone is insufficient for determining nonresponse bias and can be deceptive. One group of researchers found evidence of nonresponse bias even though they had an 83% response rate to their survey (Baines et al., 2007). The data in this study were examined and compared with information available on APMP membership, e.g., demographics, countries, and APMP chapters, to

determine areas with the highest and lowest percentage of response. However, because the survey was anonymous, there is no way to identify individuals who responded versus those who did not.

Comparison of basic demographics is the first of several steps recommended by Halbesleben and Whitman (2013) in their process for assessing nonresponse bias in online health care surveys. Other steps include replication (Beebe et al., 2011; Groves, 2006), benchmarking (Beebe et al., 2011), wave analysis (Mazor, Clauser, Field, Yood, & Gurwitz, 2002; Yessis & Rathert, 2006), and follow-up analysis (Groves, 2006). All of these methods were not feasible, except for wave analysis, which was performed on the qualitative responses.

Measures taken to encourage responses to the proposal development professionals survey included distributing the survey directly to members by APMP; branding it with the APMP logo, at APMP's suggestion; having the invitational email contain a personal message and photo of both the APMP executive director and the chair of the Member Research Committee, stating the importance of the survey to assessing members' perceptions and for building future programs; posting a link and explanation of the survey in an announcement on APMP's website; sending multiple email reminder prompts during the open response period; by committing to provide timely reporting of the results; by having the executive director promote the survey at every plenary session of the international conference in May 2018, and by having signs and handout reminders with the survey link and QR code distributed to the 1,000 members at the conference. Attempts were made to make the survey interesting and visually enjoyable, as well as easy to take. Questions used clear, simple language with terminology commonly understood by bid and proposal workers and included examples that survey-takers could relate to.

However, nonresponse remains a concern. Within the research on nonrespondents, Rogelberg et al. (2003) determined that there were two types—those who actively choose not to participate and those who are passive nonrespondents—and that the two groups hold different opinions and attitudes (p. 1111). The passive nonrespondents were more like the responders in their views, but the active nonrespondents were significantly more likely to hold opposing viewpoints. Yessis and Rathert (2006) found that late responders held more negative views than early responders and responded only after repeated prompts. Because our study is about perceptions, it is valuable to know whether those who did not respond (a) had barriers to response, such as language or time; (b) found the subject not of their interest; or (c) were in some way deterred from participation by emotional conflict or anger. Rogelberg and Stanton (2007) suggest interviews and focus groups and Beebe et al. (2011) suggest correlating outcomes with known external results. There was limited opportunity for taking these approaches because the survey responses are anonymous and international.

Most worrying about nonresponse bias is the finding that nonresponders are estimated to represent 15% of any population, and that this figure is consistent across multiple studies (Rogelberg et al., 2003; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007; Sosdian & Sharp, 1980). In our current APMP survey case, it would not have been possible to identify and approach the nonresponding population with a different strategy. However, the cited research does inspire caution in generalizing the responses of a 17% response group to the whole APMP population, because it shows that the views of a potentially equally large group of nonresponders could have proven influential, had they been captured.

Potential researcher bias. As the researcher and formulator of the survey, I have had 25 years of experience in the proposal development industry and 12 years of membership in

APMP. During that time, I have experienced or heard first-hand reports of many of the workplace conditions asked about in the survey, and many of the legal and ethics challenges that confront professionals working in this field. Because of my experience, it is possible that observational bias was introduced into the survey in the form of the questions selected or developed. As much as possible, questions were chosen from previously published sources and used "as found" in the literature. However, when needed, questions were created that were specific to the industry.

To counter the possibility of bias, I asked several individuals in the proposal industry and external to it to take the survey in draft form. I also submitted it to my dissertation committee chairperson and to APMP's Member Research Committee for review in draft and test in online active form. The online survey was formally pilot tested by a class of graduate business school students in April 2018. Changes made as a result of these reviews included adding questions on discriminatory hiring practices and questions that could apply to independent proposal workers who are not corporate employees.

Procedures for Data Analysis

This non-experimental, cross-sectional study was designed to gather information about perceptions and attitudes from respondents regarding business ethics and organizational justice and develop both descriptive and inferential statistics to generalize those results to the entire population of APMP members. Within this quantitative research approach, this study used several statistical analyses to examine and compare the perceptions of proposal professionals regarding business ethics, organizational justice, workplace treatment, gender-related workplace penalties, ethics violations, and job satisfaction and develop both descriptive and inferential statistics.

After survey closed on June 10, 2018, the data were downloaded for analysis using the SPSS statistical software program, 24th edition. No problems occurred during data transfer. The data set was backed up on an external hard drive stored in a locked desk. Prior to analysis, the data file was checked for coding errors. SPSS was then used to develop descriptive and inferential statistics for this study.

Data qualification for inferential statistical analysis.

Sample size. Tabachnick and Fidell (2019) state that to determine the minimum number of cases required when using statistical regression, a "cases-to-IV ratio of 40 to 1 is reasonable" and that a larger number is required if the dependent variable (DV) is skewed or abnormally distributed (p. 105). At > 250:1, this study's sample is large enough to meet these criteria.

Data qualification testing.

Data were tested to ensure that they met the nine assumptions of eligibility for multiple regression described in this section. Test results are reported in Chapter 4.

Variables. The variable set met the first two assumptions of regression by comprising one continuous DV (JOBSAT) and more than two continuous or categorical IVs (sex, DJ, PJ, IJ, WPT).

Linearity. A scatterplot of standardized residuals was generated using SPSS to determine if there was a linear relationship between DV scores and errors of prediction. Failure of linearity may impair analysis by failing to fully measure the relationship between the DV and IVs. An assessment of the scatterplot showed the required positioning of residuals following the horizontal line on the plot.

Homoscedasticity of residuals. Homoscedasticity exists when "the standard deviations of errors of prediction are approximately equal for all predicted DV scores" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 108). Its opposite, heteroscedasticity, may occur when some IVs are skewed and others

are not, impairing the predictive capability of the total model. An assessment of the scatterplot showed that residuals remained generally equidistant across the center plot line.

Multivariate normality. Through SPSS, a probability plot was constructed to determine whether variables were normally distributed. This assumption was checked with a histogram and a Q-Q Plot and checked with a Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness of fit test.

Absence of multicollinearity. Multicollinearity between IVs was evaluated to ensure that there was no correlation of Pearson's *r* coefficient exceeding .7, which could indicate that two IVs may be measuring the same construct (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Data were evaluated for multicollinearity using (1) a correlation matrix, to ensure that bivariate correlations among all IVs produced correlation coefficients less than 1.0; (2) tolerance calculations, to ensure that they are greater than 0.1; and a variance inflation factor (VIF), to ensure that values are less than 10, with less than 6 preferred (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

Absence of autocorrelation. Data were tested to ensure randomness or the absence of repeated patterns. This test is accomplished through scatterplot and also with the Durbin-Watson correlation test, which produces values between 0 and 4, with 2.0 indicating a perfect lack of autocorrelation (Cohen & Swerdlik, 2005; Piedmont, 2014, p. 3303; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

Independence of residuals. A residual plot was analyzed to ensure that residuals were sufficiently independent (uncorrelated). The Durbin-Watson test was also used to check for nonindependence of residuals through autocorrelation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 109; Wesolowsky, 1976).

Absence of influential outliers. Box plots were used to detect outliers. Cook's distance and Mahalanobis distance calculations were also used to determine if any were present and influential. Influential outliers could alter the standard errors of regression coefficients, making

them either too high or too small, causing results to be poorly generalizable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 105). Outliers were found but were not influential.

Statistical analysis.

Data set preparation. Tests were conducted on data items to ensure that they were ready for regression. Cronbach's alpha was used to determine scale reliability (Cronbach, 1951; Peterson, 1994). The minimum value established for Cronbach's alpha was 0.7 (DeVellis, 2016). Table 3.4 summarizes the hypotheses, tests, variables, and source of items in the survey.

Descriptive statistics. To respond to Research Question 1, descriptive statistics were developed for all 100 elements of the survey. Descriptive statistics included frequency (count, percent), central tendency (mean, median, mode), dispersion (range, variance, standard deviation), and position (percentile, decile, quartile, rank). Beyond demographics, descriptive statistics produced data that were used to form an overall profile of respondents' perceptions on

Table 3.4

Hypotheses, Tests, Variables, and Survey Source

Hypothesis	Test	Variable	Survey Source
H1 Gender, nationality and training will influence business ethics perceptions	*t*-tests, Mann-Whitney *U* tests	IVs: Sex, nation, training DV: BEP scale (business ethics perceptions)	Q. 21–23 with elements of Q. 25
H2 Women will perceiver higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties than men	*t*-test, Mann-Whitney *U* test	IV: Sex DV: GWP scale (gender-related workplace penalties)	Q. 22.5, 22.9, 25.2, 25.3, 30.3, 30.5
H3 Individuals who receive annual ethics training will be less likely to observe proposal ethics violations in their workplaces than those who receive no training	*t*-test, Mann-Whitney *U* test	IV: Training DV: PEV scale (proposal ethics violations perceptions)	Q. 21, 23, 25.6
H4 Perceptions of distributive justice inequity will be higher among women than men	*t*-test, Mann-Whitney *U* test	IV: Sex DV: DJ scale (distributive justice)	Q. 32.1, 32.2, 32.6, 32.9, 34.3, 34.5, 34.6
H5 Perceptions of three dimensions of organizational justice moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, will influence job satisfaction	Hierarchical multiple regres-sion, principal component analysis	IV: DJ, PJ, IJ DV: JOBSAT Moderator: WPT Control: Sex	OJ = elements of Q. 21, 22, 23, 30, 32, 34 JOBSAT = Q. 34 WPT = Q. 31

every issue included in the survey, including workplace behavior, ethics, training, gender equity, employer ethicality, seriousness of workplace challenges, and job satisfaction.

Inferential statistics. Two types of inferential statistics were used in this study. To answer H1 through H4, independent samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* test were used, as illustrated in Figure 3.2. These tests are ideal for determining differences between predictor groups measuring their influence on dependent variables in binary relationships.

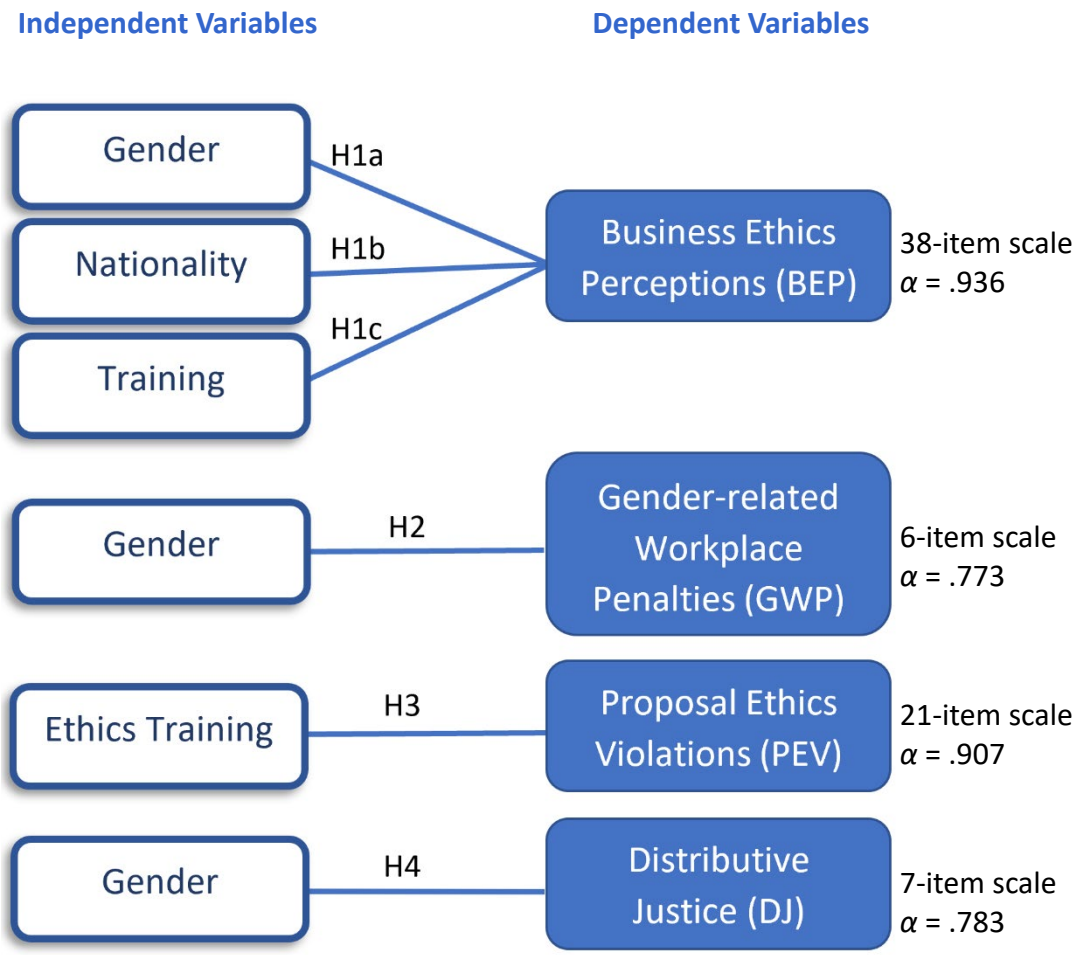


Figure 3.2. Independent samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests were used to test H1 through H4.

The second type of test used was moderated hierarchical multiple regression, which was used to test H5. This test was used to determine how three independent variables, (gender,

nationality, and training) influenced the dependent variable, JOBSAT). Multiple regression was the optimal test because it allowed me to test the predictive power of these three independent variables as a group and also individually, to determine the effect of workplace treatment as a moderator, and to simultaneously control for gender. This relationship is illustrated in Figure 3.3.

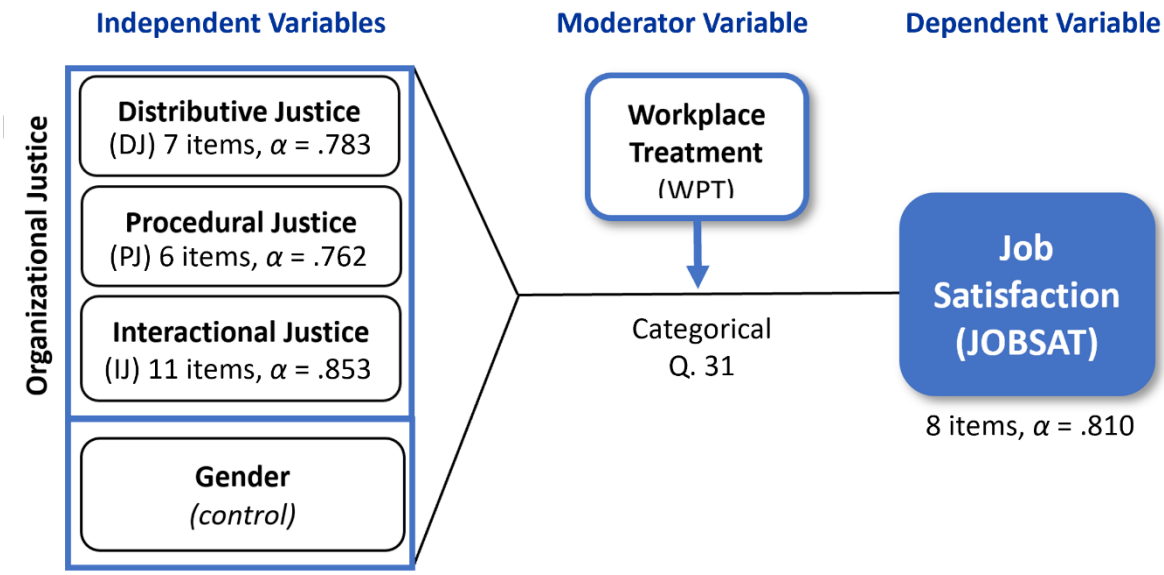


Figure 3.3. H5 moderated hierarchical multiple regression: Influence of gender, nationality, and training on job satisfaction, controlled for gender and moderated by workplace treatment.

Principal component analysis. To further explore the larger variables, including BEP (38 items) and the combined organizational justice variables (24 items), I used principal component analysis (PCA) to identify underlying relationships and subscales. This exploratory process measures the total variance of each item and uses orthogonal and oblique rotation to reshape the scales by aligning like items. The realigned variables aid interpretation by reducing dimensionality (grouping aligned items into components) and by ordering the resultant components based on the amount of variation preserved from the original dataset (high to low).

Summary

Chapter 3 provided the methodology for examining the perceptions of business ethics, workplace treatment, and job satisfaction of members of APMP, the only organization representing proposal development professionals. This quantitative study used an online cross-sectional survey instrument to gather data for analysis with SPSS statistical software 24th and 26th edition to produce descriptive and inferential statistics. This study also includes a qualitative analysis of respondent comments provided in response to open-ended survey questions. The purposes of this research are to add to the business ethics literature by examining a previously unstudied population and to provide a research-based foundation of member perceptions as a baseline for APMP's business ethics training and certification program.

This chapter presented the research purpose and questions, a summary of the literature review, and resultant research hypotheses. It then discussed the research design, sampling plan, instrumentation development and testing, as well as data collection, ethics, validity and reliability, all intended to increase the statistical power of analysis and the quality of subsequent conclusions. The chapter also examined research limitations and the risks and benefits to respondents and concluded with a summary of the tests to be performed. Quantitative results are presented in Chapter 4, qualitative results in Chapter 5, and conclusions and implications in Chapter 6.

This page intentionally left blank.

CHAPTER 4: QUANTITATIVE ANALYSIS

This study was undertaken to examine the business ethics, workplace treatment, and organizational justice perceptions of proposal development professionals, and the impact of those perceptions on job satisfaction. The study also sought to determine whether gender, nationality, and receipt of annual ethics training influenced participant perceptions, as well as evaluate the impact of gender on perceptions of workplace penalties and distributive justice inequity.

Through my membership in APMP, I was able to access and survey this population of approximately 7,500 professionals. As discussed in Chapter 1, APMP is an international accrediting association representing individuals who conduct business development through the preparation of competitive bid proposals. Through their work, proposal professionals are responsible for influencing an estimated $1.4 trillion in competitive procurements each year globally, and as such, may experience significant workplace ethics challenges. This population has never been formally studied to examine its working environment, perceptions, or ethics challenges. In addition to its potential contributions to the literature on business ethics perceptions and organizational behavior, this study also supported APMP's efforts to establish the profession's first certification program in business ethics by providing the first broad view of member experiences.

Introduction and Overview

This chapter is organized in five sections shown in Table 4.1. First, the chapter opens with a summary of the study methodology, followed by the characteristics of the participants and a description of how the data file was prepared for analysis, and a description of all variables used in this study. Next, I provide the response to the research questions and hypotheses in sequence. Those results are presented as follows:

- ***Research Question 1 (R1)—Total Sample Perceptions.*** This section provides descriptive statistics on the perceptions of the total sample of proposal professionals relative to business ethics and organizational justice, including the results of each survey question.
- ***Research Question 2 (R2)—Business Ethics Perceptions by Respondent Group.*** This section tests three hypotheses within R2 that examine how subpopulations within the total sample perceive ethics issues. To test H1, subgroups are examined based on gender (H1a), nationality (H1b), and whether or not respondents receive annual ethics training (H1c). This section also examines whether women in the sample perceive higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties than men (H2), and whether individuals who receive annual ethics training perceive fewer proposal-specific ethics violations (H3). Each hypothesis is based on relevant literature and seeks to determine how one group perceives a set of issues vs. another.
- ***Research Question 3 (R3)—Organizational Justice Perceptions and Job Satisfaction.*** The final research question examines whether distributive justice equity is perceived differently by men and women (H4). In H5, I use hierarchical multiple regression to examine how perceptions of organizational justice, moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, influence job satisfaction (H5). This section also uses principal component analysis (PCA) to further clarify organizational justice constructs and develop new reliable scales.

Chapter 4 closes with a summary of results and a conclusion. Table 4.1 provides an overview of the structure and contents of this chapter. Scale variables listed in Table 4.1 are described in Table 4.2, later in this chapter.

Table 4.1

Chapter 4 Structure, Content, Research Questions, and Hypotheses

Chapter Section	Research Questions and Hypotheses	Analytical Process	Variables
	Introduction and Overview		
Summary of Methods			
Characteristics of Participants			
Data Preparation and Case Validation			
Variables Used in this Study			
Study Results			
	R1—Total Sample Perceptions		
	R1: What are the perceptions of proposal development professionals with regard to business ethics and organizational justice?	Descriptive	n/a
	R2—Business Ethics Perceptions by Respondent Subgroup		
	R2: How do gender, nationality, and training influence the business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals?		
	H1a: Women will perceive higher occurrences of business ethics violations in the workplace than men.	*t* test M-W *U* test[a]	sex, BEP
	H1b: Nationality will influence business ethics perceptions (BEP) of proposal development professionals.	*t* test M-W *U* test	nation, BEP
	H1c: Individuals who receive annual ethics training will observe fewer general business ethics violations than those who receive no training.	*t* test M-W *U* test	training, BEP
	H2: Women will perceive higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties (GWP) than men.	*t* test M-W *U* test	sex, GWP
	H3: Individuals who receive annual ethics training will be less likely to observe proposal ethics violations (PEV) in their workplaces than those who receive no training.	*t* test M-W *U* test	training, PEV
	R3—Organizational Justice Perceptions and Job Satisfaction		
	R3: How do perceptions of organizational justice influence job satisfaction?		
	H4: Perceptions of distributive justice inequity will be higher among women than men.	*t* test M-W *U* test	sex, DJ
	H5: Individual perceptions of three dimensions of organizational justice, moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, will influence job satisfaction.	MHMR[b] PCA[c]	sex, DJ, PJ, IJ, WPT, JOBSAT
Summary and Conclusion			

Note: [a]Mann-Whitney *U* test; [b]moderated hierarchical multiple regression; [c]principal component analysis

Summary of Methods

The research design selected for this study is nonexperimental and uses a cross-sectional survey for data collection. It examines a global population of a specific category of workers by examining a segment responding to a survey. I conducted data collection through an anonymous online survey administered to APMP members. Using relevant literature, I constructed a 100-item survey containing 37 questions, many of which were multipart and included opportunities for open-ended comments. A copy of the survey questionnaire is included in Appendix A.

Institutional Review Board Approval

This study's survey required approval by the Hood College Institutional Review Board (IRB) as well as by the APMP Member Research Committee. The APMP Member Research Committee comprised individuals in Washington, DC, and London who had reviewed and commented on the survey during its development, while the Hood College IRB reviewed the survey without prior involvement. After addressing questions raised by both groups and strengthening statements on respondent confidentiality, I received approval to proceed in May 2018. Material related to the IRB process and informed consent are included in Appendix D.

Pilot Testing

Following IRB approval, the survey was piloted by Hood College MBA capstone students at the George B. Delaplaine Jr. School of Business. The students were all adults, many with years of professional experience, and in the final stages of completing their MBA program. They were asked to take the survey and comment on its content, readability, length, and clarity of wording. The pilot group found no major problems and no questions were deleted or added. No content changes were made, but the wording of some questions was clarified based on pilot group suggestions.

Data Collection

After the survey was pilot-tested, APMP emailed a survey invitation to every member for whom it had a valid email address on May 10, 2018. The invitation included information on the purpose of the survey, a confidentiality statement, a link to the survey, my identification and college affiliation, a statement of research purpose, the role of the survey in my degree pursuit, and APMP's endorsement and encouragement to participate. To encourage participation, APMP offered one professional continuing education credit to members for taking the survey. APMP CEU credits are valuable and required for maintaining professional certification. Because the survey was anonymous, respondents self-reported their participation on the APMP website to receive credit.

The survey launch coincided with the association's annual conference, May16–18, 2018, attended by 900 members. Returns for bad email addresses and unsubscribe requests reduced the survey recipient population to 7,403. There was a 0.007% "bounce rate," resulting in successful survey email invitation delivery to 7,351 recipients. Throughout the four-day conference, the survey was promoted at multiple plenary sessions by the association's CEO. By the end of the first week, 804 responses had been received and over the next three weeks, an additional 250 were received. Of the 7,351 APMP members contacted, 1,254 responded, a 17.1% response rate. APMP members in 40 countries participated, representing all 26 international chapters.

Significance of Study

This study is the first of its kind in the bid and proposal industry, whose workforce leads and supports global contract procurements valued at an estimated $1.4 trillion annually. As such, they are involved in the sale of corporate goods and services. These workers include full-time and part-time employees and self-employed persons in at least 40 countries. This study builds on

work done as early as the 1950s on the ethics challenges experienced by sales personnel (Baumhart, 1961, Chonko & Burnett, 1983; French & Raven, 1959; Hoffman et al., 1991; Pearson, Barker, & Elliott, 1957; Valentine, 2009; Wotruba 1990). Subjects in these early studies bear a work relationship to our sample because proposal development is essentially a sales and marketing function in 21st century corporations. This study has also been valuable to APMP in understanding the issues and concerns of its global membership, and in developing appropriate programming to meet members' needs, including the development of a professional ethics certification program by the organization.

Summary of Study Variables

Variables used in this study are summarized in Table 4.2. Each of the four categorical variables and seven scale variables is further discussed as results of the study are presented later in this chapter.

Table 4.2

Summary of Variables Used in Inferential Statistical Analysis

Variable Name	Hypotheses	Variable Function	Level of Measure	SPSS Description	Survey Questions[a]
Gender	H1a, H2, H4, H5	Independent	Categorical	sex	Q. 16
Nationality	H1b	Independent	Categorical	nation	Q. 12
Annual Ethics Training	H1c, H3	Independent	Categorical	training	Q. 19
Distributive Justice	H4, H5	Independent/ Dependent	Scale	DJ	Q. 32, 34
Procedural Justice	H5	Independent	Scale	PJ	Q. 22, 25, 30, 32
Interactional Justice	H5	Independent	Scale	IJ	Q. 22, 32, 34
Job Satisfaction	H5	Primary Dependent	Scale	JOBSAT	Q. 34
Business Ethics Perceptions	H1a, H1b, H1c	Dependent	Scale	BEP	Q. 21–23, 25
Proposal Ethics Violations	H3	Dependent	Scale	PEV	Q. 21, 23, 25
Gender-related Workplace Penalties	H2	Dependent	Scale	GWP	Q. 22, 25, 30
Workplace Treatment	H5	Moderator	Categorical	WPT	Q. 31

Note: [a]Survey questionnaire is provided in Appendix A.

Characteristics of Participants

Demographic data on all 1,254 survey respondents are presented in this section. These data are followed by an analysis showing the similarity of valid case participant characteristics to those of the total sample. Because the total cases and valid cases are so similar in terms of percentages, I am presenting demographic data in this section for the total case group to provide the broadest possible view of those who contributed, because this study is the first in this profession. However, for all inferential statistical analyses, I used only the 1,113 valid cases.

The first three demographic elements presented in this section, gender, nationality, and annual ethics training, are the primary independent variables in R2.

Gender—Of 1,242 respondents, 814 (65.5%) reported their sex as female, 413 (33.3%) reported as male, one (0.08%) selected "Other," and 14 (1.1%) selected "No answer." These percentages are nearly identical to 2020 demographics of total APMP membership (Appendix E).

Nationality (1,239 responses)—840 respondents (65.4%) stated that their home country was the United States (Table 4.3). APMP demographics contemporaneous with the 2018 survey were not available for comparison; however, a January 2020 APMP demographics survey reported that 55% of members are from the United States and 45% live in other countries. The next largest contingents of this study's respondents were from the UK (177, 14.1%), Canada (65, 5.2%), Australia and South Africa (36 each, 2.9%), Germany (17, 1.4%), Netherlands (16, 1.3%), and India (15, 1.2%). Respondents reported a total of 40 home countries, as listed in Appendix C. APMP is an organization founded in the United States that in the past decade has expanded its membership globally, so it is not surprising that the majority response was from the United States, particularly as the survey coincided with the organization's 2018 international conference, held in San Diego. Home country information was requested to determine whether the ethics

perceptions in different parts of the world would vary. Because of the small numbers responding from many individual countries outside the United States, the survey sample was divided into U.S. and non-U.S. groups for analysis (see p. 203 and Figure 4.2.)

Table 4.3

Respondent Home Country

Country	*n*	Percentage (%)
United States	820	65.4[a]
United Kingdom	177	14.1
Canada	65	5.2
Australia	36	2.9
South Africa	36	2.9
Germany	17	1.4
Netherlands	16	1.3
India	15	1.2
All other	72	5.7
Total:	1,254	100.0

Note: [a]By comparison, an APMP member demographics survey in January 2020 reported 55% U.S. and 45% non-U.S. membership (see Appendix E).

Training (1,242 responses)—As shown in Table 4.4, 62.6% of respondents received annual ethics training. Most (57.4%) took this training online, while 4.2% received instructor-led training. Of the remaining respondents, 18.3% reported receiving training only when they were hired or only every few years, and 19.1% received no ethics training at all. This question was asked to determine whether annual ethics training was significant in influencing ethics perceptions among participants, and whether there were perceptual differences based on receipt of annual training. It was also collected to enable me to compare results from this professional group to literature determining that annual ethics training decreased the number of ethics violations witnessed in a work environment (Warren et al., 2014).

Table 4.4

Annual Ethics Training Received

Annual ethics training	*n*	Percentage (%)
Yes, annual computer-based training	720	57.4
Yes, annual instructor-led training	52	4.2
Not really: I only receive training when I was hired, every few years, or it was a while ago	230	18.3
No training is provided	240	19.1
Answered	1,242	99.0
No answer	12	1.0
Total:	1,254	100.00

Training efficacy. Most respondents did not feel that their ethics training was effective. In response to survey Question 20, 54% of respondents said that training was ineffective, slightly effective, or only somewhat effective, while only 11.9% said that their annual ethics training was very effective and useful in their work. This result has strong implications for this study and for APMP's efforts to develop an ethics certification program for this profession. Respondent perceptions of training efficacy will also be measured against the results of Hypothesis 3, reported later in this chapter.

Age/Generation (1,242 responses)—Five generations responded to the survey, as illustrated in Table 4.5. Age categories used in this study were defined by the Society for Human Resources Management (SHRM) in its national employee job satisfaction surveys (Society for Human Resource Management, 2017, 2018) and were calculated at the time of the survey in 2018. Respondents between 39 and 53 years old in 2018, Generation X, comprised the largest group at 41.1%, with baby boomers and millennials representing the next largest categories.

Table 4.5

Respondent Generation and Age

Generation/Birth Years	Age in 2018 (years)	*n*	Percentage (%)
Generation Z (born 1995 and after)	23 and younger	6	0.5
Millennials (born 1980–1994)	24–38	343	27.4
Generation X (born 1965–1979)	39–53	516	41.1
Baby Boomers (born 1945–1964)	54–73	369	29.4
Veterans (born before 1945)	74 and older	8	0.6
Answered		1,242	99.0
No answer		12	1.0
	Total:	1,254	100.00

Note: Generation percentages are similar to those of total APMP membership (Appendix E).

Race/Ethnicity (1,242 responses)—Most survey respondents (79.2%) reported their race as white/non-Hispanic, as shown in Table 4.6. The next largest category was "Prefer not to answer," with 4.9%. All other categories, including Black/African American (4.0%) and Asian/Asian-American (4.5%) were smaller. Table 4.6 lists all races and ethnicities reported. There were 11 "Other" responses that were either recoded into existing categories or listed separately in Table 4.6.

These results correspond in many categories to the results of a member demographics study conducted by APMP in January 2020. That survey reported 79.1% white/Caucasian, 6.7% Asian/Asian American, 3.1% African American, 2.8% Hispanic, and 5.6% "Other."

While most respondents (867, 69.1%) reported that they were the same race/ethnicity as their supervisor, 265 (21.1%) said they were not, 43 (3.4%) did not know, and 67 (5.3%) did not have a supervisor. Information on race was requested to make it possible to determine whether there were any correlations with responses to questions on perceived discrimination; however, 93.8% never or rarely observed such discrimination (see Table 4.27, Question 22.10).

Table 4.6

Respondent Race/Ethnicity

Race/ethnicity	*n*	Percentage (%)
White/non-Hispanic	994	79.26
Prefer not to answer	62	4.94
Asian/Asian-American	57	4.54
Black/African American/African	51	4.06
Mixed race/ethnicity	33	2.63
Hispanic	27	2.15
Native American	7	0.55
Middle Eastern	6	0.47
Indian	1	0.08
Sephardic/Ashkenazi Jewish	1	0.08
South African Indian	1	0.08
Digital Amish	1	0.08
"Human Race"	1	0.08
Answered	1,242	99.00
No answer	12	1.00
Total:	1,254	100.00

Education (1,239 responses)—The survey respondents comprise a well-educated professional group. Eighty-five percent (84.9%) of respondents hold college degrees, including 63 (5.0%) associate degree (or technical school equivalent) recipients, 537 (42.8%) bachelor's degree recipients, 444 (35.4%) master's degree recipients and 20 (1.6%) doctoral degree recipients. One hundred forty-two respondents (11.3%) reported having attended college without completing a degree. Responses included 51 in the "Other" category, most of which reported non-U.S. equivalents of U.S. education levels. These were examined and recoded into the survey categories, as appropriate. An example of this type of entry is the 3-year British or EU category of bachelor's degree, which was recoded as equivalent to a 4-year U.S. degree of the same name. Table 4.7 reflects the reallocated totals. See Appendix E for comparison to total APMP data.

Table 4.7

Highest Education Level Achieved

Education level	*n*	[a]Percentage %
High school graduate	33	2.6
Attended college, no degree	142	11.3
Associate degree (2-year, or technical school graduate)	63	5.1
Bachelor's or Honors degree (3-year or 4-year)	537	42.8
Master's degree or Juris Doctor	444	35.4
Doctoral degree	20	1.6
Answered	1,239	98.8
Not answered	15	1.2
Total:	1,254	100.0

Note: [a]Percentages are similar to education data compiled for all APMP membership (Appendix E).

Years of professional experience (1,246 responses)—Survey respondents had a combined 16,094 years of experience in the bid and proposal industry, with a mean of 12.9 years and a median of 11.0 years.

Employment (1,241 responses)—Eighty-four percent (84.0%) worked full-time for a single employer, while 11.7%, the next largest category, worked as consultants or independent contractors, and 1.4% reported working part-time, as reflected in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

Range of Employment Levels for Proposal Professionals

Level of employment	*n*	Percentage (%)
Employed full-time by a single employer	1054	84.0
Employed part-time by a single employer	18	1.4
Independent contractor, consultant, or self-employed, working for one or more clients	147	11.7
Unemployed, looking for work	11	0.8
Retired but working	7	0.5
Retired, but volunteering or mentoring	4	0.3
Answered	1,241	98.97
Not answered	13	1.03
Total:	1,254	100.00

As shown in Table 4.9, 65.2% of respondents reported working in traditional corporate office settings; 25.6% worked from home; and 7.1% worked in client offices or "on the road." Almost all, 98.4%, reported working in their home countries. This information was requested because of its potential impact on the availability of ethics training in a respondent's workplace, and because workers who work in multiple client offices and those who work from home may experience different levels of exposure to ethical challenges, as well as to ethical responses that are well modeled by training.

Table 4.9

Employment Setting

Employment location	*n*	Percentage (%)
In my home country, working in my employer's offices	818	65.2
In my home country, traveling or working in client offices	89	7.1
In my home country, working from home	320	25.5
Working outside my home country	20	1.6
Answered	1,247	99.4
No answer	7	0.6
Total:	1,254	100.00

Company size (1,243 respondents)—Responses were distributed across the spectrum, from single-person companies and firms smaller than 10 persons (11.0%) to companies with 25,000 or more employees (20.7%), as shown in Table 4.10. The sample was evenly divided between large and small companies, with 50.5% of those answering this question working in companies larger than 2,500 and 49.5% worked in companies of smaller size. This information was requested because company size could potentially impact the availability, quality, or frequency of ethics training; the level of investment in proposal resources, oversight, and security; and could also impact the range of ethical or unethical experiences witnessed by respondents.

Table 4.10

Company Size

Number of employees	*n*	Percentage **%**
1–10	138	11.0
11–100	103	8.2
101–500	187	14.9
501–2,500	193	15.4
2,501–10,000	232	18.5
10,001–25,000	130	10.4
Greater than 25,000	260	20.7
Answered	1243	99.1
No answer	11	0.9
Total:	1,254	100.00

Professional role (1,239 responses)—Among 11 job categories offered on the survey, 714 respondents (57.0%) selected "proposal manager" as their most frequently performed professional role. Other response totals included 96 proposal authors or specialists, e.g., résumé specialists (7.7%); proposal coordinator with administrative responsibilities (7.3%); business development manager with responsibility for success of the pursuit (6.2%); production manager leading a group of personnel (4.3%). All other roles, including oral presentation preparation coaches ("orals coaches"), estimators, graphic artists, evaluators, corporate executives and business owners, reported less than 4% each.

One hundred twenty-two respondents (9.8%) selected "Other" as their response. Using the descriptions of their roles provided by these 122 respondents and my knowledge of the industry, I was able to include 103 of these respondents in the original categories, reflecting the numbers cited in Table 4.11. In most cases, the role classification terminology was different, but the roles themselves were the same. Examples include "capture manager," which was coded as "business development or capture lead," and "bid lead," which was coded as "proposal manager."

Table 4.11

Current Role on a Proposal Team

Proposal role	*n*	Percentage (%)
Proposal director, responsible for multiple proposal managers	39	3.1
Proposal manager, planning and leading a large group of contributors	714	57.0
Proposal author, technical writer or editor	96	7.7
Proposal coordinator providing administrative or database services	91	7.3
Business development or capture lead responsible for the pursuit	77	6.2
Production manager, managing a group of production specialists	54	4.3
Individual contributor, e.g., graphic artist or subject matter expert	42	3.3
Own/work for a company that provides proposal services or software	37	3.0
Corporate executive pursuing business through proposals	35	2.8
Volume captain, leading a small number of authors	17	1.4
Cost estimator, procurement, or contract specialist	13	1.1
Reviewer/evaluator	12	1.0
Orals preparation coach	3	0.2
Perform multiple roles simultaneously; one-person shop	19	1.2
Answered	1,249	99.6
No answer	5	0.4
Total:	1,254	100.00

Because 39 “Other” respondents described their role as a proposal center director managing multiple proposals and proposal managers, a new category of “proposal director” was added. This category corresponds to standard descriptions in APMP literature (Newman, 2011) and describes a position with greater managerial and fiscal responsibility than that of a proposal manager. The remaining 19 responses (1.5%) represented individuals who routinely performed two or more roles, including individuals in a one-person office who perform all roles, and those who were self-described “jacks-of-all-trades.”

Respondents reported a mean of 8.7 years in their current role, indicating a strong understanding of their job requirements and conditions. Information on proposal role was requested because it reflects worker positionality within an organization and could impact the degree of autonomy perceived by respondents. It was also requested to determine the

professional range of respondents, i.e., whether responses were clustered within a specific professional role, and to support APMP in framing its planned ethics certification program.

Organizational category (1,250 responses)—Many respondents stated that they held an organizational position with some autonomy in decision-making (Table 4.12). In the largest response category of respondents nearly half self-identified as corporate middle management, indicating that they were managers, supervisors, or proposal center directors. Professional non-management, e.g., writers, graphic artists, or subject matter experts, represented one-quarter of responses, while non-management contributors such as proposal coordinators or assistants, represented 15.4%. Individuals who work as independent consultants or who own their own business comprised 12.3% of respondents, and 2.8% selected "Executive level." When aligned with responses to other questions, this information was useful in determining how much authority respondents have in establishing and following ethical practices, responding to ethics challenges, or otherwise controlling their ethical environment.

Table 4.12

Respondent Organizational Category

Level	*n*	Percentage (%)
Middle management (e.g., manager, supervisor, director)	563	44.9
Professional nonmanagement (e.g., writer, artist, SME)	305	24.3
Nonmanagement contributor (e.g., assistant, coordinator, specialist)	193	15.4
Own my own business, self-employed, or consultant	154	12.3
Executive level (e.g., CEO, CFO)	35	2.8
Answered	1,250	99.7
No answer	4	0.3
Total:	1,254	100.0

Certification (1,240 responses)—Fifty-seven percent (57.3%) reported having earned some level of APMP certification, with most (43.5%) having earned the basic Foundation level,

as shown in Table 4.13. Information on certification was requested because it reflects a level of professional engagement and diligence and familiarity with professional codes and standards.

Table 4.13

Respondents Holding APMP Certification

Certification level	*n*	Percentage %
APMP member, no certification	510	40.7
Foundation level	545	43.5
Practitioner	112	8.9
Professional	52	4.1
Fellow, no certification	11	0.9
Fellow with certification	10	0.8
Answered	1,240	98.9
No answer	14	1.1
Total:	1,254	100.00

Collectively, the demographic information presented in the preceding 14 tables addresses one of the primary research purposes of this study, which is to present a profile of respondents as a representative sample of the proposal development professional population.

Data Preparation and Case Validation

This section includes descriptions of the preparation of raw survey data, the criteria used to determine case validity, the characteristics of the resultant valid cases, a comparison of effective sample to the total sample, and a description of all variables.

Data from SurveyMonkey were downloaded to SPSS version 24. A similar download was made to Excel to create spreadsheets for visual review. In Excel, it was easily determined that a majority of respondents answered most or all of the questions. A minority of the cases (134, 10.6%) provided answers either solely to demographic questions, or to demographics and a minimal number of remaining questions. Those cases contained little or no information relating to the study's ethics questions or ethics-related variables and were eliminated from the SPSS file.

A second review was undertaken in Excel to determine if passive nonengaged respondent cases were present (Rogelberg et al., 2003; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). Each of 1,254 spreadsheet lines was visually examined for answers that fit patterns such as all "1" or all "3" responses on 5-item Likert scale question. Six cases were identified in which respondents answered "1" on several Likert scale questions, indicating, for example, that they had never witnessed the queried ethics violations, or that they did not believe that a situation represented a problem. However, these answers proved to be consistent with the respondents' answers to other questions, including reverse-coded items, and these cases were retained in the dataset.

Finally, seven cases were found to be missing responses to two multi-part questions on compensation and job satisfaction. Although these cases were complete in all other respects, they were excluded from the valid cases because of the importance of perceptions of these factors to this study.

After deleting cases that did not complete the survey beyond demographics or that did not complete compensation and job satisfaction or other key variable questions, the final number of valid surveys was 1,113, representing 88.7% of the original sample. Surveys were considered valid if they contained all demographic information, were ≥ 95% complete, and contained responses for all major DVs and IVs. This is a conservative approach, taken to increase data quality. This approach was possible in this case because, although the number of case deletions was higher than 10%, the size of the remaining sample was sufficient to ensure high statistical power. During analyses, if any of the valid cases were found to be missing an item, I used pairwise deletion in SPSS (Little & Rubin, 2019; Peugh & Enders, 2004). This procedure removes only the missing values and not the entire case, preserving as much data as possible for analysis. None of the excluded cases in the effective sample contained text responses to

open-ended questions, strengthening the quality of the comparison of results between Chapter 4 (quantitative results) and Chapter 5 (qualitative results).

Demographic Comparison of Valid Cases to All Survey Responses

Table 4.14 provides a comparison of the demographics and professional experience of the 1,113 valid cases, comparing them to the total survey respondents. This comparison indicates that there is strong demographic consistency between the valid cases and the total sample, meaning that results obtained using the valid cases could be generalized to the survey population as a whole. Differences included 0.5% more females in the valid case group, 1.2% more baby boomers, and 1.5% more U.S. participation. The percentage of college-degreed respondents was slightly lower in the valid case group (78.3%) than in the total sample (79.8%). The valid case group had fewer proposal managers (55.2% vs. 57.0%) and proposal writers or authors (7.3% vs. 7.7%).

Although the valid case group comprised respondents with fewer years of membership in APMP than the full survey sample (median 2.0 years vs. 3.0), valid cases reported higher levels of APMP certification (63.2% vs. 57.3%), indicating stronger professional engagement. While the valid case group reported higher levels of annual ethics training (63.2% vs. 62.6%), its perception of the quality of that training was lower: Only 9.4% of valid cases believed that their ethics training was effective and useful in their work, compared to 11.9% in the total sample.

Unless otherwise specified, the valid case number (1,113) has been used as the basis for analysis.

Table 4.14

Demographic Comparison of Valid Cases to Full Survey Sample

Demographic characteristic	Valid cases (%) *n* = 1,113	Full sample *n* = 1,254
Gender (%)		
Male	32.8	33.3
Female	66.0	65.5
Other/No answer	1.2	1.2
Nationality (%)		
United States	66.9	65.4
Non-U.S.	33.1	34.6
Ethics Training (%)		
Received annual ethics training (%)	Yes = 63.2, No = 36.7	Yes = 62.6, No = 37.4
Training is very effective and useful (%)[a]	9.4	11.9
Age in 2018 (%)		
Millennial (24–38)	27.3	27.4
Generation X (39–53)	41.1	41.1
Baby Boomer (54–73)	30.6	29.4
Race (%)		
White	80.6	79.2
Asian/Asian-American	4.3	4.5
African/African American	4.2	4.0
Education (%)		
Bachelor's degree	41.5	42.8
Master's degree	35.3	35.4
Doctoral degree	1.5	1.6
Employed full time (%)		
Employed full-time, one employer	84.6	84.0
Independent contractor	12.1	11.7
Job title (%)		
Proposal manager	55.2	57.0
Proposal writer/author/editor	7.3	7.7
Job tier (%)		
Middle management	45.7	44.9
Professional non-management	24.3	24.3
Experience (years)		
Years of professional experience	*Med.* = 10.8, μ = 13.0	*Med.* = 11.0, μ = 12.9
Years in current role	*Med.* = 6.1, μ = 8.7	*Med.* = 7.0, μ = 8.7
Years of APMP membership	*Med.* = 2.0, μ = 4.8	*Med.* = 3.0, μ = 4.7
APMP certification (%)		
All certification levels	63.2	57.3
No certification	36.7	42.7

Note: [a]This item was not used in inferential statistical analysis.

Variables Used in This Study

Categorical Independent Variables

Categorical IVs established for this study included gender (sex), nationality, and whether or not respondents received annual ethics training. The survey question on nationality asked respondents to report their home countries. Because 66.9% of the valid case responses specified "United States," this variable was coded as U.S. or non-U.S. Similarly, the survey question "Do you receive annual ethics training?" had four response options; these responses were coded as Yes (computer-based or instructor-led), and No (no annual training received). These variables were recoded to facilitate interpretation, and to better delineate the relationship between the reference group (coded "1") and the alternate group (coded "0"). For example, in Question 12, respondents who answered that the United States was their home country were coded "1" and all other responses were coded "0". In Question 19 on training, the two Yes options were coded "1" and the two No responses were coded "0". Table 4.15 summarizes the descriptive statistics for the categorical independent and moderator variables in this study.

Table 4.15

Summary Descriptive Statistics of Categorical Independent and Moderator Variables

Categorical Variable	Survey Question	Frequency n = 1,113	Percentage	Coding Description
Gender *(sex*, IV*)*	Q. 16	378	34% Male	0 = Male
		735	66% Female	1 = Female
Nationality *(nation*, IV*)*	Q. 12	367	33% Non-U.S.	0 = Non-U.S.
		743	67% U.S.	1 = U.S.
Ethics Training *(training*, IV*)*	Q. 19	409	37% Did not receive annual training	0 = No
		704	63% Received annual training	1 = Yes
Workplace Treatment *(WPT*, moderator*)*	Q. 31	291	26% Never experienced unfair treatment	0 = No
		822	75% Experienced unfair treatment	1 = Yes

Categorical Moderator Variable

In addition to categorical IVs, this study also includes a categorical moderator variable that identifies whether or not respondents have experienced unfair treatment in the workplace. This variable, described in Table 4.15, was used in the regression analysis of Hypothesis 5 to determine how strongly it moderated the relationship between the organizational justice variables and job satisfaction. Question 31 provided the source material for this variable. It asked respondents to describe the effect that experiencing unfair treatment in the workplace had on them. The first response option, "I have never experienced unfair treatment in the workplace," was selected by 291 respondents. The remaining 822 respondents selected one or more of eight possible options and/or wrote open-ended comments describing their experiences. Therefore, this variable was coded "0" for the 291 who had never experienced unfair treatment, and "1" for the 822 who had. The 92 text responses to this question are further explored using qualitative analysis in Chapter 5.

Scale Variables: Content and Measurement

Using the literature cited in Chapter 2, I developed multi-item scales to measure the perceptions of proposal professionals related to the hypotheses under investigation. This section presents the contents, descriptive statistics, and rationale for each of those seven scales, which functioned as IVs and DVs during testing. They are presented in the order in which they appear in they hypotheses. These variables included scales measuring perceptions related to general business ethics (BEP); gender workplace penalties (GWP); proposal ethics violations (PEV); the three primary areas of organizational justice—distributive (DJ), procedural (PJ) and interactional justice (IJ)—as well as perceptions relating to job satisfaction (JOBSAT), the primary DV for this study. Each of these variables was constructed using Likert scale survey questions with

ordinal response options (answers ranging from 1 to 5) treated as scale. The use of Likert scales follows standard practice in social science research (Creswell, 2012).

In selecting questions to formulate scale items, I used published sources wherever possible. For example, the Global Business Ethics Survey (ECI, 2018) provided questions for the business ethics perception scale, while the SHRM annual membership survey (Society for Human Resource Management, 2017) provided questions on job satisfaction and established the generational definitions and resulting age ranges used in this study. Questions from these and other sources that relate to organizational justice were used to develop scales for distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. Sources included Leventhal (1976a, 1976b) for distributive justice; Thibaut and Walker (1975) and Leventhal (1980) for procedural justice; and Bies and Moag (1986) for interactional justice, including its interpersonal and informational subcomponents. Questions on gender workplace penalties were drawn from the dominant issues cited in literature reviewed in Chapter 2.

Tables 4.16 and 4.17 present descriptive statistics for scales used in this study. Table 4.16 presents the scales' Cronbach's alpha scores, which ranged from a low of .762 to a high of .936. All scale variables exceeded $\alpha = .701$, suggesting that they are internally consistent, adequately measure the variable constructs (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), and are considered sufficiently reliable for social science research (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2014). Streiner (2003) stated that $\alpha > .900$ scores may indicate question redundancy, which could be the case; the two scales with scores greater than .900 are the longest, at 21 and 38 items (the use of principal component analysis on these scales to reduce duplicate constructs is discussed later in this chapter). However, other research cites scale length as an asset, adding to the strength of the Cronbach's alpha assessment (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). In either case, all scales were below .950,

indicating general acceptability (Bland & Altman, 1997; DeVellis, 2016; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

Table 4.16

Scale Variables: Reliability and Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Cronbach's alpha	Scale Items	Valid Frequency	Valid Percentage	Mean	Median	SD	Mean Inter-item Correl.
Business Ethics Perceptions (BEP)	.936	38	1049	94.2	72.67	69	20.34	.298
Gender-Related Workplace Penalties (GWP)	.773	6	1105	99.3	14.57	14	5.18	.370
Proposal Ethics Violations (PEV)	.907	21	1079	96.9	34.67	32	11.04	.355
Distributive Justice (DJ)	.783	7	1102	99.0	23.45	24	5.47	.342
Procedural Justice (PJ)	.762	6	1106	99.4	21.02	21	4.84	.496
Interactional Justice (IJ)	.853	11	1092	98.1	39.49	40	7.36	.351
Job Satisfaction (JOBSAT)	.810	6	1095	98.4	21.53	22	5.13	.427

Skewness and kurtosis values are presented in Table 4.17. Normal distribution would produce skewness and kurtosis values of zero, with positive skewness indicating an accumulation of cases on the left (low values), and negative skewness indicating a larger number of cases on the right (high values) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 68). Kurtosis values above zero indicate peaked distribution; values less than zero indicate flat curves. In large samples (above 200), however, the impact of both skewness and kurtosis is "not as important as its actual size…and visual appearance of the distribution" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 70). Because skewness and kurtosis were present, I used both parametric and nonparametric testing during analysis.

Table 4.17

Scale Variables: Skewness and Kurtosis

Scale Name	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Kurtosis Std. Error
Business Ethics Perceptions (BEP)	1.019	.073	1.559	.147
Gender-Related Workplace Penalties (GWP)	.254	.073	-.619	.147
Proposal Ethics Violations (PEV)	1.494	.073	3.415	.147
Distributive Justice (DJ)	-.293	.073	-.235	.147
Procedural Justice (PJ)	-.218	.073	-.408	.147
Interactional Justice (IJ)	-.499	.073	.071	.147
Job Satisfaction (JOBSAT)	-.460	.073	-.256	.147

Business Ethics Perception (BEP). This scale is broad and inclusive and was structured to capture respondent perceptions in a wide range of ethics areas, including general business activities, proposal-specific activities, and gender and interpersonal treatment. It is the largest of the seven scales in this study and has a high reliability score ($\alpha = .936$), demonstrating strong internal consistency. Scale content was developed using the Global Business Ethics Survey (ECI, 2018) and from my career ethics observations. BEP items are included in three survey questions with identical 5-point Likert construction, with response options ranging from "Never Observed" to "Very Frequently Observed." Response options in this scale were arrayed such that the highest scores indicating the most negative response to the question, e.g., the most frequent experiences or observances of overwork, demoralizing treatment, or verbal abuse. Two items that were directionally positive were reversed for use in this scale.

This scale contains 38 items, some of which are also used in PEV and GWP. For that reason, these three scales were not used in combination in inferential statistical analysis. BEP was used in *t* tests with gender, nationality, and training to address H1a, H1b, and H1c. Table 4.18 lists the items in the BEP scale and the corresponding survey questions.

Table 4.18

Business Ethics Perceptions (BEP) Scale

Business Ethics Perceptions	Item	Question
Inappropriate use of a competitor's information	*competinfo*	Q. 21.1
Using one client's material on another client's proposal	*clientmatrl*	Q. 21.2
Failure to establish an ethics standard at kickoff meetings	*kickoff*	Q. 21.3
Bidding key personnel who will not work on the contract	*keyperson*	Q. 21.4
Exaggerations or omissions on resumes	*resumes*	Q. 21.5
False or low pricing of bids/tenders	*lowprice*	Q. 21.6
Misrepresenting past performance information	*pastperf*	Q. 21.7
Bidding what is known to be an undeliverable solution	*solution*	Q. 21.8
Theft of bid/proposal materials	*theft*	Q. 21.9
Confidentiality breaches	*confidential*	Q. 21.10
Violating noncompete/nondisclosure agreements	*NDA*	Q. 21.11
Failure to pay bid/proposal workers	*failtopay*	Q. 21.12
Violating national laws to win foreign business	*violatehome*	Q. 21.13
Verbal abuse or other intimidating behavior	*IJ-verbal*	Q. 22.1
Emotional exhaustion	*IJ-exhaust*	Q. 22.2
Overwork and burnout	*IJ-burnout*	Q. 22.3
Hostile work environment	*IJ-hostile*	Q. 22.4
Fewer promotions/lower pay based on gender	*GWP-genderpay*	Q. 22.5
Alcohol/drug abuse in the workplace	*ETOH*	Q. 22.6
Demoralizing treatment by a supervisor	*IJ-demoralize*	Q. 22.7
Inappropriate sexual behavior in the workplace	*IJ-inappsex*	Q. 22.8
Sexual harassment	*GWP-sexharass*	Q. 22.9
Discrimination in hiring or rewards based on race, religion, nationality, or age	*PJ-discrim*	Q. 22.10
Lying to customers, partners, or employees	*lying*	Q. 23.1
Travel or expense account abuse	*travel*	Q. 23.2
Falsifying timecards; adding hours not worked	*timecard*	Q. 23.3
Breaking or failing to fulfill a contract	*contract*	Q. 23.4
Illegal activity, e.g., bribery, fraud	*illegal*	Q. 23.5
Conflict of interest violations	*COI*	Q. 23.6
Failure to deliver what was bid	*failtodeliver*	Q. 23.7
Discrimination based on race, ethnicity, nationality or religion is a problem in the proposal industry	*PJ-discprob*	Q. 25.1
Sexual misconduct/harassment disadvantaging women occurs in the proposal industry	*GWP-sexmiscond*	Q. 25.2
Gender discrimination affecting pay/promotion disadvantages women in the proposal industry	*GWP-genderdisc*	Q. 25.3
Discrimination based on age is a problem in the proposal industry	*PJ-agedisc*	Q. 25.4
Discrimination based on sexual orientation is a problem in the proposal industry	*PJ-orientdisc*	Q. 25.5
Ethical misconduct occurs in proposal industry	*ethmiscond*	Q. 25.6
The company I work for is ethical	*(R)ethicomp*	Q. 25.7R
My boss behaves in an ethical way at work	*(R)ethicboss*	Q. 25.8R

Because of the size and content of this 38-item scale, it seemed probable that the scale represented more than one construct. Therefore, I used principal component analysis (PCA) to see if any subscales would emerge and, if so, how the items would align. This was done solely for exploratory purposes and to aid interpretation. PCA, which retains and analyzes the entire variance, was chosen over factor analysis (FA) because it is regarded as the better choice to produce "an empirical summary of the data set" Tabachnick & Fidell (2019, p. 498). If desired for future research, this scale could be subjected to FA, which would retain and analyze only the covariance and reduce the number of items through serial rotations; for the current exploratory analysis, it was sufficient to know what constructs were there.

The suitability of the data for PCA was assessed prior to analysis. Normality was assessed by skewness and kurtosis. Linearity was found to be present on scatterplot inspection. There was an absence of influential outliers. Inspection of the correlation matrix showed that all variables had at least one correlation coefficient greater than 0.3, indicating that factorability. The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure was .937. Most of the individual KMO measures were greater than 0.5, classified as "marvelous" to "meritorious" according to Kaiser (1974). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistically significant ($p < .001$), supporting factorability.

PCA revealed seven components that had eigenvalues greater than 1.0, collectively explaining 60.6% of the total variance. The interpretation of the data was consistent with aspects of business ethics practiced and experienced in the workplace by proposal professionals. Items relating to proposal misconduct loaded on Component 1, explaining 32.55% of the total variance; discrimination items (Component 2, 8.84%); workplace toxicity (Component 3, 5.33%); legal violations (Component 4, 4.16%); observed personal misconduct (Component 5, 3.95%); violations of proprietary policies (Component 6, 3.01%); and conclusionary assessments

of ethicality (Component 7, 2.76%). Component loadings and communalities of the solution are presented in Table 4.19, along with the Cronbach's alpha of the seven components.

Visual inspection of the scree plot indicated that four components should be retained if further analysis is considered (Cattell, 1966). The four-component solution explained 59.6% of the total variance. Varimax orthogonal and Promax oblique rotations were employed to aid interpretability. The rotated solutions did not exhibit simple structure (Thurstone, 1947) due to cross-loading. Both rotations indicated that some of the categories shown in Table 4.19 include items that could be deleted, thereby reducing overall scale length. However, because the objective of using PCA was exploratory, I have included all seven components in Table 4.19, as they may be helpful in interpreting this study's findings or in future research.

Table 4.19

PCA of BEP Scale: Component Structure, Loadings, Communalities, and Reliability of Subscales

Business Ethics Perceptions Scale Components	Cronbach's alpha	Item	Component Loading	Commun-alities
1. Proposal Misconduct (32.55% of total variance)	α = .829			
Exaggerations or omissions on resumes		*resumes*	.734	.650
Misrepresenting past performance information		*pastperf*	.672	.630
Bidding key personnel who will not work on the contract		*keyperson*	.664	.502
Bidding what is known to be an undeliverable solution		*solution*	.604	.530
False or low pricing of bids/tenders		*lowprice*	.601	.546
Failure to establish an ethics standard at kickoff meetings		*kickoff*	.498	.381
Lying to customers, partners, or employees		*lying*	.445	.599
2. Discrimination (8.84% of total variance)	α = .873			
Discrimination based on race, ethnicity, nationality or religion is a problem in the proposal industry		*PJ-discprob*	.800	.675
Discrimination based on sexual orientation is a problem in the proposal industry		*PJ-orientdisc*	.788	.655
Sexual misconduct/harassment disadvantaging women occurs in the proposal industry		*GWP-sexmiscond*	.785	.730
Gender discrimination affecting pay/promotion disadvantages women in the proposal industry		*GWP-genderdisc*	.783	.697
Discrimination based on age is a problem in the proposal industry		*PJ-agedisc*	.704	.553
Ethical misconduct occurs in proposal industry		*ethmiscond*	.641	.566
Discrimination in hiring or rewards based on race, religion, nationality, or age		*PJ-discrim*	.363	.481

Business Ethics Perceptions Scale Components	Cronbach's alpha	Item	Component Loading	Commun-alities
3. Workplace Toxicity (5.33% of total variance)	α = .887			
Emotional exhaustion		*IJ-exhaust*	.843	.790
Overwork and burnout		*IJ-burnout*	.815	.742
Verbal abuse or other intimidating behavior		*IJ-verbal*	.670	.689
Hostile work environment		*IJ-hostile*	.669	.703
Demoralizing treatment by a supervisor		*IJ-demoralize*	.593	.672
Fewer promotions/lower pay based on gender		*GWP-genderpay*	.479	.533
4. Legal Violations (4.16% of total variance)	α = .805			
Breaking or failing to fulfill a contract		*contract*	.692	.638
Illegal activity, e.g., bribery, fraud		*illegal*	.661	.505
Violating national laws to win foreign business		*violatehome*	.624	.491
Conflict of interest violations		*COI*	.570	.598
Travel or expense account abuse		*travel*	.543	.546
Failure to deliver what was bid		*failtodeliver*	.500	.568
Falsifying timecards; adding hours not worked		*timecard*	.498	.454
Failure to pay bid/proposal workers		*failtopay*	.378	.321
5. Observed Personal Misconduct (3.95% of variance)	α = .807			
Sexual harassment		*GWP-sexharass*	.810	.798
Inappropriate sexual behavior in the workplace		*IJ-inappsex*	.792	.787
Alcohol/drug abuse in the workplace		*ETOH*	.541	.462
6. Violations of Proprietary Rules/Policy (3.01% of variance)	α = .763			
Confidentiality breaches		*confidential*	.695	.723
Theft of bid/proposal materials		*theft*	.657	.590
Inappropriate use of a competitor's information		*competinfo*	.615	.604
Violating noncompete/nondisclosure agreements		*NDA*	.594	.586
Using one client's material on another client's proposal		*clientmatrl*	.464	.426
7. Conclusionary Ethical Assessments (2.76% of variance)	α = .810			
The company I work for is ethical		*(R)ethicomp*	.863	.806
My boss behaves in an ethical way at work		*(R)ethicboss*	.860	.799

Gender-Related Workplace Penalties (GWP). This six-item scale (Table 4.20) assembles items from throughout the survey that apply to the topic of gender-related workplace penalties as described in the literature referenced in Chapter 2. These penalties may include lower pay (Bertrand et al., 2010; Flores, 2016), fewer promotions (Blau & DeVaro, 2006; Ibarra, Carter & Silva, 2010; Joshi, Son, & Roh, 2015), exposure to sexual harassment or other physical or psychological mistreatment, or financial penalties related to family responsibilities (Budig & England 2001; England, Bearak, Budig & Hodges, 2016). Items in Question 22 were structured with five options ranging from "Never Observed" to "Very Frequently Observed." Questions 25 and 30 were structured with five options ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to Strongly Agree."

Table 4.20

Gender-Related Workplace Penalties (GWP) Scale

Gender-related Workplace Penalties	*Item*	Question
Seen or experienced fewer promotions/lower pay based on gender	*GWP-genderpay*	Q. 22.5
Seen or experienced sexual harassment	*GWP-sexharass*	Q. 22.9
Sexual misconduct/harassment disadvantages women in the proposal industry	*GWP-sexmiscond*	Q. 25.2
Gender discrimination affecting pay/promotion disadvantages women in the proposal industry	*GWP-genderdisc*	Q. 25.3
There are gender obstacles to my career success	*GWP-obstacl*	Q. 30.3
Family responsibilities have limited my professional opportunities	*GWP-famlimit*	Q. 30.5

Respondents could answer these questions based on personal experience or personal observations. A higher-numbered response option indicated a more negative experience or observation. This scale contains items present in other scales but was not used with those scales in inferential statistics. Cronbach's alpha for this scale is .773, indicating acceptable reliability (DeVellis, 2016).

Proposal Ethics Violations (PEV). The 21 items in the PEV scale shown in Table 4.21 are drawn from BEP but represent a subset focusing solely on a proposal professional's ethical responsibilities. This scale moves away from the area of general business practice into the specific environment of proposal work. It includes activities that are within the purview of proposal professionals and consistent with standard industry practice (Newman, 2011). This scale was developed prior to conducting PCA, however, its contents include items grouped by PCA as Component 1 (proposal misconduct); Component 4 (legal violations); and Component 6 (violations of proprietary rules or policy), as shown previously in Table 4.19. The PEV scale is focused on proposal-related ethics violations and excludes items related to discrimination, workplace toxicity, and the observed personal misconduct of others. For example, questions relating to discriminatory workplace practices for employee hiring or promotion are included in BEP but excluded from PEV because they represent workplace actions of others such as human

Table 4.21

Proposal Ethics Violations (PEV) Scale

Proposal Ethics Violations	Item	Question
Inappropriate use of a competitor's information	*competinfo*	Q. 21.1
Using one client's material on another client's proposal	*clientmatrl*	Q. 21.2
Failure to establish an ethics standard at kickoff meetings	*kickoff*	Q. 21.3
Bidding key personnel who will not work on the contract	*keyperson*	Q. 21.4
Exaggerations or omissions on resumes	*resumes*	Q. 21.5
False or low pricing of bids/tenders	*lowprice*	Q. 21.6
Misrepresenting past performance information	*pastperf*	Q. 21.7
Bidding what is known to be an undeliverable solution	*solution*	Q. 21.8
Theft of bid/proposal materials	*theft*	Q. 21.9
Confidentiality breaches	*confidential*	Q. 21.10
Violating noncompete/nondisclosure agreements	*NDA*	Q. 21.11
Failure to pay bid/proposal workers	*failtopay*	Q. 21.12
Violating national laws to win foreign business	*violatehome*	Q. 21.13
Inappropriate use of a competitor's information	*lying*	Q. 23.1
Travel or expense account abuse	*travel*	Q. 23.2
Falsifying timecards; adding hours not worked	*timecard*	Q. 23.3
Breaking or failing to fulfill a contract	*contract*	Q. 23.4
Illegal activity, e.g., bribery, fraud	*illegal*	Q. 23.5
Conflict of interest violations	*COI*	Q. 23.6
Failure to deliver what was bid	*failtodeliver*	Q. 23.7
Ethical misconduct occurs in bid/proposal industry	*ethmiscond*	Q. 25.6

resources professionals or senior management over which proposal professionals generally have no control. In contrast, the appropriate handling of a competitor's information or the exclusion of false statements from a proposal are universally recognized as being within a proposal professional's responsibility.

Table 4.21 contains PEV scale items and their survey question source. Because this scale contains items that are also included in BEP, the two scales were not used together in inferential statistical analysis. PEV is constructed using a 5-point Likert format with questions asking, "How often have you personally observed these situations during your work in the bid and proposal industry?" This scale has high reliability ($\alpha = .907$).

Organizational justice scales. As described in Chapter 3, the intent at the outset of this study was to use a single organizational justice scale to measure proposal professionals' perceptions. As has been noted in the literature, organizational justice scales have presented challenges for researchers from their inception (Colquitt, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001). Some researchers have concluded that because of high correlations (> .72), the distributive and procedural justice constructs may be more similar than dissimilar (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2000; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1992; Welbourne, Balkin & Gomez-Mejia, 1995). Almost from the outset, interactional justice has suffered the same fate, with researchers divided as to whether it is one construct or two (Colquitt et al., 2001), and whether it is even distinct from procedural justice, based on high correlations (Konovsky & Folger, 1991; Mansour-Cole & Scott, 1998). To provide construct clarity, I initially segmented the OJ scale into four categories representing distributive, procedural, interpersonal, and informational justice, hoping that the four constructs could be used as distinct IVs or in combination as unified organizational justice scale. However, during data preparation, it became evident that a unified organizational justice scale did not function well as a variable with the survey questions I had selected, and that the constructs would have to be used independently. Further, in contrast to findings by Colquitt et al. (2001), the two elements of interactional justice (informational and interactional justice) did not display sufficient independence in this dataset to be used separately and were therefore combined. The paragraphs that follow describe the organizational justice scales used in this study along with survey questions generated by organizational justice literature.

Distributive Justice (DJ). Distributive justice is considered to be the strongest determinant of job satisfaction among the organizational justice constructs (Colquitt et al., 2001). The underlying concept is fairness theory (Homans, 1961). The DJ scale, shown in Table 4.22,

Table 4.22

Distributive Justice (DJ) Scale

Distributive Justice	Item	Question
I am paid fairly for work compared to others	*DJ-fairpay*	Q. 32.1
I have access to good information to determine how fairly I am paid	*DJ-goodinf*	Q. 32.2
My performance matters in my salary increases	*DJ-perform*	Q. 32.6
The hours I'm scheduled to work are reasonable for the work I'm expected to do	*DJ-hours*	Q. 32.9
When I do a good job, I am noticed and given credit	*DJ-noticed*	Q. 34.3
When we win, the people deserve it are given full credit	*DJ-credit*	Q. 34.5
My role has a lot of opportunity for promotion	*DJ-promote*	Q. 34.6

measures respondent perceptions not only on compensation, but also on the perceived fairness of compensation relative to a comparative other (Adams, 1965; Carrell & Dittrich, 1978; Greenberg, 1982, 1989), how closely it is linked to gender (Sweeney & McFarlin, 1997), performance (Deutsch, 1975), and to less tangible concepts such as the fair distribution of credit for work well done (Graham & Cooper, 2013) and the respondent's perception of having an ability to rise in the organization (Blau & DeVaro, 2006; Ibarra, Carter & Silva, 2010; Joshi, Son, & Roh, 2015). These scale items were drawn from Questions 32 and 34, in which a higher score on a 5-item Likert scale indicated a more strongly positive response. The scale has a Cronbach's alpha score of .783, indicating acceptable reliability (DeVellis, 2016), with a mean inter-item correlation of .342, indicating acceptable strength (Cristobal, 2007; Piedmont, 2014).

Procedural Justice (PJ). This scale contains six items and has a Cronbach's alpha score of .762, indicating acceptable reliability (DeVellis, 2016), and a mean inter-item correlation of .353, indicating acceptable correlation strength (Cristobal, 2007; Piedmont, 2014). This scale, shown in Table 4.23, measures perceptions about workplace conditions that occur when formally established or legally required procedures are not followed, such as when discrimination occurs against workers based on age or ethnicity. Questions were drawn from

Table 4.23

Procedural Justice (PJ) Scale

Procedural Justice	Item	Question
Observed or experienced discrimination in hiring or rewards based on race, religion, nationality, or age	*(R)PJ-discrim*	Q. 22.10R
Discrimination based on race, ethnicity, or religion is a problem in the proposal industry	*(R)PJ-discprob*	Q. 25.1R
Age discrimination is a problem in the industry	*(R)PJ-agedisc*	Q. 25.4R
Sexual orientation discrimination is a problem in the industry	*(R)PJ-orientdisc*	Q. 25.5R
People of opposite sex are promoted and paid more	*(R)PJ-oppsex*	Q. 30.1R
Where I work, politics determines pay	*(R)PJ-politics*	Q. 32.5R

work by Thibaut and Walker (1975), Leventhal (1980), Dittrich & Carrell (1978), Greenberg (1990), Alexander and Ruderman (1987) and Colquitt et al. (2001) and include concepts related to discrimination as a failure to implement or adhere to established organizational procedures. Two questions relating to compensation are included here rather than in the DJ scale because they address perceptions relating to the processes for determining compensation, and whether or not those processes result in compensation fairness.

Procedural justice was shown to be the second strongest determinant of job satisfaction among organizational justice components in the large meta-analysis of organizational justice literature done by Colquitt et al. (2001). This study also demonstrates the difficulty of differentiating between organizational justice constructs and in creating survey questions and scales that distinguish variables, isolate underlying effects, and correctly attribute causation. In a separate study published in the same year, Colquitt (2001) examines the dimensionality of organizational justice as a construct and notes that the practice in studies of "attributing the same principles to procedural and interactional justice blurs the construct boundary between them" and "may account for the high procedural–interactional justice correlations in measures that follow Folger and Bies's (1989) dimensions" (p. 390). My efforts to segregate the two constructs led to

a procedural justice scale that included items related to discrimination (resulting from a failure to apply labor law and human resources policies) and on situations such as office politics playing a role in promotion. In both cases, established procedures were perceived not to have been followed. The emphasis in the procedural justice scale is on procedural adherence, while in the interactional justice scale, it is on interpersonal treatment and information exchange.

Response options in the questions relating to procedural justice were directionally negative, with the highest score on a 1–5 scale indicating the outcome most detrimental to the respondent. Therefore, because the other scales used in the hierarchical multiple regression (DJ, IJ, and JOBSAT) were directionally positive, items in this scale were reversed when used in inferential statistics.

Interactional Justice (IJ). The interactional justice scale shown in Table 4.24 comprises questions measuring informational justice and interpersonal justice, the two subcomponents of interactional justice (Colquitt et al., 2001). Questions were drawn from work by Bies and Moag (1986), Folger and Bies (1989), Greenberg (1990), and Colquitt (2001), and were tailored to a proposal production environment. The 11-item scale has good reliability, as indicated by a Cronbach's alpha score of .853 (DeVellis, 2016). As previously stated, care was taken to ensure clarity and differentiation from the procedural justice scale. Questions 32 and 34 were structured with five answer options ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to Strongly Agree," with the highest score indicating the most positive response. In contrast, Question 22 offered five responses ranging from "Never Observed" to "Very Frequently Observed." In each case with Question 22 responses, a higher response on a 1–5 scale indicated that the respondent had more frequently experienced or seen a negative workplace behavior. Therefore, the Question 22 responses were reverse coded for use in this scale so that a high score reflected a positive outcome. This action

Table 4.24

Interactional Justice (IJ) Scale

Interactional Justice	Item	Question
Verbal abuse or intimidating behavior	*(R)IJ-verbal*	Q. 22.1(R)
Emotional exhaustion	*(R)IJ-exhaust*	Q. 22.2(R)
Overwork and burnout	*(R)IJ-burnout*	Q. 22.3(R)
Hostile work environment	*(R)IJ-hostile*	Q. 22.4(R)
Demoralizing treatment by a supervisor	*(R)IJ-demoralize*	Q. 22.7(R)
Inappropriate sexual behavior in the work environment	*(R)IJ-inappsex*	Q. 22.8(R)
Sexual harassment	*(R)IJ-sexharass*	Q. 22.9(R)
Process for raises/promotions is explained to me and fair	*IJ-explained*	Q. 32.4
Supervisor provides honest explanation for raise	*IJ-honestboss*	Q. 32.7
My role (job title) is highly respected and deferred to on a proposal team	*IJ-role*	Q. 32.8
On bid/proposal teams, I am listened to/respected	*IJ-respect*	Q. 34.1

made the scale consistent in direction with the other organizational justice scales (DJ, PJ) and with the scale for the primary DV, job satisfaction (JOBSAT).

During construction and testing of this scale, one item did not perform as expected. This item, "I have good access to good information to determine how fairly I am paid," was the second in a series of four positively framed statements in Question 32. Based on its content, it was anticipated to correlate well with other informational justice items, but it did not, displaying inter-item correlations of .037 to .084 with seven other scale items. For this reason, this item was omitted from the final IJ scale used in inferential statistics. A seemingly similar informational justice item in the same four-question series, "The process for determining who gets raises and promotions has been explained to me and is fair," was more strongly correlated (.192 to .573) and was retained. Mean inter-item correlation on the final scale was .351 indicating acceptability (Cristobal, 2007; Piedmont, 2014).

Job Satisfaction (JOBSAT). Job satisfaction is the primary DV in this study. The core questions comprising this six-item scale were derived from 2017 Society for Human Resource Management job satisfaction survey, surveys on sales personnel (Churchill et al., 1974; Pearson et al., 1957; Rutherford et al., 2009), job satisfaction research (Herzberg et al., 1959), and from

scale comparisons in Colquitt (2001) and Colquitt et al. (2001). Most of the JOBSAT scale items are directionally positive; the two that were not were reversed, as shown in Table 4.25. Core elements of this scale are frequently used to measure job satisfaction, and the scale a Cronbach's alpha score of .810, indicating moderately strong internal consistency (DeVellis, 2016). This scale can be used with others in inferential statistics because it contains no items used in the DJ, PJ, IJ, and GWP scales.

Table 4.25

Job Satisfaction (JOBSAT) Scale

Job Satisfaction	Item	Question
I get a feeling of accomplishment from my job	*SAT-accomp*	Q. 34.2
I feel valued by senior management	*SAT-valued*	Q. 34.4
I would like to change my bid/proposal role and perform a different role	*(R)SAT-rolechange*	Q. 34.7R
I would like to leave my job in the next year	*(R)SAT-leavejob*	Q. 34.8R
I am satisfied with my income	*SAT-income*	Q. 34.9
I am satisfied with my job	*SAT-jobsat*	Q. 34.10

Study Results

The results of this study are presented in three subsections reflecting the three research questions with content organized from general to specific. Variables and analytical procedures are described in relation to each question.

Research Question 1: Total Sample Perceptions

R1: *What are the perceptions of proposal development professionals with regard to business ethics and organizational justice?*

This question addresses the fundamental exploratory purpose of this study—to establish an ethics perception baseline in an unstudied population—and is answered through a descriptive statistical examination of responses to survey Questions 21 through 36. The tables that follow present the question, subquestions, responses (*n* and percentages), means, and standard deviations. Each is framed by its purpose, literature reference, and question source, if published.

Question 21. Proposal ethics challenges.

Question 21 was the first on the survey to ask respondents to think about ethics in their professional practice. Of interest is the fact that this is the point where a majority of the 134 questionnaire dropouts occurred. After answering the demographic questions, those respondents stopped when ethics questions were asked.

The ethics challenges in Question 21 are ones that proposal professionals are likely to have encountered in their daily work. Violations of industry practice are important because they can compromise the integrity of a competitive procurement and make it impossible for a purchaser, whether commercial or government, to fairly evaluate the quality of the bids or tenders. Understanding how frequently proposal professionals observe violations of procurement-related ethical practices is valuable to understanding the profession, its challenges, defining any need for training, and determining how effective training may be. The questions start simply (knowingly mishandling proprietary information) and move to more complex situations that respondents are less likely to have encountered (ethics violations in international settings). Table 4.26 presents the results.

The respondents' answers reveal a strong positioning to the left of the scale, indicating that they have never or only rarely observed the stated violation, as also evidenced by the low mean values. The strongest response in this category was to the question regarding violating one's home country ethical or legal requirements in order to win bids in another country, which 93.7% never observed. This result is partially explained by responses to Question 10, which found that only 1.6% of respondents worked outside their home countries (see Table 4.9). The second strongest response was to the question of theft of proposal materials, which 84.4% of respondents never observed.

Table 4.26

Question 21: Proposal Ethics Challenges

	1 Never Observed	2 Rarely Observed	3 Occasionally Observed	4 Often Observed	5 Very Frequently Observed	Mean	SD
21.1 Inappropriate use of a competitor's proprietary information *(competinfo)*							
n=1113	638	326	123	20	6	1.58	0.79
%	57.3%	29.3%	11.1%	1.8%	0.5%		
21.2 Using one client's material on a future client's bid/proposal *(clientmatrl)*							
n=1109	535	231	182	121	40	2.00	1.18
%	48.1%	20.8%	16.4%	10.9%	3.6%		
21.3 Failure to establish a standard of ethics at bid/proposal kickoff meetings *(kickoff)*							
n=1106	396	204	154	171	181	2.58	1.50
%	35.6%	18.4%	13.8%	15.5%	16.4%		
21.4 Bidding key personnel who do not intend to work on the contract *(keyperson)*							
n=1110	355	293	284	127	51	2.30	1.16
%	32.0%	26.4%	25.6%	11.4%	4.6%		
21.5 Exaggerations or omissions on resumes *(resumes)*							
n=1108	523	310	197	57	21	1.86	1.00
%	47.2%	28.0%	17.8%	5.1%	1.9%		
21.6 False or intentionally low pricing of bids or tenders *(lowprice)*							
n=1110	652	292	107	41	18	1.63	0.91
%	58.7%	26.3%	9.6%	3.7%	1.6%		
21.7 Misrepresenting past performance information *(pastperf)*							
n=1108	645	304	104	42	13	1.62	0.88
%	58.2%	27.4%	9.4%	3.8%	1.2%		
21.8 Bidding a solution you don't believe you can deliver *(solution)*							
n=1113	511	326	203	55	18	1.87	0.98
%	45.9%	29.3%	18.2%	4.9%	1.6%		
21.9 Theft of bid or proposal materials *(theft)*							
n=1108	935	117	34	6	16	1.24	0.67
%	84.4%	10.6%	3.1%	0.5%	1.4%		
21.10 Confidentiality breaches or misuse of confidential information *(confidential)*							
n=1113	821	223	46	10	13	1.35	0.71
%	73.8%	20.0%	4.1%	0.9%	1.2%		
21.11 Violations of non-compete or non-disclosure agreements *(NDA)*							
n=1111	863	178	52	11	7	1.30	0.66
%	77.7%	16.0%	4.7%	1.0%	0.6%		
21.12 Failure to pay for bid/proposal services or underpaying bid/proposal workers *(failtopay)*							
n=1112	812	137	88	49	26	1.50	0.97
%	73.0%	12.3%	7.9%	4.4%	2.3%		
21.13 Violating one's home country laws/ethics to win business in another country *(violatehome)*							
n=1111	1041	50	16	3	1	1.08	0.36
%	93.7%	4.5%	1.4%	0.3%	0.1%		

Note: n indicates the number of responses out of 1,113 valid cases.

The most frequently observed violation was linked to a basic responsibility of proposal managers—to set a standard of ethics for the proposal team at proposal kickoff meetings. Nearly 60% of our sample stated that the proposal role they most frequently performed was either proposal manager or proposal director (see Table 4.11), yet 31.9% of Question 21 respondents reported that they "Often" or "Very Frequently" observed a failure to establish this standard when a proposal was launched.

Question 22: Workplace behavior and treatment.

Questions 21 and 22 examine different sets of experiences. Unlike the previous question, which focused on practices that can impair procurements and negatively impact business entities, Question 22 asks respondents about workplace behaviors that produce negative or damaging outcomes that are experienced and sometimes deeply felt by individuals. It describes situations created or imposed by others and therefore involves worker positionality. This question elicited some of the strongest (highest scoring) responses, indicating that there are significant workplace challenges in the industry that are experienced with high frequency and intensity by proposal workers, such as burnout and emotional exhaustion.

Conversely, there are several areas (sexual harassment, inappropriate sexual behavior, alcohol/drug abuse, and certain types of discrimination) that between 60% and 73% of respondents have never observed. Items from Question 22 contribute to the following scales: BEP, GWP, PJ, and IJ. Table 4.27 provides response totals for this question set.

Table 4.27

Question 22: Workplace Behavior and Treatment

	1 Never Observed	2 Rarely Observed	3 Occasionally Observed	4 Often Observed	5 Very Frequently Observed	Mean	SD
22.1 Verbal abuse or other intimidating behavior *((R)IJ-verbal)*							
n=1112	312	370	313	86	31	2.23	1.03
%	28.1%	33.3%	28.1%	7.7%	2.8%		
22.2 Emotional exhaustion *((R)IJ-exhaust)*							
n=1108	112	193	404	272	127	3.09	1.12
%	10.1%	17.4%	36.5%	24.5%	11.5%		
22.3 Overwork and burnout *((R)IJ-burnout)*							
n=1110	39	156	377	345	193	3.44	1.04
%	3.5%	14.1%	34.0%	31.1%	17.4%		
22.4 Hostile work environment *((R)IJ-hostile)*							
n=1109	341	368	272	88	40	2.20	1.07
%	30.7%	33.2%	24.5%	7.9%	3.6%		
22.5 Fewer promotions and lower pay based on gender *(GWP-genderpay)*							
n=1108	343	273	243	166	84	2.43	1.27
%	30.9%	24.6%	21.9%	15.0%	7.6%		
22.6 Alcohol/drug abuse in the workplace *(ETOH)*							
n=1112	772	248	74	11	7	1.41	0.71
%	69.4%	22.3%	6.7%	1.0%	0.6%		
22.7 Demoralizing treatment by a supervisor *((R)IJ-demoralize)*							
n=1113	346	352	278	90	47	2.22	1.10
%	31.1%	31.6%	25.0%	8.1%	4.2%		
22.8 Inappropriate sexual behavior in the work environment *((R)IJ-inappsex)*							
n=1113	677	284	112	31	9	1.57	0.84
%	60.8%	25.5%	10.1%	2.8%	0.8%		
22.9 Sexual harassment *(GWP-sexharass) ((R)IJ-sexharass)*							
n=1110	739	224	98	20	9	1.48	0.79
%	66.6%	22.0%	8.8%	1.8%	0.8%		
22.10 Discrimination in hiring or rewards based on race, religion, nationality, or age *(PJ-discrim)*							
n=1111	705	220	112	44	30	1.62	0.99
%	73.8%	20.0%	4.1%	0.9%	1.2%		

Note: n indicates the number of question responses out of 1,113 valid cases.

Question 23: Business ethics violations.

The ethics violations covered by this question are ones that could occur in any type of business environment and are not specific to proposal work beyond their general business connection. As Table 4.28 shows, more than 80% of responses to each question fall in the "Never Observed" or "Rarely Observed" categories, with the exception of travel or expense account

abuse (Question 23.2), which recorded higher observations. A striking 99% of respondents reported never or rarely observing any overtly illegal activity (Question 23.5). Of interest also is the reporting on failure to deliver what was bid (Question 23.7). This question speaks to the ethics of the companies bidding a contract and has outcomes similar to Question 21.8, bidding a solution you know you cannot deliver. These decisions are beyond the control of many proposal professionals, who are nevertheless impacted by having to experience unethical practices they are not able to prevent because of their position in the organization's hierarchy.

Table 4.28

Question 23: Business Ethics Violations

	1 Never Observed	2 Rarely Observed	3 Occasionally Observed	4 Often Observed	5 Very Frequently Observed	Mean	SD
23.1 Lying to or misleading customers, teaming partners, or employees *(lying)*							
n=1112	609	334	123	29	17	1.66	0.88
%	54.8%	30.0%	11.1%	2.6%	1.5%		
23.2 Travel or expense account abuse *(travel)*							
n=1108	535	231	182	121	40	2.00	1.18
%	48.1%	20.8%	16.4%	10.9%	3.6%		
23.3 Falsifying timecards; adding hours not worked *(timecard)*							
n=1112	812	211	69	15	5	1.37	0.70
%	73.0%	19.0%	6.2%	1.3%	0.4%		
23.4 Breaking or failing to fulfill a contract *(contract)*							
n=1111	773	275	56	4	3	1.36	0.62
%	69.6%	24.8%	5.0%	0.4%	0.3%		
23.5 Illegal activity, e.g., bribery, fraud *(illegal)*							
n=1113	1026	76	8	2	1	1.09	0.34
%	92.2%	6.8%	0.7%	0.2%	0.1%		
23.6 Conflict of interest violations *(COI)*							
n=1112	821	229	43	14	5	1.33	0.65
%	73.8%	20.6%	3.9%	1.3%	0.4%		
23.7 Failure to deliver what was bid *(failtodeliver)*							
n=1111	557	376	137	33	8	1.70	0.84
%	58.2%	27.4%	9.4%	3.8%	1.2%		

Note: n indicates the number of question responses out of 1,113 valid cases.

Question 24: Seriousness or importance of these issues to the proposal industry.

In this question, respondents were asked to rate the seriousness of the issues included in Questions 21–23 to the proposal industry. Among the three choices, as shown in Table 4.29, respondents believed that workplace behavior and treatment are of greatest importance to the industry (μ = 2.80), followed by ethics challenges directly related to proposal work (μ = 2.42).

Table 4.29

Question 24: Seriousness or Importance of These Issues to the Proposal Industry

	1 Not a Problem	2 Minor Problem	3 Moderate Problem	4 Serious Problem	5 Very Serious Problem	Mean	SD
24.1 Proposal Ethics Challenges (Q. 21)							
n=1100	317	292	279	128	84	2.42	1.23
%	28.8%	26.5%	25.4%	11.6%	7.6%		
24.2 Workplace Behavior and Treatment (Q. 22)							
n=1103	229	254	270	207	143	2.80	1.31
%	20.8%	23.0%	24.5%	18.8%	13.0%		
24.3 Business Ethics Violations (Q. 23)							
n=1101	384	300	196	116	105	1.32	1.30
%	34.9%	27.2%	17.8%	10.5%	9.5%		

With few exceptions, survey questions regarding personal behavior and treatment elicited more responses on the higher end of the 1–5 scale than those concerning proposal or business ethics violations. This may indicate that respondents had experienced interactional justice–related violations to a greater degree than they had experienced procedural justice violations, or it could mean that with equal exposure to personal mistreatment and general ethics violations, the personal mistreatment is more deeply felt and longer remembered. Either way, this set of perceptions provides valuable information to APMP in its effort to construct an ethics certification program. A summary of respondents' perception of the relative importance of proposal ethics violations, workplace treatment, and business ethics violations was captured in Table 4.30, indicating respondents' belief that workplace treatment was most important.

Table 4.30

Distribution of Responses: Questions 21–24

	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis[a]
Question 21: Proposal Ethics Violations				
13 items	1.69	0.91	1.86	5.41
Question 22: Workplace Behavior and Treatment				
10 items	2.17	1.00	0.90	0.95
Question 23: Business Ethics Violations				
7 items	1.43	0.69	2.20	7.50
Question 24: Importance of Q. 21–23 to the Industry				
Q. 21	2.42	1.23	0.507	-.684
Q. 22	2.80	1.31	0.163	-1.090
Q. 23	1.32	1.30	0.700	-.638

Note: Values for Questions 21–23 are means of all subquestion responses. [a]Kurtosis values indicate presence of abnormal distribution

Question 25: Member perceptions of ethics issues.

Question 25 was a 10-part question that further probed respondent perceptions of ethics issues and introduced questions relating to organizational justice constructs, including various aspects of discrimination. Results are presented in Table 4.31. Of note are responses to Question 25.7 and 25.8 which show high mean responses ($\mu = 4.47$ and 4.45), indicating that respondents strongly believed that their companies and bosses are ethical. These were two of the highest scoring responses in the entire survey.

Table 4.31

Question 25: Member Perceptions of Ethics Issues

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree	Mean	SD
25.1 Discrimination based on race, ethnicity, nationality, or religion is a problem in the bid/proposal industry *(PJ-discprob)*							
n=1112	354	231	316	153	58	2.39	1.21
%	31.8%	20.8%	28.4%	13.8%	5.2%		
25.2 Sexual misconduct or harassment disadvantaging women occurs in the bid/proposal industry *(GWP-sexmiscond)*							
n=1113	331	205	279	229	69	2.55	1.27
%	29.7%	18.4%	25.1%	20.6%	6.2%		

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree	Mean	SD
25.3 Gender discrimination affecting pay and promotion disadvantages women in the bid/proposal industry *(GWP-genderdisc)*							
n=1113	208	146	234	325	200	3.14	1.36
%	18.7%	13.1%	21.0%	29.2%	18.0%		
25.4 Discrimination based on age is a problem in the bid/proposal industry *(PJ-agedisc)*							
n=1112	203	217	295	276	121	2.90	1.26
%	18.3%	19.5%	26.5%	24.8%	10.9%		
25.5 Discrimination based on sexual orientation is a problem in the bid/proposal industry *(PJ-orientdisc)*							
n=1112	377	206	421	76	32	2.26	1.08
%	33.9%	18.5%	37.9%	6.8%	2.9%		
25.6 Ethical misconduct occurs in the bid/proposal industry *(ethmiscond)*							
n=1113	238	234	297	283	61	2.72	1.21
%	21.4%	21.0%	26.7%	25.4%	5.5%		
25.7 The company I work for is ethical *(SAT-ethicomp)*							
n=1107	28	24	92	210	753	4.47	0.92
%	2.5%	2.2%	8.3%	19.0%	68.0%		
25.8 My boss behaves in an ethical way at work *(SAT-ethicboss)*							
n=1105	32	42	85	178	768	4.45	0.98
%	2.9%	3.8%	7.7%	16.1%	69.5%		
25.9 There are gaps in my understanding of ethics rules, laws, and regulations *(gaps)*							
n=1110	463	218	147	228	54	2.27	1.31
%	41.7%	19.6%	13.2%	20.5%	4.9%		
25.10 APMP certification in business ethics would provide value to our profession *(APMPcert)*							
n=1111	41	89	315	354	312	3.72	1.06
%	3.7%	8.0%	28.4%	31.9%	28.1%		

Note: n indicates the number of question responses out of 1,113 valid cases.

Question 26: Pressure to conduct unethical activities.

This question was the first on a page labeled "Workplace Challenges." This series of questions asked about personal experiences and perceptions of the respondents. Question 26 asked, "Have you ever been pressured to conduct activities that were unethical or do something you felt was not right?" Three answers were possible, as shown in Table 4.32, with 65.7% of respondents answering "No." A "No answer" response option (2.4%) was included at the request of the Hood College IRB. The responses to this question, coupled with those of Question 27, speak to the issue of worker positionality, being in a position to have one's knowledge and judgment overruled, in this case, to the point of doing something one knows to be unethical.

Table 4.32

Question 26: Pressure to Conduct Unethical Activities

Have you ever been pressured to conduct activities that were unethical or do something you felt was not right?	*n*	%
Yes	355	31.9
No	731	65.7
"No answer"	27	2.4
Total:	1,113	100.0

Question 27: Looking the other way when witnessing ethics violations.

This question asked, "Have you ever had to look the other way when witnessing the inappropriate actions of others?" It offered a range of possible "Yes" responses, a "No" response, and an opportunity to provide a narrative response. More than 60% of respondents had never experienced a situation in which they were pressured to ignore ethics violations in their workplaces. They either had never witnessed any or had witnessed one or more violations and were able to handle them appropriately. However, 427 respondents (38.3%) either selected one of the "Yes" options or provided a text explanation of their answer.

The responses to this question show that individuals in this profession do observe ethics violations in the course of their work and that they sometimes do nothing about them for various reasons. The three reasons posed in the question (not wanting to make waves, fear of being wrong, and fear of retaliation) were echoed in the 97 "Other" narrative responses. Those 97 narrative responses are discussed further in Chapter 5 as part of this study's qualitative analysis.

Together with the responses to Question 26, this group of responses speaks to the issue of worker positionality. Workers without sufficient authority to overrule unethical pressure are more likely to "look the other way" or commit unethical acts. Even though 60% of respondents indicated that their role was proposal director or proposal manager (Table 4.11), the position of these leaders within a larger organization, as well as the position of their subordinates, coupled

with the pressures associated with winning a contract, makes them subject to either doing or ignoring ethics violations. Responses are reported in Table 4.33.

Table 4.33

Question 27: Looking the Other Way When Witnessing Ethics Violations

Have you ever had to "look the other way". . .?	*n*	Percentage (%)
No, it has never happened.	686	61.6
Yes, I didn't want to make waves.	69	6.2
Yes, I was afraid I'd be wrong.	87	7.8
Yes, I was afraid of retaliation of being labeled a troublemaker.	174	15.6
Other (please specify)	97	8.7
Total:	1,113	100.0

Question 28: Unjust accusations by supervisors.

This question was intentionally generic and intended to be useful on its own, or when coupled with Questions 29–34 on workplace treatment and job satisfaction. The respondents are divided, with one-third having experienced unfair treatment and two-thirds not (Table 4.34).

Table 4.34

Question 28: Unjust Accusations by Supervisors

Have you ever been unjustly accused or blamed by a supervisor?	*n*	Percentage (%)
Yes	368	33.1
No	744	66.9
Total:	1,112	100.0

Question 29: Hostile or toxic work environment.

Question 29 asked, "Have you ever felt trapped in a toxic or hostile work environment?" The wording of this question is significant, in that "toxic" and "hostile" have meanings beyond general conversation, extending into human resources procedures and labor law, and "trapped" indicates a position of lesser power or helplessness. More than half (53.7%) of respondents answered "Yes" to this question (Table 4.35). Of the 598 respondents answering "Yes" to this

question, 560 were women (93.6% of "Yes" responses). Table 4.36 provides summary statistics for Questions 26–29.

Table 4.35

Question 29: Hostile or Toxic Work Environment

Have you ever felt trapped in a hostile/toxic work environment?	*n*	Percentage (%)
Yes (Men: 38, 6.4%) (Women 560, 93.6%)	598	53.7
No (Men: 253, 49.2%) (Women 261, 50.7%)	514	46.2
Total:	1,112	100.0

Table 4.36

Summary Statistics for Questions 26–29

Question	*n*	Mean	S/D	Skewness	Kurtosis
Q. 26 Unethical pressure	1113	1.70	.506	-.327	-.684
Q. 27 Looking the other way	1113	3.15	1.305	-1.394	.591
Q. 28 Unjustly accused	1112	1.66	.470	-.720	-1.485
Q. 29 Workplace toxicity	1112	1.46	.498	-.152	-1.981

Question 30: Fairness and equality in the workplace.

Respondents were asked how strongly they agreed or disagreed with statements regarding fair treatment in the workplace and career obstacles. Items from this question set were used in the PJ and GWP scales. Questions were directionally negative except for Question 30.4, where a high score indicated a strongly positive response. In that question, 62.4% agreed that people of their race, religion, ethnicity, or nationality were treated fairly. Treatment by nationality was included at the request of APMP's Member Research Committee, based on APMP's presence in multiple countries. The question of pay equity also drew a strong response, with 37.6% believing that people of the opposite sex were promoted or paid more than them (Table 4.37). Table 4.38 demonstrates the statistical significance of gender in relation to these perceptions.

Table 4.37

Question 30: Fairness and Equality in the Workplace

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neutral, N/A, or Don't Know	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree	Mean	SD
30.1 People of the opposite sex seem to be promoted or paid more than me *((R)PJ-oppsex)*							
n=1113	248	133	314	266	152	2.94	1.33
%	22.3%	11.9%	28.2%	23.9%	13.7%		
30.2 My superiors see people like me as having lower potential *(lowpot)*							
n=1111	430	231	219	166	65	2.28	1.27
%	38.6.7%	20.8%	19.7%	14.9%	5.9%		
30.3 There are gender-specific obstacles to my career success *(GWP-obstacl)*							
n=1113	410	178	187	242	96	2.49	1.39
%	36.8%	16.0%	16.8%	21.7%	8.6%		
30.4 People of my race, religion, ethnicity, or nationality are treated fairly *(PJ-fairtreat)*							
n=1112	132	87	199	250	444	3.70	1.36
%	11.9%	7.8%	17.9%	22.5%	39.9%		
30.5 Family responsibilities have limited my professional opportunities *(GWP-famlimit)*							
n=1112	397	206	172	255	82	2.47	1.36
%	35.7%	18.5%	15.5%	22.9%	7.4%		

Table 4.38

Question 30: Workplace Fairness Perceptions Controlled for Gender

	All Responses			Male Respondents			Female Respondents		
Topic	*N*	Mean	SD	*N*	Mean	SD	*N*	Mean	SD
People of the opposite sex are promoted/paid more than me	1,113	2.94	1.33	378	2.06***	1.09	735	3.48***	1.22
People like me are seen as having lower potential	1,111	2.28	1.27	376	1.89***	1.10	735	2.48***	1.31
There are gender-specific obstacles to my success	1,113	2.49	1.39	378	1.69***	1.04	735	2.90***	1.37
People of my race, religion, nationality are treated fairly	1,112	3.70	1.36	378	3.75	1.44	734	3.68	1.32
Family responsibilities have limited my professional opportunities	1,112	2.47	1.36	377	2.23***	1.29	732	2.60***	1.39

Note: *** $p < .001$ on independent-samples *t*-test and Mann-Whitney *U*-test

To determine how gender influenced responses to Question 30, I used both parametric and nonparametric testing. Independent samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests showed that there were significant differences between male and female perceptions ($p < .001$), with women more strongly believing that they are paid less than the opposite sex, are seen as having lower potential, experience gender obstacles to their success, and that family responsibilities have a limiting effect on their careers. However, on the question of receiving fair treatment based on race, religion or nationality, both men and women scored high in agreement and the difference between their means was not significant (*t* test: $p = .433$, Mann-Whitney *U* test: $p = .091$).

Question 31: Effect of experiencing unfair workplace treatment.

This question takes respondents beyond the possibility of unfair treatment occurring in the workplace and explores their reactions when it happens to them. It is not theoretical; it asks respondents to reply to the statement, "Experiencing unfair treatment (including hostility, bias, discrimination, and harassment) had the following effect on me." Respondents could make multiple selections from among nine scripted options as well as select "Other" to provide a narrative response. lists the response totals. All 1,113 respondents participated in this question, entering a total of 4,506 responses. The 92 narrative responses are included in the qualitative analysis in Chapter 5.

Of particular significance to this study is the impact of unfair treatment on job satisfaction: 654 respondents (58.7%) said that such treatment lowered their job satisfaction and respect for their companies. This was the highest response to this question, followed by "Made me unhappy and disappointed" (644, 57.8%), and "Made me want to quit" (590, 53%). Also noteworthy was the number of respondents (530, 47.6%) who said that as a result of unfair treatment, they had experienced negative health consequences.

Table 4.39

Question 31: Gender-Controlled Effects of Experiencing Unfair Workplace Treatment

Responses (multiple selections possible)	*n*	Percentage (%) 1,113 respondents
I have never experienced unfair treatment	291	26.1
Caused negative health effects, such as stress, depression, ulcers, headaches, or sleep disruption	530	47.6
Lowered my self-esteem and self-confidence	485	43.6
Made it less likely that I would ask for a raise I deserved	286	25.7
Limited my career advancement opportunities or compensation	384	34.5
Made me unhappy and disappointed	644	57.9
Made me angry	548	49.2
Lowered my job satisfaction or respect for my company	656	58.9
Made me want to quit	590	53.0
Other (please describe)	92	8.3
Total:	4,506	n/a

Summary by Gender	Males		Females		Total	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Never experienced unfair treatment	160	42.3	131	17.8	291	26.1
Experienced unfair treatment with negative consequences	218	57.7	604	82.2	822	73.9
Total:	378	100.0	735	100.0	1,113	100.0

Question 32: Compensation.

Items from this question set contributed to the DJ, PJ, and IJ scales. The question items related to literature on pay fairness (Homans, 1961), how comfortable respondents were in asking for a raise (Fisher & Smith, 2003), whether they believed that office politics determined their compensation level more than their hard work (Carrell & Dittrich, 1974), whether they believed they had good comparative information (Bies & Moag, 1986; Card et al., 2010) and other perceptions. Questions addressing intangible rewards such as being accorded respect were also included, as were questions on perceived ability to negotiate (Babcock & Flynn, 2010; Babcock & Laschever, 2003; Small et al., 2007). To address the perceived balance between contributions and rewards, two questions about the quantity of hours required to handle the assigned workload were included. Table 4.40 reports the results. Of interest are the responses to

Questions 32.9 and 32.10: Combining the "Somewhat Agree" and "Strongly Agree" categories, respondents said that the hours they were scheduled to work were reasonable for the amount of work to be performed (594, 56.7%), but that overtime is always expected and never ends (442, 39.8%). In the highest scoring item in this question set, respondents reported believing that their performance made a difference to their compensation (666, 59.9%).

Table 4.40

Question 32: Compensation

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neutral, N/A, or Don't Know	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree	Mean	SD
32.1 I am paid fairly for the work I do compared to others in my department, on my proposal team, or in the industry *(DJ-fairpay)*							
n=1112	86	208	223	416	179	3.35	1.17
%	7.7%	18.7%	20.1%	37.4%	16.1%		
32.2 I have access to good information to determine how fairly I'm paid *(DJ-goodinf)*							
n=1113	89	240	223	413	148	3.26	1.17
%	8.0%	21.6%	20.0%	37.1%	13.3%		
32.3 I am very comfortable negotiating my raise or bonus *(negotiate)*							
n=1109	112	347	200	330	119	2.99	1.20
%	10.1%	31.2%	18.0%	29.8%	10.7%		
32.4 The process for determining who gets raises/promotions has been explained to me honestly and is fair *(IJ-explained)*							
n=1110	191	305	283	225	106	2.77	1.22
%	17.2%	27.5%	25.5%	20.3%	9.5%		
32.5 Where I work, politics determines who gets paid well or promoted – not performance *((R)PJ-politics)*							
n=1111	190	281	304	223	113	2.80	1.22
%	17.1%	25.3%	27.4%	20.1%	10.2%		
32.6 My performance plays an important role in my salary increases – if I work hard and do well, it actually matters *(DJ-perform)*							
n=1112	96	147	203	434	232	3.50	1.20
%	8.6%	13.2%	18.3%	39.0%	20.9%		
32.7 My supervisor/boss provides an honest explanation for my raise or the reason I didn't get one *(IJ-honestboss)*							
n=1110	93	164	296	369	188	3.35	1.69
%	8.4%	14.8%	26.7%	32.2%	16.9%		
32.8 My role (job title) is highly respected and deferred to on a bid/proposal team *(IJ-role)*							
n=1111	79	186	221	429	196	3.42	1.16
%	7.1%	16.7%	19.9%	38.6%	17.6%		
32.9 The hours I'm scheduled to work are reasonable for the work I'm expected to do *(DJ-hours)*							
n=1111	101	210	170	453	177	3.35	1.21
%	9.1%	18.9%	15.3%	40.8%	15.9%		

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neutral, N/A, or Don't Know	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree	Mean	SD
32.10 Overtime is always expected of me and it never ends *(overtime)*							
n=1111	135	301	223	284	158	3.02	1.25
%	12.2%	27.1%	21.0%	25.6%	14.2%		
32.11 On bids/proposals, people who work the hardest are frequently paid the least *(hardwork)*							
n=1111	156	302	320	212	121	2.85	1.2
%	14.0%	27.2%	28.8%	19.1%	10.9%		

Question 33: Consequences of reporting ethics violations.

Respondents were asked to consider what would happen if they reported ethics violations in their workplaces. All 1,113 valid cases responded. Because respondents could select multiple responses, a total 1,771 entries were selected. Slightly less than one-third of responses (564, 31.8%) expressed confidence that respondents would not be negatively impacted by reporting an ethics violation. One-fifth (357, 20.2%) stated that respondents did not know what would happen. The balance expressed concern that either nothing would happen (188, 10.6%) or that a number of negative outcomes would occur, leading to the concern that violations may remain unreported and uncorrected.

Table 4.41

Question 33: Consequences of Reporting Ethics Violations

Responses (multiple selections possible)	*n*	Percentage (%) of 1,771 responses
Nothing will happen; the problem will be ignored or smoothed over	188	10.6
I may be labeled a "troublemaker"	184	10.4
I may experience retaliation	156	8.8
I could be penalized in terms of raises, bonuses, and promotions	119	6.7
I may be given less desirable work assignments	95	5.4
The problem will be dealt with appropriately with no negative consequences for me	564	31.8
Out of concern for my future, I would probably not report it	108	6.1
I do not know	357	20.2
Total:	1,771	100.0

Question 34: Job satisfaction.

Items from this question set formed the basis for the JOBSAT scale, used as the primary dependent variable in inferential statistics. This 5-point "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" scale is structured using questions from the 2017 Society for Human Resource Management job satisfaction survey as well as from the work of Pearson et al. (1957), Herzberg et al. (1959), Churchill et al. (1974), and Rutherford et al. (2009). The JOBSAT scale is generally directionally positive. The direction was reversed on two items, *SAT-rolechange* and *SAT-leavejob*, to test respondent engagement, and the results were consistent with engaged responders (Rogelberg et al., 2003). There was full participation on this question with all respondents answering almost all the questions, as shown in Table 4.42. However, interestingly, the largest number of missing responses was to the question, "I am satisfied with my job," with six participants choosing not to answer this question, even though a "Neutral/Don't Know" option was provided.

Proposal workers responding to this question expressed job satisfaction with high mean scores ($\mu > 4.0$) in several ways: camaraderie with fellow workers ($\mu = 4.31$), receiving a feeling of accomplishment in their work ($\mu = 4.24$), and feeling listened to and respected ($\mu = 4.19$). Of concern to the proposal industry are responses to the question on satisfaction with upward mobility. Nearly half of respondents (547, 49.5%) perceived that they did not "have a lot of opportunity for promotion." However, despite possibly feeling "stuck in place," an even greater number (604, 54.5%) stated that they did not plan to leave their jobs in the next year. There is also evidence of a social component to job satisfaction, with 87.1% agreeing that they form strong bonds with their colleagues ($n = 969$, $\mu = 4.24$).

Table 4.42

Question 34: Job Satisfaction

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neutral, N/A, or Don't Know	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree	Mean	SD
34.1 On our bid/proposal teams, I am listened to and respected *(IJ-respect)*							
n=1112	16	71	69	477	479	4.19	0.91
%	1.4%	6.4%	6.2%	42.9%	43.0%		
34.2 I get a feeling of accomplishment from my job *(SAT-accomp)*							
n=1113	17	65	55	463	513	4.24	0.90
%	1.5%	5.8%	4.9%	41.6%	46.1%		
34.3 When I do a good job, I am noticed and given credit for the work I do *(DJ-noticed)*							
n=1111	27	126	86	466	406	3.98	1.05
%	2.4%	11.3%	7.7%	41.9%	36.5%		
34.4 I feel valued by senior management *(SAT-valued)*							
n=1110	67	151	146	396	350	3.73	1.20
%	6.0%	13.6%	13.2%	35.7%	31.5%		
34.5 When we win, the people who deserve it are given full credit *(DJ-credit)*							
n=1109	97	235	147	395	235	3.39	1.26
%	8.7%	21.2%	13.3%	35.6%	21.2%		
34.6 In my bid/proposal role, I have a lot of opportunity for promotion *(DJ-promote)*							
n=1111	222	325	270	217	74	2.63	1.19
%	20.0%	29.5%	24.3%	19.5%	6.7%		
34.7 I would like to change my bid/proposal role and perform a different role *((R)SAT-rolechange)*							
n=1110	221	239	280	251	119	2.82	1.27
%	19.9%	21.5%	25.2%	22.6%	10.7%		
34.8 I would like to leave my job in the next year *((R)SAT-leavejob)*							
n=1109	389	215	242	139	124	2.45	1.36
%	35.1%	19.4%	21.8%	12.5%	11.2%		
34.9 I am satisfied with my income *(SAT-income)*							
n=1110	114	262	164	395	175	3.22	1.25
%	10.3%	23.6%	14.8%	35.6%	15.8%		
34.10 I am satisfied with my job *(SAT-jobsat)*							
n=1107	49	152	180	475	251	3.65	1.10
%	4.4%	13.7%	16.3%	42.9%	22.7%		
34.11 I usually form a strong bond with the people I work with on a bid or proposal and enjoy the teamwork *(bond)*							
n=1112	9	34	100	427	542	4.31	0.82
%	0.8%	3.1%	9.0%	38.4%	48.7%		

Question 35: Working in other countries.

This was one of two optional questions that respondents were told they could skip if they did not work outside their home countries or this subject matter did not apply to their work. As a

result, only 497 (39.6%) of respondents answered this question. Questions 35 and 36 were considered important to include because of the increasingly multinational nature of proposal work and the likelihood that individuals will have had exposure to international or non-home-country bids.

Business practices in countries differ; what is considered unethical in one may be customary and required for business flow in another. An example is the payment of fees associated with processing required paperwork or permit applications; such payments may be aboveboard and routine or may be unsanctioned and unreported exchanges between parties. When U.S. contractors are working abroad, they are prohibited by federal law from making "under the table" payments to speeding up application processes, even though those exchanges may be routine and expected in the local country. Contractors must bridge the cultural gap without breaking home country laws or damaging relationships with local officials.

Question 35 (Table 4.43) is generic and asks respondents to say whether the ethical frameworks vary between the home and foreign countries, and if so, which set of rules they follow. This subpopulation of proposal professionals who have experienced work in other cultures may also have been exposed to different ethical environments and practices and have had to make different choices than those without that experience. This experience may also have influenced their responses to other questions in this study.

All three questions provide positive results for APMP: 61.2% of respondents said that they did not believe they needed to use unethical practices to win work in other countries; 71.8% held true to their country's laws; and 55.1% would reject local business practices that conflicted with their home country laws.

Table 4.43

Question 35: Working in Other Countries

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neutral	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree	Mean	SD
35.1 Working in other countries or cultures requires me to accept certain unethical practices in order to win business *(othrcountr)*							
n=495	251	52	144	37	11	2.0	1.14
%	50.7%	10.5%	29.1%	7.5%	2.2%		
35.2 I adhere to my country's laws and practices even if it means losing work *(adhere)*							
n=497	11	11	118	72	285	4.22	1.02
%	2.2%	2.2%	23.7%	14.5%	57.3%		
32.3 I follow local customs even if they go against my country's laws or ethical practices *(localcust)*							
n=495	201	72	153	42	27	2.23	1.22
%	40.6%	14.5%	30.9%	8.5%	5.5%		

Question 36. Ethics violations observed while working outside my home country.

Like Question 35, this question probed how proposal professionals behave outside their home environments. The question had 140 responses, representing 11.1% of the total sample. The question described the types of behaviors that the respondent may have witnessed in colleagues working away from their home countries. The underlying assumption in this question is that the respondent and the colleague would be from the same country/culture and have had the same ethics training, but that the colleague may have made different ethical choices while away from the home environment. Respondents are therefore observing and reporting behavior that they know is unacceptable in their home environment. The 140 respondents reported that verbal abuse (44.2%) and lying (38.5%) were the most frequent violations, while accepting cash (22.8%), falsifying documents (20.7%), and making payments to public officials (20.7%), the types of ethics violations more typically associated with out-of-country business practices, were lower (Table 4.44). While this subset of the total sample is small (11.1%), each respondent averaged more than one selection and the resulting double-digit percentages indicate an unexpectedly high number of observations.

Table 4.44

Question 36: Ethics Violations Observed While Working in Other Countries

Responses (multiple selections possible)	*n*	Percentage (%) of *n* = 140 respondents
Making payments to public officials or contractors	29	20.7
Lying or misrepresentation	54	38.5
Falsifying documents	29	20.7
Violating procurement regulations	40	28.5
Verbal abuse	62	44.2
Sexual misconduct	35	25.0
Excessive drinking or drug use	41	29.2
Accepting cash or inappropriate gifts	32	22.8
Total:	322	n/a

Question 37. Other questions or comments.

The final survey question provided an opportunity for open-ended comments. The responses offered by 143 participants are included in Chapter 5 as part of the qualitative analysis.

Research Question 2: Business Ethics Perceptions by Respondent Group

This section uses the BEP, PEV, and GWP scales and inferential statistical analysis to test the hypotheses associated with Research Question 2:

> **R2:** How do gender, nationality, and training influence the business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals?

This question poses several hypotheses based on literature suggesting that subpopulations within the total sample may perceive ethics issues differently, based on gender (H1a), nationality (H1b), and whether or not individuals receive annual ethics training (H1c). Additional hypotheses associated with this research question examine whether women in the sample perceive higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties than men (H2), and that individuals who receive annual ethics training will perceive fewer proposal-specific ethics violations in their workplaces than those who receive no training (H3).

A significance value of $p < .05$ was established for this study. Variables for sex, nationality, and training were recoded as needed to ensure proper directionality. Data were examined to determine if they met assumptions for normality and homogeneity of variances. Hypotheses were then tested using *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests, depending on normality of distribution.

H1. Gender, nationality, and training will influence the business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals.

Using the BEP scale—on which a higher score indicates a more negative outcome, including higher observances of ethics violations in the workplace—I tested the three variants of Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis H1a states that *women will perceive higher occurrences of business ethics violations in the workplace than men.* Literature suggests that levels of tolerance to ethics violations exist between men and women, with women considering more actions to be unethical than men or exhibiting higher intent to act ethically (Dawson, 1997; Roxas & Stoneback, 2004; Valentine & Rittenburg, 2007). Using the variables *sex* and BEP, data were tested to determine if they met assumptions for an independent samples *t* test. Examination of box plots and Q-Q plots, and further testing determined that outliers were present in both test groups (male and female) but that they were not influential. Levene's test for homogeneity of variances indicated that variances within male and female test groups can be assumed to be homogenous ($F = 1.205$, $p = .273$) because they are significant at a level above .05 (Pallant, 2016, p. 299). A Shapiro-Wilk test indicated that BEP was not normally distributed in males ($n = 370$) or females ($n = 735$) (males = .930, $p < .001$; females = .945, $p < .001$), as shown in Table 4.45. Similarly, a significant Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) score indicated a non-normal distribution (males = .133,

$p < .001$; females .064, $p < .001$). However, the sensitivity of both tests when used on large samples may produce results suggesting violations of normality (Pallant, 2016).

Mean summative BEP score was lower for males than females (male μ= 69.07, *SD* = 19.16; female μ = 74.53, *SD* = 20.69), indicating that women in the sample perceived a higher incidence of general business ethics violations in their workplaces than men. The difference between mean BEP scores of males and females was significant, $t(1111) = -4.277$, $p < .001$ one-tailed. The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = -5.46, 95% *CI:* -7.97 to -2.95) was very small ($\eta^2 = .016$), indicating that 1.6% of the variance in BEP scores is explained by gender (Cohen, 1988).

Table 4.45

Hypothesis 1: Normality and Distribution Statistics

BEP Scale	Mean Score	Summative Scale Data			Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
Gender (*n* = 1113)		**Mean**	**Med.**	**SD**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**
00 Males	1.68	64	69.07	19.16	.133	378	.000	.930	378	.000
01 Female	1.92	73	74.53	20.69	.064	735	.000	.945	735	.000
Nationality (*n* = 1110)		**Mean**	**Med.**	**SD**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**
00 Non-U.S.	1.79	68	71.82	19.74	.097	367	.000	.937	367	.000
01 U.S.	1.84	70	73.18	20.63	.082	743	.000	.946	743	.000
Annual Ethics Training (*n* = 1113)		**Mean**	**Med.**	**SD**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**
00 No	1.95	74	77.05	21.12	.079	409	.000	.945	409	.000
01 Yes	1.74	66	70.13	19.44	.100	704	.000	.941	704	.000

Note: [a] Lilliefors Significance Correction

Because outliers and non-normal distribution were present, a non-parametric Mann-Whitney *U* test was also run to identify any differences in BEP scores between males and females. Distribution patterns of BEP scores for males and females were similar, as assessed by visual inspection (Figure 4.1). BEP scores were statistically significantly different between males (*Med.* = 64) and females (*Med.* = 73), $U = 162{,}059$, $z = 4.558$, $p < .001$, calculated using

asymptotic, one-tailed testing (Table. 4.45). Effect size (r = 4.558/33.36 = 0.137) was small (Cohen, 1988), indicating that 13.7% of the difference in scores was attributable to gender.

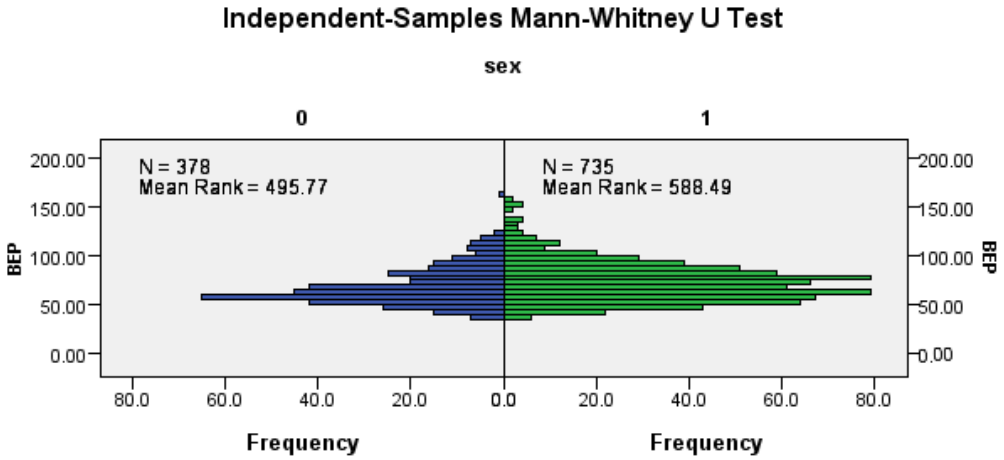


Figure 4.1. BEP distribution curve showing similar configuration for males (0) and females (1).

The results of both tests support rejecting the null hypothesis and accepting the alternative hypothesis that gender influences business ethics perceptions, with women recording significantly higher perceptions of general business ethics violations on the BEP scale than men ($p < .001$).

Hypothesis H1b sought to determine whether or not *nationality will influence business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals.* This question was asked because this study is the first to examine the perceptions of this international population of individuals performing proposal work and also to serve APMP in its effort to determine international ethics certification and training needs. The hypothesis is nondirectional because the literature is mixed, with some studies showing cross-national differences (Armstrong & Sweeney, 1994; Burnaz et al., 2009; Chan & Armstrong, 1999; Paul, Roy & Mukhopadhyay, 2006; Roxas & Stoneback, 1997; Singh, Vitell, Al-Khatib & Clark, 2007), and others showing no differences (Armstrong, Stening, Ryans, Marks, & Mayo, 1990; Lu, Rose, & Blodgett, 1999; Valentine & Rittenburg,

2007). I conducted an independent samples *t* test to compare the BEP scores for respondents reporting their home country as non-U.S. (n = 367) with those reporting their home country as the United States (n = 743). Box plots indicated the presence of outliers and Shapiro-Wilk test indicated that the data were not normally distributed (non-U.S. = .937, $p < .001$, U.S. = .946, $p < .001$). Levine's test determined homogeneity of variance between the groups could be assumed (F = 1.014, p = .314). There was not a significant difference in scores for non-U.S. (μ = 71.82, SD = 19.73) versus U.S. (μ = 73.18, SD = 20.62) respondents, [$t(1108)$ = -1.045, p = .296, two-tailed]. The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 1.36, 95% *CI:* -3.90 to 1.19) was very small (η^2= -0.001), indicating that less than 0.1% of the variance in BEP scores is explained by nationality (Cohen, 1988). The alternative hypothesis is rejected and the null hypothesis is supported: there is no evidence that nationality influences business ethics perceptions among proposal development professionals in this sample.

Because outliers and non-normal distribution were present, and because of the skewness and kurtosis of the BEP scale, I conducted a nonparametric independent samples Mann-Whitney *U* test. The distribution pattern of BEP scores across both nationality groups was similar, based on visual inspection (Figure 4.2).

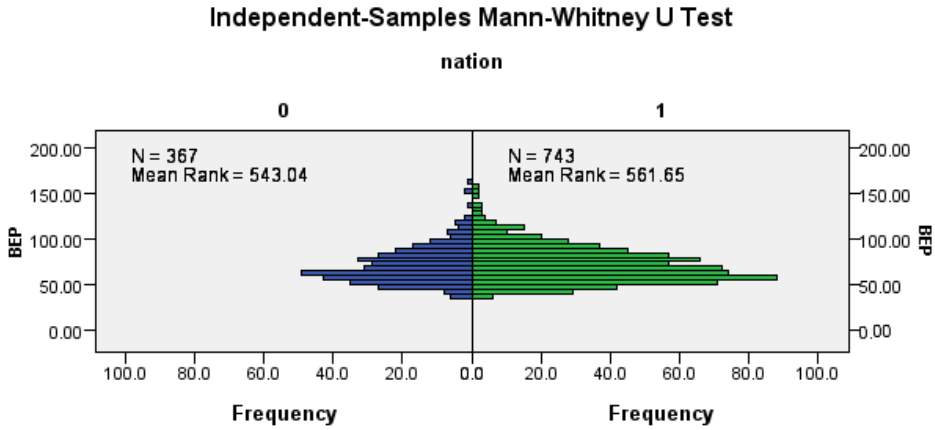


Figure 4.2. BEP distribution curve for nationality groups: Non-U.S. (0) and U.S. (1).

Median BEP scores were not statistically significantly different between non-U.S. (*Med.* = 68) and U.S. (*Med.* = 70) respondents (U = 140,913, z = 0.910, p = .363), calculated using asymptotic, two-tailed testing. Effect size (r = 0.910/33.31 = 0.027) was very small, indicating that 2.7% of the differences in BEP scores was attributable to nationality. Therefore, the null hypothesis is supported and the alternative hypothesis that nationality influences business ethics perceptions is rejected for this sample.

Hypothesis H1c states that *individuals who receive annual ethics training will observe fewer general business ethics violations than those who receive no training.* Literature indicated that variances were homogenous between those who received no annual ethics training (n = 409) and those who did (n = 704) (F = 1.417, p = .234). BEP scores for each level of training were not normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk test (no training = .945, p < .001; training = .941, p < .001) and shown in Table 4.43. Box plots confirmed the presence of outliers. I conducted an independent samples t test to compare training groups using the BEP scale. Mean BEP score was higher for individuals with no training than for those who received training annually (no training μ = 77.05, SD = 21.12; training μ = 70.13, SD = 19.44), indicating that individuals in the sample who received annual ethics training observed fewer business ethics violations in their work environments than those with no training.

The difference between mean BEP scores of untrained and trained respondents was significant, $t(1111) = 5.543$, p < .001 one-tailed. The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 6.92, 95% *CI:* 4.47 to 9.37) was small (η^2 = .027), indicating that 2.7% of the variance in BEP scores is explained by training (Cohen, 1988). Because boxplots and normal Q-Q plots confirmed the presence of a small number of outliers in both test groups and because distribution of BEP within the two test groups was not normal, a nonparametric Mann-Whitney

U test was also conducted. Distribution curves for BEP scores of untrained and trained respondents were similar, as assessed by visual inspection (Figure 4.3).

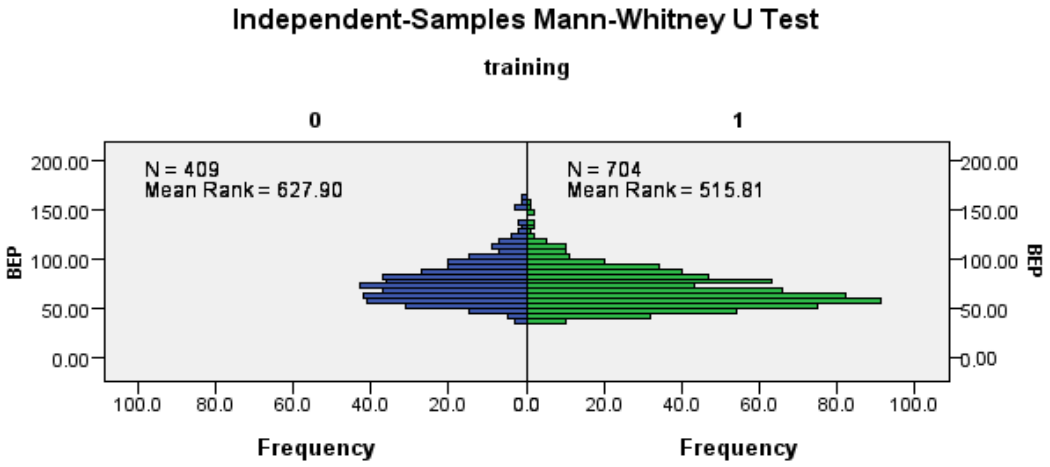


Figure 4.3. BEP distribution curve similarity for untrained (0) and trained (1) respondents.

Median BEP scores were statistically significantly different between untrained (*Med.* = 74) and trained (*Med.* = 66) respondents, $U = 114{,}968.5$, $z = -5.610$, $p < .001$, calculated using asymptotic, one-tailed testing. Effect size ($r = -5.610/33.36 = 0.168$) was small (Cohen, 1988), indicating that 16.8% of the difference in BEP median scores was due to training. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis that training influences business ethics perceptions is supported, with trained respondents recording significantly fewer observations of business ethics violations in their workplaces than those who received no training ($p < .001$).

H2. Women will perceive higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties than men.

Hypothesis 2 states that female proposal development professionals are more likely than their male counterparts to experience workplace penalties related to gender, as discussed in literature (Blau & DeVaro, 2006; England, Bearak, Budig & Hodges, 2016; Fortin et al., 2017; Kessler-Harris, 2001). I conducted an independent samples *t* test to compare male ($n = 378$) and female ($n = 735$) scores on the six-item GWP scale. Box plots confirmed the

presence of outliers. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was violated, as assessed by Levine's test for equality of variances (F = 18.749, p < .001). GWP scores for each level of gender were not normally distributed, as assessed by Shapiro-Wilk test (males = .958, p < .001; females = .985, p < .001), as shown in Table 4.46. There was a significant difference between GWP scores of men (μ = 11.87, *SD* = 4.21) and women (μ= 15.96, *SD* = 5.09; t(897.56) = -14.239, p < .001, one-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = -4.08, 95% *CI:* -4.65 to -3.52) was large (η^2 = -0.154), indicating 15.4% of the variance in GWP scores is explained by gender (Cohen, 1988). The null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis that women will perceive higher levels of gender workplace penalties than men is supported.

Table 4.46

Hypothesis 2: Normality and Distribution Statistics

GWP Scale	**Mean Score**	**Summative Scale Data**			**Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]**			**Shapiro-Wilk**		
Gender (*n* = 1113)		**Mean**	**Med.**	**SD**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**
00 Males	2.00	12	11.87	4.21	.089	378	.000	.958	378	.000
01 Females	2.67	16	15.95	5.09	.064	735	.000	.985	735	.000

Note: [a] Lilliefors Significance Correction

Because of the violation of normality and presence of outliers, a nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test was conducted. Distribution curves for GWP scores of male and female respondents were dissimilar, as assessed by visual inspection (Figure 4.4), indicating that a Mann-Whitney comparison of mean ranks should be used.

GWP scores were statistically significantly different between males (mean rank = 388.51) and females (mean rank. = 643.65) (U = 202,603, z = 12.562, p < .001), calculated using asymptotic, one-tailed testing. Effect size (r = 12.562/33.36 = 0.376) was medium

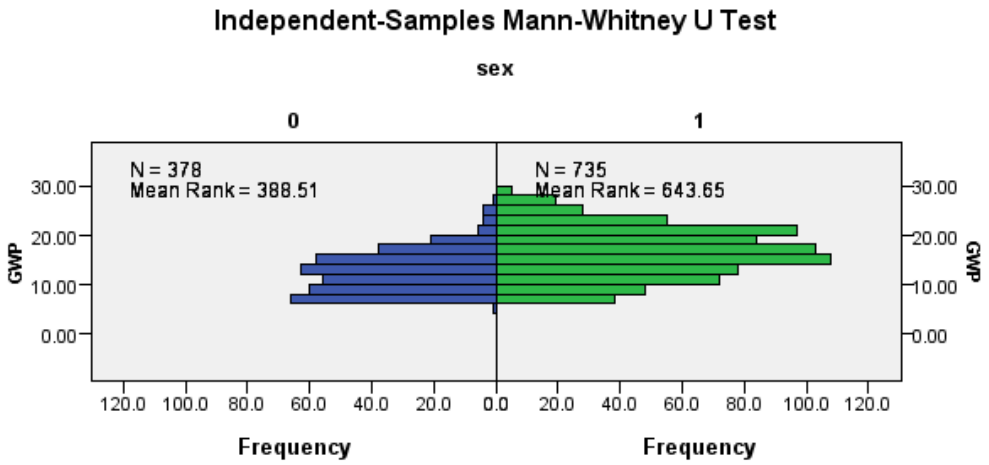


Figure 4.4. Dissimilar distributions of GWP scores by sex – males (0), females (1).

(Cohen, 1988), indicating that 37.6% of the difference in GWP scores was attributable to gender. Therefore, using both Mann-Whitney and *t* tests, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is supported, with women perceiving statistically significantly higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties than men.

H3. Individuals who receive annual ethics training will be less likely to observe proposal ethics violations in their workplaces than those who receive no training.

To test this hypothesis, I used the PEV scale. Unlike the general business ethics violations in BEV, this scale is more narrowly focused on ethics violations specific to proposal work, i.e., situations more frequently within the control of the proposal development professional. Box plots and normal Q-Q plots indicated the presence of outliers, including three extreme outliers in the no-training group (cases 283, 823, and 317), and two in the training group (cases 225 and 330). As shown in Table 4.47, the Shapiro-Wilk test confirmed a non-normal distribution of PEV scores across two levels of training (no training = .893, $p < .001$; training = .883, $p < .001$).

Table 4.47

Hypothesis 3: Normality and Distribution Statistics

PEV Scale	Mean Score	Summative Scale Data			Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
Training (*n* = 1113)		**Mean**	**Med.**	**SD**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**
00 No training	1.71	36	37.42	11.72	.123	409	.000	.893	409	.000
01 Annual ethics training	1.47	31	33.08	10.31	.119	704	.000	.883	704	.000

Note: [a] Lilliefors Significance Correction

I conducted an independent samples *t* test to compare the PEV scores of two training groups: those who received no annual ethics training (n = 409) and those who did (n = 704). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was supported, as assessed by Levine's test for equality of variances ($F = 2.495$, $p < .114$). There was a significant difference between PEV scores of untrained personnel ($\mu = 37.42$, $SD = 11.72$) and those with training ($\mu = 33.08$, $SD = 10.31$; $t(1111) = 6.429$, $p < .001$, one-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 4.34, 95% *CI:* 3.01 to 5.66) was small ($\eta^2 = 0.036$), indicating 3.6% of the variance in PEV score can be explained by annual ethics training (Cohen, 1988). The null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis that training impacts the observation of proposal ethics violations in the workplace is supported, with proposal professionals who receive annual ethics training reporting significantly fewer observations of proposal-related ethics violations than those who receive no training.

Because of the violation of normality and presence of outliers, a nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test was conducted. Distribution curves for PEV scores of male and female respondents were somewhat similar, as assessed by visual inspection (Figure 4.5). PEV scores were statistically significantly higher for the no-training group (*Med.* = 36) than the group receiving annual ethics training (*Med.* = 31) ($U = 107{,}657$, $z = -7.028$, $p < .001$, calculated using

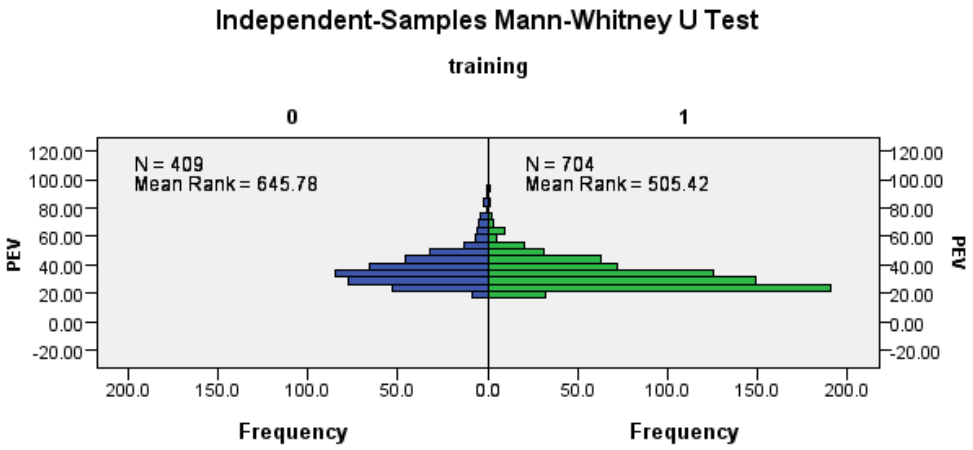


Figure 4.5. Distribution curves for PEV scores for no ethics training (0) and training (1) groups

asymptotic, one-tailed testing. Effect size (r = -7.028/33.36 = -0.210) was small (Cohen, 1988), with 21% of the difference in median PEV scores attributable to training. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis that individuals receiving annual ethics training will observe fewer proposal ethics violations in their workplaces is supported at the $p < .001$ level.

Research Question 3: Organizational Justice Perceptions and Job Satisfaction

This research question examines how the three primary elements of organizational justice—DJ, PJ, and IJ—influence the job satisfaction of proposal development professionals. In Hypotheses 4 and 5, the perceptions of the sample are tested to determine whether distributive, procedural, and interactional justice measurably influence job satisfaction, and if so, to what degree.

H4. Perceptions of distributive justice inequity will be higher among women than men.

Much organizational justice literature has placed distributive justice as the strongest of the organizational justice constructs in determining job satisfaction and other positive employee outcomes (Colquitt, et al., 2001; Leventhal, 1980; Lind & Tyler, 1988; McFarlin & Sweeney,

1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). Similarly, research over the past 50 years has documented that inequities of pay exist between men and women (Blau & Kahn, 2017; Blau & Winkler, 2018; Chamberlain et al., 2019; Fortin, 2005; Fortin et al., 2017; Goldin, 1984, 1990, 2006; Goldin & Katz, 2002; Harris, 2017; Kessler-Harris, 2001; Olivetti & Petrongolo, 2016). For this reason, I wanted to measure the perceptions of this sample regarding both distributive justice and gender as variables. Using the DJ scale, I conducted an independent samples *t* test to determine if women perceived a higher level of injustice related to workplace compensation and rewards than men. A high score on the DJ scale indicates a positive view of distributive justice equity in the respondent's workplace; a low score indicates perceptions of distributive justice inequity. Box plots and normal Q-Q plots indicated outliers and non-normal distribution, respectively. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was confirmed using Levine's test for equality of variances ($F = 2.263$, $p < .113$).

As shown in Table 4.48, a Shapiro-Wilk test confirmed a non-normal distribution of DJ scores across male and female respondent groups ($p < .001$). There was a significant difference between DJ scores of men ($\mu = 24.492$, $SD = 5.25$) and women ($\mu = 22.918$, $SD = 5.50$; t (1111) $= 4.590$, $p < .001$, one-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 1.57, 95% *CI:* .901 to 2.25) was small ($\eta^2 = .019$), indicating 1.9% of the variance in DJ scores is explained by gender (Cohen, 1988). The null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis, that women perceive greater distributive justice inequity than men, is supported.

Table 4.48

Hypothesis 4: Normality and Distribution Statistics

DJ Scale	Mean Score	Summative Scale Data			Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
Gender (*n* = 1113)		**Mean**	**Med.**	**SD**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**
00 Males	3.57	25	24.49	5.25	.052	378	.016	.987	378	.002
01 Females	3.29	23	22.92	5.50	.077	735	.000	.986	735	.000

Note: [a] Lilliefors Significance Correction

Because the assumptions of normality were not met, I also conducted a nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test. Distribution curves for DJ scores of both men and women were similarly shaped, as assessed by visual inspection (Figure 4.6).

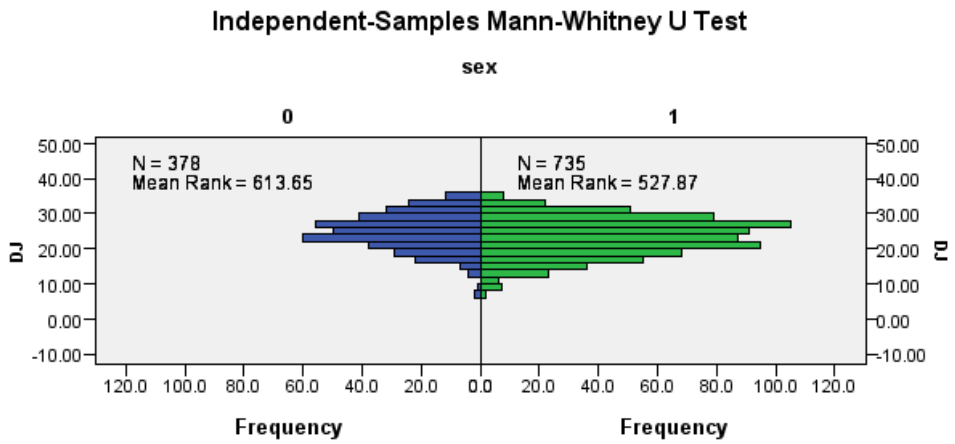


Figure 4.6. Distribution of DJ scores for males (0) and females (1).

Median DJ scores were statistically significantly different between male (*Med.* = 25) and female (*Med.* = 23) respondents (U = 117,502, z = -4.223, p < .001, calculated using asymptotic, one-tailed testing). Effect size (r = -4.223/33.36 = -0.127) was small (Cohen, 1988), indicating that 12.7% of the difference in DJ median scores was due to gender. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the hypothesis that women will perceive higher levels of distributive justice inequity than men is supported by both t test (p < .001) and Mann-Whitney U test (p < .001).

H5. Individual perceptions of three dimensions of organizational justice, moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, will influence job satisfaction.

Through the use of moderated hierarchical multiple regression, this hypothesis tests whether organizational justice perceptions exert a statistically significant influence on job satisfaction, and whether that outcome is further influenced by a respondent's experience with

unfair workplace treatment. Figure 4.7 illustrates this model, which includes three organizational justice variables (IVs), gender (control variable), workplace treatment (moderator), and job satisfaction (primary dependent variable).

The sequence in which variables were loaded into the model is based on literature determining that distributive justice was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction, and that procedural justice had a stronger influence on job satisfaction than interactional justice (Colquitt, et al., 2001; Leventhal, 1980; Lind & Tyler, 1988; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman & Taylor, 2000; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993). Based on these findings, the literature-based sequence in which variables were entered into the model was: JOBSAT, sex (control), DJ, PJ, IJ, and WPT (moderator).

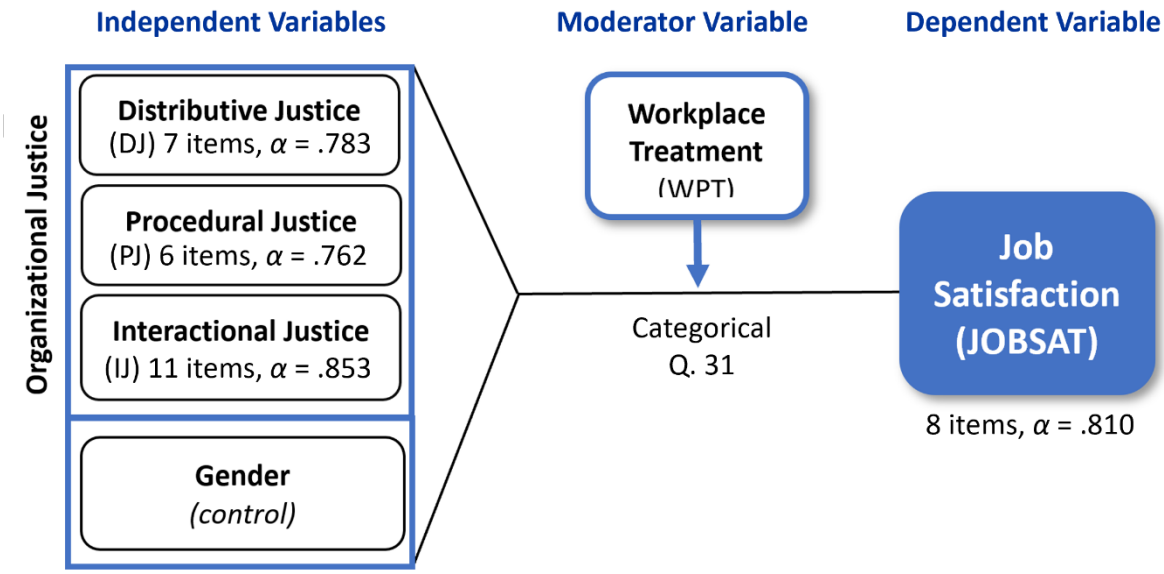


Figure 4.7. Hypothesis 5 model: Independent, control, moderator, and dependent variables.

Data eligibility for multiple regression.

Variables. Variables included in this regression analysis meet the first two assumptions of regression by comprising one continuous DV (JOBSAT) and more than two continuous or

categorical IVs (sex, DJ, PJ, IJ, WPT). Additional assumptions of regression are presented in the paragraphs that follow. Descriptive statistics, reliability, and skewness and kurtosis of scale items used in this regression are presented earlier in this chapter in Tables 4.15–4.17.

Response validity. The study had 1,254 responses that produced 1,113 valid cases used for this analysis. This response was adequate according to formulae provided by Green (1991):

$$50 + 8m = 90, \text{ where } m \text{ is the number of IVs (sex, DJ, PJ, IJ, WPT),} \tag{1}$$

and VanVoorhis & Morgan (2007, p. 48):

$$N > 104 + m = 109, \text{ for testing individual predictors.} \tag{2}$$

However, Tabachnick and Fidell (2019) suggest that a more appropriate cases-to-IV ratio for statistical regression is 40:1, because "regression can produce a solution that does not generalize beyond the sample, unless the sample is large" (p. 105). Using the 40:1 ratio, 200 cases are required, which this study's sample of 1,113 valid cases satisfies.

Multivariate normality. Tests for multivariate normality were conducted using histograms and normal probability plots (P-P plot) of regression standardized residual and predicted values, as well as Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) and Shapiro-Wilk tests (Table 4.49). The histogram presented a reasonably normally shaped distribution and the P-P plot displayed points closely aligned to the center diagonal. Both tests indicate no major deviations from normality.

As shown in Table 4.49, the results of both the K-S and Shapiro-Wilk tests are significant, indicating that the null hypothesis of normal distribution should be rejected. Although K-S test is widely used (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012), it is limited by its high sensitivity to extreme values, even when corrected by the Lilliefors procedure (Peat & Barton,

2005), and the Shapiro-Wilk test is considered to deliver greater power (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012; Steinskog, Tjøstheim, & Kvamstø, 2007). However, authorities concur that both tests may be overly sensitive with samples larger than 200 (Ghasemi & Zahediasl, 2012; Pallant, 2016).

Table 4.49

Multivariate Normality: Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk Tests

Regression	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a] (df = 1,113)		Shapiro-Wilk (df = 1,113)	
Variables	Statistic	Sig.	Statistic	Sig.
JOBSAT	.080	.000	.965	.000
Sex	.424	.000	.598	.000
DJ	.094	.000	.977	.000
PJ	.043	.000	.984	.000
IJ	.069	.000	.983	.000

Note: [a]Lilliefors Significance Correction

Absence of multicollinearity. The Pearson correlation matrix indicated moderate to strong correlation of the three organizational justice variables with the primary dependent variable, JOBSAT (DJ, r = .701; PJ, r = .433; and IJ, r = .587), and a weaker correlation with the moderator variable, WPT (r = -.255), as shown in Table 4.50. Collinearity diagnostics were run. No dimension had more than one variance proportion greater than .50, indicating that multicollinearity was not present (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 88). Tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) were examined using coefficients (Table 4.50) to determine if multicollinearity was present.

All tolerance levels were above the 0.1 level most commonly cited as lower limit, and VIF levels were below 10, a frequently cited upper limit (Pallant, 2016, p. 159). No evidence of multicollinearity was found in the five models used in this regression.

Table 4.50

Coefficients in Model 5: Dependent Variable Job Satisfaction (JOBSAT)

Regression Model 5	Standardized Coefficients		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	Beta	Sig.	*r*	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)							
Sex	.061	.005	-.071	.085	.058	.902	1.108
DJ	.550	.000	.704	.520	.416	.571	1.751
PJ	.099	.000	.433	.113	.078	.614	1.629
IJ	.187	.000	.587	.176	.122	.428	2.336
WPT	.009	.708	-.255	.011	.008	.743	1.346

Homoscedasticity. To satisfy this assumption, the variance of error must be similar across IV values. Scatterplot output showed distribution of residuals in a horizontal line relationship with predicted JOBSAT scores. Randomly scattered residuals were displayed around the zero value with most scores concentrated near the center. A "pileup of residuals in the center of the plot . . . and a normal distribution of residuals trailing off symmetrically from the center" suggests the presence of homoscedasticity, indicating that the distribution of error (residuals) is relatively similar across values of the IV (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 107).

Linearity. I assessed linearity using the scatterplot of regression standardized residual and predicted values. The presence of randomly distributed points along a center line with no curvilinear distribution around the center line indicated the presence of an acceptably linear relationship between the predictor variable DJ and outcome variable JOBSAT. This linear outcome confirms that the data are eligible for regression and that the results present a low risk of Type II error (Osborne & Waters, 2002). To assess the presence of a linear relationship between the DV and the IVs, I used the Pearson correlations table, which showed all bivariate correlations were below .7 except for DJ/JOBSAT, which was .704.

Absence of influential outliers. Box plots identified the presence of outliers. To determine how influential these outliers were, I used Fox's (2016, p. 267) principle:

$$\text{Influence on coefficients} = \text{discrepancy x leverage} \tag{3}$$

I used Mahalanobis distance calculations to measure the location of all points (values) in relation to the data set centroid, the intersection of the means of all variables. The critical value (χ^2) for Mahalanobis distance with five IVs is 20.52 (Pallant, 2016, p. 161; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 804), indicating the upper limit of acceptability for this measurement. Two cases were determined to have values exceeding the critical value of 20.52 (Case 735 = 24.9, Case 1017 = 29.8), as shown in Table 4.51.

Next, I used Cook's distance calculations to determine whether these two cases exerted leverage that could impact the regression model, applying the conservative significance criterion of $p < .001$ established for multivariate outliers by Tabachnick & Fidell (2019, p. 84). All Cook's distance influence values were found to be below 1.0 limit established for acceptability (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 65), indicating that these cases were not influential and could be retained in the study without distorting its findings. In summary, both cases with high Mahalanobis distance values were found to have low leverage and influence values.

In addition to cases 735 and 1017, casewise diagnostics identified three cases with standard residuals falling outside the -3.3 to 3.3 range. The three cases represent 0.2% of valid cases, which is below the level of 1% of out-of-range cases expected in a normally distributed sample (Pallant, 2016, p. 161). This small number of unusual cases also had Cook's distance values lower than 1.0, suggesting that these cases were not influential on the total regression model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 65). Values for individual outlier cases are presented in Table 4.51 and for the full model in Table 4.52.

Table 4.51

Evaluation of Outliers for Inclusion in the Regression Analysis

Case No.	Mahalanobis Distance	Cook's Distance	Leverage	JOBSAT	Residual	Std. Residual	DfFit	Std. DfFit
Cases with Mahalanobis Distance Values Exceeding Critical Value of 20.52								
735	24.948	.00483	.02244	16	-4.51	-1.09	-.108	-.170
1017	29.813	.01478	.02681	15	-7.19	-1.74	-.205	-.298
SPSS Casewise Diagnostics Residual Outliers								
513	1.859	.00724	.00167	14	-16.9	-4.09	-.047	-.209
734	1.162	.00383	.00105	13	-14.2	-3.43	-.027	-.152
1025	8.52	.01704	.00766	35	14.1	3.42	.122	.321

Table 4.52

Influence of Outliers on the Full Regression Model

	Minimum	*Maximum*[a]	*Mean*	*SD*
Mahalanobis Distance	.619	29.006	4.996	3.040
Cook's Distance	.000	.016	.001	.002

Note: [a]Five predictor variables, n = 1,113. The Mahalanobis distance not-to-exceed critical value for five predictor variables is 20.52 (Pallant, 2016, p. 294).

To further determine whether retention of outliers was justified, I examined each extreme case using an Excel file of the output and found without exception that these cases were not non-engaged responders, Rogelberg et al. (2003). For example, these respondents did not fit a pattern of answering all "1" or all "5" on Likert scale questions. Instead, their answers provided evidence of variety and they responded appropriately to intentionally placed reversed-direction questions. Further, many of these respondents provided text answers to the three questions examined qualitatively in Chapter 5, answers that were consistent with their statements that they had seen or experienced significant ethics violations. Because the outlier cases were active responders and because they met Cook's distance acceptance criteria indicating that they were not influential on the model, I elected to retain them, particularly as their outlier perceptions may add value as part of the first description of this population.

Independence of residuals. To meet the test for independence of residuals (errors of prediction), the final assumption of regression, the Durbin-Watson statistic was calculated as part of the SPSS regression model summary. Durbin-Watson tests for autocorrelation, which indicates that the errors are not independent of each other. Tabachnick & Fidell (2019) advise that positive autocorrelation underestimates the error variance and increases the possibility of a Type I error, while negative autocorrelation overestimates this variance, resulting in loss of statistical power (p. 109). Durbin-Watson test results range from 0.0 to 4.0, with 2.0 indicating perfect residual independence (Field, 2017; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). The test result for the full regression model ($D = 1.995$) indicated that autocorrelation was not present, the residuals were sufficiently independent, and the data were eligible for regression.

Preliminary statistical analysis.

The relationship between JOBSAT, sex, DJ, PJ, IJ, and WPT was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, following preliminary analysis to confirm the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. As shown in Table 4.53, there were strong positive correlations between DJ and JOBSAT ($r = .704$, $n = 1113$, $p < .001$), and between IJ and JOBSAT ($r = .587$, $n = 1113$, $p < .001$). There was a moderate, positive correlation between PJ and JOBSAT ($r = .433$, $n = 1113$, $p < .001$). There was a small negative correlation between WPT and JOBSAT ($r = -.255$, $n = 1113$, $p < .001$), and a very small negative correlation between sex and JOBSAT ($r = -.071$, $n = 1113$, $p = .009$). Of all predictor variables, DJ had the strongest positive correlation, an outcome supported in literature. However, in this study, IJ produced a stronger correlation than PJ, which is contrary to the findings of most studies, as presented in the Colquitt et al. (2001) meta-analysis of 25 years of organizational justice research.

Table 4.53

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between JOBSAT, Sex, DJ, PJ, IJ, and WPT

		JOBSAT	sex	DJ	PJ	IJ	WPT
Pearson's Correlation	JOBSAT	—					
	sex	-.071**	—				
	DJ	.704***	-.136***	—			
	PJ	.433***	-.255***	.441***	—		
	IJ	.587***	-.181***	.650***	.588***	—	
	WPT	-.255***	.264***	-.284***	-.388***	-.457***	—

Note: $N = 1{,}113$. $^{**}p < .01$, $^{***}p < .001$

Regression results.

Moderated hierarchical multiple regression was run to assess the ability of five variables to predict job satisfaction in proposal development professionals. With gender as the control variable, the additional predictor variables were distributive justice (DJ), procedural justice (PJ), and interactional justice (IJ); with workplace treatment (WPT) as the moderator. The sequence in which variables were added to the model was determined by literature, which found that distributive justice was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction and that procedural justice had a stronger influence on job satisfaction than interactional justice (Colquitt, et al., 2001; Leventhal, 1980; Lind & Tyler, 1988; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992; Sweeney & McFarlin, 1993).

Preliminary analyses confirmed that the only violations of the assumptions of regression was the presence of three outliers, but that these outliers were noninfluential, based on Cook's distance. There were no leverage values greater than 0.2 and no values for Cook's distance above 1.0. There was linearity as assessed by partial regression plots and a plot of studentized residuals against the predicted values. Residuals were independent, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 1.995. Homoscedasticity was present, as assessed by visual inspection of a plot of residuals versus predicted values. The assumption of normality was met, as assessed by Q-Q

Plot. There was no evidence of multicollinearity, as assessed by tolerance values greater than 0.1 (.428 to .902) and VIF values less than 10 (1.1 to 2.3) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

Table 4.54 provides information on the regression model. The full model of sex, DJ, PJ, IJ, and WPT as predictors of JOBSAT (Model 5) was statistically significant, $R^2 = .533$, $F(5, 1107) = 252.922$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .531$. Effect size for the addition of Models 2 to 5 in the full model was large ($f^2 = 1.131$). Sex was entered in Model 1, explaining 0.5% of the variance in perceived job satisfaction (R^2 change = .005), $F(1, 1111) = 5.564$, ($p = .019$). The addition of DJ in Model 2 led to a statistically significant increase in R^2 of .492, $F(1, 1110) = 1083.577$, $p < .001$, explaining a combined 49.7% of the variance ($f^2 = .974$). Adding PJ to Model 3 contributed a statistically significant increase in R^2 of .021, $F(1, 1109) = 48.381$, $f^2 = .066$, $p < .001$, explaining a total 51.8% of the variance. In Model 4, IJ was added, increasing R^2 by .016, $F(1, 1108) = 37.081$, $f^2 = .013$, $p < .001$. Together, these four steps explain 53.4% of the total change in JOBSAT. In Model 5, the moderator variable WPT was added, increasing R^2 by .000, $F(1,1107) = .140$, $f^2 = .000$, $p = .708$. The impact of the moderator variable on the model was not significant and therefore an examination of the interaction effect was not undertaken.

The results reported in Tables 4.54 and 4.55 confirm that distributive justice is the strongest predictor of job satisfaction among the three organizational justice variables, supporting the literature (Colquitt et al., 2001). Unexpectedly, however, this regression also shows that interactional justice is a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than procedural justice based on relative values of B and β in Models 4 and 5 ($p < .001$), as well as effect size. This result is contrary to published findings, including Colquitt et al. (2001), whose meta-analysis "showed procedural justice to be a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than interactional justice, although both had significant independent effects" (p. 429).

Table 4.54

Moderated Hierarchical Multiple Regression 1: Predicting JOBSAT From Sex and Perceptions of DJ, PJ, IJ, and WPT Using the Variable Loading Sequence Described in Literature

	Job Satisfaction (JOBSAT) Regression 1 Coefficients Table									
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
Variable	B	β	B	β	B	β	B	β	B	β
Constant	30.997***		11.824***		8.980***		7.064***		6.854***	
Sex	-.901*	-.701	.331***	.026	.752**	.059	.800**	.063	.781**	.061
DJ			.783***	.708	.707***	.639	.609***	.550	.608***	.550
PJ					.207***	.166	.122***	.098	.124***	.099
IJ							.140***	.183	.142***	.187
WPT									.123	.009
R^2	.005		.496		.518		.533		.533	
F	5.564*		547.281***		396.555***		316.363***		252.922***	
ΔR^2	.005		.492		.021		.016		.000	
ΔF	5.564*		1083.577***		48.381***		37.081***		.140	

Note: $N = 1{,}113$. $^*p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$, $^{***}p < .001$

Table 4.55

Model Summary: Moderated Hierarchical Multiple Regression 1

Model[f]	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std Error of Est.	R^2 change	F change	df1 / df2	Sig. F Change
1	.071[a]	.005	.004	6.03345	.005	5.564	1 / 1111	.019*
2	.705[b]	.496	.496	4.29384	.492	1083.577	1 / 1110	.000***
3	.719[c]	.518	.516	4.20503	.021	48.381	1 / 1109	.000***
4	.730[d]	.533	.531	4.13825	.016	37.081	1 / 1108	.000***
5	.730[e]	.533	.531	4.13986	.000	0.140	1 / 1107	.708

Note. $^*p \leq .05$, $^{**}p \leq .01$, $^{***}p \leq .001$.

[a] Predictors: (Constant), Sex
[b] Predictors: (Constant), Sex, DJ
[c] Predictors: (Constant), Sex, DJ, PJ
[d] Predictors: (Constant), Sex, DJ, PJ, IJ
[e] Predictors: (Constant), Sex, DJ, PJ, IJ, WPT
[f] Dependent variable: Job Satisfaction

Regression 2: Revised loading sequence. Based on the deviation from the literature in predictive strength of PJ and IJ, I reran the regression with the variables loaded in a revised sequence: sex, DJ, IJ, PJ, WPT. Results are presented in Tables 4.56 and 4.57. The Pearson's correlation and significance values remain the same as shown previously in Table 4.53, regardless of loading sequence. Table 4.57 shows that, unlike in the first regression, the B and β values in Models 4 and 5 are in descending order in this sequence.

Table 4.56

Moderated Hierarchical Multiple Regression 2: Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between JOBSAT, Sex, DJ, PJ, IJ, and WPT Using a Revised Variable Loading Sequence

		JOBSAT	sex	DJ	IJ	PJ	WPT
Pearson's Correlation	JOBSAT	—					
	sex	-.071**	—				
	DJ	.704***	-.136***	—			
	IJ	.587***	-.181***	.650***	—		
	PJ	.433***	-.255***	.441***	.588***	—	
	WPT	-.255***	.264***	-.284***	-.457***	-.388***	—

Note: $N = 1{,}113$. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Table 4.57

Moderated Hierarchical Multiple Regression 2: Predicting JOBSAT From Sex, Perceptions of DJ, IJ, PJ, and WPT Based on Loading IJ Before PJ

	Job Satisfaction (JOBSAT) Regression 2 Coefficients Table									
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
Variable	B	β	B	β	B	β	B	β	B	β
Constant	30.997***		11.824***		7.926***		7.064***		6.854***	
Sex	-.901*	-.701	.331*	.026	.610*	.048	.800**	.063	.781**	.061
DJ			.783***	.708	.619***	.560	.609***	.550	.608***	.550
IJ (new loading sequence)					.177***	.232	.140***	.183	.142***	.187
PJ (new loading sequence)							.122***	.098	.124***	.099
WPT									.123	.009
R^2	.005		.496		.527		.533		.533	
F	5.564*		547.281***		412.151***		316.363***		252.922***	
ΔR^2	.005		.492		.031		.006		.000	
ΔF	5.564*		1083.577***		71.939***		14.238***		.140	

Note: $N = 1{,}113$. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

The differences in regression outcomes caused by reversing the loading sequence of PJ and IJ are seen first in Model 3, with IJ exerting a stronger influence than PJ does when occupying the same position. Effect size (f^2) also increases from .046 to .066. Table 4.58 highlights the differences in R^2, F, t, and f^2 between the two regressions, showing that the second loading sequence (IJ – PJ) is stronger than the original sequence derived from literature.

Table 4.58

Model 3 Differences in Two Regressions Based on the Sequence of Loading Variables PJ and IJ

Model 3 Variable Loading Sequences and Outcomes[a]								
Sequence	R^2	F	ΔR^2	ΔF	β[b]	t	f^2	**Sig.**
PJ – IJ (Regression 1)	.518	396.555***	.021	48.381***	DJ = .639 PJ = .166	DJ = 27.483 PJ = 6.956	.046	$p < .001$
IJ – PJ (Regression 2)	**.527**	**412.151*** **	**.031**	**71.939*** **	DJ = .560 **IJ = .232**	DJ = 20.859 **IJ = 8.482**	**.066**	$p < .001$

Note: [a] N = 1,113. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$; [b] Standardized coefficients Beta. Items in bold text indicate stronger predictive results resulting from revised loading sequence in Regression 2.

Principal component analysis.

In their 25-year meta-analysis of organizational justice literature, Colquitt et al. (2001) note the difficulty experienced by many researchers in segregating items into independent constructs with any degree of uniformity across the field—researchers assigned similar variables to different scales. This overlap was particularly notable between procedural and interactional justice scales, with nearly identical survey questions were used by different authors to measure different variables. Studies were even conducted using combined constructs (Konovsky & Folger, 1991; Tyler & Bies, 1990). Because this study's regression results did not conform to outcomes in literature regarding the relative strength of procedural and interactional justice (Colquitt et al., 2001), and because of the historical variations among researchers, I chose to subject all 24 items of the DJ, PJ, and IJ scales to principal component analysis (PCA). This

action was taken to determine whether the scale items "formed coherent subsets that were relatively independent of one another" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 476), to confirm the appropriate assignment of items to each scale, and to examine the relationship of the variables to each other. SPSS version 24 was used for this test, using PCA method of extraction. [In this study, the terms "factor" and "component" are used interchangeably for simplicity, following the example provided by Tabachnick and Fidell (2019, p. 478)].

Data suitability for PCA was assessed prior to performing PCA. Inspection of correlation matrices found many coefficients of .3 and above, supporting factorability (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019, p. 482). The initial Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was .900, exceeding the recommended minimum value of .600 (Kaiser, 1974). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance ($p < .001$), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix, while noting this test's sensitivity with large samples. Multiple successive tests were performed with both Varimax and Promax rotations. Of the original 24 organizational justice variables, the following five were deleted because of multiple cross-loadings and low extraction values: *IJ-explain, (R)DJ-hours, (R)PJ-oppsex, DJ-goodinfo,* and *(R)PJ-discrim*. The remaining 19 variables were retained for further analysis.

PCA on the remaining 19 variables revealed a KMO of .875 and the presence of four components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, explaining 61.88% of the total variance. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) reached statistical significance ($p < .001$). An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break and in accordance with Cattell's (1966) scree test interpretation, I retained the first three components for analysis with inferential statistics. Based on eigenvalues, Component 1 contributed 33.21% of the total variance; Component 2 contributed 14.02%; Component 3 contributed 8.72%, and Component 4 contributed 5.64%. The unrotated solution

was examined and both orthogonal (Varimax) and oblique (Promax) rotations were performed to aid in the interpretation of these components. The goal was to produce simple structure as defined by Thurstone (1947), with variables loading on a single component. After using different techniques, Promax rotation was selected as the optimal rotation for this data because it was the only rotation that produced simple structure, facilitating interpretation and utility.

Promax rotation was also appropriate because the literature offered ample basis for believing that the underlying constructs were correlated, with researchers in conflict over organizational justice construct identity for more than 40 years (Bies, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2007; Tyler & Bies, 1990). According to Tabachnick & Fidell (2019), "the researcher who believes the underlying processes are correlated uses oblique rotation" (p. 500). Promax offers the advantage of including an orthogonal rotation that is rotated again, pushing small loadings to zero and further differentiating the factors. Table 4.59 displays the results of the rotated solution pattern matrix, which converged in six iterations. Simple structure (Thurstone, 1947) is evident, with every component showing strong loadings (> .5).

The pattern matrix in Table 4.59 is interpretively similar to all previous attempts to factor this set of data and variables, regardless of whether the solution was sought through orthogonal or oblique rotation. However, the use of Promax rotation produced the clearest result, with elements aligned within factors in a way that makes sense: Component 1 most closely aligns with DJ; Component 2 with IJ; and Component 3 with PJ.

Organizational justice component content analysis. Component 1 (REWARDS) is essentially about the fairness of rewards received in the workplace. Looking at Component 1, it is evident that it is the most heterogeneous of all the components in relation to the original IVs. While the other components draw their variables from only one of the original IVs, REWARDS

Table 4.59

Principal Component Analysis of DJ, PJ, and IJ Variables: Final Rotated Pattern Matrix

	Components			
	1	2	3	4
	REWARDS	TREATMENT	DISCRIMINATION	SEXBEHAV
DJ-perform	.811			
DJ-noticed	.731			
IJ-honestboss	.729			
DJ-credit	.707			
IJ-role	.680			
DJ-promote	.637			
DJ-fairpay	.624			
PJ-politics	.624			
IJ-respect	.588			
IJ-exhaust		.944		
IJ-burnout		.919		
IJ-hostile		.752		
IJ-verbal		.728		
IJ-demoraliz		.620		
PJ-orientdisc			.862	
PJ-discprob			.843	
PJ-agedisc			.759	
IJ-sexharass				.917
IJ-inappsex				.899
Cronbach's alpha	.857	.892	.764	.878

Note: Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser normalization. Rotation converged in 6 iterations. KMO = .875; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-square 9683.733, df = 171, $p < .001$.

is a blend of DJ, IJ, and PJ, indicating that the original IJ and PJ scales contained items perceived by respondents as being latently related to DJ. Half of the variables in REWARDS are from the DJ IV, scale, while half are not. Traditional distributive justice elements are included, such as having one's performance noticed and receiving credit for work well done, as well as believing that promotions and pay are fair. However, variables from IJ and PJ also rotated into REWARDS, broadening the interpretation of compensation beyond wages. The rotated component includes receiving respect for oneself and one's role (IJ variables) and having an honest boss (IJ variable) who cuts through office politics to determine compensation (PJ variable).

Component 2 (TREATMENT) presents a unified set of variables drawn from IJ that reflect respondents' feelings about their workplace environments and treatment: demoralizing treatment by a supervisor, hostile work environment, burnout, and emotional exhaustion. Whereas in the first component, the interactional relationship is entirely between the employee and a boss, in this component, the relationship is more broadly between an employee and a set of environmental conditions over which the employee has no control—the general workplace environment causing overwork and stress. Component 3 (DISCRIMINATION) is drawn solely from PJ and deals with types of discrimination that arise from the failure to follow established HRM procedures or laws. Component 4 (SEXBEHAV) is drawn only from IJ and deals with sexual harassment and inappropriate sexual behavior in the workplace, distinguishing these items from discrimination.

The interpretation of the components was consistent with previous research on organizational justice in that it confirmed that distributive justice in its broadest sense was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction (Colquitt et al., 2001). However, it was inconsistent with prior research in two ways. First, the elements relating to interactional justice loaded on three different components and collectively loaded more strongly than the procedural justice component. This loading pattern contrasted with literature, but confirmed the results of earlier regressions in this study. Second, interactional justice did not load in accordance with the two subconstructs of interpersonal and informational justice described in literature (Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg, 1993).

Cronbach's alpha scores for the post-PCA scales support the outcome of Regression 2 (see Table 4.54), which showed that the strongest sequence of predictors of job satisfaction is DJ–IJ–PJ, based on this set of questions answered by this study's respondents. Table 4.60

summarizes the effect of PCA on this study's organizational justice scales, showing that apart from *sexharass* and *inappsex*, which were not used, five variables were able to be deleted while maintaining or strengthening the scales. This outcome meant that equally strong predictive power was achievable with fewer variables.

Table 4.60

Summary of Changes to DJ, IJ, and PJ after PCA

Scale Names and Number of Items				Cronbach's Alpha	
Original		Post-PCA		Original	Post-PCA
DJ Scale	7	REWARDS	9	.783	**.857**
IJ Scale	11	TREATMENT	5	.853	**.892**
PJ Scale	6	DISCRIMINATION	3	.762	**.764**
Total:	24		17		

Table 4.60 shows that Cronbach's alpha scores of all scales increased. Tables 4.61 and 4.62 provide comparative statistics on the old and new scales used in regression analysis. As seen in Table 4.60, reliability measures increased in the organizational justice variables. In all three tables, these variables are shown in the revised loading sequence: DJ–IJ–PJ.

Table 4.61

Organizational Justice Scale Variables Post-PCA: Reliability and Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Cronbach's alpha	Scale Items	Valid Frequency	Valid Percentage	Mean	Median	SD	Mean Inter-item Correl.
DJ	.783	7	1102	99.0	23.45	24	5.47	.342
REWARDS (post-PCA)	.857	9	1098	98.7	30.99	28	7.12	.401
IJ	.853	11	1092	98.1	39.49	40	7.36	.351
TREATMENT (post-PCA)	.892	5	1101	98.9	16.77	9	4.50	.624
PJ	.762	6	1106	99.4	21.02	21	4.84	.496
DISCRIM. (post-PCA)	.764	3	1110	99.7	10.43	10	2.94	.524
JOBSAT	.810	6	1095	98.4	21.53	22	5.13	.427
(no PCA change)	.810	6	1095	98.4	21.53	22	5.13	.427

Table 4.62

Organizational Justice Scale Variables Post-PCA: Skewness and Kurtosis

Scale Name	Skewness Statistic	Skewness Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Kurtosis Std. Error
DJ	-.293	.073	-.235	.147
REWARDS (post-PCA)	-.350	.073	-.466	.147
IJ	-.499	.073	.071	.147
TREATMENT (post-PCA)	-.382	.073	-.277	.147
PJ	-.218	.073	-.408	.147
DISCRIMINATION (post-PCA)	-.063	.073	-.642	.147
JOBSAT (no change)	-.460	.073	-.256	.147

Relationship to Herzberg's two-factor theory. Perhaps the most striking result of PCA was how closely the rotated elements aligned with variables in Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Table 4.63 displays this alignment.

Table 4.63

Alignment of Herzberg Factors and Organizational Justice Constructs After PCA

Herzberg Motivation	Distributive Justice **REWARDS**	***Herzberg Hygiene***	Interactional Justice **TREATMENT**	Procedural Justice **DISCRIMINATION**
Achievement	DJ-credit	***Working conditions and salary***[c]	IJ-exhaust IJ-burnout	
Recognition	DJ-noticed DJ-fairpay[a] IJ-honestboss[b] IJ-respect PJ-politics	***Relationship with supervisor***	IJ-demoralize IJ-verbal	
The work itself	DJ-perform	***Interpersonal relationships***	IJ-hostile	
Responsibility	IJ-role	***Company policies***		PJ-orientdisc PJ-discprob PJ-agedisc
Advancement	DJ-promote			
Possibility of growth				

Note: [a]DJ-fairpay relates to fairness of pay in recognition of work performed, rather than salary level.
[b]IJ-honestboss measures how honest respondents feel the supervisor is when explaining how raises are determined.
[c]Herzberg (2003) stated that salary could function as either a motivation or hygiene factor.

Herzberg's Motivation factor contains six variables that align with eight of the nine REWARDS variables. Both Motivation and REWARDS (distributive justice) were the strongest predictors of job satisfaction. In its broadest sense as captured in Herzberg et al. (1959) and Herzberg (1968, 2003), Motivation, like REWARDS, encompasses respect, being given a responsible role, being paid fairly in accordance with work performed, being noticed and credited for accomplishment, and having a fair opportunity for promotion. Herzberg's Hygiene factor contains four variables that align with TREATMENT (interactional justice) and DISCRIMINATION (procedural justice). In Herzberg's taxonomy, the Hygiene factors influence job dissatisfaction. That can be seen by the presence of items such as workplace hostility, verbal abuse, emotional exhaustion, and burnout. The presence of these variables creates an unpleasant workplace, but their absence does not necessarily create job satisfaction; the presence of variables on the Motivation side of the ledger are required for satisfaction to occur.

The only variable in this study's PCA rotation that did not align directly with the Herzberg taxonomy is *IJ-honestboss*. This is a nuanced variable that describes the level to which a respondent believes that a boss gives honest explanations for raises or lack of raises. An understanding of the variable brings up issues of interpersonal ethics and trust. The PCA rotation placed this variable in REWARDS, indicating that respondents may have been thinking more about the compensation aspects of the question when responding. It is shown under TREATMENT in Table 4.63 because it describes the relationship with the supervisor; if this relationship is felt to be dishonest, those feelings will create dissatisfaction.

Herzberg et al. (1959) noted the difficulty of categorizing items concerning pay. They categorized salary as extrinsic to the work and a Hygiene variable, meaning that it can cause dissatisfaction but not satisfaction. However, the PCA rotation indicates that almost all of this

study's compensation items belong under REWARDS, as shown in Table 4.63. This may be because this placement closely aligns with their distributive justice origin, or because it relates to the *fairness* of pay rather than to the amount, which is considered was originally considered to be a Hygiene variable (salary). Acknowledging the complex role of compensation and its fairness, Herzberg (1968) affirmed that salary can function as both Motivation and Hygiene.

PCA of JOBSAT. PCA was also run to evaluate the primary dependent variable scale, JOBSAT, which has a Cronbach's alpha score of .810. The KMO result for this set of six items was .832. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 = 2198.314$; $df = 15$; $p < .001$). All six items loaded as one component and could not be rotated. These results confirm the strength of this single-factor scale as a viable measure of job satisfaction. Results of all PCA analyses can be found in Appendix F.

Inferential Statistics Using Post-PCA Scales

Hypothesis 4 After PCA.

Using the REWARDS scale computed after PCA, I conducted an independent samples *t* test to examine Hypothesis 4: *Perceptions of distributive justice inequity will be higher among women than men.* The purpose of this reexamination was to determine whether there was any change in outcome based on the change in scale composition. A high score on the REWARDS scale indicates that the respondent believes that monetary and non-monetary distributive justice exists. In this study, that belief in fairness includes fairness of treatment by a boss in terms of recognition, credit, being noticed and rewarded for performance, promotion, and respect, in addition to overall fairness of pay. A low score indicates perceptions of distributive justice inequity.

Respondents included 378 males and 735 females. Box plots and normal Q-Q plots indicated outliers and non-normal distribution, respectively. As shown in Table 4.64, a Shapiro-Wilk test confirmed a non-normal distribution of REWARDS scores across male and female respondent groups ($p < .001$). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($F = 6.705$, $p < .01$). There was a statistically significant difference in REWARDS scores of men ($\mu = 32.487$, $SD = 6.60$) and women ($\mu = 30.222$, $SD = 7.22$) with men scoring higher than women: $t(824.418) = 5.250$, $p < .001$ one-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means [mean difference = 2.265, 95%, CI (1.42 to 3.11)] was small (η^2 squared = .023), indicating that 2.3% of the variance in REWARDS scores is explained by gender (Cohen, 1988). The null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis that women perceive greater distributive justice inequity than men is supported.

Table 4.64

Hypothesis 4: Normality and Distribution Statistics Using REWARDS Scale

REWARDS Scale	Mean Score	Summative Scale Data			Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
Gender (*n* = 1113)		**Mean**	**Med.**	**SD**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**	**stat**	**df**	**sig**
00 Males	3.25	32.49	33	6.60	.075	378	.000	.982	378	.000
01 Females	3.02	30.22	31	7.22	.082	735	.000	.982	735	.000

Note: [a]Lilliefors Significance Correction

When using the REWARDS scale to measure job satisfaction, the median, mean, and standard deviation values were all higher than values obtained using the DJ scale. However, the relationship between scores of males and females remained the same as in the earlier test. One change was noted in values for males: Using the revised scale, the significance of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for males increased from $p = .016$ to $p < .001$ and Shapiro-Wilk significance increased from $p = .002$ to $p < .001$. Table 4.64 presents final values.

Because of the violation of normality and presence of noninfluential outliers, I also conducted a nonparametric Mann-Whitney *U* test to determine if women perceived higher levels of distributive justice inequity. Distribution curves for REWARDS scores of both men and women were similarly shaped, as assessed by visual inspection (Figure 4.8).

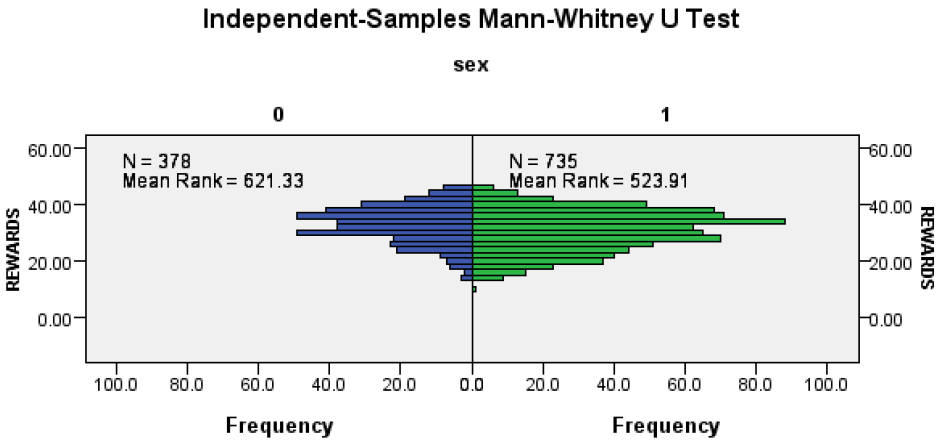


Figure 4.8. Distribution curves for males (0) and females (1) on the REWARDS scale.

Median REWARDS scores were statistically significantly different between male (*Med.* = 33) and female (*Med.* = 31) respondents (U = 114,597.5, z = -4.793, $p < .001$, calculated using asymptotic, one-tailed testing). Effect size (r = -4.793/33.36 = -0.144) was small (Cohen, 1988), indicating that 14.4% of the difference in median REWARDS scores was due to gender. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis that women will perceive higher levels of distributive justice inequity than men is supported by both t test ($p < .001$) and Mann-Whitney U test ($p < .001$).

What both of these tests show is that using the REWARDS scale strengthened the outcome from the earlier test but did not change it: men in this study sample believe that fairness of both pay and non-monetary distributive justice exists to a significantly greater degree than

women believe it does, and women perceive a significantly higher degree of distributive justice inequity.

Hypothesis 5 After PCA.

Using the organizational justice scales modified by PCA, hierarchical multiple regression was run to test Hypothesis 5: *Individual perceptions of three dimensions of organizational justice, moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, will influence job satisfaction.* The purpose for conducting this test with the PCA-generated variables was two-fold: to determine how the new variables performed as predictors of job satisfaction vs. the original IVs, and also to see whether the modified loading sequence shown in Regression 2 (DJ–IJ–PJ) could be supported using these new variables.

With gender as the control variable, the predictor variables were REWARDS (distributive justice), TREATMENT (interactional justice), and DISCRIMINATION (procedural justice), with workplace treatment (WPT) as the moderator. The differences between these variables and the original IVs can be found in Tables 4.60 to 4.62, earlier in this chapter.

Preliminary analyses confirmed that the only violation of the assumptions of regression was the presence of three outliers, but that these outliers had no influence on the model based on Cook's distance (i.e., no values for Cook's distance above 1). There was linearity as assessed by partial regression plots of the DV and all IVs, and a scatterplot of the studentized residuals of residuals against the unstandardized predicted values. Residuals were independent, as assessed by a Durbin-Watson statistic of 2.014. There was homoscedasticity, as assessed by visual inspection of a plot of studentized residuals versus unstandardized predicted values. The assumption of normality of residual distribution was met, as assessed by visual inspection of a histogram with normal curve, and by P-P plot. There was no evidence of multicollinearity, as

assessed by tolerance values greater than 0.1 (.706 to .977) and VIF values below 10 (1.023 to 1.416).

Tables 4.65 through 4.67 provide information on the regression model. The full model of sex, REWARDS, TREATMENT, DISCRIMINATION, and WPT as predictors of JOBSAT (Model 5) was statistically significant, $R^2 = .563$, $F(5, 1107) = 285.256$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .561$. Effect size for the addition of Models 2 to 5 in the full model was large ($f^2 = 1.272$) was the largest of the three regressions. Sex was entered in Model 1, explaining 0.7% of the variance in perceived job satisfaction (R^2 change = .007), $F(1, 1111) = 7.467$, $p < .01$. The addition of REWARDS in Model 2 led to a statistically significant increase in R^2 of .553, $F(1, 1110) = 1396.058$, $f^2 = 1.257$, $p < .001$. Models 1 and 2 explained a combined 56.0% of JOBSAT variance. Adding TREATMENT to Model 3 contributed an increase in R^2 of .002, $F(1, 1109) = 3.821$, $f^2 = .005$, $p = .051$, explaining an additional 0.2% of the variance. DISCRIMINATION was added in Model 4, increasing R^2 by .001, $F(1, 1108) = 3.703$, $f^2 = .002$, $p = .055$. Together, these four steps explain 56.3% of the total change in JOBSAT. In Model 5, the moderator variable WPT was added, increasing R^2 by .000, $F(1,1107) = .039$, $p = .843$. The impact of the moderator variable on the model was not significant and therefore interaction effect was not run.

The results reported in Tables 4.65–4.67 confirm that distributive justice (REWARDS) is the strongest predictor of job satisfaction among the three organizational justice variables, supporting the literature (Colquitt et al., 2001). Compared to previous regressions in this paper, REWARDS retained strength in the full model ($f^2 = 1.257$, $p < .001$), while TREATMENT ($f^2 = .005$, $p < .05$) and DISCRIMINATION ($f^2 = .002$, $p = .060$) had smaller and less significant effects than their interactional justice and procedural justice counterparts, and WPT remained nonsignificant as a moderator ($p = .753$).

Table 4.65

Moderated Hierarchical Multiple Regression 3: Predicting JOBSAT From Sex and Perceptions of REWARDS, TREATMENT, and DISCRIMINATION, with WPT as a Moderator, Using the Revised Variable Loading Sequence

	Job Satisfaction (JOBSAT) with PCA Variables: Coefficients Table									
	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
Variable	B	β	B	β	B	β	B	β	B	β
Constant	22.111***		4.395***		3.921***		3.511***		3.596***	
Sex	-.887**	-.082	.349	.032	.382	.036	.408	.038	.418	.038
REWARDS			.545***	.753	.534***	.737	.529***	.730	.529***	.730
TREATMENT					.048*	.042	.035	.031	.033	.029
DISCRIMINATION							.072	.041	.071	.041
WPT									-.054	-.005
R^2	.007		.560		.562		.563		.563	
F	7.467		706.450***		473.437***		356.869***		285.256***	
ΔR^2	.007		.553		.002		.001		.000	
ΔF	7.467		1396.058***		3.821		3.703		.039	

Note: N = 1,113. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

Table 4.66

Regression 3 Model Summary: Hierarchical Multiple Regression of Job Satisfaction Using Scale Variables Modified Based on PCA Results

Model[f]	R	R^2	Adjusted R^2	Std Error of Est.	R^2 change	F change	df1 / df2	Sig. F Change
1	.082[a]	.007	.006	5.12642	.007	7.467**	1 / 1111	.006**
2	.748[b]	.560	.559	3.41331	.553	1396.058***	1 / 1110	.000***
3	.749[c]	.562	.560	3.40898	.002	3.821	1 / 1109	.051
4	.750[d]	.563	.561	3.40483	.001	3.703	1 / 1108	.055
5	.750[e]	.563	.561	3.40631	.000	.039	1 / 1107	.843

Note. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001.

[a] Predictors: (Constant), Sex
[b] Predictors: (Constant), Sex, REWARDS
[c] Predictors: (Constant), Sex, REWARDS, TREATMENT
[d] Predictors: (Constant), Sex, REWARDS, TREATMENT, DISCRIMINATION
[e] Predictors: (Constant), Sex, REWARDS, TREATMENT, DISCRIMINATION, WPT
[f] Dependent variable: Job Satisfaction

Table 4.67

Regression 3: Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between JOBSAT, Sex, REWARDS, TREATMENT, DISCRIMINATION, and WPT Using a Revised Loading Sequence

		JOBSAT	sex	REWARDS	TREATMENT	DISCRIM.	WPT
Pearson's Correlation	JOBSAT	—					
	sex	-.082**	—				
	REWARDS	.748***	-.151***	—			
	TREATMENT	.323***	-.131***	.388***	—		
	DISCRIMINATION	.242***	-.116***	.266***	.346***	—	
	WPT	-.247***	.264***	-.313***	-.436***	-.286***	—

Note: N = 1,113. *p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

Summary

This study examined the role of gender (sex), nationality, training, three organizational justice variables, and workplace treatment on the business ethics and job satisfaction of proposal development workers. The relationship between annual ethics training and the observation of proposal ethics violations was examined, as was the relationship between gender and perceptions of workplace treatment. The relationship between gender and perceptions of distributive justice equity and gender-related workplace penalties was also examined.

Data were collected through an anonymous, online survey to which 1,254 members of an international professional organization representing proposal development professionals responded (17.1% response rate). Descriptive statistics were in this chapter provided on all survey question responses. Data were examined to eliminate incomplete or nonresponsive cases, leaving a sample containing 1,113 valid cases used in inferential statistics to study the research questions presented in Chapter 3. A demographic comparison was run between the full sample and valid cases, and they were found to be similar. Data eligibility testing was run and determined to be satisfactory. A small number of outliers were present in some analyses; they were examined and found to represent active responders, some of whom provided narrative

responses included in the qualitative analysis in Chapter 5. For this reason and because they exerted no influence on the model, as determined by Cook's distance values < 1 (maximum = .023, μ = .001, *SD* = .002, *n* = 1113), these cases were retained.

Gender played a strong and statistically significant role in determining perceptions of business ethics violations (H1a), gender-related workplace penalties (H2), and distributive justice inequity (H4), with women registering higher scores than men on both *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests ($p < .001$). Nationality (U.S. vs non-U.S.) produced no significant impact on perceptions of business ethics violations (H1b) ($p = .296$ on *t* test; $p = .363$ on Mann-Whitney *U* test). Receipt of annual ethics training significantly reduced observations of proposal ethics violations in the workplace (H3) ($p < .001$). Hierarchical multiple regression indicated that the IV most strongly influencing job satisfaction was distributive justice, followed by interactional justice and procedural justice ($p < .001$); the relative position of the latter two constructs was contrary to literature (Colquitt et al., 2001).

Principal component analysis confirmed the relative strengths of the three organizational justice variables and supported realignment of variables within the three new scales: REWARDS, derived primarily from distributive justice (DJ); TREATMENT, derived solely from interactional justice (IJ); and DISCRIMINATION, derived from procedural justice (PJ). The PCA-derived variables aligned strongly with the variables in Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1968, 2003; Herzberg et al., 1959).

Using the REWARDS scale, a second set of independent samples *t* test and Mann-Whitney *U* tests were run on H4. The results remained significant, with women perceiving higher levels of distributive justice inequity than men ($p < .001$). The H5 regression was also rerun using the new variables and a revised new loading sequence. Examination of scatterplots and the

P-P plot indicated increased normality over the previous two regressions. The full model remained significant in ANOVA ($p < .001$), although the impact of individual variables within the model was altered. REWARDS increased in strength and TREATMENT and DISCRIMINATION demonstrated smaller. nonsignificant effects ($p = .051$, $p = .055$) than their equivalents in the previous two regressions. The moderating effect of WPT remained non-significant ($p = .843$). The hypotheses, variables, tests, and results are summarized in Table 4.68.

Table 4.68

Summary of Hypothesis Testing and Results

	Hypothesis	Variables	Tests Performed	Result
1a	Women will perceive higher occurrences of business ethics violations than men.	IV: Sex DV: BEP	Independent samples *t* test; Mann-Wilcox U	Supported $p < .001$
1b	Nationality will influence business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals.	IV: Nationality DV: BEP	Independent samples *t* test Mann-Whitney U	Not supported $p = .296$ $p = .363$
1c	Annual ethics training will produce fewer observations of general business ethics violations.	IV: Training DV: BEP	Independent samples *t* test; Mann-Wilcox U	Supported $p < .001$
2	Women will perceive higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties than men.	IV: Sex DV: GWP	Independent samples *t* test; Mann-Wilcox U	Supported $p < .001$
3	Individuals who receive annual ethics training will be less likely to observe proposal ethics violations in their workplaces than those who receive no training.	IV: Training DV: PEV	Independent samples *t* test; Mann-Wilcox U	Supported $p < .001$
4	Perceptions of distributive justice inequity will be higher among women than men.	IV: Sex DV: DJ	Independent samples *t* test; Mann-Wilcox U	Supported $p < .001$
5	Individual perceptions of three dimensions of organizational justice, moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, will influence job satisfaction.	IV: DJ, PJ, IJ DV: JOBSAT Mod: WPT Control: Sex	HMR: Full model significant $p < .001$ (ANOVA: Model 1, $p = .019$; Models 2–5, $p < .001$.) The addition of moderator WPT to Model 5 was not significant, $\Delta F = .140$, $p = .708$)	
	With new variables based on PCA	IV: REWARDS, TREATMENT, DISCRIMINATION DV: JOBSAT Mod: WPT Control: Sex	HMR: Full model significant $p < .001$ (ANOVA: Model 1, $p < .01$; Model 2, $p < .001$; Model 3. $p = .051$; Model 4, $p = .055$. The addition of moderator WPT to Model 5 was not significant, $\Delta F = .039$, $p = .843$.	

This chapter has presented quantitative analysis results for this study. Chapter 5 will present the qualitative analysis of narrative responses, followed by discussion, implications, and conclusions in Chapter 6.

This page intentionally left blank.

CHAPTER 5: QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

In 2018, all 7,351 members of the international Association of Proposal Management Professionals (APMP) were invited to take part in the first large business ethics survey of their industry. At the survey's close, 1,254 individuals in 40 countries had responded, a 17.1% response rate. Among the 37 multi-part questions were three that provided the opportunity for open-ended responses, presented in Appendix G. This chapter examines those responses and the qualitative methodology used to code and analyze them, as well as the findings and conclusions.

Introduction and Overview

The APMP Business Ethics Survey contained three questions through which 264 respondents provided 332 responses containing 419 codable statements. Subject matter in the three questions included reasons for not confronting ethics violations, responses to unfair workplace treatment, and a general, open-ended question in which respondents could submit a comment on any topic. Responses to the three questions represent a rich and varied collection of insights and personal anecdotes that respondents provided voluntarily. An a priori coding analysis was used to categorize responses according to how strongly they aligned with the three central domains of organizational justice (Greenberg, 1987). After filtering for unresponsive items, analysis revealed organizational justice items represented 32% of total comments. Among those, procedural justice and interactional justice were equally represented with 14% of total comments, followed by distributive justice, 4.0%. Pattern coding (Miles, Huberman, & Saldaña, 2014) was also performed, which identified supporting concepts within each of the organizational justice categories and led to the development of human resource management (HRM) themes. In addition, "virtue" comments (those that affirm the respondent's knowledge and ability to do the right thing) were the most frequently cited category, representing 15.9% of

all comments. This chapter presents the research framework and questions, the source material and coding process, organizational justice findings, HRM themes, job satisfaction findings, and conclusions.

Research Purpose

Proposal development professionals influence an estimated $1.4 trillion in global contract awards each year, yet the perceptions of this population regarding workplace ethics and equity issues have never been examined or reported in published studies. The purpose of this study, therefore, is to examine and faithfully represent the observations and opinions of this group regarding their experiences working in this profession leading to "an authentic portrait" (Miles et al., 2014, p. 312). That portrait is a baseline depiction of this professional workforce.

There are several possible reasons for the lack of examination of this group. First, their work is shielded from public view, and due to the competitive and high-stakes nature of their environment, is closely held and secretive. Second, until recently, there was no centralizing mechanism such as an international professional organization to gather these individuals into a common group and provide global access for a survey. Third, as learned through the quantitative analysis, although 84% of respondents work full time for a single employer, 26% work from home, leading to isolation and disaggregation within the industry. The 2018 survey was the first opportunity these professionals had to express on a common platform their opinions on business ethics, workplace treatment, equity, or other issues affecting the job satisfaction within this profession. In addition to providing an initial profile, the qualitative analysis offered in this chapter examines proposal professionals' business ethics and organizational challenges that most significantly impact their job satisfaction.

The examination of the open-ended question responses shares many of the features of the quantitative survey analysis presented in Chapter 4. Both chapters are based on the same research questions, address similar problems, and analyze findings with the same theoretical framework—organizational justice (Greenberg, 1987) and job satisfaction (Herzberg et al., 1959). Taken together, the quantitative and qualitative aspects of this study represent a more holistic and complementary analysis.

Research Questions

The qualitative aspects of this study intersect all three research questions:

R1: What are the perceptions of proposal development professionals regarding business ethics and organizational justice?

R2: How do gender, nationality, and training influence the business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals?

R3: How do perceptions of organizational justice, moderated by workplace treatment and controlled by gender, influence job satisfaction?

The first question is an important one for qualitative analysis because respondent comments collectively produce a profile of the profession based on first-hand personal reports from individual members. The second is of interest because individuals of different genders or nationalities may think differently about ethics or express opinions on whether ethics training had been helpful in formulating appropriate responses to ethical challenges. The third question is important to this study because it addresses the issue of job satisfaction in relation to organizational justice constructs, describing specific positive or negative impacts on a respondent's ability to keep and thrive in a job.

Theoretical Framework

Organizational justice (Greenberg, 1987) is the central theoretical framework within which this analysis is being conducted. It represents ethics applied in the workforce. The three domains of organizational justice were used as the structure for a priori coding of responses. Those domains are distributive justice (Adams, 1965; Homans, 1961), procedural justice (Leventhal, 1980; Thibault & Walker, 1975), and interactional justice (Bies & Moag, 1986; Colquitt et al., 2001), which includes the subconstructs of informational and interpersonal justice. These domains apply respectively, to fairness of compensation, including access to compensation information; fairness of process and the ability to have a voice in process establishment and execution; and fairness of interpersonal treatment and access to workplace-related information. In their 25-year meta-analytic review of organizational justice domain research, Colquitt et al. (2001) demonstrated the challenges of differentiating between the organizational justice domains and codified the areas in which each domain was dominant. Their research showed that distributive justice was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction, followed by procedural justice and interactional justice (Colquitt, et al., 2001, p. 437). However, as reported in Chapter 4, this study has found that although distributive justice remained the strongest predictor of job satisfaction in quantitative analysis, the position of the other two variables was reversed: Interactional justice (including interpersonal treatment) assumed second place and procedural justice (including discriminatory treatment) was third.

Another theoretical predictor of job satisfaction is the two-factor theory proposed by Herzberg et al., (1959). The two factors, labeled Motivation and Hygiene, operate independently rather than on a continuum to influence job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, respectively. The theory proposed by Herzberg et al. (1959) and expanded as it relates to job-related motivation

(Herzberg, 1966, 1968, 2003) states that the two factors contain different variables and act in different ways, not as opposite ends of a happiness–unhappiness spectrum. In this theory, Motivation can only improve job satisfaction; its absence does not create dissatisfaction. Similarly, the Hygiene variables, when they are negative, can cause dissatisfaction, but when they are positive, only eliminate dissatisfaction and do not themselves create job satisfaction. Motivation variables include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and the possibility of growth. Hygiene contains variables that keep the work environment healthy. These include company policies and procedures, the relationship with a supervisor, interpersonal relationships, and working conditions and salary, although Herzberg et al. (1959) acknowledged that salary could also be a motivator.

Research Context

The context of this study is one of examining the ethical practices of a global industry for the first time through the experiences of its professional workforce. As such, there were no guiding studies or previous findings specific to this industry to challenge or confirm. There was no single precipitating event establishing a social context for this study (e.g., no high-profile ethics violation incident), but the recent societal awareness and emphasis on gender issues in the workplace, including sexual harassment and sexual abuse highlighted by the #MeToo movement, may have shaped the survey design and influenced both the researcher and respondents. At this time, there is also increasing societal focus on generational conflict in terms of preparation for the workplace, expectations for contributions and rewards, work ethic, values, work–life balance, intergenerational respect, age discrimination, and relative value calculations regarding the knowledge and experience of older workers versus the lower cost of younger workers.

A practical context for this study was the desire on the part of APMP to establish a formal professional certification in business ethics and to be among the first professional associations in business world to do so. This certification process would include training that would augment the employer-provided training received by most APMP members. Research findings from this study will be used by APMP to shape the new program by identifying and ranking the issues that are most challenging to APMP members, to pinpoint knowledge gaps and gaps in existing training. This information will enable the organization to match program design to the clearly defined needs of its members, making training both responsive and valid.

Data Collection Context and Tools

The environmental context for this study is one of individual participation through an anonymous online survey written in English and delivered to recipients through APMP and under its auspices. The endorsement of the association, along with the encouragement to participate given by APMP's CEO at its annual international conference, followed by email reminders to members, all established how important the survey and the topic are to the organization and lent significance and credibility to the effort. Survey completion ended the participants' involvement; because the survey was remote and anonymous, it did not include the possibility of respondent interviews or clarification questions. Using SurveyMonkey, I developed an online survey tool for this study. It contained 37 questions, many of which were multi-part, resulting in the collection of 100 data items from each respondent who completed the survey.

Qualitative Data

Three survey questions provided the source material for this qualitative analysis and were structured differently. In the case of Question 27 (*"Have you ever had to "look the other way" when witnessing inappropriate actions of others?"*), a specific question was put forward with

multiple-choice options, yet 97 respondents chose to provide an open-ended response versus selecting one those answer options (they could not do both). Those responses were narrow in scope, did not stray too far from the stated topic, and were clustered around specific themes.

Alternatively, Question 31 *["Experiencing unfair treatment (including hostility, bias, discrimination, and harassment) had the following effect on me: (Check all that apply)"]*, allowed respondents to choose multiple effect options as well as provide an "Other" text response. Responses here were more wide-ranging and described not only effects on respondents, but also actions taken in response to unfair treatment.

Finally, Question 37 was non-contextual and open-ended and invited participants to comment on any topic. This question was added on the first day of the survey after approximately 100 study participants had begun their surveys.

Table 5.1 illustrates the overall pattern of 332 responses, showing which questions the 264 respondents answered singly or in combination. Most respondents (202) provided a single comment. Sixty-two respondents provided multiple comments, with 56 answering two questions and six contributing to all three.

Table 5.1

Qualitative Questions: Response Pattern

	Single Comment Entered	Two Comments Entered			Three Comments Entered	Total
		w/Q.27	w/Q.31	w/Q.37		
Q. 27 *Looked the other way*	59	—	14	18	6	97
Q. 31 *Unfair treatment*	48	14	—	24	6	92
Q. 37 *Any other comments…*	95	18	24	—	6	143
Total comments	202	32	38	42	18	332

In total, there were 419 codable items among the 332 qualitative responses, with 67% containing content related to organizational justice constructs or human resource management themes in this study. Table 5.1 enumerates those responses, some of which contained multiple comments while others simply answered, "No further comment." Table 5.2 provides a summary of the thematic categorization of all codable items.

Table 5.2

Thematic Categorization of Respondent Comments[a]

	Content category	Q.27	%	Q.31	%	Q.37	%	Total	%
Job Satisfaction Content	Organizational justice content			45		90		135	32.3
	Distributive justice					17		17	4.1
	Procedural justice/voice			15		44		59	14.1
	Interactional justice			30		29		59	14.1
	Virtue/self-affirmation	54		2		11		67	15.8
	Acted against unfair treatment	23						23	5.5
	Paid a price (e.g., retaliation)	17						17	4.0
	Made me quit/transfer out			39				39	9.3
	Codable element subtotal:	94	22.4%	86	20.5%	101	24.1%	281	67.2%
Other	"No further comment"			1		48		49	11.7
	Comments on survey			2		22		24	5.7
	"Thank you" or similar					27		27	6.4
	Other/unrelated comments	3		3		30		38	9.1
	Total codable elements:	**97**	**23.2%**	**92**	**22.1%**	**228**	**54.4%**	**419**	**100.0%**

Note: [a]Several survey comments contained multiple codable items, resulting in more codable items than responses.

Data Analysis Process

A structured a priori content analysis (Miles et al., 2014) was used for statements in all three questions to determine their alignment with the three primary areas of organizational justice (Greenberg, 1987). This was done, in part, to identify any relationship between the quantitative analysis reported in Chapter 4 and the qualitative results presented in this chapter and also to see if the issue categories reported by our respondents were similar and similarly prioritized to those reported in organizational justice literature.

Pattern coding (Miles et al., 2014, p. 86) was also used to better understand why respondents to Question 27 failed to confront ethics violations, how respondents to Question 31 reacted when experiencing unfair workplace treatment, and to identify and categorize themes emerging among all text responses. Pattern coding highlighted respondent perceptions by identifying terms such as discrimination, voice, power, cost, bullied, workload, sex/gender, conflict, and others that describe the emotions, relationships, work and life conditions, and respondent motivations. Using two sequential coding processes provided an opportunity to check and recheck the initial results, enhancing intrarater reliability. It also added time to the analytical process during which ideas and interpretation could evolve.

Respondent Characteristics

Table 5.3 presents summary demographic statistics for the 264 respondents providing text responses to Questions 27, 31, and 37, comparing them to the 1,254 proposal professionals who responded to the survey. The group who added text responses has more career experience and more time in their proposal role than the full sample. A higher percentage are female, and a much greater percentage are older, with baby boomers representing the largest category. The narrative respondents are also more likely to be proposal managers, less likely to be full-time employees of a single corporation, and more likely to be independent consultants. They are also more likely to have earned college degrees at all levels.

This comparison is valuable when considering both representativeness (Miles et al., 2014), and transferability (Glaser, 2005). By comparing the narrative respondents to the total sample, it is possible to conclude that the group who commented are generally representative of the total sample. However, differences exist; most significantly, there is an overweighting of baby boomers (42.5% vs 29.7%) and consultants (17.4% vs 11.9%) in the narrative group vs. the

total sample. A higher percentage are also female, have the United States as a home country, are college-educated, and work in middle management. The narrative contributors have more life/work experience and therefore have had great opportunity to come in contact with ethics violations and unfair workplace treatment. Older respondents will have entered the workforce earlier and may have been shaped by different societal norms regarding ethics, work ethic, and gender relationships. The fact that a much larger percentage of the text respondents work as consultants may also indicate that these individuals have chosen to leave unfair or unethical environments to seek greater autonomy and control over their working conditions and the quality of their personal interactions.

Table 5.3

Demographic Profile of Respondents Providing Data for Qualitative Analysis

	Q. 27, 31, and 37 Text Responses	Full Survey
Number of respondents	264	1,254
Gender:		
Female	68.2% (*n* = 180)	65.5% (*n* = 814)
Male	31.8% (*n* = 80)	33.3% (*n* = 413)
Age in 2018:		
Millennial (24–38)	20.8% (*n* = 55)	27.4% (*n* = 343)
Generation X (39–53)	36.7% (*n* = 97)	41.1% (*n* = 516)
Baby Boomer (54–73)	42.5% (*n* = 108)	29.4% (*n* = 369)
Nationality:		
United States	74.6% (*n* = 197)	65.4% (*n* = 820)
Education:		
4-year degree	42.0% (*n* = 111)	42.8% (*n* = 537)
Master's degree	36.7% (*n* = 97)	35.4% (*n* = 444)
Doctoral degree	3.0% (*n* = 8)	1.6% (*n* = 20)
Employment:		
Full-time, single employer	78.4% (*n* = 207)	84.0% (*n* = 1054)
Consultant	17.4% (*n* = 46)	11.7% (*n* = 147)
Job title:		
Proposal manager	60.6% (*n* = 160)	57.0% (*n* = 714)
Author/individual contributor	10.6% (*n* = 28)	11.0% (*n* = 138)
Job tier: Middle management	48.1% (*n* = 127)	44.9% (*n* = 563)
Years of experience	Mean = 14.5	Mean = 12.9
Years in current role	Mean = 9.4	Mean = 8.7

Profile of a Representative Narrative Respondent

The typical respondent providing text answers to Questions 27, 31, and 37 is a 44-year-old American white female who has earned a 4-year college degree and taken graduate courses in pursuit of an as yet uncompleted master's degree. She is a proposal manager, working full time in the offices of a large corporation (>10,000 employees) that delivers information technology services to the U.S. government. She is in her ninth year of employment and this is not her first job. She has been a member of APMP for 5.6 years, one year longer than the full sample average, and has achieved APMP's Foundation level of professional certification. She considers herself to be in middle management.

Our typical respondent leads one or more proposals each year. Her work entails bringing together and managing multidisciplinary teams of subject matter experts to develop solutions to propose to prospective customers in response to an RFP (request for proposal) issued by a prospective customer. She is supported by a small team of individuals who work for her who have proposal-specific skills. These include authors, graphic artists, cost estimators, editors, and production personnel. She leads these employees and the entire proposal team by providing the structure and framework for the proposals, including developing an RFP-based proposal outline, the proposal schedule and writing assignments, by responding to various rounds of third-party reviews and comments, and by maintaining professional proposal standards throughout the effort, including adhering to an ethical framework. Her work is deadline-focused and requires long hours, routinely more than 40 per week, including night and weekend work. As a leader, she requires this of her team, as well. She has witnessed or experienced burnout and emotional exhaustion in her work.

Our respondent is a team leader who derives a high degree of satisfaction from her work. She reports to company executives who select the business opportunities for which she and her team will develop proposals. Those executives evaluate her team's work at various stages of its development and also determine her salary and bonuses. She generally has no voice in selecting what will be bid, but she is held accountable for proposal wins and losses. For her company of 10,000, her proposals are most often for contracts valued between $1 million and $10 million in the fields of information technology, or greater than $10 million in the fields of national security and defense.

Our respondent receives annual computer-based ethics training provided by her company to maintain compliance with U.S. government regulations. She has experienced or witnessed unethical practices in the industry, but she believes that her company and her boss are ethical. Although she has known unfair treatment in her work experience, she feels listened to and valued in her current position and does not plan to leave her job or company within the next year.

Findings

Qualitative findings are presented in four areas: those that individually address Questions 27, 31, and 37, and those that address HRM themes. All respondent quotations are presented verbatim, including text, spelling, parentheses, and other punctuation. See Appendix G for a compilation of the survey's narrative comments.

Question 27: Reasons for Not Confronting Ethics Violations

This question asked survey participants if they had ever chosen to knowingly ignore sound ethical practice when witnessing inappropriate actions of others. No guidance was provided as to the type of situation, the ethical challenge, or respondent actions, which could have ranged from being an observer and saying nothing, to taking an active part in an action they

knew to be wrong. The question provided three "Yes" response choices, one "No" response, and one "Other" answer choice, which was an open-ended comment option. Respondents could either respond to one of the multiple-choice response options or provide an "Other" response but could not do both. Responses to this question are illustrated in Figure 5.1. Of the 1,113 people who responded to this question, 1,016 (91.3%) selected one of the multiple-choice options. The 8.7% who chose "Other" provided 97 unguided text responses used in this qualitative analysis.

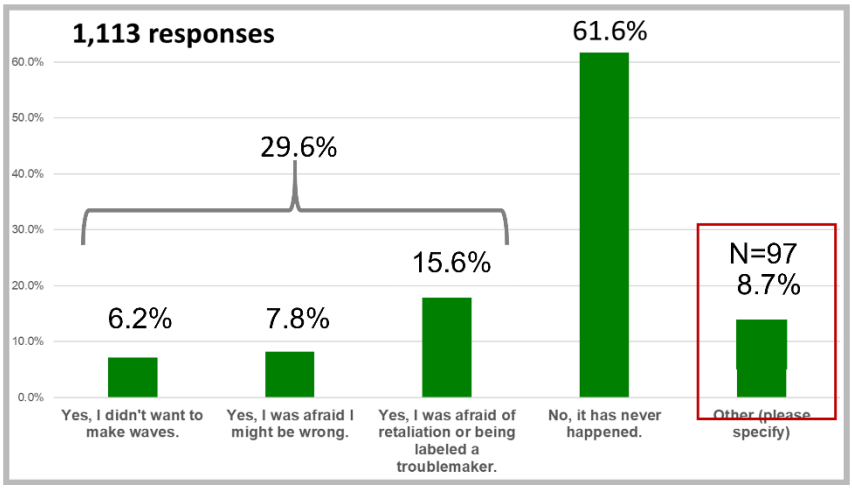


Figure 5.1. Question 27 response pattern, showing the distribution of respondents who "looked the other way" when witnessing workplace ethics violations, including 8.7% who provided narrative responses.

To better understand respondents' motivation, I examined the "Other" responses to identify why respondents did or did not deal directly with the ethics violations they observed, and how this may have impacted their job satisfaction. The 97 responses were pattern coded, with responses falling into three categories: (1) respondents affirmed that they "would always speak up" (coded as expressing *virtue*); (2) they reported having taken or deferred action, sometimes with consequences; (3) and a small number reported being unsure of what action to take. Table 5.4 summarizes these findings and is followed by examples from each category.

Table 5.4

Responses to Question 27: Reasons for Not Confronting Ethics Violations

	Virtue	Power/Worker Positionality (41.2%)		Unsure	Total
		Action taken or deferred	Paid a Price		
Respondents	54	23	17	3	97
Percentage	55.7%	23.7%	17.5%	3.1%	100.0%

Virtue.

The theme from most of the respondents (55.7%) was one of confidence in their ability to know how to handle a difficult ethical situation and their commitment to doing so. They described reporting ethics violations to persons of greater authority, speaking up and confronting the wrongdoer, filing an internal complaint, or taking similar actions. These respondents chose to go on record to say that they were ethical and did so with pride. Their statements were collectively labeled "Virtue" responses and represent statements of confidence and moral courage. Given that these respondents could have answered "No" to the survey question, and that respondents were aware that they were taking a survey on professional ethics, it is also possible that these comments represent social desirability bias (Fisher, 1993; Fisher & Katz, 2000).

Interpretatively, these results are important for several reasons. First, the 54 individuals who chose to state their knowledge of what to do in an ethics scenario may have done so in part because this survey question did not afford them the opportunity to do so otherwise. The question asked, "Have you ever had to look the other way . . .?" In what may be considered a survey flaw, there was no answer choice labeled, "No, I didn't look away, I confronted the situation." As a result, 54 respondents may have used the "Other" option to do so.

Second, by the strength of their answers, these respondents are telling us that they hold these beliefs strongly and are proud of their actions. Examples include statements such as “I speak up always!” “No, I refused to give in,” and with emphasis, “I MAKE WAVES!”

Third, these 54 respondents are expressing feelings of knowledge, confidence, moral courage in their responses, as well as a level of security in their worker positionality.

Some respondents provided examples of specific actions: “I’ve been asked to look the other way when a salesperson wants to massage stats (rendering them inaccurate) but have never complied with the request,” “I had to confront an executive over such behavior,” and “I witnessed, did not look away, and escalated per corporate policy with great respect to directly observed facts.” Another provided this preemptive advice: “You can establish a reputation for being ethical that will discourage people from trying to get you to go along with unethical behaviour. They know you will refuse so they don’t ask.”

All of these respondents are conveying that they understand the topic of ethical behavior, its challenges, requirements, and risks, and that they have the strength of character to do what is right. They are engaging in a conversation through the survey and also expressing pride in the actions they report having taken. These responses speak strongly to the strength of ethical understanding within the sample and, by extension, within the profession.

Organizational power/worker positionality.

Forty respondents (41.2%) answered Question 27 by describing their response to ethics violations in terms of their position in the organization. Some explained their lack of response through their anticipation of negative reprisals by people in positions of greater authority. Others explained this situation in the past tense, citing the effect on them of their decision to stand up against unethical behavior.

Deferred action. More than half of this group (23 respondents) stated that they chose not to raise objections to ethics violations because they knew that others in positions of higher authority would react negatively and detrimentally to their objections: "Yes, observed supervisor lie to customer and he would have humiliated me on the spot." As in this example, respondents described seeing something wrong, knowing what to do, but being unable to do it because of their position relative to others in the company who disagreed with them: "I don't have sufficient authority to speak up without fearing retaliation or embarrassment." Still others reported that they tried to do what was right, but had their objections disallowed: "Yes, I spoke up but was overruled," "Yes, I have brought forward concerns but ultimately looked the other way when overruled by team/a senior team member," and "I raised it with my manager and was told to tolerate it and ignore it."

This use of organizational power to stifle questions or legitimate criticism creates a climate of repression. Respondents reported simply choosing to stay silent rather than deal with what they saw as inevitable rejection by their superiors: "The perpetrator is untouchable," "We have the least power of anyone on the proposal team, no matter how much experience we have," "Not looking the other way, but having no power to change, my complaint ignored," and "It happened with my manager who violates the most basic ethical rules and the company overlooks it."

These comments indicate a fairly prevalent perception of proposal workers not having much power in the workplace unless they are senior members of an organization or the designated decision authority for a group. Half of all survey respondents reported that they are proposal managers, which conveys a sense of group leadership, but these positions reside within corporate business development organizations where decisions are made above them. Lower

positionality leads to having to bear the responsibility of the unethical behaviors of others, having to work harder for less money, being blamed for losses that proposal professionals cannot control, not receiving credit for wins, and being unable to take time off to rest and recover. Responses to this question indicate that worker positionality affects all three domains of organizational justice: fair compensation and access to advancement (distributive justice); fair application of process (procedural justice); and fair access to workplace information and appropriate interpersonal behavior (interactional justice).

Paying the price. Going beyond descriptions of actions taken or deferred, 17 respondents (17.5%) to Question 27 reported paying a career penalty for refusing to ignore ethics violations in their workplaces. By implication, these responses belong in the Worker Positionality category because the harm to the respondents was inflicted by persons with the authority and in a position to do so. This category elicited some of the strongest responses to the survey. Often the price paid was not fully described, although some level of career damage was stated or implied: "Got involved and it hurt me professionally (retaliation)," "I never look away and therefore feel negative consequences," and "I made waves and received a backlash for it." In other cases, reporting ethics violations had a direct economic impact on the respondent: "Reported concerns and left the firm as a result of tension post-report," "It was position-limiting," "It always led to my leaving the company (either my choice or theirs)," and "It cost me my job!" These examples are instructive not only for the harm they caused the respondents, but also for the clear message they send to those employees who remain in the organization: Ethics are not valued here and you challenge them at your own risk.

Temporary or contract workers have even less standing than permanent employees in corporate settings and may therefore be more averse to reporting ethical misconduct: "When you

are an independent contractor, you risk your livelihood if you said anything every time you see things that are not kosher, which is often. You have to say nothing or you pay dearly for it in terms of lost work." Another chilling effect can be a worker's minority status in the population: "It's all so subtle that it's hard to put your finger on, but the IT industry is definitely a boy's club and if you speak out, you stand out and become someone who's "hard to work with." Both of these penalties—financial harm and exclusionary labeling—were sufficient to keep respondents from speaking up when they knew they should, enabling unethical practices to continue.

Unsure of what to do.

Responses in this category were few, but they provided interesting reasons for being unable to take action. In general, respondents expressed a lack of knowledge and a lack of confidence and therefore did not act when witnessing misconduct. Of note is the fact that one of the multiple-choice responses to this question was "Yes (I looked the other way), I was afraid I might be wrong." By contrast, the narrative respondents knew they were right but did not know what to do about it. This may be related to their training (most respondents believed it to be insufficient to meet their needs), their inexperience, or other unknown factors.

Narrative responses in this category included, "Lack of confidence on knowing what to do," "I was unsure about how to handle hearsay," "I was not aware at the time that it was wrong, except that my conscience pricked me," and "I work in a vacuum and it seemed one-sided." This final comment is important in an industry in which many individual contributors work remotely or from home. It also has implications for workplace training: Employees in all workplace settings should be able to handle ethics challenges with certainty.

Question 31: Responses to Unfair Treatment

This question asked respondents to describe their responses to experiencing "unfair" treatment at work. "Unfair" was undefined. It could include negative, hostile, or discriminatory behavior, overwork, financial, or physical/psychological harm. This question offered nine structured responses and "Other." The first structured response was, "I have *never* experienced unfair treatment in the workplace" (italics included in original). This option was followed by eight statements of possible negative outcomes from experiencing unfair treatment. Respondents could select more than one answer and also provide a text response in "Other." By checking the first box, 291 respondents (26.1%) indicated that they had never experienced unfair workplace treatment. The remaining 822 respondents (73.9%) described a variety of personally experienced and sometimes acutely felt outcomes, including 92 who provided text comments in the "Other" response option.

In total, 4,506 answers were provided to this question. Table 5.5 lists the comment categories, frequencies, and percentages. Notable in these responses is the high selection rate, with six of eight options selected by 40% or more of respondents. These are not vague recollections; individuals answering this question were able to describe not one, but several emotional and physical sequelae to experiencing unfair workplace treatment. Given that the narrative comments indicate that some of these experiences took place in previous jobs or some time ago, it is evident that the clarity of remembered emotions and physical consequences remains vivid for these respondents.

Themes that emerged from the narrative responses included loss of work, physical and emotional harm, financial consequences, moving from permanent employee to consultant status to gain autonomy, and issues worker positionality—all impacting job satisfaction.

Table 5.5

Responses to Question 31: Experiencing Unfair Treatment Had This Effect on Me

Survey Responses (multiple selections possible)	*n*	Percentage (%) of *n* = 1,113[a]
I have never experienced unfair treatment	291	26.1
Caused negative health effects, such as stress, depression, ulcers, headaches, or sleep disruption	532	47.8
Lowered my self-esteem and self-confidence	485	43.5
Made it less likely that I would ask for a raise I deserved	286	25.7
Limited my career advancement opportunities or compensation	384	34.5
Made me unhappy and disappointed	644	57.9
Made me angry	548	49.2
Lowered my job satisfaction or respect for my company	656	58.9
Made me want to quit	590	53.0
Other (please describe)	92	8.2
Total:	4,506	n/a

Note: [a]Percentages are calculated to show what percent of total respondents made a selection.

Some comments echoed the question's multiple-choice answers, e.g., citing negative health effects or impact on job satisfaction. This restatement may have indicated participants' intentions to expand, clarify, or affirm their selection. In addition, although this question was framed to elicit responses on what proposal workers felt when experiencing unfair treatment, the "Other" responses went beyond simply expressing feelings to describe the actions that individuals took in response to the treatment. Some of the 92 "Other" respondents provided answers that contained multiple coded items; in each case, the dominant theme of the respondent's answer was categorized in Table 5.6. This information is provided not to compare responses to each other or to establish relative significance, but instead to provide a framework for understanding the total effective response in the "Other" category, as described in the paragraphs that follow.

Table 5.6

Themes in Question 31 "Other" Responses

"Other" Response Themes	*n*	Percentage (%) of n = 92
Left a job as a result of unfair treatment (left voluntarily or were fired)	52	56.5
Experienced negative emotional and health effects	14	15.2
Experienced financial harm	5	5.4
Sought resolution through HR or legal means	7	7.6
Refused work/avoided the company in the future	3	3.3
Mentioned issues of worker positionality	7	7.6
Other responses	4	4.4
Total:	92	100.0

Left the job as a result of unfair treatment.

More than half of respondents who provided written comments to Question 31 went beyond the "Made me want to quit" option in the question to state that they actually did quit. Of the 52 in this category, 46 said that they left their jobs voluntarily, while three said they left to become consultants, and an additional three said they were fired. The three who became consultants (and possibly others in this category) expressed that they sought greater autonomy through self-employment: "Inspired me to become an independent consultant rather than an employee," and "Motivated me to work for myself."

Many who quit simply reported that fact, but others elaborated: "I have changed jobs to remove myself from abusive environments," and "Made me quit without a backup plan." One female respondent reported two outcomes: "Led to decision to leave one company (discrimination due to pregnancy), at another – led to my filing an ethics complaint."

Some of those who left their jobs reported positive outcomes: "After 17 years with the same company, my new supervisor's scorn and derision made me uncomfortable enough to leave and go to work for someone else. It was the best thing I ever did." One respondent said the experience, "Gave me the motivation to start my own company," and another, "Returned to

school for a master's degree and ultimately started my own company." Similarly, "It made me quit the company I was working for and find a better one to join," and, "Two years ago, I left a toxic environment. My current employer DOES NOT make me feel this way at all."

None of the respondents who quit their jobs reported being out of work for very long, and some reported finding new work environments quickly, "I quit on a Friday . . . and had interview for a consulting position the next Monday morning. They hired me on the spot and asked me to take off my jacket and start working immediately. Zero time unemployed."

Of the three respondents who were fired, two simply reported being fired and one said, "Fired for refusing to work on my Sabbath."

Experienced negative emotional or physical health effects.

Several respondents reported experiencing negative health outcomes serious enough to require medical treatment: "I had a mental breakdown that put me on disability for 2 years. Still dealing with PTSD," and "I was so distraught at what was happening, and purposely overworked by this manager, that I had major medical problems and went out on medical leave."

Similarly, many reported emotional consequences: "Caused me to seek professional treatment and medication for depression and anxiety." "I had to leave my last employer under a Settlement Agreement following bullying, punishment for whistle blowing and abuse that caused me to fall into deep depression and anxiety . . . it was toxic."

Some respondents did not report seeking professional help but nevertheless reported emotional consequences: "Made me fear for the safety and well-being of me and my subordinate reports." "Made me defensive, made me quiet at meetings or more hesitant to speak up or ask questions, but also made me somewhat more driven to prove people wrong too (so a little motivation too)."

Experienced financial harm.

Some of the most detailed and descriptive comments filed by respondents were those relating to the financial harm they experienced for doing the right thing: "I filed an ethics complaint with our ethics hotline. My bonus was cut 90% and feeling like I had no alternative, I left the company. Hostile work environment doesn't begin to describe this. It's so unfair for a winning contributor like me to be pushed out for a sex partner of a new boss."

Others described financial harm in terms of not receiving what they felt was an appropriate reward for their contributions compared to others in the firm: "I was so upset when I worked hard for two years on our largest proposals and did not get any kind of bonus, when they were given to the business development leads, who went home at 5:00 p.m. and never worked weekends. They are all men."

Still others described financial penalties in the context of inappropriate actions within the company: "My new boss, who has no history with the company, shut me out of all decision making and is in effect not letting me run my organization. This has been humiliating and he is hoping I will leave. My bonus went from $60K to $5K because he had to 'spread it around.' He told me I should 'explore other options while I was still attractive enough to find another job.' How can this be happening in 2018?"

One final comment was provided by a respondent who cites the fallout from multiple occurrences: "Made me less marketable for future work with the 'red flags' multiple employers on my resume, as I was either fired 'without cause' (read: disability discrimination) or quit because of (MULTIPLE) managers' threats to make me quit."

Sought HR or legal intervention.

Some respondents reported taking legal action or working with their human resources department to help them manage a negative situation. Some had positive consequences: "I took action and provided documentation to HR of the unfair treatment. My supervisor was investigated and terminated," while others did not, "Caused me to file a grievance, which was ignored," and "False accusations by superiors, without support from corporation." These examples represent procedural justice, specifically, processes being followed (or not) that are in place to protect employees.

Avoided the client or company.

One effective method followed by some respondents was to avoid companies or individuals who displayed abusive or otherwise unfair behavior: "Caused me to never contract to certain companies again, lowered my job satisfaction while contracted with certain companies," and "As a contractor, I refused new work from these customers." These respondents have in common the fact that they had the freedom to avoid negative situations. Because they were not tied to a single employer, they had the leverage to make choices that improved their work environment without experiencing economic penalties (none were stated). As it is likely that most contractors and consultants are never asked, employers may be unaware of the reasons why talented individuals fail to accept their offers of repeat engagement.

Worker positionality.

Respondents expressed several situations where they experienced unfair treatment that they felt was directly related to their position in the organization. Because these responses express the concept of voice—how much say an individual has in the processes affecting them—they are related to procedural justice (Bies, 2005); Lind & Kulik, 2009; McCabe, 2019; McFarlin

& Sweeney, 1992). One example of unfair treatment in this category states: “I have been side-lined out of major decisions that affected me and my team. It’s hard to explain what that does to you when they box you into a corner and don’t listen. It doesn’t sound bad, but it’s very hurtful.”

A workplace environment can be controlled by the leader in the most senior position or by the one who is most dominant, regardless of title. One proposal professional stated that, “(abusive behavior) came from capture managers and group executives who were raised in a culture of ‘yell loud and tell the girls to get coffee.’ There was no chance I would be valued no matter what I did or how many billions (yes billions) of dollars I won.” A manager going into an established environment like that one has low odds of success.

An important aspect of worker positionality for proposal leaders deals not only with being governed by senior managers, but also with responsibility to those whom one manages. This respondent’s “trapped in the middle” comment presents this idea well: “I felt I couldn’t quit because I’d be letting down the people who worked for me – my team. I wish I’d realized that by quitting, I’d have been setting a good example. I put up with abusive behavior too long.”

Taken broadly, a respondent’s position in the organization determines how much say that individual has over matters affecting his or her well-being and job satisfaction. These considerations include workload; ability to take accrued time off; control over the work environment, including who they work with; quality of output; the degree to which they have to accept unacceptable behavior or demands from others (Pierce & Snyder, 2015), and similar considerations that affect job satisfaction. Worker positionality increases or decreases job satisfaction and is related to the three domains of organization justice: distributive (control of compensation), procedural (how much voice to they have and are they listened to), and interactional (how fair is their treatment and what happens when they complain).

Impacts of unfair treatment on job satisfaction.

Because job satisfaction is the primary dependent variable in the quantitative part of this study, I was interested to see how strongly it figured in responses to unfair treatment. More than half of Question 31 respondents (n = 656, 58.9%) selected the multiple-choice option "Lowered my job satisfaction or respect for my company." This is understandable and related to the important element of trust. When trust is lost, relationships with supervisors and managers deteriorates. However, only one of the 92 text responses to this question mentioned satisfaction or even implied that job satisfaction had been impaired by unfair treatment: "Lowered my job satisfaction while contracted to certain companies." This respondent is recognizing a contrast that exists between his satisfaction level when working with ethical vs. unethical companies. Respondents more often described situations that could produce dissatisfaction, e.g., "made me feel conflicted about how to manage my team," "I was passed over for promotions," "was fired for refusing to work on my Sabbath," and "Women run the joint. They can be fairly toxic to men." Any of these statements indicate situations that are impactful to job satisfaction, although it is interesting that it was never directly stated.

Other responses.

There were four respondent answers that did not fall easily into the preceding categories. Nevertheless, they contained interesting content that relates to job satisfaction and are included here. One male Gen-X respondent observed that unfair treatment, "Discouraged innovation including sales opportunity pursuits." In business development, innovative thinking in the pursuit of new work can make the difference between businesses that move ahead and those that lag or fail. This respondent's comment exemplifies what happens in organizations when employees shut down and withdraw, unwilling to offer their creativity or insights because of the potential

negative backlash when they are overruled. This respondent wants to be innovative, sees the business value in it, and is not satisfied that his employer does not. Impact on creativity and innovation is an understudied corollary to job dissatisfaction.

Other responses in this category included: “I won't say I have never experienced unfair treatment, but I can't think of an episode that had an effect.” Similarly, one respondent stated, “I am very pleased with my career choice and my clients. I am not unhappy, nor do I suffer from any other negative emotion or feeling due to my career, my clients, the workplace, etc.,” These respondents are overtly stating their high level of job satisfaction through the absence of the negative experiences in the question’s framework.

The following “Other” comments may be related to job satisfaction, but do not mention it directly: “Lowered the quality of my work,” “Made me conflicted on how to manage my team,” and “Changed the way I interacted with other (unaffected) colleagues in a negative way.” In the first, the respondent is unhappy (unsatisfied) that unfair treatment has resulted in a decrease in the quality of her work, while in the others, the respondents are unhappy with the effect their environments have had on their interactions with others.

Table 5.7 summarizes the pattern coding results, including themes, key terms, and response examples.

Table 5.7

Question 31: Pattern Coding Summary

Thematic category	Key terms	Characteristic responses
Left the job	Quit	I in fact did quit. Made me quit without a backup plan. I left for another position. I have changed jobs to remove myself from abusive work environments.

Thematic category	Key terms	Characteristic responses
		I left that workplace for another then returned to school for a master's degree and ultimately started my own company.
		Gave me the motivation to start my own company.
	Fired	Got fired.
		Fired for refusing to work on my Sabbath.
	Transfer	Made me want to transfer out of the proposal group.
Emotional health effects	Disengaged and devalued	I've been struggling to feel engaged and valued ever since.
	Fear	Made me fear for the safety and well-being of me and my subordinate reports.
	Distress	I was distraught.
	Depression	Had a mental breakdown that put me on disability for 2 years.
	PTSD	Still dealing with PTSD.
	Humiliation	This has been humiliating.
	Toxicity	It was toxic.
		Women run the joint. They can be fairly toxic to men.
	Bullying	Tolerated/encouraged extreme bullying by one employee.
Physical health effects	Medical problems	I had major medical problems and went out on medical leave.
		Made me physically ill.
Financial harm	Bonus	I filed an ethics complaint with our ethics hotline. My bonus was cut 90%.
	Consequences	My bonus went from $60K to $5K.
		Made me less marketable for future work.
Legal/HR intervention	HR	I took action and provided documentation to HR.
	Legal	I filed a grievance, which was ignored.
		I left my job under a Settlement Agreement.
Avoidance	Contractor	As a contractor, I refused new work from this company.
	Refused	We won't take new work from this company.
Worker positionality	Sidelined	Shut me out of all decision making and is in effect not letting me run my organization This has been humiliating.
	Don't listen	
	Sidelined	I have been sidelined out of major decisions that affected me and my team. It's hard to explain what that does to you when they box you into a corner and don't listen.
	Letting down my team	I felt I couldn't quit because I'd be letting down the people who worked for me – my team.
Other	Happy	I am not unhappy. I am happy with my career choice and clients.
	Innovation	Discouraged innovation.
	Withdrawal	Changed the way I interact with my team.
	Lower job satisfaction	Lowered my job satisfaction while contracted to certain companies.

Question 37: Other Comments, Questions, or Concerns

"Do you have any other comments, questions, or concerns?"

Question 37, located at the end of the survey, had no multiple-choice options, and offered respondents an opportunity to comment on any topic of their choosing. The question had an unstated 750-word limit on responses, not reached by any respondent. Of the 143 respondents who answered this question, many provided multiple comments, producing 228 distinct comments in total. Unlike the previous two questions, Question 37 was not associated with any particular topic. The open-ended format gave respondents a space to describe perceptions in their own words and identify the issues most strongly influencing them. Responses were categorized as the following:

- "No further comment" or similar responses: 48 (21.0%)
- Comments about the survey structure/content: 22 (9.6%)
- "Thank you for this survey" or "Thank you for addressing this issue": 27 (11.8%)
- Virtue/self-affirmation: 11 (4.8%)
- Other, unrelated comments, most concerning APMP: 30 (13.2%)

The remaining 90 response items, representing the largest segment (39.5%), contained content that was scorable against categories of organizational justice and likely to produce emergent themes.

Virtue comments. Eleven respondents chose to state the strength of their ethics and the ethics of others in their profession: "I will NOT compromise my values for money gain or any other reason," "I am fortunate to work for a highly ethical company," "When working in another country, I follow the laws of that country," and "Every proposal manager I know is highly ethical."

Comments on the survey. Another 27 individuals responded with comments supporting the survey project: "Thank you for tackling this important issue(s) that is so often talked about and felt, but never actually captured as data so we can improve it!" "This was enlightening," "Thank you for listening," "Thank you for the opportunity to participate. I learned a lot!" "This was a good exercise. Hopefully the data collected will help to create positive actions," and "This was a great survey and an excellent topic that deserves the spotlight in our industry!" Coming at the end of a long survey, these comments indicate a positive level of respondent engagement in both the survey and the topic.

An additional 22 respondents provided comments on the survey structure and content: "Overall, this is a pretty good survey. One criterion I would suggest is, ask about military experience, since many veterans are in this business and . . . there are huge differences in values, ethics for someone in the military for 20+ years," "I was surprised at the number of questions at the start on demographics. . . . I did not understand the relevance of these to the survey," "Not diggin' this survey, too much looking for divisiveness where it doesn't seem to exist," "The questionnaire took more than 10 minutes to answer as stated in the distribution email – not very ethical, indeed," and "It would be good to include questions about identifying mentors to help change or assist in making lateral or upward shifts."

Several respondents in this category commented that the wording of some questions did not apply to them: "On many questions, there was no appropriate response for 1099/independent contractors," while others pointed out categories that could have been included in questions about discrimination: "There should be some questions and consideration offed for discrimination based on body size and/or perception of health within this survey," and "I was disappointed that disabilities were excluded in the list of discriminations throughout the

questions." All of these comments point out limitations in the survey and important considerations for future research.

Other explanatory comments. The category of "other, unrelated comments" included 30 respondent entries such as: "I changed jobs 4 months ago . . . my answers would have been more negative in my old job," "It's important to find the balance in companies in terms of ethics and a job well done," "I have never worked outside the United States of America so #36 does not apply to me," and "I just wanted to point out that all the violations was at my old company. In my new company I don't see any of that." These comments could not be categorized as either organizational justice or emergent themes, as they were simply meant to explain a respondent's answers.

Organizational justice findings.

After identifying, categorizing, and segregating the general comments, the remaining 90 organizational justice findings formed the basis for qualitative analysis of Questions 37. These responses were analyzed to determine how clearly the three primary organizational justice constructs could be identified in their content. In every case, effort was made to determine the dominant message and tone of each response, e.g., was the comment about the level of compensation, or about how the respondent was treated in relation to salary discussions? Similarly, if pay discrimination was alleged, was it a purely economic complaint (one category of workers vs. another), which would be distributive justice, or was it a question of whether or not procedures were followed appropriately to allocate salaries and bonuses fairly, which would be a question of procedural justice? While such determinations are inherently subjective, reading and re-reading the responses clarified these distinctions on each subsequent pass.

Although I did not have any firm expectations as to the outcome, I did anticipate a general leaning toward more responses in the category of either distributive justice (issues of pay fairness) or interactional justice (how we treat each other). Distributive justice is cited in extensive literature as being the strongest predictor of job satisfaction (Colquitt et al., 2001), while so much of the material obtained in previous questions was related to interpersonal treatment. Coding and analysis for Question 37, however, delivered a different result: In this question, distributive justice received the fewest mentions (17, 18.9%), while procedural justice received the most (44, 48.9%). Although distributive justice does not appear to be the strongest influence or the issue area of greatest significance to respondents, Colquitt et al. (2001) are nevertheless partially affirmed, because they cite procedural justice as the second strongest predictor of job satisfaction. Table 5.8 displays the organizational justice constructs along with key terms and themes that emerged from respondent contributions.

Distributive justice. At the heart of distributive justice is the principle of fairness (Adams, 1965; Greenberg, 1982; Homans, 1961). Fairness issues in this context are usually associated with the rewards for contributions made, most often in the form of compensation. In this study, respondents reported feelings of unequal compensation in terms of cash, but also in terms of not being given access to the benefits they had earned, principally paid time off. There were also comments related to perceived gender discrimination associated with compensation.

Although distributive justice is the dominant organizational justice construct in the literature and in the quantitative part of this study, relatively few organizational justice–coded responses had distributive justice as their central theme, as shown earlier in Table 5.2. Comments on distributive justice are difficult to categorize because if compensation inequity is perceived, it may be the result of a failure of due process that resulted discrimination (procedural justice),

interpersonal animosity (interactional justice), or a difference between the way that a respondent and an employer or marketplace value a professional contribution. A cross-section of compensation-related responses has been included to indicate the range present in the sample.

Table 5.8

Question 37: Organizational Justice Constructs, Themes, Key Terms, and Respondent Quotes

Construct/Themes	Key terms	Characteristic responses
Distributive Justice		
Compensation fairness	Salary and bonus	For the high pressure and incredible workload, proposal specialists are not paid enough.
		Frustrated that the proposal team has to work hard and long hours for little reward.
	Benefits	I work for a great team; I can work remotely; my company has great benefits; these outweigh the low salary.
	Gender	I was never paid as much as the guys.
		There is a belief that women will be satisfied with less.
Procedural Justice		
Procedural fairness	Discrimination	Age discrimination has hit our industry. Very depressed and very angry.
		I feel that my job opportunities are limited by my foreign-sounding name . . . I have fewer interviews.
	Power	Too often a proposal is hijacked by senior management on multiple levels which are contrary to not just professional best practice from a proposal quality point of view, but from an ethical point of view as well.
		Business ethics is defined top down; managers don't practice what they preach.
Voice	Say, listen	We have no say in what we bid but have to sacrifice our personal lives and health to make hopeless bids happen.
		Nobody listens to us; we're just "the proposal women."
Interactional Justice		
Interpersonal treatment	Verbal abuse	The biggest problem I see is verbal abuse or unpleasant behavior from company executives.
		I have witnessed verbal abuse, open hostility, and inappropriate sexual behavior in my company.
	Bullying	I was bullied and emotionally traumatized.
	Toxic work environment	My company and work environment were toxic.
Access to information	Bonus secrecy	There's too much secrecy about bonuses and we all know why.

Some distributive justice comments linked compensation and workload: “I also think for the high pressure and the incredible workload, proposal specialists are not paid enough (at least in my company),” “I get frustrated that our proposal team has to work hard and long hours for little reward,” and “The balance of power and rewards needs to shift.” Others questioned the basic compensation model: “Proposal teams should receive partial commissions on wins.” Still others placed compensation within a portfolio of workplace considerations: “I work for a great team and we all help each other out; I am able to work remotely, and my company offers great benefits. All of those things outweigh the somewhat low pay.” There were also comments related to gender pay equity, including: “I was never paid as much as ‘the guys’ even though I won more bids and more dollars,” and “In my experience, women are always paid less than men even where the role and experience are the same. There is a belief that women will be satisfied with less.”

Procedural justice. This category had the largest number of responses, 44.3%, in part because they included a large number of comments related to voice. Procedural justice encompasses the fair application of rules and procedures to all members of a workforce, including equal access to hiring and promotion (Greenberg, 1990; Thibault & Walker, 1975). Procedural justice has been described as the having processes in place that are fair and fairly applied to all members of a workforce (Leventhal, 1980), marking a clear a distinction between this theory and the distributive justice literature (Walker, Lind, & Thibaut, 1979).

Procedural justice influences whether or not proposal professionals perceive that they are treated equitably using organizational procedures in which they have had a say. Therefore, in this category, I looked for evidence of processes that had been established and followed, or that were lacking. Procedures, such as signing ethics acknowledgments prior to a bid, fair balancing of the workload, protection against discrimination, or allowing all employees to take accrued time off,

are included. For this reason, respondent comments on failures of process that result in discrimination, failure to follow procedures that ensure integrity and accuracy in bids, or abuses of organizational position are also included in this category.

Some comments concerned simple procedures and whether or not they were followed: "We all sign a code of ethics as part of our bidding processes, but there is no one in the company that checks them." This comment implies the respondent's understanding of the importance of using a code of ethics during a proposal, and that it is more than just signing a piece of paper. The respondent states that the company fails to follow through, with the clear implication that the company is not serious about the practice and is merely going through the motions to comply with a government-required procedure.

When procedures are not followed and protections are not afforded, discrimination may arise and persist, which may affect job satisfaction. Several comments addressed discrimination from traditional angles, including gender: "we're just the proposal women and we don't count," and age, "Age discrimination has hit our industry." Other comments discussed discrimination from the viewpoints less frequently observed: "While I don't feel discriminated against based on race or gender, I feel that my job opportunities are limited by my name, which is long and 'foreign' sounding. While I am highly qualified and experienced, I receive fewer interview requests based on resumes than my colleagues with similar experience do." Similarly, another respondent observed that: "Not all harassment and discrimination is conducted against those in traditionally disadvantaged groups. Those in traditional religions, majority ethnic groups, less known disabilities, and other social categories suffer as great or greater abuses."

Finally, one respondent was industry-specific in describing perceptions of discrimination:

> Most of my responses are drawn from 12 years working in proposal development in Higher Education. Despite its falsely promoted environment of inclusion and equal opportunity, Higher Education is very discriminatory toward individuals who are not of a certain gender, sexual orientation, or ethnicity. In addition, individuals without a terminal degree are considered inferior, which is reflected in treatment, promotion, and hiring.

Inappropriate use of power is another important element of procedural justice. In response to a question on job level on the full survey, the largest segment of respondents (45%) self-reported as middle management (proposal manager or proposal director supervising multiple proposal managers) while only 2.8% described themselves as executives. Comments in the procedural justice category included descriptions of middle-management proposal professionals being pushed by senior managers into actions that violate industry standards for quality and ethics: "Too often a proposal is hijacked by senior management on multiple levels which are contrary to not just professional best practice from a proposal quality point of view, but from an ethical point of view as well." Additionally, one female baby boomer from the United States with 25 years of experience and 8 years as a proposal manager reported:

> Comments such as 'Don't worry, they won't check' or 'Just whack that stuff from the last proposal in' or 'Let's churn out bids' 'What do we have to lose?' 'We need to be shouting from the rooftops (even if that means falsifying/ exaggerating)' are typical comments from senior management without an understanding of the profession. Such comments are the scourge of all standards any self-respecting but isolated bid professional is trying to uphold and [are] detrimental to the profession's reputation if buyers are not able to trust what is being pitched to them.

This respondent is indicating three things related to job satisfaction. First, she demonstrates an understanding of a strong ethical standards; second, she expresses dissatisfaction with the ethics of senior officials who want to weaken those standards; and third, she indicates dissatisfaction with her own worker positionality, because she is not in a position to do much about the imposition of lower standards by senior management.

A common thread throughout these comments is the desire on the part of the respondent to "do it right" and be treated fairly. Respondents express a clear vision of how things should be, referencing "the profession's reputation," upholding standards, "best practices," and "environment of inclusion and equal opportunity." These affirmative comments are in contrast to the respondents' negative experiences. They imply senior management disrespect for not only the standard, but also for the middle-management proposal professional attempting to uphold it.

Voice. Procedural justice includes the concept of "voice" (Leventhal, 1980), indicating in this population how much say proposal workers have over the terms and conditions under which they work. When employees feel that they have had a say in how procedures were developed, or if they have been able to make their case prior to a decision such as whether or not to bid a specific job, they are more likely to be willing to acknowledge procedural fairness and accept an unfavorable outcome (Lind & Kulik, 2009; Thibaut & Walker, 1975). This concept is closely related to the fair application of organizational power traditionally associated with procedural justice (Folger & Konovsky, 1989; Greenberg, 1990, McCabe, 2019). Respondents in this category expressed that they have great responsibility and work under significant pressure, but that they are not listened to and do not have sufficient say in determining the work they do or how well they are allowed to do it.

In the study sample, respondents linked their lack of voice to their organizational position and often expressed dissatisfaction with how organizational power was used. Many cited situations in which, even though they stepped forward and expressed concern, their voices were overruled: “Yes, though I clearly pointed out the problems, management made a decision to proceed anyway,” “We need to have a voice in our profession even though we are low on the totem pole and don’t have much say in our companies,” and “We have low visibility and not much executive sponsorship.”

Other respondents commented on their lack of voice not only in determining what they bid, but also in the quality of their product: “We have no say in what we bid, but we have to sacrifice our personal lives and health to make hopeless bids happen,” and “Proposals are not valued in my company. . . . We don’t have control over the output.”

These responses indicate that although respondents are trying to contribute and, in some cases, making personal sacrifices to do so, they believe that they are not only not being listened to, but worse, are devalued by others in their organizations in positions of higher authority for speaking up. It often came with a sense of futility: “Senior management politics are very difficult to fight because you never win.” While this sentiment may not be uncommon in a wide range of workplaces, in proposal management, such perceptions may be more acute because of the high-stakes nature of the work, where billions of dollars and hundreds of jobs may be on the line when a bid is won or lost. The consequences for losing a bid may be great, and respondents indicated that the blame often fell on those who had tried but failed to be heard: “Business ethics is defined top down. Managers don’t practice what they preach. Operational people always get the blame but the BIG problem is on the strategic level. Lots of politics, it’s all about the money and to he** with ethics is what I see.”

Interactional justice. Respondents commented on personal mistreatment in the workplace, sexual misconduct disadvantaging women, and the need for having transparent access to data on disparities in pay. Comments in this category were both positive and negative.

Bies and Moag (1986) first described interactional justice as the criterion of fairness for dealings between people that establishes just treatment during encounters (Bies, 1987, 2001; Bies & Moag, 1986), which makes this aspect of justice distinct from the procedures followed (Bies, 2005). Their work focuses on the ways in which people behave toward each other, the boundaries and protocols established, and the information shared or withheld during interactions. Employees who feel that they are respected perceive greater feelings of fairness (Bies & Moag, 1986), despite the outcome of a given workplace decision. Respectful treatment can support reductions in negative health impacts generated by stressful or unfair workplace environments (Greenberg, 2006), and may help avoid overwork and burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2008).

Interactional justice contains two subconstructs: interpersonal justice (respectful treatment) and informational justice (equitable distribution of honest information to enable employees to make informed decisions) (Aquino, Tripp & Bies, 2006; Bies & Moag, 1986; Byrne & Cropanzano, 2001; Colquitt et al., 2001; Greenberg,1993, 2006).

Interpersonal justice. Comments on interpersonal behavior included the following: "The lawyer yelled at me, told me it was none of my business what our client does, and that we cannot question the client," "The biggest problem I see is verbal abuse or unpleasant behavior from company executives," and "I have witnessed verbal abuse, open hostility, and inappropriate sexual behavior in my company, particularly of men on the road, and with younger female subordinates." These three comments all portray almost visible incidents of a worker being treated with verbal hostility by a superior. A fourth describes a response to an employee who

reported ethics violations: “I was bullied and emotionally traumatized by the experience.” When such acts take place in front of others, the worker not only has to deal with the emotional impact of the incident itself, but also with the realization that others in the organization who may have witnessed it, have seen the employee devalued and disrespected.

Respect for employees and their position in the organization also received comment: “Bid managers are not respected by colleagues or peers. We do not earn the respect of our teams. We have to police teams constantly. We are babysitters! We are not appreciated.”

Other respondents commented on interpersonal relationships: “I work in an all-female team, so gender issues don’t surface. Issues that arise are generally personality-driven,” and “I have a good relationship with my male boss and he is planning to promote me so I feel loyal to the company.” In the first situation, the all-female proposal team experiences no inter-gender conflict, but the respondent states that despite that, team members may experience personality friction. In the second comment, the female employee has a positive inter-gender relationship with her male superior, generating her stated allegiance to her company.

When interpersonal treatment is positive, it can serve as a moderator for other working conditions: “I work for a great team and we all help each other out, I work remotely, and my company offers great benefits. All of these things outweigh the somewhat low pay.” However, when interpersonal treatment is negative and widespread, the result is a pervasive sense of mistreatment: “My job and company culture were toxic.”

Informational justice. Information is power and in the workplace, employees who lack, as one example, access to compensation data are disadvantaged and held in check by management. Information also helps an employee determine if other aspects of workplace treatment and

outcomes are general or specific to her, helping to calibrate her reactions. In this analysis the results fell naturally into two categories: information acquisition and information sharing.

Comments related to information acquisition reveal their significance to respondents: having it and being able to use it are always expressed as valuable. Several respondents linked information to training: "I don't think certification is beneficial, but training is valuable, especially for new proposal managers," "We need to know how to handle these situations better; maybe APMP can help," and again expressing the value of information gained through training, "Keep in mind there is a huge difference in values, ethics for someone in the military for 20+ years, and someone in the military for 4 or less years."

The information sharing aspect of interactional justice can be summed up by this comment: "There's too much secrecy about bonuses and we all know why. This isn't new and it doesn't happen just at my company which is a leader in its field. It's everywhere and it's time to put a stop to it." Information about compensation and rewards changes employee perceptions when it becomes public, increasing the potential for dissatisfaction (Card et al., 2012). This respondent is expressing not only her frustration at her lack of competitive information on compensation, but also her understanding of how difficult it is for employees to negotiate a "fair deal" with employers without it, even when human resources protections are in place.

Human Resource Management Themes

To identify underlying themes, I used clustering and pattern identification (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2014) on all 130 organizational justice responses from Questions 27, 31, and 37. Clustering and pattern identification produced themes categorized as human resources management–related, particularly when referenced in a business ethics context (Ardichvili, Mitchell, & Jondle, 2009; Armstrong & Taylor, 2014; Bratton & Gold, 2017). These HRM

Table 5.9

Question 37: HRM Themes, Key Terms, and Impacts on Job Satisfaction

Construct/Themes	Key terms	Characteristic responses impacting job satisfaction
Generational Differences		
Replacement	Millennials, Pushed out	I'm a senior adult male who is suddenly being "directed" by a 20-something female with no experience. . . . I have been in effect pushed out of my job and company and have to start all over. Very depressed and very angry.
Age discrimination	Find another job	He told me I should "explore other options while I was still attractive enough to find another job."
Shifts in power	Role change	My role changed . . . I report to a group of millennial women who outwardly want to get rid of older professionals.
Gender Differences		
Unfavorable	Treatment	Women do not get treated well in our profession. Women are treated badly.
Exclusionary	For men only	There are fishing trips for men only.
Sexual dominance	Corporate response	I was attacked while working on a proposal in a client's office after hours . . . the company pretended that it didn't happen.
	Role power	I've seen male managers take advantage of female subordinates sexually.
Compensation equity	Pay	I was never paid as much as the guys. There is a belief that women will be satisfied with less.
Training		
Employer-provided training	Ethics training	My current employer does a great job with ethics training. We have a good ethics policy but no training. APMP training would be valuable.
Workload		
Overwork	Industry problem	HUGE issue right now. Burnout, emotional exhaustion.
Overtime	Expected	I have even heard, "At this point in your career, that is expected!"
Earned time off	Unable to take	Employees losing time off, not being able to take it Paid time off is a benefit and everyone should be allowed to take it or be paid for it.

themes, summarized in Table 5.9, include perceptions related to generational and gender differences, as well as implications about abuses of power, and by extension, about unfair workload. HRM themes are significant for leaders who direct or manage organizations and who

must ensure the equitable application of rules and procedures to maintain organizational justice while achieving executive goals.

Generational differences.

When comments were made reflecting generational differences, they were uniformly negative, made against younger workers, and made as expressions of job dissatisfaction. Millennials, ages 25 to 39 in 2018, represented 27.6% of survey participants and 20.8% of narrative respondents. No positive comments were provided that credited millennials or younger workers with admirable qualities or capabilities. In addition, there were no comments made by millennial respondents about the experience, capability, or behaviors of older age groups in the workplace. Instead, respondent comments expressed dissatisfaction with younger members of the workforce in terms of their values, sense of entitlement, and lack of perception on the workplace gains made by predecessors. One example follows, from a female Generation X, South African proposal manager with 14 years of experience in her role:

> In general, I think, or my perception is, that the tail-end (sub-group) of the baby boomers has endured the worst of the corporate business cycle by being the one group that experienced the most benefit cuts and layoffs in a working career, while the millennials will likely see the best of the corporate business cycle through improved work conditions, prosperous environment, and pay, of which has been largely made possible by the actions of the baby-boomer-subgroup nearing retirement.

Shifts in power and position in organizations that reflect generational differences are typified by this comment from an experienced male proposal worker:

> I'm a senior adult male who is being 'directed' suddenly by a 20-something female who has no experience but is oh so chipper every morning and socializes with the boss. I can't believe this is happening to me, that I have been in effect pushed out of my job and company and have to start all over. Very depressed and very angry.

Similarly, respondent comments indicate that when put in positions of power, younger workers seemingly do not value the experience and expertise represented by older workers and see them as expendable: "My role in the proposal/bid group changed 1.5 years ago when proposals became part of a 'shared service' and I reported to a group of millennial women who outwardly wanted to get rid of older professionals." This comment also implies that the organization has given millennials decision authority and power over more experienced workers.

The job dissatisfaction perception being expressed by the experienced workers results from their perception that they are being "pushed out" and "gotten rid of" by workers with less knowledge and experience. That this policy is supported by corporate authority is perceived as depersonalizing older workers and devaluing their long-term contributions, creating the "very depressed and very angry" response and similar responses provided by baby boomer respondents.

Each of these comments also reflects an aspect of worker positionality. The decisions to place younger workers in positions disadvantaging older workers were made by supervisors or executives. Respondents repeatedly expressed their dissatisfaction with the lack of power and control they have over these unfavorable situations. Finally, these situations also point to an underlying question of ethicality: Should disadvantaging one group of workers while advantaging another be acceptable within corporate business ethics?

Job satisfaction studies indicate marked differences between the generations in terms of two key workplace issues facing the proposal industry: turnover, and burnout/exhaustion. Although willingness to leave a job is associated with job dissatisfaction, Lu and Gursoy (2013) remind us not to confuse failure to leave a job with being satisfied with that job. Like our respondents, the participants in Lu and Gursoy's (2016) study revealed that for baby boomers, work held a position of greater centrality in their lives, making it meaningful enough to tolerate much of the unpleasantness and even burnout they might have experienced. Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance (2010) demonstrated that generational differences also exist in terms of the importance placed on leisure and extrinsic values, which they saw as increasing over time younger age cohorts, further differentiating them from older workers. Separately, Twenge (2010) noted the decline over time in all worker cohorts with respect to desiring a job with more responsibility: in 1992, 80% of workers under 23 desired greater responsibility; in 2002, that figure dropped to 60%. Similarly, 41% of workers 38 to 57 desired more responsible roles in 1992, dropping to 31% in 2002 (Twenge, 2010, p. 203).

Gender differences.

Many comments expressed respondents' perceptions of workplace inequity disfavoring women in terms of pay, interpersonal treatment, promotion, workplace pressure, and career opportunity. Often, these conditions are exacerbated by issues of positionality and power—disfavoring women. These comments are significant because of their quantity, and because they correlate strongly to the current cultural climate, the literature presented in Chapter 2, and the quantitative analysis reported in Chapter 4. Examples of these comments follow.

Some comments were general: "Women do not get treated well in our profession," and "These things happen more than any of us wants to admit," while others were more personal,

“Racial discrimination gets a lot of attention and people are probably tired of hearing it, but women are treated badly in many large companies . . . based on my personal and painful experience in such a situation.”

Exclusionary behavior based on gender was also reported: “There are golf tournaments where women are rarely included. There are fishing trips for men only. There are trips to Amelia Island that only the guys get to go to.” Corporate behavior such as this is reported in the literature as disadvantaging women in status, compensation, ability to build relationships that help them advance, and in general prestige (Morgan & Martin, 2006). Continuation of such practices reinforces their acceptance as an entitlement by men and their tolerance as an obstacle by women.

Two comments in particular described direct physical acts as well as outcomes. The first was from a female millennial:

> I have had a client try to have sex with me and ask if I ever wanted to have any more work from them. ‘I would like to hire you in the future . . .’ These situations are very difficult for women. . . . I said nothing and lost this important business relationship, which cost me many thousands of dollars, all because my male client acted inappropriately.

The second was from a female baby boomer:

> I was attacked while working on a proposal in a client’s office after hours—by a security guard who knew I was working upstairs alone. Instead of dealing with the problem and making the rest of the proposal team aware and safer, the company pretended that it didn’t happen.

Both of these comments report first-hand encounters that were either caused or handled badly by individuals in positions of higher authority. Both describe some kind of harmful outcome. What is interesting in these comments is that both women place their experiences in the context of others: “these situations are very difficult for women,” and “instead of . . . making the rest of the proposal team aware and safer.” These comments demonstrate an awareness by participants outside themselves and an ability to rise above personal impact and view their experiences in a larger context.

One female Gen-X respondent viewed harassment and discrimination through a societal lens: “The sexual harassment and discrimination experience I believe is due to the construction industry being male dominated. It has varied from company to company, but I don’t link it to the industry within which I work. I think it’s purely because I work with men. I think it’s just the way society places more blame on women for putting themselves in a position of risk, or dressing in an ‘appealing’ manner, etc.” This philosophically resigned, “that’s just the way it is” stance, accepting blame placed on women by “society” was uncommon among respondents.

Two female baby boomers related witnessing sexually predatory behavior disadvantaging women in their workplaces. In the first, “I have seen male managers take advantage of female subordinates sexually. The women have no choice if they are to keep their jobs or get hired again. It’s a real problem,” the observer describes the use of coercive power by a superior against a subordinate, and further describes an acceptance of the powerless state of the subordinate female. In the second, “I’ve seen young women taken advantage of by senior B.D. [business development] men who had big expense accounts and promised them the moon. They [the women] soon left the company,” the observer adds the elements of age and financial power and concludes by describing the price paid solely by the female employee.

Each of the foregoing statements indicates situations in which job satisfaction is impaired, either by loss of control, loss of safety and security, loss of ability to flourish in a job and rise in the organization, loss of financial self-determination, or the loss of dignity and respect—all associated with distributive, procedural, or interactional justice.

Finally, this comment indicates that at least one male Gen-X respondent has a different perception: "The women I work with have it good and still complain. I don't get it what the fuss is about. We have racial discrimination but that is everywhere and it's less now than 10 years ago. Things are good." His job satisfaction is not impaired.

Ethics training.

In the United States, the UK, and Western EU countries, employees of government contractors are required to take training to enable them to comply with laws and regulations in a variety of areas. In addition to this mandatory compliance training, ethics training is offered by many employers. Such ethics training is generally confined to compliance practices involving timecards and expense accounts, rather than the more complex challenges represented by inappropriate workplace behaviors or industry-specific ethical dilemmas. Comments in Question 27 about being unsure of what to do when confronted by an ethics violation indicate a need for training, or training of a different type than is currently provided to those respondents. In addition, respondents to Question 37 provided comments explicitly stating the value of training: "We have a policy at work on business ethics but no training is provided," "I think this is a key element . . . critical to have effective APMP training on this matter," and "Training is valuable, especially for new proposal managers." Finally, one respondent favorably compared current and former employers on this topic: "My current employer does a great job with ethics training and for 'practicing what they preach'. I haven't always had that experience at other employers,

however." This comment indicates that the employee has a basis for comparison, that ethics training is not uniform in the industry, and that this respondent perceives and values what is currently being provided. This example indicates that training can engender not only valuable ethics awareness and skills, but also greater employee satisfaction.

Workload issues.

"Workload is a HUGE issue right now." This comment was one of several that touches on an emerging issue within the proposal industry that relates to organizational justice theory, HRM practices, and fundamental leadership principles. On the full survey, two exceptionally high scoring questions support this respondent's statement. Those responses are provided here for context. In a question about workplace treatment, the No. 1 issue concerning respondents was overwork and burnout (82%), while the No. 2 issue was emotional exhaustion (72%). The negative consequences of burnout are documented by Maslach and Jackson (1981) and Maslach and Leiter (2008) and codified in the Maslach Burnout Inventory, with issues and symptoms mirroring those of our respondents (Maslach, Jackson, Leiter, Schaufeli, & Schwab, 1986).

My 25 years of experience in the proposal industry confirms that proposal work is intense, deadline-driven, and typically requires a 50- to 60-hour workweek during a proposal period. The onset and completion dates of proposals are controlled by third parties issuing requests for proposal (RFPs) at a time of their choosing, and frequently altering the due dates during the proposal period. This makes both the start and end dates of a proposal period difficult to predict, and makes resource scheduling, temporary hiring, and the planning of employee personal time problematic. Family vacations, weekend activities, even traditional or religious holiday observances such as Christmas frequently fall victim to difficult-to-predict proposal

schedules. Often, the respondents do not see the benefit from making these sacrifices: “I get frustrated that our proposal team has to work hard and long hours for little reward.”

Such working conditions carry significant implications not only for workers, but also for leaders who manage them. Forty-five percent of respondents describe themselves as middle managers. Because of their position in the organization, many of these proposal leaders are subject to decisions made by superiors on which contracts they must bid (“This is a ‘must win’”) even as they assume a leadership role over a large team that executes that bid. This in-between worker positionality and dual role creates conflict: “I occasionally witness employees losing or stop accruing paid time off due to not being able to take time off. I have even heard, ‘At this point in your career, that is expected!’” Proposal managers in this position are asked to make large sacrifices, and in turn, have to ask their employees to do the same. This leadership responsibility holds true even if proposal managers believe that the decision to bid is not well founded and the personal sacrifice made by their team will be largely wasted.

Independent consultants who are not permanent employees cannot control their own workload and schedule once they accept an assignment on a proposal team; however, permanent corporate employees are especially encumbered, because unlike independent workers, they often have no rest periods between proposals: “Paid time off is a benefit and everyone should be allowed to take it or be paid for it.” Standard Human Resources policy does not support these working conditions, which have become common in corporate proposal centers. Similarly, no HR policy would support on paper conditions that prevent employees from taking accrued vacation time, thereby losing not only the rest period, but also its equivalent economic value, yet they not only exist but, according to this study’s respondents, are pervasive.

Conditions such as these, and our respondents' response to them, reflect the imbalance that exists in the affected organizations between the decision-making tier and the execution tier, where the burden of carrying out those decisions rests: "no say in what we bid" and "high pressure and incredible workload." These conditions of power and positionality represent special leadership challenges for proposal managers, who must motivate skilled workforces to deliver sustained, intense performance in highly competitive situations. Frustration and fatigue on both the proposal employee and proposal manager levels impact job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction

Pattern coding of all responses revealed strong cohesion among the qualitative responses around the theme of job satisfaction: Respondents were either happy in their work or expressed with great specificity why they were not. Respondent comments demonstrate that job satisfaction is an outcome—not something sought directly. It is instead the sum of all factors affecting employee well-being in the areas of distributive, procedural, and interactional justice. No respondent said, "I have high job satisfaction." Instead, respondents reported feeling noticed, respected, listened to, and valued by senior management—factors that enhance job satisfaction in employees (Society for Human Resource Management, 2017). These are also factors that emerged as strong determinants of job satisfaction in this study's quantitative analysis (see Chapter 4, Table 4.59, results of principal component analysis). Similarly, no respondents said that they left a position because they lacked job satisfaction. Instead, they cited the reasons underlying their lack of job satisfaction, and most often, those were interactional in nature, such as unfair or hostile workplace treatment.

Respondents more frequently supplied negative job satisfaction comments than positive. Respondents who made positive statements most often did so by expressing satisfaction as the

absence of dissatisfaction, as one respondent said, tellingly, “I’m not unhappy.” However, some who described very adverse working conditions, e.g., burnout, overwork, and hostile work environments, were also part of the 87.7% of quantitative respondents who agreed or strongly agreed with Question 34.2, expressing high levels of satisfaction in their work, “I get a feeling of accomplishment from my job.” How can this apparent conflict be explained?

Herzberg et al. (1959) provide a theoretical framework that helps explain why respondents who describe work environments that are interpersonally toxic, have poor working conditions (e.g., excessive workload), or believe that they may be discriminated against, can also obtain a high level of personal satisfaction in the work itself, accomplishing difficult tasks and achieving challenging goals—all of which are part of proposal work.

Motivation variables include achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, advancement, and the possibility of growth. Had respondents commented on their pride in their work, linking it to their contributions, hard work, achievements, dollars won for the company, recognition, etc., those would have been examples that aligned with Herzberg’s Motivation factor. However, even though those sentiments were strongly reflected in the quantitative part of the survey and can be inferred from the positive comments used throughout this qualitative analysis, they were never explicitly stated.

There were a small number of positive comments that were followed by negative observations, including: “I am fortunate to work with a highly ethical company. I don’t think ethics is a huge problem in the industry, but maybe I am wrong. I have had the opportunity to work with very ethical people. The biggest problem I see is verbal abuse or unpleasant behavior from company executives.”

Herzberg et al. (1959) describe the Hygiene factor as containing variables that keep the work environment healthy. These include company policies and procedures, the relationship with a supervisor, interpersonal relationships, and working conditions and salary, although the research team acknowledged that salary could also be a motivator. Hygiene variables are recorded in negative respondent comments: "I was bullied and emotionally traumatized by the experience," "I have witnessed verbal abuse, open hostility, and inappropriate sexual behavior in my company," "I have seen male managers take advantage of female subordinates sexually," "for the high pressure and incredible workload, proposal specialists are not paid enough (at least not in my company)," "I like my boss as a person, but she doesn't stick up for me," and "Workload is a HUGE issue right now which leads to most of my dissatisfaction & stress."
Each of these examples is a source of dissatisfaction that aligns with the Herzberg et al. (1959) Hygiene factor.

Wave Analysis of Narrative Responses

The survey period, originally designed to be one week, was extended to four weeks at the request of APMP. The survey launch on May 10, 2018, coincided with APMP's annual international conference, at which the survey was heavily promoted by APMP leadership, and the organization provided weekly email reminders to its members. Figure 5.2 illustrates the survey duration, the points at which APMP issued email reminders, the overall response pattern, cumulative responses, and the numbers of responses by week.

Responses were divided into two waves: the 804 initial responses during the first 9 days that included the APMP conference period, and the 450 later responses that were provided during the subsequent three weeks, following email prompts. The selection of wave terminus points was made based on the marked change in response tempo observed after the APMP conference,

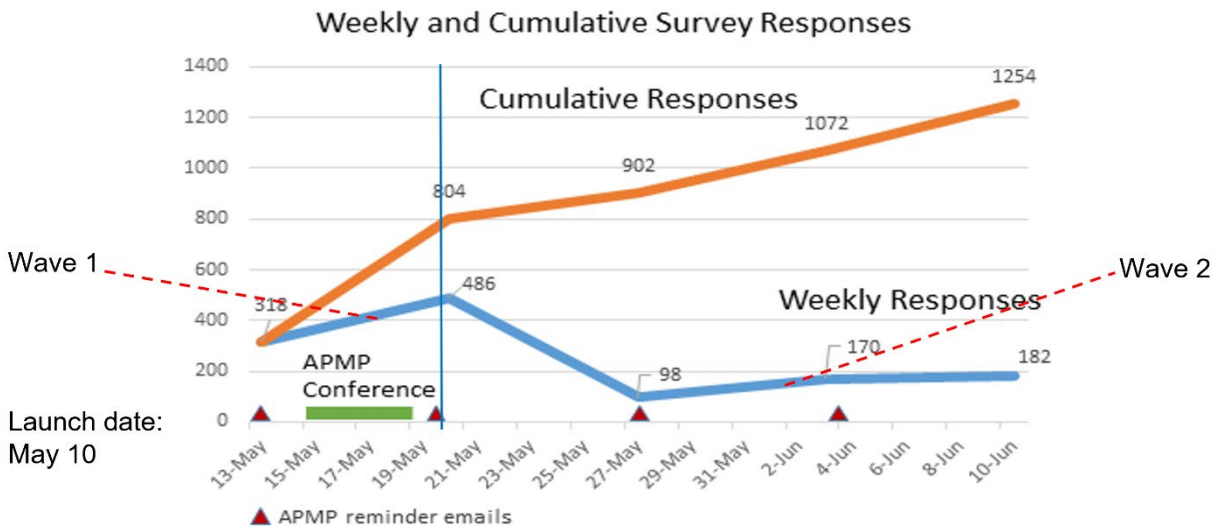


Figure 5.2. Survey response wave pattern: Time frame, email prompts, and response totals.

which occurred at about Day 9. Promotion of the survey during the conference, attended by 900 people, may have influenced the response rate during the first wave, which averaged 89 responses per day. After the conference, the rate dropped to 21 responses per day. APMP issued email prompts on Days 19, 17, and 25, which generated the 36% of total survey responses received in Wave 2.

The extended duration of the survey provided the opportunity to use wave analysis to compare early and late responders and analyze the impact of reminder emails. Yessis and Rathert (2006) found that early responders were significantly more likely to provide positive responses than later responders. In a study of 28,000 hospital patient satisfaction survey responses, their analysis concluded that individuals holding negative opinions were more likely to demonstrate nonresponse bias, were more reluctant to report, and did so only after one or more reminder prompts (Yessis & Rathert, 2006, p. 59). The conclusions drawn by Yessis and Rathert (2006) are important because they show that without later responders, a study's findings could be skewed

toward more favorable outcomes than in reality are being experienced by participants. Similar conclusions have been reached by Rogelberg et al. (2003), Groves (2006), Rogelberg and Stanton (2007), Beebe et al. (2011), and Halbesleben and Whitman (2013), who found that nonresponse bias could equate to 15% of total responses.

Social isolation is also a factor in nonresponse bias. A study by Watanabe, Olsen, and Falci (2017) supports the idea that individuals who are more socially isolated or isolated within their workforces are less likely to respond to surveys and that their response pattern changes with repeated prompts similar to those used in the APMP survey. This finding is highly relevant to our population, which was distributed across 40 countries, with 19 respondents being the only ones in their countries taking the survey (see Appendix B, p. 3). It is also relevant because 25.7% of survey respondents reported working from home (Table 4.9), and 12.3% identified their professional role as "self-employed" or "consultant" (Table 4.12).

The distribution of narrative responses by wave is presented in Table 5.10. Responses are segregated based on the date they were submitted and each response was coded as positive, negative, or neutral. Neutral responses included "No further comment;" non-directional comments on the survey, e.g., suggestions for additional questions; thanks for undertaking the survey; or clarifications of a respondent's answer to a previous question. One code was applied to each respondent's submission on a given question, whether or not the individual offered single or multiple thoughts within the comment. This process produced 332 time-stamped, codable responses divided into two waves.

Table 5.10

Distribution of Narrative Responses by Question, Coding, and Wave

	Positive	Negative	Neutral	Total	%
Q. 27 Not Confronting Ethics Violations					
Wave 1	38	19	2	59	60.8
Wave 2	27	9	2	38	39.2
Q. 27 Total	65	28	4	97	100.0
Q. 31 Response to Unfair Treatment					
Wave 1	14	36	7	57	62.0
Wave 2	6	26	3	35	38.0
Q. 31 Total	20	62	10	92	100.0
Q. 37 Any Other Comments					
Wave 1	21	15	49	85	57.4
Wave 2	16	20	22	58	42.6
Q. 37 Total	37	35	71	143	100.0
Column totals:	122 (36.7%)	125 (37.7%)	85 (25.6%)	332 (100%)	

Note: Total Wave 1 responses = 201 (60.5%). Wave 2 responses = 131 (39.4%).

Table 5.11 displays the percentages in each response category by wave, in comparison to the wave percentages for overall survey responses.. More responses were received in the 9-day Wave 1 period than in the 21-day Wave 2 period. This was true for both total survey responses and narrative responses. One categorization was given to each of the 332 unique responses, despite the number of codable elements in each one. An overall assessment was made of each comment's purpose, content, and tone While fewer positive and negative responses were received the second wave, the percentage of both positive and negative responses in Wave 2 was higher than the corresponding percentage of total responses. Most persuasive, the percentage of all positive comments was higher in Wave 1 than Wave 2 (59.8% vs. 56.0%), and the percentage of all negative comments was higher in Wave 2 than in Wave 1 (44.0% vs. 40.2%), which tends to support the conclusions reached by Yessis and Rathert (2006) and also supports the idea that the more critical responders may require repeated prompts before responding.

Table 5.11

Comparison of Percentages of Positive, Negative, and Neutral Narrative Responses to Total Survey Responses by Wave

	All Survey Responses		Narrative Responses							
			Positive		Negative		Neutral		Total	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Wave 1	804	64.1	73	**59.8**	70	56.0	58	68.2	201	60.5
Wave 2	450	35.9	49	40.2	55	**44.0**	27	31.8	131	39.5
Total	1,254	100.0	122	100.0	125	100.0	85	100.0	332	100.0

Note: Bold text indicates disproportionately higher responses by wave.

Conclusion

Respondents to the APMP ethics survey provided a rich body of insights on topics relating to business ethics, HRM themes, gender, generational differences, training, workload, and worker positionality. The respondents' comments address all three research questions: They reveal general perceptions of business development professionals (R1); discuss gender, nationality and training (R2); and relate the influence of gender, nationality and ethics training on job satisfaction through the primary constructs of organizational justice (R3). Comments on the survey itself ranged from thanks for pursuing this area of research and appreciation for having an opportunity to voice an opinion, to suggestions for improving the survey for subsequent studies.

No comments were collected that proved informative on the impact of nationality on business ethics perceptions, although one respondent felt that he may have been discriminated against because of his "foreign sounding name." A small number of comments addressed ethics training in the workplace, most simply stating that their companies provided it, but some stating that there were differences between what was trained and what was practiced. Comments were mixed as to whether APMP's proposed ethics certification program would make a difference, with the majority favoring the idea. The topic of gender, however, was present in a large number of comments, with the majority expressing the view that women are disadvantaged in the

workplace sexually, financially, or by lower expectations. These perceptions are supported by studies showing lower pay (Daly et al., 2006, Flores, 2016; Fortin et al., 2017; Goldin, 1990, 2006; Goldin & Katz, 2010; Lo Sasso et al., 2011), and fewer opportunities for advancement (Blau & DeVaro, 2006; Ibarra, Carter, & Silva, 2010; Joshi, Son, & Roh, 2015).

Because so many of the individuals who chose to comment related negative or painful stories, the weight of their compelling comments requires balance. To the two survey questions stating that "The company I work for is ethical" and "My boss behaves ethically at work," 86% of respondents selected "Agree" or "Strongly Agree" as their answer. These were among the highest-scoring questions on the survey, and powerfully convey the sample's belief that robust professional ethics are being practiced in their immediate work environments.

Nevertheless, while most survey respondents believe that ethics are practiced well in their profession, those who contributed narrative content speak strongly to the contrary. In their view, there are significant power inequities in play in their workplaces, some involving gender, but most involving worker positionality. These inequities enable the continuance of unethical practices that impact both work life and work products. These power imbalances also facilitate conditions that can cause physical, emotional, and financial harm, as reported in bright detail by our respondents. Such inequities and impacts raise important questions for current and future leaders in this field and raise questions about the efficacy of current ethics training.

Comments on job satisfaction present an interesting dichotomy. While respondents' qualitative comments described work environments that were stressful, overloaded, or even hostile, their collective quantitative comments reported an 87.7% job satisfaction rating. This contrast may be explained by Herzberg et al. (1959) two-factor theory of job satisfaction, which aligns variables of achievement, recognition, advancement, the work itself, and the possibility of

growth with Motivation, which increases job satisfaction, while aligning variables for poor working conditions and interpersonal relationships and other unpleasant aspects of work with Hygiene, which causes job dissatisfaction. While the two-factor theory has been debated over the past 60 years, what is notable about it is that, as with our survey sample, it demonstrates that its oppositional factors can coexist within one person in one workplace. This concurrence of opposite ends of the emotional spectrum may account for the exceptionally high reporting of burnout (82%) and emotional exhaustion (72%) experienced in the proposal profession—by individuals who nevertheless choose to remain in the work. These findings support and amplify the quantitative results presented in Chapter 4, and for that reason, are best taken together to understand the full meaning of respondents' survey responses and voluntary comments.

This chapter has presented the qualitative results of this study. Chapter 6 will present a discussion, limitations, implications for professional practice, areas for future quantitative and qualitative research, and a conclusion.

This page intentionally left blank.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, CONCLUSIONS

The modern marketing and procurement workforce represents a special nexus of business ethics and organizational justice, with proposal development professionals occupying a unique niche within that global specialty. Individuals who produce proposals, bids, and tenders, especially those submitted to government entities, operate within well-charted and universally understood professional rules intended to ensure procurement integrity. The objective of this complex legal and regulatory framework is to deliver the best goods and services to customers, including governments; provide a uniformly fair and safe work environment for employees; and enable the fair and legal pursuit of profit. Therefore, proposal development professionals must work within a clearly articulated ethical framework and must also have the position and authority to lead teams that compete effectively and legally.

Although proposal professionals collectively influence an estimated $1.4 trillion in annual procurements, their organizational justice and ethical challenges remain unexamined, possibly because of the secretive and competitive nature of their work. The financial stakes involved in multimillion- and multibillion-dollar procurements; the pressure on proposal teams to deliver winning bids; and size, complexity, and frequency of bids combine to create a work environment that contains conflicts, stresses, and the risk of physical and emotional abuses that represent challenges for workers and leadership alike. Until this study, those working conditions and ethical challenges remained largely unexamined.

To develop a more complete picture of this profession and its challenges, this study sought to define the business ethics and organizational justice perceptions of the proposal development workforce for the first time. This examination is supported by three research

questions and five hypotheses that examine ethics challenges and perceptions from the perspectives of gender, nationality, and ethics training.

In 2018, members of the international Association of Proposal Management Professionals (APMP) took part in the first large business ethics survey of their industry using an online questionnaire I developed for this purpose. The 1,254 responses from 40 countries, a 17.1% response rate, produced 1,113 valid cases analyzed quantitatively, and 332 text responses from 264 respondents analyzed qualitatively. This chapter brings together the findings and analysis performed on responses from respondents in 40 countries. It synthesizes those responses and provides a framework for understanding the study's results, limitations, and implications for practice and future research. It also provides data and analysis for examining leadership roles within the industry, the quality of such leadership, and areas in which improvements could be made to create healthier, more productive, and more equitable work environments.

Summary of Study Results

The study produced conclusions that both favorable and unfavorable. Respondent answers and comments indicated the presence of a well-understood ethics structure in this population and a strong commitment to adhering to it, regardless of age, gender, or nationality. Conversely, many answers and comments showed unfair treatment based on gender, age, and worker positionality, some of which was deeply injurious. To illustrate these conclusions, a summary of the study's descriptive statistics is presented first, followed by a summary of the inferential statistical analyses and the qualitative analysis of respondent comments.

Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics produced by the study generate the first comprehensive portrait of members of the proposal development profession. This study's sample is bounded by

membership in APMP, the only professional organization representing these workers worldwide. Two-thirds of the sample are from the United States, 65.5% are female, and 57.3% hold professional certification through APMP. Sixty-two percent (62.6%) receive some form of annual ethics training, but only 11.9% believe their training to be effective and useful. Respondent ages are symmetrically distributed across five generations in a bell curve, with Gen-X respondents, ages 39 to 53 in 2018, providing the most responses (41.1%), followed by baby boomers (29.4%) and millennials (27.4%), and Gen-Z and Veterans with fewer than 5% each. Respondents were overwhelmingly white (79.2%), with 4.5% Asian/Asian Americans and 4.0% African/African American. Respondents are well educated, with 79.8% holding college degrees, including 37.0% who hold master's or doctorate degrees. Half of all respondents (49.6%) work in large companies (larger than 2,500), while 11.7% work as consultants, and 25.5% of all respondents work from home. Sixty percent (60.1%) serve as proposal managers or directors, managing multiple proposal managers, with the balance occupying every function in the profession, including authors, editors, graphic artists, estimators, business development managers, and oral presentation preparation coaches. Forty-five percent (44.9%) reported their organizational level as middle management, with 24.3% identifying as professional non-management. Respondents reported a mean 12.9 years of professional experience, including 8.7 years in their current roles. These statistics are based on the 1,254 respondents providing demographic data.

As shown in Appendix E, the demographic data on this study's survey respondents correspond well with the data available on total APMP membership, making the results of this study more generalizable to the profession as a whole. In a January 2020 demographic survey, APMP received 1,477 responses linked to valid APMP members identification numbers, a 15.6% response rate. APMP's survey indicated that most respondents were white/Caucasian (79.2%),

similar to this study's survey. Additional similarities can be found for age, gender, and education. However, one area was different: While 65.4% of this study's sample were from the United States, the total APMP sample in the January 2020 survey had a 55.0% U.S. response.

Research Question 1.

Respondents provided detailed and consistent answers in response to Research Question 1: *What are the perceptions of proposal development professionals with regard to business ethics and organizational justice?* The analysis summary that follows is based on the 1,113 valid cases used as a basis for inferential statistics. Themes that emerged are discussed in the paragraphs that follow and include overall ethical strength within the profession, the presence and effect of workplace abuse and unfair treatment, discrimination, and differences in the work experience based on gender.

Most respondents reported observing very few business ethics violations, indicating that they worked in ethically healthy environments. The qualitative responses included 67 statements affirming respondents' strength of commitment to maintaining an ethical workplace (Table 5.2 and 5.3). These 67 statements, categorized as *virtue* statements, represented 15.8% of all qualitative responses, the single largest group of responses. Conversely, the proposal ethics violation most frequently seen was not observation of grave injustices or criminal behavior, but instead, a failure to establish a code of ethics at the proposal kickoff meeting, which 45.7% reported seeing occasionally to very frequently. This finding is significant because 60% reported their role as proposal manager or director, and establishing this standard is their responsibility. By contrast, 92.2% reported never experiencing or witnessing criminal acts such as bribery or fraud. Regarding relationships with clients, 15.2% reported having observed their companies or colleagues lying to customers, and a similar 14.4% had observed a failure to deliver what had

been bid in their proposals. When asked if they had ever had to look the other way when witnessing ethics violations, 61.6% said that such a situation had never happened to them.

This does not mean that all is well in the workplace. In response to separate questions used in this study's inferential statistical analyses, 73.9% of respondents reported having experienced unfair treatment in the workplace, 37.3% had experienced demoralizing treatment by a supervisor, 38.6% had endured verbal abuse, 72.5% had felt emotional exhaustion, and 82.5% had experienced overwork or burnout, with 48.5% experiencing it often or very frequently.

Regarding relationships with supervisors, 33.1% of respondents reported that they had been unjustly accused of ethics violations by supervisors. Thirty-two percent (31.9%) stated that they had been pressured to do something they felt was not right. When asked if they had ever felt trapped in a toxic or hostile work environment, 53.7% responded that they had. Of the 598 respondents answering "Yes" to this question, 560 (93.6%) were women.

When asked how they responded to unfair treatment 656 respondents (58.9%) said that such treatment lowered their job satisfaction and respect for their companies. This was the highest response to this question, followed by "Made me unhappy and disappointed" (644, 57.9%), and "Made me want to quit" (590, 53.0%). Also noteworthy was the number of respondents (530, 47.6%) who said that as a result of unfair treatment, they had experienced negative health consequences, some of which were debilitating.

Discrimination is one area of workplace fairness that produced strongly positive results, with 80.3% responding that people of their race, religion, ethnicity, or nationality are treated fairly. However, fairness of pay produced different results. In response to the question "People of

the opposite sex are promoted/paid more than me," the mean response on a 5-point scale was 2.06 for men and 3.43 for women, a statistically significant difference ($p < .001$).

There were differences between male and female respondents in additional areas of importance to this study. To a statistically significantly higher degree than men ($p < .001$), women believe that "people like me are seen as having lower potential," "there are gender-specific obstacles to my success," and "family responsibilities have limited my professional opportunities."

Inferential Statistics

Research Question 2.

This question asks about how large subgroup characteristics within the proposal profession exert an influence on perceptions: *How do gender, nationality, and training influence the business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals?* This question is addressed through five hypotheses, each of which is tested using an independent samples *t* test and a Mann-Whitney *U* test with one IV and one DV scale.

H1a. Women will perceive higher occurrences of business ethics violations in the workplace than men.

The question of gender differences related to business ethics perceptions hinges on whether men and women perceive different thresholds or have different tolerances for unethical behavior. Using the 38-item BEP (business ethics perceptions) scale, women observed more general business ethics violations in the workplace than men (male $\mu = 69.07$, $SD = 19.16$; female $\mu = 74.53$, $SD = 20.69$). The difference between mean BEP scores of men and women was significant, $t(1111) = -4.277$, $p < .001$ one-tailed, indicating that significantly more women perceived ethics violations in their workplaces than did men. Similar results were produced by

Mann-Whitney U test, with BEP scores statistically significantly different between males (*Med.* = 64) and females (*Med.* = 73), $U = 162{,}059$, $z = 4.558$, $p < .001$, calculated using asymptotic, one-tailed testing (Table. 4.44). Effect size ($r = 4.558/33.36 = 0.137$) was small (Cohen, 1988), indicating that 13.7% of the difference in scores was attributable to gender ($p < .001$). These results are consistent with literature, which concludes that women and men have different tolerance levels for unethical behavior, that women are less likely to ignore ethics breaches, and that women exhibit a higher intent to act ethically (Dawson, 1997; Roxas & Stoneback, 2004; Valentine & Rittenburg, 2007).

H1b. Nationality will influence business ethics perceptions (BEP) of proposal development professionals.

Consideration of nationality is important to an organization whose members live and work on five continents. Such consideration is supported by literature examining differences in ethics perceptions based on nationality. While national ethics standards may vary based on technical differences between countries' laws or regulations, the purpose of this study was to determine how uniformly this study's sample adhered to a common code of ethics. This information was also important to APMP, which desired to establish an ethics certification program for its members, and whatever they developed had to meet the needs of people in many countries.

Respondents from 40 countries were represented in the study. However, because two-thirds of the respondents were from the United States, respondents were divided into two groups: U.S. and non-U.S. respondents. The BEP scale used as the DV in examining H1b. A non-directional hypothesis was used because literature on the subject was mixed, with some researchers finding differences in ethical perceptions between cultures and nationalities

(Armstrong & Sweeney, 1994; Burnaz et al., 2009; Chan & Armstrong, 1999; Paul et al., 2006; Roxas & Stoneback, 1997; Singh et al., 2007), and others showing no differences (Armstrong et al., 1995; Lu et al., 1999; Valentine & Rittenburg, 2007). In this study, there was no significant difference in scores for non-U.S. (μ = 71.82, *SD* = 19.73) versus U.S. (μ = 73.18, *SD* = 20.62) respondents, $t(1108) = -1.045$, $p = .296$, two-tailed. The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 1.36, 95% *CI:* -3.90 to 1.19) was very small ($\eta^2 = -0.001$), indicating that less than 0.1% of the variance in BEP scores is explained by nationality (Cohen, 1988). Similar results were obtained through Mann-Whitney *U* testing: median BEP scores were not statistically significantly different between non-U.S. (*Med.* = 68) and U.S. (*Med.* = 70) respondents ($U = 140{,}913$, $z = 0.910$, $p = .363$), calculated using asymptotic, two-tailed testing. Effect size ($r = 0.910/33.31 = 0.027$) was very small. Therefore, null hypothesis is supported, with no evidence provided in this sample that nationality influences business ethics perceptions. This finding is important to APMP because it means that their planned professional ethics certification program should be applicable in all countries in which they have members.

H1c. Individuals who receive annual ethics training will observe fewer general business ethics violations than those who receive no training.

This hypothesis tests whether ethics training creates a more ethically compliant workplace by measuring the violations perceived by trained and untrained workers. The category of violations is broad, covering all areas of business practice applicable to respondents' workplaces. As reported above, 62.6% of this study's respondents receive annual ethics training but only 11.9% believe it is valuable and useful in their work. Despite respondents' lack of confidence in their training, this study has nevertheless shown training to be effective in producing workplaces with fewer ethics violations. Hypothesis H1c was tested using the BEP

scale as the DV. The difference between mean BEP scores of untrained and trained respondents was significant, $t(1111) = 5.543$, $p < .001$ one-tailed. The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 6.92, 95% *CI:* 4.47 to 9.37) was small ($\eta^2 = .027$) (Cohen, 1988). These results were confirmed by Mann-Whitney *U* test: median BEP scores were statistically significantly different between untrained (*Med.* = 74) and trained (*Med.* = 66) respondents, $U = 114{,}968.5$, $z = -5.610$, $p < .001$, calculated using asymptotic, one-tailed testing. Effect size ($r = -5.610/33.36 = 0.168$) was small (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis that training influences business ethics perceptions is supported, with trained respondents recording significantly fewer observations of business ethics violations in their workplaces than those who received no training ($p < .001$). This result supports the findings of Warren et al. (2014) who concluded that ethics training improves group culture, decreasing the number of ethics infractions, and increasing employee willingness to report violations. Similarly, other research teams found that training instilled a healthier corporate culture that caused personnel to engage in fewer activities that put the organization at risk (Frisque & Kolb, 2008; Treviño & Nelson, 2016; Weber, 2007).

H2. Women will perceive higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties (GWP) than men.

Hypothesis 2 states that female proposal development professionals are more likely than their male counterparts to experience workplace penalties related to gender, an assertion supported in in literature (Blau & DeVaro, 2007; England, Bearak, Budig & Hodges, 2016; Fortin et al., 2017; Kessler-Harris, 2001). The six-item gender workplace penalties (GWP) scale was used as the DV in an independent samples *t* test. There was a significant difference between GWP scores of men ($\mu = 11.87$, $SD = 4.21$) and women ($\mu = 15.96$, $SD = 5.09$; $t(897.56) =$

-14.239, $p < .001$, one-tailed), indicating that more women perceived gender-related workplace penalties than men. The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = -4.08, 95% *CI:* -4.65 to -3.52) was large ($\eta^2 = -0.154$), indicating 15.4% of the variance in GWP scores is explained by gender (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, this difference not only existed, but was of significant magnitude.

These results were supported by Mann-Whitney *U* testing. GWP scores were statistically significantly different between males (mean rank = 388.51) and females (mean rank = 643.65) ($U = 202{,}603$, $z = 12.562$, $p < .001$), calculated using asymptotic, one-tailed testing. Effect size ($r = 12.562/33.36 = 0.376$) was medium (Cohen, 1988), indicating that 37.6% of the difference in GWP scores was attributable to gender. Therefore, using both Mann-Whitney and *t* tests, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is supported, with women perceiving statistically significantly higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties than men ($p < .001$).

H3. Individuals who receive annual ethics training will be less likely to observe proposal ethics violations in their workplaces than those who receive no training.

Unlike previous hypotheses that tested general business ethics violations, H3 focused on ethics practices specific to the proposal profession. This question was undertaken to determine whether proposal professional behavior was contextual, and whether the sample would perform as strongly as it did on H1a. Using a 21-item proposal ethics violations (PEV) scale, analysis found a significant difference between the scores of untrained personnel ($\mu = 37.42$, $SD = 11.72$) and those with training ($\mu = 33.08$, $SD = 10.31$; $t(1,111) = 6.429$, $p < .001$, one-tailed). The group receiving training had lower scores, indicating that they perceived fewer ethics violations in their work environments. The conclusion drawn from this result is similar to that

drawn from the results of H1a—ethics training, whether or not it was highly regarded by the recipients, produced a more compliant workplace where fewer violations were observed. The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 4.34, 95% *CI:* 3.01 to 5.66) was small ($\eta^2 = 0.036$) but significant. Similar results were obtained using Mann-Whitney U test, with PEV scores statistically significantly higher for the no-training group (*Med.* = 36) than the group receiving annual ethics training (*Med.* = 31) ($U = 107{,}657$, $z = -7.028$, $p < .001$, calculated using asymptotic, one-tailed testing. Effect size ($r = -7.028/33.36 = -0.210$) was small (Cohen, 1988), with 21% of the difference in median PEV scores attributable to training. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis that individuals receiving annual ethics training will observe fewer proposal ethics violations in their workplaces is supported at the $p < .001$ level.

These results are consistent response to Hypothesis H1a, and also with literature, which found that training decreased observations of workplace ethics violations and increased willingness to report them (Frisque & Kolb, 2008; Treviño & Nelson, 2016; Warren et al., 2014; Weber, 2007). Warren et al. (2014) further noted that the effect lasted for 2 years, indicating that the workplace ethics culture had been strengthened. This outcome is significant in the proposal workplace, which assembles large numbers of professionals who do not routinely do proposal work, but whose specialties may be needed on a particular bid. These assignments are temporary, lasting only for the duration of the bid. Individuals may come from other parts of a company, from other teaming partner companies, or from other countries, all having different codes of conduct and ethical practices. Because proposal workers understand and can model appropriate ethical behavior, they can not only ensure strong ethical compliance

in their workplaces, but also lead by example, providing ethics guidance to non-proposal professionals collaborating in their workspaces.

Research Question 3.

The final research question measured perceptions of the sample related to organizational justice constructs, workplace treatment, and job satisfaction: *How do perceptions of organizational justice, moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, influence job satisfaction among proposal development professionals?* Research Question 3 has two related hypotheses, H4 and H5.

H4: Perceptions of distributive justice inequity will be higher among women than men.

Literature concludes that women not only perceive inequities in workplace compensation but also experience it (Babcock & Laschever, 2003; Blau & Kahn, 2017; Bowles et al., 2007; Bowles & McGinn, 2008; Budig & England, 2001; Chamberlain et al., 2019; England et al., 2016; Fortin, 2005; Fortin, et al., 2017; Goldin, 1984, 1990, 2006; Goldin & Katz, 2002; Harris, 2017; Kessler-Harris, 2001; Olivetti & Petrongolo, 2016; Small et al., 2007). Using an independent samples *t* test and a Mann-Whitney *U* test, analyses were conducted with sex as the IV and a 7-item distributive justice scale (DJ) as the DV to determine whether women in the sample believe that they are economically disadvantaged in the workplace to a greater degree than men. There was a significant difference between DJ scores of men ($\mu = 24.492$, $SD = 5.25$) and women ($\mu = 22.918$, $SD = 5.50$; $t\ (1,111) = 4.590$, $p < .001$, one-tailed), with men scoring higher than women, indicating that they perceived higher levels of distributive equity. The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = 1.57, 95% *CI:* .901 to 2.25) was small ($\eta^2 = .019$). These results were confirmed by Mann-Wilcox *U* testing, which found that the median DJ scores were statistically significantly different between men (*Med.* = 25) and women

(*Med.* = 23) (U = 117,502, z = -4.223, $p < .001$, calculated using asymptotic, one-tailed testing). Effect size (r = -4.223/33.36 = -0.127) was small (Cohen, 1988). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and the hypothesis that women will perceive higher levels of distributive justice inequity than men is supported by both t test ($p < .001$) and Mann-Whitney U test ($p < .001$).

Additional responses support these findings. For example, in response to Question 30.1, women believed to a much stronger degree than men that people of the opposite sex were promoted or paid more than them (male $\mu = 2.06$, $SD = 1.09$, $p < .001$; female $\mu = 3.48$, $SD = 1.22$, $p < .001$). This analysis is further supported by qualitative respondent comments, discussed in Chapter 5 and summarized later in this chapter.

H5: Individual perceptions of three dimensions of organizational justice (distributive, procedural, and interactional), moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, will influence job satisfaction.

To address the final hypothesis of this paper, I used moderated hierarchical multiple regression to test the predictive power of sex and the relative importance of each of three organizational justice constructs as determinants of job satisfaction. The results determined that the full model of sex, DJ, PJ, IJ, and WPT as predictors of JOBSAT (Model 5) was statistically significant, $R^2 = .533$, $F(5, 1107) = 252.922$, $p < .001$, adjusted $R^2 = .531$. The loading sequence was determined by literature stating that distributive, procedural, and interactional justice will exert predictive power in that sequence (Colquitt et al., 2001). Effect size for the addition of Models 2 to 5 in the full model was large ($f^2 = 1.131$). As expected, DJ was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction, $R^2 = .492$, $F(1, 1110) = 1083.577$, $p < .001$, explaining a combined 49.7% of the variance ($f^2 = .974$). Unexpectedly, however, this regression also shows that interactional justice is a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than procedural justice based on

relative values of B and β in Models 4 and 5 ($p < .001$) as well as effect size. This result is contrary to published findings, including Colquitt et al. (2001), whose meta-analysis "showed procedural justice to be a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than interactional justice, although both had significant independent effects" (p. 429).

The regression was rerun, reversing the loading sequence of PJ and IJ, which confirmed the initial results ($p < .001$). The differences in regression outcomes caused by reversing the loading sequence showed that IJ exerting a stronger influence than PJ had when occupying the same position. Effect size (f^2) also increased from .046 to .066. The results of both regressions show that within this sample DJ was the strongest predictor of job satisfaction, IJ was a stronger predictor than PJ, and WPT was not significant as a moderator.

Principal component analysis: Organizational justice variables.

To better understand this departure from literature, I used PCA with Promax rotation to test all 24 organizational justice variables. The rotation produced four components closely aligned with DJ, PJ, and IJ. Three components were retained for analysis. The first, labeled REWARDS, contained the expected monetary compensation variables, but also included nonmonetary variables such as respect, and having a significant role and an opportunity for advancement. Of the nine variables in this component, five were from DJ, three from IJ, and one was from PJ. The second component, TREATMENT, contained only variables from IJ and measured issues such as burnout, emotional exhaustion, verbal abuse, and demoralizing treatment by a supervisor. The final component, DISCRIMINATION, contained three variables from PJ measuring aspects of discrimination.

Even with all 24 organizational justice variables reconfigured by PCA, the distributive justice–related construct remained the strongest predictor of job satisfaction, followed by

interactional and procedural justice, confirming the outcome of the two previous regressions. Contrary to literature, in this sample, interactional justice is a stronger predictor of job satisfaction than procedural justice. Table 6.1 summarizes those results.

Table 6.1

Principal Component Analysis: Final Rotated Pattern Matrix Showing Mixed Organizational Justice Variables in Component 1 and IJ Loading Before PJ

	Components			
	1	2	3	4
	REWARDS	TREATMENT	DISCRIMINATION	SEXBEHAV
DJ-perform	.811			
DJ-noticed	.731			
IJ-honestboss	.729			
DJ-credit	.707			
IJ-role	.680	Combination of		
DJ-promote	.637	DJ, IJ, and PJ		
DJ-fairpay	.624			
PJ-politics	.624			
IJ-respect	.588			
IJ-exhaust		.944		
IJ-burnout		.919		
IJ-hostile		.752	All IJ	
IJ-verbal		.728		
IJ-demoraliz		.620		
PJ-orientdisc			.862	
PJ-discprob			.843	All PJ
PJ-agedisc			.759	
IJ-sexharass				.917
IJ-inappsex				.899
Cronbach's alpha	.857	.892	.764	.878

Note: Extraction method: Principal component analysis. Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser normalization. Rotation converged in 6 iterations. KMO = .875.

What is shown very clearly by PCA is that the first component, REWARDS, is a predominantly distributive justice with other variables categorized as interactional or procedural justice included. The composition of this variable indicates that in this sample, those IJ and PJ variables are perceived to be distributive justice–related and function as DJ variables. One example is represented by IJ-honestboss, *"My supervisor/boss provides an honest explanation for my raise or the reason I didn't get one."* This survey question was intended to measure the

degree to which the employee perceived that the boss was interacting and communicating honestly and could logically have fallen under interactional justice. Instead, as shown in Table 6.1, it more closely associated with perceptions regarding distribution. Similarly, "*My role (job title) is respected and deferred to on a bid/proposal team"* (IJ-role). Even more so that in the previous example, this variable would seem to align with the interactional justice construct. However, as seen in Table 6.1, survey respondents more closely associated it with distribution, expressing the perception that respect and deference are intangible forms of compensation.

The second component, TREATMENT, includes only IJ variables describing how an individual is treated in the perceives workplace treatment. This variable provided stronger loadings and placed ahead of PJ. The third variable, DISCRIMINATION, include three PJ items relating to perceptions of workplace discrimination. The composition of this component may indicate that workplace procedures intended to prevent such discrimination were absent or not being followed. The final component contains two IJ items that pertain to sexual behavior in the workplace. The fact that these items rotated so far away from other IJ items may indicate that study participants responded to those questions in a manner distinct from other IJ items.

Finally, I conducted a third regression using the three strongest-loading new variables and the revised loading sequence to match the PCA results. Where all three justice variables in the earlier regressions had produced significant results ($p < .001$), the only component in the final regression that remained significant was REWARDS (distributive justice) ($p < .001$). Even though the Cronbach's alpha scores of the new scales were all stronger than their DJ, IJ, PJ counterparts, TREATMENT ($p = .051$), DISCRIMINATION ($p = .055$), and the moderator, WPT ($p = .843$), were not significant.

The REWARDS scale was used to retest Hypothesis 4, with results similar to the original: There was a statistically significant difference in REWARDS scores of men ($\mu = 32.487$, $SD = 6.60$) and women ($\mu = 30.222$, $SD = 7.22$) with men scoring higher than women: $t(824.418) = 5.250$, $p < .001$ one-tailed), indicating that men had higher perceptions of distributive justice workplace fairness than women had. The effect size [mean difference = 2.265, 95%, CI (1.42 to 3.11)] was small (η^2 squared = .023) (Cohen, 1988).

Principal component analysis: BEP and JOBSAT scales.

Appendix F contains a compilation of PCA analyses performed on two additional scales: the 38-item BEP scale ($\alpha = .936$) and the 6-item JOBSAT scale ($\alpha = .810$). The BEP scale rotated into seven components with Cronbach's alpha scores ranging between .763 and .887. The JOBSAT scale was tested to determine if it would divide into smaller components, which it did not: All six items loaded into a single component with a KMO of .832 and could not be rotated. Table 6.2 summarizes the results of PCA analyses performed for this study.

Table 6.2

Results Summary: PCA Analyses of BEP, Organizational Justice Variables, and JOBSAT

Original Configuration	Post-PCA Components	Content
BEP 38 items (α = 936)	Proposal Misconduct	8 items, α = .826
	Discrimination	7 items, α = .873
	Workplace Treatment	6 items, α = .887
	Legal Violations	7 items, α = .772
	Observed Personal Misconduct	3 items, α = .807
	Violations of Proprietary Rules or Policy	5 items, α = .763
	Conclusionary Ethical Assessments	2 items, α = .810
Organizational Justice 24 items from DJ, PJ, IJ (α = 783, .762, .853)	Rewards	9 items, α = .857
	Treatment	5 items, α = .892
	Discrimination	3 items, α = .764
	Sexbehav	2 items, α = .878
JOBSAT 6 items (α = .810)	No change	No change

Summary of inferential statistics findings.

Table 6.3 summarizes this study's quantitative results as presented in Chapter 4.

Table 6.3

Results Summary: Inferential Statistical Analyses

Hypothesis		Variables	Result
Tests conducted using independent samples *t* tests and Mann-Whitney *U* tests			
H1a	Women will perceive higher occurrences of business ethics violations than men.	IV: Sex DV: BEP	Supported: $p < .001$
H1b	Nationality will influence business ethics perceptions of proposal development professionals.	IV: Nationality DV: BEP	Not supported: $p = .296$ (*t* test), $p = .363$ (*U* test)
H1c	Individuals who receive annual ethics training will observe fewer general business ethics violations than those who receive no training.	IV: Training DV: BEP	Supported: $p < .001$
H2	Women will perceive higher occurrences of gender-related workplace penalties than men.	IV: Sex DV: GWP	Supported: $p < .001$
H3	Individuals who receive annual ethics training will be less likely to observe proposal ethics violations in their work-places than those who receive no training.	IV: Training DV: PEV	Supported: $p < .001$
H4	Perceptions of distributive justice inequity will be higher among women than men.	IV: Sex DV: DJ	Supported: $p < .001$
Tests conducted using moderated hierarchical multiple regression			
H5	Individual perceptions of three dimensions of organizational justice, moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, will influence job satisfaction.	IV: DJ, PJ, IJ DV: JOBSAT Moderator: WPT Control: Sex	Regression 1: Full model significant $p < .001$ (ANOVA: Model 1, $p = .019$; Models 2–5, $p < .001$.) The addition of moderator WPT to Model 5 was not significant, $\Delta F = .140$, $p = .708$); Regression 2: Full model significant $p < .001$. Confirmed that IJ was stronger predictor of JOBSAT than PJ. WPT not significant ($p = .708$).
Tests conducted after principal components analysis			
H4	Perceptions of distributive justice inequity will be higher among women than men (*t* test, *U* test).	IV: Sex DV: REWARDS	Supported: $p < .001$
H5	Individual perceptions of three dimensions of organizational justice, moderated by workplace treatment and controlled for gender, will influence job satisfaction (multiple regression).	IV: REWARDS, TREATMENT, DISCRIMINATION DV: JOBSAT Mod: WPT Control: Sex	Regression 3: Full model significant $p < .001$ (ANOVA: Model 1, $p < .01$; Model 2, $p < .001$; Model 3. $p = .051$; Model 4, $p = .055$. WPT not significant ($p = .843$).

Qualitative Analysis

The findings of the qualitative analysis provide insight into issues discussed in literature. Of the 135 organizational justice–related narrative comments received in response to Questions 31 and 37, the fewest were related to distributive justice, as shown in Table 6.4, while comments related to procedural and interactional justice were evenly divided.

Table 6.4

Organizational Justice Narrative Comments

Comment Category	Q. 27	%	Q. 31	%	Q. 37	%	Total	%
Distributive justice					17	12.6	17	12.6
Procedural justice/voice			15	11.1	44	32.6	59	43.7
Interactional justice			30	22.2	29	21.5	59	43.7
Total	N/A		45	33.3	90	66.7	135	100.0

Comments were often a challenge to categorize because they represented a synthesis of the organizational justice elements. Distributive justice was noted in terms of fairness of compensation, but was also linked to gender equity, equal access to advancement (procedural justice), access to information (informational justice), and fair treatment by a supervisor (interpersonal justice). Respondents commented that financial rewards were not commensurate with the amount of work required, including work expected that was beyond normal work week. They also commented that there was secrecy about compensation. The perception of several respondents was that men were paid more than women for the same work; that women occupied leadership roles that were not final-decisionmaker roles, which were occupied by men; and that there were exclusionary practices in place, such as trips to conferences and fishing trips where only male staff were included.

Many respondents commented on workplace treatment issues that were personal. Demoralizing treatment by a supervisor, verbal abuse, a hostile work environment, and overwork and burnout were so strongly represented in both the quantitative and qualitative parts of this study that it is impossible not to conclude that they are highly meaningful to this sample.

Consequences arising from unfair treatment included employees leaving the job, emotional health effects ranging from feeling disengaged and devalued to experiencing PTSD from a toxic work environment. Respondents reported experiencing major health problems requiring medical leave, and suffering financial harm when bonuses were cut in appropriately after filing an ethics complaint. Other respondents also tried to do the right thing by filing human resources or legal departments, with less than satisfying consequences. Still others complained of issues related to worker positionality—they knew what was right but could not do it because they were directed otherwise, or because their opinion was not sought. Some respondents mentioned that unfair treatment discouraged innovation by causing them to withdraw and withhold ideas and contributions they would have made in a healthier environment. It also changed the way some interacted with their subordinates, teams, and colleagues. Finally, some members of the profession chose simply to avoid companies and individuals who were unethical or who treated them improperly. Each of these outcomes is an indication of job satisfaction levels that are less than desirable.

Respondent comments related to organizational justice are summarized in Table 6.5. Distributive justice comments relate workload expectations to compensation fairness. Issues of position, power, and voice occupy the procedural justice space, while interpersonal treatment dominates the interactional justice category. Gender issues are blended into and throughout all three categories.

Throughout the comments, there was a strong undercurrent of fairness. As described by Herzberg et al. (1959), when hygiene factors such as interpersonal relationships, working conditions, and fairness in implementing company policies are not healthy, workers experience the kind of job dissatisfaction expressed by our respondents in their qualitative comments, even as they express overall satisfaction with the work they perform. However, when individuals feel that fairness is in place and they have opportunity to excel, they express the high levels of satisfaction recorded in our sample.

Table 6.5

Issues of Greatest Concern to Qualitative Participants

Construct/Themes	Key terms	Qualitative content
Distributive Justice		
Compensation fairness	Salary and bonus	High pressure, high workload work is not paid commensurate with required effort. Proposal teams work long hours for little reward.
	Benefits	Benefits and flexible work arrangements can compensate for low wages.
	Gender	Women were "never paid as much as the guys." There is a belief that women will be satisfied with less.
Procedural Justice		
Procedural fairness	Discrimination	Age discrimination; very depressed and angry. Job interviews limited by foreign-sounding name.
	Power	Proposals are hijacked by senior management. Business ethics are defined top down; managers don't practice what they preach.
Voice	Say, listen	We have no say in what we bid but sacrifice our personal lives and health to make hopeless bids happen. Nobody listens to us; we're just "the proposal women."
Interactional Justice		
Interpersonal treatment	Verbal abuse	The biggest problem…verbal abuse or unpleasant behavior from company executives. I have witnessed verbal abuse, open hostility, and inappropriate sexual behavior in my company…"
	Bullying	I was bullied and emotionally traumatized.
	Toxic environment	Company and work environment were toxic.
Access to information	Bonus secrecy	Too much secrecy about bonuses.

Figure 6.1 summarizes the qualitative and quantitative relationships in this study and shows the interconnectivity of the constructs. This concept map displays the synthesis of organizational justice (top tier), business ethics (bottom tier), and gender equity (middle tier), with equity issues on the left, workplace interpersonal relationships on the right, and job satisfaction in the center. Herzberg's theory of job satisfaction motivators and hygiene factors (Herzberg et al., 1959) is shown across the top, aligned with appropriate organizational justice constructs: Motivation and satisfaction linked to distributive justice, and Hygiene and dissatisfaction linked to failures of procedural and interactional justice. Figure 6.1 includes the significance of hypothesis testing results. This graphic also shows areas in which quantitative testing occurred and where qualitative input was provided by respondents, including key topics. In addition, Figure 6.1 shows the cross-cutting nature of gender, both across the center of the diagram, and by the top-left-to-bottom-right diagonal.

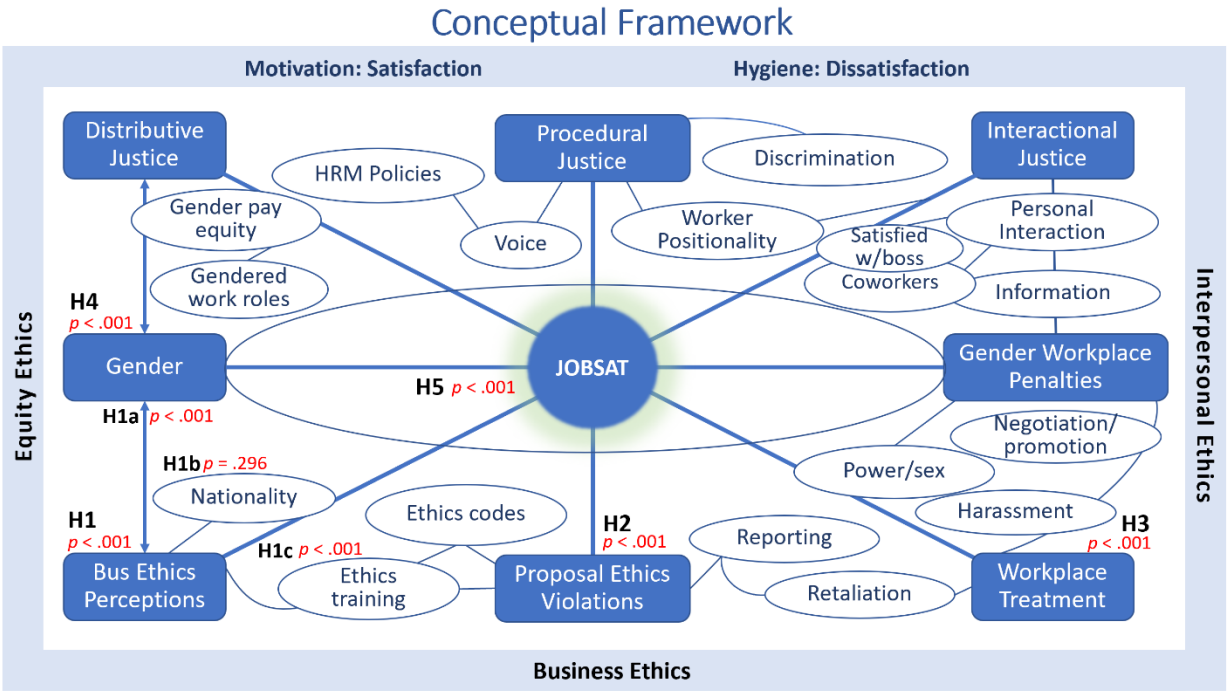


Figure 6.1. Conceptual framework linking organizational justice, business ethics, gender equity, and job satisfaction, with statistical significance of hypothesis testing. (Design concept: Heuer & Pherson, 2014.)

Discussion

The picture that emerges from the quantitative and qualitative analyses is that of a profession reporting high job satisfaction despite being challenged by a heavy workload, issues of gender discrimination, a high incidence of exhaustion and burnout, and worker positionality impediments. Principles of business ethics are well understood by this population, two-thirds of which receive annual ethics training, although only 11.9% believe it is effective or applicable to the challenges they face. Survey results produced a strong, clear picture of respondent views on organizational justice, workplace treatment, and gender workplace equity. While occupying a workplace niche similar to the much-studied sales profession, this population displays greatly different strengths and is concerned about greatly different challenges. Similarly, this study, conducted in 2018, reflects a global workforce that is constituently and preferentially different from those studied in the field's formative literature. These observations are discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

Relative Predictive Strength of Organizational Justice Variables

The ethics and fairness issues reported by respondents are inextricably linked to organizational justice in that both ethics and justice are prerequisites for a fair and healthy work environment to exist. Fifty years of literature tells us that distributive justice is the strongest contributor to job satisfaction among the justice constructs, followed by procedural justice. However, with this study's respondents, interactional justice delivered stronger predictive performance than procedural justice in a series of three hierarchical multiple regressions. This realignment may be occurring because this sample experiences interpersonal and informational deficits differently than groups in previous studies, or this discrepancy may point to something more generalized in the workforce. The workplace and the nature of work have changed

substantially since the foundational studies in organizational justice were written in the 1960s and 1970s. Many more procedural protections are in place and the field of human resources management has advanced since that time, all of which may make procedural justice less significant in daily work because its protections are more universally present today's workplace. Workers today better understand their legal options, and structures are in place to protect their rights and redress their grievances.

The one exception to this conjecture is voice. This study's respondents expressed strong, clear objections to their lack of voice in decisions that affect what is bid by their companies and the quality of those bids. These decisions result in unpaid overtime and losses rather than wins. Lack of voice also affects the worker–boss relationship and interpersonal relationships traditionally regarded as interpersonal justice. This may be one reason that interactional justice ranked higher than expected in this sample. Another reason is that workplace interpersonal behavior has also changed in the past 50 years, with less civility, less formality, and fewer barriers to bad behavior. Our respondents talked about verbal abuse, personal mistreatment, hostile work environment and overwork and emotional exhaustion more than any other set of working conditions. As shown in both the quantitative and qualitative parts of the study, this very personal side of workplace treatment is deeply felt and strongly affects job satisfaction.

Why does IJ assume a stronger role than PJ in the quantitative analysis of this sample? The qualitative analysis provides several clues.

Respondents provided many comments about workplace treatment that reflected abusive and unhealthy interpersonal behavior. Comments in general were made by a minority of respondents (264 respondents out of 1,113 valid cases and 1,254 total responses), but there was consistence among them. The treatment they reported having to endure included verbal abuse, a

hostile work environment, and even sexual harassment or abuse in order to keep a job. Some categories of interactional mistreatment reported qualitatively were also recorded quantitatively in survey questions, validating the significance of these issues to this population.

Compounding this treatment is the finding of worker positionality. Most respondents described their organizational position as middle management, and many complained that they were not listened to by senior managers with less experience. These senior managers made decisions about what proposals to bid, resulting in proposal professionals losing earned vacation or putting in uncompensated overtime on bids that they knew were not viable. Respondents reported being asked by senior managers to submit false statements or low-bid a job. In addition, many respondents reported that they felt a lack of upward mobility—once they demonstrated success in a proposal organization, particularly in a leadership role, employers were reluctant to promote them to higher positions. These factors combine to create a pressure cooker effect that can cause workers to feel trapped in a position in which they have little choice and less voice. As a result, the most frequently stated response by study participants confronted by unfair or abusive treatment was, "I quit."

Fifty Years of Workplace Change

Another reason that procedural justice may be less important to this sample than interactional justice is captured in three areas of difference between the 1960s and 1970s and today—policy, technology, and culture change.

Policy infrastructure.

The meta-analysis conducted by Colquitt et al. (2001) that confirmed the relative predictive strength of the three organizational justice variables included 25 years of studies conducted in very different work environments than those experienced by APMP respondents.

Studies in the 1960s and 1970s predated legislative, policy, and procedural workplace changes that are firmly in place in today's corporate workplaces. Examples include expanded legal protections against discrimination, increased legal assurances of pay equity, and the widespread presence of corporate ethics and compliance offices, family leave policies, compensation for continuing education, employee concerns programs for handling complaints against superiors, confidential hotlines for reporting ethics and legal violations, and employee assistance programs with counseling and training to address problems and keep employees on the job. None of these protections existed at the time the first generation of organizational justice literature was being developed. The strength and durability of this network of protections may have resulted in procedural justice violations becoming less prevalent in the workplace in 2020 than they were in the 1960s and 1970s. What is unquestionable is that today, employees have recourse when violations occur.

Information technology.

Another major difference between today's workplace and that of the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s is communication. Employees today have exponentially greater access to information than they did 50 years ago and better ways to calibrate their experiences against the experiences of others. This has become especially true in the areas of compensation and workplace treatment, including sexual harassment. The studies by Card et al. (2010, 2012) demonstrate the results of making that information available. When employees had access to comparative salary data, they were most interested in what their peers made, not in what their managers made. Using that information to form their own opinions of comparative contributions between themselves and their peers, they determined the fairness of compensation in their environments. Information decreased satisfaction and increased turnover in individuals with salaries below the median, with

no impact on workers paid above the median (Card et al., 2012, p. 3001). Thus, while employers are incentivized to keep pay information private, employees, particularly those new to the workforce, in lower-skilled positions, seeking a reasonable range for salary negotiation (Mazei et al., 2015), or those traditionally identified as "female" roles, have a greater incentive to seek and develop the means to acquire good comparative data (England, 1992; Levanon et al., 2009; Murphy & Oesch, 2016). Open databases now exist that can be used by employees at all levels to report their salaries and anonymously comment on their work environments in a specific workplace, and publicly available annual industry salary data is becoming more common, for example, Glassdoor reporting in the United States and the government-mandated gender pay equity reporting in the United Kingdom. The ubiquity of these tools and their ease of use are more likely to accelerate change in the future by giving all employees the ability to determine for themselves what they perceive as fair, and what they are willing to accept.

Culture change.

In an anecdote related by Baumhart (1961), one study participant, a successful businessman, suggested that the ethics of his firm could be improved by ending the practice of having women on staff to entertain clients (p. 159). This statement encapsulates the then-and-now differences in accepted practices and values between the 1960s and 2018. Culture change, including the #MeToo movement that occurred during the development of this study, has made many previously tolerated workplace behaviors related to gender unacceptable. Similarly, as the white collar workplace has become more casual during the past 50 years, and roles and interpersonal behavior less formal, the type of speech tolerated in the workplace may also have changed, creating greater opportunities for interactional justice abuses.

What emerges from this discussion is the conclusion that just as the work environment has changed since the 1960s, so has the relative predictive power of the three organizational justice variables. Stronger policies and procedural justice protections have entered the workplace, accompanied by decreasing observations of procedural justice violations. Procedural justice is now a right, and employees have access to information to communicate and validate their concerns. Not surprisingly, in the quantitative analysis, study participants reported that procedural justice is now the least significant predictor of job satisfaction. Herzberg et al. (1959) consider company policies and procedures to be a Hygiene variable—not capable of producing satisfaction, but capable of inducing job dissatisfaction if not applied properly. This description is consistent with both the quantitative and qualitative conclusions in this study.

Finally, when considering the culture changes that have occurred since the development of the three organizational justice constructs, it is notable that none of the millennials and only half of the Generation X-ers were even born when procedural justice was introduced in 1975. That year marks the midpoint in organizational justice theory development, and at least half of the workforce sampled for this study has never experienced the workplace environments on which that theory was based and tested. What seems to persist, however, is the need to be rewarded and treated properly.

The Role of Gender in Fairness Perceptions

Gender remains a significant differentiator in the workplace. The men and women in our sample experience work and rewards differently, face different equity environments, and many still live with different workplace treatment, including inequity in pay, promotion, and leadership opportunity, and greater exposure to inappropriate sexual behavior. Quantitative analysis of this sample's responses revealed that women have less tolerance for unethical behavior in the

workplace than men ($p < .001$), experience gender-related workplace penalties to a greater degree ($p < .001$), and believe that they are unfairly penalized in the distribution of rewards because of their gender ($p < .001$). This sample also reported that to a statistically significantly greater degree ($p < .001$), women believe that there are gender-related obstacles to their success, that they are perceived as having lower potential, and that family responsibilities have limited their professional opportunities. More women than men reported that their work experiences had taken an emotional and physical toll. In this study, 53.7% of respondents reported experiencing a hostile work environment—96% of the "yes" respondents were women. These examples support findings in a half century of literature and portray a workplace in which proposal development professionals experience every aspect of organizational justice differently based on gender.

These findings are significant on their face, but profoundly so because of the percentage of the survey population that is female—65.5% of this study's survey population and 63.7% of APMP's membership in a January 2020 demographic survey (Appendix E). In an employment study in the UK, Germany and Switzerland, Murphy and Oesch (2016) found that once a profession becomes 60% female-dominated, a wage penalty of 15% ensued for both sexes performing that work. This finding was supported by Blau and Kahn (2017) in their study of German workers. The more women occupy a profession, the more devalued that work is, commanding lower pay (England, 1992; Levanon et al., 2009). If the proposal development profession is so strongly female, then perceptions such as those expressed by this sample, and the tendency to devalue this work compared to male-dominated roles, must be taken into account by individuals in professional leadership, as well as by those with organizational responsibilities in human resources, ethics and compliance, and training.

Limitations

The study was open only to members of APMP. This limits the study in two ways. First, because most people working in the profession do not belong to APMP, and second, because it favors employees of large corporations. Many large employers pay APMP membership dues, certification fees, and conference expenses and an employee benefit. Participation in APMP is therefore disproportionately more expensive for non-corporate employees such as consultants or independent contractors, who must supply those funds themselves. This difference may have limited the number of independent workers, sole practitioners, or consultants in the study. These individuals may hold different perspectives on training, ethics practices, and workplace treatment, compensation, and workplace protections than are held by corporate employees.

Another limitation is presented by the high probability of social desirability bias among respondents because APMP members knew they were taking an ethics survey that was important to the organization (Rogelberg et al., 2003; Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007). An example that indicates respondents may have tried to put their best foot forward lies in the number of qualitative responses that expressed respondents' virtue. Open-ended comments such as, "I always do the right thing," "I would never violate ethics codes," and "Nothing could make me do something unethical," are statements of self-affirmation and in the context of an ethics survey, may demonstrate social desirability bias. This group of 67 statements represent the largest single comment category among all responses and suggests that social desirability bias may be present in other responses, as well.

Similarly, as a proposal professional, I had to continuously check my own biases to ensure that they were not creeping into question wording, question selection, and emphasis placed on items reported to APMP. Confirmation bias would have been an easy trap, using the

survey to confirm my beliefs. This bias could have resulted in placing undue emphasis on ethical issues of importance to me or derived from my experience, resulting in an imbalance in the data collected, and missing the opportunity to explore fully other issues. I attempted to counter confirmation bias by using questions from published studies and through independent reviews by APMP and Hood College faculty and colleagues during the questionnaire development phase. Any extent to which I was not able to prevent or remediate bias remains a limiting factor.

Throughout this study, another ongoing challenge has been to compare results across studies because of the inconsistency with which researchers assigned variables to organizational justice constructs. This challenge is recognized in the field (Colquitt et al., 2001) and presents potentially significant limitations. Any lack of clarity in what is being measured limits a true understanding of causation as well as effect and may also limit the generalizability of results. An example is a survey question on perceived unfair treatment in the workplace: Was the treatment the result of gender or other bias, a failure to follow procedures, or nonexistent but perceived by the respondent?

Delimitations include the study's survey format and anonymity, which precluded the ability to conduct interviews or ask follow-up questions to probe a respondent's underlying rationale or determine causal factors. The use of English as the survey language may have reduced the number of narrative comments contributed by respondents whose primary language was not English. At APMP's request, the survey was open for four weeks. Sixty-four percent of responses came within the first nine days. Extending the open period increased the number of participants, but also may have created wave differences between early and late responders, as noted in the qualitative responses discussed in Chapter 5.

Implications

Implications for Practice

Until recently, there was no centralizing mechanism such as an international professional organization to gather proposal development professionals into a common group and provide global access for a survey. This initial research provides a window through which we can see opportunities to improve standards and practice, which was the motivation behind APMP's willingness to participate.

Ethics standards.

Like Johnson & Johnson's credo, most companies have in place a statement of core beliefs, often linked to standards of behavior that apply to employees, customers, clients, stakeholders, and the environment. Most of our sample are employees of organizations that are likely to claim those core beliefs, but those principles may exist on a website and not in practice. Proposal professionals can become ethics leaders in their companies by promoting the company's ethics standards, incorporating them in daily work, placing ethics items on meeting agendas, displaying them on proposal center walls, and incorporating references to them in proposals as a foundation for strong customer relationships. Most important, proposal leaders must demonstrate by their daily behavior the importance of ethical standards and the principles of fairness underlying them and provide thorough oversight of their work environment to ensure compliance and inspire adherence. Because they often lead large teams assembled from disparate environments, including different companies or even different countries, proposal leaders play a key role in forming a uniform workplace culture that adheres to high standards and reduces the occurrence of and tolerance for ethics violations.

Ethics training.

If 89% of this study's respondents tell us that their annual ethics training is either irrelevant to their work or nonexistent, ethics training represents an area for immediate improvement. To increase relevance, both real and perceived, leaders should broaden the scope and content of training, moving beyond legal compliance to include workplace fair treatment, voice, and gender equity issues—issues related to organizational justice. One respondent commented that she had never thought of compensation (distributive justice) as an ethics issue until taking the survey. This issue blindness is the result of ethics training that from its beginnings in the late 19th century was focused on transactions with customers, and more recently is primarily concerned with legal and regulatory compliance. This narrow view must be broadened to encompass a wider range of ethics issues that apply to the work lives of employees. Topic areas that need to be given more attention include pay equity; interpersonal treatment of all kinds, from verbal behavior to sexual behavior; reporting of ethics concerns; and access to information to enable workers to fairly value their worth in the workplace. Training that goes beyond compliance to engage employees in ethical decision making would be beneficial to the entire workforce. It would be especially beneficial to supervisors who are closest to employees and who can intercept unethical behavior, as well as to managers who must make department-level personnel decisions and set business strategy.

The ethical challenges of managers are particularly great, as they must balance their competing responsibilities to the organization's success, the wellbeing of the workforce, and adherence to ethics standards. While those responsibilities should not be in conflict, they often are, as in the case of needing to push a workforce hard to complete a high-priority, deadline-driven task. As an outcome of this study, I believe that ethics training should be different for

managers than for the workforce they manage. Supplemental training for managers should be provided that includes situational awareness and ensuring that employees feel free to bring questions and concerns into the manager's office. As is often the case in proposal centers, managers are also doers, and as such may lose the full-field view necessary to spot problems early and ensure fairness for all members of a hard-working, deadline-focused team. This issue of workforce view is magnified when leading a distributed, multi-location team, where a manager's oversight and the ability to ensure that ethics practices are being followed are limited.

Proposal managers need situational training to learn to present issues and recommendations to senior management in a way that serves the company's interest while maintaining the proposal manager's integrity. This training should be vertically integrated, with all decision-making levels of the organization working together on simulated problems to determine appropriate outcomes. Finally, managers need to be given evidence from myriad studies that demonstrate the disadvantages faced by women in their workplaces to raise awareness and sensitivity as a first step toward remedy and prevention.

Negotiation training.

One area of training that is implemented rarely if ever in corporations is training for women on how to negotiate their compensation packages and working conditions. Literature shows how negatively impactful the consequences are of accepting a lower starting salary early in a work life (Bertrand et al., 2010; Carey, 2015; Corbett & Hill, 2012; Flores, 2016). Studies also show that women are disadvantaged in negotiations regardless of whether the other negotiator is a man or woman (Rudman, 1998), that the negotiation aggressiveness that is rewarded in men is penalized in women (Babcock & Laschever, 2003; Bowles & Flynn, 2010; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Mazei et al., 2015), and that women negotiate for shorter periods of time

and accept earlier, lower offers than men (Small et al., 2007). However, when women negotiate on behalf of a third party, e.g., a subordinate employee, Babcock et al. (2005) found that they negotiate longer and more strongly and Borghans et al. (2006) found that their behavior in this setting was regarded as altruistic and met with less resistance from male negotiating counterparts. Both men and women need to be made aware of this dynamic through training in dyads representing both sexes. Stronger negotiating skills would be beneficial to both sexes, but especially to women, to prevent intentional or unintentional exploitation of this gender difference. Because negotiation training is not generally taught in school and unlikely to come from employers, women need to find it elsewhere, and professional associations such as APMP may offer a good starting point.

Leadership: Proposal managers and senior management.

Proposal managers or proposal directors (managing multiple proposal managers) face unique challenges in the business development environment, and more than 60% of our sample fills these roles. They are called upon to lead large, high states teams in high-stakes procurements, while they may have little say in the bids selected to pursue or the strategy selected for the bid. Such conflicts between middle and senior management exist in many workplaces, but in the proposal environment, the conflicts are intense. Senior management evaluates proposal managers on their win rate, even though proposal managers may be forced by senior managers to pursue bids that have no chance of winning. This conflict impacts the distribution of material rewards in the form of salary, promotion, and bonuses.

Respondents reflect this set of conditions in their comments on worker positionality, voice, feelings of obligation to work hard for the good of the company, their overall confidence, and acceptance of risk. Respondents note the ethical conflicts that arise from senior management

pressure to propose lower than justified prices, propose key personnel who do not intend to work on the project, or fail to disclose unfavorable aspects of past performance—all examples cited by this study's respondents. Pushing back on this kind of pressure may strain interpersonal relations with executives who have a lot at stake in the proposal outcome, and who also control the proposal manager's compensation, especially discretionary bonuses.

Giving in to such pressure improves elements of Herzberg's Hygiene factor, specifically, the relationship with the supervisor, interpersonal relationships, and salary (Herzberg et al., 1959), which shows the inherent conflicts that exist between ethics and avoiding job dissatisfaction—it's easier and more rewarding to just go along. By doing so, the proposal manager is materially incentivized to do the unethical, which will increase her chances of success in the organization, make her workplace less stressful, most likely increase her compensation, as well as decrease the likelihood of an unpleasant or dissatisfying workplace. At the same time, she must model ethical behavior for her proposal team and do what she believes to be ethically correct. Proposal managers have no training on how to navigate this path successfully and remain in the organization.

Of the many respondents who discussed having experienced similar situations, almost all reported leaving the employer. The profession cannot benefit from frequent turnover of skilled, ethical personnel in leadership roles. Therefore, an implication for practice would be, first, to recognize the inherent conflict between these organizational roles, and second, to provide awareness training for proposal professionals and management to enable them to deal with it successfully, retain their positions in industry, and develop strong organizational leaders from within.

Implications for Further Research

Disaggregation of the workforce.

Respondents noted a growing trend to work at home or conduct business in workgroups sited in many locations. How does trend this affect work life relationships in each of the three areas of organizational justice? As the trend to work at home and operate with distributed teams accelerates, will it produce electronic workplaces that are less fraught with interpersonal mistreatment? What implications does this hold for a leader working with distributed teams? With 25.5% of respondents reporting that they work from home, how will this trend impact the group brainstorming and solution development so common on proposal teams? Will innovation and creativity suffer?

Employee turnover.

With so many respondents indicating that their response to unfair treatment was to quit their jobs, how is this very expensive movement of people in the workforce documented and studied? How effective are exit interviews in capturing the real reasons behind employee dissatisfaction that is so severe that employees risk financial harm by leaving? What role does employee social desirability bias play in exit interviews and are the data collected valid and valuable? Do employers use exit interviews in any meaningful way to identify and redress employee grievances? Given its sensitivity and the disinclination of firms to display their shortcomings as they compete for employees and capital, can exit interview information be aggregated within and across industries to make it meaningful?

Similarly, with compensation data now being reported annually in the UK on corporate gender pay gaps, what effect will the publication of this information have on corporate

reputations and on recruitment and retention? How will employers, especially those with poor results, portray this annual reporting on their websites.

Managerial ethics training.

Research could determine if it is beneficial to provide an additional level of ethics training to managers over and above the training provided to all employees. Management training with broadened ethics content may be especially valuable in settings where current training focuses primarily on compliance with laws, regulations, and corporate policy, as is the case for U.S. federal government contractors. Research could also determine how widespread the practice is of conducting ethics training that focuses solely on compliance with government requirements, with little or no content devoted to the ethics of organizational justice and fairness, including issues of gendered work roles, and pay and promotion disparity.

Generational differences.

Data show that all generations are working more today than they did 40 years ago (Twenge et al., 2010) and that work plays a decreasingly central place in workers' lives based on generation (Gursoy et al., 2013; Park & Gursoy, 2012). Older Gen-X and baby boomer workers are more likely to be managers and hold decision making positions. These workers identify more with their work roles than younger generations, creating potential conflict when managers expect levels of performance that younger workers have no vested interest in providing. The results of this study show that stresses exist between the generations. Industry-specific research could identify ways to bridge that gap by determining what motivates younger workers in the proposal industry, helping managers effectively achieve higher levels of performance with a happy and motivated workforce.

Voice and innovation.

The impact of voice and silence on innovation is an understudied area. Commenting on unfair treatment, one respondent observed that his resultant silence, "discouraged innovation including sales opportunity pursuits." This is a particularly telling comment. Employees who are dissuaded from contributing or whose opinions are rarely sought or considered are more likely to retreat into silence, resignation, and disengagement, depriving the organization of the benefits of their contributions. Firms are in constant pursuit of new business and require new ideas to retain the business of current customers. A study on the impact of voice and silence in limiting the flow of innovative ideas could be beneficial to this industry and others.

Clarity of organizational justice variables.

Research clarity is needed on items, scales, and variables used in organizational justice studies conducted in this century. Each element of the concept map displayed earlier as Figure 6.1 is related to at least two others on the map, demonstrating the difficulty of knowing which concept is in the mind of a respondent answering survey questions. Without interviews, researchers cannot know with certainty which motivating factors caused the outcome being evaluated: Does a perception of distributive justice inequity exist because organizational procedures were not followed, because of the interpersonal animosity of a supervisor, because of age discrimination, because of gendered work roles, or because the employee has failed to beneficially negotiate a salary, bonus, or job level?

The PCA analysis performed on this study's organizational justice variables demonstrates the overlap that occurs when a variable traditionally assigned to one organizational justice category actually performs in another. Table 6.1 earlier in this chapter illustrates the clustering of IJ and PJ variables in the DJ-related factor, REWARDS. This performance ambiguity calls into

question construct validity and the scales used to measure discrete variables. Questions that may have worked 40 years ago may not produce similarly clear results today in a workforce that has never known employment in settings that lack, for example, laws and regulations preventing discrimination on the basis of race, gender, and age. What may have been construed as procedural irregularities in the past may be seen as straightforward compensation inequity today. While voice is traditionally associated with procedural justice, in this study it is also associated with interactional justice. Without the clarifying power of qualitative assessment, certainty on respondents' intent when answering these questions, and thus, complete clarity on construct validity, remains elusive.

Further challenging researchers, there is as yet no consensus in the field as to the number of primary variables comprising organizational justice. Nearly two decades have passed since Colquitt (2001) and Colquitt et al. (2001) documented that interactional justice could be divided into two distinct variables, but representations of three primary variables are still the norm and offer the broadest base for comparison. Going further, Ambrose, Wo and Griffith (2015) reviewed 28 years of studies leading to perceived overall justice (POJ) as an alternate construct. While these changes demonstrate continued vitality in the field, they also challenge researchers searching for solid benchmarks.

Conclusion

This study has produced a definitive profile of a group of professional workers occupy a highly influential niche in the global economy. It provides a view of a community of practice that is solidly ethically grounded, with great respect for its professional standards. Proposal professionals are well educated, experienced, knowledgeable, dedicated to excellence, and have a strong work ethic. From this study's quantitative and qualitative analyses, I have drawn some

concluding thoughts on the study's positive outcomes, areas for improvement, and the role of leadership in bringing about needed change.

Positive Outcomes for the Proposal Industry

The 2018 APMP ethics survey generated much good news for the proposal industry. One of the most positive outcomes is that the survey shows that APMP as an organization is directed by a leadership team dedicated to promoting ethical practice in the profession. The APMP leadership team championed this study and committed time, resources, and its professional reputation to make it successful. APMP's leaders also stated their intention to use this study as a basis for developing a professional ethics certification for APMP members—the first within professional organizations of this type.

Strong ethical culture. This study demonstrates that most APMP members work within solidly ethical environments, even when billions of dollars and thousands of jobs are at stake and pressure to "win at all costs" is high. As examples, only 6% of respondents had witnessed some of the most common proposal ethics violations, including breaches of confidentiality, failure to fulfill a contract, misrepresentation of past performance in proposals, or conflict of interest violations. As further evidence of ethical strength, 60–73% of proposal professionals in this study have never observed sexual harassment, alcohol/drug abuse, or certain types of discrimination in their workplaces; 66% have never been pressured to do anything unethical; 79% believe that their companies are ethical; more than 80% never or rarely observe general business ethics violations; and 86% report that their bosses behave ethically at work. In cases where respondents reported having experienced ethical misconduct, many also reported leaving that work environment for one in which the ethics culture was healthier, often remarking that they were happier in their new, more ethical workplace.

Also very evident in the survey is the strength of proposal workers' intentions to do what is right and model good behavior. In this area, proposal professionals are well trained, with 62.6% of respondents receiving annual ethics training. Even though only 11.9% of those who received ethics training believed it to be "very effective and useful in their work," training nevertheless significantly reduced the number of general business ethics and proposal ethics violations observed in workplaces where it was present ($p < .001$), supporting outcomes noted by Warren et al. (2014) and establishing that positive change had occurred in workplaces where training was present.

Respondents told us emphatically that they would not look the other way when witnessing ethics violations. Many study participants supplemented their survey responses with additional written comments stating that they knew what was right and would always speak up if compromised. Several described challenging senior management on ethical behavior. Some respondents even reported quitting a job when forced into an unresolvable ethical conflict ("It cost me my job!" "Made me quit without a backup plan"), with many reporting little or no gap in employment ("Zero time unemployed"). These responses demonstrate a level of commitment to doing what is right despite the possibility of negative consequences.

Job satisfaction. Another area of very good news for the industry is employee job satisfaction—proposal professionals like what they do. Respondents reported being satisfied with their jobs (65.6%), valued by senior management (67.2%), listened to and respected on their proposal teams (85.9%), and that they got a feeling of accomplishment from their work (87.7%). Responses to these questions, drawn from SHRM job satisfaction surveys, produced some of the highest scores among all survey questions. In an industry known for turnover, and with 12% of respondents self-reporting as consultants, 54.5% said they were planning to remain with their

employer in the coming year, with only 11.2% strongly intending to leave. Such high levels of satisfaction indicate the positive presence of all three elements of organizational justice.

Uniformity of ethical practice. Also strongly indicated was the uniformity of ethical understanding and practice across the cultures of participants in this survey. With 40 countries represented, there were no statistically significant differences in perceptions or practice between U.S. and non-U.S. respondents ($p = .296$). This does not mean that differences may not exist between individuals or cultures. Rather, it indicates that testing as configured in this study did not identify any evidence of disparity. The resultant presumptive common understanding of business and proposal ethics is excellent news for an industry that is increasingly global in its pursuits and that uses technology to assemble proposal teams comprising multiple nationalities working together from remote locations.

Areas for Improvement

While the good news is strong, responses provided in this study also highlight areas that the profession must address. These are summarized in the areas of gender equity, voice, workload, and interpersonal treatment.

Gender workplace equity. In this study, despite liking the work that they do and expressing high job satisfaction, many women in the proposal workforce perceived that conditions enabling success did not apply as equitably to them as they did to men ("I was never paid as much as the guys," "There is a belief that women will be satisfied with less"). They perceived statistically significant higher distributive justice inequity than men, higher observations of workplace ethics violations, and a much higher incidence of unfair workplace treatment. Similarly, female respondents believed that people of the opposite sex were promoted and paid more, that there were gender-specific obstacles to their success, and that employers

viewed them as having lower potential, all to a statistically significant degree. For some, structural unfairness is built into the work environment by gender-based roles. Respondent comments noted that more men occupy the higher-paying strategic decision-making roles and more women work in lower paid but highly demanding proposal development roles. In this profession, that translates to men in senior business development deciding what will be bid, and women leading teams that execute those bids. While all-male corporate golf tournaments and fishing trips are presumed to be rare, respondents report that they still exist. Such practices, along with hiring and promotion preferences and imbalances in negotiations disfavoring women, create gendered work roles and cause male-dominated executive structures to be self-replicating. Collectively, these practices make it difficult for even the most talented women to break into or the top tier or remain once they arrive.

Voice. There is evidence throughout this study that voice is a major concern. That concern can be interpreted from the quantitative results and is stated clearly in the narrative responses. Many respondents feel that they are not listened to or fear speaking up. Some respondents experienced the use of organizational power to stifle criticism, while others remained silent rather than confront inevitable rejection by superiors: "Senior management politics is difficult to fight because you never win" or, worse, "The perpetrator was untouchable." As noted previously, employee resignation and silence limits the contribution of innovative ideas. However, it may also limit the transmission of important information on ethical improprieties, affecting overall corporate governance and severely damaging customer relationships and corporate good will.

Respondents reported dissatisfaction with not having their voices heard on issues such as which proposals were worth bidding, and the amount of work required to complete competitive

bids. Respondents believed that if they were engaged in the decision-making process on what to bid, fewer "hopeless bids" would be undertaken, and win rates (and compensation) would go up, but that they also said that they were neither asked nor listened to. Commenting on the lack of training and experience of some business development decisionmakers, one respondent noted they "rotate in and out," "we have no say in what we bid," and "the balance of power needs to shift." These respondents felt cut out of the decision-making process and excluded from the corporate strategic tier.

Workload. In one of the strongest responses of the survey, respondents said that workload issues must be addressed by the industry ("Workload is a HUGE issues right now"). More than 80% of quantitative respondents reported experiencing or observing burnout in their work environment, and 72% experienced overwork to the point of emotional exhaustion. Only 57% believed that the amount of work they were routinely expected to do could be accomplished during normal work hours. This a clear signal to the industry that working conditions should be examined and corrected where necessary. Proposals require periods of intense, deadline-driven work, but they do not need to lead to the kind of employee abuse described by this study's respondents. Many proposal managers are salaried employees, so the loss of accrued vacation time and the unpaid overtime they contribute are never calculated on time sheets ("At your stage, this is expected"). Proposal workers expressed frustration at having to put in this kind of uncompensated effort when they could not influence what was bid, and also questioned reward structures that could penalize them for losses but not allow them to share in a win. Corporate leaders and human resource professionals who promote work–life balance should evaluate proposal shop working conditions for fairness and to eliminate overwork and abuse.

Interpersonal treatment. A final area of concern lies in abusive interpersonal treatment and its effect on proposal professionals. Several respondents commented on the negative personal consequences they experienced after reporting ethics violations ("I was bullied and emotionally traumatized by the experience"). This was true of corporate employees ("I paid a price," "It was position-limiting," "retaliation") as well as independent contractors or consultants ("You have to say nothing or you pay dearly for it in terms of lost work") and was true irrespective of the type of ethics violation. Asking about unfair workplace treatment, one question that permitted multiple responses produced 4,506 answers that described the consequences of such treatment. Twenty-six percent of respondents reported never having been treated unfairly. However, the balance reported loss of job satisfaction and respect for the company (58.9%), anger (49.2%), loss of self-esteem and self-confidence (43.6%) and significant health effects such as depression, ulcers, headaches and sleep disruption (47.6%) after being treated unfairly. There were significant gender differences in this response, with 57.7% of males and 82.2% of females reporting that they had experienced mistreatment.

Left unchecked, unfair treatment produced the hostile and/or toxic work environments in which 53.7% of respondents felt "trapped" at some point in their careers. Narrative responses illustrated the consequences: "my nightmare job," being "pressured to do things that were unethical," "I have seen male managers take advantage of female subordinates sexually," "My bonus was cut 90%," and "My job and company culture were toxic." Respondent reactions ranged from experiencing negative health outcomes, including depression requiring hospitalization, "PTSD" and long-term disability, to filing lawsuits and receiving financial settlements, to "never taking more work from that client," and "I quit." These are severe reactions to severely damaged workplace environments. Most respondents discussed them in

terms of conditions they had experienced in the past, with the remedy being employee turnover. When this happens, the employee loses seniority and possibly accrued benefits, but respondents reported making that choice rather than stay in a debilitating environment in which they could not do good work. In these cases, employees experience the absence of interactional justice. The strength of responses in this area may be the reason that, contrary to literature, interactional justice surpassed procedural justice in regression analyses as a predictor job satisfaction.

Recommendations to Industry Leaders

One responded noted that, "When business leaders take steps to encourage ethical conduct, positive outcomes are the result." This study's results produced several strong messages for corporate and proposal industry leaders, focusing on the importance of healthy interactions, job satisfaction, the role of human resource management, and steps proposal managers can take to promote ethics in their environments.

The importance of voice, gender, and age. Ethical industry leaders bear the responsibility of ensuring that the opportunity to contribute and be rewarded exists for all employees. Segmenting off talent, whether by age, gender, or other factors, and closing off decision-making limits success in the proposal industry. In many settings, proposal professionals have more experience than the business development managers they report to; their opinions on bid decisions should be sought and listened to. Employees should be engaged in decisions that require them to contribute high levels of discretionary behavior, such as the long workhours required for proposals. Corporate leaders should create structures that encourage inter-tier collaboration and decision-making, such as inclusive meetings to evaluate bid opportunities, where input from proposal professionals is required. This approach not only ensures that fresh thinking and innovation can be aired, but also includes key lessons learned from previous bids

and experience with prior customers in the decision-making process. Including this information will help minimize the time, effort, and funding spent on bids that have little chance of winning, making those resources available for business opportunities offering a higher probability of success.

Gender disparities in pay and opportunity should be evaluated and, if found, corrected by the industry's employers. The APMP salary survey and other industry benchmarks are available to both employers and employees, helping to promote transparency and fairness. Other gender-related limitations, such as starting salaries, negotiated raises, ability to rise in the organization should also be assessed and addressed where needed. Another way for employers to promote equity is to review hiring practices to ensure that work roles have not become "gendered" over time, and that starting salaries are role- and not gender-based.

Similarly, age will increasingly become a factor in the workplace. Generation-related conflicts were noted by this study's respondents, with baby boomers and Gen-X-ers reporting discontent with and disrespect for millennials and Gen-Z workers based on the deference accorded to younger workers despite what was viewed as their lack of work ethic. Building teams that integrate employees from multiple workforce generations and ensuring that employees of all ages have opportunities to learn and practice leadership roles will help transfer institutional knowledge effectively and build intergenerational respect.

Maintaining employee job satisfaction. Proposal professionals recorded high job satisfaction in this study, even though high workplace negatives, such as overwork, burnout, emotional exhaustion, and workplace toxicity were also present. This combination of opposites is best explained by Herzberg et al. (1959) and Herzberg (1966, 2003), whose work provides clear guidance to employers to provide the positive motivators that create satisfaction, while removing

the negative factors that can create dissatisfaction. In the modern workplace occupied by proposal professionals, that means ensuring equity in the distribution of all forms of tangible and intangible rewards, as well as ensuring that employee–supervisor communication and relationships are healthy, and that employees have opportunities to report misconduct without retribution and with certainty that issues will be addressed. These policies and procedures belong both to the human resources professional as well as the executive who must be visible on these issues. Employee concerns programs and ethics hot lines exist as a matter of course in most large companies. While these tools are important, they were not fully effective in addressing the concerns of this study's respondents, either because they were not immediately available, or because employees did not have the confidence to use them. In addition the presence of laws, HR policies and protections, did not prevent the enormous gender wage disparities seen through the UK's mandatory annual corporate reporting. Such disparities damage job satisfaction and require commitment from senior leadership to remedy.

Role of ethical leadership. The importance of ethical leadership becomes most evident when reading respondent comments about the physical and emotional toll created by ethically challenged managers or others in positions of authority. The leader—proposal manager, business development lead, or corporate executive—has the greatest responsibility of all in the workforce to establish an ethical work climate and model ethical behavior. Ethics in this context must include not only compliance with laws and regulations, but also fundamental fairness issues, issues if interpersonal kindness and decency, and honesty and transparency. While this study's respondents expressed high job satisfaction and professional dedication, one-third of reported being unjustly accused of ethics violations by their supervisors or enduring other types of unethical leadership. Corporate leaders must ensure that human resources policies and

procedures are fairly drawn, clearly communicated, and justly implemented, and that appropriate behaviors are modeled at the top, including hiring, promotion, rewards, and treatment on boards and within the C-suite.

Ethical leaders at all levels lead by example. Proposal professionals must do their part by setting ethics standards for their staffs and at kickoff meetings, displaying and enforcing zero-tolerance for ethics violations during their proposal efforts, ensuring that their proposal staffs are treated and compensated fairly, incorporating organizational justice within the framework of business ethics, and by communicating ethics goals and practices up and down the management chain. Overwhelmingly, this study's respondents indicated that they aspire to be and work for this kind of leader, which speaks to the quality of the proposal workforce today and to its organizational justice health in the future.

During this analysis, as the statistics and respondent stories unfolded, it became evident that both quantitative and qualitative research are necessary to fully understand the work lives of proposal development professionals in an ethical proposal workplace. Each form of research holds a piece of that story and without its counterpart, each remains incomplete. When interpreting human perceptions, the basis for this study, both halves are essential.

References

Abend, G. (2013). The origins of business ethics in American universities, 1902–1936. *Business Ethics Quarterly 23*(2), 171-205. doi:10.5840/beq201323214

Abratt, R., Nel, D., & Higgs, N. S. (1992). An examination of the ethical beliefs of managers using selected scenarios in a cross-cultural environment. *Journal of Business Ethics, 11*(1), 29-35. doi:10.1007/BF00871989

Adams, J. S. (1963). Toward an understanding of inequity. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 67*(5), 422-436. doi:10.1037/h0040968

Adams, J. S. (1965). Inequity in social exchange. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 267-299). New York, NY: Academic Press. doi:10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60108-2

Adams, J. S., & Freedman, S. (1976). Equity theory revisited: Comments and annotated bibliography. In L. Berkowitz & E. Walster (Eds.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 9, pp. 43-90). New York, NY: Academic Press. doi:10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60058-1

Adams, L., Gore, K., & Shury, J. (2010). *Gender pay gap reporting survey 2009* (Research Report 55). Retrieved from Equality and Human Rights Commission (UK) website: https://www.equalityhumanrights.com/sites/default/files/research-report-55-gender-pay-gap-reporting-survey-2009.pdf

Alexander, S., & Ruderman, M. (1987, Fall). The role of procedural and distributive justice in organizational behavior. *Social Justice Research, 1*(2), 177-198. doi:10.1007/BF01048015

Ambrose, M. L., Wo, D. X. H., & Griffith, M. D. (2015). Overall justice: Past, present, and future. In R. S. Cropanzano & M. L. Ambrose (Eds.), *Oxford library of psychology. The Oxford handbook of justice in the workplace* (p. 109–135). New York, NY: Oxford University Press. doi:10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199981410.013.5

American Association of University Women. (2018). The simple truth about the gender pay gap, Fall 2018 ed. Retrieved from https://www.aauw.org/resource/the-simple-truth-about-the-gender-pay-gap/

APMP (2017). *2017 APMP U.S. compensation report*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from https:www.apmp.org

Andrade, M. S., Westover, J. H., & Peterson, J. (2019). Job satisfaction and gender. *Journal of Business Diversity, 19*(3), 22-40. doi:10.33423/jbd.v19i3.2211

Andres, L. (2012). *Designing and doing survey research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Aquino, K., Tripp, T. M., & Bies, R. J. (2006). Getting even or moving on? Power, procedural justice, and types of offense as predictors of revenge, forgiveness, reconciliation, and avoidance in organizations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(3), 653-658. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.91.3.653

Ardichvili, A., Mitchell, J., & Jondle, D. (2009). Characteristics of ethical business cultures. *Journal of Business Ethics, 85*(4), 445-451. doi:10.1007/s10551-008-9782-4

Ardichvili, A., & Jondle, D. (2009). Integrative literature review: Ethical business cultures: A literature review and implications for HRD. *Human Resource Development Review, 8*(2), 223-244. doi:10.1177/1534484309334098

Arches, J. (1991). Social structure, burnout, and job satisfaction. *Social Work, 36*(3), 202-206. doi:10.1093/sw/36.3.202

Aristotle (1999). *Nicomachean ethics.* M. Ostwald (Ed. and Trans.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Armstrong, R. W., Stening, B. W., Ryans, J. K., Marks, L., & Mayo, M. (1990). International marketing ethics: problems encountered by Australian firms. *European Journal of Marketing, 24*(10), 5-18. doi:10.1108/03090569010005787

Armstrong, R. W., & Sweeney, J. (1994). Industry type, culture, mode of entry and perceptions of international marketing ethics problems: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Business Ethics, 13*(10), 775-785. doi:10.1007/BF00876258

Armstrong, M., & Taylor, S. (2017). *Armstrong's handbook of human resource management practice* (14th ed.). London, UK: Kogan Page Publishers.

Arya, B., Mirchandani, D. A., & Harris, M. M. (2017). Personality and pay satisfaction: Exploring the influence of organizational justice and gender in South Africa. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *30*(2), 219-250. doi:10.1080/09585192.2017.1282531

Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB). *Staff demographics and salary survey 2018–2019, Executive summary*. Tampa, FL: AACSB International. Retrieved from http://aacsb.edu

Babcock, L., & Laschever, S. (2003). Women don't ask: Negotiation and the gender divide. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Baines, A. D., Partin, M. R., Davern, M., & Rockwood, T. H. (2007). Mixed-mode administration reduced bias and enhanced poststratification adjustments in a health

behavior survey. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology, 60*(12), 1246-1255. doi:10.1016/j.jclinepi.2007.02.011

Bandura, A. (1977). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review, 84*(2), 191-215. doi:10.1037/0033-295X.84.2.191

Barrick, M. R., & Mount, M. K. (1991). The Big Five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 44*(1), 1-26. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.1991.tb00688.x

Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., & Gupta, R. (2003). Meta-analysis of the relationship between the five-factor model of personality and Holland's occupational types. *Personnel Psychology, 56*(1), 45-74. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2003.tb00143.x

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality in Social Psychology, (51)*6, 1173-1182. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.51.6.1173

Bartlett, M. S. 1954. A note on the multiplying factors for various x2 approximation. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society, 16*(2), 296-298. doi:10.1111/j.2517-6161.1954.tb00174.x

Bauer, T. K. (2004, August). High performance workplace practices and job satisfaction: Evidence from Europe. IZA Discussion Paper No. 1265. *RWI-Mitteilungen, 2003/2004, 54/55*(1), 57-85. Retrieved from The Institute for the Study of Labor website: https://www.iza.org/publications/dp/1265/high-performance-workplace-practices-and-job-satisfaction-evidence-from-europe

Baumhart, R. C. (1961). How ethical are businessmen? *Harvard Business Review, 39*(4), 6-157.

Baumhart, R. C. (1963). *Exploratory study of businessmen's views on ethics and business*, (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.

Baumhart, R. C. (1968). *An honest profit: What businessmen say about ethics and business*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Beauchamp, T. L., & Bowie, N. E. (1979). *Ethical theory and business.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Beebe, T. J., Ziegenfuss, J. Y., St. Sauver, J. L., Jenkins, S. M., Haas, L., Davern, M. E., & Talley, N. J. (2011). Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act (HIPAA) authorization and survey nonresponse bias. *Medical Care, 49*(4): 365-370. doi:10.1097/MLR.0b013e318202ada0

Bennis, W. (1973). *The leaning ivory tower.* Hoboken, NJ: Jossey-Bass.

Benston, G. J. (2003, November 6). *The quality of corporate financial statements and their auditors before and after Enron. Policy Analysis No. 497.* Retrieved from the Cato Institute website: https://www.cato.org/publications/policy-analysis/quality-corporate-financial-statements-their-auditors-after-enron

Bertrand, M., Goldin, C., & Katz, L. F. (2010). Dynamics of the gender gap for young professionals in the financial and corporate sectors. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics, 2*(3), 228-55. doi:10.1257/app.2.3.228

Bertrand, M., & Hallock, K. F. (2001). The gender gap in top corporate jobs. *ILR Review, 55*(1), 3-21. doi:10.1177/001979390105500101

Bevan, D. & Corvellec, H. (2007). The impossibility of corporate ethics: For a Levinasian approach to managerial ethics. *Business Ethics, 16*(3), 208-219. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8608.2007.00493.x

Bianchi, E. C., Brockner, J., Van den Bos, K., Seifert, M., Moon, H., van Dijke, M., & De Cremer, D. (2015). Trust in decision-making authorities dictates the form of the

interactive relationship between outcome fairness and procedural fairness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 41*(1), 19-34. doi:10.1177/0146167214556237

Bies, R. J. (1987). The predicament of injustice: The management of moral outrage. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior* (Vol. 9, pp. 289-319). Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Bies, R. J. (2001). Interactional (in)justice: The sacred and the profane. In J. Greenberg and R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 89-118). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Bies, R. J. (2005). Are procedural justice and interactional justice conceptually distinct? In J. Greenberg and J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *The handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 85-112). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Bies, R. J. (2015). Interactional justice: Looking backward, looking forward. In R. S. Cropanzano and M. L. Ambrose (Eds.), *The Oxford handbook of justice in the workplace* (pp. 89-107). New York, NY: Oxford University Press. doi:10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199981410.013.4

Bies, R. J. & Moag, J. F. (1986). Interactional justice: Communication criteria of fairness. In R. J. Lewicki, B. H. Sheppard, and M. H. Bazerman (Eds.), *Research on negotiation in organizations* (Vol. 1, pp. 43-55). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Bies, R. J., & Shapiro, D. L. (1987). Interactional fairness judgments: The influence of causal accounts. *Social Justice Research, 1*(2), 199-218. doi:10.1007/BF01048016

Bjorklund, D. F., & Kipp, K. (1996). Parental investment theory and gender differences in the evolution of inhibition mechanisms. *Psychological Bulletin, 120*(2), 163. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.120.2.163

Blackaby, D., Booth, A. L., and Frank, J. (2005). Outside offers and the gender pay gap: Empirical evidence from the UK academic labor market. *Economic Journal, 115*(501), F81-F107. doi:10.1111/j.0013-0133.2005.00973.x

Bland, J. & Altman, D. (1997). Statistics notes: Cronbach's alpha. *BMJ, 314*, 572. doi:10.1136/bmj.314.7080.572

Blau, F. D., & DeVaro, J. (2007). New evidence on gender differences in promotion rates: An empirical analysis of a sample of new hires. *Industrial Relations, 46*(3), 511-550. doi:10.1111/j.1468-232X.2007.00479.x

Blau, F. D., & Kahn, L. M. (1997). Swimming upstream: Trends in the gender wage differential in the 1980s. *Journal of Labor Economics, 15*(1, Part 1), 1-42. doi:10.1086/209845

Blau, F. D., & Kahn, L. M. (2003). Understanding international differences in the gender pay gap. *Journal of Labor Economics 21*(1), 106-144. doi:10.1086/344125

Blau, F. D., & Kahn, L. M. (2008). Women's work and wages. In S. N. Durlauf and L. E. Blume (Eds.), *The New Palgrave Dictionary of Economics* (2nd ed., pp. 762-772). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Blau, F. D., & Kahn, L. M. (2017). The gender wage gap: Extent, trends, and explanations. *Journal of Economic Literature, 55*(3), 789-865. doi:10.1257/jel.20160995

Blau, F. D., & Winkler, A. E. (2018). *The economics of women, men, and work* (8th ed.). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Bloomberg Government (2019). BGOV200 federal industry leaders 2019. Retrieved from: https://data.bloomberglp.com/bna/sites/3/2019/08/BGOV200_2019.pdf

Bok, D. (1976). Can ethics be taught? *Change, 8*(9), 26-30. doi:10.1080/00091383.1976.10568973

Borsboom, D., Cramer, A. O. J., Kievit, R. A., Scholten, A. Z., & Franić, S. (2009). The end of construct validity. In R. W. Lissitz (Ed.), *The concept of validity: Revisions, new directions, and applications* (p. 135-170). Charlotte, NC: IAP Information Age Publishing.

Borghans, L., Ter Weel, B., & Weinberg, B. A. (2006, January). *People: Social capital and the labor-market outcomes of underrepresented groups* (Working Paper 11985). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research. doi:10.3386/w11985

Bowie, N. E. (1986). Business ethics. In J. P. DeMarco & R. M. Fox (Eds.), *New directions in ethics: The challenge of applied ethics* (pp. 158-172). London, UK: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Bowles, H. R., Babcock, L., & Lai, L. (2007). Social incentives for gender differences in the propensity to initiate negotiations: Sometimes it does hurt to ask. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 103*(1), 84-103. doi:10.1016/j.obhdp.2006.09.001

Bowles, H. R., Babcock, L., & McGinn, K. L. (2005). Constraints and triggers: Situational mechanics of gender in negotiation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 89*(6), 951-965. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.89.6.951

Bowles, H. R., & Flynn, F. J. (2010). Gender and persistence in negotiation: A dyadic perspective. *Academy of Management Journal, 53*(4)*,* 769-787. doi:5465/amj.2010.52814595

Bowles, H. R., & McGinn, K. L. (2008). Gender in job negotiations: A two-level game. *Negotiation Journal, 24*(4)*,* 393-410. doi:10.1111/j.1571-9979.2008.00194.x

Boyles, D., Carusi, T., & Attick, D. (2009). Historical and critical interpretations of social justice (pp. 30–42). In: W. Ayers, T. Quinn, and D. Stovall (Eds.), *Handbook of social justice in education*. New York, NY: Routledge.

Bratton, J., & Gold, J. (2017). *Human resource management: Theory and practice* (6th ed.). London, UK: Palgrave.

Brockner, J., Siegel, P. A., Daly, J. P., Tyler, T., & Martin, C. (1997). When trust matters: The moderating effect of outcome favorability. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 42*(3), 558-583. doi:10.2307/2393738

Brockner, J., & Wiesenfeld, B. M. (1996). An integrative framework for examining reactions to decisions: Interactive effects of outcomes and procedures. *Psychological Bulletin, 120*(2), 189-208. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.120.2.189

Broome, K. M., Knight, D. K., Edwards, J. R., & Flynn, P. M. (2009). Leadership, burnout, and job satisfaction in outpatient drug-free treatment programs. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment, 37*(2), 160-170. doi:10.1016/j.jsat.2008.12.002

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1978). Universals in language usage: Politeness phenomena. In E. N. Goody (Ed.), *Questions and politeness: Strategies in social interaction* (pp. 56-311). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, S. P., & Peterson, R. A. (1993). Antecedents and consequences of salesperson job satisfaction: Meta-analysis and assessment of causal effects. *Journal of Marketing Research, 30*(1), 63-77. doi:10.1177/002224379303000106

Budig, M., & England, P. (2001). The wage penalty for motherhood. *American Sociological Review, 66*(2), 204-225. doi:10.2307/2657415

Buchan, H. F. (2005). Ethical decision making in the public accounting profession: An extension of Ajzen's theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Business Ethics, 61*(2), 165-181. doi:10.1007/s10551-005-0277-2

Burnaz, S., Atakan, M., Topcu, & Singhapakdi, A. (2009). An exploratory cross-cultural analysis of marketing ethics: The case of Turkish, Thai, and American businesspeople. *Journal of Business Ethics, 90*(3), 371-382. doi:10.1007/s10551-010-0422-4

Byrne, Z. S., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). The history of organizational justice: The founders speak. In: R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace, from theory to practice* (Vol. 2). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cahill, L. S. (1996). *Sex, gender, and Christian ethics.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Card, D., Mas, A., Moretti, E., & Saez, E. (2012). Inequality at work: The effect of peer salaries on job satisfaction. *American Economic Review, 102*(6), 2981-3003. doi:10.1257/aer.102.6.2981

Carey, K. (2015, September 13). Gaps in earnings stand out in release of college data. *The New York Times,* Retrieved from https://www.nytimes.com

Carrell, M. R., & Dittrich, J. E. (1978). Equity theory: The recent literature, methodological, considerations, and new directions. *Academy of Management Review 3*(2), 202-210. doi:10.5465/AMR.1978.4294844

Carroll, A. B., Brown, J. A., & Buchholtz, A. K. (2018). *Business & society: Ethics, sustainability, and stakeholder management* (10th ed.). Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.

Cattell, R. B. (1966). The Scree Test for the number of factors. *Multivariate Behavioural Research, 1*(2), 245-276. doi:10.1207/s15327906mbr0102_10

Caywood, C. L., & Laczniak, G. R. (1986). Ethics and personal selling: *Death of a Salesman* as an ethical primer. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 6*(2), 81-88. doi:10.1080/08853134.1986.10754429

Chamberlain, A., Zhao, D., & Stansell, A. (2019). *Progress on the gender pay gap: 2019.* Retrieved from Glassdoor Economic Research website: https://www.glassdoor.com/research/app/uploads/sites/2/2019/02/Gender-Pay-Gap-2019-Research-Report.pdf

Chan, T. S., & Armstrong, R. W. (1999). Comparative ethical report card: A study of Australian and Canadian manager's perceptions of international marketing ethics problems. *Journal of Business Ethics, 18*(1), 3-15. doi:10.1023/A:1006069506379

Charness, G., & Gneezy, U. (2012). Strong evidence for gender differences in risk taking. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization, 83*(1), 50-58. doi:10.1016/j.jebo.2011.06.007

Chiang, F. F. T., & Birtch, T. (2007). The transferability of management practices: Examining cross-national differences in reward preferences. *Human Relations, 60*(9), 1293-1330. doi:10.1177/0018726707082849

Chonko, L. B., & Burnett, J. J. (1983). Measuring the importance of ethical situations as a source of role conflict: A survey of salespeople, sales managers, and sales support personnel. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 3*(1), 41-47. doi:10.1080/08853134.1983.10754347

Chonko, L. B., Wotruba, T. R., & Loe, T. W. (2002). Direct selling ethics at the top: An industry audit and status report. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, 22*(2), 87-95. doi:10.1080/08853134.2002.10754297

Christie, P. M. J., Kwon, I. W. G., Stoeberl, P. A., & Baumhart, R. (2003). A cross-cultural comparison of ethical attitudes of business managers: India Korea and the United States. *Journal of Business Ethics, 46*(3), 263-287. doi:10.1023/A:1025501426590

Churchill, G. A., Ford, N. M., & Walker, O. C. (1974). Measuring the job satisfaction of industrial salesmen. *Journal of Marketing Research, 11*(3): 254-260. doi:10.1177/02224377401100303

Clark, A. E. (1997). Job satisfaction and gender: Why are women so happy at work? *Labour Economics, 4*(4), 341-372. doi:10.1016/S0927-5371(97)00010-9

Clark, A. E., & Oswald, A. J. (1996). Satisfaction and comparison income. *Journal of Public Economics, 61*(3), 359-381. doi:10.1016/0047-2727(95)01564-7

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cohen, R. J., & Swerdlik, M. E. (2005). *Psychological testing and assessment: An introduction to tests and measurement.* Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Colquitt, J. A. (2001). On the dimensionality of organizational justice: A construct validation of a measure. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3)*,* 386-400. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.386

Colquitt, J. A. (2004). Does the justice of one interact with the justice of the many? Reactions to procedural justice in teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(4), 633-646. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.89.4.633

Colquitt, J. A., Conlon, D. E., Wesson, M. J., Porter, C. O. L. H., & Ng, K. Y. (2001). Justice at the millennium: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of organizational justice research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*(3)*,* 425-445. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.86.3.425

Colquitt, J. A., Greenberg, J., & Scott, B. A. (2005). Organizational justice: Where do we stand? In J. Greenberg and J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *The handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 589-619). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Colquitt, J. A., Greenberg, J., & Zapata-Phelan, C. P. (2005). What is organizational justice? A historical overview. In J. Greenberg and J. A. Colquitt (Eds.), *The handbook of organizational justice* (pp. 3-56). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Conyngton, M. K. (1896). Graduates of colleges for women [Review of the book *Compensation in certain occupations of graduates of colleges for women*, by H. G. Wadlin]. *Publications of the American Statistical Association, 5*(33), 44-47. doi:10.2307/2276220

Coplan, B., Essary, A. C., Virden III, T. B., Cawley, J., & Stoehr, J. D. (2012). Salary discrepancies between practicing male and female physician assistants. *Women's Health Issues, 22*(1), e83-e89. doi:10.1016/j.whi.2011.06.004

Corbett, C., & Hill, C. (2012). *Graduating to a pay gap: The earnings of women and men one year after college graduation* (Research Report). Retrieved from American Association of University Women website: http://www.aauw.org/research

Corley, M., Perardel, Y., & Popova, K. (2005). Wage inequality by gender and occupation: A cross-country analysis. *Employment Strategy Papers* 2005/20, Geneva, CH: International Labor Organization.

Cory, J. (2005). *Activist business ethics.* Boston, MA: Springer.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson Education, Inc.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika, 16*(3), 297-334. doi:10.1007/BF02310555

Cropanzano, R. S., & Ambrose, M. L. (2015). *The Oxford handbook of justice in the workplace*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Cropanzano, R. S., Bowen, D. E., & Gilliland, S. W. (2007). The management of organizational justice. *Academy of Management Perspectives, 21*(4), 34-48. doi:10.5465/amp.2007.27895338

Cropanzano, R. S., Byrne, Z. S., Bobocel, D. R. & Rupp, D. E. (2001). Moral virtues, fairness heuristics, social entities, and other denizens of organizational justice. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 58*(2), 164-209. doi:10.1006/jvbe.2001.1791

Cropanzano, R. S., & Folger, R. (1991). Procedural justice and worker motivation. In R. M. Steers & L. W. Porter (Eds.), *Motivation and work behavior*, (5th ed., pp. 131-143). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Cropanzano, R. S., Goldman, B. M., & Benson III, L. (2005). Organizational justice. In J. Barling, E. K. Kelloway, & M. R. Frone (Eds.), *Handbook of work stress* (pp. 63-87). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Cropanzano, R. S., & Greenberg, J. (1997). Progress in organizational justice: Tunneling through the maze. In C. L. Cooper & I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International Review of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (Vol. 12, pp. 317-372). New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Croson, R., & Gneezy, U. (2009). Gender differences in preferences. *Journal of Economic Literature, 47*(2), 448-474. doi:10.1257/jel.47.2.448

Daly, A., Kawaguchi, A., Meng, X., & Mumford, K. (2006). The gender wage gap in four countries. *Economic Record, 82*(257), 165-176. doi:10.1111/j.1475-4932.2006.00313x

Datta Gupta, N., Poulsen, A., & Villeval, M. C. (2006). Male and female competitive behavior—experimental evidence. *Economic Record, 82*(257), 165-176. doi:10.1111/j.1475-4932.2006.00313x

Datta Gupta, N., Poulsen, A., & Villeval, M. C. (2013). Gender matching and competitiveness: Experimental evidence. *Economic Inquiry, 51*(1), 816-835. doi:10.1111/j.1465-7295.2011.00378.x

Dawson, L. M. (1997). Ethical differences between men and women in the sales profession. *Journal of Business Ethics, 16*(11), 1143-1152. doi:10.1023/A:1005721916646

DeCapua, M. (2017, May 1). Even nurse practitioners face a gender pay gap [blog post] . *Clinician Today.* Retrieved from http://cliniciantoday.com/even-nurse-practitioners-face-a-gender-pay-gap/

DeConinck, J. B. (2010). The effect of organizational justice, perceived organizational support, and perceived supervisor support on marketing employees' level of trust. *Journal of Business Research, 63*(12), 1349-1355. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2010.01.003

De George, R. T. (1987). The status of business ethics: Past and future. *Journal of Business Ethics, 6*(3), 201-211. doi:10.1007/BF00382865

De George, R. T. (1993). *Competing with integrity in international business*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

De George, R. T. (2005, February). The history of business ethics. Paper presented at "*The Accountable Corporation,*" the third biennial global business ethics conference sponsored by the Markkula Center for Applied Ethics, Santa Clara, CA. Retrieved from https://www.scu.edu/ethics/focus-areas/business-ethics/resources/a-history-of-business-ethics/

De George, R. T. (2010). *Business ethics* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Desai, T., Ali, S., Fang, X., Thompson, W., Jawa, P., Vachharajani, T. (2016). Equal work for unequal pay: the gender reimbursement gap for healthcare providers in the United States. *Postgraduate Medical Journal, 92*(1092), 571-575. doi:10.1136/postgradmedj-2016-134094

Deutsch, M. 1975. Equity, equality, and need: What determines which value will be used as the basis of distributive justice? *Journal of Social Issues, 31*(3),137-149. doi:10.1111/j.1540-4560.1975.tb01000.x

DeVellis, R. F. (2016). *Scale development: Theory and applications* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Directorate-General for Justice and Consumers (European Commission) (2019, May 5). *2019 Report on equality between women and men in the EU.* doi:10.2838/395144

Dittrich, J. E., & Carrell, M. R. (1979). Organizational equity perceptions, employee job satisfaction, and departmental absence and turnover rates. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 24*(1), 29-40. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(79)90013-8

Donaldson, T. (2000, December 20). The corporate ethics boom: Significant, or just for show? *Knowledge@Wharton*. Retrieved from http://knowledge.wharton upenn.edu/article/the-corporate-ethics-boom-significant-or-just-for-show/

Donaldson, T., & Werhane, P. H. (1979). *Ethical issues in business: A philosophical approach.* Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Dube, A., Giuliano, L., & Leonard, J. (2019). Fairness and frictions: The impact of unequal raises on quit behavior. *American Economic Review, 109*(2), 620-663. doi:10.1257/aer.20160232

Dubinsky, A. J., Jolson, M. A., Michaels, R. E., Kotabe, M., & Lim, C. U. (1992). Ethical perceptions of field sales personnel: An empirical assessment. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 12*(4), 9-21. doi:10.1080/08853134.1992.10753924

Duncan, C., & Loretto, W. (2004). Never the right age? Gender and age-discrimination in employment. *Gender, Work and Organization, 11*(1), 95-115. doi:10.1111/j.1468-0432.2004.00222.x

Duska, R., Duska, B. S., & Ragatz, J. A. (2011). *Accounting ethics.* Somerset, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

D'Zurilla, C. (2017, October 16). In saying #MeToo, Alyssa Milano pushes awareness campaign about sexual assault and harassment. *The Los Angeles Times*. Retrieved from http: www.latimes.com

Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review, 109*(3), 573-598. doi:10.1037/0033-295X.109.3.573

England, P. (1992). *Comparable worth: Theories and evidence.* New York, NY: Aldine De Gruyter.

England, P., Allison, P., & Wu, Y. (2007). Does bad pay cause occupations to feminize, does feminization reduce pay, and how can we tell with longitudinal data? *Social Science Research, 36*(3), 1237-1256. doi:10.1016/j.ssresearch.2006.08.003

England, P., Bearak, J., Budig, M. J., & Hodges, M. J. (2016). Do highly paid, highly skilled women experience the largest motherhood penalty? *American Sociological Review, 81*(6), 1161-1189. doi:10.1177/0003122416673598

Ensher, E. A., Grant-Vallone, E. J., & Donaldson, S. (2001). Effects of perceived discrimination on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior, and grievances. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 12*(1), 53–72. doi:10.1002/1532-1096(200101/02)12:1<53::AID-HRDQ5>3.0.CO;2-G

Equality and Human Rights Commission. (2010). *How fair is Britain? Equality, human rights and good relations in 2010: The first triennial review.* London, UK: Author. https://www.equalityhumanrights.com/key-projects/how-fair-is-britain/

Ethics & Compliance Initiative (ECI) (2018, March). *The state of ethics & compliance in the workplace. 2018 global ethics survey.* Retrieved from https://www.ethics.org

Ethics & Compliance Initiative (ECI) (2019). The *link between supervisor leadership and workplace behaviors: A global look. 2019 global ethics survey*. Retrieved from https://www.ethics.org

Evans, J. R., & Mathur, A. (2005). The value of online surveys. *Internet Research, 15*(2), 195-219. doi:10.1108/10662240510590360

Feffer, M. (2017, March 30). Ethical vs. legal responsibilities for HR professionals. *Society for Human Resource Management.* Retrieved from https://www.shrm.org/resourcesandtools/hr-topics/behavioral-competencies/ethical-practice/pages/ethical-and-legal-responsibilities-for-hr-professionals.aspx

Ferrell, O. C., & Ferrell, L. (2008). *Historical developments of business ethics: Then to now.* University of New Mexico. Retrieved from

https://danielsethics.mgt.unm.edu/pdf/Historical%20Development%20of%20Business%20Ethics.pdf

Ferrell, O. C., Johnston, M. W., Marshall, G. W., & Ferrell, L. (2019). A new direction for sales ethics research: The sales ethics subculture. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 27*(3), 282-297. doi:10.1080/10696679.2019.1615839

Field, A. (2017). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Fink, A. (2017). *How to conduct surveys: A step-by-step guide* (6th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Fisher, R. J. (1993). Social-desirability bias and the validity of indirect questioning. *Journal of Consumer Research, 20*(2), 303-315. doi:10.1086/209351

Fisher, R. J., & Katz, J. E. (2000). Social-desirability bias and the validity of self-reported values. *Psychology & Marketing, 17*(2), 105-120. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1520-6793(200002)17:2<105::AID-MAR3>3.0.CO;2-9

Fisher, R., & Smith, P. B. (2003). Reward allocation and culture: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 34*(3), 251-268. doi:10.1177/0022022103034003001

Fitch, A. (2014, April 22). Why women doctors make half of what men do: Medicare's doctor gender pay gap. *Nerdwallet.* Retrieved from https://www.nerdwallet.com/blog/health/doctor-salary-gender-pay-gap/

Fleming, N. (2018, February 28). How the gender pay gap permeates science and engineering. *New Scientist, 237*(3167), 22-23. doi:10.1016/S0262-4079(18)30389-0

Flores, A. (2016, September 13). The big difference between women and men's earnings after college: More college degrees, lower wages. *Center for American Progress*. Retrieved

from https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/education-postsecondary/reports/2016/09/13/143412/the-big-difference-between-women-and-mens-earnings-after-college/

Folger, R. (1993). Reactions to mistreatment at work. In J. K. Murnighan (Ed.), *Social psychology in organizations: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 161–183). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Folger, R., & Bies, R. J. (1989). Managerial responsibilities and procedural justice. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal, 2*(2), 79-90. doi:10.1007/BF01384939

Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (1998). *Organizational justice and human resource management*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Fairness theory: Justice as accountability. In J. Greenberg and R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in organizational justice* (pp. 1-55). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Folger, R., Ganegoda, D. B., Rice, D. B., Taylor, R., & Wo, D. XH. (2013). Bounded autonomy and behavioral ethics: Deonance and reactance as competing motives. *Human Relations, 66*(7), 905-924. doi:10.1177/0018726713482013

Folger, R., & Greenberg, J. (1985). Procedural justice: An interpretive analysis of personnel systems. In K. Rowland and G. Ferris (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resources management* (Vol. 3, pp. 141-183). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Folger, R., & Konovsky, M. (1989). Effects of procedural and distributive justice on reactions to pay raise decisions. *Academy of Management Journal, 32*(1)*,* 115-130. doi:10.2307/256422

Folger, R., & Skarlicki, D. P. (2001). Fairness as a dependent variable. Why tough times can lead to bad management. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: From theory to practice* (Vol. 2, pp. 97-118). Mahway, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Forret, M. L., & Dougherty, T. W. (2004). Networking behaviors and career outcomes: differences for men and women? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25*(3), 419-437. doi:10.1002/job.253

Fortin, N. M. (2005). Gender role attitudes and the labour-market outcomes of women across OECD countries. *Oxford Review of Economic Policy, 21*(3), 416-438. doi:10.1093/oxrep/gri024

Fortin, N. M. (2006). *Greed, altruism, and the gender wage gap.* Unpublished manuscript, Department of Economics, University of British Columbia, Canada. Retrieved from http://faculty.arts.ubc.ca/nfortin/Fortinat8.pdf

Fortin, N. M. (2008). The gender wage gap among young adults in the United States: The importance of money versus people. *Journal of Human Resources*, *43*(4), 884-918. doi:10.3368/jhr.43.4.884

Fortin, N. M., Bell, B., & Böhm, B. (2017). Top earnings inequality and the gender pay gap: Canada, Sweden, and the United Kingdom. *Labour Economics, 47*, 107-123. doi:10.1016/j.labeco.2017.05.010

Fox, J. (2016) *Applied regression analysis and generalized linear models* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Fraedrich, J., Cherry, J., King III, J., & Guo, C. (2005). An empirical investigation of the effects of business ethics training. *Marketing Education Review, 15*(3), 27-35. doi:10.1080/10528008.2005.11488919

Franke, G. R., Crown, D. F., & Spake, D. F. (1997). Gender differences in ethical perceptions of business practices: a social role theory perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 82*(6), 920-934. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.82.6.920

French, J. R. P., & Raven, B. (1959). The bases of social power. In D. P. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in Social Power* (pp. 150-167). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan.

Friedman, M. (1970, September 13). A Friedman doctrine: The social responsibility of business is to increase its profits. *The New York Times Magazine*, pp. 32-33, 122. Retrieved from: https://nytimes.com

Friesdorf, R., Conway, P., & Gawronski, B. (2015). Gender differences in responses to moral dilemmas: A process dissociation analysis. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 41*(5), 696-713. doi:10.1177/0146167215575731

Frisque, D. A., & Kolb, J. A. (2008). The effects of an ethics training program on attitude, knowledge, and transfer of training of office professionals: A treatment- and control-group design. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 19*(1), 35-53. doi:10.1002/hrdq.1224

Futrell, C. M. (1978). Effects of pay disclosure on satisfaction for sales managers: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management Journal, 21*(1), 140-144. doi:10.5465/255671

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2014). *Applying educational research: How to read, do, and use research to solve problems of practice*. New York, NY: Pearson Higher Ed.

Gelfand, M. J., Erez, M., & Aycan, Z. (2007). Cross-cultural organizational behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology, 58,* 479-514. doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.58.110405.085559

Gergen, K. J., Greenberg, M. S., & Willis, R. H. (Eds.) (1980). *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research.* New York, NY: Plenum Press.

Ghasemi, A., & Zahediasl, S. (2012). Normality tests for statistical analysis: A guide for non-statisticians. *International Journal of Endocrinology and Metabolism, 10*(2), 486-489. doi:10.5812/ijem.3505

Ghazzawi, I. (2011). Does age matter in job satisfaction? The case of US information technology professionals. *Journal of Organizational Culture, Communications and Conflict, 15*(1), 25-54. Retrieved from https://www.abacademies.org/articles/jocccvol15no12011.pdf#page=31

Gneezy, U., Leonard, K. L., & List, J. A. (2008). Gender differences in competition: Evidence from a matrilineal and a patriarchal society. *Econometrica, 77*(5), 1637-1655. doi:10.3982/ECTA6690

Gneezy, U., Niederle, M., & Rustichini, A. (2003). Performance in competitive environments: gender differences. *Quarterly Journal of Economics, 118*(3), 1049-1074. doi:10.1162/00335530360698496

Goldin, C. (1984, October). The historical evolution of female earnings functions and occupations. *Explorations in Economic History, 21*(1), 1-27. doi:10.1016/0014-4983(84)90014-7

Goldin, C. (1988, October). *Marriage bars: Discrimination against married women workers, 1920's to 1950's* (NBER Working Paper No. 2747). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research. doi:10.3386/w2747

Goldin, C. (1989). *The role of World War II in the rise of women's work* (NBER Working Paper No. 3203). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research. doi:10.3386/w3203

Goldin, C. (1991). The role of World War II in the rise of women's employment. *American Economic Review, 81*(4), 741-756.

Goldin, C. (1990). *Understanding the gender gap: An economic history of American women.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Goldin, C. (1991). The role of World War II in the rise of women's employment. *The American Economic Review*, *81*(4), 741-756. Retrieved from https://scholar.harvard.edu/files/goldin/files/the_role_of_world_war_ii_in_the_rise_of_womens_employment.pdf

Goldin, C. (1995). The U-shaped female labor force function in economic development and economic history. In T. P. Schultz (Ed.), *Investment in Women's Human Capital and Economic Development* (pp. 61-90). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press. doi:10.3386/w4707

Goldin, C. (2006). The quiet revolution that transformed women's employment, education, and family. *American Economic Review, 96*(2)*,* 1-21. doi:10.1257/000282806777212350

Goldin, C. (2014). A grand gender convergence: Its last chapter. *American Economic Review, 104*(4), 1091-1119. doi:10.1257/aer.104.4.1091

Goldin, C., & Katz, L. (2002). The power of the pill: Oral contraceptives and women's career and marriage decisions. *Journal of Political Economy, 110*(4), 730-770. doi:10.1086/340778

Goldin, C., Katz, L. F., & Kuziemko, I. (2006). The homecoming of American college women: The reversal of the college gender gap. *Journal of Economic Perspectives, 20*(4), 133-156. doi:10.1257/jep.20.4.133

Goldin, C., & Olivetti, C. (2013). Shocking labor supply: A reassessment of the role of World War II on women's labor supply. *The American Economic Review, 103*(3), 257-262. doi:10.1257/aer.103.3.257

Graham, W. J., & Cooper, W. H. (2013). Taking credit. *Journal of Business Ethics, 115*(2), 403-425. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1406-3

Granovetter, M. (1973). The strength of weak ties. *American Journal of Sociology, 78*(6), 1360-1380. doi:10.1086/225469

Green, S. B. (1991). How many subjects does it take to do a regression analysis? *Multivariate Behavioral Research, 26*(3), 499-510. doi:10.1207/s15327906mbr2603_7

Greenberg, J. (1982). Approaching equity and avoiding inequity in groups and organizations. In J. Greenberg and R. L. Cohen (Eds.), *Equity and justice in social behavior* (pp. 389-435). New York, NY: Academic Press. doi:10.1016/B978-0-12-299580-4.50017-3

Greenberg, J. (1987). A taxonomy of organizational justice theories. *Academy of Management Review, 12*(2), 9-22. doi:10.5465/amr.1987.4306437

Greenberg, J. (1989). Cognitive reevaluation of outcomes in response to underpayment inequity. *Academy of Management Journal, 32*(1), 174-184. doi:10.5465/256425

Greenberg, J. (1990). Organizational justice: Yesterday, today, and tomorrow. *Journal of Management, 16*(2), 399-432. doi:10.1177/014920639001600208

Greenberg, J. (1993). The social side of fairness: Interpersonal and informational classes of organizational justice. In R. Cropanzano (Ed.), *Justice in the workplace: Approaching fairness in human resource management* (pp. 79-103). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Greenberg, J. (2006). Losing sleep over organizational injustice: Attenuating insomniac reactions to underpayment inequity with supervisory training in interactional justice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(1), 58-69. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.91.1.58

Greenberg, J., & Colquitt, J. A. (Eds.). (2005). *Handbook of organizational justice.* Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Greenberg, J., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). *Advances in organizational justice.* Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Greenberg, J., & Folger, R. (1983). Procedural justice, participation, and the fair process effect in groups and organizations. In P. B. Paulus (Ed.), *Basic group processes* (pp. 235-256). New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.

Grimm, P. (2010). Social desirability bias. In J. Sheth & N. Malhotra (Eds.), *Wiley International Encyclopedia of Marketing.* doi:10.1002/9781444316568.wiem02057

Groves, R. M. (2006). Nonresponse rates and nonresponse bias in household surveys. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 70*(5), 646-675. doi:10.1093/poq/nfl033

Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G., & Erdem, E. (2013). Generational differences in work values and attitudes among frontline and service contact employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 32*, 40-48. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.04.002

Gursoy, D., Maier, T., & Chi, C. (2008). Generational differences: An examination of work values and generational gaps in the hospitality workforce. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 27*(3), 448-458. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2007.11.002

Halbesleben, J. R., & Whitman, M. V. (2013). Evaluating survey quality in health services research: A decision framework for assessing nonresponse bias. *Health Services Research, 48*(3), 913-930. doi:10.1111/1475-6773.12002

Hamermesh, D. S. (2001). The changing distribution of job satisfaction. *Journal of Human Resources, 36*(1), 1-30. doi:10.2307/3069668

Hanek, K. J., Garcia, S. M., & Tor, A. (2016). Gender and competitive preferences: The role of competition size. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101*(8), 1122-1133. doi:10.1037/apl0000112

Harkness, S. (1996). The gender earnings gap: Evidence from the UK. *Fiscal Studies, 17*(2), 1-36. doi:10.1111/j.1475-5890.1996.tb00241.x

Harris, B. (2017, November 6). *What the pay gap between men and women really looks like.* World Economic Forum. Retrieved from https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2017/11/pay-equality-men-women-gender-gap-report-2017

Hart, H. L. A. (1973). Rawls on liberty and its priority. *University of Chicago Law Review, 40*(3), 534-555. doi:10.2307/1599247

Hart, S. M. (2006). Generational diversity: Impact on recruitment and retention of registered nurses. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, *36*(1), 10-12. doi:10.1097/00005110-200601000-00004

Hartman, L. P. (2005). *Perspectives in Business Ethics* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw Hill.

Harvard Business School. (2013). 50 years of women in the MBA program. Retrieved from http://www.hbs.edu/women50/

Hatch, J. (2017, March 22). Gender pay gap persists across faculty ranks. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*. Retrieved from https://www.chronicle.com/

Heermance, E. L. (1926). *The ethics of business: A study of current standards*. New York, NY: Harper & Brothers Publishers.

Herzberg, F. (1966). *Work and the nature of man.* New York, NY: World Publishing.

Herzberg, F. (1968). One more time: How do you motivate employees? *Harvard Business Review, 46*(1), 53-62.

Herzberg, F. (2003). One more time: How do you motivate employees? *Harvard Business Review, 81*(1), 86-96.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snydermann B. (1959). *The motivation to work.* New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Heuer, R. J. Jr., & Pherson, R. H. (2014). *Structured analytic techniques for intelligence analysis*. Washington, DC: CQ Press.

Ho, J. A. (2010). Ethical perceptions: Are differences between ethnic groups situation dependent? *Business Ethics: A European Review, 19*(2), 154-182. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8608.2010.01583.x

Hoffman, K. D., Howe, V., & Hardigree, D. W. (1991). Ethical dilemmas faced in the selling of complex services: Significant others and competitive pressures. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 11*(4), 13-25. doi:10/1080/08853134.1991.10753886

Homans, G. C. (1961). *Social behavior: Its elementary forms.* New York, NY: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc.

Homans, G. C. (1976). Commentary. In: L. Berkowitz and E. Walster (Eds.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 9, pp. 231-244). New York, NY: Academic Press.

Howe, V., Hoffman, K. D., & Hardigree, D. W. (1994). The relationship between ethical and customer-oriented service provider behaviors. *Journal of Business Ethics, 13*(7), 497-506. doi:10.1007/BF00881295

Hume, D. (2003). *A treatise of human nature.* North Chelmsford, MA: Courier Publications.

Hunt, S. D., & Vitell, S. M. (1986). A general theory of marketing ethics. *Journal of Macromarketing, 6*(1), 5-15. doi:10.1177/027614678600600103

Hunt, S. D., & Vitell, S. (2005). Personal moral codes and the Hunt-Vitell theory of ethics: Why do people's ethical judgments differ? In R. A. Peterson & O. C. Ferrell (Eds.), *Business ethics: New challenges for business schools and corporate leaders* (pp. 18-78). New York, NY: M. E. Sharpe.

Huseman, R. C., Hatfield, J. D., & Miles, E. W. (1987). A new perspective on equity theory: the equity sensitivity construct. *Academy of Management Review, 12*(2), 222-234. doi:10.5465/amr.1987.4307799

Ibarra, H., Carter, N. M., & Silva, C. (2010). Why men still get more promotions than women. *Harvard Business Review, 88*(9), 80-85.

Ingram, T. N., LaForge, R. W., & Schwepker Jr., C. H. (2007). Salesperson ethical decision making: The impact of sales leadership and sales management control strategy. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 27*(4), 301-315. doi:10.2753/PSS0885-3134270402

International Labor Organization (ILO). (2018). *Global wage report 2018/19: What lies behind gender pay gaps?* Geneva, CH: Author. Retrieved from https://www.ilo.org/global/publications/books/WCMS_650553/lang--en/index.htm

Jagsi, R., Griffith, K. A., Stewart, A., Sambuco, D., DeCastro, R., & Ubel, P. A. (2012). Gender differences in the salaries of physician researchers. *Journal of the American Medical Association, 307*(22), 2410-2417. doi:10.1001/jama.2012.6183

Jaramillo, F., Mulki, J. P., & Solomon, P. (2006). The role of ethical conflict on salesperson's role stress, job attitudes, turnover intention, and job performance. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, 26*(3), 271-282. doi:10.2753/PSS0885-3134260302

Javalgi, R. G., & Russell, L. M. (2018). International marketing ethics: A literature review and research agenda. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *148*(4) 703-720. doi:10.1007/s10551-015-2958-9

Jee, E., Misra, J., & Murray-Close, M. (2019). Motherhood penalties in the U.S., 1986–2014. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, *81*(2), 434-449. doi:10.1111/jomf.12543

Jondle, D., & Ardichvili, A. (Eds.) (2017). *Ethical business cultures: Country perspectives.* Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Jones, T. M. (1991). Ethical decision making by individuals in organizations: An issue-contingent model. *Academy of Management Review, 16*(2), 366-395. doi:10.5465/amr.1991.4278958

Jones, C. B., and Gates, M. (2004). Gender-based wage differentials in a predominantly female profession: Observations from nursing. *Economics of Education Review, 23*(6), 615-631. doi:10.1016/j.econedurev.2004.06.001

Jones, M. K., Jones, R. J., Latreille, P. L., & Sloane, P. J. (2009). Training, job satisfaction, and workplace performance in Britain: Evidence from WERS 2004. *Labour, 23*(S1), 139-175. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9914.2008.00434.x

Joshi, A., Son, J., & Roh, H. (2015). When can women close the gap? A meta-analytic test of sex differences in performance and rewards. *Academy of Management Journal, 58*(5), 1516-1545. doi:10.5465/amj.2013.0721

June, A. W. (2018, February 25). 2 lawsuits highlight pay gap for female administrators. *The Chronicle of Higher Education.* Retrieved from https://www.chronicle.com/

Kaiser, H. F. (1974). An index of factorial simplicity. *Psychometrika, 39*(1), 31-36. doi:10.1007/BF02291575

Kalist, D. E. (2002). The gender earnings gap in the RN labor market. *Nursing Economics, 20*(4):155-162. Retrieved from https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12219436

Kalleberg, A. L. (1977). Work values and job rewards: A theory of job satisfaction. *American Sociological Review, 42*(1), 124-143. doi:10.2307/2117735

Kessler-Harris, A. (2001). *In pursuit of equity: Women, men, and the quest for economic citizenship in 20th-century America.* New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Kim, S. (2015). The effect of gender discrimination in organization. *International Review of Public Administration, 20*(1), 51-69. doi:10.1080/12294659.2014.983216

King, M. L. (1981). The alternative Durbin-Watson test: An assessment of Durbin and Watson's choice of test statistic. *Journal of Econometrics, 17*(1), 51-66. doi:10.1016/0304-4076(81)90058-0

Klettner, A. (2016). Corporate governance codes and gender diversity: Management-based regulation in action. *University of New South Wales Law Journal, (39)*2, 715-739. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/10453/67726

Klein, S. M. (1973). Pay factors as predictors to satisfaction: A comparison of reinforcement, equity, and expectancy. *Academy of Management Journal, 16*(4), 598-610. doi:10.2307/254693

Khomami, N., and Topping, A. (2018, April 4). Gender pay gap: Hundreds of companies report on final day. *The Guardian*. Retrieved https://theguardian.com

Kommenda, N., Holder, J., Barr, C., & Duncan, P. (2018, March 28). Gender pay gap: What we learned in week five. *The Guardian*. Retrieved https://theguardian.com

Konovsky, M. A. (2000). Understanding procedural justice and its impact on business organizations. *Journal of Management, 26*(3), 489-511. doi:10.1016.S0149-2063(00)00042-8

Krumpal, I. (2013). Determinants of social desirability bias in sensitive surveys: A literature review. *Quality & Quantity, 47*(4), 2025-2047. doi:10.1007/s11135-011-9640-9

Kuchinke, K. P. (2005). The self at work: theories of persons, meaning of work and their implications for HRD. In C. Elliott and S. Turnbull (Eds.), *Critical thinking in human resource development* (pp. 141-154). London, UK: Routledge.

Kulik, C. T., & Olekalns, M. (2012). Negotiating the gender divide: Lessons from the negotiation and organizational behavior literatures. *Journal of Management, 38*(4), 1387-1415. doi:10.1177/0149206311431307

Laerd Statistics (2015). *Statistical tutorials and software guides.* Retrieved from https://statistics.laerd.com/

LaFaver, K., Miyasaki, J. M., Keran, C. M., Rheaume, C., Gulya, L., Levin, K. H., Jones, E. C., . . . Singhal, D. (2018). Age and sex differences in burnout, career satisfaction, and well-being in US neurologists. *Neurology, 91*(20), e1928-e1941. doi:10.1212/WNL.0000000000006497

Lane, I. M., & Messé, L. A. (1972). Distribution of insufficient, sufficient, and oversufficient rewards: A clarification of equity theory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 21*(2), 228-233. doi:10.1037/h0032222

Langer, G. (2017, October 17). Unwanted sexual advances not just a Hollywood, Weinstein story, poll finds. *ABC News*. Retrieved from https://abcnews.go.com/Politics/unwanted-sexual-advances-hollywood-weinstein-story-poll/story?id=50521721

Lawler, E. E. III (1968). Equity theory as a predictor of productivity and work quality. *Psychological Bulletin, 70*(6), 596-610. doi:10.1037/h0026848

Lee, J. M. (1926). *Business ethics: A manual of modern morals.* New York, NY: Ronald Press Company.

Lee, K. H. (1981). Ethical beliefs in marketing management: A cross-cultural study. *European Journal of Marketing, 15*(1), 58-67. doi:10.1108/EUM0000000004871

Lee, R., & Wilbur, E. R. (1985). Age, education, job tenure, salary, job characteristics, and job satisfaction: A multivariate analysis. *Human Relations, 38*(8), 781-791. doi:10.1177/001872678503800806

Leopold, T., Ratcheva, V. S., & Zahidi, S. (2017, November 2). 5 charts that will change how you see women's equality in 2017. *World Economic Forum*. Retrieved from https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2017/11/women-equality-gender-gap-report-2017

Leythienne, D., & Ronkowski, R. (2018). *A decomposition of the unadjusted gender pay gap using Structure of Earnings Survey data.* Luxembourg: Publication Office of the European Union. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.89.3.405

Leung, K., Tong, K., & Ho, S. S. (2004). Effects of interactional justice on egocentric bias in resource allocation decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 89*(3) 405-415. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.89.3.405

Levanon, A., England, P., & Allison, P. (2009). Occupational feminization and pay: Assessing causal dynamics using 1950–2000 U.S. Census data. *Social Forces, 88*(2), 865–891. doi:10.1353/sof.0.0264

Leventhal, G. S. (1976a). The distribution of rewards and resources in groups and organizations. In: L. Berkowitz and E. Walster (Eds.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 9, pp. 92-131). New York, NY: Academic Press. doi:10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60059-3

Leventhal, G. S. (1976b). Fairness in social relationships. In J. W. Thibaut, J. T. Spence & R. C. Carson (Eds.), *Contemporary topics in social psychology* (pp. 21-240). Morristown, NJ: General Learning Press.

Leventhal, G. S. (1980). What should be done with equity theory: New approaches to the *Study of Fairness in Social Relationships*. In K. J. Gergen, M. S. Greenberg, & R. H. Willis (Eds.), *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 27-55). New York, NY: Plenum Press.

Leventhal, G. S., Karuza, J., & Fry. W. R. (1980). Beyond fairness: A theory of allocation preferences. In G. Mikula (Ed.), *Justice and social interaction: Experimental and theoretical contributions from psychological research* (pp. 167-218). New York, NY: Springer-Verlag.

Lind, E. A., & Kulik, C. T. (2009). Hear me out: voice and justice. In J. Greenberg and M.S. Edwards (Eds.), *Voice and silence in organizations* (pp. 135-156). Bingley, UK: Emerald.

Lind, E. A., & Tyler, T. R. (1988). *The social psychology of procedural justice.* New York, NY: Plenum Press.

Little, R. J. A., & Rubin, D. B. (2019). *Statistical analysis with missing data.* Somerset, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Locke, E. A. (1969). What is job satisfaction? *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 4*(4), 309-336. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(69)90013-0

Locke, E. A. (1976). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (pp.1297-1349). Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.

Long, C. D. (1944). *The labor force in wartime America.* Cambridge, MA: NBER Books. http://www.nber.org/books/long44-1

Long, C. D. (1952). *The Labor Force in War and Transition: Four Countries.* Cambridge, MA: NBER Books. http://www.nber.org/books/long52-1

Lord, E. W. (1926). *The fundamentals of business ethics.* New York, NY: Ronald Press Company.

Lo Sasso, A. T, Richards, M. R., Chou, C. F., Gerber, S. E. (2011). The $16,819 pay gap for newly trained physicians: The unexplained trend of men earning more than women. *Health Affairs, 30*(2):193-201. doi:10.1377/hlthaff.2010.0597

Lounsbury, J. W., Hutchens, T., & Loveland, J. M. (2005). An investigation of Big Five personality traits and career decidedness among early and middle adolescents. *Journal of Career Assessment, 13*(1), 25-39. doi:10.1177/1069072704270272

Lu, A. C. C., & Gursoy, D. (2013). Impact of job burnout on satisfaction and turnover intention: Do generational differences matter? *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, *20*(10), 1-26. doi:10.1177/1096348013495696

Lu, L., Rose, G. M., & Blodgett, J. G. (1999). The effects of cultural dimensions on ethical decision making in marketing: An exploratory study. *Journal of Business Ethics, 18*(1), 91-105. doi:10.1023/A:1006038012256

Luthar, H. K., DiBattista, R. A., & Gautschi, T. (1997). Perception of what the ethical climate is and what it should be: The role of gender, academic status, and ethical education. *Journal of Business Ethics, 16*(2), 205-217. doi:10.1023/A:101798052

Lydon, R., & Chevalier, A. (2002). *Estimates of the effect of wages on job satisfaction* (No. 531). London, UK: Centre for Economic Performance, London School of Economics and Political Science. Retrieved from https://EconPapers.repec.org/RePEc:cep:cepdps:dp0531

Makortoff, K. (2019, January 8). UK's most unequal bank: HSBC's gender pay gap grows to 61%. *The Guardian.* Retrieved from https://www.theguardian.com

Manning, A. (2006, Summer). The gender pay gap. *CentrePiece, The Magazine for Economic Performance, 11*(1), 13-16. Retrieved from http://cep.lse.ac.uk/pubs/download/CP200.pdf

Manning, M. R., & Avolio, B. J. (1985). The impact of blatant pay disclosure in a university environment. *Research in Higher Education, 23*(2), 135-149. doi:10.1007/BF00976824

Mansour-Cole, D. M., & Scott, S. G. (1998). Hearing it through the grapevine: The influence of source, leader-relations, and legitimacy on survivors' fairness perceptions. *Personnel Psychology, 51*(1), 25-54. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.1998.tb00715.x

Marcoux, A. M. (2006). The concept of business in business ethics. *Journal of Private Enterprise, 22*(2), 50-67. Retrieved from http://journal.apee.org/index.php?title=Spring2006_3

Markkula Center for Applied Ethics at Santa Clara University (2009). A framework for ethical decision making. Retrieved from https://www.scu.edu/ethics/ethics-resources/ethical-decision-making/a-framework-for-ethical-decision-making/

Marsh, C. (2013). Business executives' perceptions of ethical leadership and its development. *Journal of Business Ethics, 114*(3)*,* 565–582. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1366-7

Marta, J. K., & Singhapakdi, A. (2005). Comparing Thai and US businesspeople: Perceived intensity of unethical marketing practices, corporate ethical values, and perceived

importance of ethics. *International Marketing Review, 22*(5), 562-577. doi:10.1108/02651330510624390

Maruyama, G., & Ryan, C. S. (2014). *Research methods in social relations* (8th ed.). Malden, MA: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Maslach, C., & Jackson, S. E. (1981). The measurement of experienced burnout. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 2*(2), 99-113. doi:10.1002/job.4030020205

Maslach, C., Jackson, S. E., Leiter, M. P., Schaufeli, W. B., & Schwab, R. L. (1986). *Maslach burnout inventory.* Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Maslach, C., & Leiter, M. P. (2008). Early predictors of job burnout and engagement. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 93*(3), 498-512. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.93.3.498

Maslach, C., & Pines, A. (1979). Burnout: The loss of human caring. In A. Pines & C. Maslach (Eds.), *Experiencing social psychology* (pp. 246-252). New York, NY: A. A. Knopf.

Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*(1), 397-422. doi:10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.397

Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. S. (2000). Integrating justice and social exchange: The differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*(4), 738-748. doi:10.5465/1556364

Mazei, J., Hüffmeier, J, Freund, P. A., Stuhlmacher, A., Bilke, L., & Hertel, G. (2015). A meta-analysis on gender differences in negotiation outcomes and their moderators. *Psychological Bulletin, 141*(1), 85-104. doi:10.1037/a0038184

Mazor, K. M., Clauser, B. E., Field, T., Yood, R. A., & Gurwitz, J. H. (2002). A demonstration of the impact of response bias on the results of patient satisfaction surveys. *Health Services Research, 37*(5), 1403-1417. doi:10.1111/1475-6773.11194

McCabe, D. M. (2019). The ethical and responsible organization: Organizational due process, employee voice, and procedural justice in human resource management. In: A. Bartoli, J. L. Guerrero, & P. Hermel (Eds.), *Responsible Organizations in the Global Context,* (pp. 21-38). London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan, Cham. doi:10.1007/978-3-030-11458-9_2

McClaren, N. (2013). The personal selling and sales management ethics research: Managerial implications and research directions from a comprehensive review of the empirical literature. *Journal of Business Ethics, 112*(1), 101-125. doi:10.1007/s10551-012-1235-4

McDonald, G. M., & Donleavy, G. D. (1995). Objections to the teaching of business ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics, 14*(10), 839-853. doi:10.1007/BF00872350

McFarlin, D. B., & Sweeney, P. D. (1992). Distributive and procedural justice as predictors of satisfaction with personal and organizational outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal, 35*(3), 626-637. doi:10.2307/256489

McKinney, R. J. (2019). *A research guide to the Federal Register and the Code of Federal Regulations.* Washington, DC: Law Librarians' Society of Washington, DC. Retrieved from http://llsdc.org/fr-cfr-research-guide

Mele, D. (2014). Human quality treatment: Five organizational levels. *Journal of Business Ethics, 120*(4), 457-471. doi:10.1007/s10551-013-1999-1

Memon, N. Z., & Jena, L. K. (2017). Gender inequality, job satisfaction and job motivation: Evidence from Indian female employees. *Management and Labour Studies, 42*(3), 1-22. doi:10.1177/0258042X17718742

Mensi-Klarbach, H., Seierstad, C., Gabaldon, P. (2017). Setting the scene: Women on boards: The multiple approaches beyond quotas. In C. Seierstad, P. Gabaldon, H. Mensi-Klarbach

(Eds.) *Gender Diversity in the Boardroom*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan, Cham. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-57273-4_1

Messick, D. M., & Tenbrunsel, A. E. (Eds.) (1996). *Codes of conduct: Behavioral research into business ethics.* New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). *Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Misner, I., De Raffele, Jr., F. J., & Walker, H. M. (2011). *Business networking and sex (not what you think)*. Irvine, CA: Entrepreneur Press.

Mitchell, T. R. (1974). Expectancy models of job satisfaction, occupational preference and effort: A theoretical, methodological, and empirical appraisal. *Psychological Bulletin, 81*(12), 1053. doi:10.1037/h0037495

Montagni, I., Cariou, T., Tzourio, C., & González-Caballero, J. L. (2019). "I don't know", "I'm not sure", "I don't want to answer": A latent class analysis explaining the informative value of nonresponse options in an online survey on youth health. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology, 22*(6), 651-667. doi:10.1080/13645579.2019.1632026

Moody, K. (1988). *An injury to all: The decline of American unionism.* New York, NY: Verso.

Moorman, R. H. (1991). Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(6), 845-885. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.76.6.845

Morgan, L. A., & Martin, K. A. (2006). Taking women professionals out of the office: The case of women in sales. *Gender & Society, 20*(1), 108-128. doi:10.1177/0891243205283107

Mueller, G., & Plug, E. (2006). Estimating the effect of personality on male and female earnings. *ILR Review, 60*(1), 3-12. doi:10.1177/001979390606000101

Murphy, E., & Oesch, D. (2016). The feminization of occupations and change in wages: A panel analysis of Britain, Germany, and Switzerland. *Social Forces, 94*(3), 1221-1255. doi:10.1093/sf/sov099

New York University. (1906). *Catalogue 1905–1906.* New York, NY: Author.

Newman, L. (Ed.). (2011). *Shipley proposal guide* (4th ed.). Kaysville, UT: Shipley Associates.

Ng, T. W., & Feldman, D. C. (2010). The relationships of age with job attitudes: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology, 63*(3), 677-718. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01184.x

Nickerson, R. S. (1998). Confirmation bias: A ubiquitous phenomenon in many guises. *Review of General Psychology, 2*(2), 175-220. doi:10.1037/1089-2680.2.2.175

Niebuhr, R. (2013). *Moral man and immoral society: A study in ethics and politics.* Louisville, KY: Westminster John Knox Press.

Nunnally, J. C. (1970). *Introduction to psychological measurement.* New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, L. (1994). *Psychometric theory*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Higher Education, Inc.

Offen, K. (n.d.). The male breadwinner model: How a 19th century theory limits women's economic opportunities. Economica: Women and the Global Economy [blog post]. Retrieved from http://exhibitions.globalfundforwomen.org/economica/property-and-wealth/male-breadwinner-model

Okpara, J. O., Squillace, M., & Erondu, E. A. (2005). Gender differences and job satisfaction: A study of university teachers in the United States. *Women in Management Review, 20*(3), 177-190. doi:10.1108/09649420510591852

O'Leary-Kelly, A., Rosen, C. C., & Hochwarter, W. A. (2017). Who is deserving and who decides: Entitlement as a work-situated phenomenon. *Academy of Management Review, 43*(3), 417-436. doi:10.5465/amr.2014.0128

Olivetti, C., & Petrongolo, B. (2016). *The evolution of gender gaps in industrialized countries.* (NBER working paper No. 21887). Cambridge, MA: National Bureau of Economic Research. doi:10.3386/w21887

Olsen, W., Gash, V., Vandecasteele, L., Walthery, P., & Heuvelman, H. (2010, February), *The gender pay gap in the UK 1995–2007: Research report No. 1*. London, UK: Government Equalities Office. Retrieved from https://openaccess.city.uk/15912 http://exhibitions.globalfundforwomen.org/economica/property-and-wealth/male-

Osborne, J. W., & Waters, E. (2002). Four assumptions of multiple regression that researchers should always test. *Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation, 8*(2), 1-5. Retrieved from https://scholarworks.umass.edu/pare

Outlaw, R., Colquitt, J. A., Baer, M., & Sessions, H. (2019). How fair versus how long: An integrative theory-based examination of procedural justice and procedural timeliness. *Personnel Psychology, 72*(3), 361-391. doi:10.1111/peps.12309

Owens, P. L., Jr. (2006). One more reason not to cut your training budget: The relationship between training and organizational outcomes. *Public Personnel Management, 35*(2), 163-172. doi:10.1177/009102600603500205

Page, E. D. (1914). *Trade morals: Their origin, growth and province.* New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Paine, L. S., & Piper, T. R. (1999). Ethics, Organizations and Business Schools. In T. K. McCraw and J. L. Cruikshank (Eds.), *The Intellectual Venture Capitalist: John H. McArthur and*

the Work of the Harvard Business School, 1980-1995 (pp. 221-244). Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Pallant, J. (2016). *SPSS survival manual: A step-by-step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS* (6th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Education.

Pamental, G. (1989). The course in business ethics: Can it work? *Journal of Business Ethics, 8*(7), 547-551. doi:10.1007/BF00382930

Park, J., & Gursoy, D. (2012). Generation effects on work engagement among US hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*(4), 1195-1202. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2012.02.007

Paul, P., Roy, A., & Mukhopadhyay, K. (2006). The impact of cultural values on marketing ethical norms: A study in India and the United States. *Journal of International Marketing, 14*(4), 28-56. doi:10.1509/jimk.14.4.28

Pearson, J. B., Barker, G. H., & Elliott, R. D. (1957). Sales success and job satisfaction. *American Sociological Review, 22*(4), 424-427. doi:10.2307/2089160

Peppas, S. C., & Diskin, B. A. (2001). College courses in ethics: Do they really make a difference? *The International Journal of Educational Management, 15*(7), 347-353. doi:10.1108/09513540110407947

Peterson, R. A. (1994). A meta-analysis of Cronbach's coefficient alpha. *Journal of Consumer Research, 21*(2), 381-391. doi:10.1086/209405

Pettijohn, C., Pettijohn, L., & Taylor, A. J. (2008). Salesperson perceptions of ethical behaviors: Their influence on job satisfaction and turnover intentions. *Journal of Business Ethics, 78*(4), 547-557. doi:10.1007/s10551-007-9367-7

Peugh, J. L., & Enders, C. K. (2004). Missing data in educational research: A review of reporting practices and suggestions for improvement. *Review of Educational Research, 74*(4), 525-556. doi:10.3102/00346543074004525

Phelan, J. (1994). The paradox of the contented female worker: An assessment of alternative explanations. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 57*(2), 95-107. doi:10.2307/2786704

Piedmont, R. L. (2014). Inter-item correlations. In A. C. Michalos (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Quality of Life and Well-Being Research* (pp. 3303-3304). Dordrecht, NL: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-94-007-0753-5_1493

Pierce, L., & Snyder, J. A. (2015). Unethical demand and employee turnover. *Journal of Business Ethics, 131*(4), 853-869. doi:10.1007/s10551-013-2018-2

Piotrkowski, C. S. (1998). Gender harassment, job satisfaction, and distress among employed white and minority women. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 3*(1), 33-43. doi:10.1037/1076-8998.3.1.33

Piper, T. R. (2008, May). Johnson & Johnson's corporate credo. Harvard Business School Case 304-084.

Pollock, S. (2012, March 21). What, exactly, is business development? *Forbes.* Retrieved from https://www.forbes.com/sites/scottpollack/2012/03/21/what-exactly-is-business-development/#1bb09d707fdb

Pryor, F. L., & Graburn, W. H. H. (1980). The myth of reciprocity. In K. J. Gergen, M. S. Greenberg, & R. H. Willis (Eds.), *Social exchange: Advances in theory and research* (pp. 215-237). Boston, MA: Springer. doi:10.1007/978-1-4613-3087-5_10

Rabe-Hesketh, S., & Skrondal, A. (2008). Classical latent variable models for medical research. *Statistical Methods in Medical Research, 17*(1), 5-32. doi:10.1177/0962280207081236

Rawls, J. (1958). Justice as fairness. *Philosophical Review, 67*(2), 164-194. doi:10.2307/2182612

Rawls, J. (1967). Distributive justice. In P. Laslett and W. G. Runciman (Eds.), *Philosophy, politics, and society* (Third Series, pp. 58-82). London, UK: Blackwell.

Rawls, J. (1971). A theory of justice: A discourse on distributive justice. *Economic Justice in Perspective* (pp. 207-221). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Rawls, J. (2001). *Justice as fairness: A restatement*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Rea, L. M., & Parker, R. A. (2014). *Designing and conducting survey research: A comprehensive guide* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: Jossey-Bass.

Roberts J. A., Coulson K. R., & Chonko L. B. (1999). Salesperson perceptions of equity and justice and their impact on organizational commitment and intent to turnover. *Journal of Marketing Theory and Practice, 7*(1), 1-16. doi:10.1080/10696679.1999.11501815

Rogelberg, S. G., Conway, J. M., Sederburg, M. E., Spitzmüller, C., Aziz, S., & Knight, W. E. (2003). Profiling active and passive nonrespondents to an organizational survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(6), 1104-1114. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.6.1104

Rogelberg, S. G., & Stanton, J. M. (2007). Introduction: Understanding and dealing with organizational survey nonresponse. *Organizational Research Methods, 10*(2), 195-209. doi:10.1177/1094428106294693

Rossi, J. S. (1990). Statistical power of psychological research: What have we gained in 20 years? *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychological Psychology, 58*(5), 646-656. doi:10.1037/0022-006X.58.5.646

Roxas, M. L., & Stoneback, J. Y. (1997). An investigation of the ethical decision-making process across varying cultures. *International Journal of Accounting, 32*(4), 503-535. doi.org/10.1016/S0020-7063(97)90035-2

Roxas, M. L., & Stoneback, J. Y. (2004). The importance of gender across cultures in ethical decision-making. *Journal of Business Ethics, 50*(2), 149-165. doi:10.1023/B:BUSI.0000022127.51047.ef

Rudman, L. A. (1998). Self-promotion as a risk factor for women: The costs and benefits of counterstereotypical impression management. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*(3), 629-645. doi:10.1037//0022-3514.74.3.629

Rutherford, B., Boles, J., Hamwi, G. A., Madupalli, R., & Rutherford, L. (2009). The role of the seven dimensions of job satisfaction in salesperson's attitudes and behaviors. *Journal of Business Research, 62*(11), 1146-1151. doi:10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.10.019

Salkind, N. J. (2017). *Statistics for people who (think they) hate statistics*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Sato, M. (2005). American business ethics in the 1920s: Perspectives on codes of ethics [Abstract]. *The History of Economic Thought, 47*(2), 92-107. doi:10.11498/jshet2005.47.2_92

Sauley, K. S., & Bedeian, A. G. (2000). Equity sensitivity: Construction of a measure and examination of its psychometric properties, *Journal of Management (26)*5, 885-910. doi:10.1177/014920630002600507

Schlegelmilch, B. B., & Robertson, D. C. (1995). The influence of country and industry on ethical perceptions of senior executives in the US and Europe. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *26*(4), 859-881. doi:10.1057/palgrave.jibs.8490823

Schminke, M., Ambrose, A. L., & Noel, T. W. (1997). The effect of ethical frameworks on perceptions of organizational justice. *Academy of Management Journal, 40*(5), 1190-1207. doi:10.5465/256932

Schweitzer, M. M. (1980). World War II and female labor force participation rates. *Journal of Economic History, 40*(1), 89-95. doi:10.1017/S0022050700104577

Seabury S.A., Chandra, A., & Jena, A. B. (2013). Trends in the earnings of male and female health care professionals in the United States, 1987 to 2010. *JAMA Intern Med. 2013(*173*),*1748-1750. doi:10.1001/jamainternmed.2013.8519

Seglin, J. L. (2001, March 18). When good ethics aren't good business. *The New York Times* (p. BU4). Retrieved from https://www.nytimes.com/

Sekerka. L. E. (2009). Organizational ethics education and training: a review of best practices and their application. *International Journal of Training and Development, 13*(2), 77-95. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2419.2009.00319.x

Semega, J. L., Fontenot, K. R., Kollar, M. A., & U.S. Census Bureau, Current Population Reports, P60-259 (2017, September). *Income and poverty in the United States: 2016.* Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Shapiro, D. L., & Kirkman, B. L. (2001). Anticipatory injustice: The consequences of expecting injustice in the workplace. In J. Greenberg and R. Cropanzano (Eds.), *Advances in Organizational Justice* (pp. 152-178). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Sharp, F. C., & Fox, P. G. (1937a). *Business ethics studies in fair competition.* New York, NY: D. Appleton-Century Company.

Sharp, F. C., & Fox, P. G. (1937b). *Problems in business ethics.* New York, NY: D. Appleton-Century Company.

Shaw, J. C., Wild, E., & Colquitt, J. A. (2003). To justify or excuse? A meta-analytic review of the effects of explanations. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(3), 444-458. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.3.444

Silverman, I. W. (2003). Gender differences in delay of gratification: A meta-analysis. *Sex Roles, 49*(9-10), 451-463. doi:10.1023/A:1025872421115

Singhapakdi, A., Marta, J. K., Rao, C. P., & Cicic, M. (2001). Is cross-cultural similarity an indicator of similar marketing ethics? *Journal of Business Ethics, 32*(1), 55-68. doi:10.1023/A:1010699529874

Singhapakdi, A., & Vitell, S. J. (1990). Marketing ethics: Factors influencing perceptions of ethical problems and alternatives. *Journal of Macromarketing*, *10*(1), 4-18. doi:10.1177/027614679001000102

Sipe, S., Johnson, C. D., & Fisher, D. K. (2009). University students' perceptions of gender discrimination in the workplace: Reality versus fiction. *Journal of Education for Business, 84*(6), 339-349. doi:10.3200/JOEB.84.6.339-349

Small, D. A., Gelfand, M., Babcock, L., & Gettman, H. (2007). Who goes to the bargaining table? The influence of gender and framing on the initiation of negotiation. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 93*(4), 600-613. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.93.4.600

Society for Human Resource Management (2017). *Employee job satisfaction and engagement: The doors of opportunity are open.* Retrieved from https://www.shrm.org/hr-today/trends-and-forecasting/research-and-surveys/pages/2017-job-satisfaction-and-engagement-doors-of-opportunity-are-open.aspx

Song, P. H., Lee, S.-Y. D., Toth, M., Singh, S. R., & Young, G. J. (2018). Gender differences in hospital CEO compensation: A national investigation of not-for-profit hospitals. *Medical Care Research and Review, 76*(6), 830-846. doi:10.1177/1077558718754573

Sosdian, C. P., & Sharp, L. M. (1980). Nonresponse in mail surveys: Access failure or respondent resistance. *Public Opinion Quarterly, 44*(3), 396-402. doi:10.1086/268606

Sousa-Poza, A., & Sousa-Poza, A. A. (2000). Well-being at work: a cross-national analysis of the levels and determinants of job satisfaction. *The Journal of Socio-Economics, 29*(6), 517-538. doi:10.1016/S1053-5357(00)00085-8

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes and consequences.* Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

Stark, A. (1993). What's the matter with business ethics? *Harvard Business Review, 71*(3), 38-40.

Steele, L. M., Mulhearn, T. J., Medeiros, K. E., Watts, L. L, Connelly, S., & Mumford, M. D. (2016). How do we know what works? A review and critique of current practices in ethics training evaluation. *Accountability in Research, 23*(6), 319-350. doi:10.1080/08989621.2016.1186547

Steinskog, D. J., Tjøstheim, D. B., & Kvamstø, N. G. (2007). A cautionary note on the use of the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test for normality. *Monthly Weather Review, 135*(3), 1151-1157.

Stello, C. M. (2011). *Herzberg's two-factor theory of job satisfaction: An integrative literature review.* Unpublished manuscript presented at the 2011 Student Research Conference: Exploring Opportunities in Research, Policy, and Practice, University of Minnesota Department of Organizational Leadership, Policy and Development, Minneapolis, MN.

Streiner, D. L. (2003). Starting at the beginning: An introduction to coefficient alpha and internal consistency. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 80*(1), 99-103. doi:10.1207/S15327752JPA8001_18

Stuhlmacher, A. F., & Linnabery, E. (2013). Gender and negotiation: A social role analysis. In M. Olekalns & W. L. Adair (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Negotiation Research* (pp. 221-248). Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing. doi:10.4337/9781781005903.00018

Sweeney, P. D., & McFarlin, D. B. (1993). Workers' evaluations of the "ends" and the "means": An examination of four models of distributive and procedural justice. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 55*(1), 23-40. doi:10.1006/obhd.1993.1022

Sweeney, P. D., & McFarlin, D. B. (1997). Process and outcome: Gender differences in the assessment of justice. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 18*(1), 83-98. doi:10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199701)18:1<83::AID-JOB779>3.0.CO;2-3

Tabachnick, B. G., Fidell, L. S., & Ullman, J. B. (2019). *Using multivariate statistics* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Taber, K. S. (2018). The use of Cronbach's alpha when developing and reporting research instruments in science education. *Research in Science Education, 48*(6), 1273-1296. doi:10.1007/s11165-016-9602-2

Taeusch, C. F. (1926). *Professional and business ethics.* New York, NY: Henry Holt and Company.

Taeusch, C. F. (1931). *Policy and ethics in business*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Book Company.

Tata, J., & Bowes-Sperry, L. (1996). Emphasis on distributive, procedural, and interactional justice: Differential perceptions of men and women. *Psychological Reports, 79*(3_suppl.), 1327-1330. doi:10.2466/pr0.1996.79.3f.1327

Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International Journal of Medical Education, 2*, 53-55. doi:10.5116/ijme.4dfb.8dfd

Thibaut, J., & Walker, L. (1975). *Procedural justice: A psychological analysis.* Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Thomas, C. W. (2004). An inventory of support materials for teaching ethics in the post-Enron era. *Issues in Accounting Education, 19*(1), 27-52. doi:10.2308/iace.2004.19.1.27

Thurstone, L. L. (1947). *Multiple factor analysis*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Toffler, B. L., & Reingold, J. (2004). *Final accounting: Ambition, greed, and the fall of Arthur Andersen.* New York, NY: Crown Business.

Topping, A., Barr, C., & Duncan, P. (2018, April 4). Gender pay gap figures reveal eight in 10 UK firms pay men more. *The Guardian.* Retrieved from https://www.theguardian.com

Townshend-Smith, R. (1989). *Sex discrimination in employment: Law, practice, and policy.* London, UK: Sweet and Maxwell.

Treviño, L. K., Den Nieuwenboer, N. A., & Kish-Gephart, J. J. (2014). (Un)ethical behavior in organizations. *Annual Review of Psychology 65*, 635–660. doi:10.1146/annurev-psych-113011-143745

Treviño, L. K., & Nelson, K. A. (2016). *Managing business ethics: Straight talk about how to do it right* (7th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Treviño, L. K., Weaver, G. R., Gibson, D. G., & Toffler, B. L. (1999). Managing ethics and legal compliance: What works and what hurts. *California Management Review, 41*(2), 131-151. doi:10.2307/41165990

Treviño, L. K., Weaver, G. R., & Reynolds, S. J. (2006). Behavioral ethics in organizations: A review. *Journal of Management, 32*(6), 951-990. doi:0.1177/0149206306294258

Treviño, L. K., & Youngblood, S. A. (1990). Bad apples in bad barrels: A causal analysis of ethical decision-making behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 75*(4), 378-385. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.75.4.378

Twenge, J. M., Campbell, S. M., Hoffman, B. J., & Lance, C. E. (2010). Generational differences in work values: Leisure and extrinsic values increasing, social and intrinsic values decreasing. *Journal of Management, 36*(5), 1117-1142. doi:10.1177/0149206309352246

Tyler, T. R., & Bies, R. J. (1990). Beyond formal procedures: The interpersonal context of procedural justice. In J. Carroll (Ed.), *Advances in applied social psychology and organizational settings* (pp. 77-98). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. doi:10.4324/9781315728377-4

Tyler, T. R., & Caine, A. (1981). The influence of outcomes and procedures on satisfaction with formal leaders. *Journal of personality and social psychology, 41*(4)*,* 642-655. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.41.4.642

U.K. Office of National Statistics (2018, March 5). *Gender pay gap by business size* (Report No. 008137). Retrieved from https://www.ons.gov.uk/employmentandlabourmarket/peopleinwork/earningsandworkinghours/adhocs/008137genderpaygapbybusinesssize

USASpending (2019). Retrieved from https://www.usaspending.gov/#/explorer/budget_function

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2019). Median weekly earnings of full-time wage and salary workers by detailed occupation and sex. *Household survey data, 2018 averages*. Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor. Retrieved from https://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat37.pdf

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research. (1979). *The Belmont report. Ethical principles and guidelines for the protection of human subjects of research*.

Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from https://www.hhs.gov/ohrp/sites/default/files/the-belmont-report-508c_FINAL.pdf

Valentine, S. (2009). Ethics training, ethical context, and sales and marketing professionals' satisfaction with supervisors and coworkers. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 29*(3), 227-242. doi:10.2753/PSS0885-3134290302

Valentine S., & Barnett T. (2003). Ethics code awareness, perceived ethical values, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management, 23*(4), 359–367 doi:10.1080/08853134.2003.10749009

Valentine, S., & Fleischman, G. (2004). Ethics training and businesspersons' perceptions of organizational ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics, 52*(4), 391-400. doi:10.1007/s10551-004-5591-6

Valentine, S., & Rittenburg, T. L. (2007). The ethical decision making of men and women executives in international business situations. *Journal of Business Ethics, 71*(2), 125-134. doi:10.1007/s10551-006-9129-y

VanVoorhis, C. W., & Morgan, B. L. (2007). Understanding power and rules of thumb for determining sample sizes. *Tutorials in quantitative methods for psychology, 3*(2), 43-50. doi:10.20982/tqmp.03.2.p043

Van Saane, N., Sluiter, J. K., Verbeek, J. H. A. M., & Frings-Dresen, M. H. W. (2003). Reliability and validity of instruments measuring job satisfaction—A systematic review. *Occupational Medicine, 53*(3), 191-200. doi:10.1093/occmed/kqg038

Velentzas, J., & Broni, G. (2010, August). *Ethical dimensions in the conduct of business: Business ethics, corporate social responsibility and the law. The "ethics of business" as a sense of business ethics.* In L. Tsipouri, N. Tsounis, & A. Vlachvei (Eds.), *Proceedings of*

the International Conference on Applied Economics (pp. 795-820). Athens, GR: ICOAE. Retrieved from http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.473.9713&rep=rep1&type=pdf

Vecchio, R. P. (1981). An individual-differences interpretation of the conflicting predictions generated by equity theory and expectancy theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 66*(4), 470-481. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.66.4.470

Verbos, A. K., Gerard, J. A., Forshey, P. R., Harding, C. S., & Miller, J. S. (2007). The positive ethical organization: Enacting a living code of ethics and ethical organizational identity. *Journal of Business Ethics, 76*(1) 17-33. doi:10.1007/s10551-006-9275-2

von Drehle, D. (2003). *Triangle: The fire that changed America.* New York, NY: Grove Press.

Walker, L., Lind, E. A., & Thibaut, J. (1979) The relation between procedural and distributive justice. *Virginia Law Review, 65*(8), 1401-1420. doi:10.2307/1072580

Wanberg, C. R., Bunce, L.W., & Gavin, M. B. (1999). Perceived fairness of layoffs among individuals who have been laid off: A longitudinal study. *Personnel Psychology 52*(1), 59-84. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.1999.tb01813.x

Wang, L. C., & Calvano, L. (2015). Is business ethics education effective? An analysis of gender, personal ethical perspectives, and moral judgment. *Journal of Business Ethics, 126*(4), 591-602. doi:10.1007/s10551-013-1973-y

Warren, D. E., Gaspar, J. P., & Laufer, W. S. (2014). Is formal ethic training merely cosmetic? A study of ethics training and ethical organizational culture. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 24*(1), 85-117. doi:10.5840/beq2014233

Weber, J. A. (2007). Business ethics training: Insights from learning theory. *Journal of Business Ethics, 70*(1), 61-85. doi:10.1007/s10551-006-9083-8

Weeks, W. A., Loe, T. W., Chonko, L. B., & Wakefield, K. (2004), The effect of perceived ethical climate on the search for sales force excellence. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 24*(3), 199-214. doi:10.1080/08853134.2004.10749031

Welbourne, T. M., Balkin, D. B., & Gomez-Mejia, L. R. (1995). Gainsharing and mutual monitoring: A combined agency-organizational justice interpretation. *Academy of Management Journal, 38*(3), 881-899. doi:10.2307/256750

Werhane, P. H., & Freeman, R. E. (1997). *The Blackwell encyclopedic dictionary of business ethics*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Weichselbaumer, D., & Winter-Ebmer, R. (2005). A meta-analysis of the international gender wage gap. *Journal of Economic Surveys, 19*(3), 479-511. doi:10.1111/j.0950-0804.2005.00256.x

Wesolowsky, G. O. (1976). *Multiple regression and analysis of variance: An introduction for computer users in management and economics.* New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

The White House (2015, September 12). *Fact Sheet: Empowering students to choose the college that is right for them* [Press release]. Retrieved from https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/the-press-office/2015/09/12/fact-sheet-empowering-students-choose-college-right-them

Whiting, R. H., & Wright, C. (2001). Explaining gender inequity in the New Zealand accounting profession. *British Accounting Review, 33*(2), 191-222. doi:10.1006/bare.2001.0161

Wood, W., & Eagly, A. H. (2012). Biosocial construction of sex differences and similarities in behavior. In M. P. Zanna & J. M. Olson (Eds.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 46, pp. 55-123). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Wotruba, T. R. (1990). A comprehensive framework for the analysis of ethical behavior, with a focus on sales organizations. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 10*(2), 29-42, doi:10.1080/08853134.1990.10753821

World Economic Forum (2017). *Global gender gap report 2017*. Geneva, CH: Author. Retrieved from https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2017.pdf

World Economic Forum. (2018). *Global gender gap report 2018.* Geneva, CH: Author. Retrieved from http://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2018.pdf

Yaffe, G. (2000). *Liberty worth the name: Locke on free agency.* Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Yessis, J., & Rathert, C. (2006). Initial versus prompted responders to patient satisfaction surveys: Implication for interpretation of patient feedback. *Journal of Applied Management and Entrepreneurship, 11*(4), 49-64.

Younts, W., & Mueller, C. W. (2001). Justice processes: Specifying the mediating role of perceptions of distributive justice. *American Sociological Review, 66*(1), 125-145. doi:10.2307/2657396

Youssefnia, D. (2000, April). *Examining organizational survey response quality with OCB related job attitudes.* Paper presented at the 15th meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, New Orleans, LA.

Zhao, H., & Seibert, S. E. (2006). The Big Five personality dimensions and entrepreneurial status: A meta-analytical review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 91*(2), 259-271. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.91.2.259

This page intentionally left blank.

Appendix A

Copy of APMP 2018 Business Ethics Survey

Welcome to Our Survey

Dear APMP Member,

The Association of Proposal Management Professionals (APMP®) considers business ethics to be one of the industry's most important goals and standards. By completing this survey, you will be supporting my research toward a doctorate in business administration and also offering your important voice to the association's goal of ensuring best business ethics practices in the bid and proposal industry. Your answers matter and we will design future APMP programming around your responses.

This survey has been approved by APMP's Member Research Committee and the Institutional Review Board at Hood College in Maryland. Your responses are anonymous. No personal identifying information or IP addresses will be collected or retained. The survey link is general and not specific to you, and you can only take the survey once.

When the survey period ends at midnight on June 10, the Internet link will be closed. Neither APMP nor the research team will know who participated or be able to link responses to participants.

As a token of our thanks, APMP is offering one CEU credit for taking part, which you will self-report. Please see the last page of the survey for details.

This survey will take about 10 minutes to complete. Please answer as many questions as you can. By clicking the "OK" button, you consent to participate.

Thank you,

Peggy Dufour, CPP APMP

Demographics: Tell Us About You

Your demographic information will support our statistical analysis — no personal identifying information is collected.

* 1. How many years have you been a member of APMP?

0 25

2. What is your APMP home chapter? (Select from list)

3. How many years of bid and proposal experience do you have?

0 25 50 or more

4. What is your APMP certification level?

- Member - no certification
- Foundation
- Practitioner
- Professional
- Fellow
- Fellow plus certification

5. How are you employed in the bid and proposal industry?

- Employed full-time by a single employer
- Employed part-time by a single employer
- Independent contractor, consultant, or self-employed, working for one or more clients
- Unemployed, looking for work
- Retired, but working
- Retired, volunteering or mentoring

6. What industry do you most frequently work with?

- National security/defense
- Information technology
- Construction
- Healthcare and social assistance
- Professional/scientific/technical services
- Manufacturing
- Other (please specify)
- Banking/finance
- Services to government
- Transportation
- Education
- Not-for-profit (arts, charitable, religious, civic organizations)

7. How large is the company you own or work for?

- 1 - 10
- 11 - 100
- 101 - 500
- 501 - 2,500
- 2,501 - 10,000
- 10,001 - 25,000
- Greater than 25,000

8. What bid and proposal role do you perform most often?

- Proposal manager, planning leading a large group of contributors
- Production manager, leading a group of personnel
- Volume captain, leading a small number of authors
- Proposal author or specialist, e.g., resume specialist
- Estimator, procurement, or contracts specialist
- Other individual contributor, e.g., editor, graphic artist, or subject matter expert
- Proposal coordinator, providing administrative services
- Orals preparation coach
- Business development lead or capture manager responsible for the pursuit
- Corporate executive pursuing business through proposals
- Evaluator or reviewer
- Own or work for a company that provides proposal services or software
- Other (please specify)

9. How many years have you performed in this role?

0 50

10. Where do you most frequently work?

- In my home country, working in my employer's offices
- In my home country, traveling or working in client offices
- In my home country, working from home
- Working outside my home country

11. What is your job category?

- Own my own business, self-employed, or consultant
- Nonmanagement contributor (e.g., assistant, coordinator, specialist)
- Professional nonmanagement (e.g., writer, artist, SME)
- Middle management (e.g., manager, supervisor, director)
- Executive level (e.g., CEO, CFO)

Copy of APMP 2018 Business Ethics Survey

About You (anonymous responses)

These responses are important to help us build a profile of our survey population.

12. In what country do you live? (select one from dropdown list)

* 13. Generation

- Generation Z (born 1995 - 2009)
- Millennials (born 1980 - 1994)
- Generation X (born 1965 - 1979)
- Baby Boomers (born 1945 - 1964)
- Veterans (born before 1945)

14. Education Level

- High school graduate
- Some college, no degree
- 2-year degree
- 4-year degree
- Master's degree
- Doctoral degree
- Other education level (please describe)

* 15. What is your sex/gender?

- Female
- Male
- Other
- No answer

* 16. What is your race or ethnicity?

- White, non-Hispanic
- Hispanic/Latino
- Black/African American
- Asian or Asian American
- Middle Eastern
- Native American/Alaska Native
- Mixed race/ethnicity
- Prefer not to answer
- Other (please specify)

* 17. Are you the same sex/gender as the person you work for most often?

- Yes
- No
- Don't know
- I do not have a boss or supervisor

18. Are you the same race/ethnicity as the person you work for most often?

- ◯ Yes
- ◯ No
- ◯ Don't know
- ◯ I do not usually have a boss or supervisor

* 19. Do you receive annual ethics training?

- ◯ Yes, annual computer-based training
- ◯ Yes, annual instructor-led training
- ◯ Not really: I only receive training every few years, or when I'm hired for a job, or it was awhile ago
- ◯ No ethics training is provided

20. Is this training useful and effective?

- ◯ Not effective, not memorable, not useful in my work
- ◯ Slighly effective
- ◯ Somewhat effective, occasionally useful
- ◯ Effective
- ◯ Very effective, memorable, and useful in my work
- ◯ Not applicable

Ethics Issues of Greatest Concern to APMP Members

How often have you personally observed these situations during your work in the bid and proposal industry?

* 21. **Proposal Ethics Challenges**

	Never Observed	Rarely Observed	Occasionally Observed	Often Observed	Very Frequently Observed
Inappropriate use of a competitor's proprietary information					
Using one client's material on future client's bid/proposal					
Failure to establish a standard of ethics at bid/proposal kickoff meetings					
Bidding key personnel who do not intend to work on the contract					
Exaggerations or omissions on resumes					
False or intentionally low pricing of bids/tenders					
Misrepresenting past performance information					
Bidding a solution or approach you don't believe you can deliver					
Theft of bid/proposal materials					
Confidentiality breaches or misuse of confidential information					
Violations of non-compete or non-disclosure agreements					
Failure to pay for bid/proposal services or underpaying bid/proposal workers					
Violating one's home country laws/ethics to win business in another country					

* 22. **Workplace Behavior and Treatment: What Have You Seen or Experienced?**

	Never Observed	Rarely Observed	Occasionally Observed	Often Observed	Very Frequently Observed
Verbal abuse or other intimidating behavior					
Emotional exhaustion					
Overwork and burnout					
Hostile work environment					
Fewer promotions and lower pay based on gender					
Alcohol/drug abuse in the workplace					
Demoralizing treatment by a supervisor.					
Inappropriate sexual behavior in the work environment					
Sexual harassment					
Discrimination in hiring or rewards based on race, religion, nationality, or age					

23. **Business Ethics Violations**

	Never Observed	Rarely Observed	Occasionally Observed	Often Observed	Very Frequently Observed
Lying to or misleading customers, teaming partners, or employees					
Travel or expense account abuse					
Falsifying time cards; adding hours not worked					
Breaking or failing to fulfill a contract					
Illegal activity, e.g., bribery, fraud					
Conflict of interest violations					
Failure to deliver what was bid					

24. **Seriousness or Importance of these Issues to the Proposal Industry**

	Not a Problem	Minor Problem	Moderate Problem	Serious Problem	Very Serious Problem
Proposal Ethics Challenges (Q. 21)					
Workplace Behavior and Treatment (Q. 22)					
Business Ethics Violations (Q. 23)					

Member Perceptions on Ethics Issues

In this section, tell us how you feel about the issues identified.

* 25. Member Perceptions on Ethics Issues

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
Discrimination based on race, ethnicity, nationality, or religion is a problem in the bid/proposal industry.					
Sexual misconduct or harassment disadvantaging women occurs in the bid/proposal industry.					
Gender discrimination affecting pay and promotion disadvantages women in the bid/proposal industry.					
Discrimination based on age is a problem in the bid/proposal industry.					
Discrimination based on sexual orientation is a problem in the bid/proposal industry.					
Ethical misconduct occurs in the bid/proposal industry.					
The company I work for is ethical.					
My boss behaves in an ethical way at work.					
There are gaps in my understanding of ethics rules, laws, and regulations.					
APMP certification in business ethics would provide value to our profession.					

Workplace Challenges

Tell us about things that have happened to you in your career.

* 26. Have you ever been pressured to conduct activities that were unethical or do something you felt was not right?

- Yes
- No
- No answer

* 27. Have you ever had to "look the other way" when witnessing inappropriate actions of others?

- Yes, I didn't want to make waves.
- Yes, I was afraid I might be wrong.
- Yes, I was afraid of retaliation or being labeled a troublemaker.
- No, it has never happened.
- Other (please specify)

28. Have you ever been unjustly accused or blamed by a supervisor?

- Yes
- No

29. Have you ever felt trapped in a toxic or hostile work environment?

- Yes
- No

* 30. Fairness and Equality in the Workplace: Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral, N/A, or Don't Know	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
People of the opposite sex seem to be promoted or paid more than me.					
My superiors see people like me as having lower potential.					
There are gender-specific obstacles to my career success.					
People of my race, religion, ethnicity, or nationality are treated fairly.					
Family responsibilities have limited my professional opportunities.					

* 31. Experiencing unfair treatment (including hostility, bias, discrimination, and harassment) had the following effect on me: (Check all that apply)

- ☐ I have *never* experienced unfair treatment in the workplace
- ☐ Caused negative health effects, such as stress, depression, ulcers, headaches, or sleep disruption
- ☐ Lowered my self-esteem and self-confidence
- ☐ Made it less likely that I would ask for a raise I deserved
- ☐ Limited my career advancement opportunities or compensation
- ☐ Made me unhappy and disappointed
- ☐ Made me angry
- ☐ Lowered my job satisfaction or respect for my company Made me want to quit
- ☐ Other (please describe)

* 32. Compensation: Please tell us how strongly you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral , N/A, or Don't Know	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am paid fairly for the work I do compared to others in my department, on my proposal team, or in our industry.	○	○	○	○	○
I have access to good information to determine how fairly I'm paid.	○	○	○	○	○
I am very comfortable negotiating my raise or bonus.	○	○	○	○	○
The process for determining who gets raises/promotions has been explained to me honestly and is fair.	○	○	○	○	○
Where I work, politics determines who gets paid well or promoted — not performance.	○	○	○	○	○
My performance plays an important role in my salary increases — if I work hard and do well, it actually matters.	○	○	○	○	○
My supervisor/boss provides an honest explanation for my raise, or the reason I didn't get one.	○	○	○	○	○
My role (job title) is highly respected and deferred to on a bid/proposal team.	○	○	○	○	○
The hours I'm scheduled to work are reasonable for the work I'm expected to do.	○	○	○	○	○
Overtime is always expected of me and it never ends.	○	○	○	○	○
On bids/proposals, people who work the hardest are frequently paid the least.	○	○	○	○	○

* 33. Reporting: Hypothetically, if you report an ethics violation at work or on a bid/proposal assignment: (check all that apply)

- ☐ Nothing will happen; the problem will be ignored or smoothed over.
- ☐ I may be labeled a "troublemaker."
- ☐ I may experience retaliation.
- ☐ I could be penalized in terms of raises, bonuses, and promotions.
- ☐ I may be given less desirable work assignments.
- ☐ The problem will be dealt with appropriately with no negative consequences for me.
- ☐ Out of concern for my future, I would probably not report it.
- ☐ I do not know.

* 34. Job Satisfaction: Please rate how strongly you agree or disagree.

	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral, N/A, or Don't Know	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
On our bid/proposal teams, I am listened to and respected.	○	○	○	○	○
I get a feeling of accomplishment from my job.	○	○	○	○	○
When I do a good job, I am noticed and given credit for the work I do.	○	○	○	○	○
I feel valued by senior management.	○	○	○	○	○
When we win, the people who deserve it are given full credit.	○	○	○	○	○
In my bid/proposal role, I have a lot of opportunity for promotion.	○	○	○	○	○
I would like to change my bid/proposal role and perform a different role.	○	○	○	○	○
I would like to leave my job in the next year.	○	○	○	○	○
I am satisfied with my income.	○	○	○	○	○
I am satisfied with my job.	○	○	○	○	○
I usually form a strong bond with the people I work with on a bid or proposal and enjoy the teamwork.	○	○	○	○	○

Working in Foreign Countries

Please describe your experiences when working in other countries.
Q. 37 is for your overall comments or questions.
PLEASE CLICK THE BLUE "SURVEY COMPLETED" BUTTON BELOW TO COMPLETE AND EXIT THIS SURVEY.

35. When working or trying to win work in another country (you may skip this if it doesn't apply to your work):

	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree
Working in other countries or cultures requires me to accept certain unethical practices in order to win business.	○	○	○	○	○
I adhere to my country's laws and practices even if it means losing work.	○	○	○	○	○
I follow local customs even if they go against my country's laws or ethical practices.	○	○	○	○	○

36. I have seen colleagues do things that would be unacceptable in my home country, such as (check all that apply):

- ☐ Making payments to public officials or contractors
- ☐ Lying or misrepresentation
- ☐ Falsifying documents
- ☐ Violating procurement regulations
- ☐ Verbal abuse
- ☐ Sexual misconduct
- ☐ Excessive drinking or drug use
- ☐ Accepting cash or inappropriate gifts

37. Do you have any other comments, questions, or concerns?

This page intentionally left blank.

Appendix B

APMP 2018 Ethics Survey
Summary Report
July 9, 2018

This page intentionally left blank.

On May 10, 2018, APMP invited its members to take part in a first-of-its-kind survey of bid and proposal industry professionals. The survey's purpose was to determine how our members feel about ethics issues in the workplace, and to establish a baseline for future APMP program development. By June 10, when the survey closed, 1,254 members had submitted responses, a 17% response rate.

Every APMP chapter took part in the survey, with proposal professionals from 40 countries responding. These summary results represent what those 1,254 members told us about themselves, their work life experiences, their views on ethics, and their perceptions of the proposal industry.

Overwhelmingly, our members believe that our industry is ethical, although some exceptions were noted. Respondents told us that they work in environments where business ethics and proposal ethics rules are known and generally followed. However, the frequency and effectiveness of ethics training as well as ethics related to workplace treatment appear to be areas of concern. These and other areas highlighted in this report indicate that while there is much good within the profession, there is also work to be done.

Respondents' Relationship to APMP

Survey respondents reported that they have been members of APMP for 5 years on average, ranging from zero years (new members) to 25 years or more, going back to APMP's founding in 1989. New members include 111 respondents, while 10 respondents listed 25 years or more. Recent members were our most active survey responders:

- 0 years 111 responders (9%)
- 1 year 290 responders (23%)
- 2 years 169 responders (13%)
- 0–5 years 884 responders (70%)
- 6–10 years 225 responders (18%)
- 11–20 years 124 responders (10%)
- 21–25+ years 21 responders (2%)

The total years of APMP membership represented by our survey population is 5,938—nearly six millennia.

More than half of our responders have APMP certification:

- Foundation 44%
- Practitioner 9%
- Professional 4%
- Member, no certification 41%

In addition, nearly 2% of our survey population were APMP Fellows.

2018 Business Ethics Survey

7,531 invitations sent

100 online survey questions

Open-ended comments

Anonymous responses

Survey response profile

1,254 responses

17% response rate

40 countries

26 APMP chapters

"Since APMP's goal is to advance and support the profession, we believe defining and modeling ethical behavior is significant to that endeavor."

Rick Harris
APMP Executive Director

Survey Participation by Chapter

Every APMP chapter took part in the survey. The top three chapters are among APMP's largest: National Capital Area (203 responses), UK Chapter (197 responses), and the Greater Midwest Chapter (129 responses).

Every APMP chapter contributed at least one response

APMP Chapters	Responses	Percent
ANZ Chapter (Australia, New Zealand, and Asia Pacific)	44	3.6%
California Chapter	67	5.4%
Carolinas Chapter (North Carolina and South Carolina)	27	2.2%
Chesapeake Chapter (central Maryland)	24	1.9%
Colorado Chapter (Colorado, Idaho, Montana, Utah, and Wyoming)	58	4.7%
DACH (Germany, Austria, and Switzerland)	23	1.9%
Florida Sunshine Chapter	35	2.8%
Georgia Chattahoochee Chapter	31	2.5%
Japan Chapter	2	0.2%
Korea Chapter	1	0.1%
Greater Midwest Chapter (Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, and Wisconsin)	**129**	**10.5%**
India Chapter	17	1.4%
Ireland Chapter	3	0.2%
Liberty Chapter (formerly NY Metro Chapter)	67	5.4%
Lone Star Chapter (Texas and surrounding states)	59	4.8%
Maple Leaf Virtual Chapter (Canada)	65	5.3%
Mid-South Chapter (Alabama, Tennessee, Mississippi, and Louisiana)	26	2.1%
National Capital Area Chapter (Washington, D.C., Maryland, and Virginia)	**203**	**16.5%**
NL Chapter (de Nederlandse)	19	1.5%
Nordic Chapter (Denmark, Sweden, Norway, and Finland)	8	0.7%
Nor'easters Chapter (Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Maine, Rhode Island, and Vermont)	42	3.4%
Pacific Northwest Chapter (Oregon Washington, and Alaska)	34	2.8%
South Africa Chapter	38	3.1%
Tidewater Chapter (Hampton Roads, Virginia, and Northeastern North Carolina)	7	0.6%
UK Chapter	**197**	**15.6%**
Valley of the Sun Chapter (Arizona and New Mexico)	8	0.6%
	Answered	1,234
Largest chapter responses are in boldface type	Skipped	20

Where We Live and Work

Where we live. The survey's 1,254 respondents listed 40 countries as their place of residence. Two-thirds of our sample (820 people) listed the United States as home. The most frequent cited locations outside the United States included:

1. United Kingdom (177, 14.3%)
2. Canada (65, 5.2%)
3. Australia (36, 2.9%)
4. South Africa (36, 2.9%)
5. Germany (17, 1.4%)
6. Netherlands (16, 1.3%)
7. India (15, 1.2%)

North and South America, Europe, Africa, Asia, Middle East, Australia and New Zealand

Switzerland contributed five (5) respondents; Denmark, France, Italy, and Singapore each contributed four (4) each; Ireland and Quatar, three (3) each; and Belgium, Columbia, Hungary, Japan, Romania, and UAE each contributed two (2).

The largest subgroup of countries (19) comprised those with a single respondent, and included: Algeria, Brazil, Finland, Hong Kong, Korea[2], Lebanon, Malaysia, New Zealand, Nigeria, Norway, Peru, Philippines, Russia, Saudi Arabia, Spain, Sweden, Tanzania, Trinidad and Tobago, and Zimbabwe.

Where we work. Most of us reported working in our home countries, in our employer's offices (65%), while a surprising 26% reported working from home. Only 2% reported working outside their home country. Two-thirds of us work in corporate environments larger than 500 people, with 32% working for companies with more than 10,000 employees, and 11% working in companies with 10 or fewer employees.

We use our bid and proposal skills in very broad and diverse range of industries. The top five are listed here:

- Information technology (18.5%)
- National security/defense (15.7%)
- Professional, scientific, technical services (12.3%)
- Services to government (10.6%)
- Construction (7.6%)

But that's not the end of the story. The "Other" category (16%) collected a large number of write-in responses listing everything from "multiple industries" to real estate, telecommunications, insurance, recruitment, energy, aerospace, grounds maintenance, human resources, interior design, lottery, and even elections.

What We Do

Bid and proposal role. When we asked what bid and proposal role you most often perform, the 122 responses in the "other" category caused us to add two job categories: Director of bids/proposals (39 people), and all-in-one, one-person shop, or "fill all roles" (19 people). The top six responses were:

57% of us are proposal managers; 0.2% are orals coaches

1. Proposal manager (714, 57%)
2. Proposal author, technical writer or editor (96, 7.6%)
3. Proposal coordinator, administrative/database services (91, 7.2%)
4. Bid or capture lead (77, 6.1%)
5. Production manager, managing a group (54, 4%)
6. Individual contributor (e.g., graphic artist, SME) (42, 3.4%)

Less frequent responses included volume captain (17 people, 1.4%), estimator (13, 1%), and evaluator/reviewer (12, 0.9%). The rarest job function among those listed was the orals preparation coach, with only three respondents (0.2%) checking that category.

Our company roles. A large number of us reported working in corporate middle management (45%); followed by professional non-management, such as writers, artists and subject matter experts (24%); administrative contributors, such as coordinators and proposal assistants (15%); and individuals who own their own businesses or are consultants (12%).

Our Ethics Training

Survey respondents reported that they have been members of APMP for an average 5 years, ranging in duration from less than a year (new members) to 25 years or more, going back to APMP's founding in 1989. New members include 111 respondents, while there are 10 who listed 25 years or more of membership. A summary breakdown includes:

Nearly 4 in 10 receive no annual ethics training

- Yes, annual computer-based training 720 respondents (58%)
- Yes, annual instructor-led training 52 respondents (4.2%)
- Not really, only every few years 230 respondents (18.5%)
- No ethics training is provided 240 respondents (19.3%)

So, while 62% of us receive annual training, 38% do not.

Many of us feel that this training could be more effective. For example, of the respondents who receive training:

Only 11.9% believe their ethics training is very effective and useful

- 54.5% said it was ineffective, slightly, or only somewhat effective
- 33.5% said it was effective
- 11.9% said it was very effective and useful in their work

Issues of Greatest Concern to Our Members

A number of survey questions asked our members about ethics challenges in three areas: bid and proposal ethics, workplace behavior and treatment, and general business ethics violations. The Appendix contains tabulations of these questions, with summaries presented here. To rank these answers, all "Occasionally," "Often," and "Very Frequently" responses were combined for each question and a summary score created. This was done to separate those who had observed each challenge from those who had not. Here are the highest scoring responses in each category:

Q. 21. Proposal Ethics Challenges *(percent who observed)*

1. Failure to establish a standard of ethics at bid/proposal kickoff meetings (45%)
2. Bidding key personnel who do not intend to work on the contract (42%)
3. Using one client's material on a future client's bid/proposal (31%)
4. Exaggerations or omissions on resumes (25%)
5. Bidding a solution you don't think you can deliver (24%)

Q. 22. Workplace Behavior and Treatment

Workplace behavior and treatment are a serious ethics concern in the bid and proposal industry.

1. Overwork and burnout (82%)
2. Emotional exhaustion (72%)
3. Fewer promotions and lower pay based on gender (44%)
4. Verbal abuse or other intimidating behavior (38%)
5. Demoralizing treatment by a supervisor (38%)
6. Hostile work environment (36%)

Q. 23. Business Ethics Violations

1. Failure to deliver what was bid or contracted (16%)
2. Lying to or misleading customers, teaming partner, or employees (15%)
3. Travel or expense account abuse (11%)
4. Falsifying time cards, adding hours not worked (8%)

Workplace treatment concerns took top place in our survey, followed by proposal ethics, with general business ethics taking a distant third. The scores for overwork and burnout and emotional exhaustion were twice as high as any other score in that category, with 8 out of 10 respondents having observed these conditions.

Ethics challenges we rarely observe. There are many good-news items in this part of the survey. Items that rated at the bottom on our scale of observed behaviors include:

1. Breaches of confidentiality (6%)
2. Misuse of confidential information (6%)
3. Violations of nondisclosure or noncompete agreements (6%)
4. Misrepresenting past performance (6%)
5. Breaking or failing to fulfill a contract (6%)
6. Conflict of interest violations (6%)
7. Violating home country laws to win work in another country (2%)
8. Illegal activity, e.g., bribery or fraud (1%)

Some traditional ethics challenges are very rarely observed by our survey respondents

Seriousness of these Issues to the Industry

Next, we asked survey respondents to rank the three previous sets of answers to see whether they felt those areas represented a serious problem for the bid/proposal industry. For this ranking, we ignored the "I don't know/Neutral" responses and looked at the strongly held opinions on either end of the spectrum. Here are the results:

	Not a Problem/ Minor Problem		Moderate to Very Serious Problem	
Serious of these issues to the bid/proposal industry:	Responses	Percent	Responses	Percent
Q. 22 Workplace Behavior and Treatment (rank = 1)	506	43.7%	**651**	**56.3%**
Q. 21 Proposal Ethics Challenges (rank = 2)	**634**	**54.8%**	520	44.9%
Q. 23 Business Ethics Violations (rank = 3)	**712**	**61.5%**	443	38.3%

The scores in each category (bold type in blue highlighted boxes) indicate that workplace treatment is a moderate to serious concern and general business ethics is not viewed as a problem. Respondents were more evenly divided on proposal ethics, with most believing it was a less serious area of concern than workplace treatment.

Member Ethics Perceptions

This section of the survey asked member how they felt about a range of ethics as practiced in the workplace. Answers were arrayed from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree." By adding the pair of "disagree" scores and comparing them to the summed "agree" scores for each question, we developed a score that indicates how members feel and, to some degree, how strongly they feel about the issue. When we are able to apply deeper statistical analysis to these responses, we will be able to determine whether men and women of different ages, levels of experience, and other demographic measures feel differently about these issues.

86.9% believe that the companies they work for are ethical

The summary responses indicate some very strong perceptions:

- We believe that our companies are ethical (86.9%)
- We believe that our bosses are ethical (85.7%)
- Relatively few believe that there is discrimination based on sexual orientation (9.8%) or race, ethnicity, nationality or religion (19.2%)
- We do believe that there is gender discrimination affecting pay and promotion that disadvantages women (47.1%)
- Even though most of us (61.7%) don't think we have gaps in our ethics knowledge, we do believe that APMP business ethics certification would be a positive addition to the industry (60.1%)

60.1% believe that APMP business ethics certification would provide value to the profession

These results indicate a positive response to our work environments in the area of discrimination, except for issues related to the pay and promotion of women. Those issues will be studied further as part of the statistical analysis and reported at a later date.

Q. 25 Member Perceptions on Ethics Issues	Strongly/Somewhat Disagree		Strongly/Somewhat Agree	
These issues are problem in the bid/proposal industry…	Responses	Percent	Responses	Percent
Discrimination based on race, ethnicity, nationality or religion	597	**52.3%**	219	19.2%
Sexual misconduct or harassment disadvantaging women	548	**47.9%**	307	26.9%
Gender discrimination affecting pay/promotion disadvantaging women	364	31.8%	538	**47.1%**
Discrimination based on age	434	38.0%	406	35.6%
Discrimination based on sexual orientation	598	**52.4%**	112	9.8%
Related ethics perceptions	Responses	Percent	Responses	Percent
Ethical misconduct occurs in the industry	483	42.3%	356	31.1%
The company I work for is ethical	55	4.8%	988	**86.9%**
My boss behaves in an ethical way at work	76	6.7%	973	**85.7%**
There are gaps in my understanding of ethics rules, laws, and regulations	703	**61.7%**	287	25.2%
APMP certification in business ethics would provide value in our profession	133	11.7%	686	**60.1%**

Workplace Challenges

The next section of the survey, we asked members to tell us about things that have happened to them in their career. These occurrences relate to ethics in terms of how human resource management (HRM) is practiced in the bid/proposal work environment. In this case, these questions dealt with career experience, not necessarily in a respondent's current job. Responses were as follows:

	No		Yes	
	Responses	Percent	Responses	Percent
Q. 26 Have you ever been pressured to conduct activities that were unethical or do something that you felt was not right?	686	**65.6%**	486	31.9%
Q. 27 Have you ever had to "look the other way" when witnessing inappropriate actions of others? ["Other" see below]	520	**61.6%**	634	24.1%
Q. 28 Have you ever been unjustly accused or blamed by a supervisor?	744	**66.9%**	368	33.1%
Q. 29 Have you ever felt trapped in a toxic or hostile work environment?	514	46.2%	598	**53.8%**

This group of responses is interesting because it tells us that our professionals have experienced similar treatment environments along a consistent one-third/two-thirds split, except in one area.

Question 27 asks about what happens when we see something wrong and have to "look the other way." Of the 24% who said that had happened, half said they did so because they feared retaliation, and the other half because they "didn't want to make waves" or because they were afraid they might be wrong. In addition, nearly 100 people (8.7%) chose to check "Other" and write in their responses. Most were descriptive of their experiences in difficult situations, most often leading to the respondent leaving the company. In other cases, members chose to tell us, very strongly, that they would never

look the other way, or that their companies had good issue escalation processes in place. This group of responses will be further analyzed and reported.

Most surprising, then, after the previous responses, was the response to Question 29 on toxic or hostile work environments. In this case, more than half of our respondents (53.8%) reported having experienced this very difficult work environment, which is dissimilar to and much higher than the one-third responses to the other questions. This question will be paired with others for further analysis.

Fair treatment in the workplace. Issues of fairness are related to business ethics through HRM practices and through the discipline of organizational behavior. We asked five questions, with these responses:

Q. 30. Fairness and Equality in the Workplace	Strongly/Somewhat Disagree		Strongly/Somewhat Agree	
	Responses	Percent	Responses	Percent
People of the opposite sex seem to be promoted or paid more than me.	381	34.2%	418	37.6%
My superiors see people like me as having lower potential.	661	**59.5%**	231	20.8%
There are gender-specific obstacles to my career success.	588	**52.8%**	338	30.4%
People of my race, religion, ethnicity, or nationality are treated fairly	219	19.7%	694	**62.4%**
Family responsibilities have limited my professional opportunities.	603	**54.2%**	337	30.3%

In this set of responses, the "Neutral/I Don't Know" category (not shown above) ranged between 15% and nearly 30%. The question with the most uncertainty was on whether individuals of the opposite sex better were paid or promoted more often. This may indicate a lack of access to information about pay equity in the workplace or other conditions, such as recent entry into the profession. Further analysis may tell. On the other questions, we perceive that we are generally treated fairly.

Effects of unfair treatment. What happens when we are not treated as ethically in the workplace as we should be? What is our response?

Of the 1,113 people responding to this question, 291 (26%) said that they had never been treated unfairly, while 822 respondents (74%) reported having experienced some unfairness. Their answers to this "check all that apply" question are reported below in descending order:

Q. 31 Experiencing unfair treatment (including hostility, bias, discrimination, and harassment) had the following effect on me (check all that apply):	Responses	Percent
Lowered my job satisfaction or respect for my company	654	58.8%
Made me unhappy and disappointed	644	57.9%
Made me want to quit	590	53.0%
Made me angry	548	49.2%
Caused negative health effects, such as stress, depression, ulcers, headaches, or sleep disruption	530	47.6%
Lowered my self-esteem and self-confidence	485	43.6%

Limited my career advancement opportunities or compensation	384	34.5%
Made it less likely that I would ask for a raise I deserved	286	25.7%
Other (please describe)	95	8.5%

Ninety-five respondents also checked "other" and provided narrative responses about unethical treatment and impacts on careers, income, and health. Many people related that poor treatment had caused them to quit and either move to another company or become independent contractors. Others described very serious health consequences, some lasting many years. Still other respondents talked about workplace outcomes such as decreased product quality, limitations on innovation, and less effective business development. As with other narrative responses, this rich set of reactions will be further analyzed.

Compensation

Similar to other questions relating to pay, there was considerable uncertainty registered in response to some parts of Question 32. This may be due to a lack of information or other factors yet to be determined, but it had the effect of pulling the responses toward the center.

Q. 32. Compensation	Strongly/Somewhat Disagree		Strongly/Somewhat Agree	
Please tell us if you agree or disagree…	Responses	Percent	Responses	Percent
I am paid fairly for the work I do compared to others in my department, on my proposal team, or in our industry.	294	26.4%	595	**53.5%**
I have access to good information to determine how fairly I'm paid.	329	29.6%	561	**50.4%**
I am very comfortable negotiating my raise or bonus.	459	41.4%	450	40.6%
The process for determining who gets raises/promotions has been explained to me honestly and is fair.	496	**44.7%**	331	29.8%
Where I work, politics determines who gets paid well or promoted — not performance.	471	**42.4%**	336	30.2%
My performance plays an important role in my salary increases — if I work hard and do well, it actually matters.	243	21.9%	666	**59.9%**
My supervisor/boss provides an honest explanation for my raise, or the reason I didn't get one.	257	23.2%	557	**50.2%**
My role (job title) is highly respected and deferred to on a bid/proposal team.	265	23.9%	625	**56.3%**
The hours I'm scheduled to work are reasonable for the work I'm expected to do.	311	28.0%	630	**56.7%**
Overtime is always expected of me and it never ends.	436	39.2%	442	39.8%
On bids/proposals, people who work the hardest are frequently paid the least.	458	**41.2%**	333	30.0%

There are many interesting observations registered in this section. First, on the positive side, 50%–60% of respondents believe that they are paid fairly, respected, have reasonable hours, and access to good information and explanations about their pay.

On the concerning side, we see evidence of perceived unfairness in compensation, based on workplace politics, unfair allocation of rewards based on contributions of hard work, and a lack of fairness in the processes for pay and promotion determinations and

the explanations of those processes provided to us. These HRM ethics areas will be important to explore through further analysis.

In addition, respondents were evenly split on the question of overtime expectations and on how comfortable they feel negotiating a raise or bonus. These issues are important to the industry because they impact quality of life and total lifetime earnings.

In this category, more than others, the responses on either side are not exceptionally strong. This is because the "Neutral, N/A, or I Don't Know" category registered in the 20% range. This could be due to a lack of experience or information, or because the responding individuals do not work in a setting where compensation is controlled by someone else. More sophisticated analysis may be able to provide this information.

Reporting Ethics Violations

The consequences of reporting an ethics violation in the workplace can vary dramatically depending on the quality of the reporting processes in place, on how properly they are implemented, and on how well we are trained to handle these occurrences. When we report, the problem should be dealt with appropriately with no negative consequences for the reporting individual—this was the answer provided by 51% of our respondents. The other half reported the following:

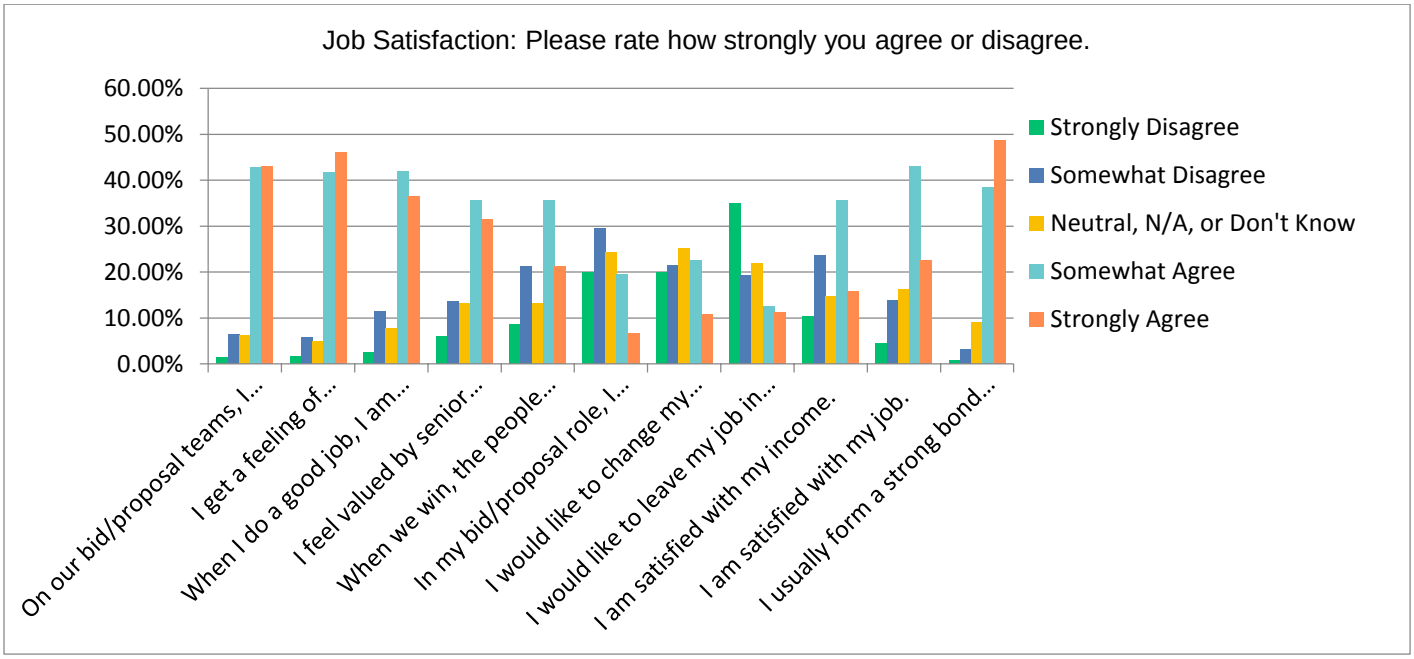
Q. 33 Hypothetically, if you report an ethics violation at work or on a bid/proposal assignment (check all that apply):	Responses	Percent
Nothing will happen; the problem will be ignored or smoothed over.	188	16.9%
I may be labeled "a troublemaker."	184	16.5%
I may experience retaliation.	156	14.0%
I could be penalized in terms of raises, bonuses, and promotions.	119	10.7%
I may be given less desirable work assignments.	95	8.5%
Out of concern for my future, I would not report it.	108	9.7%
I do not know.	**357**	**32.1%**

Based on the numbers, individuals checked more than one box, indicating multiple concerns or concerns accompanied by uncertainty. The "I do not know" category is nearly twice as large as any other. It is a strong indication that many respondents are not clear about how to report these violations safely or believe that their company will not handle them properly. A third possibility is that these respondents are new to this work environment, a question that further analysis can answer.

Only half of respondents believe that if they report an ethics violation, it will be handled properly

Job Satisfaction

When we work diligently and contribute quality work that helps our employers or clients succeed, we deserve to have a feeling of accomplishment and satisfaction. We asked our respondents how they felt about their jobs and they provided the responses below, indicating a pattern of decisive agreement or disagreement with most questions.



Combining the "Strongly Disagree" and "Somewhat Disagree" responses to produce a single "Disagree" response and doing a similar operation for the "Agree" responses produces the following table:

Q. 32. Compensation	Strongly/Somewhat Disagree		Strongly/Somewhat Agree	
Please tell us how strongly you agree or disagree…	Responses	Percent	Responses	Percent
On our bid/proposal teams, I am listened to and respected.	87	7.8%	956	**86.0%**
I get a feeling of accomplishment from my job.	82	7.4%	976	**87.7%**
When I do a good job, I am noticed and given credit for the work I do.	153	13.8%	872	**78.5%**
I feel valued by senior management.	218	19.6%	746	**67.2%**
When we win, the people who deserve it are given full credit.	332	29.9%	630	**56.8%**
In my bid/proposal role, I have a lot of opportunity for promotion.	550	**49.5%**	291	26.2%
I would like to change my bid/proposal role and perform a different role.	460	**41.4%**	370	33.3%
I would like to leave my job in the next year.	604	**54.5%**	263	23.7%
I am satisfied with my income.	376	33.9%	570	**51.4%**
I am satisfied with my job.	201	18.2%	726	**65.6%**
I usually form a strong bond with the people I work with on a bid or proposal and enjoy the teamwork.	43	3.9%	969	**87.1%**

This set of responses produced the highest and most definitive answers on the survey. Survey respondents believe that they are respected and listened to, form strong bonds with their co-workers, and are noticed and given credit when they do good work. Although many feel positive about being noticed (78.5%), fewer feel valued by senior management (67.2%).

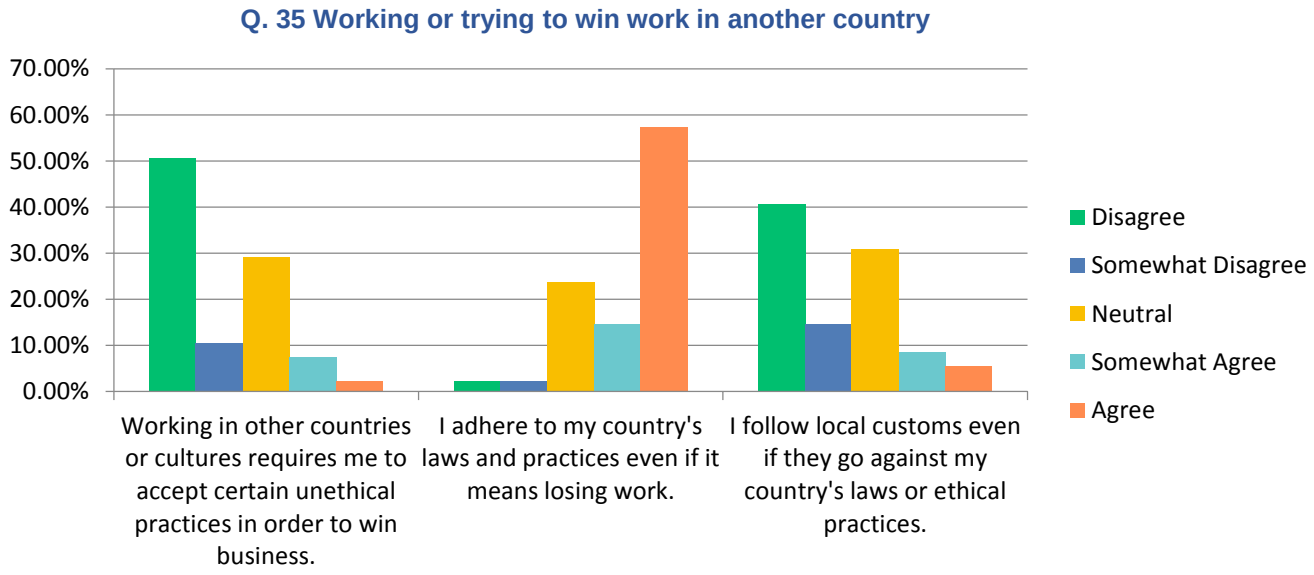
87.7% get a feeling of accomplishment from their job—the highest scoring item on the survey

About a quarter of respondents would like to change jobs in the next year. This number may relate to the 49.5% who feel they lack promotion opportunities in their current role, or the fact that only 56.8% believe that "when we win, the people who deserve it are given full credit." Most of us are more satisfied with our job (65.6%) than with our incomes (51.4%).

This question also produced the highest rated positive response on the entire survey: 976 people (87.7%) responded that "I get a feeling of accomplishment from my job."

Working in Foreign Countries

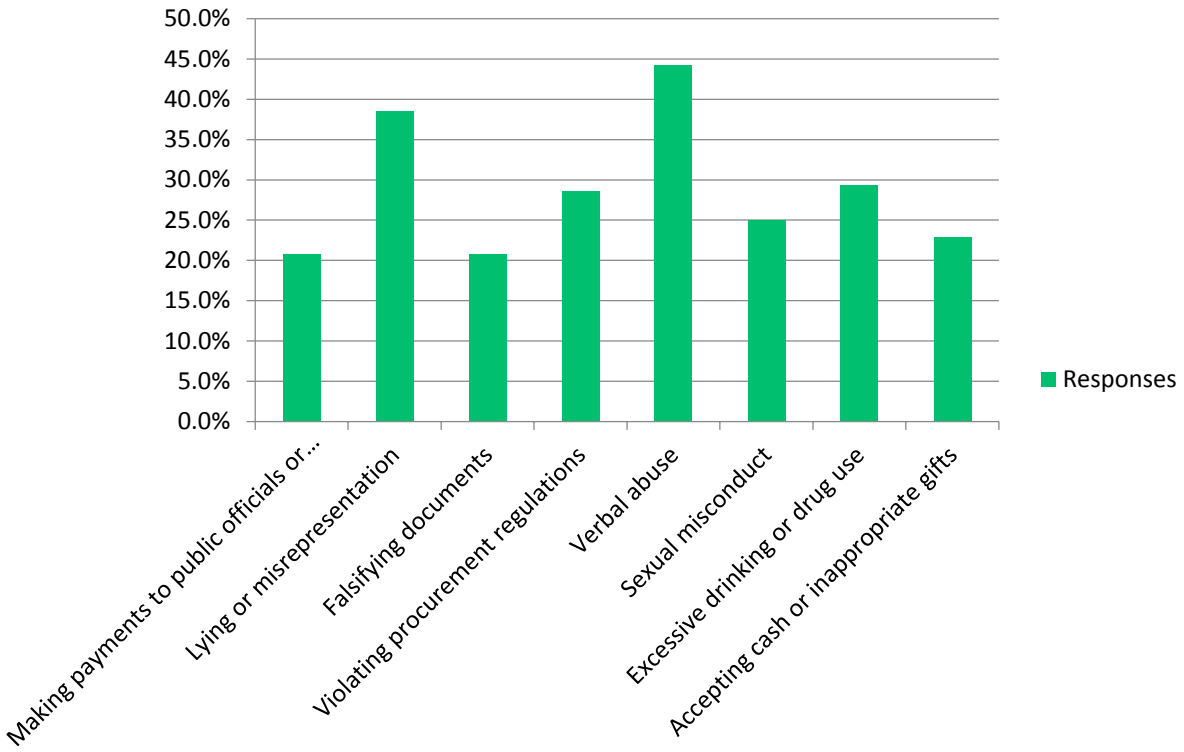
This set of questions only applied to 500 respondents, 40% of our survey population. We asked about ethics challenges bid and proposal professionals face when working in countries and cultures that operate under different ethical rules and norms. Our respondents provided the following responses to the question on general practices:



Q. 35 Working or trying to win work in another country	Strongly/Somewhat Disagree		Strongly/Somewhat Agree	
	Responses	Percent	Responses	Percent
Working in other countries or cultures requires me to accept certain unethical practices in order to win business.	303	**61.2%**	48	9.7%
I adhere to my country's laws and practices even if it means losing work.	22	4.4%	357	**71.8%**
I follow local customs even if they go against my country's laws or ethical practices.	273	**55.2%**	69	13.9%

Is our behavior different when we're away from home? Question 36 asked about behavior in environments where "nobody's watching," and where practices and standards may be different than in one's home country. Lying and verbal abuse stand out in this group of responses from 140 members.

Q. 36. When working in other countries, I have seen colleagues do things that would be unacceptable in my home country



Q. 36 I have seen colleagues do things that would be unacceptable in my home country, such as (check all that apply):	Responses	Percent
Making payments to public officials or contractors	29	20.7%
Lying or misrepresentation	54	**38.6%**
Falsifying documents	29	20.7%
Violating procurement regulations	40	28.6%
Verbal abuse	62	**44.3%**
Sexual misconduct	35	25.0%
Excessive drinking or drug use	41	29.3%
Accepting cash or inappropriate gifts	32	22.9%

Open-ended Comments

The final question in our survey offered respondents an opportunity to provide comments on their work, ethics challenges, items we failed to include that were important to them, or anything else. Comments, like the survey responses, were completely anonymous, with no identifying information.

In all, 148 people chose to contribute comments ranging from sharing how much they love their work, to stories about how members of our association have overcome severe workplace and sexual abuse. Some said they have never seen an ethics issue. Several commended APMP for undertaking this project. The word cloud below represents those responses.

All survey and email responses will be maintained for future qualitative analysis and reporting in the coming months.

Notes

The 7,351 survey distribution figure on page 1 indicates the number of invitation emails that reached APMP members. It does not include APMP members who had not provided email addresses or whose email addresses were invalid.

On all tables, “Responses” indicates the number of individuals who selected each category. “Percent” is based on total number responses to each question.

Excerpts from Responses to Question 37

Workload is a HUGE issue right now which leads to most of my dissatisfaction & stress.

I am glad that APMP is doing this. We need to have a voice in our profession even though we are low on the totem pole and don't have much say in our companies.

This was really enlightening. I never thought of compensation as an ethical issue, but it is! Thank you for the opportunity to participate. I learned a lot!

I work for a large corporation that takes ethics seriously.

Not all harassment and discrimination is conducted against those in traditionally disadvantaged groups. Those in traditional religions, majority ethnic groups, less known disabilities, and other social categories suffer as great or greater abuses.

The sexual harassment and discrimination experienced I believe is due to the construction industry being male dominated and it's not something that has occurred because I work in bidding it's purely because I work with men.

Thank you for developing this survey - looking forward to seeing the results.

We have no say in what we bid, but we have to sacrifice our personal lives and health to make hopeless bids happen.

Many of the questions felt incongruous or difficult to answer as an independent consultant but I've answered them as best I can.

Thank you for tackling this important issue(s) that is so often talked about and felt, but never actually captured as data so we can improve it!

Senior management tells itself that it's the proposal's fault when we don't win, but really it's the bid decision fault.

My biggest ethical concerns are how to handle dirty tricks by competitors.

But nobody listens to us and that's because we are just the proposal women and they are the business development guys rotating in and out, always thinking they know all they need to know. Thank you for listening

Age discrimination is hitting our industry.

Millennials demonstrate great confidence despite the fact that they know very little.

I can't believe this is happening to me, that I have been in effect pushed out of my job and company and have to start all over. Very depressed and very angry.

There aren't enough questions on this survey about men being discriminated against. Sometimes we are.

I'm just one woman in this world, but I like that I can be listened to here.

Thank you for helping us look at these issues as a profession, a profession I value highly.

I found out very late in my working career that I love doing Proposals. having said that, Proposals have to be a passion, and not a job. the hours and personal commitment is too big for just a 08:00 to 17:00 job.

Unfortunately, too often a proposal is hijacked by senior management on multiple levels…

Our team does not discuss bid and proposal ethics, but strong ethics are clearly modeled and expected.

…I have seen men who did nothing promoted over women who had more advanced degrees and won more work. There are golf tournaments where women are rarely included. There are fishing trips for men only.

Senior management politics is very difficult to fight because you never win. We need to know how to handle these situations better. Maybe APMP can help.

Thank you for asking these questions. It makes me feel good about APMP.

I am taking this survey at home. I don't trust them at work.

Business ethics is defined top down. Managers don't practice what they preach. Lots of politics, it's all about money and to he** with ethics is what I see. And on strategic level there are mostly men with huge egos...a big problem for ethics.

Thanks for this. Great Research. All Best!

This is a good exercise. Hopefully the data collected will help to create positive actions.

This was an excellent survey! I can't wait to see the results! Thank you!

I also think for the high pressure and the incredible workload, proposal specialists are not paid enough.

I think APMP is doing a good job of raising the profile and professionalism of proposal managers…

This was a great survey and an excellent topic that deserves the spotlight in our industry!

I like my boss as a person but she doesn't stick up for me.

Proposals are not valued in my company… We have low visibility and not much executive sponsorship…

Thank you for researching this topic and for the information gathering. It's so important in all our roles in this profession.

My current employer does a great job with ethics training and for "practicing what they preach." I haven't always had that experience at other employers, however.

When working with another country, I follow the laws of that country. I have not observed any of the statements in question #36.

How can this be 2018 and these ethical issues are worse than ever? I am hopeful this survey will lead to positive change in the proposal industry. I'm weary of running twice as fast to get half as far.

My firm is very ethical in regards to its clients, however bias towards its employees.

Every proposal manager I know is highly ethical.

Socio-Economic Class discrimination should also be considered in ethics. I've seen this type of discrimination by executive management level staff effect pay, promotions, and bonuses in contrast to performance values and metrics.

Thanks!

There should be some questions and consideration offered for discrimination based in body size and/or perception of health within this survey.

There is too much secrecy about bonuses and we all know why.

Would be good to include questions about identifying mentors to help change or assist in making lateral or upward shifts.

I am fortunate to work with a highly ethical company. I don't think ethics is a huge problem in the industry, but maybe I am wrong. I have had the opportunity to work with very ethical people.

The biggest problem I see is verbal abuse or unpleasant behavior from company executives.

One criteria I would suggest is, ask about the military experience, since many veterans are in this business. Keep in mind, there is a huge difference in values, ethics for someone in the military for 20+ years, and someone in the military for 4 or less years.

Love my job, but not thrilled with the current organization.

I have witnessed verbal abuse, open hostility, and inappropriate sexual behavior in my company, particularly of men working on the road, and with younger female subordinates.

I was never paid as much as "the guys" even though I won more bids and more dollars.

I am disappointed that disabilities were excluded in the list of discriminations throughout the questions.

Our executives entered into very ill-advised bids, things we had no business bidding and no past performance, and when we lost, it was the proposal's fault.

I think an APMP certification in business ethics in a good idea and would indeed provide value to our profession. However, as bid and proposal managers don't have much influence with senior management I'd be surprised if this kind of qualification would make any difference.

Women do not get treated well in our profession. I have seen male managers take advantage of female subordinates sexually. The women have no choice if they are to keep their jobs or get hired again. It’s a real problem.

I appreciate that APMP is doing this survey and hope it leads to good things.

Thank you for doing this survey. It is important to find the balance in companies in terms of ethics and a job well done. Looking forward to seeing the results of your work.

I think more focus on ethics would be welcomed!

Those of us who are independent consultants can't always afford to be full players in APMP activities, but this survey gives us all a chance to be heard. Thanks, guys!

Let's be real; "business ethics" is an oxymoron.

I will NOT compromise my values for money gain or any other reason.

Proposal teams should receive partial commission on wins. We are often held to a high win rate standard when win rates are not solely impacted by our performance.

I have noted on the annual APMP salary survey, that women are consistently paid less than men. It would be worthwhile to explore the reason why this occurs…

I have also observed pressure from sales/capture, and occasionally senior management to make unsubstantiated or exaggerated claims. This problem is pervasive…

…This forces the job applicant to either neglect to mention the existence of an active non-compete, or if asked, to lie about it. I have experienced this personally. It would be worthwhile to explore this issue, and techniques for addressing it as a job applicant.

I liked the way the survey was structured. I would be keen to know the results / summary... thanks

I have seen young women taken advantage of by senior B.D. men who had big expense accounts and promised them the moon. They soon left the company.

Thank you for doing this. This survey has made me think about how I work and where I work and I will be making some changes soon. There are problems where I work. This has helped me.

I am confident in my company's ethics and apply that ethical standard to all that I do. I am far less confident that other companies behave in the same fashion.

… In my experience, without exception, women are always paid less than men even where the role and experience are the same. There is a belief that women will be satisfied with less.

One important area of ethics that I observe a lot is large primes not meeting SB/DBE/MWBE goals, demanding pass-throughs to SB/DBE/MWBE subs to meet goals… I am very interested to see any correlations between size of company and ethics concerns.

I am happy to have a place where I can talk about what's going on in our industry and I hope that APMP really does stand up for ethical standards.

We have a policy at work on business ethics but no training is provided.

My concern is APMP should find out on how to sponsor its members from the poor countries like Tanzania this will motivate us and promote APMP activities in the third world countries.

The women I work with have it good and still complain. I don't get it what the fuss is about. We have racial discrimination, but that is everywhere and it's less now than 10 years ago. Things are good. I have a good relationship with my male boss and he is planning to promote me so I feel loyal to the company.

It is hard to comment on whether discrimination is an issue in our industry when it is an issue across the board.

Ethics is critical to take our professionalism forward, important to know how to deal with unethical situations that arise in organisations.

Several questions do not seem to apply to freelance consultants, but I have answered where I can.

…it is an important part of my value system and my tolerance for unethical behavior is very low. I will not work for a company or person whose values don't align with mine, which has led to short tenures with some employers in the past.

Great!

Appendix C

Countries Represented in the Survey Sample

Algeria	Hong Kong	New Zealand	South Africa
Australia	Hungary	Nigeria	United Republic of Tanzania
Belgium	India	Norway	Trinidad and Tobago
Brazil	Ireland	Peru	United Arab Emirates
Canada	Italy	Qatar	Spain
Columbia	Japan	Philippines	Sweden
Denmark	Korea	Romania	Switzerland
Finland	Lebanon	Russia	United Kingdom
France	Malaysia	Saudi Arabia	United States
Germany	Netherlands	Singapore	Zimbabwe

This page intentionally left blank.

Appendix D

Hood College IRB Approval Process Timeline and Documentation

APMP 2018 Ethics Survey Project Approval Timeline

Jan/Feb	Identified model questions in published sources
March	Developed questions and worked with APMP Ethics Director and Member Research Committee in United States and Europe to finalize
3/15/18	Received APMP feedback
3/30/18	Received feedback from doctoral committee members
4/12/18	**Submitted IRB proposal**
4/16/18	Received IRB notification of need for full review
4/20/18	**IRB meeting.** Letter issued with four concerns: • Informed consent • Control of identifying information • Explanation of how continuing education credit will be issued if responses are anonymous • Ability to opt out of questions respondents feel are too sensitive
4/22/18	Response provided to IRB addressing concerns
4/23/18	Conducted pilot test in MBA Capstone class
4/25/18	Incorporated pilot test edits
5/15/18	APMP conference: target survey launch date
5/17/18	**IRB approval** received

Hood College
Institutional Review Board
Research Proposal Template

1. **Title of Proposal:** Business Ethics Survey of Proposal Management Professionals

2. **Principal Investigator (PI):** Peggy Dufour

3. **PI Department:** Hood College Doctoral Program in Organizational Leadership, George Delaplaine Jr School of Business, Doctoral Program in Business Administration (DBA)

4. **PI Contact Information**: email address; phone

5. **Faculty Sponsor and Contact Information (if PI is a student):**
   Anita Jose, Ph.D., email address, phone

6. **Other Investigators:** None.

7. **Date of this Submission:** April 10, 2018

8. **Proposed Duration of the Project:** May 20, 2018–June 30, 2019

9. **Background Information and Research Questions/Hypotheses**:
   The Association of Proposal Management Professionals (APMP) is an 8,000-member international organization representing people who work in the business development area of bid and proposal management. The organization is establishing a professional certification in ethics and will use this survey as a baseline. Concurrently, I am studying the perceptions of members of the industry related to ethics issues, specifically gender pay equity. The survey represents an opportunity to fill both needs. The survey will collect responses on a wide range of ethics topics that typically confront proposal personnel. This will benefit APMP. From that collection, I will use a small segment of responses that pertain to gender pay equity and related perceptions and demographics, which will benefit research being conducted to fulfill requirements for my Doctorate in Business Administration in Organizational Leadership.
   By creating a broad ethics survey, I will be in a unique position to collect data that will be useful for research purposes beyond my current study and enable me to write about this subject further within my industry.
   My research topic area combines documented pay inequality based on gender with research since 1960 in the field of organizational justice, specifically, distributive justice, equity theory, procedural justice, interactional justice, interpersonal justice and informational justice, and their relationship to business ethics. Pay inequality statistics have been drawn from recent international and national studies, as well as studies done on several professions. No study has been done on proposal management professionals

and there is very little related literature on perceptions of marketing or business development personnel.

Survey questions were developed using questionnaires in gender equity perception studies published in peer-reviewed journals. Other sources included ECI's National Business Ethics Survey, as well as questions based on my 25 years of proposal development experience. The questionnaire was reviewed by Dr. Anita Jose, my committee chair and Director of the DBA Program, and Dr. Kathleen Bands, Director, Doctoral Program in Organizational Leadership, as well as by the chief ethics officer of APMP, the chairman of the APMP Member Research Committee, and committee members located in the European Union. The questions will be loaded into a survey instrument by May 4, 2018 and pilot tested by Hood College Graduate School students.

My research question is:

What is the prevalence of perceived gender pay inequity among proposal development professionals and does perceived pay inequity impact perceptions of employer ethics?

My hypotheses are:

H 1: Women will perceive a larger gender-related pay gap than men.

H 2: If individuals perceive that evaluation procedures are fair, they will report higher levels of satisfaction with their pay.

H 3: Individuals who perceive that they are gender-disadvantaged will report lower job satisfaction and lower employer loyalty.

H 4: Individuals who perceive greater pay inequity will report more negative perceptions of employer ethics.

10. Human Participants:

A. **Who are the participants**? Participants will be adult APMP members who live and work in 22 countries. The survey is an online instrument and is anonymous.

B. **How many participants do you plan to have in your study?** The survey will be available to 8,000 members of APMP. This is a first for the organization and we don't know what to expect, but given the wide geographical distribution of APMP members, I would be pleased by a
5%–6% response rate, although APMP expects it to be higher.

C. **How will the participants be contacted or recruited?** The survey will be promoted by APMP through electronic communication with members. Invitation letters will be distributed at the registration desk to the 900 members attending the 2018 international APMP conference in San Diego, in May 2018. Reminders will be texted to conference participants during the conference. There will be poster reminders and announcements about the survey at conference events. APMP will also send out an invitational email to every member with a link to the survey.

We will keep the survey open for two weeks and send a reminder email at the 10-day mark. This is typical survey practice for APMP to enable the widest participation by members from 22 participating countries.

D. **Will the participants be compensated for participating? If so, describe.** Participants will self-certify that they have completed the questionnaire and receive one (1) continuing education unit (CEU) credit from APMP, which can be used to achieve or maintain professional certification status.

11. **Procedures**: Participants will log into the survey site, take the survey and close the document. They may pause the survey and return at a later date.

12. **Consent:** Participation is voluntary and consistent with other APMP surveys. No personal identifying information is collected. Waiver of informed consent is requested.

13. **Risks and Debriefing:** It is not anticipated that any individual can be harmed by participating in this survey. Debriefing will take the form of delivering survey results to APMP for the purpose of establishing a baseline for its planned ethics certification program. Results of the survey are also expected to be published in the APMP Journal.

14. **Privacy and Storage of Data**: The anonymous survey will be conducted using an Advantage license from SurveyMonkey. This license enables longer and more complex surveys and offers greater data manipulation. When the survey closes, data will be downloaded to a password-protected Excel file and stored in a password-protected computer with external drive backup.

IRB Proposal #1718-16 Decision

Email from: Graves, Diane

Fri 4/20, 4:05 PM

Dufour Peggy; Jose, Anita; Bands, Kathleen

Dear Ms. Dufour,

The IRB Committee has completed a full review of your proposal (#1718-16). The Committee would like to see the following information from you:

1. Informed consent form/document. Typically, for an online survey, the first page that is presented to the participant is the informed consent information. You do not need to use the Informed Consent template (available on the IRB website: http://www.hood.edu/Academics/Provost-Office/Institutional-Review-Board.html). Researchers may instead draft a brief paragraph or two that contains this information. Participants indicate their consent by clicking on a button and that opens the survey.
2. Committee members would like you to include a disclaimer in the consent that indicates you will have exclusive access to any identifying information from the survey (and what you will do with that information at the end of the study). Concern was raised that since the link to the survey will come from the professional organization, as will the continuing education credit, it is likely participants will assume the organization will have access to their IP addresses and possibly other identifying information that may make some potential participants wary of disclosing ethical violations at their workplace. The disclaimer should also indicate that participants should ensure privacy in the environment where they complete the survey (for example, what if someone completes this at work and someone can view their responses with or outside of their awareness) since disclosure of this sensitive information may put the participant at professional and/or personal risk.
3. The committee would like clarification as to how the continuing education credit will be granted to the participants. Will you provide names to the organization? If so, that should be in the consent and participants should be able to "opt out" of that reporting if they prefer that. Do participants have to complete or just open the survey to earn the credit? That should also be clear to participants in the consent document.
4. Due to the sensitivity of some of the survey items, it will be important that participants have the option to skip any questions they aren't comfortable or don't want to answer. Typically that involves programming the computer survey software to allow participants to skip items. It may be that the default setting of the survey software forces a response before proceeding to the next question. The Committee would like to ensure participants are not forced to respond to sensitive questions on the survey.

We are excited for this study to proceed. We will review these documents and information as soon as you submit them to us because we recognize time is of the essence for you. Please let me know if you have any questions or concerns.

Sincerely,
Dr. Diane Graves

Associate Professor of Psychology and Counseling
Chair, Institutional Review Board
Hood College
401 Rosemont Ave.
Frederick, MD 21701

Response to IRB Concerns

Date: April 22, 2018

To: Diane Graves, Ph.D., Hood College IRB Chair
Anita Jose, Ph.D., Director, Hood College DBA Program
Kathleen Bands, Ph.D., Director, Hood College Doctoral Program

From: Peggy Dufour, DBA Candidate, Class of 2019 //s//

Subject: Response to IRB Concerns about Research Proposal #1718-16

Thank you for the committee's prompt response to my research proposal and accompanying survey. With Dr. Jose's help, I believe that I've addressed your concerns and hope that after reading this response you agree.

Please let me know your determination as soon as possible, as I also need to have APMP concur with these changes. Thank you for your support of this project.

Concern #1

Informed consent form/document. Typically, for an online survey, the first page that is presented to the participant is the informed consent information. You do not need to use the Informed Consent template (available on the IRB website: http://www.hood.edu/Academics/Provost-Office/Institutional-Review-Board.html). Researchers may instead draft a brief paragraph or two that contains this information. Participants indicate their consent by clicking on a button and that opens the survey.

Response: Our intention had been to include this information in the invitational email that contained the opening link—before they opened the survey. By clicking on the link and initializing the survey, participants would be indicating their consent. However, to respond to your concern, I have moved this information to page 1 of the survey. The text of this statement is as follows:

> Dear APMP Member,
>
> I am conducting this survey to support APMP Executive Director Rick Harris as he develops APMP's first certification in business ethics. By completing this survey, you will also be supporting my research toward a doctorate in business administration—thank you.
>
> This survey has been approved by APMP's Member Research Committee and the Institutional Review Board at Hood College in Maryland. This is an anonymous

survey. No personal identifying information or IP addresses are collected or retained. The survey link is a general link, and not specific to you.

When the survey period ends, the Internet link will be taken down and response data will be downloaded to an Excel spreadsheet. Without identifying information, neither I nor APMP will know who participated or be able to link responses to participants.

As a token of our thanks, APMP is offering one CEU credit for taking part, which you will self-report. Please see the last page of the survey for details.

Please answer as many questions as you can. By clicking the "OK" button below, you consent to participate.

Thank you,

Peggy Dufour, CPP APMP

Concern #2

Committee members would like you to include a disclaimer in the consent that indicates you will have exclusive access to any identifying information from the survey (and what you will do with that information at the end of the study). Concern was raised that since the link to the survey will come from the professional organization, as will the continuing education credit, it is likely participants will assume the organization will have access to their IP addresses and possibly other identifying information that may make some potential participants wary of disclosing ethical violations at their workplace.

Response: See above: (No personal identifying information or IP addresses are collected or retained. Neither APMP nor the research team will have knowledge of who participated.)

The disclaimer should also indicate that participants should ensure privacy in the environment where they complete the survey (for example, what if someone completes this at work and someone can view their responses with or outside of their awareness) since disclosure of this sensitive information may put the participant at professional and/or personal risk.

Response: To help ensure worker privacy, the following statement will be added to the invitational email containing the survey link:

> To ensure your privacy while taking this survey, we recommend forwarding this email to your personal email address and using your home computer.

Concern #3

The committee would like clarification as to how the continuing education credit will be granted to the participants. Will you provide names to the organization? If so, that should be in

the consent and participants should be able to "opt out" of that reporting if they prefer that. Do participants have to complete or just open the survey to earn the credit? That should also be clear to participants in the consent document.
Response: In APMP, CEUs are self-reported on the organization's website, indicating the activity, date, and the amount of credit. An adjudicator reviews the submissions only to ensure that credit amounts are properly recorded for each activity listed. This is an honor system used to maintain accreditations earned by members. To put this CEU into perspective, one CEU is what we would earn for listening to a half-hour webinar. To respond to your concern, the following statement has been added to the last page:

> Thank you for giving your valuable time to this project, which is of great importance to our organization. We will be reporting on survey results in future months—stay tuned.
>
> If you would like to receive one CEU credit for taking part, log on to your member profile on the APMP website and self-report your participation as: 2018 Ethics Survey. Because we don't know who took the survey, you're on the honor system when reporting.
>
> You can also copy and paste this direct link: www.apmp.org/members/certifications.aspx
>
> If you have questions or wish to provide additional information, please contact:
>
> Peggy Dufour, CPP APMP
> Doctoral candidate, Hood College
> (email address)
>
> or
>
> Ginny Carlson
> Chair, APMP Member Research Committee
> (email address)

Concern #4

Due to the sensitivity of some of the survey items, it will be important that participants have the option to skip any questions they aren't comfortable or don't want to answer. Typically that involves programming the computer survey software to allow participants to skip items. It may be that the default setting of the survey software forces a response before proceeding to the next question. The Committee would like to ensure participants are not forced to respond to sensitive questions on the survey.

Response: I have programmed the question logic to require answers to demographic questions to ensure that I have the basic data I need for my capstone dissertation. There is a "prefer not to answer option" for the question of race and others have "none" or "no answer" responses as

appropriate. These questions are ones that APMP members, who are working adults in the business community, are used to seeing on surveys and should have no difficulty answering.

On the ethics questions, I have programmed the logic to require a response to at least one of the many choices available among groups of sub-questions, meaning that respondents can skip ones within each section that they don't want to answer. If they fail to answer at least one sub-question, a prompt appears that says, "Please try to answer as many questions as you can." To further ensure comfort, all of these questions have a neutral value as a response option.

On other questions, such as, "Have you ever been pressured to conduct activities that were unethical…" I have kept the requirement to answer, but added a "No response" option, so the options are "Yes," "No" and "No response."

As a third means of addressing this concern, I removed the requirement to respond where I felt that APMP and I could live with very incomplete data, if that's what resulted.

Many of the questions in this survey were taken from other published surveys. The ethics questions were identical to or patterned after those on National Business Ethics Surveys that have been conducted by the Ethics & Compliance Initiative (ECI) since 1994 in workplaces in the United States and globally. Many people in the population I am surveying will have taken the ECI survey or similar ethics surveys in their workplaces. Most people taking these types of surveys forward them to their personal email accounts and take them from a home computer. We will include advice to do that in the invitational email. This survey is even safer than most in the workplace because it contains no unique identifying login information—the survey link is the same for all participants.

Attachment: 2018 Baseline Ethics Survey (pdf)

Appendix E

APMP Global Membership Demographics

Data summarized from member demographics survey completed on January 30, 2020

RESPONDENTS: 1,477; 15.6% response rate

GENDER

Gender	*n*	*%*
Female	941	63.7
Male	532	36.0
Other	4	0.3
Total	1,477	100.0

NATIONALTY

APMP 2019 Annual Report states that the organization has members living in 72 countries.

Highest level	*n*	*%*
U.S.	812	55.0
Non-U.S.	665	45.0
Total	1,477	100.0

AGE

Age Cohort	*n*	*%*	Birth years
Generation Z	8	0.5	After 1994
Millennial	432	29.3	1980–1994
Generation X	569	38.5	1965–1979
Baby Boom	358	24.2	1945–1964
Veteran	7	0.5	Before 1945
No year	103	7.0	
Total	1,477	100.0	

EDUCATION

Highest level	*n*	*%*	
High school	33	2.2	
Some college	158	10.7	
2-year degree	57	3.9	*Includes technical degrees*
4-year degree	700	47.4	*Includes Honors degrees*
Master's degree	497	33.6	*Includes J.D.*
Doctoral degree	32	2.2	
Total	1,477	100.0	

RACE, ETHNICITY

Race/ethnicity	*n*	*%*	
Black	39	2.6	*Includes African American*
Arabic	19	1.3	
Asian	100	6.8	
Hispanic	43	2.9	
Native American	12	0.8	*Includes First Nations, Pacific Islander*
Caucasian/white	1,169	79.1	
Another/mixed race	85	5.8	
No answer	10	0.7	
Total	1,477	100.0	

Appendix F

Results of PCA Analyses

Scales for Possible Use in Future Studies

1. Principal Component Analysis of BEP, 38-item scale, Cronbach's alpha = .926

Business Ethics Perceptions (BEP) Scale Components	Cronbach's	Item	Component Loading	Commun-
Exaggerations or omissions on resumes		*resumes*	.734	.650
Misrepresenting past performance information		*pastperf*	.672	.630
Bidding key personnel who will not work on the contract		*keyperson*	.664	.502
False or low pricing of bids/tenders		*lowprice*	.601	.546
Bidding what is known to be an undeliverable solution		*solution*	.604	.530
Failure to establish an ethics standard at kickoff meetings		*kickoff*	.498	.381
Lying to customers, partners, or employees		*lying*	.445	.599
Discrimination based on race, ethnicity, nationality or religion is a problem in the proposal industry		*PJ-discprob*	.800	.675
Discrimination based on sexual orientation is a problem in the proposal industry		*PJ-orientdisc*	.788	.655
Sexual misconduct/harassment disadvantaging women occurs in the proposal industry		*GWP-sexmiscond*	.785	.730
Gender discrimination affecting pay/promotion disadvantages women in the proposal industry		*GWP-genderdisc*	.783	.697
Discrimination based on age is a problem in the proposal industry		*PJ-agedisc*	.704	.553
Ethical misconduct occurs in proposal industry		*ethmiscond*	.641	.566
Discrimination in hiring or rewards based on race, religion, nationality, or age		*PJ-discrim*	.363	.481
Emotional exhaustion		*IJ-exhaust*	.843	.790
Overwork and burnout		*IJ-burnout*	.815	.742
Verbal abuse or other intimidating behavior		*IJ-verbal*	.670	.689
Hostile work environment		*IJ-hostile*	.669	.703
Demoralizing treatment by a supervisor		*IJ-demoralize*	.593	.672
Fewer promotions/lower pay based on gender		*GWP-genderpay*	.479	.533
Breaking or failing to fulfill a contract		*contract*	.692	.638
Illegal activity, e.g., bribery, fraud		*illegal*	.661	.505
Violating national laws to win foreign business		*violatehome*	.624	.491
Conflict of interest violations		*COI*	.570	.598
Travel or expense account abuse		*travel*	.543	.546
Failure to deliver what was bid		*failtodeliver*	.500	.568
Falsifying timecards; adding hours not worked		*timecard*	.498	.454
Failure to pay bid/proposal workers		*failtopay*	.378	.321
5. Observed Personal Misconduct	α = .807			
Sexual harassment		*GWP-sexharass*	.810	.798
Inappropriate sexual behavior in the workplace		*IJ-inappsex*	.792	.787
Alcohol/drug abuse in the workplace		*ETOH*	.541	.462

		Component Loading	Commun-alities
Confidentiality breaches	*confidential*	.695	.723
Theft of bid/proposal materials	*theft*	.657	.590
Inappropriate use of a competitor's information	*competinfo*	.615	.604
Violating noncompete/nondisclosure agreements	*NDA*	.594	.586
Using one client's material on another client's proposal	*clientmatrl*	.464	.426
7. Conclusionary Ethical Assessments α = .810			
The company I work for is ethical	*ethicomp*	.863	.806
My boss behaves in an ethical way at work	*ethicboss*	.860	.799

Note: All questions had five-value Likert scale response options. Rotation method: Varimax with Kaiser normalization. Rotation converged in 7 iterations. KMO = .937; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-square 20828,070, df = 703, $p < .001$.

2. PCA of Organizational Justice Variables (DJ, PJ, IJ Scales)

C			
My performance matters in my salary increases—if I work hard, it actually matters	*DJ-perform*	.811	.595
When I do a good job, I am noticed and given credit for the work I do	*DJ-noticed*	.731	.558
The process for raises/promotions is explained to me and is fair	*IJ-honestboss*	.729	.547
When we win, the people who deserve it are given full credit	*DJ-credit*	.707	.584
My job role (job title) is highly respected and deferred to on a proposal team	*IJ-role*	.680	.459
In my bid/proposal role, I have a lot of opportunity for promotion	*DJ-promote*	.637	.447
I am paid fairly for work compared to others in my department, on my proposal team, or in our industry	*DJ-fairpay*	.624	.355
Where I work, politics determines who gets paid well or promoted—not performance	*PJ-politics*	.624	.460
On our bid/proposal teams, I am listened to and respected	*IJ-respect*	.588	.393
Emotional exhaustion	*IJ-exhaust*	.944	.780
Overwork and burnout	*IJ-burnout*	.919	.723
Hostile work environment	*IJ-hostile*	.752	.729
Verbal abuse or other intimidating behavior	*IJ-verbal*	.728	.705
Demoralizing treatment by a supervisor	*IJ-demoraliz*	.620	.657
3. DISCRIMINATION (disagree/agree) α = .764			
Sexual orientation discrimination is a problem in the industry	*PJ-orientdisc*	.862	.730
Discrimination based on race, ethnicity, or religion is a problem in the proposal industry	*PJ-discprob*	.843	.706
Age discrimination is a problem in the industry	*PJ-agedisc*	.759	.635
4. SEXBEHAV (seen or experienced) α = .878			
Sexual harassment	*IJ-sexharass*	.917	.852
Inappropriate sexual behavior in the work environment	*IJ-inappsex*	.899	.839

Note: Rotation method: Promax with Kaiser normalization. Rotation converged in 4 iterations. Five variables cross-loaded on two or three components and were eliminated from the original 24 DJ, PJ, IJ scale items. Some items were reversed during analysis. KMO = .875; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-square 9683.733, df = 171, $p < .001$.

3. PCA of JOBSAT Job Satisfaction Scale, Cronbach's alpha = .810

JOBSAT Scale Components (disagree/agree)	Item	Component Loading	Commun-alities
I am satisfied with my job	*SAT-jobsat*	.851	.724
I would like to leave my job in the next year	*SAT-leavejob*	.791	.626
I get a feeling of accomplishment from my job	*SAT-accomp*	.751	.564
I feel valued by senior management	*SAT-valued*	.740	.548
I would like to change my bid/proposal role and perform a different role	*SAT-rolechange*	.639	.409
I am satisfied with my income	*SAT-income*	.558	.311

Note: This scale loaded as a single component that could not be rotated using Varimax with Kaiser normalization. All questions had five-value Likert scale response options. Some items were reversed for use in inferential statistical analysis. KMO = .832. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: Chi-square 2198.314, df = 15, $p < .001$.

This page intentionally left blank.

Appendix G
Compiled Respondent Comments to Q. 27, Q. 31, and Q. 37

Q. 27: Have you ever had to "look the other way" when witnessing ethics violations?

Appendix G-1: Q. 27 "Other" Responses	
1	Reported inappropriate actions
2	No, I address inappropriate actions when I see them regardless of impact
3	I refuse to look the other way
4	I call people out.
5	No, I voice my disagreement/draw attention to the issue at hand. I can't say that individuals or the company always does something about it, but I've done my part by speaking up. If any of their inaction leads to a situation I cannot tolerate, I'll find employment elsewhere.
6	quite the contrary I've called on it!
7	Yes, spoke up but was overruled
8	I was direted by my manager to not report it
9	No, I witnessed, did not look away, and escalated per corporate policy with great respect to directly observed facts.
10	Early in my career, there were such situations, but not involving a proposal group
11	Yes, because I knew nothing would happen and didn't want to be annoyed, different firm than I work for now
12	At my company, if I witness inappropriate actions I have authority as an employee to at least report to our ethics hotline, if not take personal action.
13	At my prior employer bullying behavior was tolerated, even after having been reported. Once that has been witnessed, loss of safely and credibility of human resources is given.
14	I have experienced inappropriate actions of others, but have addressed those situations directly or through proper escalation procedures.
15	Yes, though I clearly pointed out the problems, and management made a decision to proceed anyway
16	Yes but I raised it to superiors and action was not taken.
17	I refused to "look the other way"
18	Yes, but it was the norm at the company I worked at so there was nothing I could do
19	i was not aware at the time that it was wrong except that my conscience pricked me
20	I didn't have sufficient authority to speak up without fearing retaliation or embarrassment
21	Yes, I was instructed to ignore it upon complaint
22	if there are issues, managment has always been proactive to end it.
23	I used whistleblowing procedures
24	No, I spoke up.
25	I've followed reporting lines or directly addressed the issue every time
26	Yes, and it always led to my leaving the company (either my choice or theirs)
27	I argued the approach
28	I don’t look the other way and escalate ethics violations.

Q. 27 "Other" Responses	
29	No, you can establish a reputation for being ethical that will discourage people from trying to get you to go along with unethical behaviour. They know you will refuse so they don't ask.
30	No, I said something
31	No, I made waves and have received backlash for it.
32	It's all so subtle that it's hard to put your finger on, but the IT industry is definitely a boy's club and if you speak out, you stand out and become someone who's "hard to work with".
33	I've spoken up when that happens.
34	I never look away and have reported senior people
35	Anytime this has come close to being an issue I make it very clear that I will not take part - this nips it at the bud.
36	No, I did not permit the unethical behavior to occur.
37	I was unsure about how to handle heresay, but understood it to be reported by someone closer to the situation
38	Yes, it has happened and I always say something, and sometimes experience negative consequences.
39	No, there was an internal complaints board
40	Yes, observed supervisor (not current employer) lie to customer and he would have humiliated me on the spot.
41	I always speak up though I may be overruled by those above me.
42	I did not look the other way and left the company
43	no, i have said something
44	Problem was pointed out and corrected
45	Lack of confidence on knowing what to do
46	I have had to report actions to the appropriate HR or legal groups
47	Got involved and it hurt me professionally (retaliation)
48	I never look the other way and report what I see
49	yes, I raised it with my manager and was told to tolerate it and ignore it.
50	Yes, I raised it with my manager and was told to tolerate it and ignore it.
51	I dont allow it
52	Yes, I did what my immediate manager requested of me although I voiced my concerns. Afterwards, I let my bosses boss know what occurred.
53	Yes and I said I would not participate
54	Yes, I have brought forward concerns but ultimately looked the other way when overuled by team/a senior team member
55	No, escalation process is key - our company employs an anonomous ethics hotline
56	I'm known to speak up when needed.
57	I refused to do it.
58	No, I raised concerns but was 'let go.' Happened 3 times.
59	I speak up always!
60	No, and it cost me my job!
61	No, and I did what was appropriate.

Q. 27 "Other" Responses	
62	I have told sales I didn't wan't to part of it, but still comitted the bid
63	Yes. It was position limiting.
64	Yes, and I reported it and was retaliated against
65	No I faced and challenged it
66	I've been asked to look the other way when a sales person wants to massage stats (rendering them inaccurate) but have never complied with the requset.
67	I made clear my feelings to my Manager and asked to be removed from the bid if they continued. I was removed from the bid
68	Yes I looked the other way but also advised of the correct way to move fwd
69	Yes, I brought it to a superior's attention and experienced retaliation as a result.
70	not looking away, but having no power to change, my complaint ignored
71	When you are an independent contractor, you risk your livelyhood if you said anything every time you see things that are not kosher, which is often. You just have to say nothing or you pay dearly for it in terms of lost work. We have the leasst power of anyone on the proposal team, no matter how much experience we have.
72	It has happened in a different, non-proposal related job
73	I immediately reported the inappropriate action.
74	I "MAKE WAVES"
75	Yes, I ignored it or spoke up, as needed
76	Yes. I was a consultant and couldn't afford to be labeled a troublemaker.
77	Reported inappropriate actions
78	No I reported it
79	Have reported
80	The perpetrator was untouchable
81	Potentially, i work in a vacuum and it seemed one sided.
82	No, I refused to give in.
83	it hapenned with my manager who violates the most basic ethical rules and the company overlooks it. i have taken it to the MD level.
84	I have reported the behavour to the appropriate people
85	I've always raised a question when I see something inappropriate
86	No, because I would speak up and say something.
87	No, I always took action
88	I haven't and c above applied
89	No, I called it out and ensured it was acted on
90	No, I reported concerns and as a result left a firm as a result to tension post report
91	I didn't look away, but addressed it directly
92	No, I've spoken up...sometimes to my career detriment, though

Appendix G-2

Compiled Responses to Question 31: Experiencing unfair treatment (including hostility, bias, discrimination, and harassment) had this effect on me . . .

	Q. 31 "Other" Responses
1	Made me leave.
2	I quit
3	Changed departments and introduced me to the fun of proposals.
4	Gave me the motivation to start my own company.
5	Changed the way I interacted with other (unaffected) colleagues in a negative way.
6	Despite a career of complete high performance, my company hired a new BU lead who came from a competitor. He promptly brought in his "friends" and replaced all of our BU executives. My new manager was a woman with a chip on her shoulders. Came to the company with two months in the year, would not answer my personal requests for her expectations and goals (no communications), then proceeded the next Spring to "rip me to shreds" in my performance review. Had no plan to keep me going forward and tried to unethically pressure and burn me out so that I would quit. I was so distraught at what was happening, and purposely overworked by this manager, that I had medical problems and went out on medical leave. A lawyer I hired extracted significant settlement (money, management outplacement support, 6 months of COBRA coverage). I quit on a Friday (while still on medical leave) and had an interview for a consulting position the next Monday morning. They hired me on the spot and asked me to take off my jacket and start working immediately. Zero time unemployed.
7	Made me more seriously consider if I was at the right organization if I was going to be treated so disrespectfully. I had a male boss (at the time) who has/had a history of snapping at people and being nasty - blaming/shaming employees. It was rare, but one day he did it to me. I almost left, but he did apologize. But I've been struggling to feel engaged and valued since.
8	In early positions, when I was young, I faced gender discrimination in multiple workplaces. I do not see it at my current company.
9	Discrimination was a reverse as we are owned by a Spanish firm and they look down on all Americans that we are stupid and have told our Executives as such and removed their ability to make decisions and be able to carry out business in a productive manner. Our Ethics and Compliance is key and is in the forefront of our business, since there have been many violations and several indictments due to MWDBE business certification and practices, bribery, and political contribution schemes. We have a Compliance Officers and regular yearly scheduled certification, Ethics & Compliance weekly newsletter providing the latest or interesting news in compliance and ethics issues in government contracting. We also receive a Got Ethics Newsletter that provides a scenario about Ethics and Compliance and ask for comments or what you would do in that situation. We can submit questions to our Compliance Office at any time if any questions of a situation come up example gifts given during the holiday from subcontracts. When business leaders take steps to encourage ethical conduct, positive outcomes are the results.

Q. 31 "Other" Responses	
10	Caused me to seek professional treatment and medication for depression and anxiety
11	not the company I currently work for, i did end up leaving the one that made me feel this way.
12	As listed above
13	I have changed jobs to remove myself from abusive work environments.
14	This was at a previous place of employment that I quit
15	although issues have arisen over the years that cause disappointment, those times have been very few. Mostly, I had a very positive environment
16	I took action and provided documentation to HR of the unfair treatment. My supervisor was investigated and terminated from employment based on my (and other team members') information and documentation.
17	Actually did quit.
18	The time I experienced harassment, the issue was swiftly dealt with and I was fully supported by my employer.
19	Other people taking credit for a winning bid where I was the leader and initiator.
20	If I feel an organization is hostile or allows discrimination, I look for another job. I have been fortunate to be able to work for ethical firms.
21	I've experienced these things, but not with my current employer. The culture at my current job is the healthiest I've ever worked in.
22	It made me quit the company I was working for and find a better one to join.
23	I had to leave or was asked to leave employment.
24	no comment
25	Invaluable
26	Made me look for another job.
27	made me leave a former position
28	My answers are based on excess workload, writer's missed deadlines, response team cooperation, unrealistic customer deadlines, co-worker incompetence or work ethic, use of foul language in the workplace, lack of respect for my time,
29	Like a victim
30	I did quit
31	None of the above. I'm sure it happens, but much of this survey seems to unnecessarily stoke a fire I don't see of bias, discrimination, and harassment. I have worked primarily in a woman's world - all but one of my bosses for the past 20 years have been ladies and most of my colleagues have been women. I have worked in an integrated world - at my last job, I was the lone white male among a dozen black, white, and hispanic ladies with only two other men, both black, one gay. I'm offended by the tone of this survey because I think it drags us backward. When do we move forward?
32	Assume that the question is asking if I faced with such a situation, what kind of effects it will have on me rather than it happened on me previously.
33	Made me feel conflicted in how to manage my team.
34	Not in the bid and proposal industry.

Q. 31 "Other" Responses	
35	I never experienced unfair treatment (hostility, bias, discrimination, harassment) while working in proposals. Prior occupations, yes. Biggest issues I've experienced with proposals have been micromanagers (no trust), lack of growth potential, lack of respect, stuck with a low title while doing Director-level work.
36	My current employer DOES NOT make me feel this way at all. I two years ago I left a toxic environment.
37	I won't say I have never experienced unfair treatment, but I can't think of an episode that had an effect.
38	Made me quit
39	made me change employers
40	Made me fear for the safety and well being of me and my subordinate reports.
41	Had a mental breakdown that put me on disability for 2 years. Still dealing with PTSD.
42	I'd say I could be one of those lucky individuals whose bosses or company owners were satisfied of my support to them giving their money's worth, so, I couldn't say much in this regard. Except a stress related proposals we were doing, but that was because we (I also) want to win the projects - which indeed we did!
43	only recall one incident a long time back, where a manager called me at home during the last week or so of maternity leave threatening I would not have a job if I didn't return soon. (this is just BS of course) but it made me unhappy and caused me undue stress.
44	Experienced aggressive customer who used intimidation as a management style including threats to remove us from our contract. This was discussed with internal and customer management with little effect. Years later that customer was convicted for colluding with another companies CEO to accept millions of dollars in kickbacks and is now serving a federal prison sentence.
45	Affected my professional outputs through reduced quality, inhibited delivery, and created poor relationship with clients - all enforced by manager. I quit this job because the company was unethical (overpromised and overcharged and underdelivered very intentionally), and would have affected my standing in the industry long term if I had stayed. They were also tolerating/ encouraging extreme bullying from one employee.
46	Not sure this is on point; however, I offer the below. I was demoted because, although my efforts (including research for industry sector, client names and personnel across the firm experienced and willing to serve as industry sector resources to boost the local team's experience) won 80 percent of government proposals I was involved in, my new female, first-year middle manager felt I did not add enough persuasive statements to the government proposals. I worked on 2-4 new RFPs per week during that time. Drafts were 90 percent complete when handed to internal client. This abuse was more about a manager gaining experience in identifying a sub-par employee. Back story: I agreed to serve this specific group because they did not like the work product of the other department members, including the female middle manager, and liked my work product and management style (I had served them before). All other persons in the proposal department disagreed with female middle manager but were not heard. I still received a raise but did not qualify for a bonus.

Q. 31 "Other" Responses	
47	Discouraged innovation including sales opportunity pursuits
48	got fired
49	led to decision to leave one company (discrimination due to pregnancy), at another - led to my filing a ethics complaint
50	I left for another position
51	Lowered the quality of my work
52	Made me quit!
53	False accusations by superiors, without support from corporation
54	Or I had to work around it
55	I do not understand these questions. The first one is a complete sentence. The others are not. Is the convention here that the phrase "I have never..." applies to all others? Makes a big difference. So I pass on this part. Suffice to say, I am very pleased with my career choice and my clients. I am not unhappy, nor do I suffer from any other negative emotion or feeling due to my career, my clients, the workplace, etc.,
56	I experienced one unethical job position in my career, and I promptly quit that position. That was a decade ago, and since that time I've worked with wonderful clients and companies with no issues whatsoever.
57	Inspired me to become an independent consultant rather than an employee.
58	Made me less marketable for future work with the "red flags" multiple employers on my resume as I was either fired "without cause" (read: disability discrimination). or quit because of (MULTIPLE) managers' threats to make me quit.
59	Led me to look for employment elsewhere.
60	This was a previous company, not the one I work for now
61	Very demoralised.
62	Made me want to quit
63	Made me quit without a backup plan.
64	I have been sidelined out of major decisions that affected me and my team. It's hard to explain what that does to you, when they box you into a corner and don't listen. It doesn't sound bad, but it's very hurtful. I love what I do, but the senior people I work for are not playing it straight.
65	caused me to never contract to certain companies again, lowered my job satisfaction while contracted to certain companies
66	All in past roles; not in my current position or company.
67	I left that workplace for another, then returned to school for a masters degree and ultimately started my own company.
68	I've seen a lot of things in companies that shouldn't be happening. Inappropriate treatment of workers is the most common thing, along with failure to assess bid opportunities fairly and blaming the proposal team when the team loses. The guys at the top never take responsibility and they dump all over the proposal team, especially the expendable proposal consultants. It's not our fault.
69	As a contractor I refused new work from these customers

Q. 31 "Other" Responses	
70	I had to leave my last employer under a Settlement Agreement following bullying, punishment for whistle blowing and abuse that caused me to fall into deep depression and anxiety. With the space I have now I can see this was caused by two individuals, a company wanting to grow to quick and me being a very ethical person in an environment that was not. It was toxic.
71	This occurred at a previous job, not my current place of employment.
72	Actually quit
73	I held a senior position in my proposal center until management decided to hire a millennial to run the place. She doesn't know what she's doing, but she costs next to nothing and I'm supposed to teach her everything she needs to know. She gets all the attention and bonuses while I'm doing the work.
74	These issues occurred when working for a large organization. Currently, I am with a small team of consultants and we do not experience these issues.
75	Caused me to file a grievance, which was ignored.
76	I was happy in my job until I had a new manager, who brought in his friends from outside the company to take over my job. One of his friends was his live-in girlfriend. Things got difficult quickly and I filed a complaint with our ethics hotline. My bonus was cut by 90% and feeling like I had no alternative, I left the company. Hostile work environment doesn't begin to describe this. It's so unfair for a winning contributor like me to be pushed out for a sex partner of a new boss.
77	Made me want to transfer out of the proposal group
78	Made me defensive, made me quiet at meetings or more hesitant to speak up or ask questions, but also made me somewhat more driven to prove people wrong too (so a little motivation too)
79	I may have been discriminated against without me knowing.
80	After 17 years with the same company, my new supervisor's scorn and derision made me uncomfortable enough to leave and go to work for someone else. It was the best thing I ever did.
81	In previous jobs (in another profession) all of those things happened to me. In this position - none of those things has happened to me.
82	I did in fact quit.
83	Made me rethink applying for other positions within my company.
84	Because I do not have a four year degree I feel that I've been passed over by management for promotions, new opportunities, advancement, etc.
85	Motivated me to work for myself
86	Made me physically ill. I felt I couldn't quit because I'd be letting down the people who worked for me -- my team. I wish I had realized that by quitting, I'd have been setting a good example. I put up with abusive behavior too long. It came from capture managers and group executives who were raised in a culture of "yell loud and tell the girls to get coffee." There was no chance I would be valued no matter what I did or how many billions (yes billions) of dollars I won.
87	caused me to start job hunting in earnest...

Q. 31 "Other" Responses	
88	I am in the process of being pushed out of my job because of my age, seniority, and cost and being replaced by three (3) Millennial workers who have no training or experience. In the course of doing this, my new boss, who has no history with the company, has shut me out of all decision-making and is in effect not letting me run my organization. This has been humiliating and he is hoping I will just leave. My bonus went from $60k to $5k because he had to "spread it around" this year. I have been with the company for 20 years and have built a high performing organization that has won more than $35 billion in contracts. This is deeply unfair and inappropriate. He told me I should "explore other options while I was still attractive enough to find another job." how can this be happening in 2018?
89	Women run the joint. They can be fairly toxic to men.
90	Fired for refusing to work on my Sabbath
91	These feelings are based on a previous employer, not my current employer.
92	Non-technical, female as well as technical, female in the AEC industry remains a struggle

Appendix G-3	
Compiled Responses to Question 37: Do you have any other comments, questions, or concerns?	
	Q. 37 Responses
1	I have a graduate degree in Leadership & Business Ethics; it is an important part of my value system and my tolerance for unethical behavior is very low. I will not work for a company or person whose values don't align with mine, which has led to short tenures with some employers in the past.
2	N/A
3	Many of these topics are professional work force and business ethics topics not limited to bids and proposals. Unless specifically directed at Government procurement and how to handle ethical conflicts identified outside your own company.
4	The bid and proposal industry is very broad covering a large number of business sectors, I found some of these statements very sweeping in nature and therefore I did not answer them.
5	Will you publish the survey results on the APMP site?
6	Many of the questions felt incongruous or difficult to answer as an independent consultant but I've answered them as best I can. I think some of my answers may be influenced by activities from over 5 years ago as well which is the last time I had a conventional full time job in a corporate. Good luck with your dissertation!
7	No
8	Every proposal manager I know is highly ethical.
9	Working hard is not a test for recognition or higher pay. Working smart is. Do not confuse effort with results. An internal challenge is sponsorship for tools and processes to improve the overall proposal process (approx 90% commercial bid volume) in a corporation with about 11K associates, 90% of which are FTE.
10	This was a great survey and an excellent topic that deserves the spotlight in our industry!
11	I work in a male dominated world and have on occasion due to lack of experience in the roles that they fulfill have felt that I do not fit, even though for the most part, I am very good at what I do in my role. I think to some degree it has been an education process and a time crunch liability. With the down turn in the economy everyone is working to do more or the same with less resources.
12	All sales people tend to exaggerate claims, but when I check on their information, they accept my changes to their answers.
13	On many of the questions, there was no appropriate response for 1099/independent consultants. There were some--yes--but since this industry has a fair number of 1099's, the missing answer option was obvious. Overall, this is a pretty good survey. One criteria I would suggest is, ask about the military experience, since many veterans are in this business. Keep in mind, there is a huge difference in values, ethics for someone in the military for 20+ years, and someone in the military for 4 or less years.
14	It is hard to comment on whether discrimination is an issue in our industry when it is an issue across the board.

	Q. 37 Responses
15	Not sure, but when companies recruit for the positions, you never know what they are looking for - personality or skills. You are sometimes not sure why you got/didn't get the job. Also not sure what the distinction is between Bid Managers/Proposal Managers and Key Account/Business Development Managers. Who is responsible for bringing in the business? Some companies expect you to work in both roles. Is this a questions of ethics or an issue of serving the needs of the business?
16	Am a Head of Bid team, in Raha Limited company (Liquid OpCo) in Tanzania, am facing challenge of sponsorship to attend APMP conferences that will help me to understand on how to work ethically during the proposal writing. My concern is APMP should find out on how to sponsor its members from the poor countries like Tanzania this will motivate us and promote APMP activities in the third world countries.
17	N/A
18	We do sign a lot of code of ethics as part of our bidding processes but there is no one in the company that checks them. We have a policy at work on business ethics but no training is provided.
19	No
20	I am confident in my company's ethics and apply that ethical standard to all that I do. I am far less confident that other companies behave in the same fashion. My boss will support me in all ethics matters, but those who are compensated based on sales are more likely to be willing to bend the rules (and I could be looked upon by them as a trouble maker, though their managers/leadership are generally highly ethical. Industry salaries are often low because recruiters/hiring managers believe that hiring someone in the lowest possible range is a savings for the company (when, in fact, it leads to dissatisfaction and disengagement and turnover - ultimately costing the company more to replace with newer, less proficient employees, and the cycle begins again. In my experience, without exception, women are always paid less than men even where the role and experience are the same. There is a belief that women will be satisfied with less.
21	For question 35 ... I do not work with people outside the U.S., so an N/A option would be useful.
22	I liked the way the survey was structured. I would be keen to know the results / summary... thanks
23	I have been in my current position for approximately 6 months. Most of my responses are drawn from over 12 years working in proposal development in Higher Education. Despite its falsely promoted environment of inclusion and equal opportunity, Higher Education is very discriminatory, toward individuals who are not of a certain gender, sexual orientation, or ethnicity. In addition, individuals without a terminal degree are considered inferior, which is reflected in treatment, promotion and hiring.
24	Thank you for researching this topic and for the information gathering. It's so important in all our roles in this profession. My current employer does a great job with ethics training and for "practicing what they preach." I haven't always had that experience at other employers, however.

	Q. 37 Responses
25	For my entire full-time work as a proposal professional, I have worked for only one company, and my answers are based on that experience. My knowledge/perception of the way other companies do business is based on comments from co-workers who have worked for other companies or have friends who worked elsewhere; also my perceptions come from previous co-workers who have moved to other companies. Interesting survey. Best to you on your research and degree pursuit!
26	No thank you for getting this out there. I look forward to seeing the results.
27	I just wanted to note that the beginning of the survey all the violations was at my old company. As well as Q36. In my new company I don't see any of that. The Executive level at both places set the tone for the place.
28	None. Interesting topic.
29	No
30	Do not work in other countries. Proposals are a mixed bag among organizations - last organization built the culture from no respect to great respect. This organization has been a rough road to change the culture with mixed success. Still working on it. Love my job, but not thrilled with the current org.
31	No
32	I am disappointed that disabilities were excluded in the list of discriminations throughout the questions.
33	no
34	N/A
35	No
36	No
37	No
38	Please note my work current circumstances are fairly rare. I have worked at 4 companies and have been mistreated, overworked, underpaid and under valued in those roles. Also, while I don’t feel discrimated against based on race or gender, I feel that my job opportunities are limited by my name, which is long and “foreign” sounding. While I am highly qualified and experienced, I receive fewer interview requests based on resumes than my colleagues with similar experience do.
39	I think APMP is doing a good job of raising the profile and professionalism of proposal managers and I intend to continue my education and certification through APMP as I believe that will help me gain additional respect and inclusion in the strategic side of proposal development. I also think for the high pressure and the incredible workload, proposal specialists are not paid enough (at least in my company). I work for a great team and we all help each other out, I am able to work remotely, and my company offers great benefits. All of those things outweigh the somewhat low pay.
40	There should be some questions and consideration offered for discrimination based in body size and/or perception of health within this survey.
41	The questionnaire took more time than 10 minutes to answer (as stated in the distribution Email - not very ethical indeed...)
42	This was an excellent survey! I can't wait to see the results! Thank you!

	Q. 37 Responses
43	See previous "other" response. Not diggin' this survey, too much looking for divisiveness where it doesn't seem to exist.
44	This is a good exercise. Hopefully the data collected will help to create positive actions.
45	Na
46	No
47	I think thus is key element, but also think country specific rules is critical to have effective APMP training on this matter. Some areas are general no matter what.
48	no - Thanks for this. Great Reserach. All Best!
49	I work for an all-female team, so gender issues don't surface. Issues that arise are generally personality-driven. Our team does not discuss bid and proposal ethics, but strong ethics are clearly modeled and expected. My company requires annual ethics training related to healthcare and technology.
50	Unfortunately too often a proposal is high-jacked by senior management on multiple levels which are too often contrary to not just professional best practice from a proposal quality point of view. But from an ethical view as well. Comments such as "Don't worry, they won't check" or "Just 'whack' that stuff from the last proposal in" or "lets churn out bids", "What do we have to lose" "We need to be shouting from the rooftops" (even if that means falsifying/exaggerating) are typical comments from senior management without an understanding of the profession. Such comments are the scourge of all standards any self-respecting but isolated bid professional is trying to uphold and is detrimental to the profession's reputation if buyers not able to trust what is being pitched to them.
51	I occasionally witness employees loosing or they stop accruing paid time off due to not being able to take time off. I have even heard "At this point in your career that is expected!" Paid time off is a benefit and everyone should be allowed to take it or be paid for it.
52	NONE
53	My biggest ethical concerns are how to handle dirty tricks by competitors. I don't want to stoop to their level, but I want to win. Also, the customers who fall for these snakes' tricks are in danger of violating regulations that could cost them thousands or millions of dollars in an audit. How can I play fair, protect my (potential) customers, and still be aboveboard in my proposals?
54	Workload is a HUGE issue right now which leads to most of my dissatisfaction & stress. Would be good to have data on the average workload across the industry, even if you have to break it up by commercial and/or government.
55	I have never worked outside of the United States of America so #36 does not apply to me.
56	I was surprised at the number of questions at the start on demographics of respondents. I didn't think there would be that many questions like that. I almost quit the survey as I did not understand the relevance of these to the survey.
57	I have trouble answering questions in line of the "proposal industry" because my experience is limited to a few companies in Western Europe.

	Q. 37 Responses
58	I have seen increasing offers for 'contract work' through phone calls and recruiters reaching out -- I think this is bad for our industry overall and would welcome any input on how APMP can help employers realize the value of a FT proposal manager who is a permanent part of their team.
59	no
60	My answers to these questions reflect more than 25 years working for a variety of companies. I currently work for an excellent company that is highly ethical and treats employees well.
61	Socio-Economic Class discrimination should also be considered in ethics. I've seen this type of discrimination by executive management level staff effect pay, promotions, and bonuses in contrast to performance values and metrics.
62	Nope!
63	My firm is very ethical in regards to its clients, however bias towards its employees.
64	Thank you for doing this survey. It is important to find the balance in companies in terms of ethics and a job well done. Looking forward to seeing the results of your work.
65	Proposal teams should receive partial commission on wins. We are often held to a high win rate standard when win rates are not solely impacted by our performance.
66	no
67	I recently managed a proposal where I recognized some proprietary Terms and Conditions from an RFP/Procurement consulting company (33 out of 74 Ts and Cs). I immediately alerted the sales person, who used to write RFPs for a state agency. He recognized the seriousness of the situation and remained my ally throughout the process. He and I both knew that the solution was to tell the client procurement officer what we had discovered and ask for an RFP amendment, removing the proprietary Terms and Conditions language. We had been down-selected and the top three companies in our field (including my company) were the finalists. The salesman and I knew that if we had won, the other two company's lawyers would go through the RFP with a fine toothed comb and discover what we had discovered. Nevertheless our assigned lawyer put a gag order on the sales person, our capture manager and myself through our managers. The lawyer yelled at me, told me it was none of my business what our client does and that we cannot question the client, and my manager yelled at me and told me the same thing and told me not to talk about it with anyone. I also contacted the consulting company to ask them their procedures just to make double sure that this was proprietary material, without mentioning any names. They confirmed their process relies on a chain of custody. The sales person then directly asked the procurement officer where he got the Ts and Cs from. 33 out of 74 Ts and Cs were verbatim copies of proprietary materials. The client procurement officer said a new lawyer they hired put the Ts and Cs in the RFP. I had to defy all of the people who told me to keep quiet (the sales person was afraid of losing his job, as was I-- but I decided I didn't want to work for my company any longer if they would abandon our ethics we were all trained on annualy) and report the situation to my company's ethical complaint line. Then the intake person told me that it would take 30 days to investigate so I made a decision to just go to my company's senior most executive lawyer.

Q. 37 Responses	
	(continued) He sent a lawyer to meet with the client company and the Terms and Conditions were removed from the RFP (which I as the proposal manager and the sales person could have easily done ourselves in a request for amendment). Our company recently went through a merger/acquisition, and my new boss, the assigned lawyer, and the sales person's new boss were from our acquired company, and this company seems to have had a less collaborative working model. Our company empowered each employee to report ethical concerns. My company's highest lawyers told my boss what I had done and why what I did was correct and told her to pass along their thanks to me. It was not an easy process for me or the sales person or the capture person. However, after our company's ethical safeguard system were permitted to work through the problem, I still have my job AND my ethics are intact.
68	No
69	No
70	No other comments.
71	I recently changed jobs (4 months ago), having worked in the Construction Industry for 20 years, I now work for a Technical Consultancy. My answers would have been more negative if I was still in my old job.
72	No
73	Where there are local customs, regulations, laws, and they are ethical, we would respect business practices in the locality.
74	For question 24 "Seriousness or Importance of these issues to the Proposal industry" - I answered 'Very serious problem'. I did not mean that they are occurring rampantly in our industry but they need to be given a high focus & be dealt with seriously due to the potential impact if those activities occur.
75	I found out very late in my working career that I love doing Proposals. having said that, Proposals have to be a passion, and not a job. the hours and personal commitment is too big for just a 08:00 to 17:00 job.
76	No.
77	I work for a large corporation that takes ethics seriously.
78	Bid & Proposal Ethics will be a great session for the next APMP that I would attend. I don't think certification is beneficial, but training is valuable, especially for new proposal managers.
79	This was really enlightening. I never thought of compensation as an ethical issue, but it is! Thank you for the opportunity to participate. I learned a lot!
80	None at this time.
81	Not all harassment and discrimination is conducted against those in traditionally disadvantaged groups. Those in traditional religions, majority ethnic groups, less known disabilities, and other social categories suffer as great or greater abuses.
82	Thank you for doing this. This survey has made me think about how I work and where I work and I will be making some changes soon. There are problems where I work. This has helped me.
83	No evidence to tick the above

	Q. 37 Responses
84	I think an APMP certification in business ethics in a good idea and would indeed provide value to our profession. However, as bid and proposal managers don't have much influence with senior management I'd be surprised if this kind of qualification would make any difference.
85	no
86	no
87	Thank you for tackling this important issue(s) that is so often talked about and felt, but never actually captured as data so we can improve it!
88	No
89	No
90	No. Thanks for the survey.
91	Would be good to include questions about identifying mentors to help change or assist in making lateral or upward shifts
92	No
93	I'm just one woman in this world, but I like that I can be listened to here. I am taking this survey at home. I don't trust them at work. I like my boss as a person but she doesn't stick up for me.
94	Proposals are not valued in my company. They do not depend on us to keep the company afloat— most of our business comes from renewals. Sales people are not required to utilize our team when they receive an RFP from a customer. We don’t have control over the output if sales doesn’t come to us. We have low visibility and not much executive sponsorship. We are working on that, however our company is a meritocracy and top-down “rules” and forced processes are not taken well. People are largely encouraged to find the best way/the way they prefer to do their job. While this is great and provides a wonderful environment of freedom, we do feel frustrations with the lack of control and regulation.
95	I appreciaate that APMP is doing this survey and hope it leads to good things. Those of us who are independent consultants can't always afford to be full players in APMP activities, but this survey gives us all a chance to be heard. Thanks, guys.
96	I began experiencing these blatant ethical violations when I started working (at the age of 16). I've witnessed and experienced these things at every employer I've had over the last 40 years. But the worst violations I've experienced and witnessed are with my current employer. How can this be 2018 and these ethical issues are worse than ever? I am hopeful this survey will lead to positive change in the proposal industry. I'm weary of running twice as fast to get half as far.
97	no

	Q. 37 Responses
98	One important area of ethics that I observe a lot is large primes not meeting SB/DBE/MWBE goals, demanding pass-throughs to SB/DBE/MWBE subs to meet goals, or requesting work that does not align with our core services to meet goals. We also encounter large primes that are unwilling to partner or will dramatically cut our role unless we enter an exclusive teaming agreement (there are stated procurement requirements for State govt bids in our home state of Pennsylvania that small diverse businesses are entitled to be in multiple non-exclusive partnerships for each opportunity). I am very interested to see any correlations between size of company and ethics concerns.
99	I have noted on the annual APMP salary survey, that women are consistently paid less than men. A female co-worker has also mentioned this. It would be worthwhile to explore the reason why this occurs. I have also observed pressure from sales/capture, and occasionally senior management to make unsubstantiated or exaggerated claims. This problem is pervasive. It appears to be standard practice in the proposal profession for employers to require signed non-compete agreements as a condition of employment. However, the legal departments of these same companies will refuse employment to those who have disclosed they have active non-competes from previous employers - even though the applicant can demonstrate there is no conflict of interest, or a willingness to recuse themselves from projects where such a conflict may exist. This forces the job applicant to either neglect to mention the existence of an active non-compete, or if asked, to lie about it. I have experienced this personally. It would be worthwhile to explore this issue, and techniques for addressing it as a job applicant.
100	I am fortunate to work with a highly ethical company. I don't think ethics is a huge problem in the industry, but maybe I am wrong. I have had the opportunity to work with very ethical people. The biggest problem I see is verbal abuse or unpleasant behavior from company executives.
101	Women do not get treated well in our profession. I have seen male managers take advantage of female subordinates sexually. The women have no choice if they are to keep their jobs or get hired again. It’s a real problem.
102	No
103	I have learned a lot from working in this profession. Most of my hostile/toxic work environment responses occurred during my first year in the field at a nightmare job I left after one year; I observed the ethics violations at the job I had prior to this one where our CEO was guilty of these things (and was caught). My current job has been the most ethical and least hostile place I have worked at!
104	no
105	My responses are solely based on my proposal work only.
106	The sexual harassment and discrimination experienced I believe is due to the construction industry being male dominated and it's not something that has occurred because I work in bidding it's purely because I work with men. It has varied from company to company but I don't link it to the industry within which I work, I think it's just the way society places more blame on women for putting themselves in a position of risk, or dressing in an "appealing" manner etc.

	Q. 37 Responses
107	I think more focus on ethics would be welcomed!
108	Age discrimination is hitting our industry. Millennials demonstrate great confidence despite the fact that they know very little. I'm a senior adult male who is being "directed" suddenly by a 20-something female who has no experience but is oh so chipper every morning and socializes with the boss. I can't believe this is happening to me, that I have been in effect pushed out of my job and company and have to start all over. Very depressed and very angry. There aren't enough questions on this survey about men being discriminated against. Sometimes we are.
109	When working with another country, I follow the laws of that country. I have not observed any of the statements in question #36.
110	No
111	I have had a client try to have sex with me and ask if I ever wanted to have any more work from them. "I would like to hire you in the future..." These situations are very difficult for women. Men who are on the road, away from their homes and wives, can behave in ways they may not at home. Women can, too, but I've never been harassed by one. I said nothing and lost this important business relationship, which cost me many thousands of dollars, all because my male client acted inappropriately. These things happen more than any of us wants to admit. Thank you for helping us look at these issues as a profession, a profession I value highly.
112	I have learned all I need to know about ethics in Consulting Engineering in the Mining industry, from the Law courses given by APEGBC. There are specific issues that you haven't touched on in this survey. Generally though, these professionals are highly ethical.
113	Discrimination really happens. Racial discrimination gets a lot of attention and people are probably tired of hearing it, but women are treated badly in many large companies. I've answered many of the questions here based on my personal and painful experience in such a situation. I was completely surprised that this happened to me because before the new manager came, things had been good for many years. Senior management politics is very difficult to fight because you never win. We need to know how to handle these situations better. Maybe APMP can help. Thank you for asking these questions. It makes me feel good about APMP.
114	none
115	My role in the proposal/bid group changed 1 1/2 years ago when proposals became part of a 'shared service' and I reported to a group of millennial women who outwardly wanted to get rid of older professionals. I was fortunate that colleagues in my company created a position for me within the estimating department, but I am no longer doing proposals.
116	The women I work with have it good and still complain. I don't get it what the fuss is about. We have racial discrimination, but that is everywhere and it's less now than 10 years ago. Things are good. I have a good relationship with my male boss and he is planning to promote me so I feel loyal to the company.
117	A lot of questions did not apply to me since I am currently a consultant who does not work for a specific company for very long.

	Q. 37 Responses
118	I like my job, most of the time, and I'm good at it. I get frustrated that our proposal team has to work hard and long hours for little reward. The Sales team (our customers) don't really value our stills and management will take the side of Sales over the proposal team.
119	I have always worked in big corporates where there has been a strict policy on ethics and compliance thereof. The only time I experienced otherwise was when working for a small company (<10 employees) where there was a total lack of ethics and you were penalised if you did not turn a blind eye. I was bullied and emotionally traumatised by the experience and would be very nervous to join a small company again.
120	N/A
121	Bid Managers are not respected by colleagues or peers. We do not earn the respect of our teams. We have to Police teams constantly. We are babysitters! We are not appreciated.
122	i am interested in knowing how the team at APMP have been selected. i have a huge concern about one of the leading members who is very unethical and wonder how (she/he) ended up as part of the team.
123	n/a
124	no
125	This section didn't really apply to me. I've worked with others from other countries, but they adhered to U.S. rules, etc.
126	Some of these questions only apply to people employed by firms, not independent consultants like me. For the survey design it would be better if these could be skipped as N/A rather than having to complete them.
127	I an so glad that APMP is taking a leadership role on this topic. I was attacked while working on a proposal in a client's office after hours -- by a security guard who knew I was working upstairs alone. Instead of dealing with the problem and making the rest of the proposal team aware and safer, the company pretended it didn't happen. I have witnessed verbal abuse, open hostility, and inappropriate sexual behavior in my company, particularly of men working on the road, and with younger female subordinates. I was never paid as much as "the guys" even though I won more bids and more dollars. Our executives entered into very ill-advised bids, things we had no business bidding and no past performance, and when we lost, it was the proposal's fault. The senior managers were all men and they took care of each other. I finally had the courage to leave, but not before I had an ulcer and had become so depressed I considered suicide. I'm a normal, intelligent, happy person...my job and the company culture were toxic. I didn't want to let down the people who worked for me, so I stayed too long. This is something that needs to be talked about. APMP is doing the right thing. THANK YOU.
128	no
129	What is viewed as ethical in the 'west' may be perfectly acceptable in a foreign country and not viewed as unethical nor may it be illegal except if you are working within the reach of the FCPA or the UK anti-bribery act. ie UK or US company operating overseas. Local companies will not have the same ethical view.

	Q. 37 Responses
130	The options given for question 24 do not align with how the question is worded (level of importance vs how problematic). I believe those are serious issues we should always be mindful of and attending to, but in my experience they have not been serious problems.
131	No further comment.
132	NO
133	I've never worked in a foreign country.
134	In general, I think, or my perception is, that the tail-end (sub-group) of the baby boomers has endured the worst of the corporate business cycle by being the one group that experienced the most benefit cuts and layoffs in a working career while the millennials will likely see the best of the corporate business cycle through improved work conditions, prosperous environment, and pay, of which has been largely been made possible by the actions of the Baby-Boomer-Sub-Group nearing retirement.
135	I am in the process of being pushed out of my job because of my age, seniority, and cost and being replaced by three (3) Millennial workers who have no training or experience. In the course of doing this, my new boss, who has no history with the company, has shut me out of all decision-making and is in effect not letting me run my organization. This has been humiliating and he is hoping I will just leave. My bonus went from $60k to $5k because he had to "spread it around" this year. I have been with the company for 20 years and have built a high performing organization that has won more than $35 billion in contracts. This is deeply unfair and inappropriate. He told me I should "explore other options while I was still attractive enough to find another job." how can this be happening in 2018?
136	No
137	I work for myself, and so all of these ethical aspects are up-held by me as I believe fully in doing business with high integrity. Those breaches that I have witnessed have been my company but otehr companies within my industry or other industries such as construction. I will NOT compromise my values for money gain or any other reason.
138	Ethics is critical to take our professionalism forward, important to know how to deal with unethical situations that arise in organisations
139	Thank you for developing this survey - looking forward to seeing the results.
140	Let's be real; "business ethics" is an oxymoron.
141	Several questions do not seem to apply to freelance consultants, but I have answered where I can.
142	Most of my negative answers relate to my early involvement in the industry. Things have got much better recently.
143	Business ethics is defined top down. Managers don't practice what they preach. Operational people always get the blame but the BIG problem is on strategic level. Lots of politics, it's all about money and to he** with ethics is what I see. And on strategic level there are mostly men with huge egos...a big problem for ethics.