

ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES  
OF JOB INVOLVEMENT

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## ABSTRACT

### ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF JOB INVOLVEMENT

By

Alan Lawrence Siegel

This study was designed to investigate relationships between the construct job involvement and both personal-background variables and job design characteristics. The most fruitful framework within which to focus such an investigation consisted of examining possible antecedents of involvement, in the form of background and situational variables, and also consequences, such as performance, absenteeism, and turnover. It was to this end that the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. Job involvement will be positively related to the degree of participation in decision making which the job provides the individual.
2. Job involvement will be positively related to level of education.
3. The relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making will be more positive for more highly educated individuals than for those individuals with less education.
4. The relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making will be more positive for workers from a rural background than for those of an urban background.
- 4a. There will be mean differences in job involvement between individuals of urban and rural backgrounds, with higher involvement for the rural workers.



5. The relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making will be more positive for those individuals with low religious devotion than for those with high religious devotion.
- 5a. Job involvement will be positively related to intensity of religious devotion.
6. The relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making will be more positive for those individuals with a high intrinsic orientation than for those with a high extrinsic orientation.
7. Job involvement will be positively related to productivity.
8. Job involvement will be negatively related to absenteeism.
9. Job involvement will be negatively related to turnover.

The subject sample consisted of 2628 employees of six medium sized manufacturing companies in the Midwest. Of this sample various sub-samples were used in investigating the predicted moderated relationships. Simple correlational techniques were employed in testing the results.

Strong support was found for Hypothesis 1, but no support was generated for Hypothesis 2. Several of the variables did moderate the relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making. However, only level of education and intrinsic orientation (Hypotheses 3 and 6) moderated the relationship in the predicted direction. Urban-rural background (Hypothesis 4) moderated the relationship but the results were not in the predicted direction. Similarly, Hypothesis 4a was not supported, in that job involvement was higher for the urban than for the

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rural group. Intensity of religious devotion was the only one of the variables which did not moderate the relationship. On the other hand, job involvement was positively related to the intensity of religious devotion. In regard to the consequences of job involvement, only turnover exhibited a significant relationship with job involvement.

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ANTECEDENTS AND CONSEQUENCES OF JOB INVOLVEMENT

By

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## DEDICATION

To my wife Ronni: She has given me the confidence to persevere and has endured for the past two years in one of the most difficult roles, wife of a graduate student.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

To acknowledge everyone who has made a contribution to this thesis and to my first two years in graduate school would require a listing of almost all the faculty and graduate students with whom I have had any contact. My committee has formally consisted of three, but the inputs of those around me have been frequent and worthwhile.

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## Review of the Theoretical Literature

In an attempt to understand man and his motivation to work, attitudinal and motivational theorists in industrial-social psychology and sociology have generated an abundance of terms indicative of their lack of consensus as to what motivates man in the work setting. Terms such as commitment, dedication, ego involvement, intrinsic motivation, identification with work role, and job involvement have frequently appeared throughout the literature with only minimal attempts to reconcile the similarities and differences inherent in these various theoretical constructs. However, there do seem to be common threads running throughout the various constructs, as the theorists have tended to focus on the following:

- 1) the extent to which the job is an integral part of the individual's self-concept, the intensity of his dedication to his work, and his interest in his work role; or 2) the extent to which performance on the job affects his feelings of self-esteem, and the degree to which high performance is valued by the worker. Although it is possible to distinguish between the various conceptualizations, most theorists have tended to include both of the above conceptualizations in their theorizing while at the same time focusing on one aspect of the complexity.



Vroom (1962), who is concerned with motivation and its relationship to worker performance, defines ego involvement with regard to the effect performance has on an individual's self-esteem. A highly involved worker is one whose self-evaluation is increased by high performance and decreased by low performance. He seems to draw little distinction between what others have termed internalized motivation and ego involvement. An individual is internally motivated to the extent that his performance is relevant to the maintenance of his self-identity. That is, he conceptualizes a situation in which some people may derive satisfaction from a high level of performance even though external rewards are absent. It is also possible that they may experience dissatisfaction from a low level of performance in the absence of punishment. A person becomes ego involved in his work performance to the extent that performance is perceived to be relevant to certain aptitudes, abilities, or other attributes which are central to his self-conception. It therefore becomes necessary to take into consideration not only the individual but also the organizational constraints inhibiting this relevancy. Factors which are a function of the characteristics of both the individual and the work setting, such as autonomy and degree of participation, can thus be assumed to play an important role. It is with Vroom's theorizing about individual differences that we see a glimpse of the first definition of job involvement in the preceding paragraph.

He states that for some individuals the major part of the self-concept is composed of attributes which are relevant to the work situation, while for others the central components relate to other spheres of activity (Vroom, 1962). In Vroom's terminology, what is being measured are "differences in the centrality of the work relevant attributes in the self-conception of the worker."

Others who have viewed the construct similarly include Faunce (1959), Gurin et al. (1960), and French and Kahn (1962). Faunce uses the term occupational involvement in referring to the extent to which success or failure in one's occupational role affects the self-image. It is viewed as a commitment to a task in which "successful role performance is regarded as an end in itself and not a means to some other end." Likewise, Gurin views involvement as an indicator of the degree to which the individual validates performance in terms of the degree to which performance affects self-esteem.

Lodahl and Kejner (1965), who pioneered in the construction of a job involvement scale, seem to fall prey to the complexity of this theoretical issue since they verbalize two definitions of involvement without ever discussing why they settled on these two or explicating the differences between them. They initially discuss the construct in terms similar to those used by Vroom, referring to the effect performance has on self-esteem. It is only in the abstract of their article that their second definition

appears. Here they define job involvement as "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image." Lodahl and Kejner do not refer to the esteem-performance definition in the abstract at all, and the reader is left wondering on which of the two definitions they were actually focusing.

Despite this confusion, their theoretical labors do have value. We see for the first time the introduction of background factors as an attempt to explain the development or causes of job involvement. They hypothesize that the main determinant of this attitude may be a value orientation toward work which is learned by the individual during early socialization. It may thus be the result of the introjection of certain work values into the self (Lodahl, 1964). In line with this assumption is their speculation that job involvement, as a value orientation within the individual, may be resistant to changes due to the nature of a job. Although they do not rule out the effect which work conditions may have on an individual's job involvement, they do seem to imply that it is a deep-seated value orientation that is developed early in the life of the individual and thus may be difficult to influence. The local organizational conditions which they feel may possibly have an effect are mainly social ones. This thought stems from their view of the job-involved individual as possibly having stronger affiliative needs and needing to identify with the

organization. A good deal of social motivation seems to run throughout their overall composite "picture" of the job-involved individual. Lodahl (1964) goes on to state that the tendency to identify with the job, company, or product may be part of a general social obligation process having its basis in the "incorporation of the values and attitudes of the generalized others in the self." This interpretation, although overlapping to an extent with the theories of Vroom and others to be discussed, does seem to approach an awareness of the complexity which may have to be explored if there is to be progress in this aspect of attitude-motivational research.

Although Katz and Kahn (1966) spend more time on organizational involvement, or identification, than on job involvement as we have defined it, they do touch on the subject using dissimilar terms. In discussing the character of commitment of people to the system, they distinguish between a purely instrumental versus a purely expressive cycle. The latter concept is somewhat related to what Vroom (1962) was discussing under the heading of intrinsic motivation. Katz and Kahn state that when an activity is intrinsically rewarding it is "directly expressive of the needs and values of the individual." They also discuss motivation to work using the terms degree of inclusion, potency of involvement, and priority of commitment. What they are referring to by inclusion is the extent to which organizations are based on the



sequential involvement of individuals. Only a small part of a person's personality or life space is occupied by his organizational role.

Like Lodahl and Kejner (1965), Katz and Kahn state that this commitment may have been built in during the socialization process. They also discuss the effect which society in general may have had in fostering partial inclusion or segmental involvement of individuals. As a result of the depersonalization and fragmentation created by bureaucratic systems, the individual is forced to play many roles. Because these roles do not demand all of an individual's personality, the individual is freer than in the past to pattern his life as he chooses. His job no longer has to be his main source of self-identification. Work no longer looms as the sole expression of one's personality. It would thus appear that Katz and Kahn are focusing more on job involvement as an expression of the extent to which work is a part of the individual's self-concept, or his interest in his work role as an expression of himself.

Lawler and Hall (1970) also focus more on the psychological identification with work. They have been quite explicit in drawing distinctions between the two definitions of job involvement. In an attempt to distinguish between various job attitudes, they defined job involvement using Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) definition of the degree of psychological identification with one's work. The other frequently used conceptualization of involvement, centering



on the effects of performance on self-esteem, was considered to be a measure of intrinsic motivation. More explicitly, intrinsic motivation was referred to as the "degree to which a job holder is motivated to perform well because of some subjective rewards or feelings that he expects to receive or experience as a result of performing well." This is essentially a restatement of Vroom's earlier definition. Lawler and Hall decided on this interpretation due to the fact that intrinsic motivation beliefs fit nicely into an expectancy theory framework. They stated that intrinsic motivation should be related to performance. However, no such assumptions regarding job involvement were readily apparent. As others had suggested, Lawler and Hall theorized that job involvement might be an individual difference factor, not readily influenced by situational factors, and questioned the impact it might have on worker behavior.

Some of the most recent theorizing on this topic evolves from the work of Patchen (1970). Using what he terms job motivation indices, he is concerned with the general devotion of energy to job tasks. One of these indices, which supposedly taps general interest in the job, is very similar to what we have been calling job involvement in the psychological identification, or dedication, aspects of the term. Patchen admittedly views the concept of job involvement as merely a convenient label summarizing several characteristics which make the job more important and potentially satisfying.

The lack of knowledge regarding this construct is thus embodied in his conceptualization. In a very general sense he is concerned with personal goals (motivations and feelings on the job). The job-involved individual is highly motivated and feels a sense of pride in his work. This viewpoint is closely related to the performance-esteem aspects to which we have previously referred. Related to this is his interest in the internal motivation to perform a job well which was labeled intrinsic motivation by Lawler and Hall (1970). Patchen also uses a measure, termed "identification with one's occupation," which is purportedly measuring how important one's occupational role is to one's self-image. This too can be seen to be very closely allied to the first definition of involvement. In addition, however, he hypothesizes that one who is highly "identified" will be more likely to feel pride in job achievement than someone whose occupation plays a minor role in his self-identification. It can thus be seen that Patchen's theorizing is of a very general nature and includes aspects of both popular conceptions of job involvement.

In addition to the work of these theorists who have directly focused their attention on job involvement, or some similar term, the work of the participative management theorists is also very applicable to this review. The concepts of involvement, commitment, and dedication enter into their discussions as a consequence of the fulfillment



of ego needs by the job. As such, most of their theorizing does not center on job involvement, but rather on explicating the need for ego need gratification and ways of providing such gratification. However, since much of the work on job involvement has concerned itself with man's internal motivation and his identification with work, it is beneficial to briefly review these theorists' contributions.

Argyris (1964) states that one necessary condition for the existence of "psychological success" is internal commitment to work that is meaningful. "Psychological success," which is viewed as equivalent to self-esteem, is dependent upon the individual experiencing: 1) self-responsibility (self-control), 2) internal commitment to meaningful work, and 3) utilization of the worker's important abilities. More commonly experienced in industry, however, is psychological failure which results from organizational demands requiring individuals to be dependent and submissive. Non-involvement is viewed as an adaptive defense mechanism to the constant frustration, conflict, and failure which he experiences on the job. In line with what Lodahl and Kejner (1965), Lawler and Hall (1970), and Katz and Kahn (1966) have stated, Argyris also feels that workers have possibly learned through work experience or early socialization not to expect much self-expression in the work environment. One way to possibly respond to this situation is to reduce the psychological importance of the work. This theorizing touches upon the first definition of

job involvement. As Argyris states, the workers may unconsciously say, "I'll block my need for self-actualization until I get out of work. Then I will live." He feels that a psychological set may be created in which the worker feels that causes of dissatisfaction are built into the job and that if he is to experience any satisfaction it will only be achieved outside of the work setting. According to either of the definitions though, such an individual can hardly be said to be involved in his job. This cycle from conflict between organizational demands and "healthy" individual needs to feelings of apathy and non-involvement leads to a decrease in the psychological importance of work and an emphasis on the material aspects. Argyris starts from the assumption that most individuals desire these higher order needs which lead to involvement in the job. He feels that the central factors causing non-involvement are related to organizational structure and technology. Those individuals who do not desire psychological success are in a small minority and have actually repressed their true feelings due to past and present deprivations in the work environment. Thus, although he does take past experience into account, he is much less concerned with individual differences in value orientations and tends to focus more on the work environment itself. Any individual differences would be due more to work experience deprivation than to socio-cultural values. Every individual wants to be involved, wants his job to be an expression of

his self, and wants to be satisfied with his job. However, barriers and constraints presented by the organization inhibit the realization of these needs. Thus, this viewpoint differs from other theorists discussed who have not gone as far as proclaiming that the need to be involved is present in all individuals, either consciously or unconsciously.

Another proponent of participative management viewpoints is McGregor (1960) who states that the typical rewards provided the worker for satisfying his needs can be used only when he leaves the job. Wages, fringe benefits, etc. yield needed satisfaction only away from the work situation, creating an environment in which work is not an interest central to the individual. For McGregor the major deficiency of management practices is the over-emphasis placed upon hierarchical authority. Within the framework he places most of the emphasis not on an individual difference factor but on the limitations imposed by the structure of the organization. The most likely consequence of the implementation of traditional management philosophy (Theory X) is passive acceptance, indifference, or resistance. These are terms which can be seen to have a relation to job involvement.

Some of the most elaborate criticisms of the work of the participative management theorists (Argyris and McGregor) have come from Hulin and Blood (1968) whose theorizing has much relevance to the concept of job involvement. While participative management theorists have tended to disregard

the whole notion of individual differences, Hulin and Blood have made this the focal point of their conceptualization. They feel that as a result of extra-work socialization processes, many blue-collar workers in urban industrial environments have no desire for ego need gratification while on the job. In contrast to the job-involved individual, these workers mainly view their jobs as a means to an end. Work enables them to satisfy their main needs off the job. They are thus refuting the participative management assumptions regarding workers' needs. The focus of Hulin and Blood's work is "alienation from middle-class norms." Closely approximating the Protestant Ethic, middle-class norms are beliefs concerning the goodness of work and man's spiritual necessity to indulge in hard labor for the glory of God. It is the authors' contention that living in an urban, industrialized, blue-collar environment leads to alienation from these norms, while life in a rural non-industrial community or other settings does not. As an outgrowth of their thesis we find that for rural workers the more satisfying jobs would demand greater personal involvement, while city workers are more likely to be satisfied when their jobs are less personally involving. As Blood and Hulin (1967) state, "At the integrated end of the continuum which ranges from integration with middle-class norms to alienation from middle-class norms are individuals who desire personal involvement with their jobs." The job could be expected to play a more important central role to the individual at this end of the continuum.





Workers at the opposite end have only an instrumental involvement. Increased responsibility, autonomy, etc. are not unfulfilled needs: they have no such needs.

Thus we find a very basic, decisive difference between the theoretical assumptions of the participative management theorists and Hulin and Blood, which in turn leads to differences in their conceptualization regarding the concept of job involvement. The former place minimal emphasis on job involvement as a value orientation or motivational set subject to individual differences. Instead, they view the organization as blocking the gratification of ego needs, a result which leads to the absence of individual involvement on the job. Thus, they are viewing involvement as a consequence of ego need gratification. Hulin and Blood, however, view involvement not so much as a consequence, but as an antecedent embodied in a general value orientation fostered by processes of socialization. Their concept, within an individual difference, socio-cultural framework, seems to closely parallel other such conceptualizations which we have discussed to a greater extent than does the work of the participative management theorists.

Blauner (1964), in discussing the industrial condition termed alienation, overlaps to a certain extent both the work of the participative management theorists and Hulin and Blood. He refers to alienation as a general condition, or composite, consisting of various different objective conditions and subjective feeling states which emerge from relationships between the workers and the work setting.

Just as Katz and Kahn emphasize the depersonalization caused by society and limitations imposed by the industrial environment, Blauner discusses four types of alienation. One of these, self-estrangement, is related conceptually to job involvement. Self-estrangement is described as a condition in which the individual experiences depersonalized detachment rather than immediate involvement or engrossment in his job. As a result of this lack of present time involvement, the work becomes mainly instrumental, a means toward future off-the-job considerations rather than an end in itself. Lack of control over work processes and inability to develop a sense of purpose to the overall functioning of the organization are cited as causes of alienation. On the other hand, when the work is inherently fulfilling, when it satisfies needs for control and meaning, or when it is highly integrated into an individual's total social commitments, self-estrangement is absent. Non-involving work is viewed as monotonous and results in heightened time-consciousness. The similarities between these assumptions and those of the participative management theorists are readily apparent. Like Hulin and Blood, however, Blauner does seem to take into account individual differences, stating that self-estranged workers are dissatisfied only when they have developed higher order needs, such as for control and meaning in their work. He makes the important point of noting that a worker can be satisfied and self-estranged at the same time. It is also possible for a worker to be integrated in the plant

community and loyal to the company but nevertheless fail to have a sense of involvement or self-expression in the work itself. Blauner makes no mention of the performance-esteem aspects of involvement but does state that work is not self-estranging when it is self-expressive and contributes to the worker's personal identity and selfhood. Thus he seems to emphasize the first definition of involvement.

This distinction between the viewpoints of the participative management theorists and their critics seems to have been crystallized in what Schein (1965) terms "complex man" assumptions about man. His theory points to the need to take into account the full complexity of man and, as such, refutes the participative management assumptions which neglect individual differences and only serve to stereotype man's needs. Schein states that organization and management theory has adhered to and fostered these simplified and generalized conceptions about man. They have failed to recognize the variability of man's needs and motives, not realizing that employee A is complex within himself and different from employee B. Because man is variable and capable of learning new motives through organizational experience, his "psychological contract" with the organization is a function of both internal needs and organizational experiences. The practical implications of these assumptions are not that traditional principles of organization are misguided, but rather that there is no one

correct management strategy. These assumptions are more in line with Hulin and Blood's and Lodahl and Kejner's regarding the necessity of looking at personal background variables in determining individual differences in needs and motives.

## Review of the Empirical Literature

Having muddled through the literature and become aware of the complexity and lack of general conceptual agreement regarding this theoretical construct, the reader, however, should be able to formulate a general outline of the nature of the problem. What has been described by the previous discussion of the construct is an orientation in which work is a very important and meaningful part of life. It is not viewed as a necessary evil or as an economic survival tool. It is such an integral part of the individual's self-concept that it also affects his self-esteem. It would be helpful at this point to review the empirical work relevant to this problem in order to gain insight into how this motivational or attitudinal index fits into the broader perspective of employee responses on the job.

As stated earlier, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) conducted one of the first studies concerned with the definition and measurement of job involvement. Their two definitions of job involvement seem to embody all of the various definitions and conceptualizations which have been reviewed. Starting with 110 statements potentially related to their conception of job involvement, they submitted 87 non-duplicated items to "expert" judges. After calculating means, medians,

standard deviations, and Q-values, 40 of these items were retained and administered to 137 nursing personnel. An item analysis and factor analysis were performed. Five factors emerged with loadings accounting for 92 per cent of the variance in the total involvement scores. By considering item total correlations, communalities, and factorial clarity, this set of items was further reduced to 20 and was administered to a group of engineers. Factor analysis was again performed on the data for both samples. Loadings on the first principal axis indicated the presence of a general involvement factor. However, only eight of the items had their highest loading on this factor. Using both samples and rotating to the varimax criterion, three factors emerged for the nurses and four for the engineers. Factor 1 seemed to deal with the rejection of items expressing high involvement and had the highest correlation with the total job involvement score. Items composing Factor 2 indexed a response of indifference to work. Factor 3 was termed a duty-bound positive involvement, while the fourth factor which emerged for the engineers' data seemed to be tapping boredom and the general unimportance of work. Because of the factorial similarity across the samples, they concluded that job involvement is multidimensional with at least three dimensions. Corrected split-half correlations in the samples ranged from .72 to .89 for the 20 item scale. This led Lodahl and Kejner to comment on the only moderate internal consistency, which was probably due to the multidimensionality

of the scale. As evidence of validity they performed an analysis of variance which indicated that three samples (students, nurses, and engineers) differed in respect to involvement scores.

Although this is but slight evidence of the validity of their measure, further evidence comes from a study by Goodman, Furcon, and Rose (1969). In an examination of the convergent and discriminant validity of creative ability measures, job involvement items developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965) were used as control traits in a multi-trait multi-method matrix design. The job involvement items were utilized since they were considered independent of the creative ability traits. Using a sample consisting of 63 employees in a government research laboratory, reliability of the involvement scale was .83. Of primary interest was the finding that the involvement items exhibited both substantial convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity was indicated by the values in the diagonals of the matrix and discriminant validity was indicated by the degree to which a diagonal value exceeded its corresponding row and column values.

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) also correlated the data with other variables pertaining to the technological nature of the work and job satisfaction as measured by the Job Description Index and demographic data. The job involvement scale correlated positively with only two of thirteen job variables, number of people contacted per day on the job

( $r = .30$ ) and necessity of working closely with others ( $r = .34$ ). Four of five satisfaction variables were associated with high job involvement; satisfaction with the work itself ( $r = .29$ ), promotion ( $r = .38$ ), supervision ( $r = .38$ ), and people ( $r = .37$ ). In terms of background-demographic data, the only significant correlation was between job involvement and age ( $r = .26$ ), with older workers being more involved. Years of college, years of work experience, job status, and marital status did not correlate with job involvement. Sample sizes in the investigation of these relationships ranged from 46 to 137. Factor analysis also showed that the 20 item involvement scale had its highest loading on the same factor as the satisfaction variables. They concluded that, for the sample of engineers used, job involvement had the same factorial structure as job satisfaction. However, they did point out that there was no justification in concluding that the two constructs are identical although they might have similar determinants. Combining their data to form a composite profile of a job involved individual, they state that such an individual: 1) is older, 2) is less considerate as a leader, 3) has a more highly interdependent job, and 4) is more satisfied with the work, coworkers, and promotional opportunities.

It must be recognized, however, that their sample was restricted to a narrow range of occupations. Of further interest is their lack of discussion regarding the two





conceptualized dimensions of involvement. Having performed a factor analysis they never attempt to reconcile the difference between the various factors that emerged and their initial dichotomization of the construct. Also in question is their use of orthogonal rotations while performing the factor analysis since this implies, or builds in, an assumption of independence between the items. They never address themselves to the issue of whether or not they expect the various items of the involvement scale to be correlated or whether they feel that they are tapping distinct job attitudes as their two definitions imply. This seems to leave a major point unanswered since the goal of this research is to gain as clear a conceptualization as possible concerning what attitudes and feeling states the construct involvement is actually measuring.

An earlier study by Lodahl (1964) made use of different samples and technologies. Fifty male assembly line workers in an automobile plant and 29 female assemblers in an electronics company constituted the two samples utilized. Lodahl was trying to get at "deep emotional reactions to work." He was attempting to understand how attitude variables measuring job satisfaction, motivation, and job involvement are related to each other. Also of interest was the question of the generality of these attitude factors across various technologies. Data for the study was obtained from a content analysis of interviews conducted with each of the subjects. A principal components factor

analysis of the automobile assemblers' data was performed. Eleven factors, accounting for 78 per cent of the variance, emerged; however, only five were clearly interpretable. One of the factors was termed involvement since all of the involvement variables clustered together and were unrelated to any other class of variables. Product involvement, job involvement, company involvement, and number of men working nearby loaded on this factor. The inclusion of this last variable led to the speculation that involvement is part of a more general social-affiliation process. The data also indicated a tendency for men with more education to be less involved in the assembly line job ( $r = -.38$ ).

Analysis of the data for the electronics workers yielded similar results. Eight factors, accounting for 85 per cent of the variance, emerged, but only six were interpretable. Again, job involvement broke out as a separate factor unrelated to satisfaction, motivation, or technological variables. The items which clustered together were product knowledge, job involvement, and team involvement. From these results Lodahl theorized that job involvement may be looked upon as a general value orientation which deals with why people prefer work over idleness.

In a somewhat similar study to the above, Lawler and Hall (1970) investigated the empirical and theoretical interrelationships among job involvement, intrinsic motivation, and satisfaction, and the relationship of these attitudes to job design characteristics. As was stated

elsewhere, they were interested in investigating the distinctness of these three job attitudes. To facilitate their work they used Lodahl and Kejner's first definition as their conceptualization of involvement and Lawler's definition of intrinsic motivation. Using a sample of 291 scientists in research and development laboratories, questionnaires were administered consisting of the following: six items designed to measure the scientists' satisfaction of autonomy and self-actualization needs; six items (from Lodahl and Kejner's scale) measuring job involvement; four items tapping intrinsic motivation; five items measuring job perceptions dealing with the degree of control over job, degree to which the job was perceived to be a relevant test of one's abilities, and degree of influence and control in the department; and two items measuring self-rated performance and effort. The measure of satisfaction was obtained by first asking how much of the factor was associated with the job and comparing this response with the rating of how much they felt the factor should be associated with the job. In addition to these questionnaire items, structured group interviews were conducted in which the investigator was able to rate the amount of challenge in the job and the amount of contact the subject had with project clients.

A principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation of the sixteen items indicated that a three factor solution was most interpretable and accounted for

48 per cent of the variance. The first factor was a satisfaction factor with all six satisfaction items loading on it. All six involvement items loaded on Factor 2 with four of the six loading highly (.55 - .84). All four of the intrinsic motivation items loaded on Factor 3. Lawler and Hall thus concluded that these measures of the three job attitudes were factorially independent and relatively distinct variables. Their conclusions do seem justified in light of the factors and loadings obtained. However, the methodology may be suspect due to the nature of the scales used. The satisfaction scale had different anchor points (minimum-maximum) than the other two scales (Likert type). This may have led to the clarity and artificiality of the results. It is difficult to imagine attitudinal measures being as clearly independent as this analysis indicates.

With regard to the relationship of these attitude measures to job design characteristics, it was found that the latter are more strongly related to satisfaction than to job involvement and intrinsic motivation. However, the involvement items were significantly related to four of the five job design characteristics and the intrinsic motivation items were related to three job design characteristics. Jobs which allow the individual control, give him a chance to be creative, and are appropriate to his abilities are more satisfying. This suggests that job design features can influence satisfaction levels ( $r$ 's

ranged from .24 to .45). Lawler and Hall state that the weaker relationships between the involvement measures and job characteristics might further suggest that involvement is more a function of the person than the job, as other theorists have also proposed. They further state that "people probably do differ as a function of background and personal situation in the degree to which they are likely to become involved in their jobs." However, the attitude is probably dependent on both individual and job characteristics. The involvement items correlated with a chance to be creative, influence in the department, chance to "do the thing I do best," and appropriateness of job to abilities ( $r = .18 - .21$ ). Worth noting is the fact that involvement was not related to the self-rated performance measure, leading Lawler and Hall to state that an individual can be involved in his job for reasons not related to performance. It is possible that lack of variance in the performance ratings could have led to the low correlation, but they never touch upon this possibility.

Lawler and Hall (1970) have shown that research on job involvement as a distinct attitudinal measure is a worthwhile direction to explore. Their results indicate that people do differ in the degree to which they are involved and outline what relationships may exist between attitude and job characteristics. However, they have given no indication of the intercorrelations between the intrinsic motivation items and the involvement items. The correlations

of these two attitude measures with job characteristics are not strikingly different. This is an important point because, as previously noted, their definition of intrinsic motivation is what others have proposed as an aspect of job involvement.

Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968) further attempted to clarify the relationships among these job attitudes. Using Herzberg's dichotomization of "motivator" and "hygiene" variables, they investigated the relationship between job involvement and satisfaction. The Wernimont Job Satisfaction Scale and Lodahl and Kejner's short, six-item scale were used. Results confirmed their hypothesis that involvement increases with increasing satisfaction with motivator variables. Significant correlations were found with three of the five motivator variables and the motivator total. As predicted, however, involvement did not correlate significantly with hygiene variables. These findings are what might be expected by the very nature of the concept of job involvement. As an attitudinal measure indexing how the person is identified with his job and how important it is to his self-concept, perceived content aspects of the work would be expected to be related to job involvement. Since these are higher order need satisfactions, somewhat similar to the autonomy and self-actualization satisfaction items used by Lawler and Hall, their work partially seems to answer questions raised concerning the intercorrelations of items. It also serves to reinforce the viewpoint that job

involvement is related to job design characteristics. However, a more fruitful approach would appear to lie in the investigation of the relationship between the importance of these higher order needs and job involvement. This could lead to understanding in regard to the influence personal background has on the attitude.

In regard to this relationship between higher order needs and involvement, Vroom (1962) conducted a study in which the following question was asked of supervisory and blue-collar workers: "If a problem comes up in your work and won't be settled by the time you go home, how likely is it that you will find yourself thinking about it after work?" Those who thought about it after work were more likely to be satisfied if the job offered them opportunities for self-expression. These opportunities were found to be less important to those who forgot about their jobs as soon as they left work.

Goodman, Rose, and Furcon (1970) conducted an investigation designed to compare four approaches to assessing the motivational antecedents of work performance. The motivational models used were direction of motivational orientation, source of motivational stimulation, job dedication, and an expectancy model. Job dedication was measured by Lodahl and Kejner's job involvement scale. Sixty-six scientists and engineers in a government research laboratory participated in the study. The investigators hypothesized that the expectancy model should exhibit the strongest



relationship with performance because as a model it is more multidimensional than the other three. Performance was measured by self-reported publication output, actual publication output, self-reports of unpublished papers and reports, and self-reports of presentations at formal scientific meetings. None of the expected relationships between the first three motivational models and performance was strong. Of particular interest to the present investigation are the weak relationships between job dedication and the four performance measures. None of the relationships was significant. As predicted, the expectancy model did have the strongest associations with performance measures. Significant correlations ( $p < .05$ ) ranging from .24 to .39 were obtained. However, criticisms can be leveled at the dependent measures. There is no "quality" dimension in any of the four performance measures and a gross measure of quantity of publications may not be at all representative of an individual's worth to the organization.

Probably the most thorough investigation of the relationship between job involvement and other attitudinal and job design variables was conducted by Patchen (1965, 1970) at Tennessee Valley Authority. Although he only used a two item scale, it was found to have fairly high test-retest reliability ( $r = .83$ ) with intercorrelations between the items of .38. This low correlation in itself points out that the two questions may be tapping different aspects of work motivation. It also points to the

difficulty in generating a clear and general conceptualization of job involvement. The multidimensionality referred to by Lodahl and Kejner must be kept in mind. Patchen labeled his index "general job interest" but the items do seem to be in line with the involvement construct, psychological identification. Utilizing a sample of 90 work groups, investigation with the index showed that there are both within group and between group differences. Patchen explored a myriad of relationships involving general job interest and job design characteristics, finding many to be significant. His investigation did tend to focus on job characteristics, but some relationships involving personal characteristics were also investigated. Perceived opportunity for achievement, control over work methods, feedback on performance, difficulty of the job, and chance to learn new things all correlated fairly strongly with general job interest ( $r = .25 - .53$ ). Joint effects were also investigated through several analyses of variance using four job features: control over means, job difficulty, feedback, and frequency of time limits. It was found that job interest tends to be increased by combinations of: 1) high job difficulty and high control over means, 2) high control over means and high feedback, and 3) high job feedback and high difficulty. When the other three features are constant, control over means has a marked relation to job interest. These relationships are very much in accord with the ideas espoused by the participative management

theorists regarding man's desire for higher order need gratification. Of further interest was the tendency for a combination of high personal need for achievement and poor opportunity for achievement to bring lower job interest than is due to the effect of either personal need or opportunity alone. This interaction, however, was small. Although it was found that need for achievement was unrelated to general job interest, highest levels of job interest were recorded for those highest in need for achievement, identification with occupation, influence over work goals, and chance to do what best at. Conversely, those with the lowest job interest had a high need for achievement but were low on the other three characteristics. In other words, those with the high need for achievement were thwarted by job features and may have sublimated their efforts to out of work activities in order to fulfill this need. This lends support to what Argyris and McGregor had been saying and to the idea that job involvement is influenced by job characteristics.

One of the other scales which Patchen used, "identification with one's occupation," also looks as if it might be closely related to our conceptualization of involvement and to his general job interest scale. Using this scale as a measure of commitment and pride in work, they found that it was related to job interest ( $r = .32$ ) even when other variables were partialled out. Results also suggested, however, that "although commitment to an occupation

increases interest in work, it does not contribute to a stronger motive for achievement." Thus occupational commitment may reflect satisfaction with membership in the occupational group, rather than a drive for achievement in the work. This appears to refute what Lodahl and Kejner (1965) and Vroom (1962) had been saying regarding the performance-esteem aspects of involvement. They also found a correlation of .38 between job interest and pride in work. However, commitment to an occupation may not be the same as commitment or involvement to a job. The latter may be more influenced by organizational conditions and the former can be considered more of a general attitudinal measure.

It is interesting to note that both Patchen (1970) and Lawler and Hall (1970) obtained results which were in accord with Vroom's theorizing about involvement and the importance of the individual's perceptions of how relevant his abilities, aptitudes, etc. are to his performance on the job. The lack of constraints imposed by the job, as measured by questions of control, influence, etc., have also been shown to be related to increased job interest as Vroom and others have theorized.

Patchen's work is thorough in examining relationships involving job design characteristics, but it does suffer in its lack of investigation of personal and background variables which would enable an examination of possible antecedent conditions which may lead to job involvement.

Although he has generated a complex theoretical model, the testing of it has been less than supportive. Of the ten determinants of job motivation investigated, only three showed clear support for this theoretical position. Statistically significant results accounting for a small proportion of the variance were frequent throughout the study. Yet, Patchen seems to attach unwarranted theoretical significance to many of these findings. However, his work does stand out as an attempt to approach problems and relationships with a more complex perspective than is usually found throughout the literature.

Schwychart and Smith's (1971) study is one of the most recent investigations which has emphasized the neglect which the construct of job involvement has received. Using a sample of 149 white-collar, salaried, middle managers under the age of 40, they investigated the relationship between job involvement and company satisfaction. Company satisfaction was defined as "the degree to which an employee derives satisfaction from and identifies with the company in which he is employed." It was indexed by 20 items found to load on factors such as company identification, pride in company, and personal pride in the organization. The job involvement scale consisted of the 20 items developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965). The correlation between involvement and company satisfaction was .45 ( $p < .05$ ). Job involvement was also found to correlate significantly ( $r = .18$ ,  $p < .05$ ) with age. However, company tenure and number of promotions

showed no relationship with job involvement and company satisfaction. Factor analysis using a principal components method resulted in the emergence of six factors accounting for 59 per cent of the common variance in the unrotated solution. Only three of these factors were consistent upon replication in a second sample. These three factors accounted for 41 and 36 per cent of the common variance in groups A and B, respectively. The factors were termed job ambition, job centrality, and job conscientiousness. Only the first factor was similar to factors obtained by Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) analysis. This finding led the authors to speculate that job involvement may have a different factor structure across occupational groups. They also pointed out the need for future research to examine antecedents and consequences of job involvement.

As would be intuitively expected, empirical results have also indicated a negative correlation between involvement indices and absenteeism. Patchen (1965) found fairly strong negative correlations ( $r = .43 - .53$ ) among work units. Wickert (1951) found turnover to be related to job involvement. Using a sample of 600 telephone operators and service representatives, he found that those who tended to remain on the job reported: 1) having a chance to make decisions on the job, and 2) feeling that they were making an important contribution to the company. His results may have been biased, however, by the fact that part of the

sample was still employed and part was no longer working, especially since the questionnaires were administered after the latter had already quit. Those who thought about their jobs after leaving work were more likely to be satisfied if the job offered them opportunities for self-expression. These opportunities may have been found to be less important to those who forgot about their jobs as soon as they left.

## Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses

The literature review was designed to familiarize the reader with previous research. More importantly, however, it should make one aware that in spite of all the disagreement and attention that involvement has received within a conceptual framework, very few empirical investigations have followed. Job involvement has been described as an attitudinal state greatly influenced by both job characteristics which the individual is presently experiencing and by values inculcated early in life through socio-cultural training. These positions are most cogently represented in their extremes by the participative management theorists (Argyris, Likert, McGregor) and their critics (Hulin and Blood, Strauss, Turner and Lawrence), respectively. Schein (1965) in his "complex man" perspective, however, has argued for the necessity of an approach which takes both of these types of factors into consideration. It is neither the individual differences, in the form of background and demographic factors, nor job design characteristics, such as amount of control, influence, and use of abilities allowed on the job, alone that determine this attitudinal state. The interaction between individual differences and organizational constraints is viewed as the key framework for understanding relationships which occur.



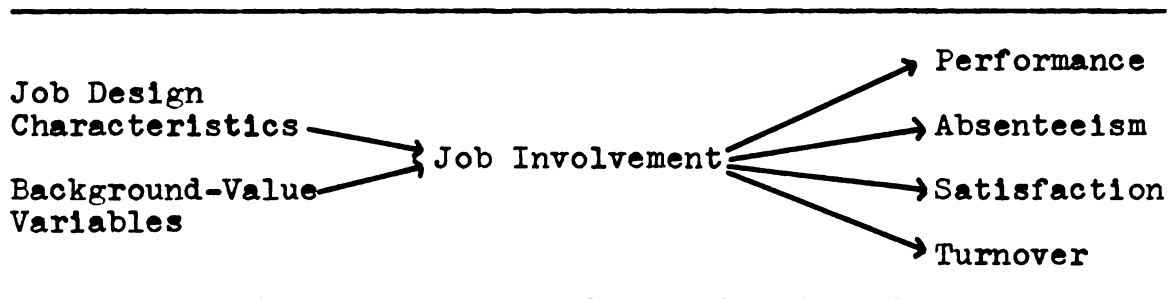
While these theoretical distinctions have been proposed, empirical testing has lagged behind. Lawler and Hall's (1970) work has encouraged the belief that the use of the construct job involvement can be a worthwhile direction for future research. Patchen (1970) and Lawler and Hall (1970) have also shown that as a distinct construct it is related to several job characteristics. But despite the theorizing regarding the possible importance of background and socio-cultural variables by Patchen, Lodahl and Kejner, and Lawler and Hall, this area of research has been severely neglected. Past research has been limited to a rather restricted range of occupations and levels. Also worthy of study, but deficient in investigation, have been the consequences of job involvement such as performance and overall satisfaction with the job and the company.

The most fruitful framework within which to focus an investigation of the construct of job involvement thus consists of examining possible antecedent conditions of involvement (background and situational variables) and the consequences of involvement (performance, absenteeism, and turnover). It is to this end that the present study is directed.

The following hypotheses to be investigated are an outgrowth of the conceptual framework which has been discussed. More specifically, this investigation will test the hypotheses which have been generated by theoretical positions advocated by participative

management theorists and proponents of individual difference considerations. In keeping within the proposed framework, the investigation will also concern itself with the investigation of consequences of involvement, such as productivity, turnover, and absenteeism. These relationships are conceptually presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Hypothesized antecedents and consequences of job involvement.



Although there are differences in points of emphasis, in general the participative management theorists (Argyris, McGregor, and Likert) have failed to introduce the concept of individual differences into their basic theoretical framework. The ego needs, which are central to their propositions, are viewed as being important to all workers, with fulfillment dependent upon job design characteristics experienced by the individual worker. If the job is capable of providing the gratification of ego needs, the individual will become involved. This is stated more explicitly in the form of Hypothesis 1: job involvement will be positively related to the degree of participation in decision making which the job design characteristics provide the individual.

Needs for influence and control in work are thus viewed as some of the many possible ego needs which the individual may need fulfilled. This would be an operational test of one theoretical position concerning the developmental nature of involvement.

A second theoretical position which must also be considered reverses the approach of the participative management theorists and, while not actually ignoring the effects of job characteristics, dismisses their importance and relegates them to a secondary position. In discussing the importance of background-value variables, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) state that involvement may be resistant to changes due to the nature of the job. Hypothesis 2 stems from this focus: job involvement will be positively related to level of education. It is assumed that the higher the level of education attained by the individual the more the socialization process will have fostered a need for involvement. No consideration is given to job design characteristics or to the violation of an individual's expectations concerning the job.

More realistically, and in line with the "complex man" perspective, it is hypothesized that job involvement is a function of an interaction between fulfillment of ego needs by the job and individual difference factors in the form of personal-background variables. To explore this more complex position moderator variables will be used.

Hypothesis 3 states that the relationship between job

involvement and participation in decision making will be more positive for more highly educated individuals than for those individuals with less education. Schein (1965), in arguing for his "complex man" perspective, discussed the use of education as a moderator in the relationship between ego need gratification provided by the job and employee responses to the job. Educational level was viewed as an index of expected or desired ego need gratification, with those individuals who are less educated expecting or desiring less ego need gratification from their jobs than more highly educated individuals. Ruh and Wakeley (unpublished manuscript) also found general support for the hypothesized interaction.

Hypothesis 4 states that the relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making will be more positive for workers from a rural background than for those of an urban background. This is an outgrowth of Blood and Hulin's (1967) refutation of the participative management theorists' propositions. As a result of extra-work socialization and "alienation from middle-class norms," lower class city workers are more likely to be satisfied when their jobs are less personally involving. It is only the rural workers who demand personal involvement. Their individual needs are different and will thus result in the stated differences in the relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making. These are differences which the participative management advocates would not consider exploring.

Hypothesis 4a states that there will be mean differences in job involvement between individuals of urban and rural backgrounds with higher job involvement for the rural workers. This is also a direct outgrowth of Blood and Hulin's theorizing regarding individual differences fostered by extra-work socialization and "alienation from middle-class norms."

Hypothesis 5 predicts that the relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making will be more positive for those individuals with low religious devotion than for those with high religious devotion. Use of this moderator stems from the general concept of the Protestant Ethic which has been operationally defined as the belief in the inherent goodness of work and the consequential moral and religious justification for the work process itself. As Weber (1930) pointed out, the average Protestant had to work hard to rid himself of the fear of damnation. He could not relax or enjoy the fruits of his labors. His profits and savings went back into the business which in itself was "a serious calling ordained by God" (McClelland, 1961). Viewing one's intensity of religious devotion as an operational index of this general value orientation, the above hypothesis can then be more easily understood. Job design characteristics will not be as strongly related to job involvement for the individual adhering to this value system as they will be for the individual who is not as influenced by the Protestant Ethic. The former individual

will need to be involved in his job, regardless of job conditions, just to insure that his fate is not one of damnation. The religious dogma would compel this and leave him with a less flexible response than his less religious counterpart.

Hypothesis 5a states that job involvement will be positively related to intensity of religious devotion. This is simply an operational statement of what has been discussed in the previous paragraph concerning the adherence to the Protestant Ethic as a value system or orientation.

Hypothesis 6 states that the relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making will be more positive for those individuals with a high intrinsic orientation than for those with a high extrinsic orientation. This reflects the assumption that those individuals who are highly intrinsically oriented will be more involved to the extent that their ego needs are fulfilled by job design characteristics. However, those individuals for whom the importance of intrinsic needs is low on their need hierarchy will view the job solely as a means to a financial end. Therefore, their degree of involvement will not be as strongly influenced by participation in decision making.

One aspect of the conceptual framework as previously introduced is concerned with consequences of job involvement. In an attempt to investigate these possible resultant behaviors the following hypotheses are introduced.

Hypothesis 7 predicts that job involvement will be positively related to performance as measured in terms of productivity. However, the relationship is not expected to be strong. As Lawler and Hall (1970) point out, an individual can be involved in his job for reasons entirely unrelated and of no consequence to performance.

Hypothesis 8 states that job involvement will be negatively related to absenteeism.

Hypothesis 9 states that job involvement will be negatively related to turnover. Both of these results would be intuitively expected, but of more importance are the empirical findings (Patchen, 1965; Wickert, 1951) which lend some support to this hypothesis.

## Method

### Subjects

The source of data for the study was the 1968 Michigan State University "You and Your Job" attitude survey. The subjects were 2755 employees of six medium sized manufacturing companies in the Midwest. Of 4162 questionnaires distributed, 2755 usable ones were returned, providing a return rate of .66. Of these 2755 subjects, 2628 responded to at least three-fourths of the relevant items. Various subgroups of these 2628 respondents were utilized in the present analysis.

### Data Collection

The questionnaire mentioned above provided for the measurement of personal-background data. Those demographic variables of interest to this study were level of education, intensity of religious devotion, and urban-rural background. Each of the above variables, except level of education, was indexed by summing responses to the specific items and calculating means. The education measure, however, consisted of a single item. A detailed description of the specific items is given below.



## I. Intensity of religious devotion

1. Under usual conditions how often do you attend religious services?
  - a. Twice or more a week
  - b. Every week
  - c. Once or twice a month
  - d. On special occasions (such as Easter)
  - e. Do not attend services
2. Religion in your home was considered as:
  - a. An essential part of home life
  - b. One of several factors which were important
  - c. A relatively unimportant factor
  - d. Something to be left out of our family life
  - e. One's own business
3. As a young man, were you any of the following?
  - a. A church member and active in church activities
  - b. A nominal church member
  - c. A religious rebel
  - d. A non-churchman without any great religious conviction
  - e. None of the above

## II. Level of education

1. How many years of school work have you completed?
 

6 or less	7	8	9	10	11	12
some college		college		graduate work		

### III. Urban-rural background

1. The place in which you spent the most time during your early life was a:
  - a. Farm
  - b. Town of less than 2,000
  - c. Town of 2,000 or more, but less than 10,000
  - d. City of 10,000 to 100,000
  - e. City larger than 100,000
2. In what type of community are you now living?
  - a. In the country
  - b. Town of less than 2,000
  - c. Town of 2,000 or more, but less than 10,000
  - d. City of 10,000 to 100,000
  - e. City of larger than 100,000
3. In what size city would you prefer to live?
  - a. Rural or country
  - b. 5,000 or less
  - c. 5,000 to 50,000
  - d. 50,000 to 200,000
  - e. 200,000 or more

In addition to these demographic items, attitudinal variables concerned with conditions surrounding the job and employee reactions to the job were measured. Each variable was indexed by averaging the responses to five-point Likert scale items. Four scales were utilized for the study: job involvement, participation in decision making, intrinsic orientation, and extrinsic orientation.

A detailed description of the specific items follows.

I. Job involvement

1. My job means a lot more to me than just money.
2. How much are you personally involved in your job?
3. I'm really interested in my work.
4. To me, my work is only a small part of who I am.
5. I would probably keep working if I didn't need the money.
6. Most things in life are more important than work.
7. The major satisfactions in my life come from my job.
8. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.

II. Participation in decision making

1. To what extent are you able to decide how you do your job?
2. In general, how much say or influence do you have on what goes on in your work group?
3. In general, how much influence do you have on decisions which affect your job?
4. In general, how much say or influence do you have on how you perform your job?
5. My superiors are receptive and listen to my ideas and suggestions.

III. Intrinsic orientation--the importance of each of the following

1. Having good chances for promotion
2. Being recognized and appreciated for doing good work

### III. Intrinsic orientation (cont.)

3. Having responsibility on your job
4. Being able to decide how to do your job
5. A feeling that the work you are doing is important
6. Being able to learn new skills and gain experience on your job
7. A sense of achievement in the work you are doing

### IV. Extrinsic orientation--the importance of each of the following

1. Having a supervisor who really knows his job
2. Having relations of trust and confidence between superiors and subordinates
3. Being trusted by the people you work with
4. Receiving fair pay
5. Steady work and steady wages
6. Working under good (safe, clean, pleasant) conditions
7. Being liked by the people you work with

Three post-questionnaire measures were also utilized: productivity, absenteeism, and turnover. During the time for which the productivity measures were recorded, the companies were utilizing a measured day rate system. This necessitated the keeping of weekly records of each individual's percentage of standard produced, a percentage which is calculated for an individual's primary job and for his total performance. Machine down time and subsequent work stoppages not under the control of the individual were taken into account. The measure of productivity used in this

investigation was the average of an individual's performance rating on his primary job over a 20 week period. This measure was adjusted for vacations and other such leaves of absence. The data were collected in two plants of the same manufacturing company located in different cities. Performance ratings for 238 subjects were used with values ranging from 36.5 to 162 per cent.

Absenteeism data were collected for the same five month period as the productivity measure. Absenteeism was operationally defined as the proportion of hours absent to total hours worked. Here also, the measure was adjusted for vacations, layoffs, and plant shutdowns. Data of 398 subjects were utilized with values ranging from 0.0 to .147.

Turnover data were collected for 1662 subjects at fifteen different plants of the same company from which productivity and absenteeism data were obtained. It was simply a measure of whether or not an individual who returned a questionnaire from the 1968 survey was still employed by the same company. Deaths, retirees, military leaves, and other similar involuntary departures were adjusted for. The data were coded in the following way: 1 = no longer employed, and 2 = presently employed.

#### Selection of items

All items were selected on the basis of a series of cluster analyses which were performed on the Michigan

State University C. D. C. 3600 computer. The cluster analysis program which was utilized performs an oblique multiple groups analysis on the variables specified. It is not "blind" analysis since the investigator designates which variables are to be grouped together. Items were initially grouped into eight clusters on the basis of face validity, theoretical expectations, and results of prior investigations (Ruh, 1970; Morrison, 1970). Decision rules were then employed using item communalities, alpha estimates of internal consistency reliability, inter-item correlations, and item-cluster correlations to regroup and eliminate items. Summary results of the cluster analysis are presented in Table 1.

The scale measuring job involvement initially consisted of ten items, seven of which were from Lodahl and Kejner's scale (1965). Cluster analysis resulted in the experimenter retaining eight items for use in this investigation. Median inter-item and item-cluster correlations were .36 and .64, respectively. The alpha estimate of reliability was .81.

The initial five items grouped to form the participation in decision making scale (PDM) were retained with no additional items being added. Median inter-item and item-cluster correlations were .48 and .69, respectively. The alpha estimate was .81.

The measure of intensity of religious devotion was reduced from four to three items, with median inter-item and item-cluster correlations of .45 and .71, respectively. The alpha estimate was .72.

Table 1. Median and range of inter-item correlations, item-cluster correlations, and item communalities. Scale reliabilities (alphas) are also included.

	Inter-item r's		Item-cluster r's		Item communalities		Alpha
	median	low high	median	low high	median	low high	
Job involvement	.36	.21 .66	.64	.42 .71	.42	.14 .51	.81
Participation in decision making	.48	.36 .55	.69	.58 .76	.47	.34 .58	.81
Religious devotion	.45	.44 .52	.71	.63 .72	.51	.40 .52	.72
Urban-rural background	.45	.40 .61	.75	.56 .81	.56	.32 .64	.74
Intrinsic orientation	.32	.24 .43	.59	.49 .63	.35	.24 .39	.78
Extrinsic orientation	.25	.13 .41	.53	.41 .63	.28	.17 .40	.72

All three original items in the urban-rural background scale were retained, with the scale having an alpha value of .74. Median inter-item and item-cluster correlations were .45 and .75, respectively.

The seven items which compose the scale measuring intrinsic orientation were initially separated into two distinct clusters of four and five items each on the basis of a previous factor analysis (Morrison, 1970). However, cluster analysis indicated that such a dichotomy was unjustified, and one single cluster of seven items was retained. The median inter-item and item-cluster correlations were .32 and .58, respectively. An alpha estimate of .78 was obtained.

The extrinsic orientation items were similarly grouped into two clusters of four and three items based on a previous factor analysis (Morrison, 1970). Cluster analysis also indicated that this split was unjustified and the seven items were retained and regrouped into one cluster having an alpha estimate of .72. Median inter-item and item-cluster correlations of .25 and .53, respectively, were obtained.

#### Data coding

To investigate the hypothesized relationships, responses to the five scales (intrinsic orientation, extrinsic orientation, urban-rural background, intensity of religious devotion, and level of education) were trichotomized into groups of high, medium, and low. These subgroups were compared on each particular variable. Responses to the



level of education item were grouped into the three categories according to the following code: less than 12th grade education as low, 12th grade education as medium, and more than 12th grade education as high. Due to the nature of the design, sample sizes utilized in the investigation of each of the moderator variables varied somewhat. Simple correlational techniques were utilized in analysis of the data which was performed with the Michigan State University C. D. C. 3600 computer. As the description of the moderator design implies, various subgroups were utilized in investigating each of the moderator relationships. The statistical significance of differences in correlation between job involvement and participation in decision making among the subgroups were investigated using Fisher's  $r$  to  $z$  transformation. Simple  $t$ -tests were also employed in testing mean differences for the relevant variables.

## Results and Discussion

Hypothesis 1, which stated that job involvement would be positively related to participation in decision making, was tested using a sample of 2628 respondents. As predicted, a correlation of .51 ( $p < .01$ ) was obtained between job involvement and participation in decision making. The first hypothesis was thus confirmed, supporting the participative management assumptions which have been discussed. Although the study focused on antecedent and resultant factors, the design was correlational in nature and causality becomes an issue about which only hypotheses can be made. As Campbell and Stanley (1963) state,

. . . that the causal interpretation of correlational data is overdone rather than underdone, that plausible rival hypotheses are often overlooked, and that to establish the temporal antecedence-consequence of a causal relationship, observations extended in time if not experimental intrusions of X are essential. (p. 63)

Lack of control eliminates any possibility of determining the direction of causality in the involvement-participation in decision making relationship. It is possible that those individuals who entered the organization with relatively high, stable job involvement also tended to perceive organizational conditions as more participatively oriented and contributing to the continuation of a feeling of involvement

brought to the job. Alternately, one can assume from the participative management perspective that increases in the gratification of ego needs, such as participation-related needs, do indeed lead to increases in job involvement. While this second explanation appears more viable to the investigator, the last paragraph has emphasized the fact that both assumptions are nevertheless tenable in a correlational study.

Nevertheless, this result does contribute to a belief in the necessity of considering job conditions as well as value orientations in a discussion of this topic. One cannot conclude that Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) assumption regarding the resistance to change, or stability, of job involvement has no merit. However, this result points to the need to consider other alternative factors such as job design characteristics in any theoretical discussion. The design did not allow for experimental changes in job characteristics which would have made possible a look at the permanence of involvement as an attitude unaffected by organizational change. But the results of the testing of the first hypothesis do indicate a relationship between job involvement and perceived job design characteristics.

Since job design characteristics are such an integral part of the focus of this investigation, it is essential to emphasize the distinction between perceived and actual job conditions. The data collected were not measuring actual, "objective" conditions surrounding the employee

in his work environment. What has been measured is the individual employee's perceptions of organizational conditions. However, a look at the variance of the participation in decision making scores across job levels and within levels adds some interesting data to this issue. Job level was broken down into nine categories. In all but two of these levels the variance in participation in decision making scores was low relative to the variance when job level was not held constant. This tends to support the contention that the scores reflect mostly job characteristics and not individual differences.

Support for Hypothesis 2, which stated that job involvement would be positively related to level of education, was not found. Utilizing a sample of 2628 subjects, the obtained correlation between job involvement and level of education was  $-.04$ . This may not be particularly surprising because education is such a global measure that it is not very indicative of any specific socialization process.

The importance of fulfillment of ego needs by job design characteristics becomes even more obvious with the results of the testing of Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis 3 stated that the relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making would be more positive for more highly educated workers than for those workers with less education. As predicted, level of education did moderate the relationship between job involvement and

participation in decision making. Using the 2530 subjects grouped into high (488), medium (919), and low (1123) categories, correlations of .62, .42, and .51 were obtained with the high, medium, and low groups, respectively. The difference between the high and low groups was significant at the .01 level. Summary information is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Summary of the relationship between job involvement and PDM moderated by level of education.

	Mean Job Inv.	Mean PDM	r	N
High education	3.39	3.39	.62*	488
Medium education	3.14	2.97	.42	919
Low education	3.34	2.92	.51*	1123

\* difference between r's significant ( $p < .01$ )

The apparent curvilinearity of this relationship (F statistic indicates a significant non-linear relationship at the .01 level.) points even more strongly to the need for considering both background variables and job design characteristics in a discussion of job involvement. Those individuals with the highest levels of education are also those with the highest job levels (Johnson, 1971). Their needs for participation, control, influence, etc. are being met and they are involved in their jobs. Those individuals in the low education group do not have a significantly different job involvement mean, perhaps indicating that their expectations regarding the

possibility of having a job have been more than satisfied and resulting in their "total immersion in the work process." Those subjects in the medium group might have had a higher level of expectancy regarding how high in the organization they would go and what level job they would eventually attain. For many of them this expectancy has been violated and consequently their involvement score is the lowest of the three levels of education. If it is assumed that the participation in decision making measure is also a reflection of individual expectancy, then the above assumptions are even more plausible. Those individuals with the highest levels of education have the highest need for participation in the organization. Since they also have the highest job level, they value these opportunities to satisfy needs for participation and thus become involved to the extent to which these needs are fulfilled. However, the medium level of education group expected more in the way of fulfillment of ego needs than what they had experienced.

Also of interest is the finding that the high education group had the largest variance in job involvement scores of the three groups. One could hypothesize that individuals with a college (or some college) education are more heterogeneous, have experienced a more varied socialization process, than those workers with less education. Their expectations regarding work and their futures are also more varied. This results in greater heterogeneity in the involvement scores. Although this is not a major finding of the present study,

it does underline the need to examine not only mean differences but variances as well in an attempt to explain as much of the data as possible. Future research would benefit greatly from such an approach.

Hypothesis 4, which stated that the relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making would be more positive for workers from rural backgrounds than for those of urban backgrounds, was investigated using a sample of 2572 respondents. The correlation between job involvement and participation in decision making was found to be significantly different for the high and low urban groups. However, this difference was not in the predicted direction. The correlations were .55 and .43 for the high and low urban groups, respectively. Summary information is presented below in Table 3.

Table 3. Summary of the relationship between job involvement and PDM moderated by urban-rural background.

	Mean Job Inv.	Mean PDM	r	N
High urban	3.46*	3.29*	.55**	857
Medium urban	3.23	2.94	.48	858
Low urban	3.13*	2.81*	.43**	857

\* mean differences significant ( $p < .01$ )

\*\* difference between r's significant ( $p < .01$ )

Similarly, Hypothesis 4a was not supported. The results were opposite to those predicted. Mean job involvement scores were higher for the urban than for the rural group

( $p < .01$ ). Hulin and Blood's assumptions regarding extra-work socialization and "alienation from middle-class norms" which results from living in an urban environment received no support from the results of this analysis. But before these propositions are dismissed as being fully disconfirmed, the samples used in the two investigations should be compared. Those individuals classified as being from an urban environment in the present study are probably not even remotely similar to the deep urban, ghetto-type individuals composing the Hulin and Blood urban sample. It is imperative that the reader keep in mind the difference in the subgroups being compared. It is also possible that job level is confounding the results in the present investigation. Those individuals with an urban classification may also have the highest job level and consequently the most opportunities for participation in decision making, as the data in Table 3 indicate. These individuals have high ego needs, perceive the job as fulfilling these needs, and are thus highly involved in their work.

For those individuals in the high rural group the relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making is not as strong and the mean on both of these variables is significantly lower as indicated in Table 3. Contrary to what Hulin and Blood hypothesized, these individuals have lower involvement scores. Again, this could be due to differences between the "degree of ruralness" of their sample and the one utilized in the



present investigation. These individuals may be more rural than the rural sample utilized by Hulin and Blood which may have been more suburban than rural. It is thus tenable that the rural individuals in the present study were heavily involved in their home duties since many of them also work farms. Regardless of the participation in decision making that they experienced, they might not become as involved. That these results differ so strikingly from Hulin and Blood's highlights the need to have similar samples and operational definitions in order to compare results.

No support was generated for Hypothesis 5, which stated that the relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making would be more positive for those individuals with low religious devotion than for those with high religious devotion. For the sample of 2556 subjects, the correlations between job involvement and participation in decision making were found to be .51 and .46 for the high and low religious groups, respectively. These differences were neither in the predicted direction nor statistically significant. As predicted in Hypothesis 5a, however, involvement was positively related to "intensity of religious devotion." Utilizing the same sample of 2556 mentioned above, a correlation of .15 ( $p < .01$ ) was obtained. Summarized results are presented for Hypotheses 5 and 5a in Table 4.

In regard to the lack of support for Hypothesis 5, it is likely that the measure of "intensity of religious

devotion" does not reflect one's adherence to the Protestant Ethic. The idea of work for the sake of work, or work as a means of avoiding damnation, may no longer be at the forefront of even strict religious ideals. The concept of the "leisure society" may have infiltrated even the most religious members of society to such an extent that the work ethic is no longer prevalent. Thus, even the individuals classified as highly religious in this sample are interested in gaining fulfillment of these ego needs which both work and the working environment can provide.

Table 4. Summary of the relationship between job involvement and PDM moderated by intensity of religious devotion.

	Mean Job Inv.	Mean PDM	r	N
High religious	3.42	3.16	.51	853
Medium religious	3.29	2.99	.52	852
Low religious	3.11	2.88	.46	851

The fact that Hypothesis 5a was supported does not make the above assumptions less acceptable. Those individuals who are classified in the high religious group may have a strong need to become involved in whatever activities they pursue. They are deeply committed to the activity they are engaged in at a specific time, without having to relegate other activities to permanent positions of less involvement. Disregarding these theoretical explanations for the moment, it is also necessary to look at the practical significance

of the obtained correlation. Although the correlation of .15 is statistically significant, it accounts for less than two per cent of the variance and raises the question of whether it has any psychological significance in relation to involvement and personal-background variables.

As predicted in Hypothesis 6, the relationship between job involvement and participation in decision making was more positive for those individuals highly intrinsically oriented than for those highly extrinsically oriented ( $p < .01$ ). The correlations for the high intrinsic group and the high extrinsic group were .51 and .45, respectively. Summarized results are presented in Tables 5 and 6.

These findings lend support to the assumption that those individuals who are highly intrinsically oriented and have ego needs to be fulfilled will be more involved to the extent that participation in decision making is provided by the job. Those individuals who are extrinsically oriented will be more interested in the financial rewards which the job provides and the attainment of extra-work related goals. For the latter individuals, involvement on the job is less related to fulfillment of ego needs.

It was also found that involvement scores for the low extrinsic group and the high extrinsic group were significantly different ( $p < .01$ ). As expected, the higher involvement score was obtained by the low extrinsic group. Similarly, the high intrinsic group obtained a higher involvement score than the low intrinsic group ( $p < .01$ ).

Table 5. Summary of the relationship between job involvement and PDM moderated by intrinsic orientation.

	Mean Job Inv.	Mean PDM	r	N
High intrinsic	3.37*	3.17	.51	874
Medium intrinsic	3.28	3.01	.50	878
Low intrinsic	3.15*	2.84	.48	876

\* mean differences significant ( $p < .01$ )

Table 6. Summary of the relationship between job involvement and PDM moderated by extrinsic orientation.

	Mean Job Inv.	Mean PDM	r	N
High extrinsic	3.19*	2.87	.45	877
Medium extrinsic	3.22	2.97	.49	875
Low extrinsic	3.40*	3.18	.56	876

\* mean differences significant ( $p < .01$ )

Both of these results lend support to the assumption that an individual's basic value orientation is reflected by his involvement in work. The less an individual is involved in his work, the more he is apt to value highly what Herzberg (1959) has termed "hygiene factors." The work is not viewed as an end but rather more as a means to an end.

Before trying to integrate what has been reported and discussed up to this point, results dealing with consequences of job involvement will be presented since they are of both theoretical and practical significance.

Hypothesis 7 predicted a slight positive relationship between job involvement and productivity. A sample of 238 respondents were utilized in investigating this relationship. The obtained correlation coefficient of .03 was not significant. The reason for the lack of a more definitive result may lie with the productivity measure which was employed. Although there was variance in the productivity measure, use of a measure based on a percentage of standard achieved may be of questionable value. Since the sample was composed of rank and file workers, it is also necessary to question the amount of influence which these workers actually had over their own productivity. Of even greater import may be Lawler and Hall's (1970) statement that individuals can be involved in work for non-performance reasons which may thus have no essential effect on performance. Perhaps Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) ideas about the social-affiliative nature of involvement have merit and

an individual's involvement is entirely unrelated to performance. One must also remember that the productivity measures were not collected for the same time interval as were the other questionnaire items. There was a time lag of one year between the questionnaire and the performance data collection. What was thus being employed was a predictive design which may be of little value in investigating job involvement. During the time lag between questionnaire and postquestionnaire measures, the company changed to a measured day rate system from a piece-rate system. This type of change might have had an effect on an individual's feelings of involvement, thus making the stability of the involvement scores from questionnaire measure to productivity measure suspect. Essentially, what would have been more desirable was a concurrent measure of productivity. This should certainly be a goal for future investigations of this construct. Future research might also benefit from looking at moderators of the involvement-productivity relationship such as salaried versus non-salaried personnel.

There was no support generated for Hypothesis 8. Job involvement and absenteeism correlated .02. Since this result was so strikingly non-significant, there is no urgent need to hypothesize concerning its positive directionality, although a negative correlation would have given more support to the construct validity of the involvement measure used. The lack of results indicates that there is

probably not a simple relationship between involvement and absenteeism. Future researchers will need to look further, possibly with the use of moderators, to clarify the relationship. However, it is worthwhile to note once again what type of measure of absenteeism was employed. The measure was a ratio of days absent over a five month period to the total number of days worked. Thus, consecutive days absent were considered as two absences, not one. This may not be the most legitimate method of indexing absenteeism since an individual could have been absent for three consecutive days as a result of sickness without the cause of absenteeism ever having been recorded. In light of this fact, a better approach would have been to use a frequency measure counting consecutive absences as a single occurrence. Ideally, the reasons for specific absences should have been recorded so that the measure could have been adjusted for illegitimate absenteeism. However, this is only an ideal which can infrequently be achieved in field research of this nature.

Hypothesis 9 was the only one of the three "resultant" hypotheses that was supported. Using a sample of 1662 respondents, a significant ( $p < .01$ ) correlation of .17 was obtained between job involvement and turnover. This reflects the hypothesis that those individuals with high involvement means were more likely to still be employed by the same corporation. Since this correlation is so small and accounts for only a fraction of the variance, it would

be unrealistic to attach much importance and theoretical significance to it. Again, there was the problem of not knowing the specific reasons for an individual's withdrawal from the organization. But what may have contributed to this larger correlation was the adjustments made in coding the turnover data. As reported earlier, deaths, retirees, military and pregnancy leaves were not included. This may have contributed to this index being "cleaner" than the other two postquestionnaire measures.



## Conclusions and Implications for Future Research

The reader of this discussion should be aware that the investigator did not expect "practical" or definitive results. In dealing with this theoretical issue the primary purpose was to investigate, and thereby explicate, relationships involving the construct of job involvement. However, the data may have hindered more than helped the achievement of this end. Results have indicated that there are individual differences in job involvement, thus making investigation of the construct a worthwhile task. The fact that three of the four moderator relationships were significant, although not always in the predicted direction, is encouraging and points to the need for further research and more sophisticated designs and measures dealing with this complex theoretical issue. While results of Hypothesis 1 give support to the more simplistic, straightforward approach of the participative management theorists, no unequivocal conclusions can be drawn. The results indicate that perceived job characteristics are an important variable to be considered. However, the differences achieved with the various moderators also point out that job design characteristics are but one of many factors which have to be considered. Individual differences in the form of background-personal variables serve to complicate and to

lessen the simplistic nature of relationships involving job involvement. Such relationships are probably both situation and person specific with interactions between the two variables being of major importance. While there was no definitive support generated for either of these theoretical perspectives, it would appear that future researchers in this area should not ignore the interaction between individual and situational factors.

Results of the investigation of consequences of job involvement were generally ambiguous. Although the turnover-involvement relationship was significant and in the predicted direction, the absenteeism-involvement and the productivity-involvement relationships were not supported. The most parsimonious explanation may lie with the measurements. Refined measures, concurrent with attitudinal indices, should be used in future research in this area.

While results obtained in this investigation have indicated that individuals with high intrinsic orientations, high religious devotion, high levels of education, and from urban areas have the highest job involvement scores, it has not answered the question regarding the developmental nature of job involvement. Is it socio-cultural and resistant to change or is it organization dependent? Correlational techniques have only allowed relationships, not causality, to be outlined. What has been indicated is the potential usefulness of an approach which takes into account person and situation variables.

Of initial interest for future research would be an investigation of the relationship between job involvement and job satisfaction. Lawler and Hall (1970) have pointed to the validity of distinguishing between these two attitudes, and research findings could prove to be of both theoretical and practical value. The use of moderator variables, such as extrinsic-intrinsic orientation, might also serve a useful function in investigating this relationship. Job involvement might be found to be a useful moderator itself, such as in the relationship between satisfaction and performance. This would put Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) performance-esteem definition of involvement to an empirical test. The present investigation has tended to focus on the psychological-identification aspects of involvement. Involvement has been viewed as an operational measure of the degree to which the job is central to the individual's entire life and an integral part of his self-concept. Future testing of these related interpretations would be of immense value in defining the construct.

Since this investigation has focused on personal-background variables with some successful results, a logical next step would be the investigation of the relationship between job involvement and values. Another area of potential interest grows out of Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) theories concerning the relationship between involvement and a social-affiliative need. Investigation of this area could also prove enlightening and be integrated with the investigation of values.

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