

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE EFFECTS OF
HIERARCHICAL LEVEL
ON 'WORK MEANINGS'

by

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For Joseph & Clare

ABSTRACT

This study investigated the meaning of working for subjects from three levels of an organizational hierarchy. Employees of a high technology manufacturing organization were surveyed using an abridged version of the Meaning of Working questionnaire (1987). Five central domains of the 'meaning of working' concept were explored using this instrument, namely Work Centrality, Work Role Identification, Valued Working Outcomes, Societal Norms about Working and Work Goals. Results show a high level of shared perceptions by members of three hierarchal levels on 'meaning of working' variables, a finding which is at odds with past research, which for the most part indicates clear hierarchal effects. Such findings are discussed within the context of the internal processes of the organization. Results also indicated that members of the organization in which this experiment was undertaken, which is an advocate of progressive management practices, showed little commitment to the company itself. Additionally, the instrumental gains achieved through working were found to supersede self expressive gains, for the majority of those sampled, regardless of hierarchical level.

CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	i
ABSTRACT	ii
CONTENTS	iii
CHAPTER 1	
1.0	INTRODUCTION 2
1.1	The Changing Nature of Work 2
1.1.1	Technological Developments 4
1.1.2	Employee Management Techniques 4
1.2	Definition of Working 7
1.3	The Importance, Meaning and Functions of Working 8
1.4	A 'Meaning of Working' Model 11
CHAPTER 2	
2.0	REVIEW OF LITERATURE
2.1	Centrality of Work 16
2.1.1	Value Component 16
2.1.1.1	Work Commitment 17
2.1.1.2	Work Involvement 25
2.1.2	Decision Orientation 30
2.1.2.1	Life Sphere/behaviour 33
2.2	Work Role Identification 39
2.3	Societal Norms About Working 42
2.3.1	Historical Perspective 42
2.3.2	Societal Norms About Working 45
2.3.2.1	Entitlement Norm 47

2.3.2.2	Obligation Norm	47
2.4	Valued Working Outcomes and Work Goals	52
2.4.1	Valued Working Outcomes	52
2.4.2	Work Goals	53
2.4.3	Importance Evaluations of Work Outcomes and Work Goals	55
2.5	Meaning of Working and Hierarchal Level	59

CHAPTER 3

3.0	METHODOLOGY	
3.1	The Experimental Setting Described	63
3.1.1	Personnel Statistics	63
3.1.2	Employee Status	64
3.1.3	Employee Related Organizational Strategies	65
3.2	Operational Definition of Hierarchal Levels	67
3.2.1	Upper Management	67
3.2.2	Middle Management	68
3.2.3	Non Management	69
3.3	Design of Instruments	70
3.3.1	Centrality of Work	72
3.3.2	Societal Norms	72
3.3.3	Valued Working Outcomes and Work Goals	73
3.4	Sampling	74
3.5	Administration	75
3.6	Data Processing	75
3.7	Statistical Treatment	77

CHAPTER 4

4.0	RESULTS	80
4.1	Parametric Tests	80
4.2	Non Parametric Tests	84

4.3	Central 'Meaning of Working' Variables	87
4.3.1	Centrality of Work	87
4.3.1.1	Calculation of Centrality of Work Indices	87
4.3.2	Valued Working Outcomes	93
4.3.3	Work Goals	96
4.3.4	Work Role Identification	100
4.3.5	Societal Norms About Working	104
4.4	Cluster Analysis	108

CHAPTER 5

5.0	DISCUSSION/CONCLUSIONS	112
5.1	Discussion	112
5.1.1	Hierarchal Effects	112
5.1.2	Income and Working	115
5.1.3	Working Entitlements	116
5.1.4	Commitment to working in A Corp	117
5.1.5	Overview	119
5.2	Conclusions/Implications	122

CHAPTER 6

6.0	BIBLIOGRAPHY	125
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CHAPTER 7

7.0	APPENDICES	
7.1	Appendix I (The Questionnaire)	149
7.2	Appendix II	162

CHAPTER 1

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 THE CHANGING NATURE OF WORK

Today's work environment is increasingly characterised by rapid and often turbulent change. Those persons responsible for the effective operation of organizations are not only being confronted with increasing complexity within their organizations, but also with the abundant transitions that are occurring in the larger society. A common theme across these concerns is how can business organizations become more *effective* (organizational goal attainment, internal processes etc.) and more *efficient* (the cost of these goals in terms of money, personnel, equipment etc.) in changing environments.

The changing nature of the society in which we live as well as the evolution of technologies used in modern production processes have brought with them a need for the development of production systems that are flexible enough to cope with the constant flux of modern enterprise, without alienating the employee, as well as the development of human resource strategies that allow the "primary assets" of organizations to function effectively and efficiently.

"The foundation of national wealth is really people-the human capital represented by their knowledge, skills, organizations, motivations....the primary assets of a modern corporation leave the workplace each night to go home to dinner" (Johnston & Packer, 1987, p.116)

It has been suggested that a quick and natural death of industrial society as a work society is imminent (Schaff, 1985; Gorz, 1983). The introduction

of new technologies and their associated productivity increases, is seen as an agent for reducing the amount of time spent working, and as a direct consequence, decreasing the contribution of the individual to work life, in comparison to other domains of life. It is suggested that there has been a diminution of the traditional role of work in orientating individual perspectives, and of socializing people into society (Ruiz Quintanilla & Wilpert, 1991, p. 91). Wilkinson (1975) goes as far as to say that, even though work is imperative for most people (see also Warnath, 1975), it is loosing its potential to function 'as a basis of self esteem', and it has been suggested that leisure is now serving this function. "Leisuring means to engage in an activity freely, without compulsion either from outside forces or inner neurotic drives" (Neulinger, 1974, p. 158). In tandem, with the above, the increased desire amongst many employees for the establishment of a balance between work and family (Hall, 1986) may also be a contributing factor to the diminution of the traditional role of work.

The contention that Mankind longs to reach "the realm of freedom where labouring stops" (Marx, 1933: 873) is not new one. The age in which we live has transformed society into a labouring society, it is therefore feasible to speculate that with the imminent demise of the 'work society', our society may be "a society of labourers which is about to be liberated of the fetters of labour..." (Arendt, 1958 : 4-5).

Inglehart (1977, 1982, 1990) postulates the emergence of "post-

materialist values" in industrial societies. Individuals are expressing more concern for quality of life and the environment, and for self-realization, in contrast to the "materialist values" of economic growth and profit, and law and order etc.

If these "post-materialist values" are taken as a contextual background, with which to view the industrial developments since the late 1950's, a polarization of pre and post World War 2 work systems is evident.

Two areas of work system development where this polarization can be seen are : technological development and employee management techniques.

1.1.1 Technological Development

According to Halton (1983) the industrial world at the present time is undergoing a "second industrial revolution, through the new information-processing technology of communications and computers". Technology is not simply an engineering 'thing' a gadget or even a 'process', according to Kozmetsky (1982) "it is a national resource. Unlike natural and human resources, it is not consumed in the process of use. Rather, like a catalyst, it can be a stimulant, or it can be self-generating as in fusion. The use of technology creates more technology". Technology has forced upon industry the need for the development of work systems which optimise the human element in technology, whilst optimising the use of the technology itself.

1.1.2 Employee Management Developments

One area of focus for the development of strategies for coping with technological development is the development of employee management. But it must be said that the development of management techniques were not initially aimed at coping with technological developments. As early as 4000 B.C. the Egyptians saw the need for decentralization, planning and controlling in organized endeavour (George, 1972).

Since the early 1900's there have been considerable developments in thinking with regard to the management of organizations (e.g. Taylor's Scientific management, 1911; Henri Fayol's first complete theory of principles of management, 1916; Weber, Likert and Argyris : the emphasis on the application of psychology and social psychology into organization theory, in the late 1940's etc.)

The constant striving for the development of management systems that can maximise the output of employees within differing organizational structures, has changed emphasis in the last 20 years. The theories of the early 20th century regarded the employee predominantly as expendable, replaceable, and interchangeable. There was little emphasis on individual personality, differences in values and attitudes, and little outlets for the expression of feelings or emotions of the employees. Max Weber (1964) coined the term "bureaucracy" as a label for such organizations. In such organizations, impersonality was developed. Bureaucracy was seen as a system of law rather

than a system of man.

Bureaucracy is "capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency and the most rational means of carrying out control over human beings" (Weber, 1964). An aspect of this type of organizational management is that insufficient attention is given to human difficulties within the production process.

Management techniques, arising from the Human Relation School (For example Likert, 1961; Fox, 1971) attempt to redress the balance in favour of the individual employee. Techniques such as Participative Management and the development of Autonomous Work Groups give the individual a facility to express initiative and opinions regarding the production process. 'Direct control' by Middle-Line and Upper management has been forsaken for the decentralization of decision making process down the management hierarchy. The effects on the individual of this 'empowerment mechanism' are seen as positive (See Breugh, 1985). The increased motivational effects of employee participation, have an overspill effect on effectiveness and efficiency, and presumably as a consequence increasing profitability.

The idea of measuring the effectiveness or efficiency of management techniques in terms of quantifiable output has advocates in differing corners of industry. There are accounting measures of productivity (Foulke, 1968), economic measures of productivity (Freedman, 1961) and engineering measures of productivity (Bahiri & Martin, 1968). But an alternative is to

view work behaviour not in terms of the output of the individual, but as a consequence of a set of individual and societal variables. These variables can be labelled under the global concept of 'Work Meanings'. If it is possible to know the 'meanings' individuals attach to working, the organization of work systems which cater for these meanings is made possible. If job satisfaction is taken as an example of a work variable, a satisfied employee is a productive employee (Locke, 1970), analogous to this contention is that, if an employee has the majority of their 'work meaning' requirements met, they will be an efficient and effective employee.

1.2 DEFINITION OF WORKING

Before the concept of working can be examined it would be beneficial to broadly define what is meant. The American College Dictionary gives 46 noun and verb definitions of work. Part of the complexity in the definition of work, results from the fact that working does not have the same meaning and function for all people. Another complicating aspect is that work may take different meanings at different times, places, societies, and cultures (Tilgher, 1962). One of the only attempts to define working empirically was by Weiss and Kahn (1960). One fifth of the subjects interviewed, defined work as an activity which requires mental or physical exertion. Warr (1981) also regards working as providing an outlet for physical and mental energy.

In the previous and following sections the words "work" and "labour", as well as the adjectives, are used interchangeably to refer to the same

concept. This concept may be defined broadly as : remuneration for expenditure of mental or physical energy i.e. payed employment.

However, it must be said a definition of this kind has its critics (e.g. Kiuper, 1975), and in the broadest sense work may be defined as "the opposite to rest" (Packer & Smith, 1976). It must also be noted that Arendt (1958) introduced the distinction between work and labour, the latter denoting the often painful efforts of our body necessitated by its needs, the former referring to the work of human hands that have fabricated i.e. "the sheer unending variety of things whose sum, total the human artifice" (Arendt, 1958; see also Drenth, 1991). For the sake of simplicity, in the present study work shall be defined as paid employment.

1.3 THE IMPORTANCE, MEANING, AND FUNCTIONS OF WORKING

Working "...creates, defines and guarantees human existence" (MOW, 1987). While working has many functions, a crucial one for most people would seem to be its role as a means of providing food, shelter, and a variety of luxuries or non-essentials. Furthermore, working has social and psychological significance for individuals, and a broader economic and social meaning for organizations and for society as a whole.

If one accepts this view of working as being fundamentally important to individuals, to organizations, and to societies, the highlighting of the variety of common meanings attached to working by individuals has significant value.

Durkheim (1960), further concluded that it is mainly work and the division of labour that provides the social connections between man to man and creates the basis of social integration. "If men enter society through work what will be left of society if work ends? What is to be the course and the foundation of moral order when work ceases for many and diminishes for most ? " (Anthony, 1980 : p.424).

A majority of individuals in most economically developed societies achieve economic well-being from income created by work activities. But non-economic requirements are also achieved. It has been revealed by many workers that "even if they had enough money to support themselves, they would still want to work. Working gives them a feeling of being tied into the larger society, of having something to do, and of having a purpose in life. These other functions which working serves are evidently not seen as available in non-work activities" (Morse & Weiss, 1955).

Comparable studies assessing the willingness of individual to work, even though they are financially able to support themselves, indicate similar results. A total of 65-95% of individuals in differing labour force samples and in a variety of countries report that they would continue to work even if "they had enough money to live comfortably for the rest of their life without working" (see Vecchio, 1980; Warr, 1982; MOW, 1987).

The importance of working to individuals can also be demonstrated by

the effects of unemployment and retirement on persons who have pursued active working lives (Friedman & Havighurst, 1954).

"The finding that work has other meanings is consistent with observations of the effect of retirement and the effect of unemployment on men. If men work only for money, there is no way of explaining the degree of dislocation and deprivation which retirement, even on an adequate salary, appears to bring to the formerly employed" (Morse & Weiss, 1955).

In the interim period since the Morse & Weiss (1955) study, it has been suggested by Vecchio (1980) that Euro-American culture has undergone some integral changes in the value it places on work. The consensus amongst Cultural-change theorists (e.g. Whyte, 1956; McClelland, 1971) also points towards a depreciation of work value as well as modifications in employee attitudes, motivations and personal values (Odiorne, 1986). The increased desire for autonomy, self-development and meaningful work experiences is surfacing in many employees (Hall, 1986), and with it, compared to past generations of workers, a growing perception of entitlements to such experiences (Offerman & Gowing, 1990).

Young & Schuller (1991) have questioned the aftermath of work, "life after work" as they call it. Their research explored in some depth retirement experiences. While it is known that there is an increasing percentage of older people in the population, there is also discrimination against these in the context of employment. This discrimination leads to perceptions that older people cannot learn new skills, an idea which has been

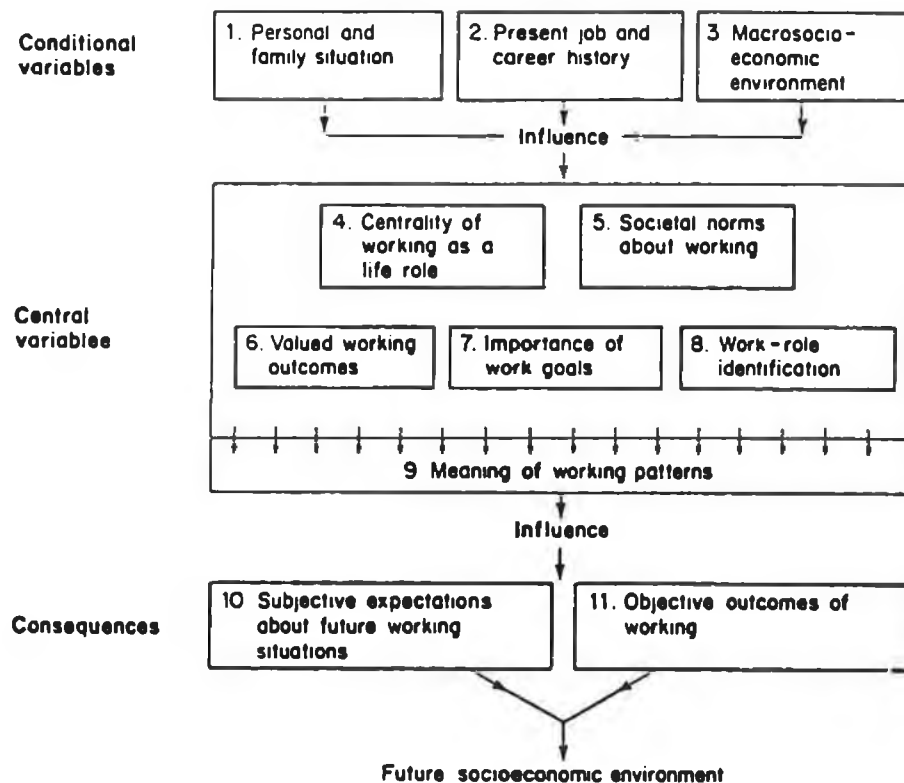
vigorously disproved (Warr, 1991). Young and Schuller (1991) found that many older individuals have been forced to suffer "enforced idleness, loss of status, and the accompanying loss of self-respect" (Heller, 1991), simply because they were not working.

Working, and the endeavour it implies would seem to be of significance to the individual in both the economic sense and in the socio-psychological sense. If no other activity can be found to substitute for the activity of working, demoralization of the individual may be the result.

1.4 A 'MEANING OF WORKING' MODEL

"A well-articulated theory of the meaning of working (MOW)...is not available" (MOW, 1987), therefore a 'heuristic' model, containing variable sets and relationships between variables which were considered of primary importance, was developed by MOW International Research Team (1987) (See Fig. 1.1).

Figure 1.1 Meaning Of Working Heuristic Model (MOW, 1987)



This 'heuristic' model seems to be the most logical starting point for the assessment of 'work meanings'. The variables inherent in the model are said to be interdependent, therefore it may be possible to evaluate 'work meanings' using a combination of these variables.

In the Meaning of Working study, in which the above mentioned model

forms the corner stone, subjects (n=14644) were chosen on a cross-national/cultural basis, using a cross-sectional data collection format, in 8 countries (U.S.A., Britain, Israel, Germany, Belgium, Japan, Yugoslavia and the Netherlands). Ten target groups were identified and samples were drawn from each country based on the criteria of target groups. Data was collected by interview based on responses to a predefined questionnaire, including open and closed questions. The project, in total, including planning, pilot studies, data collection and analysis, took nearly 8 years and included input from all 8 countries involved (For more detailed descriptions see MOW, 1987).

The scope and depth of such a study is impossible to replicate single handedly. But the value of the data collected by MOW (1987) has a definitive value with regard to surveying 'work meanings'.

There are five distinct meaning constructs which function theoretically to describe the different bases for the attachment of individuals to the phenomenon of working, these are : 1. Work Centrality; 2. Societal Norms with regard to an individuals obligations to work and entitlements received from work; 3. valued working outcomes; 4. work goals and ; 5. work role identification.

It is these five 'central variables' (as defined by MOW, 1987) that form the basis of the present project. Their potential usefulness for delineating 'work meanings' has been established, and within the limited context of this

study, have the capacity to yield a rich base of data from which inferences regarding 'work meanings' can be made.

The above mentioned study (MOW, 1987), although analyzing disparate target groups, did not assess any effects that hierarchal level may have on 'work meanings'. Previous research that has considered the effects of hierarchal level on employee adjustment has typically found significant influences (e.g. Tannenbaum & Rozgonyi, 1986 etc.) on various facets of work behaviour, for example job satisfaction (Fournet, Distefano & Pryer, 1966) (See also Chapter 2.5). However, although MOW (1987) did not examine results by hierarchal level, Coetsier & Spoelders-Claes (1986) did explore differences between 3 hierarchal levels on MOW variables. Results indicated significant hierarchal effects (3 of 5 hypothesises indicated significant hierarchal effects on MOW variables). The present project attempts to examine the influences of hierarchal position within the context of 'work meanings', bearing in mind past prove effects of same.

In Chapter 2, relevant literature on each of the above mentioned 5 meaning constructs will be reviewed. In Chapter 3 the methodology for the execution of the project, including questionnaire design and administration, data collection and processing etc., is reported. In Chapter 4 results are reported in table form, and discussed in detail in Chapter 5. Chapter 5 also discusses the organizational implications of the results established. Chapters 6 and 7 are Bibliography and Appendices respectively.

CHAPTER 2

2.0 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 CENTRALITY OF WORK

Work Centrality may be defined as : "*the degree of general importance that working has in the life of an individual at any given point in time*" (MOW International Team, 1987). Two separate theoretical components of the work centrality construct have been identified (MOW, 1987) :

- (i) a value orientation component of working as a life role, and;
- (ii) a decision orientation about preferred life spheres.

2.1.1 Value Component

The value component of work centrality is split into two constituent properties: identification with work and involvement or commitment to working.

Work identification is the outcome of a process of cognitive consistency based on a comparison between the perceptions of the self and work as an activity (Maurer, 1968; Lawler & Hall, 1970). The cognitive comparison leads to an individualistic identification with working, which may be central or peripheral to one's self image.

Work commitment or involvement is an affective response to working as an element of an individual's life (MOW international Team, 1987).

2.1.1.1 Work Commitment

"Commitment is viewed as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals of an organization, to one's role in relation to these goals and values, and to the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth" (Buchanan, 1974, p. 533). This process of accepting organizational goals and values and integrating them into a system of personal goals and values is viewed by researchers as "organizational identification".

The importance of the concept of commitment appears to stem from its linkage with several important employee behaviours (Mottaz, 1988). For instance, some research suggests that organizational commitment may have an impact on work performance (Larson & Fukami, 1984), absenteeism (Steers, 1977; Larson & Fukami, 1984) and turnover (Angle & Perry, 1981; Larson & Fukami, 1984). Thus it would seem that organizational commitment would appear to have serious repercussions for overall organizational performance. A central theme that emerges from the conceptual work on organizational commitment is the notion of exchange, where individual attach themselves to the organization in return for certain compensations from the organization (Mottaz, 1988). According to the exchange perspective, work rewards and values are the key explanatory concepts that account for variation in commitment, although the individual nature of rewards and values vary significantly in terms of their impact (Angle, 1983).

Some research has indicated that intrinsic rewards (e.g. 'task autonomy')

i.e. the degree of self-direction in task performance and 'task significance' i.e. refers to the degree to which the task is perceived as a significant or meaningful contribution to the work process) are the most powerful determinants of commitment followed by extrinsic social (e.g. 'co-worker' assistance i.e. the degree to which co-workers are perceived as supportive and helpful) and extrinsic organizational rewards (e.g. 'income level' i.e. total yearly income received from the organization) (Mottaz, 1988).

Essentially three classes of variables emerge as antecedents of commitment. The first category includes personality-need variables and the value orientations (Dubin et al., 1975; Patchen, 1970; Steers, 1977). Findings from research are accurately summarised by Hall et al. (1970) as "some 'right type' of person would be most likely to identify strongly with a particular organization; the specific component characteristic...would depend upon the particular goals and climate of the employing organization" (p. 187). Thus, person-organization fit seems to be an important determinant of commitment.

The second category of antecedents includes job characteristics and work experiences such as job challenge, feedback, opportunity for social for social interaction, task identity, group attitudes, and organizational dependability (Porter & Steers, 1973; Steers, 1977). A common theme linking many of these variables is their roles as antecedents and correlates of other affective-motivational responses, such as job satisfaction (Stone & Porter, 1975). Hall & Schneider (1972) found some support for the possibility that job

satisfaction may serve as an intervening variable in the job characteristics-commitment relationship.

The third category of antecedents of commitment includes personal-demographic variables, particularly age and tenure (Lee, 1971). Presumably the positive relationship of these variables with commitment reflect processes of growth and personal change in the development of identification (Wiener, 1982).

Research concerning outcomes of commitment indicates that the behavioural outcomes showing the strongest relationship with commitment have been turnover and intention to stay in the organization (Wiener & Vardi, 1980). The relationship between performance and commitment was found to be modest and mixed (Wiener & Vardi, 1980).

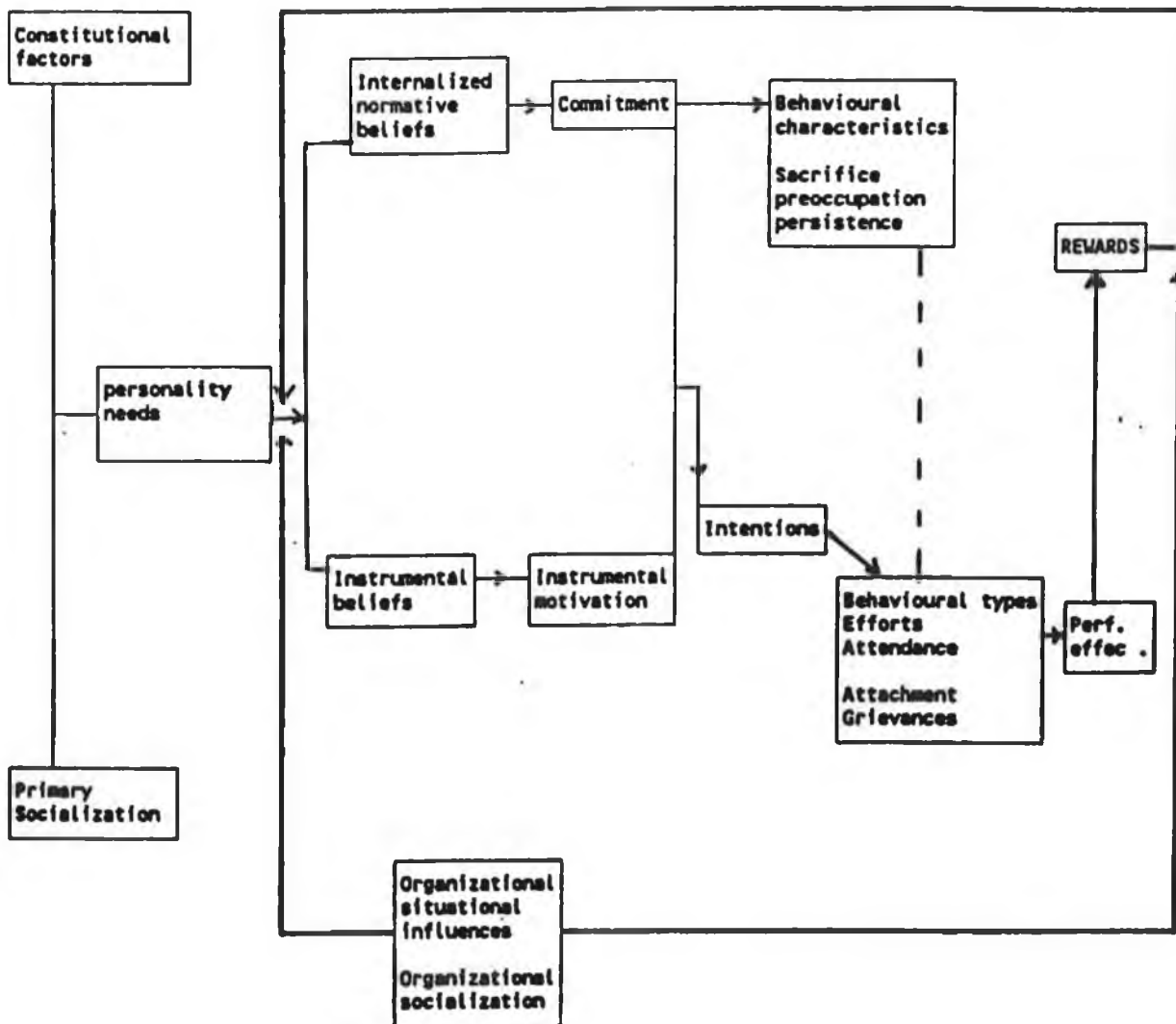
Commitment can be viewed as a motivational phenomenon mediating between certain antecedents and behavioural outcomes. Thus it would be useful to view commitment within a motivational framework that distinguishes between normative and instrumental processes as determinants of human behaviour. An important model that can be readily adapted to provide such a framework is Fishbein's Behavioural Intention Model (Fishbein, 1967; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

Behavioral Intention Model : This model deals primarily with the prediction and understanding of behavioural intentions. An individual's behaviour, according to the model, is a function of the intention to perform that behaviour. An individual's behavioural intention, in turn, is determined by two factors:

- (a) their attitude towards performing the act, i.e. their evaluation or affect with respect to the act, and;
- (b) their subjective norm, or perception of the totality of the normative pressures concerning the behaviour.

The person's attitude toward performing a particular act is a function of his beliefs concerning the consequences of the act and their value to him. One can refer to these as *instrumental-cognitive* beliefs. The second component, the subjective norm, is a function of an individual's beliefs about what important referents think he should do, weighted by his motivation to comply with the referents. Referents may include relevant others, a reference group, or a society at large. One can refer to these as *social-normative* beliefs. Figure 2.1 represents the attitudinal-motivational system, within which commitment is defined, as adapted from the Fishbein model (Wiener, 1982).

Figure 2.1. A Model Representing Relationships Between Organizationally-Related Behaviours, Beliefs Concerning these Behaviours, and Commitment and Instrumental Motivation (Wiener, 1982).



The core of the relationship can be summarised as follows: internalized normative beliefs and instrumental beliefs concerning organization related behaviours lead to organizational commitment and instrumental motivation, respectively. Instrumental motivation and commitment, in turn, simultaneously determine organization related intentions and behaviours. The analysis of

behavioural outcomes is conducted in terms of both their specific type (e.g. attendance) and their underlying attributes (e.g. extent of personal sacrifice involved in the behaviour). The attitudinal component in Fishbein's model is referred to as instrumental motivation (Fig. 2.1). This component reflects processes similar to those involved in work motivation as represented by the expectancy/valence models (Vroom, 1964).

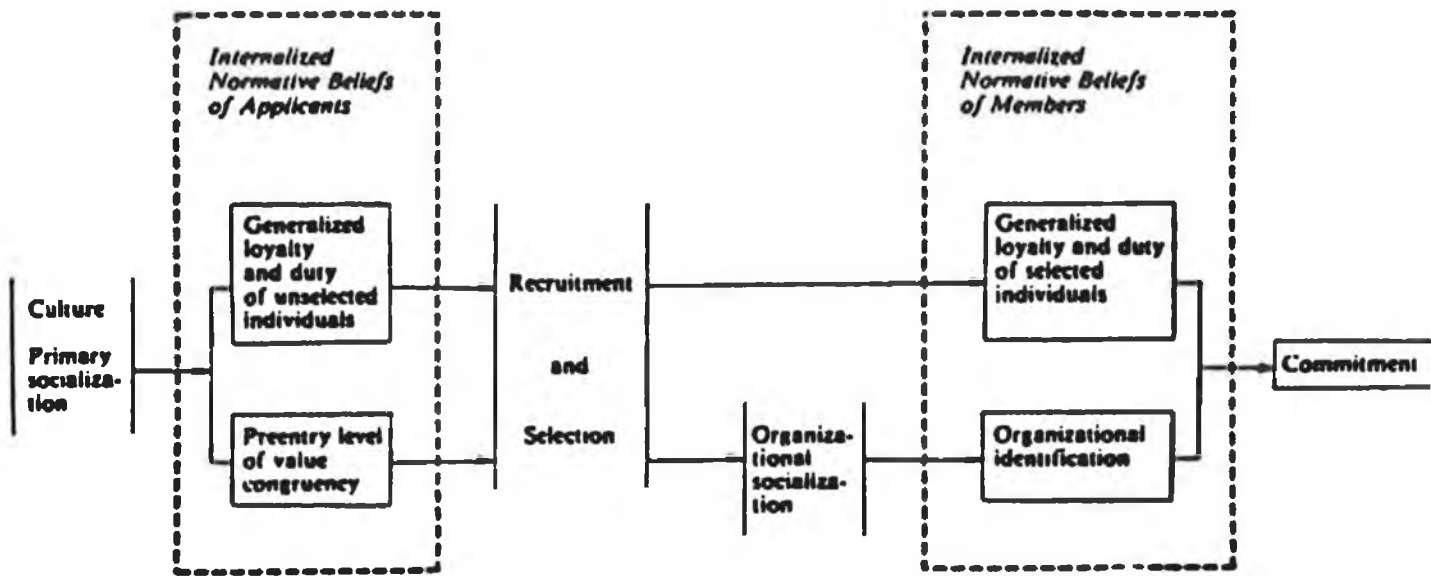
The subjective norm in Fishbein's model can serve as a framework for the definition of commitment. It has been suggested (Fishbein, 1967) that the subjective norm is determined not only by social normative beliefs (i.e. a person's beliefs of how others expect them to act), but also by personal normative beliefs, that is, personal moral standards with respect to a given behaviour. These personal standards are introduced, through internalization by the person, of the expectations of others concerning this behaviour. When behavioural acts are guided by such internalized normative pressures, they are no longer dependant on their linkage with the reinforcements and punishments on which they were initially based. It is this aspect of the subjective norm that defines organizational commitment.

Organizational commitment is viewed as the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way that meets organizational goals and interests. The stronger the commitment, the stronger is the person's predisposition to be guided in his actions by such internalized standards rather than by a consideration of the consequences of these actions.

The extent to which the impact of commitment, from the organization's point of view, is likely to be positive or negative depends primarily on the nature of the goals and expectations of the organization. When goals are "improper" a high commitment level of members may hasten the disintegration of the organization. Members may exert a great deal of effort and make personal sacrifices for the wrong reasons, and persist in doing so. On the other hand, when organizational goals are "proper", a high commitment is likely to result in effective behaviours, coupled with stable relationships of members with their organization, and the possibility of unobtrusive and inexpensive organizational control of member's behaviour (Wiener, 1982).

An accurate measurement of commitment can be obtained by direct measurement of personal beliefs concerning a mode of conduct reflecting organizational interests. This can be operationalized by a basic item format emphasizing a *moralistic* disposition : "I have a moral obligation to perform the behaviour" (Hom et al., 1979). The processes and events that may lead to commitment are summarized in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2 A Flow Diagram Of The Processes and Events Leading to Commitment



The immediate determinants of commitment are two types of internalized normative belief held by members :

- (1) generalized loyalty and duty, and ;
- (2) organizational identification. Identification can be affected by practices of selection and organizational socialization. Loyalty and duty, however, may be affected only by the selection processes. Thus, commitment is influenced by both personal predisposition and organizational interventions.

Blau (1985) found that subjects lower in career commitment were significantly more likely to be thinking about leaving their profession than were subjects high in career commitment. Cherniss (1991) explored the impact of extra-work variables on career commitment and found significant effects of self-efficacy on career commitment. Hence, it would seem that organizational interventions designed to enhance commitment should include self-efficacy as a guiding principle.

2.1.1.2 Work Involvement

Some of the early psychological literature dealing with job involvement dates from the 1940s when Allport (1943) discussed the concept of ego involvement. The interest in the concept has been based, at least among psychologists, on two grounds : (1) the need to deal with practitioners who use the involvement term to describe and differentiate workers for managerial and other reasons; (2) To determine the value of job involvement in understanding work behaviour.

In their review, Rabinowitz & Hall (1977) stated that the two popular definitions of job involvement (the psychological importance of work to the person's total identity, and the extent to which work performance affects one's self esteem) imply that job involvement is a key feature of a person's self-definition. The 'self' is the system of concepts available to the person in attempting to define himself (Gergen, 1971). Self concept or self definition is considered, therefore, to be one of the key elements in understanding job involvement.

Self : Secord (1968, p. 349) indicated that in much theorizing, the self was referred to as a coherent, organized set of cognitions and feelings about one's person and as an object. Wylie (1968, p. 739) stated that many self-referent constructs relate to some of the person's own physical characteristics, thoughts, feelings and behaviours, and concluded that the self concept includes a person's evaluations as well as his cognitions (p. 740). Gergen (1971) described the self as the system of concepts used by the person to define himself. In Gergen's hypothesizing, he spelled out three dimensions :

(1) concepts to describe the self as an entity and to answer such questions as "Who am I?" These concepts provide the linguistic means of distinguishing between oneself, others and the objects of interactions.

(2) The second dimension describes the self as an active entity with awareness and control of it's actions, the 'doer', or the conative self.

(3) The third dimension concerns the self as a judge and may be labelled the evaluative self. While the identity self is confined to cognition, and the

conative self refers to action, the evaluative self adds the feeling component.

Involvement : Involvement has been defined in relation to ego involvement and independently of it. Sherif and Cantril (1947) described ego-involved attitudes as attitudes that the individual identifies himself with, and makes part of himself, and which have affective properties of varying degrees of intensity. This definition incorporated both cognitive and affective components. In a later work Sherif et al. (1965) pointed toward a behavioural component when they considered ego involvement as the arousal of the individual's commitments or stands in the context of appropriate situations. Involvement is also seen as a multidimensional concept (Saleh, 1981).

The differences in defining job involvement in the literature are, to a great degree, based on consideration of it as uni-dimensional. Most authors focused on only one of the three dimensions. However, Lodahl & Kejner (1965), introduced two definitions, of which the first is related to cognitive or identity dimensions (p. 24), "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self image". The second definition relates to the evaluative dimension: "the degree to which a person's work performance affects his self esteem" (p. 25). However, no integration of these two concepts was attempted by Lodahl & Kejner.

In summary, job involvement is a self-involving attitude, and is a

multidimensional concept comprising of cognitive, evaluative, and behavioural intentions. Saleh (1981) advocates that consideration of the structural components and their consistency might improve involvement-performance prediction (p. 26).

While the definitions mentioned above focus on intra-personal, attitudinal processes, they also seem to suggest distinct psychological processes. Such definitions pose several difficulties :

- (1) The terminology is somewhat imprecise, for example, it is not clear how identification with work relates to general theories of psychological identification.
- (2) There are no clear cut criteria for selecting one of these three distinct attitudinal processes as the most useful definition of job involvement.
- (3) It is somewhat unclear how these different definitions of involvement relate to satisfaction, motivation, and situational factors.
- (4) No relationships are suggested between the attitudinal processes of job involvement and concrete, operational work behaviours. This last point is perhaps the most crucial, since the usefulness of a construct like job involvement is largely determined by its ability to add to the understanding of behaviour of people at work (Wiener & Gechman, 1977).

Wiener & Gechman (1977, p. 48) postulate an alternative attitudinal approach. Rather than formulating and proposing complex internal states to define and characterize job involvement, they propose that job involvement

should be viewed as a special class of job behaviours, then explain these behaviours in relation to existing and established constructs. They view job commitment and job involvement as interchangeable labels for the same work related behaviour. Commitment is seen as a behaviour rather than as an internal construct or process. When individuals are committed to a cause, person, activity, or institution, they must express this by an overt, public act. A relationship process without an overt behavioural component cannot be considered commitment. It may reflect some internal process such as liking or identifying, but these do not necessarily have a one-to-one relationship with behaviour.

The classification of job behaviours in terms of involvement or commitment is : "commitment behaviours are socially accepted behaviours that exceed formal and/or normative expectations relevant to the object of commitment" (Wiener & Gechman, 1977, p. 48).

The study carried out by Wiener & Gechman (1977) demonstrated the feasibility and usefulness of a behaviourally orientated scale to measure job involvement, defined as commitment to work. Moderate correlations were found to exist between commitment behaviour and attitudinal measures of job involvement and satisfaction, which seems to indicate that the behavioural measure was separate and distinct from existing scales.

2.1.2 Decision Orientation

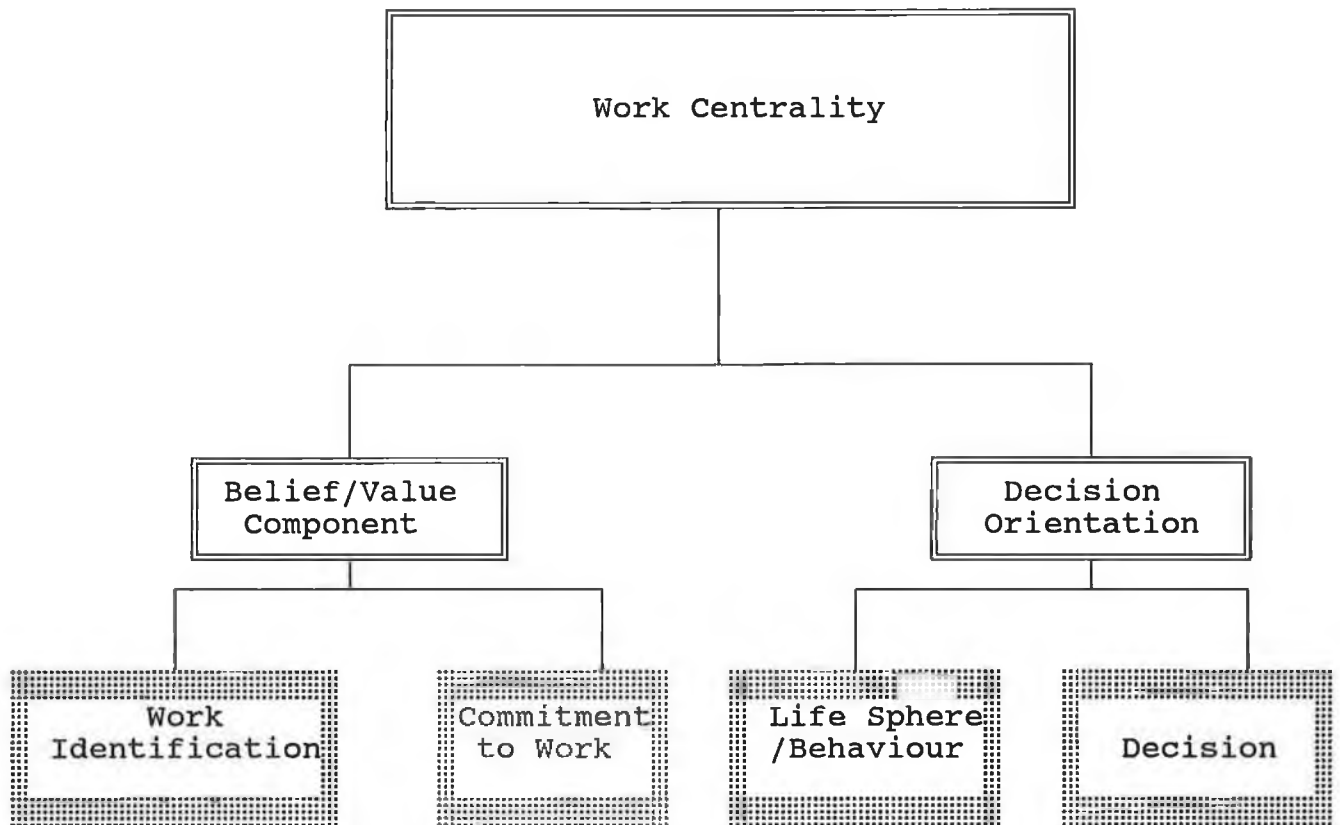
The decision component of work centrality starts with the assumption that a person's experiences are segmented into different subspheres and that individuals vary in their inclination towards particular life spheres. An individual will attach more significance to preferred spheres, but will nevertheless participate in less preferred life spheres because they provide compensation for calculative or instrumental behaviour.

It is postulated that the two elements combine to establish the global concept of Work Centrality. First, the *decision orientation*, which is the extent to which an individual chooses a preferred life sphere and the behaviours associated with it. Implicit in this orientation is the notion of involvement which provides the conditions by which an individual establishes affective and behavioural attachments to the environment (MOW International Team, 1987). Commitment to a sphere is a selective process since involvement in, or commitment to selected spheres may be voluntary. Prescribed spheres do not imply a choice element but commitment to these spheres can dictate affective and behavioural involvement, whether it be positive involvement or negative involvement.

The second element, *life spheres/behaviour* property of work centrality implies a notion of identification with a life sphere based on an individual's relative preference for particular spheres. Work can occupy a most preferred position among life spheres, share a position, or occupy a peripheral or less

preferred position in one's life (See Figure 2.3).

FIGURE 2.3 WORK CENTRALITY MODEL



The two orientations of work centrality are not conceptually poles apart, in fact similarities exist. Both are concerned with individual identification with working in general, and include properties of involvement (with work). Divergence can be discerned in terms of the referent employed in each. In the belief/value orientation work is viewed in relation to the self, while in the decision orientation work is viewed in relation to other life spheres. Identification in the belief/value orientation is the product of a cognitive

consistency process between work as an activity with the individual as a referent. In the decision orientation, identification is based on the preferences for working with respect to other life spheres.

Because of the differences in representation, it is likely that only a moderate correlation between the two components would be attained (MOW International Team, 1987). Conceptually and for analysis purposes a more representative pattern of centrality of work would be found by combining the diverging elements of decision orientation and belief/value orientation.

The decision orientation of work centrality is closely allied to Dubin's theory of central life interests (1956). The essence of this theory is that an individual's experiences are separated into different subspheres. Participation in less preferred life spheres may be a product of the reward system built around such spheres, an individual will not necessarily attach a great amount of significance to the associated behaviours. For life spheres which are more preferred by an individual, the associated behaviours will have more significance.

2.1.2.1 Life Sphere/behaviour (Central Life Interests, the foundation of relative Centrality of Work).

Social behaviour differs as individuals in modern society proceed serially through distinctive social settings. An individual moves from one portion of life space to another through the day, for example, from family to work to community (Dubin, 1959; Meissner, 1971). In the fragmented social experiences of an individual, one or more institutional settings in which behaviour occurs may be central. Not all social settings have equal salience, an individual may prefer any one of several sectors for carrying out certain acts. This fact forms the basis for defining the Central Life Interest (CLI) of individuals : as their expressed preference for carrying out their activities in given settings (Dubin, 1956).

There has been a considerable body of research dealing with the question of whether work and work experiences constitute a central life interest of employed individuals. In the first study of this topic, 24% of the industrial workers in the sample reported work as a central life interest (Dubin, 1956). In studies made since that time, an even lower percentage of blue-collar workers in a variety of settings have been found to have a central life interest in work. For example, only 14% of lumber workers surveyed (Ima, 1962), and only 12% of long-distance truck drivers (Latta, 1968) had a job orientated CLI. There was also a wide range amongst business executives and supervisors with a primary interest in work : 82% of Japanese middle managers (Endo, 1970); 54% of industrial supervisors (Maurer, 1968);

43% of middle managers in the Middle West of the U.S.A. (Dubin and Goldman, 1972). Professional and technical personnel also revealed a wide variation among those with a strong orientation : 79% of nurses (Orzack, 1959), 36% of youth employment officers and 31% of child care officers in British welfare organizations (Parker, 1965).

CLI and Commitment : Of special significance is the question of whether a central life interest in the work institution makes any difference to the commitment of workers to their employing organization, or to the relative attractiveness of individual features of the organization. It would be expected that having such an interest in an institutional setting might generate a reasonably high level of commitment (Dubin, R., Champoux, J.E., Porter, L.W., 1975). Conversely, if an institutional setting is not central and even though it is necessary to behave in that setting, the individual may not feel a strong sense of commitment (Dubin, 1959). But what of the individual who does not have a strong institutional preference and who, therefore, can be defined as having a flexible focus in terms of central life interests ?

Studies have shown that unfocused (flexible) workers as a group, have a level of commitment to their work organization that is distinctly different from that of workers who have a focused central life interest (Dubin et. al. 1975). In Dubin et. al.'s (1975) study, results showed that CLI has broad potentiality as a selector of the salience of features of an environment. The originators of this study postulate that workers with a central life interest in

work may be viewing their *current* work environment through a 'filter', which leads to a high level of commitment and makes many features of the environment appear attractive regardless of their objective attractiveness. Workers with a central life interest in institutions away from work do not appear to view their *current* work experiences through a negative filter, although their overall organizational commitment is low. It appears that non-work orientated individuals are more selective in their evaluation of their work environments, possibly basing their evaluation on whether the feature of work is instrumental to their non-work lives.

Much past theory and research dealing with worker behaviour has tended to view the work institution as a focal institutional setting (Dubin, 1973) wherein behaviour and experiences are of paramount importance to individuals (Argyris, 1957, 1964, 1973). This has led to the oversimplified assumption that individuals are either committed to, or alienated from, behavioral settings and institutional settings in which they function (Bell, 1961). Little empirical attention has been given to the possibility suggested by early social theorists, for example James (1891), that individuals may be able and competent to perform effectively in many institutional settings as they move among them.

However, this competence in differing life spheres, implies an ability on the part of the individual to keep unfocused their central life interest. It has been suggested that the individual with unfocused or flexible CLI may be the

adaptive citizens of the future. These individuals are not alienated. They are able to adjust to any behavioral setting by varying their degree of commitment to it in accordance with specific features of that setting that are particularly attractive to them. A flexible focus CLI permits an individual to make frequent and rapid changes from one behavioral setting to another, regardless of how different they are, the citizens who can face the 'Future Shock', that constant state of flux, have arrived, according to Dubin et al (1975).

But it seems that the authors of the above study have fallen into a trap of over simplification. It is obvious that a flexible or unfocused CLI, should not be viewed as a negative characteristic of an individuals personality, but to see it as a indisputable positive predictor of commitment is naive, especially without taking the holistic view of the individual's personality into account.

CLI and Personality Characteristics : It has been asserted that personal orientations towards the social milieu in which people live, bear some relationship to their personality characteristics. The basic notion is that individuals focus their major interests on a limited few or a single institutional setting which becomes central. The strongest affective self investment of the individual is made in the institutional setting that is their CLI (Faunce & Dubin, 1973). In institutions that are not central to an individual, effective performance in them results from an instrumental orientation toward them.

With respect to the relation between personality and social environment,

several writers have suggested that the degree of 'fit' between an individual and their environment is related to the satisfactions and stresses experienced in that environment (e.g. Mumford, 1970).

Among recent industrial workers it is alleged that "blue collar blues" were rampant. This phenomenon may be linked to the fact that there is a poor 'fit' between personality and work environment. Or it may be the case that people with different personality profiles are related in distinctive ways to their social environments and that those persons who do not consider work important to them, have personality characteristics that 'fit' some social setting other than work. Among such 'non-work orientated persons', the work environment may be instrumental for their significant lives away from work, and rather than being "blue" they are simply indifferent to the work environment. This possibility depends on the relationship between personality and CLI.

Dubin and Champoux (1975) found that amongst a group of job-orientated workers who rated their own personality characteristics, the ratings showed an inclination towards the personality characteristics of the idealized American worker i.e. high on Decisiveness, Initiative, and Supervisory Ability. This self image is strengthened by their low evaluation of their need for job security, perhaps because they feel that they are adequately qualified that job security can be taken for granted. Job orientated workers were also found to not perceive themselves as having a great need for self-actualization,

which seems to suggest that they may already self-actualizing in their preferred institutional environment i.e. work.

The workers in this sample who possessed a non job-orientated CLI rated themselves lower than the job-orientated on personality measures of decisiveness, need for occupational achievement, and initiative and higher in their need for job security. The non job-orientated workers also have a low need for self-actualization, which suggests that they too are self-actualizing but not in the work institution.

In summary, a good 'fit' between personality and the work institution was found among those who had a CLI in work. A 'non-fit' between personality and the work institution was found among those who had a CLI in non-work institutional settings. The general conclusion to be drawn from this study is that personality characteristics and environments 'fit' only in an institutional-specific way, i.e. the personality of most individuals fits some institutional setting, but not necessarily all those in which the individual functions.

2.2 WORK ROLE IDENTIFICATION

Work role identification is "the extent to which an individual defines and identifies working in terms of various roles such as task role, organizational role, product or service role, and occupational/professional role" (MOW, 1987, p.57). Work role identification is a function of work centrality (See Figure 2.3, p.32).

Work role identification is a constituent part of the belief/value component of work centrality. It is defined as the outcome of a process of cognitive consistency based on a comparison between the perceptions of the self and work role (Maurer, 1968; Lawler & Hall, 1970). This cognitive comparison leads to an individualistic identification with work role, this role may be central or peripheral to the individuals self image.

All the elements of the Centrality of Work model are mutually reinforcing. Within the belief/value component work commitment is seen as an affective attachment to (identification with) the goals of an organization, to the individuals role in relation to these goals and values and to the organization for its own sake (Buchanan, 1974, p. 533).

It can be observed from the above that 'identification' exists on at least two levels, that is, on the macro level (as with the organizational identification propounded by Buchanan, 1974) and on the micro level, as with the identification of the individual with their work role.

It appears that identification whether on the micro or macro level is a mediator between work involvement/commitment and work centrality. Commitment is an affective attachment to goals, involvement is a multidimensional concept comprising of cognitive, evaluative, and behavioural intentions of the individual.

What is unclear is the direction of this mediation. Wiener & Gechman (1977) postulate that, rather than formulating complex internal states (identification) to define and characterize work involvement/commitment (commitment and involvement are seen as interchangeable labels for the same concept), they propose that commitment/involvement should be viewed as a special class of work behaviours. These behaviours should then be explained in terms of already existing and established constructs i.e. work identification.

When an individual identifies with a cause, another individual, activity, or institution, they must express the commitment or involvement that this identification implies, by an overt act. A relationship process without an overt behavioural component cannot be considered commitment. There may be some internal processes such as liking or identifying, but there is not a one-to-one relationship with behaviour. On the other hand, Rabinowitz & Hall (1977), who reviewed definitions of job work involvement/commitment (the psychological importance of work to the individuals total identity, and the extent to which work performance affects the individuals self esteem) state that work involvement/commitment is a key feature of the an individual's self

definition (the self being "a system of concepts available to the person in attempting to define himself" Gergen, 1971).

From this perspective identification with work role, with organization, or with self is the starting reference point for behaviour. Identification implies 'intent' to behave, with actual behaviour as the outcome.

The ambiguity in attempts to define the direction of the causal mediating relationship between identification and involvement/commitment to working should not prohibit the investigation of such concepts, but should serve to give a basis for continued investigation and refinement of previous definitions.

What is clear is that identification, whether it be work role identification, organizational identification, or identification with self, is a made up of a complex system of component variables, and this multi-dimensionality must be taken into account in any future definitions.

2.3 SOCIETAL NORMS ABOUT WORKING

2.3.1 Historical Perspective

A synopsis of the historical evolution of subjective 'work meanings' puts into context the present day meanings attached to working, and as such is a necessary prerequisite to understanding societal norms regarding working.

In ancient Greece can be found a since undermined notion of everyday work, especially physical work, which is perceived as a abhorrent chore mainly of slaves. The only socially accepted work activities were those undertaken for the sake of themselves, provided they produced some lasting creation as a symbol of human achievement.

In the Old Testament, work is considered as a hardship imposed by God as a punishment for man's original sin. The redeeming value of work is only of secondary importance, through sharing the fruits of work with people in poverty and distress. It is through this instrumental characteristic of working that it is seen in a positive light, in that it contributes to encourage God's blessing and benevolence (Genesis 3:17-19).

The fundamental punishment character of work is also upheld in Christian traditions where work is conceived as a "difficult good" (*bonum arduum*). This *bonum arduum* according to the teachings of Thomas Aquinas challenges to transform and subjugate nature and enable man's self-realization according to God's image (Genesis 1:26-27). In the guilds of the Middle Ages

work is seen as a practical form of religious service. The Reformation emphasised work as an obligation or duty of particular value because of its contribution to God's creation. Working was "to build God's kingdom-working was good, hard work better" (Drenth, 1983, p.9), an idea that Weber (1920) exploited in "Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism", where he mainly discusses the religious and motivational bases of *bourgeois work ethic*.

The emergence of manufacturing industries in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries imposed new demands on the proletarian working classes because of the need to organize work on higher levels. "External coercion, previously sufficient for control, needed to be replaced increasingly by internalized secondary virtues such as subordination, discipline, reliability, punctuality, and loyalty (Braverman, 1977).

The secularization of traditional work ethics based on religious interpretative schemata gets a new boost with the growth of organized labour which supports a new self-image of working man; work as a means to fulfil social and expressive needs and thus contributing to the emergence of a new identity (Goldthorpe et al., 1968). Kern and Schumann (1982) interpret this development as a subjective redefinition of work as an unavoidable necessity into a source of positive self-esteem which enables workers to kindle intrinsic work motivations even under poor working conditions.

This excursion through the history of Western work meanings highlights

some of the main sources of traditional work ethics. While the bourgeois ideals were mainly focused on the fulfilment of individual vocational and professional aims, the workers in the handicraft industries identified themselves with work through the surplus value created in the products of work, and for the proletarian industrial worker it was the social collective that fulfils the equivalent function (Ruiz Quintanilla & Wilpert, 1988).

The evident objective significance of work in the lives of people in western societies, as sketched out above, will not necessarily mean that people attribute to work a comparable subjective importance. Furthermore, the historical evolution of meaning of working notions illustrated changes in the dominant ideologies over time and certain differences among different social groups and strata. A conclusion Heller (1991) draws from the MOW research (1987), is that the modern work ethic can no longer be associated with Protestantism. Heller (1991) also suggests that low work centrality is *not* necessarily associated with low activity, and in fact may point towards a more intensive attention to family life, for example, or to other areas of activity.

The following is an attempt on theoretical and empirical grounds to pinpoint Societal Norms about working as one of the set of dimensions surmised to be a significant component of the 'work meanings' concept (MOW, 1987).

It is suggested by MOW (1987) that a fundamental antecedent of the above norms is the development of normative reasoning in individuals. A major theme in developmental psychology, both in Europe and in the United States, is the use of principles by adults in their normative reasoning (Kohlberg, 1963; Piaget, 1965). From this perspective, a crucial issue is the abstract principles of social justice and fairness that individuals use in the work situation for the purposes of achieving co-operation or distributing the benefits of co-operation.

It is here that one may find the two contrasting reference points in much of the discussion of normative principles. One such reference point is to begin with the person and concentrate on social standards or norms concerned with an obligation to society. McClelland et. al.'s (1958) idea of obligation to society includes such a notion, as does Weber's (1964) Protestant work ethic. In the above sources normative behaviour consists of fulfilling one's duty or obligation to society, respect for delegated authority as a social obligation, and norms which support the accepted social order.

The second reference point also concentrates on the individual, but emphasizes the social standards or norms underlying the rights of the person and the obligation of society to the individual. Discussions of obligation are frequently linked to explicit or implicit assumptions regarding equitable exchange relationships between an individual's contributions and the social system's recompensation.

What is missing from the MOW (1987) treatment of these complimentary reference points is any reference to differential stages of development and maturation such as those inherent in the theories of Piaget (1965) and Kohlberg (1963, 1971). Is it possible that a societies norms could evolve along conceptually similar lines to those mentioned above i.e. in a linear progressive fashion ?

2.3.2.1 The Entitlement Work Norm

Two discussions of the entitlement of work norms are found in Perlman (1976) and Locke and Schweiger (1979). Perlman concludes that social welfare and social institution theories offer the best explanation of unionization in the United States. In social welfare theories, property claims or entitlements are restricted to economic issues. Social institution theories extend property claims or entitlements to include working conditions such as security and due process. Related to due process is decision participation as a form of property right. Locke and Schweiger (1979) examine decision participation as a worker right. One notion common to both theories is that entitlement is concerned with rights or claims that regulate personal and collective action.

2.3.2.2 The Obligation Work Norm

Two aspects of the obligation norm are personal responsibility or internalized norms of duty, and social or institutional commitment. This orientation of the individual has an 'ought' element (Parsons and Shils, 1952). The person *ought* to contribute to society through work or *ought* to save for

their future security.

The obligation norm represents the individual's beliefs that all people have a duty or responsibility to society through working. This example of reasoning is conceptually similar to Kohlberg's (1963) Type 4 social order and obligation to duty orientation, as well as to Piaget's (1965) operational/concrete cognitive stage.

Kohlberg's type 4 society maintaining orientation : a system or a social order of roles and rules that are shared and accepted by the entire community and constitute that community is defined. An individual must orient to other's orientation as part of a larger shared system to which all belong and are therefore orientated. Merit should be rewarded by the system and every individual must contribute to the system. Justice is primarily a principle for societal order rather than for personal moral choice.

Piaget's operational/concrete cognitive stage : According to Bovet (1912), the formation of the sense of obligation is subject to two conditions:

1. the intervention of orders given from outside the individual ; and
2. the acceptance of these orders, which implies a notion of sentiment on the part of the individual who receives the order towards those giving it. This sentiment is one of respect and consists of affection and fear associated with the position of the inferior in relation to superior, and therefore suffices to determine the acceptance of orders and consequently the sense of obligation

(Piaget & Inhelder, 1969).

It is implicit in the above discussion of societal norms that there are two levels in the conceptualization of entitlement and obligation. One is the societal level; the other is the individual level. In tracing this relationship and the implications for the meaning of work, MOW (1987) engage in "a degree of speculation" (p. 22) as to the exact texture of the relationship.

"Social interaction can be conceptualized as an act of exchange in which each person invests certain inputs (time, effort, attention, and expertise) in exchange for outcomes (money, growth, and satisfaction)" (MOW 1987, p. 23). The relative proportion of a society's total outcomes granted to a member, by other members who regulate them (the outcomes,) can be seen as a measure of the extent to which the distributor values another member's inputs to the society. The manner of distribution reflects the distributors attention to different kinds of inputs from members.

It is uncertain as to the exact causal nature of the relationship between the norms and the dispersion of socially mediated outcomes (as MOW, 1987, are more than willing to admit). One possible explanation could be that the direction is from the individual level of a norm, to an organizational or societally mediated outcome. Individuals entitlement claims could lead to actions which aim to legitimize these claims.

Another possible explanation is that the direction of causation is from working outcomes mediated by societies or organizations to the development of individual entitlement norms. For example, an individual who is dissatisfied with the distribution of working outcomes may attempt to narrow the divide between themselves and those who receive more of the outcomes, by adopting norms which advocate more equal distribution irrespective of individual differences. If one engages in speculation briefly one could hypothesise that the opposite would be true of the obligation norm, where a form of group-directed altruism may be more evident.

Weick (1979), argues that the convergence of people with similar beliefs *precedes*, and is a necessary condition for the emergence of groups.

"...an initial overlap among people in their beliefs-an overlap that looks like behaviour controlled by norms-makes it possible for more enduring social relationships to emerge....Having *first* converged on shared ideas of how a structure can form (i.e. on means), the persons *then* activate a repetitive series of interlocking behaviours-that is, they form a collective structure. The range of their behaviour narrows *before* a group forms, not after; the group is made possible by this narrowing and convergence" (Weick, 1979: 90).

According to the above, the causal impact runs from the individual level of societal norm to a coming together of individuals with similar normative beliefs, and then to the general social actions which legitimize these beliefs.

There is currently considerable interest in normative views about

working. It appears that this interest is fuelled by the actual and anticipated changes in many facets of work and working e.g. technological change, organizational restructuring, increased educational levels in the workforce etc. Perhaps the evolution of new social norms as a direct consequence of the above changes do parody the developmental changes in the theories of Piaget (1965) and Kohlberg (1963) more closely than before seen. At least this could be so if one looks at an individual's development as a metaphor for society's development. A question which arise here is : to what degree are these changes in working situations accompanied by changes in the meaning of working in the lives of individuals, and changes in the norms people utilize as a basis for reasoning about work ?

Sessions (1978) suggests that the ethic of work being 'good', and non-work being 'bad', has strong survival power. This ethic may have evolved from the Protestant Work Ethic, which sees work as a duty or moral obligation. However, there is an abundance of counter argument (e.g. Macarov, 1980; Rosow, 1981; Schmidt, 1974), which postulates that the traditional work ethic is being replaced by norms about working which are more heavily based, than in the past, on values such as the dominance of work rights over duties, family life, leisure etc.

Considering the above discussion, any conceptually comprehensive analysis of meaning of working should include the dimension of societal norms regarding working.

2.4 VALUED WORKING OUTCOMES AND WORKGOALS

2.4.1 Valued Working Outcomes

Value, in the above context, means "importance evaluations which are defined to include what the person knows about each of the work outcomes and the preference relationship among outcomes or goals" (MOW, 1987). It is assumed that the person who makes evaluations regarding work outcomes or goals, has sufficient experience with each outcome to link these to each other in an ordered manner.

Evaluations of relative importance, or preference for outcomes implies the notion of choice. What is meant by choice is the implementation of values for outcomes and goals and a specific type of identification with working.

The domain of valued working outcomes is based on a typology of various meanings of work, including a range of instrumental and expressive meanings attached to working (Kaplan & Tausky, 1974; Tausky & Piedmont, 1967). Six broad outcomes were identified :

- (i) the status and prestige-producing function of working
- (ii) the income producing function of working;
- (iii) the time occupying function of working;
- (iv) the interpersonal contact function of working (interesting contacts with other people);
- (v) the societal-service function of working;

(vi) the intrinsic or self-expressive function of working (working being basically interesting and satisfying to the individual).

In a study which drew heavily from the research of Kaplan and Tausky (1974) the income-producing function of working is perceived as the most important function by the labour force in every country from which data was collected (MOW, 1987). This data apparently contradicts results obtained by Morse and Weiss (1955), which found that in over 80% of their sample, even if subjects could have adequate means with which to survive, they would continue to work in some form or another.

It appears that the 'importance evaluations' which individuals make regarding outcomes and goals received from work are multi-faceted and not entirely income dependant. If one could eliminate the necessity for income, which is perceived as important in individuals working lives, other factors (e.g. expressive rewards) may become paramount.

2.4.2 Work Goals

In tandem with working outcomes, another domain with which to understand what is important to individuals in their working lives, is the absolute and relative importance of certain facets of working. The relevant literature to operationalize work goals covers job satisfaction, work values, incentive preference etc.

On the basis of results of 16 studies reviewed by Hertzberg, Mausner, Peterson, and Capwell (1957) a detailed composite of the importance ranking of 14 job facets, provided by 11,000 workers was constructed. These facets were : Security, Interest, Opportunity for advancement, Appreciation (from supervision), Company and management, Intrinsic aspects of job, Wages, Supervision, Social aspects of the job, Working Conditions, Communication, Hours, Ease, and Benefits.

Weiss et al. (1964) constructed the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire (to accompany the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire), which was designed to measure 20 vocationally relevant need dimensions. These need dimensions refer to the specific reinforcing conditions which have been found to be important to job satisfaction.

Quinn (1971) reported on the importance ratings of 23 job facets from a national sample of 1533 American workers, and found no single job facet was preeminently important. The most significant result of this study was that the most important general aspect workers' jobs was having sufficient resources to perform their jobs adequately. Quinn's (1971) study had comparable facets for 12 of the 14 facets ranked by Hertzberg et al. (1957).

2.4.3 Importance Evaluations of Work Outcomes and Work Goals

Beliefs, attitudes, values, and most concepts used in reference to evaluative perceptions are thought to be composed of two distinct attributes-

affect and cognition (e.g. Proshansky & Seidenberg, 1966). Affect is the positive or negative feeling an individual may get from the object being evaluated. But Friendlander (1965), suggests that importance evaluations and the range of feelings towards a concept may be two very distinct concepts. An individual may have almost any feeling toward an object regardless of its perceived level of importance.

Cognitions, the second component of perception, are elements in human thought which enter into relationships with one another and may be described as items of information (Lawrence & Festinger, 1962), and as such define what the individual *knows* about a factor and its relationship to other factors, rather than what they *feel about it*.

Scott (1956) defines cognitive structure as the pattern of relationships between ideas maintained by the individual and available to their consciousness. Motivational theories draw heavily from the idea that cognitions are interdependent and that the human mind organizes cognitions into patterns of relationships which have attitudinal or behavioral consequences.

The most dominant of these motivational theories, Expectancy Theory, seeks to define choices and behaviour in terms of the individual perceptions of the likelihood that a given behaviour will lead to a valued outcome. 'Importance' in such expectancy terms can be interpreted as the degree to

which an idea is likely to influence the behaviour of an individual. But, "Expectancy Theories have been unable to differentiate between value, importance and outcome, primarily because they rely on the notions of 'second-level outcomes'" (Cragin, 1983).

Cognitive Structure Theories, have overcome this inability to differentiate of Expectancy Theories. Rather than trying to define some cognitions as 'outcomes' and others as 'contributors', structural theorists suggest the complex interdependencies of all cognitions within the cognitive space. The *importance* of any cognition at any give time, may be conceptualized as a *function* of the *number and strength of the relationships* of that cognition with others whose *importances (value)* are in turn defined by their relational position in the cognitive space.

A Cognitive Structure approach to importance perceptions suggests that differences in importance perceptions between individuals and differences in importance of various factors within individuals ought to depend on :

1. the degree of dependence of 'X' associated cognitions on the factor;
2. the degree of criticalness of the factors contribution to the 'X' associated cognitions;
3. the cognitive centrality of the factor itself;
4. the cognitive centrality of the 'X' associated cognitions;
5. the temporary salience of the factor;
6. the temporary salience of the 'X' associated cognitions.

Cragin (1983) attempted to empirically examine the usefulness of such a model as a predictor of self-reported valuations of a wide range of ideas. The variables of centrality, dependence, criticality, importance and salience are defined by Cragin (1980) as follows :

(i) Cognitive Centrality, is the extent to which an outcome or goal (cognition) is at the fore of an individual's consciousness rather than being peripheral, and the extent to which other outcomes may revolve around that outcome. Those outcome which remain at the fore of an individuals consciousness are said to be 'central', while those which are psychologically remote would be said to have 'low centrality' (Newcomb et al., 1965). It has been showed experimentally that the centrality of a factor does not depend on its intrinsic qualities but on its relationships to its neighbours in the cognitive space. Factors and outcomes which are positioned more prominently in the individuals cognitive space with ties to other factors or outcomes are more 'central' than those which are more peripheral.

(ii) Dependence, means the extent to which cognitions of an outcome influence cognitions of other outcomes associated with it. The concept of dependence is virtually identical to the notion of instrumentality as described by Vroom (1964), i.e. that an effort-reward probability (the individual's subjectively perceived probability that directing a given amount of effort towards 'behaving' effectively will result in the acquisition of a reward or a positively valued outcome), is determined by two subsidiary subjective

probabilities : the probability that effort will result in performance and the probability that performance will result in reward. Vroom refers to these subjective probabilities as 'instrumentality' i.e. perceived reward for effort. In Cragin's (1983) terms, 'instrumentality' is seen as the differences between and within individuals, in relative importance perceptions of 'factors', and their being purposefully arranged so that valued rewards or outcomes can be attained.

(iii) Criticality is defined as the degree to which an individual perceives readily available substitutes for a factors influence on outcomes.

(iv) Saliency : a factor of low cognitive prominence may become temporarily salient (pronounced) when an individual's attention is drawn to it forcefully and explicitly. Stouffler (1955) demonstrated that cognitions of low centrality may be brought forth temporarily into a state of saliency, but will not have dominant influence on the on-going behaviour and attitudes of individuals. Cragin (1980, 1983) proposes that such temporary adoptions of factors may be situation dependant. A corresponding definition of saliency is: "the extent to which immediate socioeconomic and work conditions draw temporary attention to an outcome which would not otherwise be as dominant" (MOW, 1987).

The outcomes individuals seek from working and the identification of the functions served by working may shed light on the basic question of why

individuals work, and to some degree why individuals may be effective or non-effective workers. Systematic information regarding the outcomes and goals individuals prefer may provide the development of a rationale for the reorganization of work organizations for optimal individual, societal, and organizational benefits.

2.5 MEANING OF WORKING AND HIERARCHICAL LEVEL

"Organization members at upper echelons, more so than those at lower levels, are likely to experience greater motivation, involvement, and interest in their jobs; stronger identification with, and loyalty to the organization; the satisfaction of needs for self esteem, self actualization, and the utilization of authority. Significant perceptual, ideological, and cognitive differences, along with differences in symptoms of mental and physical illness, also distinguish persons of different rank" (Tannenbaum, Kavic, Rosner, Vianello & Weiser, 1974). Authority in organizations is frequently apportioned hierarchically. Those individuals at upper levels of the organizational hierarchy, usually have more power and exercise more control than those individuals at successively lower levels.

There are indications that satisfaction or morale increases the higher the individual's position on the organizational hierarchy (Fournet, Distefano & Pryer, 1966). There is also evidence that different jobs on distinct positions of a hierarchy allow for the satisfaction of distinctive needs.

For example Gurin, Verhoff & Feld (1960) found that individuals in high status jobs reported more ego satisfaction in their work than those lower positions. In another study, Porter (1962) found that the vertical location of an individual is an important factor in determining the extent to which they feel that they can satisfy particular psychological needs.

In general, those at lower hierarchal positions were more dissatisfied than those in top-level positions. Porter (1962) reasons that higher levels of employment offer more ego satisfaction, more status, pay, and self-direction. In addition, these positive facets of upper level work are enhanced by increased responsibility and authority.

Individuals in the upper echelons of a hierarchy usually receive higher pay and enjoy greater privileges. The responsibility, and recognition along with the greater material rewards associated with status, contribute significantly to the satisfaction of needs of individuals and as a consequence to the self esteem of same (Kasl & French, 1962).

The preponderance of research evidence suggests that job satisfaction tends to be greater among persons performing jobs that require discretion and skill, which are qualities that demarcate higher level jobs, as opposed to lower level jobs (e.g. Argyris, 1957; Walker & Guest, 1952). Working at higher echelons of an organization an individual is more likely to rely on their own discretion and choice of work procedures, and is more likely to receive

greater rewards, both psychologically (e.g. ego satisfaction, status, recognition etc.) as well as materially (e.g. pay, stock options etc.) than those at lower levels (See for example Argyris, 1957; Walker & Guest, 1952; Tannenbaum & Rozgonyi, 1986).

To summarize : "the organizational world of persons at upper levels of the work organization is predictably different-physically, socially, and psychologically-from that of a person at lower levels" (Tannenbaum & Rozgonyi, 1986, p.233). The friction and divergence (between workers) implied in the organization of hierarchy into functionally disparate levels, has been a motivator for the development of work systems which increase the influence of lower level workers through the formation of an organizational system of influence in which is more egalitarian.

There is abundant evidence, briefly summarized above, showing considerable disparity in orientations of individuals on different levels of the organizational hierarchy, a disparity which extends over a number of working outcomes. Bearing in mind these definitive hierarchal effects on working *outcomes* (e.g. job satisfaction), this study attempts to assess the effects of hierarchal position on working *antecedents* (as measured by MOW, 1987).

The methodology laid down in Chapter 3 elucidates how, in this investigation the effects of hierarchical level on 'work meaning' may be assessed.

CHAPTER 3

3.0 METHODOLOGY

3.1 THE EXPERIMENTAL SETTING DESCRIBED

The A corporation (A Corp *) and subsidiaries designs, manufactures, markets, and services large scale, high performance, general purpose and scientific computer systems and complimentary software, storage, communications and education products. The A Corporation, presently serves customers in approximately 25 countries, with 8200 employees operating in 120 locations worldwide. A Corp was established in 1970, and it was in 1978 that operations were initiated in the Republic of Ireland.

3.1.1 Personnel Statistics

The Irish operation employs 572 people, 65 of which are managers, (assembly line supervisor to chief executive). There is one chief executive officer constituting the zenith of the strategic apex, 7 function directors whose responsibilities range from Personnel through Production to Finance etc. who form the link between middle line management and the strategic apex. There are approx. 25 managers operating at the middle line. Directly below these are 32 supervisors who mediate between upper positions and the core staff.

* For the purposes of confidentiality and anonymity the organization in which this study was undertaken, is labelled as A Corp.

Approximately 200 employees could be classed as being members of A Corp's organizational technostructure (i.e. clerical staff and analysts not dealing directly with inputs or outputs), the balance of 300 can be strictly classed as core staff (i.e. those physically dealing with inputs and outputs). 204 employees have a professional/technical status, 71 are administrative personnel, and the remainder (232) are loosely defined as operators. The male/female ratio is 330/242, respectively. 34 % of the workforce is between 18 and 25 years of age, 52 % is between 26 and 35 years, and 12 % is above 36 years. The core staff of A. may be defined as consisting of : Manufacture (L.S.I., large scale integration), Testing (both unit test and systems test), Quality Control, Stores and Sales and Support (including repairs).

Support Staff operate outside work flow, for A Corp this area of the organization includes those staff involved in anything from legal counsel to those in cafeteria and security duties. The technostructure, i.e. the analysts and the clerical staff, consists of Finance, Personnel and Production Scheduling specialists.

3.1.2 Employee Status

The average age of staff in A Corp is approximately 30 years of age. Due to the nature of the product, the majority of employees are of a skilled or semi-skilled nature e.g. electrical engineers, professional managers, materials requirements planners etc. The emphasis of selection is towards

young but inexperienced employees who can be indoctrinated through 'in-house' education and training programs. Training involvement is not limited to any specific level of the hierarchy, members from all levels are encouraged to participate. A Corp follows three basic principles with regard to its employee's status :

- (1) A Corp should provide personal growth and development for all employees;
- (2) A Corp should encourage openness and collaboration between employees;
- (3) A Corp should encourage the expression employee feelings.

3.1.3 Employee Related Organizational Strategies

Organizational strategies of autonomous work group participation and self-management, attempt to facilitate the inclusion of lower levels of the hierarchy in the decision making process. Self-management attempts to give employees a certain amount of responsibility for their work schedules, but it does not mean that they can decide what to do and when to do it. There are gaps in the work schedule where employees have significant control, such as in factory layout, managing their time (the majority of A Corp employees work on a Flexitime basis), and skill level (training is an ongoing voluntary process, with organizational sponsorship available for 'off site' educational programmes).

Team participation is an intrinsic element of job function for all A Corp employees. An average staff member participates in 3 or 4 teams. There are

approximately 80 teams operational throughout the organizational matrix. These teams are both cross functional and cross departmental. Semi formal meetings are the primary method of communication. All teams in the organization meet on a regular basis i.e. once daily to once quarterly.

The importance of autonomy in the workplace has been strongly established (e.g. See Breugh, 1985; Breugh & Becker, 1987; Brady, Judd & Javian, 1990), and linked to a variety of positive organizational and individual outcomes, such as, job satisfaction (Loher, Nor, Moeller, & Fitzgerald, 1985) and job involvement (Jans, 1985). Such organizational interventions are seen by A Corp as benefitting the creation of an 'open' organizational climate where employees have a facility for participation in the decision making process. Other benefits which A Corp sees as accruing from such employee centred interventions are the development of a sense of 'ownership' of the organization, and increased organizational identification in all employees.

3.2 OPERATIONAL DEFINITION* OF LEVELS OF THE ORGANIZATIONAL HIERARCHY**.

3.2.1 Upper management

(i) CEO, The main accents of this job are on the strategic and internal/external political levels. Responsibility for the formulation and realization of strategic planning policy, which is attained through others. The mission of the CEO is the actualization and conception of strategic planning policy.

(ii) Directors, (one director for each of 7 "functions") this level of the hierarchy is characterized by the enactment of strategic planning policy through others (in a less removed way than CEO). The main characteristics of work on this level are strategic and tactical planning and internal/external political decision making, with regard to the actualization of strategic planning policy, within the context of individual "function" operations.

* Tuckman (1978) recommends this short section in a research paper by virtue of the fact that : "although the Method section will provide a detailed operational statement of how the variables are to be measured, it is helpful for the reader to have an early idea of what the variables mean".

** The organization A Corp, is a multinational company, with divisions operating worldwide. The operational definitions of the hierarchical level do not include any reference to organizational levels which may exist elsewhere. A Corp is assumed to be an independent organization in situ, for the purpose of this study.

(iii) Managers, goals and techniques used on this level are similar to those used in the level above. Descriptors are : organization, planning, management, coordination, control etc. The conspicuous difference is a closer link with end results than the above levels.

In hierarchal terms upper management are characterised as having either 0 (CEO), 1 (Directors), or 2 (Managers) levels of the hierarchy above them, and 4 (CEO), 3 (Directors), or 2 (Managers) levels of the hierarchy beneath.

3.2.2 Middle Management

Supervisors or equivalent level. Defined as jobs with a supervisory character. They attain results through others in a close, often "hands on" way. The main attributes of supervisory employment are found on the tactical or operations level and on the plane of objectives (goals), norms, standards and procedures. Descriptors : coordination, control, supervision, programming procedures etc.

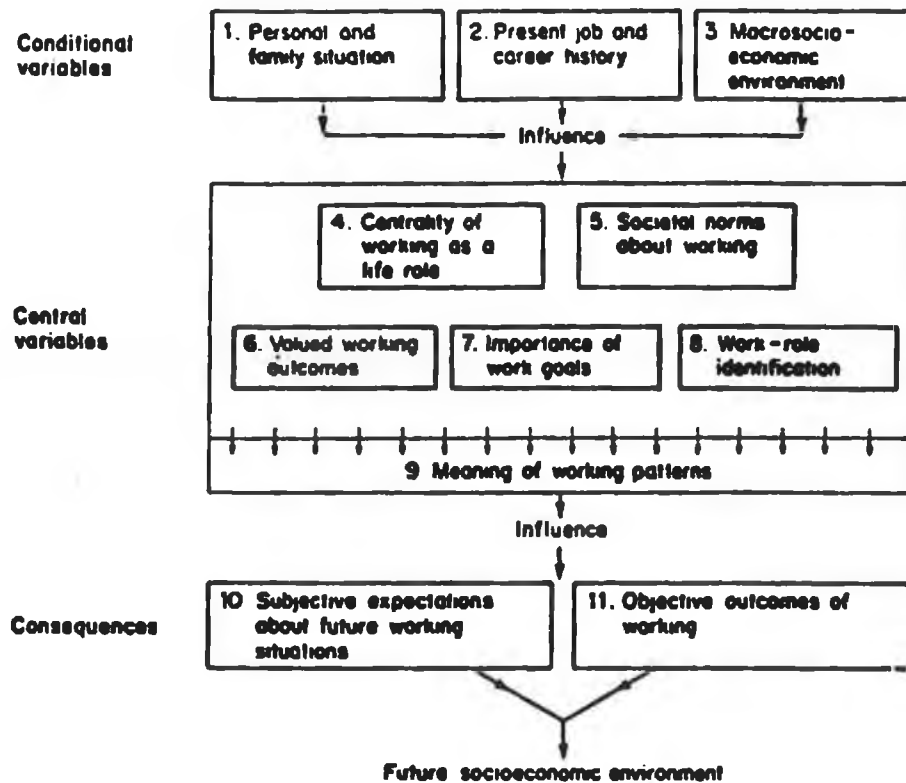
3.2.3 Non-Management

Represented by jobs of a technical or operative character. Results (usually of physical output nature i.e. product) must be obtained through themselves. The main job characteristics of non-managers, are that they work on an operational level as well as on the level of objectives (goals), norms procedures, and standards. Descriptors: performance, execution, verification, elaboration, control etc.

3.3 DESIGN OF INSTRUMENTS

A 39 question (87 variable) questionnaire was developed to assess meaning of working patterns of employees in company A (See Appendix 1). This questionnaire is based on the International Meaning of Work Team's Heuristic Model Of MOW (See Figure 3.1).

FIGURE 3.1 MOW HEURISTIC MODEL



This model is based on the conception that the meaning of working for an individual is determined by their choices and experiences and by the organizational and environmental context in which they work and live (MOW International Research Team, 1998). The primary rationale behind the use of such a model for the present study was to form a foundation for the measurement of individual's 'work meanings' through the identification of intervening variables, and the operationalization of these variables.

The 5 central domains have been identified (Chapter 1.4) i.e.

- (i) Centrality of Work,
- (ii) Societal norms about working,
- (iii) Valued Working outcomes,
- (iv) Importance of work goals,
- (v) Work-role identification, and these relate individually to the phenomenon of working. The MOW Team (1987) postulate that there are three distinct meaning constructs inherent in the above 5 central domains i.e. Work Centrality, Societal Norms of an individual's obligation to work and entitlements received from work ; and valued working outcomes and work goals, and that these constructs function theoretically to describe different bases for the attachment of individuals to the phenomenon of working.

3.3.1 Centrality of Work (Question 11 & Question 12) :

The centrality of work construct is divided into two separate sub-constructs Relative Centrality of Work (RCOW) and Absolute Centrality of Work (ACOW). Relative Centrality of Work is based on the work of Dubin (1956), on Central Life Interests (See Chapter 2.1.2.1). Dubin (1956, 1976) attempted to establish the relative importance of working with respect to other life spheres. The present questionnaire utilized 5 of the most frequently identified central life interests : Work, Family, Religion, Community and Leisure. Subjects are required to rank these interest according to individual perception of importance. The Absolute Centrality of Work dimension of the MOW questionnaire focuses on Morse & Weiss' study (1955) (See Chapter 2.1) of the financial dimension of working. The MOW Absolute Centrality of Work question takes the form of a 7 point Likert scale. Absolute and Relative Centrality of Work measures are combined to form a central measure of COW.

3.3.2 Societal Norms (Question 15):

This dimension of the questionnaire attempts to assess societal level norms, not simply norms that are an aggregation of individual views (See Chapter 2.3 for an indepth review of Social Norms). The 6, evaluative rather than descriptive, societal norms utilized in this study form 2 sub-headings: Entitlement (underlying work rights of individuals and the work-related responsibility of organizations and society towards all individuals) and Obligation (Underlying duties of all individuals to society). Subjects respond

on a 1 to 4 Likert type scale of Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Agree, and Strongly Agree, respectively.

3.3.3 Valued Working Outcomes and Work Goals :

Valued Working Outcomes (Question 10) : (Kaplan & Tausky, 1974. See Ch.2.4) This dimension of the questionnaire assess the relative importance of the broad functions performed for individuals through the process of working. Subjects are required to assign a total of 100 points to six broad functions of working to indicate their relative importance in explaining what working means to them. Work Goals (Question 14) : (Hertzberg et al. 1957. See also Ch. 4.) A combined ranking\rating method of facet appraisal was utilized. Respondents in the present study were required to evaluate 11 facets of work or work goals in terms of their perceived subjective importance.

3.4 SAMPLING

Based on A Corp employee statistics 1990, the present study endeavoured to sample in equally representative numbers (with coinciding sample errors), subjects from 3 separate locations on the organizational hierarchy i.e. Upper Management (CEO, Directors, and Managers), Middle Management (Supervisors or equivalent level), and Non-management (operators, Maintenance, Stores, Administrative, etc).

All subjects were chosen on a completely random basis, according to Stratified Random Sampling method (Backstorm & Hursh, 1963), which dictates that the population is divided into homogenous subparts (strata), which in this study is by hierarchal position, and a random sample taken of each stratum. This method of sampling usually reduces the amount of variation in the population and thus allows for a smaller sample size (p.p. 26-27).

3.5 ADMINISTRATION

A Post returnable data collection method was employed. Subjects were furnished with :

1. instructions for completion of questionnaire,
2. the questionnaire itself, and
3. stamped envelopes addressed to Dublin Business School, Dublin City University.

These questionnaires were distributed in A Corp according to the parameters of stratified random sampling, and the strata under investigation. The ethical principles of data collection with regard to confidentiality and anonymity of subjects, as laid down by The Psychological Society of Ireland's code of professional ethics, (1979) were observed.

3.6 DATA PROCESSING

To the extent possible, anticipated responses were pre-coded (assigned columns for responses) when the questionnaire was drafted. On receipt of completed questionnaires, the first priority was to verify that instructions for completion had been followed unerringly by all subjects. Voided questionnaires were defined as those which contained inappropriate responses from inattention to response instructions, or non response to questions. Valid, non-voided questionnaire responses were then coded numerically for entry and processing by SPSS.

Figure 3.2 shows the numbers of respondents in each of the hierarchal levels in A Corp, and the corresponding sample numbers. Of those questionnaires distributed in A Corp (n=110), 49% (n=54) were returned and valid for analysis.

FIGURE 3.2 COMPARISON OF TOTAL POPULATION TO SAMPLE POPULATION ACCORDING TO HIERARCHAL LEVEL

HIERARCHAL LEVEL	SAMPLE		TOTAL POPULATION	
	n	%	N	%
Upper Management (Chief Executive Officer Director, Manager).	9	16.65	33	5.7
Middle Management (Supervisors or equivalent level).	9	16.65	32	5.6
Non-Management (Stores, Clerical, Secretarial).	36	66.7	507	88.7
TOTAL	54	100.0	572	100.0

3.7 STATISTICAL TREATMENT

Three levels of measurement were utilized in the present questionnaire, Interval, Ranking, and Nominal. Nonparametric methods are appropriate for nominal data, as these methods make few assumptions about the properties of the parent distribution. Parametric methods are fitting for interval data. For interval and ranking questions Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests were carried. The primary rationale behind this approach was to assess significance levels between hierarchal position and MOW variables.

T-tests on significant scores (.05, is taken as the cut off point level of significance) were then undertaken to assess quantifiable directions of significance. The T-Test procedure is used to test hypotheses about the equality of two means for variables measured on an interval scale. In the case of the present study, there are 3 means to be compared with each other (i.e. mean score by each hierarchal position on MOW questionnaire variables i.e. 1. Upper Management, 2. Middle Management and 3. Non-management, must be compared with every other hierarchal position. The mean score of Upper Management must be compared with the mean score of both Middle Management and Non management, the mean score of Middle Management must be compared with the mean score of both Upper Management and Non-management etc.).

For nominally measured responses, Cross-tab tables were performed as a means of descriptive inference, and the Chi-square method of significance

of association was used (.05, is here also taken as the cut off point level of significance.

All the above operations were carried out using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS-PC).

CHAPTER 4

4.0 RESULTS

Sections 4.1 and 4.2 show results obtained through the use of Parametric and Non Parametric tests respectively. Section 4.3 presents descriptive data based on the 5 central MOW variables.

4.1 PARAMETRIC TESTS

Interval and ordinal variables were analyzed using parametric methods i.e. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and T-Tests. The primary rationale behind the use of ANOVA was to firstly test for significance of difference between dependant and independent variables, and secondly allows the 'direction' of the significance to be established through the use of T-Tests. Figure 4.1.1 shows ANOVA results assessing the effects of hierarchal level on MOW variables.

FIGURE 4.1.1. ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS

Results are coded as follows : $p < .01$ ** ; $p < .05$ * ; $p > NS$ =Not Significant.

Q. NO.	SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL	VARIABLE DESCRIPTOR \$
Q.1	.001 **	Variety
Q.2	.074 NS	Autonomy
Q.3	.918 NS	Responsibility
Q.4	.023 *	Learning
Q.5	.078 NS	Required interaction
Q.6	.056 NS	Free interaction
Q.10 1	.776 NS	Status and Prestige
2	.623 NS	Income
3	.128 NS	Keeping Occupied
4	.837 NS	Contacts
5	.018 *	Serve Society
6	.534 NS	Work Itself
Q.11	.23 NS	Absolute Centrality of Work
Q.12 A	.003 **	Importance of Leisure
B	.88 NS	" of Community
C	.056 NS	" of Work
D	.406 NS	" of Religion
E	.085 NS	" of Family

\$ For full variable descriptions see appropriate question number in Appendix 1.

FIGURE 4.1.1.(contd.) ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE RESULTS.

Results significance is coded as follows : $p < .01$ ** ; $p < .05$ * ; $p > NS$ =Not Significant.

Q. NO.	SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL		VARIABLE DESCRIPTOR
Q.13	A	.383 NS	WORK ROLE IDENT. Tasks
	B	.160 NS	Company
	C	.032 *	Product
	D	.241 NS	People
	E	.021 *	Occupation
	F	.109 NS	Money
Q.14	A	.395 NS	IMPORTANCE OF WORK GOALS Learn new things
	B	.460 NS	Interpersonal rel.
	C	.747 NS	Promotion opp.
	D	.288 NS	Convenient hrs.
	E	.754 NS	Variety
	F	.909 NS	Interesting
	G	.868 NS	Security
	H	.562 NS	Match
	I	.803 NS	Pay
	J	.761 NS	Conditions
	K	.759 NS	Autonomy
Q.15	1	.369 NS	SOCIETAL NORMS RE. WORKING Retraining
	2	.985 NS	Suggestions
	3	.361 NS	Better ways
	4	1.000 NS	Interesting
	5	.127 NS	Monotonous
	6	.539 NS	Value work
Q.19		.893 NS	Do things not related to work
Q.20		.207 NS	How often worry about work
Q.30		.563 NS	Too much physically
Q.31		.021 *	Too much Mentally
Q.33		.124 NS	Education
Q.32		.045 *	Skill utilization
Q.37		.098 NS	Years in Org.
Q.37		.945 NS	Months in Org.

All significant ANOVA results are shown in Figure 4.1.2.

FIGURE 4.1.2. SIGNIFICANT ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE VALUES

Results significance is coded as follows : $p < .01$ ** ;
 $p < .05$ *.

Q. NO.	SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL	VARIABLE DESCRIPTOR
Q.1	.001 **	Variety in work procedures
Q.4	.023 *	Learning
Q.10 5	.018 *	Serve Society
Q.12 A	.003 **	Importance of Leisure
Q.13 C E	.032 *	WORK ROLE IDENTIFICATION
	.021 *	Product Occupation
Q.31	.021 *	Too much Mentally
Q.32	.045 *	Skill utilization

Having analyzed all interval and ordinal variables using ANOVA (Figure 4.1.1) 8 of 49 variables were found to show significant differences between means, indicating definitive hierarchal effects. It was then decided to delve deeper into the specific effects of hierarchal level on MOW variables which have shown a significant difference between means (Figure 4.1.2) using T-Tests (See Figure 4.1.3).

Figure 4.1.3 shows all significant T-Test results. T-Test procedure is used to test the hypotheses regarding the equality of two means. In this case there are 3 means to be compared with each other (The mean score on MOW variables by each hierarchal position i.e. 1. Upper Management, 2. Middle Management and 3. Non-management, must be compared with every other hierarchal position. The mean score of Upper Management must be compared with the mean score of both Middle Management and Non-management, the mean score of Middle Management must be compared with the mean score of both Upper Management and Non-management etc.). T-tests were executed on significant ANOVA scores (Figure 4.1.2).

FIGURE 4.1.3. T-TEST RESULTS

Q. No.	DESCRIPTION	GROUP	DIRECTION	POOLED	SEPARATE	F VALUE
1	VARIETY	1-3	1 > 3	.010	.002	2.58
1	VARIETY	2-3	2 > 3	.003	.000	4.51
2	AUTONOMY	2-3	2 > 3	.031	.035	1.17
4	LEARNING	1-3	1 > 3	.039	.018	2.00
4	LEARNING	2-3	2 > 3	.039	.018	2.00
12	LEISURE	1-3	3 > 1	.006	.000	4.27
12	LEISURE	2-3	3 > 2	.019	.003	2.88
12	WORK	2-3	2 > 3	.015	.022	1.08
12	FAMILY	1-2	1 > 2	.015	.020	6.56
13	PRODUCT/SERVICE	1-3	1 > 3	.041	.090	1.51
13	PRODUCT/SERVICE	2-3	2 > 3	.026	.111	2.57
13	OCCUPATION	1-2	2 > 1	.013	.014	1.70
13	OCCUPATION	1-3	3 > 1	.008	.001	2.63
31	TOO MENTAL	1-3	1 > 3	.017	.013	1.50
32	SKILL UTILIZ.	1-3	1 > 3	.033	.003	3.95

GROUP 1 = UPPER MANAGEMENT
 GROUP 2 = MIDDLE MANAGEMENT
 GROUP 3 = NON-MANAGEMENT

The T-Test procedure above computes the Student's statistic for testing the significance of a difference between means of the independent samples. The DIRECTION column (Figure 4.1.3) shows the relative size of the means of the groups where a significant difference between the means was found. The group to the left of the 'greater than' sign is the group that possesses the greater of the two means, for example in Question 1, i.e. 'VARIETY' (variety in work procedures), both Upper Management and Middle Management work has more variety of work procedures than Non Management. To summarize an indication of the strength of association between the variables is given.

4.2 NON PARAMETRIC TESTS

Nominally measured variables are analyzed using the Chi square test of association. Figure 4.2.1 shows all Chi square results. The Chi-square test is a test of independence, but cannot indicate the direction or strength of association between variables which are nominally measured.

FIGURE 4.2.1. CHI SQUARE RESULTS

< .01 **, < .05 *, NS=Not Significant.

Q. NO.	SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL	VARIABLE DESCRIPTOR
Q.7	.019 *	When started career
Q.8	.26 NS	Career decline/improve
Q.9	.13 NS	Satis with work history
Q.16	.209 NS	Lottery Question
Q.17		WORK DEFINITIONS
A	.87 NS	Work place
B	.49 NS	Tells you
C	.49 NS	Physically strenuous
D	.40 NS	Belongs to task
E	.33 NS	Contributes to society
F	.97 NS	Belonging
G	.24 NS	Mentally strenuous
H	.86 NS	At certain time
I	.07 NS	Adds value
J	N\A #	If not pleasant
K	.88 NS	Money
L	.04 *	Account for it
M	.57 NS	Have to do it
N	.42 NS	If others profit
Q.18	.003 **	Prefer work/org.
Q.21	.047 *	Intend training
Q.22	.255 NS	Trying to be promoted
Q.23	.268 NS	Importance of work in future
Q.24	.626 NS	Work less hours which alternative
Q.25	.843 NS	How about working less hours

No responses were recorded for this variable.

FIGURE 4.2.1 (contd.). CHI SQUARE RESULTS
 < .01 **, < .05 *, NS=Not Significant.

Q. NO.	SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL	VARIABLE DESCRIPTOR
Q.26	.873 NS	Choose occupation again
Q.27	.302 NS	Recommend occupation to children
Q.28	.167 NS	Dangerous job
Q.29	.29 NS	Unhealthy job
Q.35	.0009 **	Work schedule
Q.36	.405 NS	Regular vs varied hrs.
Q.38	.088 NS	Sex
Q.39	.001 **	Age

Figure 4.2.2 shows all significant Chi-square results.

FIGURE 4.2.2. SIGNIFICANT CHI-SQUARE RESULTS
 < .01 **, < .05 *.

Q. NO.	SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL	VARIABLE DESCRIPTOR
Q.7	.019 *	When started career
Q.17 L	.04 *	WORK DEFINITIONS Account for it
Q.18	.003 **	Prefer work/org.
Q.21	.047 *	Intend training
Q.35	.0009 **	Work schedule
Q.39	.001 **	Age

Figure 4.2.1 indicates that 6 of 32 variables, which were analyzed using Chi-square analysis, shows significant effects of hierarchal level, all of which are shown in Figure 4.2.2.

After analyzing 81 independent variables using the appropriate measures (ANOVA, T-Tests, and Chi-squares), a general depiction of the effects of hierarchal level on MOW variables can be observed. From 81 variables analyzed, 14 of these 81 variables showed significant effects of hierarchal level i.e. effects not attributable to chance results.

A more specific picture of the effects of hierarchal level on MOW variables can be gained through the establishment of indices based on the 5 central domains of the Meaning of Working model (see Chapter 1). These central domains are : Work Centrality (Relative Work Centrality, Absolute Work Centrality, and Central measure of Work Centrality), Work Role Identification, Work Goals, Societal Norms About Working, and Valued Working Outcomes. In the following sections these 5 domains of the Meaning of Working concept are analyzed in isolation.

4.3 CENTRAL MEANING OF WORKING VARIABLES

4.3.1 CENTRALITY OF WORK

4.3.1.1 Calculation of Centrality of Work Indices

Two measurement procedures were used to assess the general importance of working in respondent's lives. In the first procedure, the importance of working is directly compared with the importance of other major life areas, this facet of work centrality is termed as Relative Work Centrality, as the importance and centrality of work is assessed relative to other life spheres of subjects (Question 12 (b), See below, also see Appendix 1). The second measurement procedure consists of a 7 point scale response to the question "How important and significant is working in your total life?" The anchor statement at the low end of the scale is "one of the least important things in my life", while the anchor statement at the high end of the scale is "one of the most important things in my life" (Question 11 (a)). This second facet of Work Centrality is labelled as Absolute Work Centrality, as the importance and centrality of work of subjects is assessed without any external referent. The subject themselves form the reference point.

(a) Q11. How important and significant is working in your total life?

(Please circle one number most appropriate to your situation)

One of the least										One of the most
important things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7			important things
in my life.								Of medium		in my life.
								importance		
								in my life.		

(b) Q12 Assign a total of 100 points to indicate how important the following areas are in your life at the present time.

- My leisure (like hobbies, sports, recreation and contacts with friends).
- My community (like voluntary organizations, union and political organizations).
- My work.
- My religion (like religious activities and beliefs).
- My family.

(100 Total)

From question 12 shown above it is possible to derive the ordinal position of work for a given individual, in comparison to five other life areas. Standard rules have been adopted to ascertain ordinal value ratings for each of these life areas within the framework of Centrality of Work, i.e. (a) fewer points than working, (b) points equal to working, (c) More points than working. With five life areas (including working), there are 15 possible scoring combinations.

If Working ranked first (all other life areas were given fewer points

than work), then the response is scored as 5; a rank of second (one life area given more points than work and the rest fewer, or no life areas given more points than work but one or two areas equal to work) scored 4; third (two life areas greater than work, or one greater and one or two equal, or none greater but three or four equal) was scored 3; Fourth (three greater, or two greater and one or one greater and two or three equal) scored as 2; and fifth (four greater than work, or three greater and one equal) scored 1.

Since low scores of 1, 2, or 3 on Question 11 were rare, such scores were transformed to a value of 1, while scores of 4 were transformed to a value of 2, scores of 5 to a value of 3, scores of 6 to a value of 4, and scores of 7 to a value of 5.

Scores on the item referring to Work from Question 12 were transformed to represent the importance rank of working compared to the importance of other life areas as previously specified.

The method chosen for combining the two indicators for each individual was a simple addition of the transformed scores. Thus, the possible range of the combined work centrality measure is from 2 to 10. The minimum score of 2 is obtained by an individual if their response to Question 11 is 1, 2, or 3 and working is the least important of the five life areas. Conversely, the maximum score of 10 would result from a 7 on Question 11 and evaluating working as the most important life area on Question 12.

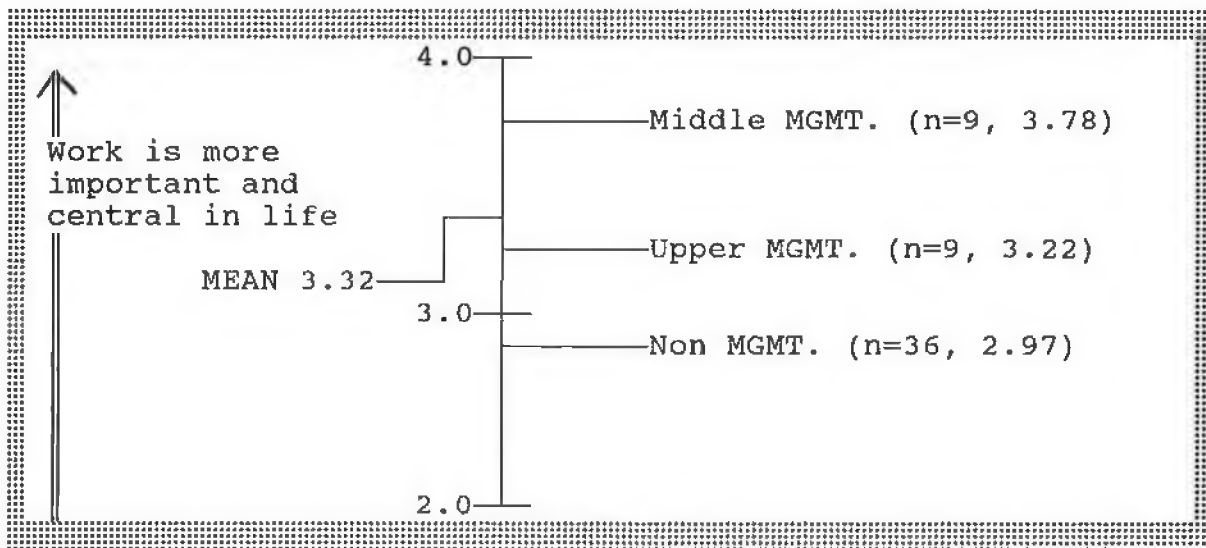
The following section (Sections 4.3) shows results obtained on individual measures of MOW variables. However before this section can be viewed a caveat must be noted. The differences seen in the following figures (Figures 4.3.1.1 to 4.3.5.4), although demonstrating visually differences across individual members of A Corp's organizational hierarchy, are not, for the most part, statistically significant. The aim of this section is to provide the reader with a visually comprehensible summary of MOW variable results, from which only descriptive inferences will be made in Chapter 5.

The calculation of the results shown in Figures 4.3.1.1 to 4.3.1.3 is based on the re-scaling procedures derived from MOW (1987, p.91). Comments below Figures 4.3.1.1 and 4.3.1.2 regarding the statistical significance (using T-Tests) of the *un re-scaled* values appropriate to each hierarchal level, are included. No attempt was made to test the statistical significance of re-scaled values, as they are an artifact of the MOW (1987 p.91) re-scaling procedure. All references to statistical significance refer to original data (See Appendix II).

4.3.1.1. Relative Centrality of Work (ACOW) (Question 12).

The following figure shows mean scores on the measure of relative centrality of work. The greater the mean score of a group, the more important and central is work in the lives of lives of group members.

FIGURE 4.3.1.1. RCOW BY HIERARCHAL LEVEL

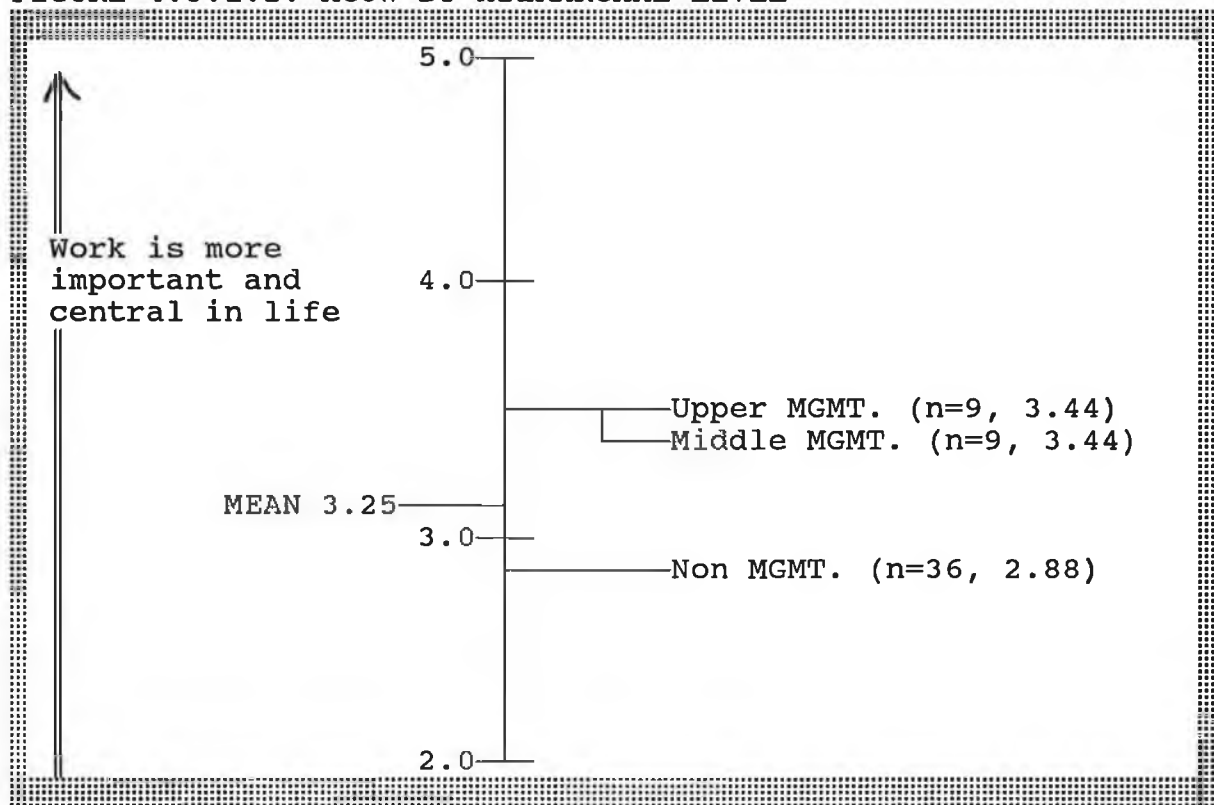


The only statistically significant result is between the middle and non management groups, $t=2.6$, $df=12.69$, $p < .05$. There is no statistically significant difference between either upper management and middle management $t=-1.64$, $df=16$, $p=$ Not Significant, or upper management and middle management groups, $t=.27$, $df=11.11$, $p=$ Not Significant.

4.3.1.2 Absolute Centrality of Work (Question 11)

The following figure shows re-scaled mean scores on the measure of absolute centrality of work. The greater the mean score of a group, the more important and central is work in the lives of group members.

FIGURE 4.3.1.2. ACOW BY HIERARCHAL LEVEL

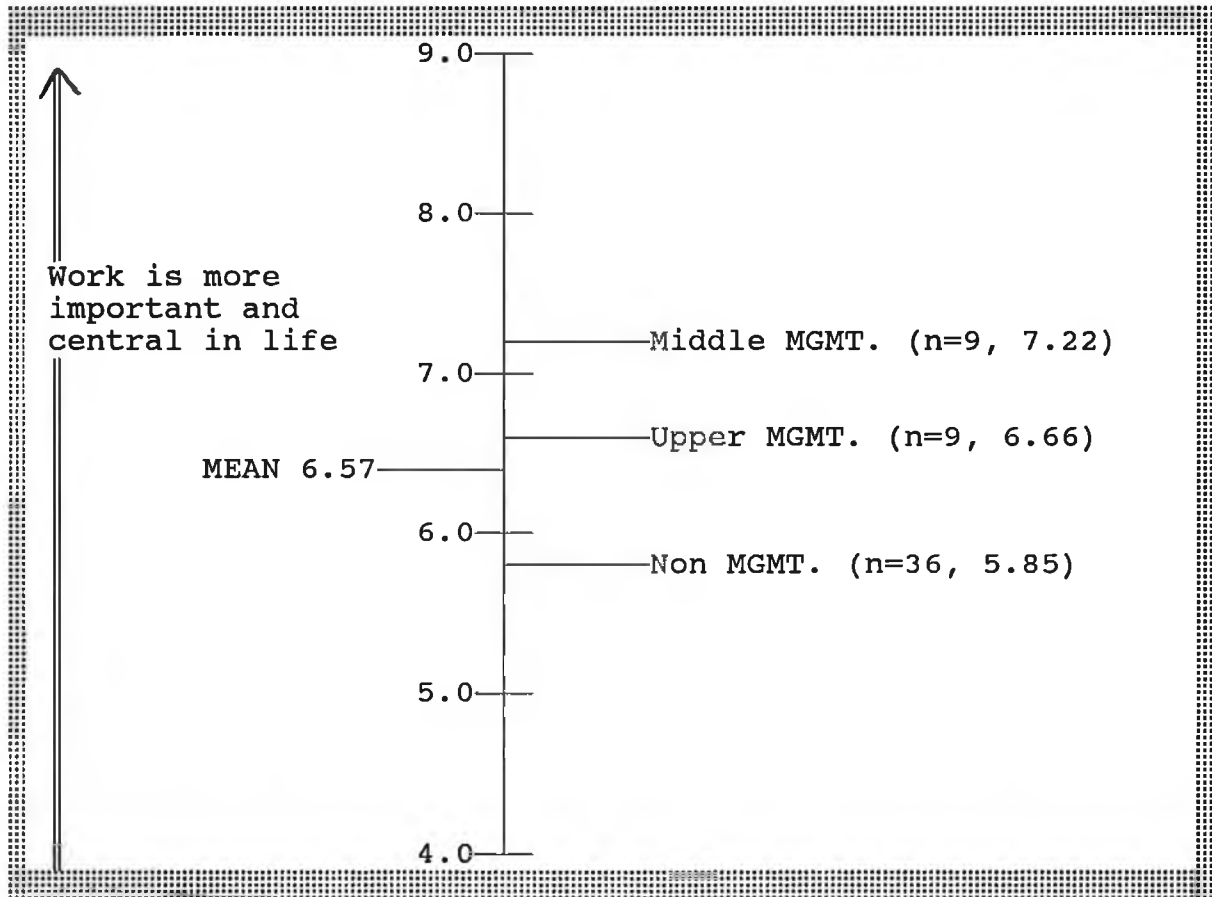


Statistically, no difference between the three hierarchal groups on a measure of Absolute Centrality of Work were found. Between upper management and middle management groups $t=.00$, $df=16$, $p=$ Not Significant, between upper and non management $t=1.52$, $df=15.58$, $p=$ Not Significant, and between middle and non managers $t=1.66$, $df=18.17$, $p=$ Not Significant.

4.3.1.3. CENTRAL MEASURE OF CENTRALITY OF WORK (CCOW)

(Questions 11 and 12 combined and re-scaled according to the procedures laid down in Section 4.3.1.1).

FIGURE 4.3.1.3. CCOW BY HIERARCHAL LEVEL



The above 3 figures (4.3.1.1 to 4.3.1.3) although showing visually apparent hierarchal differences on centrality of work measures few are statistically significant (see Figure 4.3.1.1). Perhaps the most discernable conclusion to be drawn from these results is that in MOW (1987, p.84) terms results are indicating only low to moderate work centrality across the three hierarchal levels.

4.3.2. VALUED WORKING OUTCOMES.

Subjects were asked to assign a total of 100 points to 6 statements, in any combination that they felt expressed their thinking, with respect to the functions of working (See chapter 2.4 Valued Working Outcomes and Work Goals). The following figures express mean scores for subjects with regard to the allocation of 100 percentage points for Valued Working Outcomes. The rationale behind the creation of such an index, is to assess the functions of working in order of importance for hierarchal levels.

FIGURE 4.3.2.1. VALUED WORKING OUTCOMES OF ALL SUBJECTS.

Statement	%
1. Working provides an income that is needed	38.0
2. Working is basically interesting and satisfying	19.2
3. Working permits interesting contacts with others	13.9
4. Working gives status and prestige	11.4
5. Working keeps you occupied	9.8
6. Working is a useful way to serve society	7.6
	* 99.9

Without stratification of the sample into hierarchal levels Figure 4.3.2.1., indicates that the income producing function is seen as the significantly most important function of working compared to the other functions, with the satisfaction and interesting work function 17 percentage points below.

* 0.01 % of data lost through 'rounding off' of data to one decimal place.

FIGURE 4.3.2.2. VALUED WORKING OUTCOMES OF UPPER MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.

Statement	%
1. Working provides an income that is needed	36.4
2. Working is basically interesting and satisfying	20.9
3. Working permits interesting contacts with others	14.4
4. Working gives status and prestige	12.4
5. Working keeps you occupied	11.2
6. Working is a useful way to serve society	<u>4.5</u>
	* 99.8

The income producing function is seen as the most important function of working by Upper Management subjects with the interesting and satisfaction function 15.5 percentage point below. The Upper Management results do not seem to indicate significant differences from the sample population means (Figure 4.3.2.1), other than Upper Management subjects allocate a mean of 12.4 percentage points to the status and prestige function, whereas the sample taken as a whole allocate 11.4 points.

* 0.02 % of data lost through 'rounding off' of data to one decimal place.

FIGURE 4.3.2.3. VALUED WORKING OUTCOMES OF MIDDLE MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.

Statement	%
1. Working provides an income that is needed	42.2
2. Working is basically interesting and satisfying	15.5
3. Working permits interesting contacts with others	12.8
4. Working is a useful way to serve society	11.9
5. Working gives status and prestige	11.7
6. Working keeps you occupied	<u>5.9</u>
	100.0

Middle Management subjects do not show significant differences in the ranking of Values Working Outcomes compared to the sample population means. However, in comparison to Upper Management subjects, Middle management subjects apportion 5.9 percentage points to the 'keeps you occupied' function in contrast to 11.2 points. Also, 11.9 points are allotted to the 'serve society' function by Middle Management as opposed to 4.5 points by Upper Management.

FIGURE 4.3.2.4. VALUED WORKING OUTCOMES OF NON MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.

Statement	%
1. Working provides an income that is needed	35.4
2. Working is basically interesting and satisfying	21.3
3. Working permits interesting contacts with others	14.5
4. Working keeps you occupied	12.3
5. Working gives status and prestige	10.2
6. Working is a useful way to serve society	<u>6.3</u>
	100.0

A fact that is easily discernable in the above four figures (Figure 4.3.2.1 to Figure 4.3.2.4) is a consistency in the ranking of the top three work functions across all the groups. There are, however, noticeable differences in the extent to which a group may allocate percentage points, for example, the 'income' function for Middle Management subjects has a mean score of 42.2 points but for Upper Management and Non Management subjects the same function is allotted 36.4 and 35.4 points respectively.

4.3.3 WORK GOALS

In tandem with Valued Working Outcomes another domain which is integral to understanding of the facets which individuals see as important in their working lives is : Work Goals. The following figures show mean importance scores of subjects. The higher the numeric value of a work goal the more important that work goal is relative to the others analyzed. Subjects were required to rank 11 Work Goals in any order they felt expressed their thinking.

FIGURE 4.3.3.1. RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF WORK GOALS FOR ALL SUBJECTS.

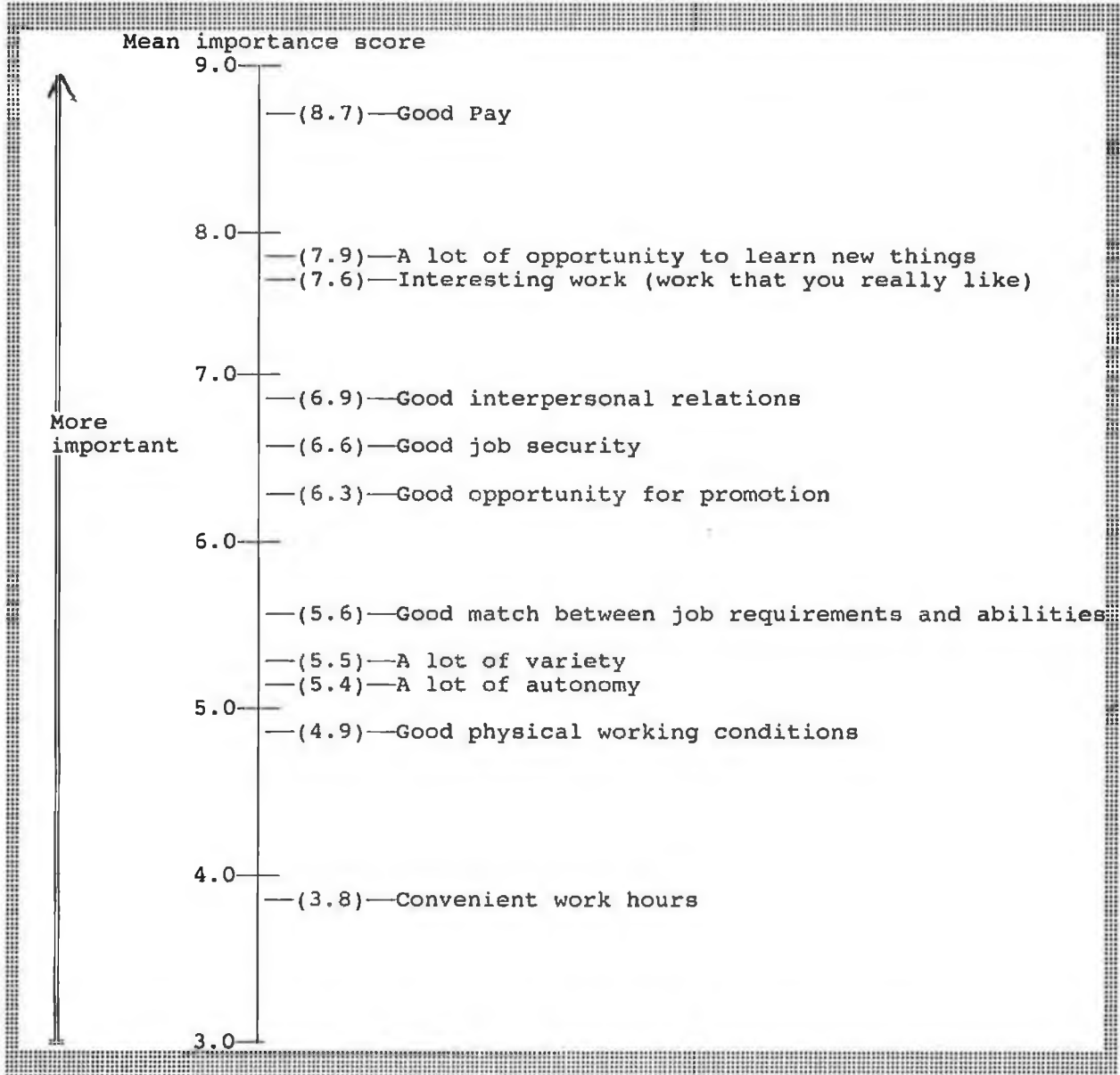


Figure 4.3.3.1. indicates that when the sample is taken as a whole, the instrumental Work Goal of adequate financial recompense is seen as an central facet of working. The expressive facets of 'opportunity to learn' and 'interesting work' are also seen, although to a lesser degree, as being integral to working.

FIGURE 4.3.3.2. RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF WORK GOALS FOR UPPER MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.

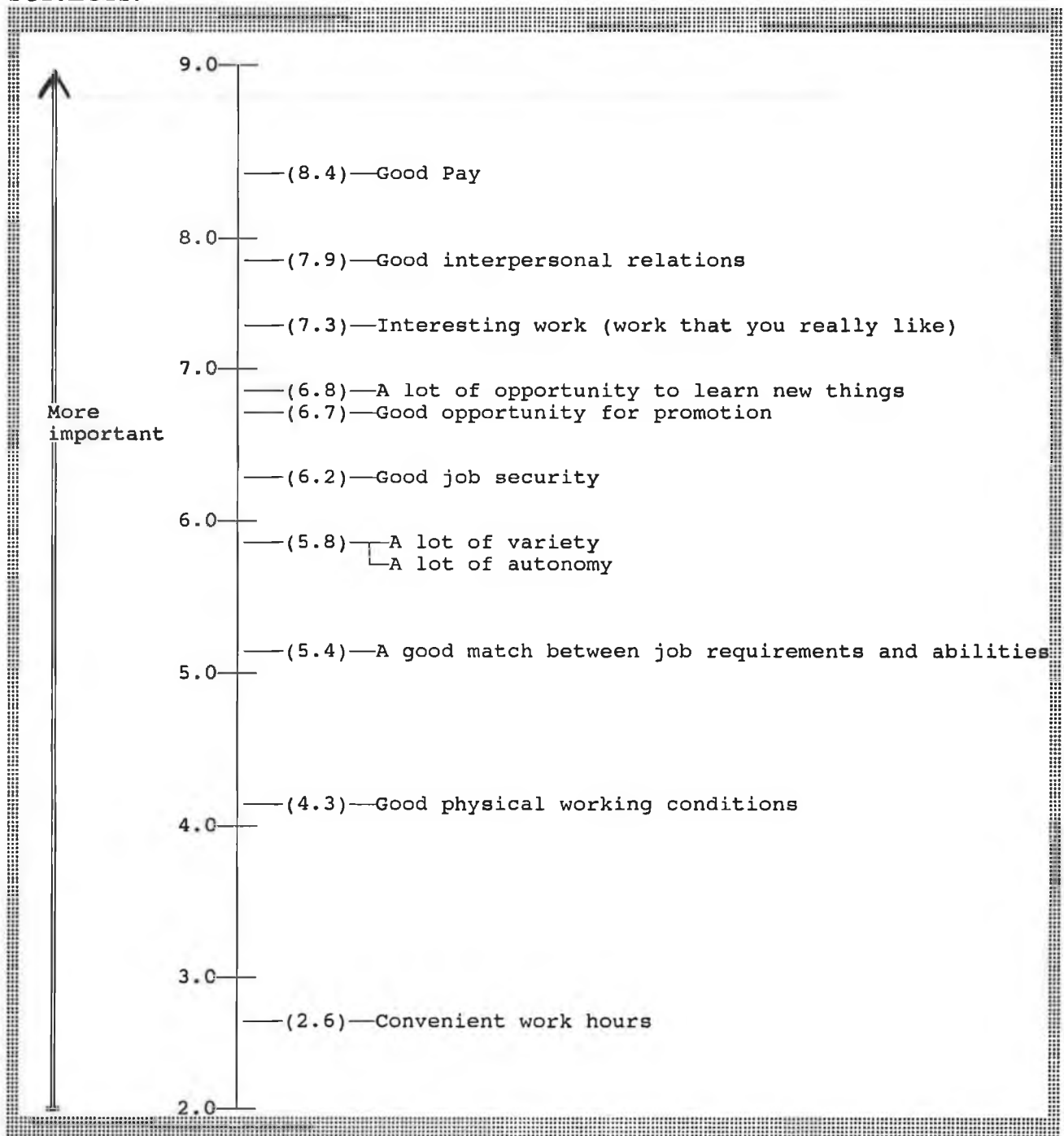


Figure 4.3.3.2. illustrates Upper Management perceptions of work goals. An important facet for Upper Management subjects, in comparison to the total sample, is the 'good interpersonal relations' facet, i.e. a mean score of 7.9 compared to 6.9 respectively. Upper Managers have ranked this Work Goal second highest, the highest being 'good pay', whereas the complete un stratified sample ranked this same facet fourth.

FIGURE 4.3.3.3. RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF WORK GOALS FOR MIDDLE MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.

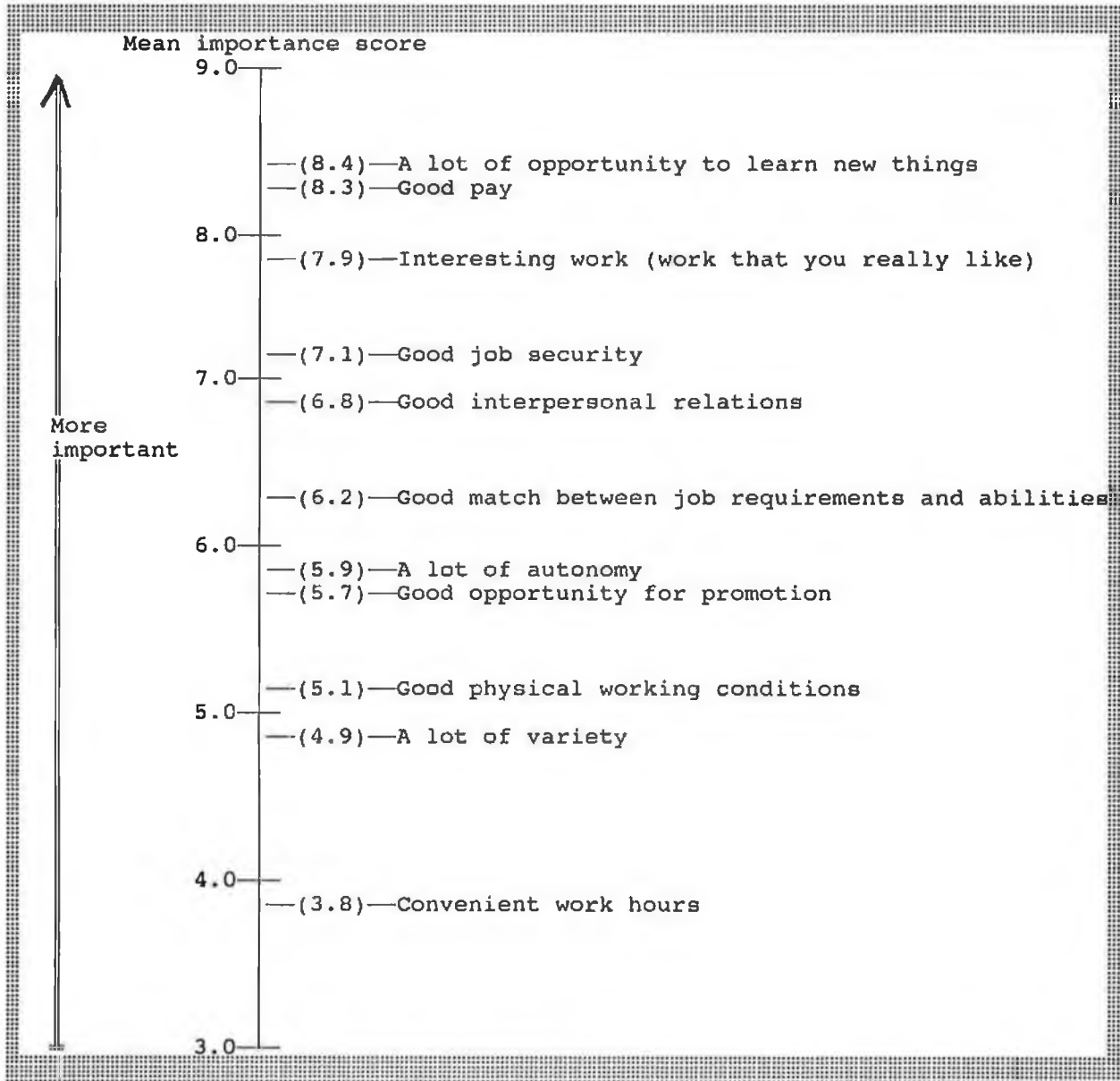
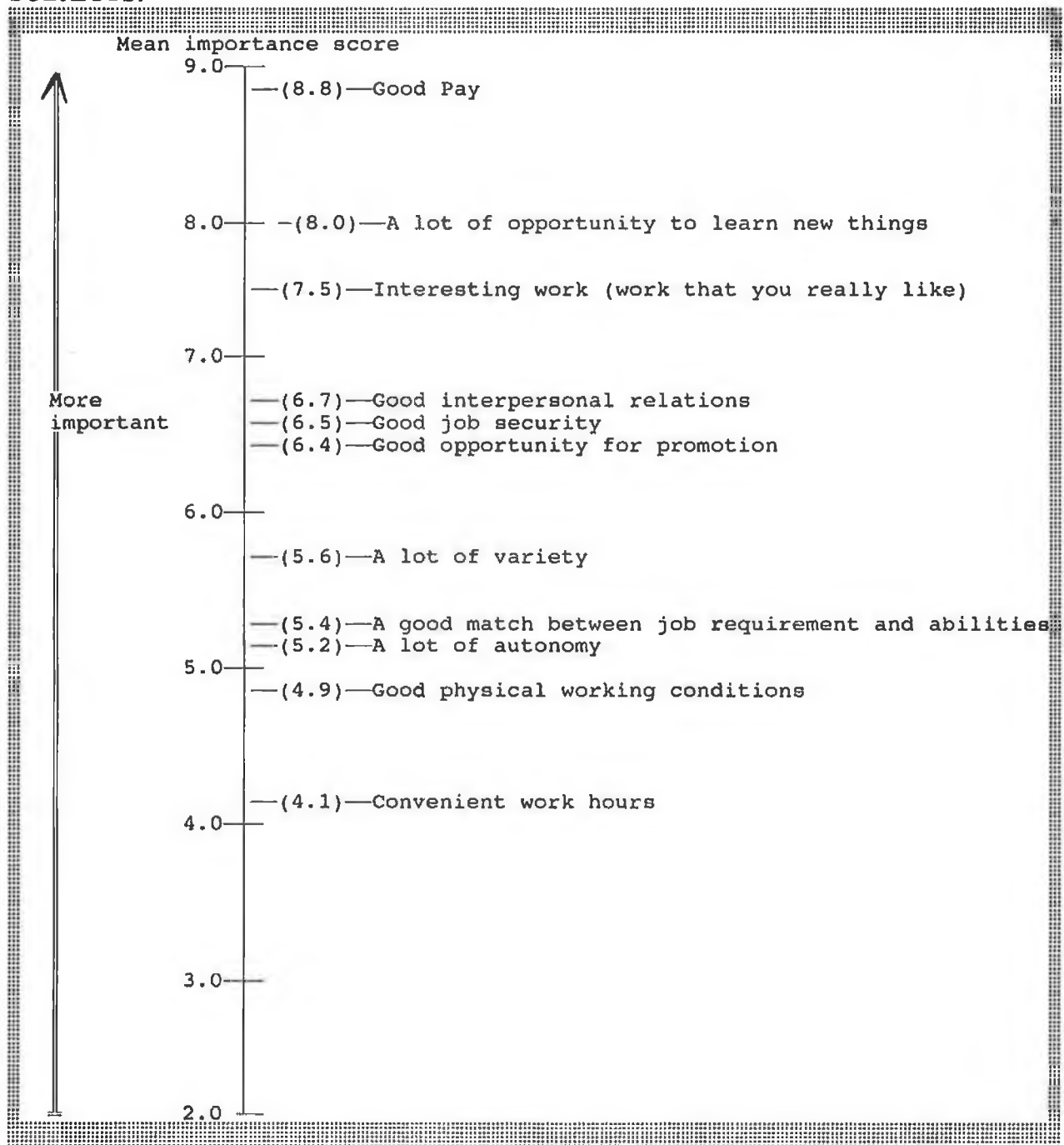


Figure 4.3.3.3 shows that Middle Managers perceive 'a lot of opportunity to learn new things' to be a slightly more important facet of working above 'good pay' (8.4 and 8.3 respectively), as opposed to Upper Management and the mean of all hierarchal levels combined, who perceive 'good pay' as *the* most important Work Goal.

FIGURE 4.3.3.4 RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF WORK GOALS FOR NON MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.

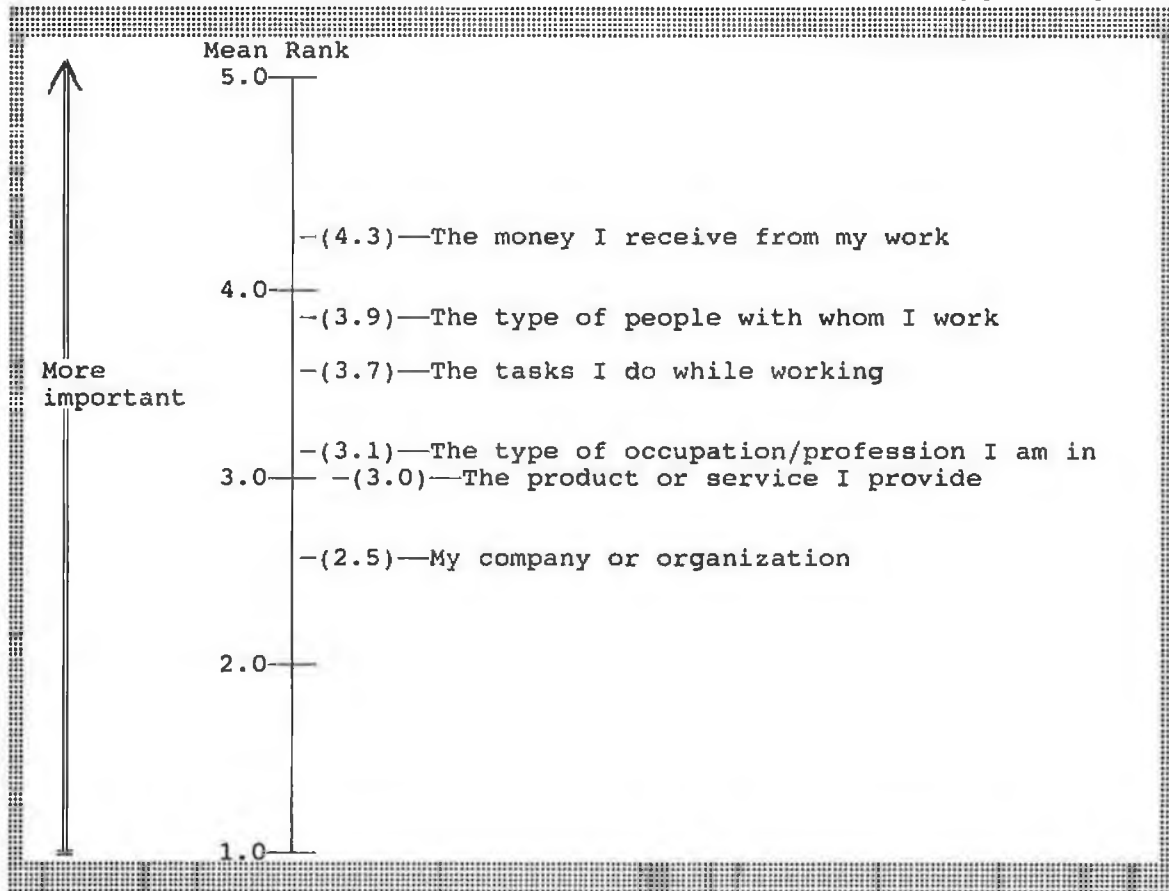


As in all the other figures representing Work Goal means (Figures 4.3.3.1 to 4.3.3.4) the 'good pay' facet is perceived by subjects as one of the most important, if not *the* most important facet, of working. Again, a caveat must be noted that the observed differences commented on above (Figures 4.3.3.1 to 4.3.3.4) between the hierarchal levels, are not statistically significant, and should only be interpreted within this context.

4.3.4 WORK ROLE IDENTIFICATION

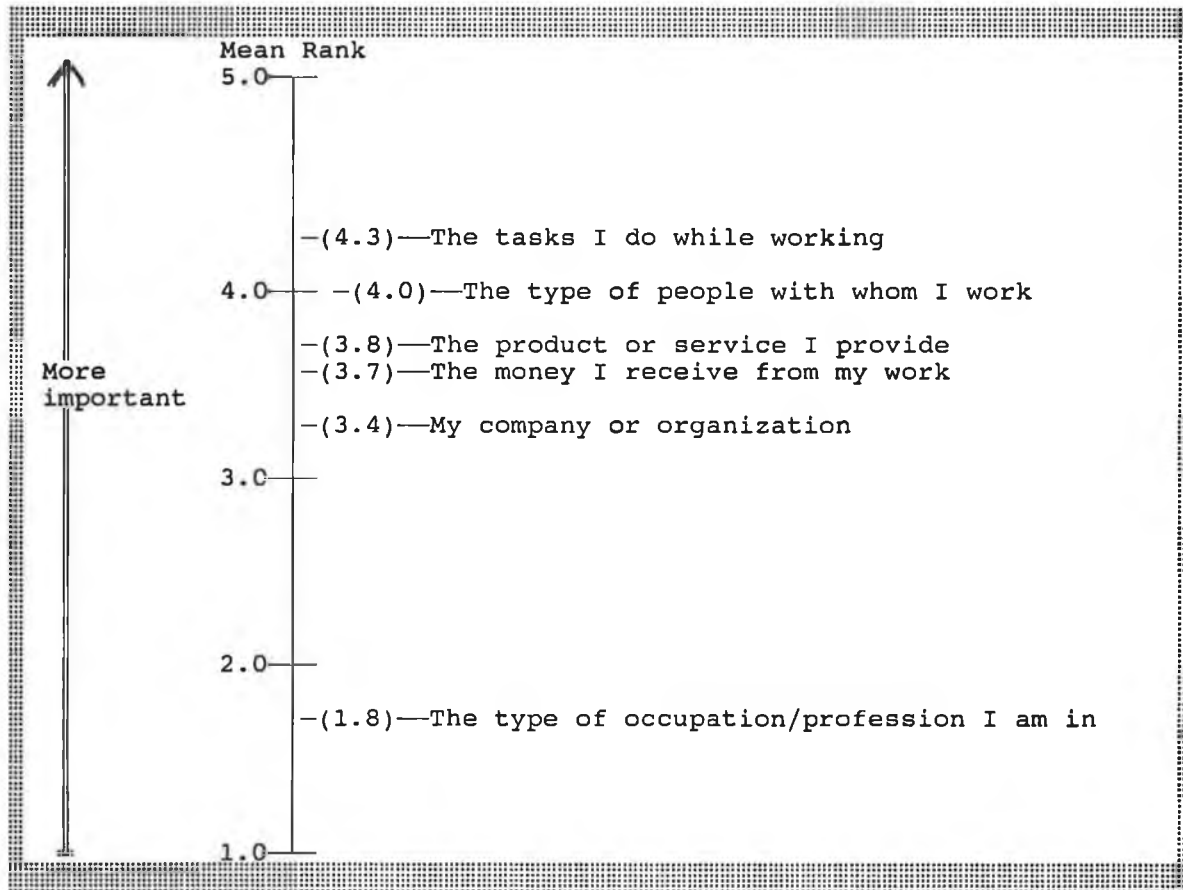
Work Role Identification is the extent to which an individual defines and identifies working in terms of various roles. Subjects were required to rank from 1 'least significant' to 6 'most significant', 6 aspects of working which seemed most important to them. The following figures show the mean Work Role Identification rank scores, in which the greater the numeric value attributed to a role the more significant and important these roles are in the working lives of subjects.

FIGURE 4.3.4.1. MEAN RANK WORK ROLE IDENTIFICATION SCORES FOR ALL SUBJECTS.



After synthesizing the three hierarchal levels into one group for analysis Figure 4.3.4.1 shows the mean Work Role Identification rank scores. 'The money I receive from working' has the highest mean rank score which indicates that this aspect of working is seen as *the* most important and significant aspect of working.

FIGURE 4.3.4.2 MEAN RANK WORK ROLE IDENTIFICATION SCORES FOR UPPER MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.



Upper Management subjects when taken in isolation from the other hierarchal levels rank 'the tasks I do while working' as *the* most important and significant aspect of their working lives. 'The money I receive from my work' facet is ranked fourth (mean score=3.7) after 'the type of people with whom I work' (mean score=4.0) and 'the product or service I provide'(mean score=3.8), in that order. 'The type of occupation/profession I am in' is ranked sixth (mean score=1.8), having been given little significance importance or significance in subjects lives. A significant difference was found (Figure 4.1.3) between the three hierarchal levels on the 'occupation/profession' variable, with Upper Management identifying least of the three groups with the variable.

FIGURE 4.3.4.3 MEAN RANK WORK ROLE IDENTIFICATION SCORES FOR MIDDLE MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.

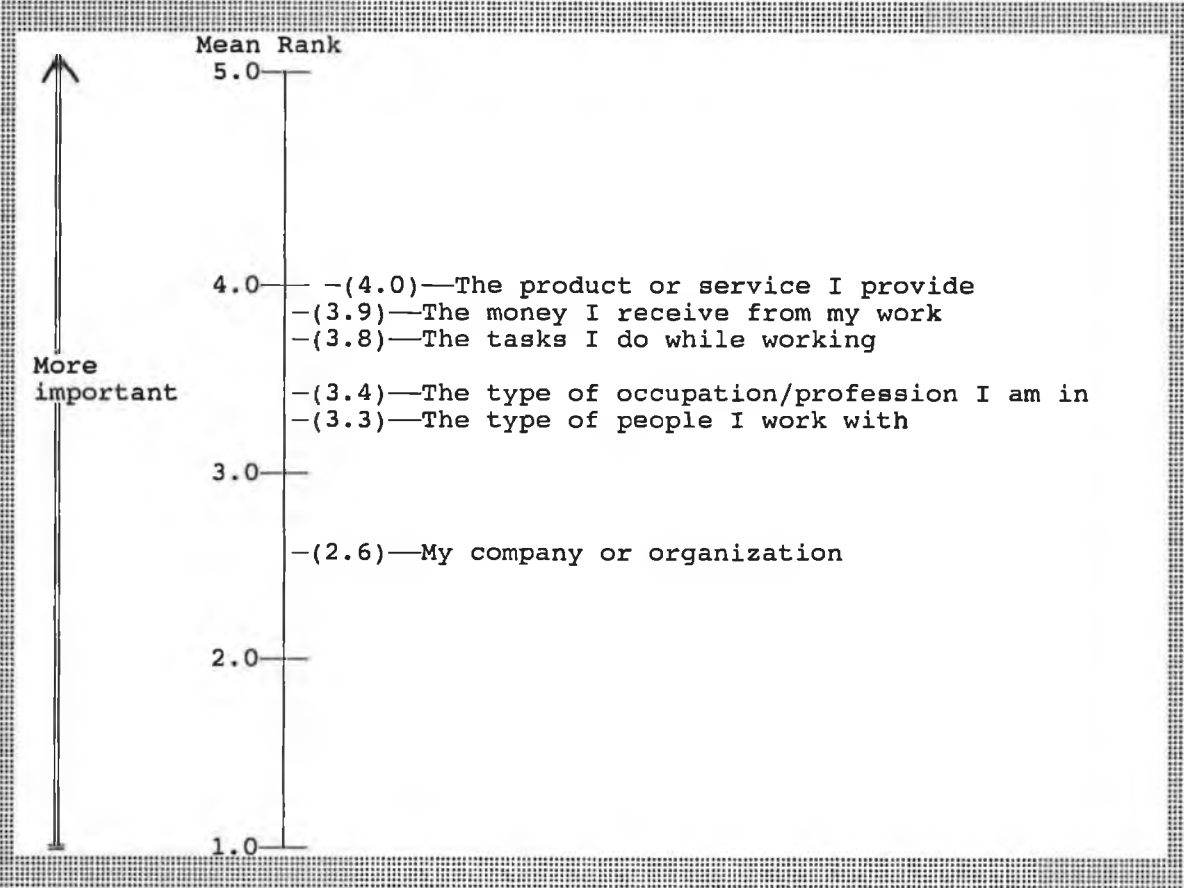


Figure 4.3.4.3 illustrated the mean rank Work role Identification scores for Middle Management subjects. 'The product or service I provide' is the highest ranked aspect of working (mean score=4.0), followed closely by 'the money I receive from my work' (mean score=3.9).

FIGURE 4.3.4.4 MEAN RANK WORK ROLE IDENTIFICATION SCORES FOR NON MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.

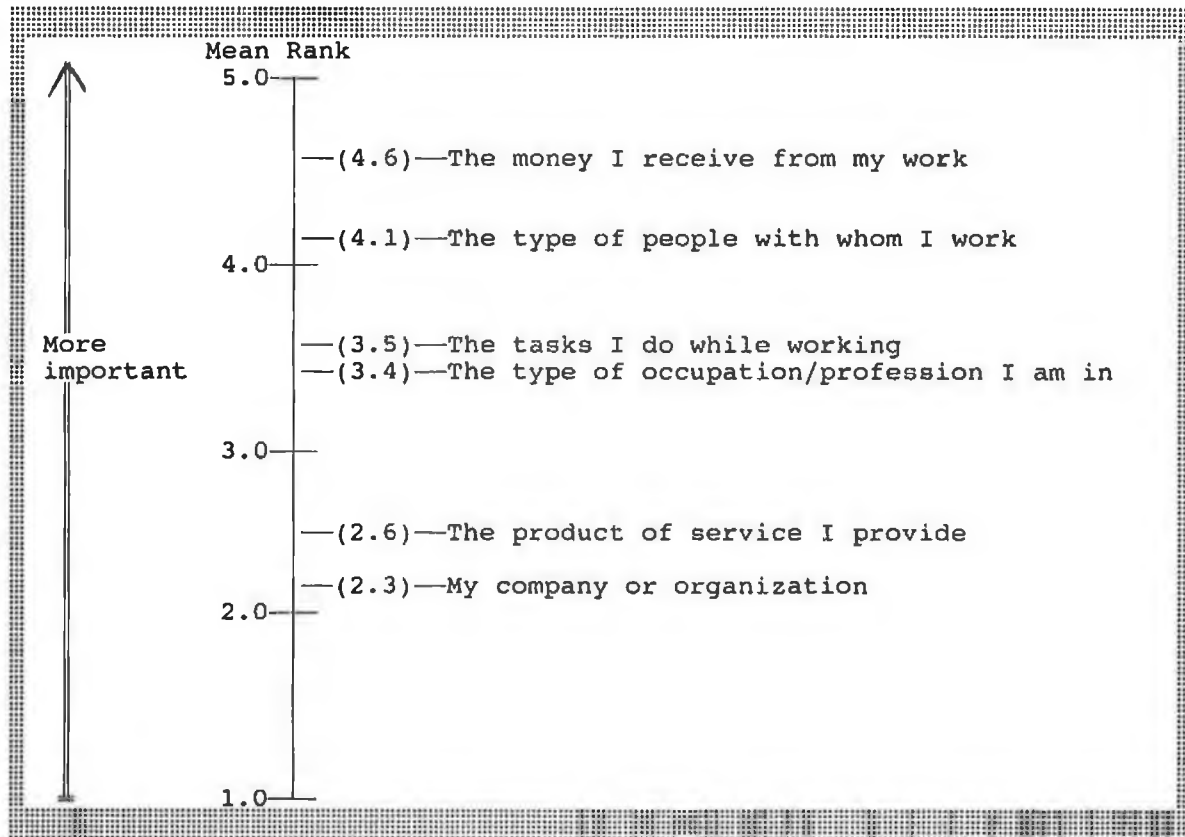
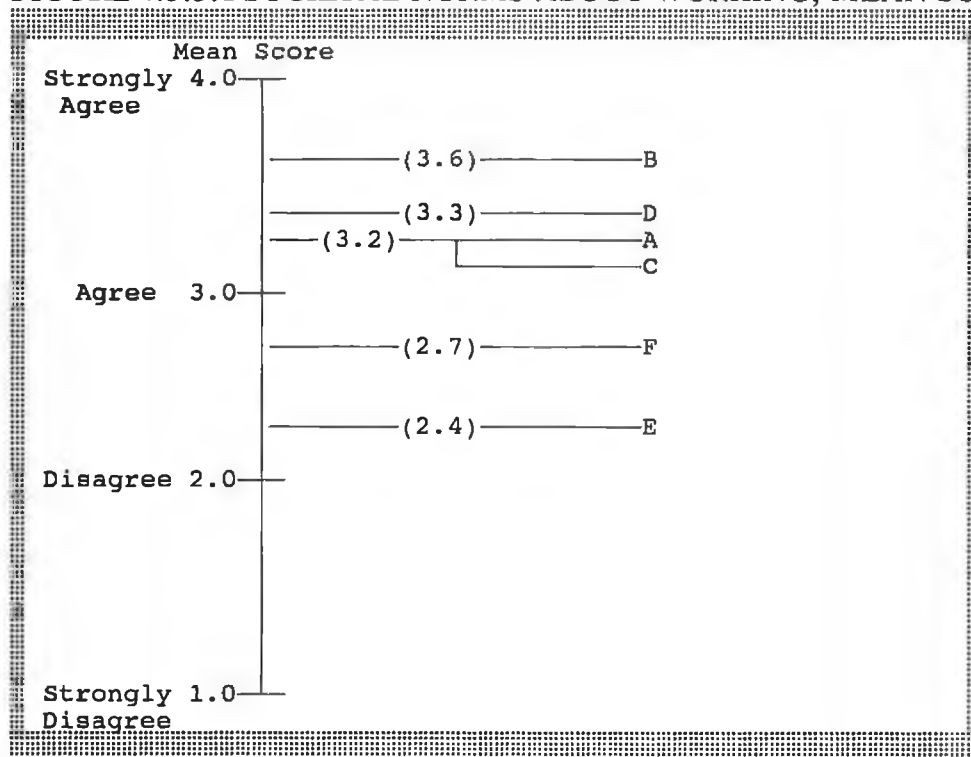


Figure 4.3.4.4 depicts mean rank Work Role Identification scores for Non Management subjects. 'The money I receive from my work' is seen as the most important and significant aspect of working, followed by 'the type of people I work with' (mean scores=4.6 & 4.1 respectively). The ranking of these two aspects of working is consistent with the mean ranking of the sample taken as a whole. However, the 'my company or organization' facet of working is perceived by the Non Management group as the least significant and important aspect of working.

4.3.5 SOCIETAL NORMS ABOUT WORKING

Societal Norms About working examine subjective expectations regarding the behaviour of members/groups within a working context, based on the subject's individual perceptions of the fulfilment of *obligations to society* and the acquisition of *entitlements from society* (i.e workers rights). Subjects were required to make value judgements with respect to their agreement or disagreement with 3 'obligation' norms (statements C, E, & F) and 3 'entitlement' norms (A, B, & D) statements. The following figures show mean scores for Societal Norms About Working, the greater the numeric value, the greater agreement there is with a statement. All the figures below show ranked mean scores i.e. the higher the mean score the more a subject agrees with a statement. A four point measurement scale was utilized i.e. from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree.

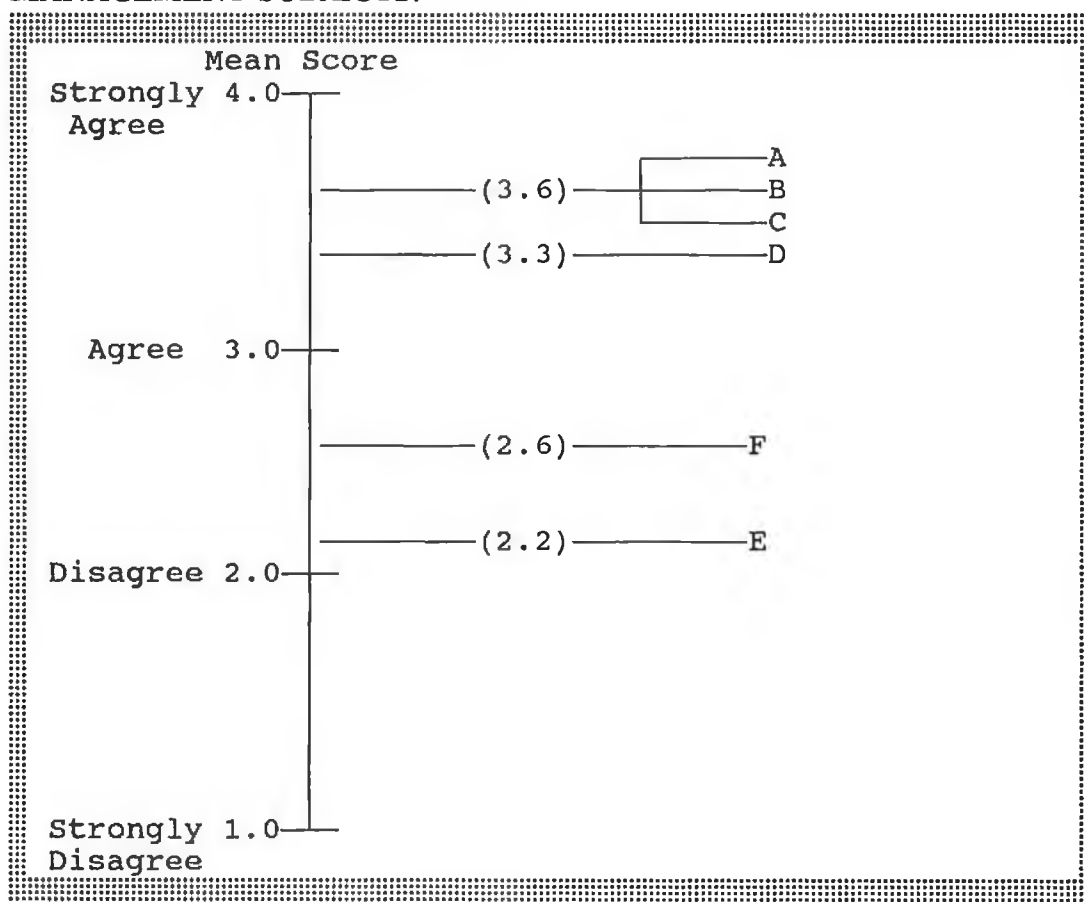
FIGURE 4.3.5.1 SOCIETAL NORMS ABOUT WORKING, MEAN SCORES FOR ALL SUBJECTS.



- A If an employee's skills become outdated, his employer should be responsible for retraining and reemployment.
- B When a change in work methods must be made, a supervisor should be required to ask employees for their suggestions before deciding what to do.
- C An employee should be expected to think up better ways to do his/her job.
- D Every person in our society should be entitled to interesting and meaningful work.
- E Monotonous, simplistic work is acceptable as long as the pay compensates fairly for it.
- F An employee should value the work he/she does even if it is boring dirty or unskilled.

Figure 4.3.5.1 indicates that when the sample remains unstratified into hierarchal level, subjects tend to perceive entitlements they should receive from working more strongly than their fulfilling obligations to society or organization. The three statement that all subjects agree with most are all 'entitlement' norms, with entitlement to participation in the work process being ranked highest in terms of agreement.

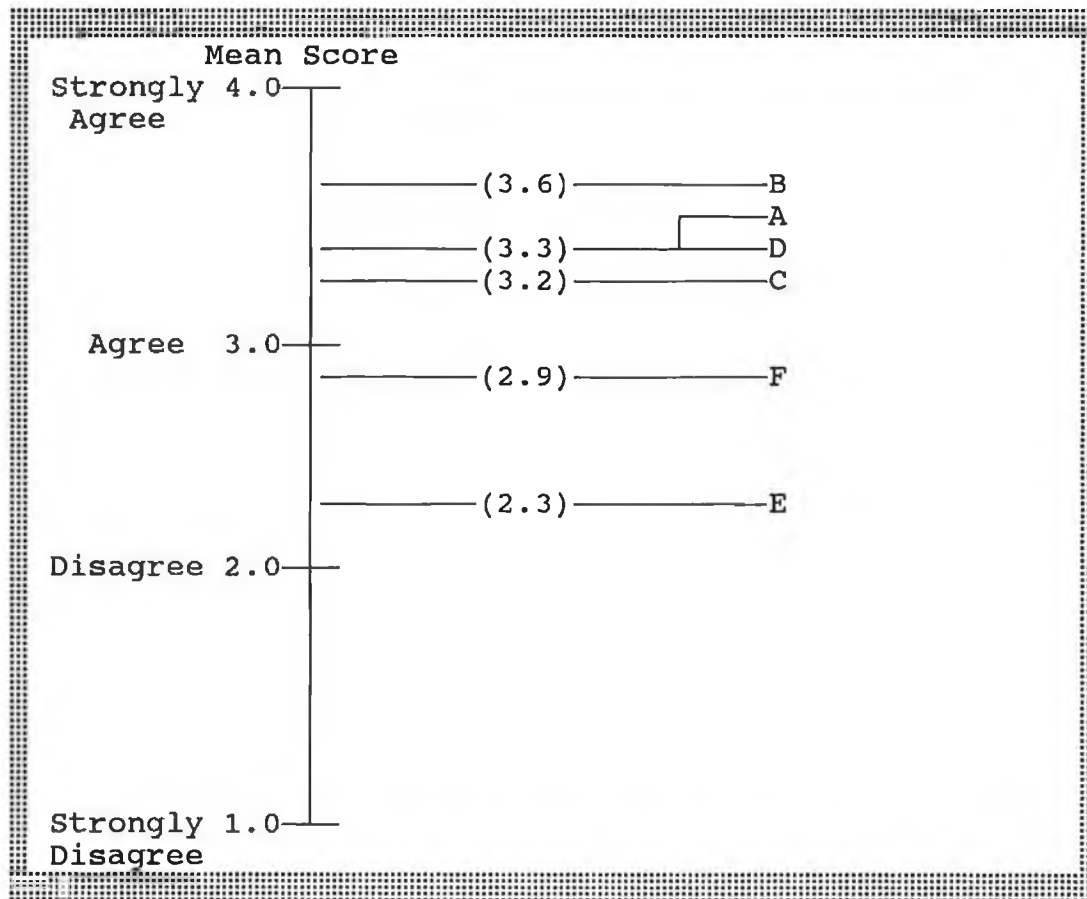
FIGURE 4.3.5.2 SOCIETAL NORMS ABOUT WORKING, MEAN SCORES FOR UPPER MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.



- A If an employee's skills become outdated, his employer should be responsible for retraining and reemployment.
- B When a change in work methods must be made, a supervisor should be required to ask employees for their suggestions before deciding what to do.
- C An employee should be expected to think up better ways to do his/her job.
- D Every person in our society should be entitled to interesting and meaningful work.
- E Monotonous, simplistic work is acceptable as long as the pay compensates fairly for it.
- F An employee should value the work he/she does even if it is boring dirty or unskilled.

Upper Management subjects, as shown in Figure 4.3.5.2, most agree with entitlement norm statements as opposed to obligation norms. The four statements most agreed with are comprised of three entitlement norms. An observation of note is that the obligation norm statement 'an employee should think up better ways to do his/her job' (statement C) shares equal status, in terms of agreement, with *the* most agreed with statements i.e. A (entitlement norm) and B (entitlement norm).

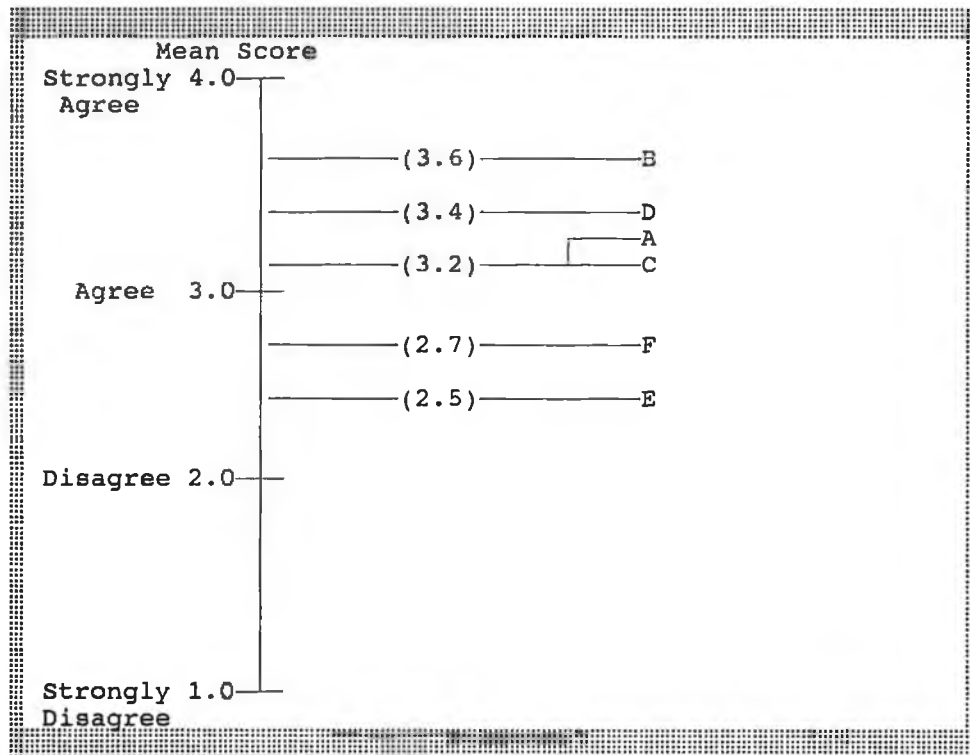
FIGURE 4.3.5.3 SOCIETAL NORMS ABOUT WORKING, MEAN SCORES FOR MIDDLE MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.



- A If an employee's skills become outdated, his employer should be responsible for retraining and reemployment.
- B When a change in work methods must be made, a supervisor should be required to ask employees for their suggestions before deciding what to do.
- C An employee should be expected to think up better ways to do his/her job.
- D Every person in our society should be entitled to interesting and meaningful work.
- E Monotonous, simplistic work is acceptable as long as the pay compensates fairly for it.
- F An employee should value the work he/she does even if it is boring dirty or unskilled.

Middle management subjects show more agreement with entitlement norm statements, as opposed to obligation norm statements. Although, as with the Upper Management group the obligation norm statement 'an employee should be expected to think up better ways to do his/her job' (statement C) is ranked only slightly below these entitlement norm statements (i.e. mean score=3.2). This group also agrees more strongly with the obligation norm statement 'an employee should value the work he/she does even if it is boring dirty or unskilled' to a greater extent (mean score=2.9) in comparison to the total sample taken as a whole (mean score=2.7) and Upper Managers (mean score=2.6), although it must be said that this difference is only incidental and not statistically significant.

FIGURE 4.3.5.4 SOCIETAL NORMS ABOUT WORKING, MEAN SCORES FOR NON MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.



- A If an employee's skills become outdated, his employer should be responsible for retraining and reemployment.
- B When a change in work methods must be made, a supervisor should be required to ask employees for their suggestions before deciding what to do.
- C An employee should be expected to think up better ways to do his\her job.
- D Every person in our society should be entitled to interesting and meaningful work.
- E Monotonous, simplistic work is acceptable as long as the pay compensates fairly for it.
- F An employee should value the work he\she does even if it is boring dirty or unskilled.

Figure 4.3.5.4. manifests a similar pattern in terms of response to that of Middle Management subjects (Figure 4.3.5.3). Again the three entitlement norms statements are ranked in the top three position in terms of agreement (B, D & A respectively), with the obligation norm statement 'an employee should be expected to think up better ways to do his\her job' being allocated equal importance to statement A (entitlement norm statement : 'If an employee's skills become outdated, his employer should be responsible for retraining and reemployment').

4.4 CLUSTER ANALYSIS

The grounds for the creation of the following dendrogram (Figure 4.4.2) through the use of a Cluster Analysis procedure is based on the results obtained from significant T-Test results (as shown in Figure 4.1.3) Significant T-Test results in the following variables seemed to indicate some relationship between Middle Management and Upper Management subjects to the exclusion of the Non Management group, these variables are shown in Figure 4.4.1. In each of the following variables both Middle Management and Upper Management seem to have a common connection i.e. the strength of the means of both these groups 'outweighs' that of the Non Management group, for example in Question 1 'VARIETY' the results below would seem to indicate that both Upper Management and Middle Management groups have more variety in their work procedures in comparison to Non Management subjects.

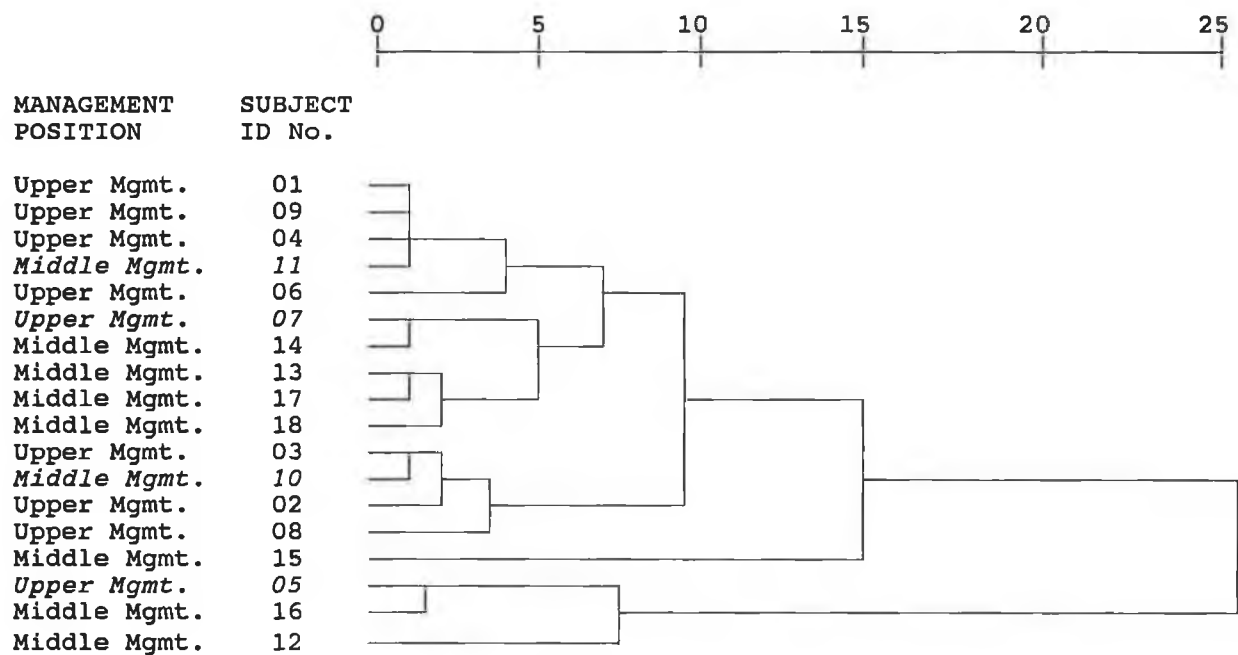
FIGURE 4.4.1 SIGNIFICANT T-TEST RESULTS WITH HIERARCHAL LEVEL AS THE DEPENDANT VARIABLE

Q. No.	DESCRIPTION	GROUP	DIRECTION	POOLED	SEPARATE	F VALUE
1	VARIETY	1-3	1 > 3	.010	.002	2.58
1	VARIETY	2-3	2 > 3	.003	.000	4.51
4	LEARNING	1-3	1 > 3	.039	.018	2.00
4	LEARNING	2-3	2 > 3	.039	.018	2.00
13	PRODUCT/SERVICE	1-3	1 > 3	.041	.090	1.51
13	PRODUCT/SERVICE	2-3	2 > 3	.026	.111	2.57

The occurrence of such non-chance-relatable results could imply a relationship of some variety. For this reason further analysis was undertaken i.e. Cluster Analysis to attempt to establish any concrete evidence for such an association between these management strata of the sample.

Cluster analysis is a statistical procedure that identifies groups or clusters of cases (which are relatively homogenous) based on their values for a set of variables. The actual distance at which 2 clusters are combined is re-scaled to numbers between 0 and 25, whilst preserving the ratio between the steps. The following dendrogram shows subjects identifier numbers as well as their hierarchal position in the organization.

FIGURE 4.4.2 CLUSTER ANALYSIS DENDOGRAM



The above dendrogram does, to some extent imply some relationship between Upper Management and Middle Management. The subjects which are italicised above are the evidence for such an assertion. Subject 11, a Middle Management subject, forms a cluster with 3 Upper Management subjects i.e. 01, 09 & 04 and at a later stage with subject 06, also Upper Management. Subject 07 (Upper Management) forms, at the outset of the analysis, a cluster with a Middle Management subject i.e. 14, and subsequently forms a cluster with a group of 4 Middle Management subjects (14, 13, 17, & 18). Subject 10 (Middle Management) initially forms a cluster with two Upper Managers (02 & 03). Subject 5 clusters, at the inception, with two Middle Managers i.e. 16 & 12. After provisionally establishing a bond between the two management groups, the next logical step originated from a possible explanation of such a bond. The focus for an explanation of such relationship is through the examination of some of demographic characteristics of the subjects from these two strata of the sample (see Figure 31). HIER. LVL. = hierarchal level, ID. No. = the subjects identifier number, EDU. = highest level of educational attainment, and LGT. SERV. (mts) = length of service in the present organization.

FIGURE 4.4.3 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF UPPER & MIDDLE MANAGEMENT SUBJECTS.

HIER. LVL.	ID No.	AGE	GENDER	EDU.	LGT. SERV. (mts.)
Upper Mgmt	01	36-45	MALE	S. COLL.	118
Upper Mgmt	09	26-35	MALE	UNI. D.	144
Upper Mgmt	04	36-45	MALE	UNI. D.	37
Mid Mgmt	11	26-35	MALE	S. COLL.	27
Upper Mgmt	06	36-45	MALE	UNI. D.	57
Upper Mgmt	07	46≥	MALE	SEC.	30
Mid Mgmt	14	26-35	MALE	S. COLL.	14
Mid Mgmt	13	26-35	MALE	S. COLL.	110
Mid Mgmt	17	26-35	F. MALE	S. COLL.	6
Mid Mgmt	18	26-35	MALE	UNI. D.	10
Upper Mgmt	03	26-35	MALE	S. COLL.	12
Mid Mgmt	10	26-35	MALE	S. COLL.	108
Upper Mgmt	02	26-35	MALE	S. COLL.	24
Upper Mgmt	08	26-35	MALE	UNI. D.	62
Mid Mgmt	15	36-45	F. MALE	SEC	162
Upper Mgmt	05	26-35	MALE	UNI. D.	26
Mid Mgmt	16	36-45	MALE	UNI. D.	66
Mid Mgmt	12	46≥	MALE	PRIM.	153

From the above figure only tentative inferences could be made with respect to the effects of the above mentioned demographic data on the apparent bonding between Middle Management and Upper Management groups (see Figure 4.2.3 & Figures 4.4.1 & 4.4.2). No concrete associations can be established through the use of the data in Figure 31, therefore the idea of some association between the two management strata must be overlooked.

CHAPTER 5

5.1 DISCUSSION

5.1.1 Hierarchal Effects

A very intriguing finding was disclosed by the analysis of empirical data collected from A Corp. Only 17% (14 of 81) of variables analyzed showed significant hierarchical effects (See Figure 4.1.2 and Figure 4.2.2).

Studies of hierarchical effect typically indicate definitive consequences of an individual's organizational position, on various working outcome variables (e.g. Tannenbaum, Kavcic, Rosner, Vianello & Wieser, 1974; Tannenbaum & Rozgonyi, 1986; see also Chapter 2.5). Such studies demonstrate that on variables such as self esteem, self actualization, ego satisfaction and job satisfaction, the organizational world of those at higher levels of an organizational hierarchy is generally a richer environment than that of employees at lower levels. Individuals at higher echelons of an organization are more likely to rely on their own discretion and choice of work procedures and are more likely to receive greater rewards, both psychologically as well as materially than those at lower levels (See for example Argyris, 1957; Walker & Guest, 1952; Tannenbaum & Rozgonyi, 1986; see also Section 2.5).

In the light of previous research showing definitive hierarchal effects on working outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction), it might have been expected to find very disparate perceptions, according to hierarchical position, on variables measuring antecedents of working i.e. the 'meaning of working' variables.

However, results indicated to a large extent, shared perceptions of working across all levels of the hierarchy.

For an explanation of such shared perceptions it would perhaps be beneficial to explore the nature of A Corp itself. If one reflects on A Corp's internal operations one finds processes that are unusual in the traditional sense, and may be influencing perceptions of working.

A Corp organizational processes, such as the establishment of autonomous work groups and the delegation of authority to those employees at lower levels of the organizational hierarchy, (decentralization of control) allow employees to make a variety of decision regarding their work schedules. The importance of autonomy in the workplace has previously been established (e.g. Breugh, 1985), as have the positive outcomes generated by autonomous working on both an individual and an organizational level (See Chapter 3.1.3). The delegation of autonomy to A Corp employees at all levels of the organizational hierarchy, is the antitheses of the traditional, early 20th century organizational structure such as Weber's (1947) "bureaucracy", where employees were given little or no opportunity for input into the production processes they were required to perform (See also Chapter 1.1.2), and as a consequence became dissatisfied and detached form their working lives. In A Corp, direct supervision, also associated with bureaucratic organizations (See also Taylor, 1911), is relinquished for participative and self management, with the results that the managers become power sharers rather than power brokers.

Also, A Corp employee's continuous participation in various work groups which can be inter or intra departmental or can be inter or intra hierarchical level, facilitates, through constant exposure to other employee's opinions and perceptions, the development of a sense of group membership.

From the above statement of A Corp's organizational processes, one could speculate as to why a considerable amount of shared perceptions across the members of three hierarchical levels has been found. Firstly, autonomy, as has already been mentioned (Chapter 3.1.3), may have the added effect of blurring the traditional boundaries between managers and subordinates. Managers in A Corp must delegate authority down to subordinates, and subordinates themselves may make decisions and take responsibility regarding their work. With these traditional hierarchical borders blurred, it seems feasible to speculate that a working atmosphere is created where subordinates perceive themselves less as subordinates and more as co-workers with those individuals above them on the organizational hierarchy, it seem that there is an overlap with respect to decision making. Managers have surrendered authority and subordinates have gained authority, at least on the surface this is so in comparison to traditional organizations. With regard to shared perceptions of working across hierarchical level, it appears that such an overlap may have, as a by-product led to the convergence (or overlap) of perceptions of working. With little apparent distinction, upper, middle and non managers in A Corp, identify with the same elements of working, define working in the same terms, seek the same outcomes and goals from working,

have shared societal norms regarding working, and for the most part working occupies a corresponding station in their lives.

The above mentioned is not, however, the sole interesting issue to be yielded by the empirical data collected in A Corp. Some other outcomes of the analysis are worth reporting and discussing, they are :

1. The importance of the income generation aspect of working;
2. The prevalence of working entitlement attitudes;
3. The generally low levels of organizational identification and low commitment.

5.1.2 Income and Working

Results in this study have shown similarities with the literature, with respect to the income generation function of working being a prominent concern of those who work. The income working generates is perceived by all A Corp subjects as being *the* most important valued outcome to be gained through working (See Figures 4.3.2.2 to 4.3.2.4) (as was the case with the MOW (1987) study) and with the exception of middle managers, is perceived as *the* most important goal to be satisfied by working (See Figures 4.3.3.2 to 4.3.3.4). Income is also identified by all subjects as one of the significant 'definers' of working (See Figures 4.3.4.2 to 4.3.4.4). Morse & Weiss (1955) and Vecchio (1980), for example, each described similar findings in their research. But an interesting issue raised in both of the above studies is that it appeared that even though the income generation aspect of working was an

important consideration for subjects, there were other aspects of working which subjects perceived as significant (See Chapter 1.2). Whereas income is an 'instrumental' function of working (i.e. working is an instrument with which to obtain income), other significant outcomes identified in the above two studies could be defined as 'expressive' outcomes (i.e. those outcomes which allow self expression or self fulfilment). In the present study, results also indicated that expressive outcomes to be achieved through working were of significant importance to all A Corp individuals surveyed, regardless of their hierarchical position (See Figures 4.3.2.2 to 4.3.2.4 and Figures 4.3.3.2 to 4.3.3.4). As with Vecchio's (1980) study, A Corp empirical data strongly suggests that the income received from working is not the singular function of working.

5.1.3 Working Entitlements

According to Offerman & Gowing (1991) there is an increasing perception of entitlement amongst employees for self development and meaningful work experiences, compared to past generations. Results from this study also indicate that, regardless of hierarchical position, subjects generally perceive that they are entitled to outcomes from working which are conducive to self development and which are meaningful. Upper, middle and non management subjects perceive these entitlements, provided either by the organization or society, to be of more importance than obligation to the organization or society. It appears that working 'rights' supersede working 'duties' (See Figures 4.3.5.1 to 4.3.5.4).

Such a finding runs parallel to the above mentioned results regarding the importance of 'expressive' working outcomes in A Corp subjects. It appears that not only do respondents perceive 'expressive' outcomes as significant aspects of their working lives, but they also perceive that they have a 'right' to be furnished with such outcomes in their working lives.

5.1.4 Commitment to Working in A Corp

Work is slightly more important and central in the lives of middle managers, as opposed to non managers, relative to other life spheres. This suggests that there might be other activities, for non managers, which draw on the commitment capabilities of these individuals (See Chapter 2.1.1).

Commitment to working of employees in A Corp is evaluated on a measure of 'organizational identification', and as discussed earlier (Chapter 2.1.1.1, see also Buchanan, 1974) commitment is an affective attachment to the goals of the organization. When such organizational identification of A Corp subjects is analyzed, results indicate, for the most part, identification with A Corp as an organization is the *least* important and significant facet of subjects working lives (See Figures 4.3.4.2 to 4.3.4.4).

It may be postulated that there is a delegation of commitment, by non management subjects away from working to other life spheres, to a slightly greater extent than middle managers. However, this is not to say that middle managers are not committed to other life spheres, it appears that they might

simply be more committed to working than the other groups. Leisure, seems to be the alternative for non management subjects as they perceive it to be of more importance in their live as opposed to either of the other groups (See Figure 4.1.3). If we consider how Work Centrality is defined (Chapter 2.1), it appears that there is a delegation of attention (commitment), by middle management subjects to work, over and above non managers relative to other life spheres. This may be explained to some extent by the commitment of middle managers to:

1. outcomes or goals these subjects perceive as important in their working live and which are met by working or ;
2. their strong identification to factors they see as intrinsic to working. It appears that the financial aspect of working meets both of the above requirements. It appears that middle managers do not identify to a great extent with the actual organization, therefore the 'income' producing function may be the logical draw for middle mangers in terms of working, with expressive functions taking secondary roles (as discussed above). It may be the case that importance of income to middle mangers is the factor which makes work slightly more central in their lives i.e. the instrumentality of working is fundamental to these individuals.

Such evaluations must come with a caveat, that low organizational identification, and therefore low commitment, may not lead directly to negative organizational outcomes. However, such a condition can not be seen as favourable for organizational functioning in the long term.

5.1.5 Overview

From the discussion of results thus far, it seems that a contradiction arises. Results indicate that :

1. employees primarily value (identify with) the income gained through working;

2. a generally low identification with the organization, and

3. low to average work centrality in MOW terms (1987, pp.83-84) for all subjects, regardless of the minor differences found across hierarchal level.

This seems surprising in an organisation that displays strong signs of judging employee wellbeing concerns to be of primary consideration, with benefits such as sponsored education, subsidised canteen facilities, stock options, above average pay rates, participative management, autonomous working, 'open door' management practices, etc. (See also Chapter 3.1.3). This finding is all the more contradictory in light of findings which indicate considerable amounts of shared working perceptions. It would appear that the positive individual and organizational outcomes (Chapter 3.1.3) of employee wellbeing practices, in A Corp, do not result in commitment to the organisation.

To explain such apparently unexpected findings, it would be beneficial to investigate the working motivations of A Corp employees. These motivations, according to Wiener (1982), mediate between certain antecedents (e.g. personal moral standards) and working outcomes (e.g. commitment) (See also Chapter 2.1.1). Work commitment is viewed by Wiener (1982) within a motivational framework as laid down in Fishbein's Behavioral Intention Model

(Fishbein, 1967; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975).

According to the Behavioral Intention Model, an individual's behaviour is a function of the *intention* to perform that behaviour. An individual's intention, in turn, is determined by two basic factors :

1. his attitude towards performing the act (the consequences of the act and their value to the individual), and
2. their perception of the totality of pressures concerning the behaviour (an individual's beliefs about what important referents think he should do, weighted by motivations to comply with the referents). It is the second component of intention, what Wiener (1982) calls 'the subjective norm', which is seen as serving as the framework for the definition of commitment. Personal moral standards concerning a particular mode of conduct are established when an individual internalizes expectations of others concerning this behaviour.

Wiener (1982) defines organizational commitment as the totality of internalized norms (subjective norms) to act in a way that meets organizational goals and interests. Therefore in the context of A Corp, employee motivations may be determined by beliefs which may not be related to organizational interests or goals. It may also be said that the internalization by A Corp employees, of organizational expectations regarding behaviour, is being impaired, because of the disparity in employee's subjective norms versus organizational interests.

Wiener (1982) further identifies the immediate determinants of commitment as two types of internalized beliefs held by individuals i.e. generalized duty and organizational identification. We find in A Corp, that employees are *not*, from the outset, supportive of organizational interests. Firstly, there is an overwhelming prevalence of working 'rights' over 'duties' (see Chapter 5.1.3), and secondly, there is also little identification with the organization itself (Chapter 5.1.4), both contributing to low commitment in A Corp.

The low commitment in A Corp, shown in this study, may be viewed as contributing to the results indicating low work centrality. Low commitment could also be a determinant of strong identification with the income production of working. With low work commitment, employees may discern other areas of their lives to be of more importance in comparison to working, as was the case with non managers who perceive 'leisure' as a significant life sphere, thus working is seen as a subordinate concern, which in turn leads to low to average work centrality. As a direct results of such low centrality of work, we may speculate that working takes the role firstly, as an income producer, and the associated expressive working outcomes take second place.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS/IMPLICATIONS

The whole area of commitment to working in A Corp, and its possible effects on work centrality and other subjective perceptions of working (as outlined above), is an important aspect of employee attitudes, as it is likely to be related to important working outcomes, including morale and productivity. With such low commitment amongst A Corp employees, it seems reasonable that any future employee management endeavours should consider the resolution of low commitment in members of the organization. An organisation such as A Corp, having invested time, resources and money in the development of progressive personnel practices, is likely to be concerned if its efforts have not resulted in high levels of commitment to the organisation. Weiner's * (1984) Attribution Theory approach to the identification of negative attributions, might well be instrumental in reducing employee commitment to the organisation. Attribution theory examines how individuals explain facts and circumstances and arrive at causal attribution. Weiner's formulation is based on the premise that individuals act on the perceived world rather than on the objective 'real world'. Within the context of A Corp, the identification of subjective perceptions regarding working may pinpoint issues for any further interventions.

Also, Cherniss (1991), found significant effects of self-efficacy on commitment, demonstrating higher commitment in those who had positive professional development experiences, interesting work, supportive

* Not to be confused with Wiener (1982).

organizational climates and challenging pre-career experience. It appears on the exterior, that A Corp does attempt to provide employees with an enriched working experience through various employee management techniques. But, results indicate that the employee management techniques used, may have found their limits, or are only surface interventions which blur what is in fact a complex type of bureaucratic organization, still relying heavily on systems of organizational rules and laws, rather than on a purely human relations systems (Chapter 1.1.2).

A Corp, should perhaps, look more closely at their employee orientated interventions, as most of those sampled seem to indicate, they fall short of bringing about high commitment to the organisation. On a practical level, with regard to commitment, A Corp should perhaps define explicitly its value system, so as to facilitate such a systems acceptance (internalization) by organizational members, something that does not currently seem to exist. Such a task may not be easy, A Corp may find itself limited by its already established work systems and practices.

CHAPTER 6

6.0 BIBLIOGRAPHY

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CHAPTER 7

7.0 APPENDICES

7.1 APPENDIX I (The Questionnaire)

MEANING OF WORKING QUESTIONNAIRE

DUBLIN CITY UNIVERSITY

This study is being carried out as part of the requirements for a Masters Degree in Organizational Psychology at Dublin City University.

We appreciate you answering the questions in this booklet, which a representative, randomly selected sample of A***** employees are being asked to complete. The questionnaire is designed to collect information about detailed aspects of working. The purpose of this study is to establish the extent to which **working** fits into the individual's total life picture.

There are **no right or wrong answers**. Your individual responses will not be identified, and no one in the company will see your completed questionnaire. Responses will be calculated in a statistical form for groups of people. To ensure complete confidentiality you are asked not to sign your name anywhere on the questionnaire.

Thank you for your co-operation.

* CIRCLE THE STATEMENT WHICH MOST APPLIES TO YOUR WORK SITUATION *

1. Which statement best describes your present job? (Circle one number only)
 - 1 I often do the same things over and over or use the same piece of equipment or procedure almost all the time.
 - 2 There is some variety in my job. I use different pieces of equipment or procedures.
 - 3 I do many different things, use a wide variety of equipment or procedures.

2. Which statement best describes your present job? (Circle one number only)
 - 1 There is hardly any room for me to make decisions about my work and its procedures.
 - 2 I make some of the decisions about my work and some are made for me.
 - 3 I decide myself how to do my work.

3. Which statement best describes your present job? (Circle one number only)
 - 1 Mistakes in my work do not have serious consequences for the organization or for other people.
 - 2 Mistakes in my work may have somewhat serious consequences for the organization or for other people.
 - 3 Mistakes in my work have serious consequences for the organization or for other people.

4. Which statement best describes your present job? (Circle one number only)

- 1 Doing my job I can't really learn something new.
- 2 Sometimes I can learn something new doing my job.
- 3 My work gives me the opportunity to learn many new things.

5. Which statement best describes your present job? (Circle one number only)

- 1 I do my work alone.
- 2 I work with some other people, but this is not a big part of my job.
- 3 Working with other people is a very big part of my job.

6. Which statement best describes your present job? (Circle one number only)

- 1 There is almost no chance during the work day to talk to other people about non-business topics.
- 2 Sometimes I do have the opportunity during the work day to talk to other people about non-business topics.
- 3 There is almost always an opportunity during the work day to talk to other people about non-business topics.

* CIRCLE THE STATEMENT WHICH MOST APPLIES TO YOUR WORK SITUATION *

7. Compared to your occupational group (colleagues), where did you start your work career?
- 1 Lower than my occupational group.
 - 2 About the same as my occupational group.
 - 3 Higher than my occupational group.
8. Considering my work history until today in relation to where I started (Circle ONE) :
- 1 It is marked by some decline.
 - 2 It has remained approximately on the level where I started.
 - 3 It has improved somewhat.
 - 4 It has improved a great deal.
9. On the whole, how satisfied are you with your work history until now? (Circle ONE)
- 1 Very dissatisfied.
 - 2 Somewhat dissatisfied.
 - 3 Neutral.
 - 4 Somewhat satisfied.
 - 5 Very satisfied.

10. To help explain what working means to you, please assign a total of 100 points, in any combination you desire, to the following six statements. The more a statement expresses your thinking, the more points you should assign to it. Please read **all** the statements before assigning points.

- Working gives you status and prestige.
- Working provides you with an income that is needed.
- Working keeps you occupied.
- Working permits you to have interesting contacts with other people.
- Working is a useful way for you to serve society.
- Working itself is basically interesting and satisfying to you.

(100 Total)

11. How important and significant is working in your total life?
(Please circle one number most appropriate to your situation)

One of the least								One of the most
important things	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	important things
in my life.				Of medium				in my life.
				importance				
				in my life.				

12. Assign a total of 100 points to indicate how important the following areas are in your life at the present time.

- My leisure (like hobbies, sports, recreation and contacts with friends).
- My community (like voluntary organizations, union and political organizations).
- My work.
- My religion (like religious activities and beliefs).
- My family.

(100 Total)

13. When you think of your working life, which of the following aspects of working seem most significant and important to you? Please rank these items from 6=most significant to 1=least significant.

- The tasks I do while working.
- My company or organization.
- The product or service I provide.
- The type of people with whom I work.
- The type of occupation or profession I am in.
- The money I receive from my work.

14. How important to you is it that your work life contains the following:

- 1 A lot of opportunity to **LEARN** new things.
- 2 Good **INTERPERSONAL** relations (co-workers).
- 3 Good opportunity for upgrading or **PROMOTION**.
- 4 **CONVENIENT** works hours.
- 5 A lot of **VARIETY**.
- 6 **INTERESTING** work (work that you really like)
- 7 Good job **SECURITY**.
- 8 A good **MATCH** between your job requirements and you abilities and experience.
- 9 Good **PAY**.
- 10 Good physical working **CONDITIONS** (such as light, temperature, cleanliness, low noise level).
- 11 A lot of **AUTONOMY** (you decide how to do your work).

INSTRUCTIONS

First, Look over the items above to get an idea of what they are.

Second, Determine which of the items is most important in your work life. Then write the capitalized portion of that item on the line of the rating scale which represents its importance in your work life.

Third, Cross the first item you selected off the list.

Fourth, Select the item which is least important in your work life. Write the capitalized portion of that item on the line of the rating scale which represents its importance in your work life. Cross out that item.

Fifth, Now from the remaining list, select the item which is most important to your work life and repeat the process. Then select the item that is least important to your work life and repeat the process for that item. Do this until all of the items are written on the scale and all are checked off the list.

NOTE : You may choose to write more than one item on a line if you decide that they are of equal importance to your work life

Extremely Important	11	_____
	10	_____
Important	9	_____
	8	_____
	7	_____
Of Some Importance	6	_____
	5	_____
	4	_____
Of Little Importance	3	_____
	2	_____
	1	_____

15. On this page are some work-related statements that people might make. I would like you to decide whether you agree or disagree with each of these statements depending on your personal opinions. If you strongly agree with a statement, please circle the number 4; if you agree somewhat with the statement, circle the number 3; and so on.

		<u>Strongly</u> <u>Disagree</u>	<u>Agree</u>		
A	If an employee's skills become outdated, his employer should be responsible for retraining and reemployment.	1	2	3	4
B	When a change in work methods must be made, a supervisor should be required to ask workers for their suggestions before deciding what to do.	1	2	3	4
C	An employee should be expected to think up better ways to do his\her job.	1	2	3	4
D	Every person in our society should be entitled to interesting and meaningful work.	1	2	3	4
E	Monotonous, simplistic work is acceptable as long as the the pay compensates fairly for it.	1	2	3	4
F	An employer should value the work he\she does even if it is boring dirty or unskilled.	1	2	3	4

16. Imagine that you won a lottery or inherited a large sum of money and could live comfortably for the rest of your life without working. What would you do concerning working? (Circle one number only)
- 1 I would stop working.
 - 2 I would continue to work in the same job.
 - 3 I would continue to work but with changed conditions.

17. Not everyone means the same thing when they talk about working. When do you consider an activity as working? Choose four statements from the list below which best define when an activity is "working".

- A If you do it in a working place.
- B If someone tells you what to do.
- C If it is physically strenuous.
- D If it belongs to your task.
- E If you do it to contribute to society.
- F If, by doing it, you get a feeling of belonging.
- G If it is mentally strenuous.
- H If you do it at a certain time (e.g. 8 until 5).
- I If it adds value to something.
- J If it is not pleasant.
- K If you get money for doing it.
- L If you have to account for it.
- M If you have to do it.
- N If others profit by it.

18. If you had to choose, which would you prefer? (Circle one number only)

- 1 Stay in your present organization but with a different type of job.
- 2 Do the same type of work but with a different organization.

19. In your leisure time how often do you do things that have nothing to do with work? (Circle one number only)

- 1 Never.
- 2 Only occasionally.
- 3 Sometimes.
- 4 Often.
- 5 Very often.

20. How often do you worry about work in your free time?
(Circle one number only)

- 1 Never.
- 2 Only occasionally.
- 3 Sometimes.
- 4 Often.
- 5 Very often.

21. Do you intend to take part in further training related to your present job in the next 12 months? (Circle one number only)

- 1 No.
- 2 Yes.
- 3 I am already taking part.

22. Are you actively trying to be promoted in the next 12 months?

- 1 No.
- 2 Yes.

23. Compared to the present time, how important will work be to you in the next 5 to 10 years? (Circle one number only)

- 1 Less important.
- 2 Equal in importance.
- 3 More important.

24. Suppose people were able to work less hours for the same pay in the future; which alternative would be most preferable to you? (Pick only one).

- 1 More holidays.
- 2 Less working hours per day.
- 3 A free afternoon every week.
- 4 Longer periods of education before beginning to work.
- 5 A year off for further study about every 10 years.
- 6 Less working hours for older workers.
- 7 Earlier retirement.

25. If the general economic situation led to proposals to work less hours and earn proportionately less money, how would you feel about such proposals? (Pick only one).

- 1 I would be against them.
- 2 I don't really care.
- 3 I would be moderately in favour of them.
- 4 I would be in favour of them.

26. If you were to start all over again, would you choose your present occupation or would you choose a different one?

1 Different occupation.

2 Same occupation.

27. Would you recommend your occupation to your children for their work?

1 No.

2 Yes.

28. Do you sometimes have to do your work in dangerous circumstances?

1 No.

2 Yes.

29. Do you sometimes have to do your work in unhealthy circumstances?

1 No.

2 Yes.

30. Does your job require too much of you physically? (Circle ONE)

1 It never does.

2 It seldom does.

3 It sometimes does.

4 It often does.

31. Does your job require too much of you mentally? (Circle ONE)

- 1 It never does.
- 2 It seldom does.
- 3 It sometimes does.
- 4 It often does.

32. How much of your past experience, skills and abilities can you make use of in your present job? (Circle ONE)

- 1 Very little.
- 2 A little.
- 3 Quite a lot.
- 4 Almost all.

33. What was the highest formal education which you completed?
(Circle ONE).

- 1 Primary school.
- 2 Secondary school or further vocational training.
- 3 Some college or similar vocational training below university level.
- 4 University degree.

34. Is your position primarily (Circle ONE) :

- 1 Upper Management (Chief Executive Officer, Director, Manager).
- 2 Middle Management (Supervisor or equivalent level).
- 3 Non Management (e.g. Shop Floor, Maintenance, Stores, Clerical, Secretarial etc.).

35. Is your work schedule primarily (Circle ONE) :

- 1 Day
- 2 Night
- 3 Shift changes regularly

36. Are your work hours primarily :

- 1 Regular
- 2 Varied

37. How long have you worked in your present job?

-- years -- months

38. Sex? (Please tick appropriate response)

Male --

Female --

39. Age group? (Please tick appropriate response)

15 to 25 years of age --

26 to 35 years of age --

36 to 45 years of age --

46 years of age or over --

THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION.

7.2 APPENDIX II

Un Re-scaled mean values appropriate to Section 4.3.1. are shown in Figures 7.2.1 and 7.2.2.

Figure 7.2.1 indicates mean un re-scaled means on a measure of Relative Centrality of Work (RCOW), by hierarchal level. Subjects were required to allocate any number of points between 0 and 100 which expressed their thinking with regard to working. The more points allocated the more significant working is in their lives.

FIGURE 7.2.1. RCOW BY HIERARCHAL LEVEL

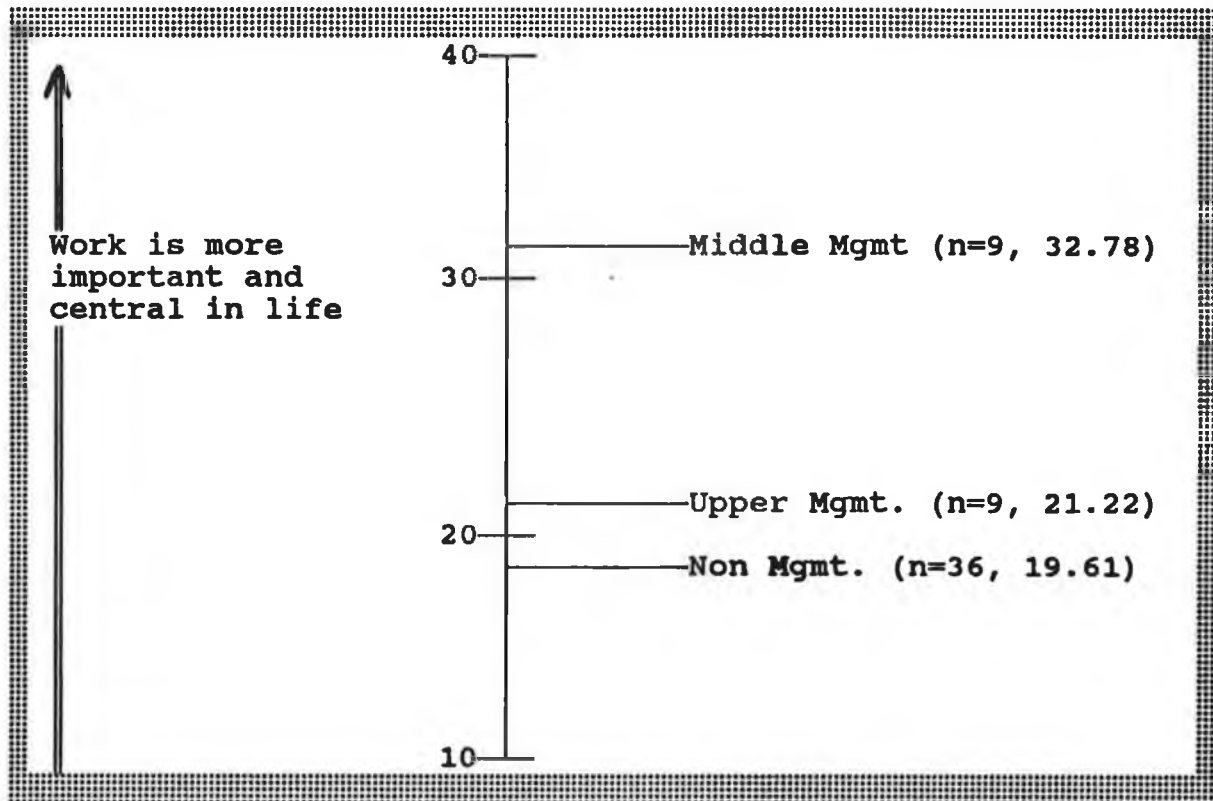


Figure 7.2.2 show mean un re-scaled vales on the measure of Absolute Centrality of Work (ACOW). A seven point Likert type scale was employed, the larger the numeric value attributed by the subject, the more significant and important working is their total life.

FIGURE 7.2.2. ACOW BY HIERARCHAL LEVEL

