



EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION WITH MEETINGS: A CONTEMPORARY FACET OF JOB SATISFACTION

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Given the ubiquity, time investment, and theoretical relevance of meetings to work attitudes, this study explored whether organizational science should consider employee satisfaction with meetings as a contemporary, important, and discrete facet of job satisfaction. Using affective events theory, we postulated that meetings are affect-generating events that meaningfully contribute to overall job satisfaction. Two surveys queried working adults: Study 1 used a paper-based survey (n = 201), while Study 2 used an Internet-based survey (n = 785). Satisfaction with meetings was positively related to and significantly predicted overall job satisfaction ($p < .05$) after controlling for individual difference variables (e.g., participant background variables, negative affect), traditional job satisfaction facets (e.g., work, supervision, pay), and other conceptually relevant constructs (e.g., satisfaction with communication, organizational commitment). Exploratory (Study 1) and confirmatory (Study 2) factor analyses provided evidence that meeting satisfaction is a distinct facet of job satisfaction. Finally, as hypothesized, the relationship between meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction depends in part upon the number of meetings typically attended. The relationship was stronger (more positive) when meeting demands were higher and weaker when meeting demands were lower. Implications for assessment, leadership development, on-boarding, and high potential initiatives are discussed. © 2010 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

Keywords: meeting satisfaction, job satisfaction, work attitudes, meetings, groups, teams

As human resource management researchers and professionals, we have long recognized the applied, humanitarian, and theoretical importance of job satisfaction (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, &

Ilies, 2001; Parker, 2006). In this study, we argue that the way a company runs its meetings contributes to whether employees are satisfied and all the consequences this implies (e.g., retention and turnover). As researchers and practitioners, we have to pay

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attention, therefore, to the importance of meetings as a potentially powerful influence on firm success and its employees. This paper argues that meeting satisfaction is an important and contemporary facet of job satisfaction. We also lay the groundwork for future research into the conduct and impact of meetings.

As researchers and practitioners, we have to pay attention to the importance of meetings as a potentially powerful influence on firm success and its employees. This paper argues that meeting satisfaction is an important and contemporary facet of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction is a multi-faceted construct (Churchill, Ford, & Walker, 1974; Comer, Machleit, & Lagace, 1989; Lagace, Goolsby, & Gassenheimer, 1993). The most accepted and common facets of satisfaction (Judge, Thoreson, Bono, & Patton, 2001) are satisfaction with pay, promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969). These five job facets typically account for a substantial amount of the variance in overall job satisfaction (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002). Still, researchers have continued to work to identify other important and contemporary facets of job satisfaction. Taber and Alliger (1995), for example, emphasized that to understand overall job attitudes, researchers must examine the principal tasks and activities in which employees engage. Perhaps most notably, Brief (1998, p. 179)

discussed how the changing nature of work leads us to: (1) question if facets considered most central to job satisfaction are still indeed central and (2) study whether new facets or facets once considered peripheral to job satisfaction have become more central. Judge et al. (2001) contended that job-satisfaction research would benefit from research expanding the range of facets studied. They argued that the breadth of job characteristics needs to include all elements that may have become more salient in contemporary job settings. Similarly, Rogelberg, Leach, Warr, and Burnfield (2006) argued that “to understand components of overall job attitudes, one should consider the principal tasks/activities

in which employees are required to spend large amounts of time” (p. 94).

By heeding the above calls for research, our theories and talent management practices can adjust as needed, stay relevant, and maintain impact. The question then becomes “What other facets of job satisfaction should be considered and examined?” We propose that employee satisfaction with meetings is one such facet given its practical and theoretical importance. In the present set of studies, we introduce a measure of employee satisfaction with meetings and investigate this facet’s distinctiveness from the five traditional facets of job satisfaction. We also examine the importance of meeting satisfaction predicting job satisfaction by demonstrating the unique relationship between the two, while controlling for individual differences; the traditional five facets of job satisfaction; and other conceptually relevant variables such as communication and team satisfaction. Finally, we examine the degree to which the relationship between meeting satisfaction and overall job satisfaction depends on meeting demands.

Meetings: A Work Task of Practical and Theoretical Importance

Schwartzman (1986), in an early scholarly treatment of meetings, defined them as pre-arranged gatherings of two or more individuals for the purpose of work-related interaction. Consistently, and more recently, Rogelberg (2006) defined meetings as purposeful work-related interactions occurring between at least two individuals that have more structure than a simple chat, but less than a lecture. Meetings are typically scheduled in advance, last 30–60 minutes on average, and can be conducted face to face, in distributed settings (e.g., conference calls), or a combination.

The Abundance of Meeting Activity

Meetings remain a pervasive workplace phenomenon. In 1998, an MCI white paper,

“Meetings in America,” claimed that approximately 11 million meetings occur in the United States each day (MCI Inc., 1998). Estimates of the time an individual spends in meetings vary. Conservatively estimated, employees spend an average of six hours per week in scheduled meetings, although employees of larger organizations have a greater number of meetings (Rogelberg et al., 2006). Supervisors typically spend more time in meetings than those who do not supervise others (Brinkerhoff, 1972; Rogelberg et al., 2006). Van Vree (1999) found that in companies with fewer than 10 people, managers spent at least 10% of their time preparing and executing meetings. In organizations with 500 or more people, managers spent around 75% of their time on these activities.

Meeting Satisfaction and Job Satisfaction: Theoretical and Conceptual Links

To explicate the link between employees’ affective reactions to meetings at work (meeting satisfaction) and overall job satisfaction, we draw from the conceptual logic of affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). **Affective events theory (AET)** helps us to understand the connections between experiences at work and employee attitudes and behaviors. AET suggests, among other things, that **momentary affective experiences are triggered by work events that stem from features of the job, the workplace, and work-related activities.** The cumulative experience of these positive and negative feelings while working, along with their cognitive appraisal, in turn influence overall job attitudes (Diefendorff, Richard, & Yang, 2008; Fisher, 2002). The key question then becomes “Are meetings potentially important affect-generating work events, thus substantiating an overall link between meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction?”

Since the theory’s introduction, researchers have identified the types of work events with affect-generating potential. Basch and Fisher (2000) found that events triggering affective reactions at work included those pertaining to achieving goals, planning (e.g.,

coordinating future events), recognition (e.g., receiving praise), and acts of management. Of relevance to this study, these types of events commonly occur in meetings (Rogelberg, Scott, & Kello, 2007). As Tracy and Dimock (2004) asserted, meetings are one of the few workplace settings in which employees pursue a wide range of functional, relational, and cultural activities and objectives. They observed:

Groups solve and create problems, give information and misinformation, develop and rework policies, make retooled decisions, and while doing these focal activities build or fracture sense of community among participants, and solidify or cause tension among the communities that comprise any particular group. Meetings are where groups celebrate and challenge institutionally important values; they are also sites in which people display their own power and resist the demands of others. (p. 127)

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Research and theory on job-satisfaction determinants further substantiate the connection between meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction. Job-satisfaction theory has consistently found that characteristics of the work/job and characteristics of the social setting (e.g., coworkers) substantively related to job satisfaction in independent ways (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). Meetings, by their nature, contain both elements (Rogelberg, 2006). In meetings, for example, organizational actors make work-related decisions, disseminate information, and discuss and delegate tasks. At the same time, these activities are subject to social dynamics before, during, and after the meeting itself (Cooren, 2007; Mirivel & Tracy, 2005).

Considering the functions, purposes, affect-generating potential, and roles involved in this ubiquitous activity, people’s satisfaction with meetings seems ripe to ex-

amine as a potential contemporary facet of job satisfaction (especially as meeting demands continue to rise). Taken together, after introducing and psychometrically examining a measure of meeting satisfaction, the overarching hypothesis of the study is the following:

Hypothesis 1: Satisfaction with meetings is a contemporary facet of job satisfaction that will be positively and distinctly related to job satisfaction.

Research Approach

Considering the functions, purposes, affect-generating potential, and roles involved in this ubiquitous activity, people's satisfaction with meetings seems ripe to examine as a potential contemporary facet of job satisfaction (especially as meeting demands continue to rise).

We conducted two studies to assess satisfaction with meetings in respondents' current job overall as opposed to a specific meeting. This approach is akin to when employees are asked to rate their satisfaction with their work, peers, and other occupational facets. In all these cases, employees are providing overall reactions to a dynamic (not constant) attitude object unbounded by a specific time referent or specific situational context (Balzer et al., 1997). Furthermore, the satisfaction object is broadly defined in these cases, and respondents themselves construct its meaning. For example, when questionnaires ask respondents to complete work-satisfaction items, the directions typically do not explicitly state the specific nature of what they should and should not consider "work."

Across the two studies, we attempted to demonstrate the importance of meeting satisfaction as a facet of job satisfaction. Once research has established the construct's relevance (the focus of this study), future work should examine the principal causal mechanisms underlying the relationship; explore the nature of the construct in more depth, including evidence regarding its nomological net; and identify additional conditions where it may be more or less salient.

Furthermore, if meeting satisfaction proves to be an important variable in understanding job satisfaction, there are a host of practical implications. Most notably, organizations interested in job satisfaction (and most are, given the importance of these constructs in understanding citizenship, withdrawal, stress, and performance) should systematically assess meeting satisfaction among their employees. In doing so, they should consider how talent management systems can promote meeting satisfaction through accountability, training, and leadership development around meeting behaviors and practices.

Study 1: An Initial Exploration

Study 1 provided an initial examination of the meeting satisfaction measure and Hypothesis 1. Namely, we introduced a measure and identified its uniqueness and incremental validity to explain overall job-satisfaction variance beyond the five traditional job-satisfaction facets. We used the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) to assess job satisfaction facets. The JDI is used more than any other satisfaction measure (Rain, Lane, & Steiner, 1991; Spector, 1986) and is generally considered to be a well-constructed measure in the organizational sciences (Roznowski, 1989).

Method

Participants and Procedure

We implemented a convenience sampling strategy similar to one used by Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) by recruiting research assistants (RAs) from a class the first author was teaching. These 30 RAs then identified up to 10 working adults to whom they could distribute a survey. Other than working full-time, specific parameters were not provided regarding to whom the RAs should and should not choose to participate in the study. RAs were also not informed of the study hypotheses. As the surveys were collected, they were placed in unmarked envelopes and returned to the first author.

This resulted in 232 collected surveys. All participants were from the southeastern

United States. Participants who were not involved in meetings ($n = 18$) were dropped from the data set. A few individuals ($n = 13$) with extreme demographic values (± 3 SDs) were also dropped; for example, one person reported working 90 hours a week. The final sample consisted of 201 participants, 60% of whom were female. The mean age of participants was 36.5 years, ranging from 19 to 64 years of age. The mean tenure with their organization was 7.8 years, ranging from just a few months to 40 years. Of the 201 participants, 47% indicated that they supervise other employees and work an average of 43 hours per week. Of the organizations represented, 39% were private, for-profit, and quoted on the stock exchange; 30% were private, for-profit, and not quoted on the stock exchange; 9% were private, not-for-profit; 13% were public sector; and 9% were reported as "other." The organizations' sizes ranged from fewer than 45 employees (22%) to more than 3,000 employees (24%).

Measures

Facets of Job Satisfaction

The abridged version of the JDI (Stanton et al., 2001) was used to assess the five facets of job satisfaction: satisfaction with pay, promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself. Internal consistency reliability was acceptable ($\alpha = .80, .76, .86, .85, \text{ and } .78$, respectively). The measure contained 25 descriptor items (five for each facet). Items were answered on a 3-point answer scale used in the original version of the scale. The three choices were simply listed as "yes," "no," and "?" As recommended, a summed composite of the responses was calculated, with higher scores indicating greater satisfaction. Scores for each facet ranged from a low of 0 to a high of 15.

Job Satisfaction in General

The Job in General Scale (JIG; Ironson, Smith, Brannick, Gibson, & Paul, 1989) was used as a measure of global job satisfaction. This measure contained 18 descriptor items

using the same presentation format and 3-point scale as the JDI. Sample items included "Makes me content," "Undesirable," and "Enjoyable." As advocated, a summed composite of the responses are calculated, with higher scores indicating greater overall satisfaction. Scores for this scale ranged from a low of 0 to a high of 54. The internal consistency reliability was acceptable ($\alpha = .93$).

Meeting Satisfaction

A 6-item scale was used to assess participants' meeting satisfaction (Cohen-Powless, Rogelberg, & Luong, 2003). Participants were asked to think about their work meetings and indicate how the words presented described their meetings. Consistent with our proposed theoretical foundation in AET, we took an affective orientation to meeting satisfaction rather than a cognitive orientation. Building off the job satisfaction work of Locke (1976), higher scores on our measure reflected a positive or pleasurable affective state stemming from the assessments of the respondents' "meetings or meeting experiences." The measure was designed to mirror the measurement approach of the JDI in content, scoring, and appearance. As for content, six adjectives were used: stimulating, boring, unpleasant, satisfying, enjoyable, and annoying. These adjectives are nearly identical to how affective feelings are assessed in the other JDI facets. Again, identical to the JDI, a 3-point answer scale was used (yes, no, and ?). The measure was also scored as the JDI was scored. After reverse scoring negatively worded items, "yes" was coded as a 3; "no" coded as a 0; and "?" coded as a 1. A summed composite of the responses was calculated. Scores for this scale ranged from a low of 0 to a high of 18. The internal consistency reliability was acceptable for this scale ($\alpha = .85$).

Participants were asked to think about their work meetings and indicate how the words presented described their meetings.

Participant Background Variables

We assessed a variety of background variables in this study. Job level was assessed with the

TABLE I Study 1: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Meeting Satisfaction, Overall Job Satisfaction, and JDI Facets of Job Satisfaction

Variable	Range	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Meeting Satisfaction	0–18	9.73	5.73	(.85)						
Job Satisfaction	0–54	40.30	12.99	.61**	(.93)					
Work	0–15	11.82	4.32	.39**	.68**	(.80)				
Pay	0–15	8.02	4.87	.32**	.42**	.35**	(.76)			
Promotion	0–15	8.48	5.46	.31**	.39**	.29**	.28**	(.86)		
Supervisor	0–15	10.62	5.14	.47**	.52**	.34**	.27**	.36**	(.85)	
Coworker	0–15	12.11	4.00	.30**	.47**	.39**	.22*	.18*	.32**	(.78)

Note: *N* varies from 189 to 197. Figures in parentheses are alpha reliabilities for each scale.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

following item: “Assume there are 5 levels within your organization, with 1 being the lowest and 5 being the highest. At what level is your job?” Age, tenure, employment status, gender, organizational size, hours worked, and organization type were also assessed.

Results

Table I contains the descriptive data and intercorrelations for all the principal variables.

Meeting Satisfaction

Seventy-five percent of the meeting satisfaction scores ranged from 2 to 15, with an average score of 9.73 and considerable variability ($SD = 5.73$). Meeting satisfaction was unrelated ($p > .05$) to organization size and organization type as well as the participants' gender, job level, age, employment status, and tenure.

An exploratory factor analysis provided preliminary evidence of the psychometric independence of meeting satisfaction from traditional facets of job satisfaction. Principal axis factoring with varimax rotation was used for this analysis. Upon entering the items for each of the scales (i.e., pay, promotion, coworkers, work, supervisor, and meeting satisfaction), the analysis indicated the six scales defined six separate factors (eigenvalues > 1.0) with the meeting satisfaction scale forming a single factor (all loadings greater than .60). All items loaded onto their respective factor, and differences in loadings across factors were greater than .10, suggesting no cross-loading items (Tabachnick & Fidell,

2001). All individual item loadings were higher than .47 on their respective factors. After extraction, each factor explained a unique portion of the variance as follows: Factor 1 (Meeting Satisfaction) = 9.8%; Factor 2 (Promotion) = 9.5%; Factor 3 (Supervisor) = 9.2%; Factor 4 (Work) = 7.9%; Factor 5 (Coworker) = 7.6%; Factor 6 (Pay) = 7.5%.

Meeting Satisfaction as a Predictor of Job Satisfaction

Using simple linear regression to create a baseline model, meeting satisfaction was a meaningful predictor of job satisfaction ($\beta = .61$, $p < .05$) and accounted for 37% of the variance. To more robustly test our study's hypothesis, we next conducted a hierarchical multiple regression analysis (see Table II).

Using job satisfaction as the criterion variable, the block of participant background variables (those significantly related to meeting satisfaction and/or job satisfaction upon examining the correlation matrix) was entered first into the regression equation. This block was significant ($F(5, 177) = 3.54$, $p < .05$) and accounted for a moderate portion of the variance ($\Delta R^2 = .09$). In the second block, the job satisfaction facets were entered into the regression equation. The block as a whole was significant ($F(5, 172) = 31.84$, $p < .05$) and accounted for a large proportion of the variance ($\Delta R^2 = .56$). In the third step, meeting satisfaction was entered into the regression equation. The observed meeting satisfaction beta weight was significant ($\beta = .28$, $p < .05$). Despite being the 11th variable (five back-

TABLE II Study 1: Summary of Regression Analysis With Job Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable

Model	R^2	Adj. R^2	ΔR^2	B	SE B	β
Step 1: Control Variables	.09**	.07**				
Tenure				.10	.07	.07
Publicly Traded				-3.46	1.80	-.13
Privately Held				-4.13	1.90	-.15*
Private, not for profit				-5.22	2.40	-.11*
Other Org. Type				-.37	2.41	-.01
Step 2: Job Satisfaction Facets	.65**	.63**	.56**			
Work				1.21	.16	.40**
Pay				.26	.13	.10*
Promotion				.26	.12	.11*
Supervisor				.37	.13	.14**
Co-worker				.33	.16	.10*
Step 3: Proposed Facet	.70*	.68*	.05*			
Meeting Satisfaction				.64	.12	.28**

Note: $N = 182$. All coefficients are reported for the final step.

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.001$.

ground variables and five job satisfaction facets) entered into the regression equation, an additional 5% of the variance in job satisfaction was accounted for by meeting satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .05$, $F(1, 172) = 28.95$, $p < .05$).

Study 2: Replication and Extension

In Study 1, we found preliminary evidence that meeting satisfaction was distinct from and accounted for incremental variance in overall job satisfaction beyond the traditional job satisfaction facets. Although meeting satisfaction correlated positively with work, coworker, and supervisor satisfaction in particular, it was not merely redundant with these facets. Hypothesis 1, which stated that satisfaction with meetings is positively and distinctly related to job satisfaction, received support.

Study 2 sought to replicate and substantively extend Study 1's findings. In addition to the five facets of job satisfaction, we concurrently examined a wide range of conceptually relevant variables to determine if meeting satisfaction is simply acting as a proxy for these other factors or is important in its own right. These include potential

perceptual processes that are in common with meeting satisfaction as well as individual differences that may affect the perception of job satisfaction. We therefore re-examine Hypothesis 1 after controlling for each of the following sets of variables independently (to gauge effect sizes) and then as a set.

Organizational and Interpersonal Communication

Given that meetings are a principal vehicle for communicating and disseminating information (Rogelberg, 2006), meeting satisfaction could be a mere artifact of or proxy for satisfaction with or uncertainty about communication processes in the organization (Kramer, 1999; Kramer, Dougherty, & Pierce, 2004). This was a particularly relevant concern given that research has found that satisfaction with communication positively relates to job satisfaction (Downs & Hazen, 1977). To be thorough, we controlled for a broad range of constructs spanning the nomological net of satisfaction with communication between people and between the organization and the employees. These constructs for which we con-

trolled were: (1) overall satisfaction with communication at work (Spector, 1997); (2) horizontal communication satisfaction (Downs & Hazen, 1977), which reflects satisfaction with peer-to-peer communication and informal communication channels; (3) organizational integration communication satisfaction, which refers to satisfaction with the formal information employees get about the organization and immediate work environment (Downs & Hazen, 1977); and (4) targeting on a more personal employee level role ambiguity (Peterson et al., 1995), which represents clarity of communication about one's job.

Team-Member Satisfaction

It is believed that the nature of the relationship between meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction depends in part on meeting demands experienced.

Meetings by definition require interaction and social contact among meeting participants. For those formally assigned to work teams, meeting satisfaction could be redundant with satisfaction with team-member relationships, because team members compose the work meeting. Given this, team-member satisfaction should be controlled for. This is especially true as research has indicated that group-level meetings are more common among work teams (Barker, Mellville, & Packanowsky, 1993).

Negative Affectivity

Negative affectivity is the general tendency of an individual to experience negative feelings and emotions (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). It is the propensity to view the world and oneself through a negative lens. Meetings themselves are often the target of much ridicule and grousing (Baker, 1983). A meeting is an organizational activity where complaining is, indeed, socially acceptable (Rogelberg et al., 2007). Given this, it could be the case that satisfaction with meetings may represent the employees' negative affect. In addition, previous research has found that negative affectivity is negatively related to

job satisfaction (Brief, Butcher, & Roberson, 1995; Spector, Fox, & Van Katwyk, 1999). Some researchers have argued that this negative relationship with job satisfaction and other measures of well-being may introduce a bias or distortion into self-reports on these variables (Bond & Bunce, 2003). It is believed that individuals high in negative affectivity discount the extent to which they dwell upon unwanted thoughts and feelings, and this tendency carries over into reports of their overall job satisfaction. This represents yet another reason to examine negative affectivity as a control factor to better understand the relationship between meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction.

Affective Organizational Commitment

A final control factor was affective organizational commitment. Affective commitment and job satisfaction strongly relate to one another (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolynsky, 2002). Schwartzman (1989) observed that meetings are often metaphors for the organization itself—they can serve to define and symbolize the organization. It is plausible, therefore, that an employee's satisfaction with meetings represents the employees' overall feelings of attachment and belonging to the organization itself (that is, their affective organizational commitment).

Meeting Demands as a Moderator of the Meeting Satisfaction–Job Satisfaction Relationship

Employees vary widely on the number of meetings they experience at work (Rogelberg et al., 2006). Some employees attend an average of one meeting a month and others regularly have more than 30 meetings a week (Rogelberg, 2006). Because of this variability and past research showing job satisfaction facets to be more or less relevant in certain situational contexts (Scarpello & Campbell, 1983), it is believed that the nature of the relationship between meeting satisfaction

and job satisfaction depends in part on meeting demands experienced.

Meeting demands may serve as a strengthening or weakening factor: namely, high meeting demands may amplify the meeting (dis)satisfaction–job (dis)satisfaction relationship. In other words, **if you are experiencing more of a work activity** (i.e., a high number of meetings), **your affective feeling about that activity should factor more into your overall job satisfaction than if you were not experiencing that activity very much** (i.e., a lower number of meetings). This logic is consistent with affective events theory and a great deal of stress research (e.g., Barnett & Brennan, 1995, 1997; Frone & McFarlin, 1989) and theory (e.g., job strain theory; Karasek, 1979). For example, it is often the case that the impact of a negative activity or event on strain is mitigated when quantities of the activity or event are low and amplified when quantities of the activity or event are high (assuming a finite amount of personal resources). This leads us to the next hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Meeting demands will moderate the relationship between meeting (dis)satisfaction and job (dis)satisfaction such that the relationship will be stronger when meeting activity is high and weaker when meeting activity is low.

Method

Participants and Procedure

An Internet survey was created and hosted on an online platform. Prior to administration, we conducted extensive pilot testing (e.g., ease of use, technical difficulties, and completion time) designed for Internet survey research (Burnfield, Rogelberg, Leach, & Warr, 2003). Participants were recruited from the StudyResponse Center for Online Research. StudyResponse is an academic research project that recruits individuals willing to consider completing academic research surveys. As of August 10, 2005, StudyResponse had registered 95,574 individuals. After providing StudyResponse with our respondent parameter needs (working

adults), a random sample of 3,000 was drawn from the diverse population of employed individuals, mostly from the United States. StudyResponse sent a recruitment e-mail to the sample and then a follow-up e-mail one week later. Each correspondence contained a link to our survey. Participants were told we were conducting a survey about their “work experiences.” Respondents provided a unique numeric identifier when completing the survey so they could participate in a random drawing for an electronic gift certificate. StudyResponse samples have been used in a large number of research studies (more than 250) and published in a variety of academic journals including *Academy of Management Journal* (Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006); *Journal of Applied Psychology* (Rogelberg et al., 2006); *Journal of Personality Assessment* (Vodanovich, Wallace, & Kass, 2005); *Behavior Research Methods, Instruments & Computers* (O’Neil, Penrod, & Bornstein, 2003); and *Computers in Human Behavior* (Barbeite & Weiss, 2004).

The final usable sample consisted of 785 participants who had jobs with some level of meeting activity, 52.9% of whom were female. The mean age of participants was 38.11 years, ranging from 19 to 75 years of age. Participants’ mean tenure with their organization was 7.09 years, ranging from less than one year to 40 years. Of the 785 participants, 63.2% reported belonging to an ongoing work team or group and 51.8% reported that they supervise others. In terms of hours worked per week, 34.4% of participants reported working 40 hours per week on average; 15.8% reported working 45 hours per week on average; and 24.3% reported working 50 hours or more on average. Of the organizations represented by the participants, 18.3% were publicly traded, for-profit, and quoted on the stock exchange; 38.3% were private, for-profit, and not quoted on the stock exchange; 12.4% were private, not-for-profit; 22.5% were public sector; and

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8.5% of participants reported “other.” The organizations’ sizes ranged from fewer than 45 employees (27.3%) to more than 3,000 employees (24.8%).

Measures

Facets of Job Satisfaction, Job Satisfaction in General, and Meeting Satisfaction

The same measures used in Study 1 for the five facets of job satisfaction (satisfaction with pay, promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself), job satisfaction in general, and meeting satisfaction were again used in Study 2. Internal consistency ratings were acceptable for each scale ($\alpha = .74, .82, .78, .79, .83, .92, .88$, respectively).

Overall Satisfaction With Communication

Overall satisfaction with communication was measured using a set of four questions from a scale developed by Spector (1997) to assess job facets. The items were measured using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). A sample item was “I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.” The scale demonstrated acceptable reliability ($\alpha = .81$).

Horizontal Communication Satisfaction

A five-item subscale of the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (Downs & Hazen, 1977) was used to measure horizontal communication satisfaction (e.g., to rate satisfaction with “the extent to which informal communication is active and accurate”). The items were measured using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). The five items were averaged to create a composite score. The scale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = .86$).

Organizational Integration Satisfaction

A 5-item subscale of the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (Downs & Hazen, 1977) was used to measure organizational integration communication satisfaction. These

questions addressed the degree to which individuals were satisfied with information received on a host of topics (e.g., “My progress in my job,” “Departmental policies and goals,” and “Personnel news”). The items were measured using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied). The five items were averaged to create a composite score. The scale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = .85$).

Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity was measured using a set of five items (Peterson et al., 1995). Sample items included “I have clear planned goals and objectives for my job” and “I know what my responsibilities are.” Items were rated on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The scale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = .89$).

Team-Member Satisfaction

Satisfaction with team-member relationships was measured using a subscale from Wageman, Hackman, and Lehman’s (2005) Team Diagnostic Survey. A sample item is “I very much enjoy talking and working with my teammates.” The 3-item measure was rated using a Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This scale demonstrated good internal consistency ($\alpha = .76$).

Affective Organizational Commitment

Affective commitment was measured using a subscale from the Affective, Normative, and Continuance Commitment Scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1997). A sample item is “I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization.” The 4-item measure was rated using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). This scale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = .81$).

Negative Affectivity

Negative affectivity was measured using the Positive Affectivity-Negative Affectivity Scale (Watson et al., 1988). The 10-item measure

was rated using a Likert scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 5 (extremely). Sample items include “irritable,” “distressed,” and “afraid” as descriptors of how a person generally feels. This scale demonstrated acceptable internal consistency ($\alpha = .91$).

Meeting Demands

To assess meeting demands, participants were asked, “On average, how many meetings do you attend in a typical week?” This was the item used by Rogelberg et al. (2006), who advocated (and found) that assessing the number of meetings, rather than time spent in meetings, is a more sensitive and discriminating indicator of meeting demands.

Participant Background Variables

All background variables used in Study 1 (job level, age, tenure, organization type, and organization size) were also included in Study 2. For each, the questions were identical to those used in Study 1.

Results

Table III contains the descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the principal variables.

Meeting Satisfaction

Sixty percent of the meeting satisfaction scores ranged from 2 to 16, with an average score of 9.82. There was considerable variability among employees ($SD = 6.53$). Meeting satisfaction was unrelated ($p > .05$) to organizational type, gender, tenure, and the number of hours worked. Consistent with Rogelberg et al. (2006), the number of meetings was not directly related to satisfaction with meetings ($p > .05$). Meeting satisfaction, however, was correlated with job level ($r = .15$, $p < .05$) and age ($r = .08$, $p < .05$).

Discriminant Validity of Meeting Satisfaction and the Five Facets of Job Satisfaction

With the introduction of the meeting satisfaction measure in Study 1, an exploratory

factor analysis showed preliminary evidence that meeting satisfaction is distinct from the five traditional facets of job satisfaction as measured by the JDI. With Study 2, we used confirmatory factor analysis to provide further evidence that meeting satisfaction and the five traditional facets of job satisfaction are distinct. We used AMOS software (Arbuckle & Wothke, 1999) with maximum likelihood estimation to examine the fit of seven models (see Table IV). Because CFA requires no missing data at the item level, the item mean was used to replace any missing data just for these CFA analyses. Less than 5% of data were missing for each of the variables; thus, the mean is an acceptable substitute for missing data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

If meeting satisfaction is indeed distinct from the five JDI facets (satisfaction with pay, promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself), a six-factor model treating meeting satisfaction and each JDI facet as separate factors should fit best. The first model tested was a one-factor model constrained to assume that all meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction facet items loaded onto a single factor. Table IV presents the fit statistics for each model. As expected, this model fit the data poorly. The next five models tested were a series of five-factor models that combined the meeting satisfaction items with each JDI facet (satisfaction with pay, promotion opportunities, coworkers, supervision, and the work itself) in turn across models. In each model, the items for each JDI facet were constrained to load only on that facet, and the items for meeting satisfaction were constrained to load on each JDI facet in turn. A total of five models were run. These models fit the data better than the one-factor model but were far from optimal.

The final model tested was the six-factor model, which treated all constructs as distinct factors. Meeting satisfaction items were constrained to load only on the meeting satisfaction factor, and the items for each of the five JDI facets were constrained to load only on their respective factors and no others. The six-factor model clearly fit

the data better than any of the other models. The chi-square value was substantially lower for the six-factor model, the NNFI and CFI values were highest, and the RMSEA reached .05. In addition, all items in the six-factor models loaded reliably on their predicted factors (all were above .40). Meeting satisfaction item loadings ranged from .59 to .84. To show additional evidence of discriminant validity, we tested an alternative model in which the errors of the meeting satisfaction items were allowed to covary with the coworker and supervision satisfaction JDI item error terms. We did this because these two facets were most theoretically similar to meeting satisfaction in that experiences with coworkers and supervisors are often an integral part of meetings. The vast majority of covariances in error terms were not significant, lending further credence to the notion that meeting satisfaction is distinct from other facets of job satisfaction.

Finally, we provide further evidence of discriminant validity of the new meeting satisfaction dimension of job satisfaction by examining the average variance in the indicators accounted for by the construct (as opposed to measurement error), as recommended by Fornell and Larcker (1981). Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommended that the average variance explained by the construct should exceed .50 (50%). That is, at least 50% of the variance in the indicators should be accounted for by the construct rather than measurement error. The average variance explained by the new dimension, meeting satisfaction, was .54 (54%), exceeding this cutoff. In addition, Fornell and Larcker (1981) recommended that the average variance explained by the construct should exceed the variance in common between factors. The variance in common between meeting satisfaction and the five JDI factors ranged from .13 to .29. This is well below the variance in the meeting satisfaction indicators explained by the meeting satisfaction construct (.54). Thus, it appears that meeting satisfaction is distinct from the five JDI facets of job satisfaction.

Meeting Satisfaction and Job Satisfaction

Similarly to Study 1, we used regression analyses to assess the relationship between meeting satisfaction and the dependent variable of overall job satisfaction, controlling for a variety of relevant variables. Because effect sizes are inherently context dependent, we examined each set of control variables independently in respective models and then concurrently in the last model. This allowed us to get a better sense of the practical and relative importance of meeting satisfaction (LeBreton & Tonidandel, 2008) in the context of each of the various sets of control variables. We first controlled for any participant background variables related to job satisfaction and/or meeting satisfaction in all the following analyses (see Table V).

A simple linear regression was used to create a baseline model. The background variables were entered in the first step and as significant predictors ($F(3, 688) = 10.58, p < .05$) explained 4.4% of the variance in job satisfaction. Meeting satisfaction was entered last and was a significant predictor of job satisfaction ($\beta = .55, p < .05$) accounting for 29% of the variance.

Job Satisfaction Facets Controlled

After controlling for the participant background variables, the five job satisfaction facets were entered into the regression analysis. The job satisfaction facets as a block were found to be significant ($F(5, 661) = 252.44, p < .05$) and accounted for a large proportion of the variance in job satisfaction ($\Delta R^2 = .63$). Each of the job satisfaction facets also had significant beta weights illustrating its unique relationship to overall job satisfaction. In the next step, meeting satisfaction significantly predicted job satisfaction above and beyond the other predictors ($\beta = .13, \Delta R^2 = .01, p < .05$).

Communication Satisfaction Facets Controlled

After controlling for participant background variables, all four facets of communication

TABLE III Study 2: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations for Meeting Satisfaction, Overall Job Satisfaction, and JDI Facets of Job Satisfaction With the Principal Variables of Interest

Variable	Range	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Meeting Satisfaction	0-18	9.82	6.53	(.88)													
Job Satisfaction	0-54	39.18	13.69	.58**	(.92)												
Work	0-15	11.58	4.66	.44**	.68**	(.83)											
Pay	0-15	7.26	4.90	.33**	.41**	.24**	(.74)										
Promotion	0-15	7.99	5.35	.46**	.53**	.38**	.38**	(.82)									
Supervisor	0-15	10.41	4.80	.47**	.56**	.36**	.29**	.42**	(.79)								
Coworker	0-15	11.81	4.25	.40**	.55**	.37**	.26**	.32**	.45**	(.78)							
Communication Satisfaction	1-5	3.30	.87	.52**	.52**	.37**	.35**	.45**	.50**	.42**	(.81)						
Horizontal Communication	1-5	3.33	.75	.44**	.44**	.30**	.32**	.38**	.47**	.40**	.58**	(.86)					
Organizational Integration	1-5	3.32	.79	.51**	.58**	.40**	.42**	.49**	.51**	.39**	.63**	.69**	(.85)				
Role Ambiguity	1-5	3.77	.79	.37**	.45**	.34**	.24**	.30**	.37**	.33**	.61**	.49**	.57**	(.89)			
Team Member Satisfaction	1-5	3.70	.76	.32**	.38**	.23**	.14**	.27**	.36**	.33**	.38**	.49**	.41**	.40**	(.76)		
Affective Org. Commitment	1-5	3.22	.90	.48**	.58**	.49**	.28**	.42**	.39**	.34**	.56**	.47**	.50**	.46**	.45**	(.81)	
Negative Affect	1-5	1.83	.73	-.29**	-.44**	-.26**	-.25**	-.25**	-.34**	-.31**	-.38**	-.32**	-.33**	-.32**	-.43**	-.28**	(.91)
Number of Meetings	1-5	3.33	3.75	.02	-.02	.05	.06	.14**	-.04	.00	.01	.03	.03	-.05	.02	.08*	.06

Note: N varies from 550 to 755. Figures in parentheses are alpha reliabilities for each scale.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .001$

TABLE IV Study 2: Confirmatory Factor Analyses Model Fit Indices

Model	CFI	NNFI	χ^2	Df	RMSEA
1 Factor	.55	.49	4563.63*	434	.11
5 Factor (work and meeting satisfaction combined)	.82	.79	2086.27*	424	.07
5 Factor (pay and meeting satisfaction combined)	.82	.80	2032.64*	424	.07
5 Factor (promotion and meeting sat. combined)	.81	.78	2135.08*	424	.07
5 Factor (supervision and meeting sat. combined)	.84	.82	1871.68*	424	.07
5 Factor (coworker and meeting sat. combined)	.83	.81	1953.58*	424	.07
6 Factor	.91	.89	1252.89*	419	.05

Notes: N = 775. The one-factor models include meeting satisfaction and each of the five facets of job satisfaction: work satisfaction, pay satisfaction, promotion satisfaction, supervision satisfaction, and coworker satisfaction. The five-factor models combine meeting satisfaction with each of the five job satisfaction facets in turn. The six-factor models treat the six constructs as separate factors. CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index, also known as the NNFI (non-normed fit index); RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation.

* $p < .05$.

satisfaction were entered into the multiple regression equation. The communication satisfaction measures as a block were found to be significant ($F(4, 682) = 106.53, p < .05$) and explained 37% of the variance in job satisfaction. Three of the four communication satisfaction facets had significant beta weights. Next, meeting satisfaction was entered into the model, was found to be significant, and accounted for incremental variance ($\beta = .31, \Delta R^2 = .06, p < .05$).

Team-Member Satisfaction Controlled

Next, we controlled for team-member satisfaction. Only those indicating that they were part of a continuing work team were included in these analyses ($n = 546$). After controlling for the participant background variables, team member satisfaction was found to be a significant predictor of job satisfaction ($\beta = .24, \Delta R^2 = .16, p < .05$). In the next step, meeting satisfaction still contributed significant variance above and beyond that

of team member satisfaction ($\beta = .47, \Delta R^2 = .18, p < .05$).

Affective Organizational Commitment Controlled

Controlling for the participant background variables, affective organizational commitment significantly predicted job satisfaction ($\beta = .40, \Delta R^2 = .30, p < .05$). In the next step, meeting satisfaction was found to be significant, accounting for a sizable amount of variance in job satisfaction ($\beta = .38, \Delta R^2 = .11, p < .05$).

Negative Affect Controlled

Negative affect significantly predicted job satisfaction above and beyond the participant background variables ($\beta = -.33, \Delta R^2 = .20, p < .05$). In the next step, meeting satisfaction was found to be significant, accounting for a considerable amount of variance in job satisfaction ($\beta = .45, \Delta R^2 = .17, p < .05$).

TABLE V Study 2: Summary of Final Regression Analyses With Job Satisfaction as the Dependent Variable

Model	Baseline Model	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
	β	β	β	β	β	β
Step 1: Participant Background Variables						
Age	-.01	-.02	-.02	-.03	-.02	-.06*
Job Level	.09*	.06*	.06*	.05	.03	.10*
Supervise	.00	.00	.01	.03	.01	-.01
Step 2: Control Variables						
Work		.40**				
Pay		.13**				
Promotion		.12**				
Supervisor		.17**				
Coworker		.21**				
Communication						
Horizontal Comm.			.10*			
Org. Integration			.00			
Role Ambiguity			.30**			
Team Satisfaction			.11*			
Org. Commitment						
Neg. Affectivity				.24**		
					.40**	
						-.33**
Step 3: Proposed Facet						
Meetings Satisfaction	.55**	.13**	.31**	.47**	.38**	.45**
<i>F</i>	296.35	20.18	78.08	146.79	134.27	199.96
<i>R</i> ²	.33**	.68**	.47**	.36**	.45**	.42**
<i>Adj. R</i> ²	.33**	.68**	.46**	.35**	.45**	.42**
ΔR^2	.29**	.01**	.06**	.18**	.11**	.17**

Note: *N* = 400. *F* value is the change in *F* resulting from Meeting Satisfaction and ΔR^2 is the variance explained by Meeting Satisfaction. **p* < .05; ** *p* < .001.

Finally, we ran a final comprehensive model assessing the relationship of meeting satisfaction with job satisfaction while controlling for *all* the aforementioned conceptually related variables. Given the large number of correlated predictors in this “kitchen sink” model, individual beta weights were not very telling. Even when considered concurrently with all of these factors, however, the beta weight associated with meeting satisfaction remained significant (*p* < .05). Thus, even when examined concurrently, meeting satisfaction does not appear to be redundant with satisfaction with work, coworkers, team mem-

bers, supervisor, horizontal communication, vertical communication, positive attitudes about the organization in general, and negative affect.

Supplementary Analyses

Given the inherent diversity in our sample, we were able to examine all of the above analyses for each of the following groups separately: (1) employees in private, for-profit organizations quoted on the stock exchange; (2) employees in private, for-profit organizations not quoted on the stock exchange; (3) employees in private, not-for-profit organiza-

tions; and (4) public-sector employees. For each of these organizational types, the pattern of results and effect sizes were nearly identical to what was described above using all the data together. This was likewise the case for men, women, supervisors, and non-supervisors.

The form of the interaction, although not very strong, is consistent with our hypothesis, indicating that the relationship between meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction is stronger for those who have high meeting demands than for those with low meeting demands.

Meeting Demands as a Moderator

To investigate Hypothesis 2 regarding the potentially moderating effects of meeting demands, a moderated multiple regression was conducted following the procedures advocated by Aiken and West (1991). The two variables composing the interaction term were centered in order to reduce concerns related to nonessential multicollinearity (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). After accounting for the main effects (meeting satisfaction, $\beta = .55$; number of meetings, $\beta = -.05$, $p < .05$), the interaction term was found to be statistically significant ($\beta = .06$, $\Delta R^2 = .003$, $p < .05$). The interaction was plotted comparing high versus low meeting satisfaction with high versus low meeting demands on level of job satisfaction (see Figure 1). The

form of the interaction, although not very strong, is consistent with our hypothesis, indicating that the relationship between meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction is stronger for those who have high meeting demands than for those with low meeting demands.

Discussion

Employee satisfaction with meetings appears to be a contemporary facet of job satisfaction. In addition to exploratory and confirmatory factor-analytic evidence of uniqueness, meeting satisfaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in job satisfaction. The magnitude of the link between

meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction is more challenging to determine in an absolute sense. Effect-size indicators are inherently context bound, as discussed. That is, effect sizes associated with specific predictors are greatly affected by their order of entry and the other factors included in the models being examined. Across the models we ran, the effect sizes associated with meeting satisfaction as a predictor of jobs satisfaction (as indicated by ΔR^2 s) were .37, .05, .29, .01, .06, .18, .11, and .17. On average, it appears as if meeting satisfaction is both a statistically and practically meaningful predictor of overall job satisfaction (the average $\Delta R^2 = .16$). Importantly, we found that meeting satisfaction is not simply a proxy variable for the conceptually related constructs (taken independently or concurrently) of satisfaction with work, pay, supervision, advancement, coworkers, team members, horizontal communication, organizational integration communication, role ambiguity, overall communication, positive attitudes about the organization in general, and negative affect.

Overall, our results support the link between overall affective reactions to meetings (meeting satisfaction) and job satisfaction. Our results are consistent with logic presented in affective events theory that affect-generating events at work should have an impact on overall job attitudes such as job satisfaction. Although these two studies do not directly test propositions of affective events theory—in that we did not actually examine affect generated from daily and weekly meetings—the data do suggest that meetings are salient organizational events for understanding job satisfaction. In other words, the results support the notion that to understand organizational life and attitudes, organizational scientists should consider experiences in meetings. This idea is consistent with the earliest scholarly treatments of meetings authored by Schwartzman (1986, 1989). Schwartzman (1989) discussed how organizations “live” through the experiences of meetings. Meetings assemble individuals and groups and label that assembly an organizational action. According to Schwartzman

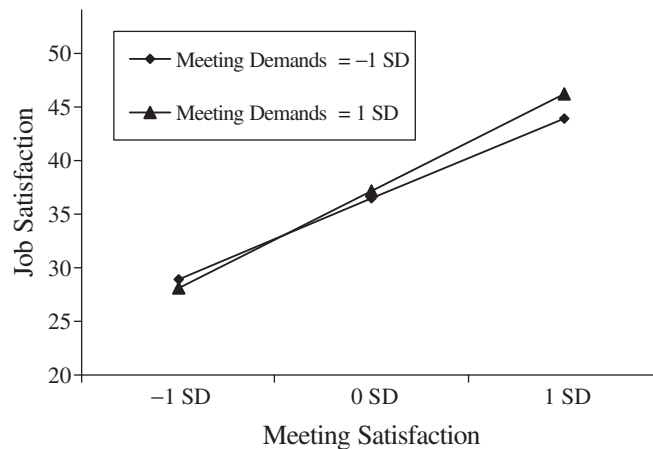


FIGURE 1. Meeting demands moderator. This figure illustrates the moderating effect of meeting demands on the relationship between meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction. Meeting demands moderates the positive relationship between meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction such that the relationship is stronger when meeting demands are high.

(1989), a meeting does much more than symbolize the organization because it may be a social form that helps constitute and reconstitute the organization through time. Meetings appear to be specific sites in which relationships among individuals, tasks, resources, roles, and responsibilities are developed and sustained through interaction (Mirivel & Tracy, 2005; O'Halloran, 2005; Poncini, 2002). Meetings are not only used to coordinate activities and share information. They also provide opportunities for members to demonstrate and make sense of their roles in relation to the roles others are playing (Boden, 1994; Cooren, 2007). Relatedly, meetings would also appear to be salient and tangible sites of peer and superior-subordinate interaction through which perceptions of qualities of the organization and the job are developed and reinforced (Fulk & Collins-Jarvis, 2001; Hodgkinson, Whittington, Johnson, & Schwarz, 2006; Lee & Jablin, 1995; Weick & Meader, 1992).

It is interesting to note that meetings can take on the characteristics of a typical stressor to some extent. Namely, when meeting demands are low, the relationship between meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction is weaker than when meeting demands are high. Interestingly, the observed effect appeared somewhat smaller than we expected. This may be due to the aforementioned role of meetings in fundamentally understanding

and experiencing organizational life. If a stimulus is sufficiently powerful (as we argue for meetings above), even less frequent events are sometimes enough to impact well-being (e.g., Brooks, Bowker, Anderson, & Palmatier, 2003; Chester, Lumeng, Li, & Grahame, 2003).

Finally, our results fit well with research conducted by Luong and Rogelberg (2005), who studied the psychological impact of meeting demands (e.g., time and number of meetings attended). Luong and Rogelberg (2005) found that daily fatigue and subjective workload were positively related to the number of meetings attended (e.g., more meetings, more fatigue). Taken together, both the quantities and qualities of meeting experiences are important to consider from an employee well-being perspective.

Limitations and Future Research

Our study was susceptible to common-method bias given that the predictor and criterion variables were assessed simultaneously on a common instrument (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Although we cannot definitively rule out the existence of this confounding factor, we should highlight several factors that, as a group, suggest that if it did exist, the effects were minimal to negligible. First, the hypothesized moderated relationship was indeed significant in the expected

direction. Although the presence of an interaction cannot be taken to mean that common-method bias is not present, it is unlikely that an interaction can be attributed to method variance (Evans, 1985). Second, our confirmatory factor analyses demonstrated that a single, general factor model fit the data poorly. Instead, the highly differentiated six-factor model best fit the data. Third, we controlled for a large set of attitudinal constructs measured with the identical or near-identical response scales as the predictor and criterion variables. It would be likely that this approach, which is akin to the partial-correlation procedures discussed by Podsakoff et al. (2003), would mitigate an explanation of our findings as common-method bias.

In addition, we heeded a number of the methodological recommendations advocated by Podsakoff et al. (2003) to reduce common-method bias. First, we attempted to create psychological and proximity separation by assessing meeting satisfaction independently of the other assessments. More specifically, we placed all of the meeting-satisfaction items on a single page of the online survey, with no other measures present. Second, Podsakoff et al. (2003) discussed how social desirability tendencies are often a precipitating agent of common-method bias. Hence, they suggested that respondents be provided with anonymity and that researchers reduce evaluation apprehension. To that end, our surveys were anonymous. Respondents were explicitly told not to put any identifying information on the surveys. Furthermore, given the nature of our sampling approach (i.e., using a respondent panel), it was obvious to respondents that their employers would not be in any position to see individual or aggregated survey responses.

In this study, we forwarded and found support for a general measure of meeting satisfaction similar in structure and content to the JDI facet measures. Future work, however, would benefit from examining alternative meeting satisfaction measures. For example, other measurement forms could include measures that discriminate across types of meetings, measures that provide the ability to better understand components

of meeting satisfaction, and measures that use more traditional Likert response scale reporting formats. Relatedly, much like other job satisfaction research (e.g., when asking about satisfaction with coworkers, embeddedness, or work satisfaction, etc.) we took a “holistic” measurement approach—employees provided an overall assessment of meeting satisfaction across experiences and time. The definition of meetings was left broad to be consistent with the broad definitions associated with the other JDI facets. Future work should examine meeting satisfaction in a more time- and context-dependent (meeting type) manner to determine if its predictive utility can be enhanced. Research of this type will help promote triangulation of the results and the search for the best possible measurement approach for meeting satisfaction.

Additional work is needed to examine the stability, dynamism, and key drivers of meeting satisfaction. **Some exploratory qualitative work we collected as part of Study 2 suggests that the following variables are potentially useful predictors of meeting dissatisfaction, over time: (1) excessive meetings with no substantive agenda, (2) meetings starting late and ending late, (3) overly large number of attendees at meetings, (4) dysfunctional member conflicts, (5) lack of appropriate and distributed participation, (6) meetings lack a strategic purpose, (7) unfocused discussion, and (8) lack of follow-through on what was discussed.**

Our data samples are not as neatly bounded as typical organizational research samples. Study 1 was an opportunistic convenience sample of working adults. It was a non-probability sample. Given this, the generalization of these data to working adults is made difficult in that without a known population we cannot determine whether the obtained data are, indeed, representative. As for Study 2, although we technically meet the definition of a probability sample in that a random sample was drawn from a defined population, these data also possess limitations. The defined population was a self-selected response panel. Its overall representativeness to working adults was not established. Furthermore, our

observed response rate was low. This further calls into question the generalizability of our data (Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007).

Although we may not be able to speak directly to the overall representativeness of our observed levels of meeting satisfaction in the absolute sense, it is noteworthy that the overall job satisfaction of respondents was quite similar to the overall job satisfaction of working adults in general, as indexed by the national norms associated with the JIG measure (Balzer et al., 1997). Furthermore, of most importance to this study, these types of data samples are very useful for examining correlations and associations among variables (Ostroff & Harrison, 1999).

In these studies, we focused on job satisfaction as the criterion variable. From our perspective, this appeared to be an important first step because job satisfaction has a long and critical history in the organizational sciences. In addition to its humanitarian significance, it is important from a behavioral perspective (Smith et al., 1969). For example, job satisfaction has been shown to be related to a host of task and contextual performance indicators as well as withdrawal behaviors (Judge et al., 2001; Locke, 1976). Still, future research should examine behavioral outcomes associated with meeting satisfaction. For example, is meeting satisfaction related to meeting behaviors (e.g., lateness to meetings, participation in meetings) and post-meeting activities (e.g., following through on meeting commitments)? Furthermore, from a theory-testing perspective, it would be useful to examine affective reactions directly following a meeting and across meetings throughout a day and a week. This type of more longitudinal examination would allow us to more directly test the efficacy of affective events theory in explaining our observed results.

Future work should also examine meeting satisfaction from a global perspective. For example, for Chinese and other Asian groups, compared to Americans, formal meetings are less likely to be understood as a site for decision making. Meetings are places to ratify a leader’s proposed directions, whereas pre-

and post-meeting gatherings are where much of the decision making actually occurs (Pan, Scollon, & Scollon, 2002). Cross-cultural studies or studies controlling for particular culture variables at the individual level (e.g., collectivism) could continue to explore the boundary conditions of this relationship.

Practical Implications for HRM and Conclusion

In addition to the research and theory implications of identifying a “new” and seemingly robust facet of job satisfaction, the current research has implications for practice. Most notably, it suggests that **organizations that see the value in maintaining and promoting employee morale and job satisfaction should not take meeting experiences for granted. Meeting satisfaction matters, not only for those with frequent meeting activity, but also those with moderate levels of meeting activity. It follows that organizations should regularly assess meeting satisfaction.** In our informal survey of 20 Fortune 500 organizations, this does not appear to be standard. Employee surveys or 360-degree leadership assessments are excellent tools to carry this out by containing a meeting satisfaction index.

Given results of an organization’s meeting assessment, organizational leaders could reasonably implement a host of potential interventions. First, managers may need to be held accountable for managing and working to improve meeting effectiveness (e.g., make it part of the performance-appraisal process). Second, it may be the case that managers and employees lack the skills to run effective and satisfying meetings. If this is the case, **training in meeting effectiveness could include a**

It follows that organizations should regularly assess meeting satisfaction. In our informal survey of 20 Fortune 500 organizations, this does not appear to be standard. Employee surveys or 360-degree leadership assessments are excellent tools to carry this out by containing a meeting satisfaction index.

variety of learning goals, such as whether to call a meeting, planning and disseminating meeting agendas, critical decision making, active listening, constructive conflict resolution, encouraging participation, and managing cultural differences in meetings. These may also be important behavioral dimensions for a leadership coach or mentor to take into consideration when seeking to promote leadership development and effectiveness. Additional recommendations for promoting positive meeting practices are discussed by Rogelberg et al. (2007). Furthermore, trade books on meetings abound (e.g., Tropicman, 1996).

Our findings also have implications for high-potential development initiatives. Leaders are stewards of their employees' time. Given the sheer amount of time spent in meetings compounded by the number of attendees, it is imperative that future leaders become highly aware and sensitive to how well they leverage, manage, and participate in meetings. This awareness provides a springboard for development, reflection, and, ultimately, individual accountability. Organizations can benefit by building this awareness as early as possible within the leadership pipeline. High potential development initiatives are a terrific opportunity to inculcate a sense of responsibility for the appropriate use and misuse of meetings. For example, high potential employees (or employees going through an on-boarding process) can undergo simula-

tion exercises so that their skills leading a meeting can be recorded and evaluated. Critical development feedback can then be provided. Furthermore, skill development can be enhanced by using 360-degree feedback systems targeting the effective use of others' time both in and outside of meetings.

As Schwartzman (1986) argued, meetings have escaped direct consideration by organizational scholars for too long. She argued that meetings have been explored primarily as a setting in which to examine other topics (e.g., small group decision making), but not studied in their own right—as an independent phenomenon. Situated at the nexus of individual, group, and job contexts, meetings do provide more than a mere backdrop for the emergence of more crucial phenomena. Though further research is needed, the studies reported here suggest that meetings are worthy of investigating in their own right. The strength of the relationship between meeting satisfaction and job satisfaction, even when controlling for a number of relevant factors, suggests that employees' experiences in meetings can no longer be ignored or taken for granted by human resource management researchers and practitioners.

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