

ABSTRACT

EFFECTS OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARTICIPATION AND JOB ATTITUDES

By

John Kenneth White

This study was designed to investigate the role of personal values and background factors on the relationship between opportunity for participation and job attitudes. Previous studies have investigated the moderating effect of background variables and inferred needs and values from them. The present study directly investigated the moderating effect of 10 values and at the relationship between these values and background factors. Specifically, it was hypothesized that:

1. Opportunity for participation correlates positively with the job attitudes involvement, commitment, and identification.
2. The values accomplishment, equality, freedom, ambitious, capable, imaginative, independent, responsible, self-controlled and participation moderate the above relationship such that the relationship is greater for those who attach high importance to each of the values.
3. The values correlate with 15 background factors related to residence, religion, occupation, and education.

All the data came from a questionnaire filled out by 2755 employees from 6 Midwest manufacturing concerns, and was analyzed with correlational techniques.

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Strong support was found for the first hypothesis but generally no support was found for the other two. The nature of the opportunity for participation measure and the ipsative nature of the values were suggested as two possible reasons for the lack of results.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	PAGE
LIST OF TABLES	iv
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Individual Difference Contingency Theory	1
Summary	8
Interpretation	10
Plan of Study	11
Hypothesis	11
Values and Background Factors	12
II. METHOD	16
Sample	16
Data	16
III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	23
Preliminary Analysis	23
Individual Difference Contingency Theory	25
Results	25
Discussion	30
Conclusion	34
Values and Background Factors	34
Results	34
Discussion	37
Conclusion	39
FOOTNOTES	41
REFERENCES	43

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	Page
1. Item-Scale Correlations and Scale Reliabilities	24
2. Inter-Scale Correlations	24
3. Correlations between Attitude Measures and Opportunity for Participation for Different Hierarchial Levels . . .	25
4. Correlations between Opportunity for Participation and Job attitudes for the Value Subgroups of Workers	26
5. Correlations between Opportunity for Participation and Job Attitudes for the Value Subgroups of Managers	27
6. Correlations between Opportunity for Participation and Values	29
7. Comparison of Correlations of Attitudes and "other" Items with Correlations of Opportunity for Participation and These "other" items	31
8. Correlations between Background Items and Values	35
9. Correlation Matrix of Background Items	38

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	Page
1. Item-Scale Correlations and Scale Reliabilities	24
2. Inter-Scale Correlations	24
3. Correlations between Attitude Measures and Opportunity for Participation for Different Hierarchial Levels . . .	25
4. Correlations between Opportunity for Participation and Job attitudes for the Value Subgroups of Workers	26
5. Correlations between Opportunity for Participation and Job Attitudes for the Value Subgroups of Managers	27
6. Correlations between Opportunity for Participation and Values	29
7. Comparison of Correlations of Attitudes and "other" Items with Correlations of Opportunity for Participation and These "other" items	31
8. Correlations between Background Items and Values	35
9. Correlation Matrix of Background Items	38

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Individual Difference Contingency Theory

In response to rather broad acceptance of much of human relations theory, several authors have postulated contingency models - arguing that the human relation predictions of improved attitudes and performance resulting from enriched jobs¹ are not universally valid. The variables which have been suggested as prerequisites for these relationships fall into two broad overlapping classes. The first group consists of situational variables, several of which are discussed by Lawrence and Lorsch (1967). The second group, which is the major focus of the present study, consists of individual difference variables. There are many studies that have demonstrated effects of individual differences on job attitudes and performance. However, this review of the literature is limited solely to those studies that focus directly on the interaction between individual differences and characteristics of the job situation.

In a study of 470 workers from 11 industries working on 47 different jobs, Turner and Lawrence (1965) attempted to demonstrate a relationship between job complexity and satisfaction and absenteeism. Using job level and job ratings as measures of job complexity, the hypothesized relationship was found for absenteeism but not for satisfaction. After several reanalyses of the data the authors found that both of the hypothesized

relationships held for those working in small towns, but for those working in large cities there was no relationship between job complexity and absenteeism, and a negative relationship between job complexity and satisfaction. The authors suggest that the heterogeneous social cultures in the larger city result in workers from these areas being anomic.

In a later study, Blood and Hulin (1967) attempted to demonstrate a negative relationship between the degree to which workers were employed in more urbanized and slum areas, and the degree to which job satisfaction correlated with job complexity. They found no support at all for their original analysis. Upon reanalyzing the data using only the blue collar portion of their sample the authors claim reasonable support for their hypotheses. However, only three of the fourteen response variables dealt with satisfaction with the work itself. These were the relationships between satisfaction with the work itself and skill level, job level, and general job satisfaction, as affected by the demographic variables. However, since job level is very likely negatively correlated with alienation from middle class norms (the authors' interpretation of the urbanization/slum variables) and since it is rather a nebulous concept when the sample is restricted to blue collar workers, clearly the most relevant relationship is that between satisfaction with the work and estimates of skill requirements of the job. However, the correlation between this relationship and six demographic variables ranged from $-.02$ to $-.10$ none significant. The authors interpret their urbanization measure as alienation from middle class norms and use the data to refute three other possible interpretations: economic status, differences in needs that result from urban

and rural environments as suggested by Katzell, Barrett, and Parker (1961), and anomie-lacking all norms rather than just middle class norms (Turner & Lawrence, 1965). However, in lieu of the fact that the data only marginally supported the effect of any variable, it seems a little premature to positively identify that variable on the basis of that same data.²

In a subsequent article (Hulin & Blood, 1968) the same authors reviewed the literature relevant to individual difference contingency theory and concluded that the available empirical evidence does not justify the broad acceptance that human relations theory has enjoyed. Drawing particularly on Turner and Lawrence (1965) and their own previous research, the authors interpret their measures of the demographic variables as a continuum of alienation/integration and suggest that while human relations predictions of a positive relationship between satisfaction and job complexity are valid for highly integrated workers, the relationship decreases as alienation increases and is in fact highly negative for extremely alienated workers. Several authors in referring to this study emphasize city size as the significant variable. However, the measure that provided the best support was the extent to which the area in which the plant was located was a slum. Therefore it seems equally plausible that the real dimension is the extent to which the area is dominated by lower class non whites.³ In discussing their alienation from middle-class norms continuum the authors write (Blood & Hulin, 1967):

At the integrated end of the construct are found workers who have personal involvement with their jobs and aspirations within their occupation. Their goals are the type of upward mobility, social

climbing goals generally associated with the American middle class. At the opposite pole of the construct, workers can be described as involved in their jobs only instrumentally; that is, the job is only a provider of means for pursuing extra-occupational goals. The concern of these workers is not for increased responsibility, higher status, or more autonomy. They want money and they want it in return for a minimal amount of personal involvement. This difference between integrated and alienated workers is similar to Dalton's (1947) discrimination between overproducers who are likely to hold middle-class ideals. The construct of alienation being proposed in this study stands in obvious relation to the Protestant ethic proposed and discussed by Weber (1958). It is likely that conditions fostering integration with middle-class norms will also foster adherence to the Protestant ethic since the latter is an aspect of the former (p. 284-285).

In their subsequent article Hulin and Blood, (1968) give the following definition of Protestant ethic: "Work hard and you will get ahead. You are responsible for your destiny. Acceptance into the Kingdom of Heaven is dependent on hard work on this mortal earth (p. 386)." They define middle class norms as "positive affect for occupational achievement, a belief in the intrinsic value of hard work, a striving for the attainment of responsible positions, and a belief in the work-related aspects of Calvinism and the Protestant ethic (p. 386)," and suggest that this corresponds (inversely) to what Kornhauser (1965) describes as "the very limited self-expectations, the degree of positivity fatalism, and resignation that characterize many of the workers (p. 241)." The opposite of this is described as (Hulin & Blood, 1968): "every person is responsible for his own situation rather than being influenced by forces beyond his control (p. 383)."

MacKinney, Wernimont, and Galitz (1962) reviewed the studies concerning the relationship between job enlargement and job satisfaction and concluded the results were unconvincing. They commented:

The most compelling argument against specialization as a major cause of job dissatisfaction lies in the fact of individual differences. This is a central fact of life in the behavioral sciences, and yet the would be reformers apparently believe that all people must react in exactly the same way to the same job. The observer says to himself, "That job would drive me nuts in half an hour." From this he somehow concludes that it must drive everyone else nuts as well. This simply is not so! (For that matter, it's highly probably that many of the workers interviewed by sympathetic social scientists privately regard their questioners' activities as a pretty terrible way to earn a living too) (p. 17).

In a similar vein Strauss (1963) argues that human relations theory depends on need for achievement and participation which may vary considerably in the population, and even if they don't vary too much there certainly is variance in workers' perceptions of the appropriateness of the work situation (as opposed to off the job activities) for satisfying these needs.

In a large postal delivery company, Vroom (1960) conducted a study to test the hypothesis that there would be a positive relationship between satisfaction/performance and participation, and that this relationship would be greater for those with a high need for independence, and lower for those high on authoritarianism. Participation and satisfaction were measured by four and three Likert type questionnaire items respectively. Need for independence was measured by a 16 item scale, authoritarianism was measured with the F-scale, and performance was based on supervisory ratings. The results yielded strong support for the hypothesized relationships. The overall correlations between participation and satisfaction and performance were .36 and .20 respectively. The correlations between satisfaction and participation for the high, medium, and low need for independence groups were .55,

.31, .13, and .03, .35, and .53 for the high, medium, and low authoritarianism groups. The comparable measures for performance and participation were .33, .19, .06 and .08, .28, and .28. However, in a replication of the Vroom experiment with a different sample, Tosi (1970) failed to find the same moderating effect for authoritarianism and need for independence. He did confirm the substantial relationship between satisfaction and participation but found no differences when the sample was subgrouped on the same measures as in the original study. However, it should be pointed out that his performance measure was return on investment as opposed to Vroom's supervisory ratings.

In an ominously titled Harvard Business Review article ("Behavioral Theory vs. Reality") Lee (1971) argues that human relations theory will not gain wide scale success until the values and beliefs inherent within it become more generally prevalent in the workforce. These values and beliefs include increases in autonomy, knowledge, and participation, and decreases in authoritarianism and elitism. According to the author, these changes will come about, but extremely slowly because they are directly tied to the evolution of the general culture. He argues that where human relations programs have succeeded it is chiefly a result in changes in beliefs and attitudes of those subcultures and is "unrelated to the direct efforts of behavioral science theorists (p. 159)."

Argyris (1964) is the only theorist who has responded to the criticisms that human relations hypothesis are contingent upon factors that vary among individuals. He argues that while there are individuals who may not desire intrinsic rewards from the work situation, they are a minority and that they have developed this fatalistic, but realistic,

acceptance of work as a result of experiencing jobs with no opportunities for participating. Several authors (Ruh, 1970; Morrison, 1970; Siegel, 1971) have identified Hulin and Blood and Argyris as being in clear opposition to each other: However, if we look at the original Blood and Hulin (1967) data rather than at their subsequent theorizing, the conflict is not so apparent. Because these authors summed across very disparate items in creating their demographic variables it is difficult to conceptualize what they really were measuring. However, their independent variable that fared best, slum conditions, was mainly a measure of the degree to which the area could be characterized as a racial slum (see footnote 3). While it appears at first glance with the 23 plants that the authors have a "continuous" measure, considering how small the obtained correlations were it seems very likely that the variance could be accounted for by a dichotomy between those who work in racial slums and everybody else. However, minority slum dwellers are often characterized as having a fatalistic acceptance of life as a result of extremely limited opportunities. By interpolation, this coincides very closely with Argyris' argument that these people have repressed any desire for satisfying egoistic needs in the work situation as a result of previous experiences with jobs offering little such opportunity. However, it should be pointed out that while Argyris would agree that human relations predictions would not hold (at least as well) for these people (minority slum dwellers), he would certainly not accept the negative relationship suggested by Hulin and Blood. It is harder to explain Vroom's (1960) findings with Argyris' argument. However, none of the obtained or predicted relationships were significantly negative, so the discrepancy is not as great.

There are two recent Michigan State studies that directly investigated the contingency hypothesis. Ruh (1970) hypothesized that extra-work socialization would moderate the relationship between ego need gratification provided by the job and job attitudes. Job attitudes satisfaction, involvement, commitment, and identification were measured by averaging the responses to 2, 10, 7, and 4 item Likert scales respectively. Ego need gratification provided by the job was measured by hierarchical level, collar color, and by averaging responses to an eight item Likert scale. Extra-work socialization was indexed by education, father's education, father's occupation, sex, size of community raised in, and size of community now living in. The results yielded very marginal support for the hypothesis. Only 10 of the 72 total analysis were significant in the predicted direction. Education tended to give the strongest support. No support was found for a second hypothesis that importance attached to ego need gratification provided by the job, measured on 8 item Likert scale, would moderate the same relationship.

Using very similar data, Siegel (1971) investigated the relationship between opportunity for participation and job involvement. The relationship was significantly higher for groups with more education, urban residence, and (somewhat ambiguous) more intrinsically oriented.

Summary

It appears that the issue at stake is not whether individual differences affect the relationship between characteristics of the job situation and attitudes - a readily acceptable idea - but what differences and why. The studies reviewed here have empirically established

some effect for size of city where plant is located (Turner & Lawrence, 1965; Blood & Hulin, 1967), size of city of residence and education (Ruh, 1970; Siegel, 1971), intrinsic/extrinsic orientation (Siegel, 1971), sex (Ruh, 1970), authoritarianism and need for independence (Vroom, 1960), and slum conditions (Blood & Hulin, 1967). Altogether the following variables have been postulated:

Needs/traits/values - self actualization, independence, achievement, authoritarianism (reversed), intrinsic orientation, religiosity, accomplishment, autonomy, knowledge, elitism (reversed), social mobility, responsibility, status, equality, participation, and ego need gratification provided by the job.

Fatalism(reversed) - The degree to which a person believes he can affect his personal outcomes-at the job level as suggested by Argyris (1964), and at the life in general level as in Hulin and Blood's (1968) interpretation of the Kornhauser (1965) findings. (This is a broad category that involves internal versus external control and undoubtedly overlaps with the previous concepts.)

Alienation from middle class norms - Hulin and Blood (1968) define middle-class norms as a positive affect for achievement, work, responsibility, etc. Alienation from these norms is measured, in part, by per capita motor vehicle deaths, percentage of workers in wholesale, and percentage of change in farm level of living.

Protestant ethic - This has been suggested as working in both directions. Hulin and Blood (1968) suggest that since it embodies many of the values mentioned previously it should increase the relationship. However, Siegel (1971) argues that beliefs in the Protestant ethic will exert a strong direct influence on job attitudes and hence lessen the effects of the job situations. Similarly it relates to fatalism in that the benefits to be derived from hard work do not directly result from the worker's efforts but rather are mediated by an outside Force beyond his control.

Background Factors - sex, education, father's occupation and education, hierarchial level, slum conditions, rural/urban, and previous work experience.

The only other variable is Strauss' (1963) suggestion of differences in perception of the appropriateness of the work situation for satisfying egoistic needs. However, this is very similar to the (relative) importance of ego need gratification provided by the job as postulated by Ruh (1970).

Interpretation

It seems that all these variables can be classified into three categories. Then, for enrichment to result in improved job attitudes:

- 1) The workers must have needs, traits, and values compatible with the enrichment process. In the case of participative management, for example, there must be a relatively high need for independence, a high value for participation itself, a low value for elitism, and low authoritarianism.
- 2) The workers must have some positive affect for the potential "benefits" to be derived from enriched jobs. This would include virtually to all the values and needs listed previously, plus the background factors that would cause or at least predict them.
- 3) The workers must believe that they have meaningful control over the "benefits" to be derived from the job situation. Although it might appear from an "objective" assessment of the situation that this is the case, previous work experience, early socialization, or a host of other reasons may cause the worker to perceive the situation differently. He must believe that the "benefits" can be derived as a direct result of his efforts. (Fatalism and the Protestant ethic).

However, it is very likely that in practice the three go together very closely. It is difficult to imagine, for example, having a negative value for participation and a positive value for equality (a result of participation) or vice versa.

Similarly, cognitive dissonance would likely reduce any large discrepancy between a worker's aspirations and his beliefs in what he could actually achieve. Or, as Argyris (1964) would argue, these aspirations would be repressed.

Plan of Study

The major focus of this study was the contingency effect of several Rokeach values on the relationship between job attitudes and opportunity for participation. It was the availability of the data that limited the present investigation to the use of Rokeach values. However, values are the most frequently suggested class of variables in the literature. Rokeach (1968) defines a value as an "enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct (instrumental value) or an end state of existence (terminal value) is . . . preferable to alternate modes of conduct or end states of existence (p. 160)." However, it seems, at least on a superficial level, that this is not too different from needs (drives) which is the other frequently suggested class of variables.

It was thought that rather than looking directly at the contingency effects of background variables and inferring values or whatever from them, it would be more appropriate to identify the moderating values directly and then determine their background correlates. At the minimum this approach permits more confidence in the interpretation of the results.⁴

The fatalism concept introduced previously was not included in the moderating variables. However, differences in perceptions of the situation did likely exert an influence on the measure of opportunity for participation in that it was a self report description of the opportunities provided by the job.

Hypotheses

1) There is a positive relationship between the opportunity for participation provided by the job and the job attitudes involvement, commitment,

and identification.⁵ - A basic tenet of human relations theory.

2) Values will moderate the above relationship such that the correlation between attitudes and opportunity for participation provided by the job is greater for those persons who attach high importance to each of the values than for those persons who attach low importance to each of the values. Following directly from the literature discussed previously are the values accomplishment, equality, freedom, ambitious, responsible, independent, and participation.⁶ Self-Controlled was investigated because it has connotations of intrinsic orientation which in turn relates to fatalism. Also investigated were capable and imaginative.

Values and Background Factors

As was mentioned previously, background factors were investigated as they relate to values rather than focussing directly on their contingency effects. In the studies that were reviewed here there were several theoretical arguments as to why specific background factors should relate to certain values - the most involved being that of Hulin and Blood (1968). However, there is an existing framework of theoretical and empirical developments that seems particularly relevant to this relationship - modernism/traditionalism.⁷ This concept incorporates background factors, values (especially accomplishment, achievement, and power equalization), and ability to achieve them (fatalism). Kahl (1968) writes:

Traditional values are compulsory in their force, sacred in their tone, and stable in their timelessness. They call for fatalistic acceptance of the world as it is, respect for those in authority, and submergence of the individual in the collectivity. Modern values are rational and secular, permit choice and experiment, glorify efficiency and change, and stress individual responsibility (p. 6).

Smith and Inkeles (1966) write:

[Modernism is] a complex but coherent set of psychic dispositions manifested in general qualities such as a sense of efficacy, readiness for new experience and interest in planning, linked, in turn, to certain dispositions to act in institutional relations-- as in being an active citizen, valuing science, maintaining one's autonomy in kinship matters, and accepting birth control. As indicated above, we assumed these personal qualities would be the end product of certain early and late socialization experiences such as education, urban experience, and work in modern organizations. [p. 377]

These authors (Smith & Inkeles, 1966) have done the most extensive empirical work regarding "attitudinal modernity." Drawing on previous investigations and their own theoretical framework they constructed a large pool of relevant items which were administered to 5500 men in six countries. Using both an internal criterion and an external criterion of education, occupation, and urban experience, they identified 119 purely attitudinal items which they included measure "an underlying dimension of psychological modernity (p. 362)."⁸ Included in these items are several that are very comparable to the values used in this investigation. These are attitudes toward education, status, responsibility, ambition, fatalism, intelligence, industry, and equality.

The hypothesized relationships between values and background factors that were investigated here were derived from the early socialization processes identified by these authors and others in this field. Urban experience and education, as mentioned, were two of the relevant background factors. In addition the following factors were investigated: geographic background, section of town, geographic mobility, education, religion, and father's occupation. Specifically it was hypothesized that, compared to those individuals who attach low importance to each

of the (same) values, those individuals who attach high importance to each of the values would:

- 4a. Have a smaller proportion of persons raised in the American South.
- 4b. Have a greater proportion of persons raised in urban as opposed to rural areas
- 4c. Have a greater proportion of persons currently living in urban as opposed to rural areas.
- 4d. Have a greater proportion of persons raised in "better" sections of town.
- 4e. Have a greater proportion of persons raised in more industrialized towns.
- 4f. Have a smaller proportion of persons who attended military, private, or parochial schools.
- 4g. Have had a greater number of books around the house where they grew up.
- 4h. Have more education.
- 4i. Have father's with more education.
- 4j. Have mother's with more education.
- 4k. Have experienced greater geographic mobility.
- 4l. Have fathers with more skilled/ professional occupations.
- 4m. Attend church less frequently.
- 4n. Have been raised in homes where religion was less important.
- 4o. Have been less active in the church during their youth.

No attempt was made here to integrate these hypothesized relationships with the vast literature relating to the formation of values. However, there are two recent Michigan State studies that have results relating directly to these hypotheses. In addition to the moderation effect discussed previously, Ruh (1970) found that importance of ego need gratification provided by the job (which includes job participation)

was related positively to education, father's education, father's occupation, size of community where raised, and size of community where currently residing. Morrison (1970) found a positive relationship between the personal job goals" advancement and achievement and size of community where currently residing, size of community where raised, father's occupation, education (self, mother and father), and family income, a negative relationship with church activity during youth, and no relationship with frequency of church attendance. The two personal job goals correlated .48 with each other and related positively to the Rokeach values sense of accomplishment, ambitious, imaginative, and independent. With the exception of frequency of church attendance these results are in complete agreement with the present hypothesis.

11

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Sample

All of the measures used in this study were obtained from a questionnaire that was given to all the employees in nineteen plants of six manufacturing organizations. All of the companies were located in the Midwest, were operating under the Scanlon Plan, and were members of the Midwest Scanlon Associates. Of 4162 questionnaires distributed, 2755 usable ones were returned. Various subgroups of these 2755 respondents were used in the present study. The median level of education for this sample was twelfth grade. Thirty-seven per cent did not graduate from high school, and 19 per cent had some formal education beyond high school. The mean age was approximately 35 years. The mean tenure was 3.89 years. Fifty-one per cent of the subjects were males. Forty-six per cent of the respondents were raised on farms; 46 per cent were raised in communities ranging in size from less than 2,000 to 100,000 in population; and 9 per cent were raised in cities with populations greater than 100,000.

Data

The following items from the questionnaire were used to index the attitude, opportunity for participation, and importance of participation measures.

Involvement

1. For me, the first few hours at work really fly by.
2. My job means a lot more to me than just money.
3. I'll stay overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it.
4. I'm really interested in my work.
5. I would probably keep working even if I didn't need the money.
6. The major satisfactions in my life came from my job.
7. The most important things that happen to me involve my work.
8. How much do you actually enjoy performing the day to day activities that make up your job?
9. How much do you look forward to coming to work each day?

Commitment

1. I feel bad when I make mistakes in my work.
2. How often do you really want to work hard at your job?
3. How much do you really want to do a good job?
4. I'm really a perfectionist about my work.
5. How much do you feel your personal satisfactions are related to how well you do your job?

Identification

1. How much is the welfare of your company related to your own personal welfare?
2. How much does the company's achievement of its goals help your achievement of your own personal goals?

Opportunity for Participation

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.

Importance of Participation

How important to you is:

1. Everyone in the company, no matter how low his status level having a say in the decisions affecting his job?
2. Being able to decide how to do your job.

There were five possible responses to each of the questions ranging from strongly agree/always/extremely/very much, to strongly disagree/never/not at all/very little. The score for each subject for each variable was obtained by averaging his responses to the appropriate items.

Values

The values, with the exception of participation mentioned above, were measured ipsatively with the Rokeach Value Survey. Each subject was asked to rank eighteen instrumental and eighteen terminal values according to their importance to him. Six of the values used in this study, self-controlled, responsible, independent, imaginative, capable and ambitious were from the instrumental values; the other three, freedom, equality, and a sense of accomplishment from the terminal values. The values were coded from 1 to 18 (1 = most important) according to their position in the ranking.

1. Part of country where raised

In what part of the country did you live most of the time before you were 18?

- a. The Northeast
- b. The South

- c. The Middle West
- d. The Pacific Coast
- e. Outside the United States

2. Urban versus Rural Background

The place in which you spent the most time during your early life was a:

- a. Farm
- b. Town of less than 2000
- c. Town of 2000 or more, but less than 10,000
- d. City of 10,000 to 100,000
- e. City larger than 100,000

3. Urban versus Rural Residence

In what type of community are you now living?

- a. In the country
- b. Town of less than 2000
- c. Town of 2000 or more but less than 10,000
- d. City of 10,000 to 100,000
- e. City larger than 100,000

4. Section of Town

In what section of town did your family live longest while you were growing up:

- a. Lived in one of the most exclusive sections of town.
- b. Lived in a good but not the best section
- c. Lived in an average section of town
- d. Lived in one of the poorer sections of town
- e. Lived in a rural area

5. Industrialization of Home Town

In your home town what was the main source of income?

- a. Agriculture, dairy, etc.
- b. Industry or manufacturing
- c. Wholesale, retail, or tourist trade
- d. Petroleum or mining
- e. Diversified

6. Type of Schooling

What kind of school did you attend between the ages of twelve to 18?

- a. Military
- b. Private or Parochial
- c. Public
- d. Vocational and trade
- e. Did not attend school

7. Books around Home

When you were growing up, about how many books were around the house?

- a. A large library
- b. Several bookcases full
- c. One bookcase full
- d. A few books
- e. Only a few children's books

8. Education

How many years of school have you completed?

6 or less 7 8 9 10 11 12

Some college college graduate work

9. Father's Education (format as above)

10. Mother's education (format as above)

11. Geographic Mobility

In how many different cities, towns, or townships have you lived?

- a. 1 to 3
- b. 4 to 6
- c. 7 to 9
- d. 10 to 12
- e. 13 or more

12. Skill level of Father's Occupation

What was your father's chief occupation?

- a. Unskilled worker
- b. Semi-skilled or skilled worker
- c. Sales or office work
- d. Supervisory work
- e. Sub-professional (bookkeeper, pharmacist, draftsman, etc.)
- f. Scientist (geologist, engineer, chemist, etc.)
- g. Professional (lawyer, physician, teacher, etc.)
- h. Businessman
- i. Executive of large business or industry

13. Frequency of Church Attendance

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

14. Importance of Religion

Religion in your home was considered as:

- a. An essential part of home life
- b. One of several factors which was important
- c. A relatively unimportant factor
- d. Something to be left out of our family life
- e. One's own business

15. Church activity During Youth

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

These background items were coded "continuously" as they appear above with the exception of four items that were dichotomized. Item 1, part of country where raised, was dichotomized between the South (b) and all other responses (a, c, d, e,). Item 5, industrialization of home town, was dichotomized between agriculture, diary, etc. (a) and all other responses (b, c, d, e). Item 6, type of schooling was dichotomized between military, private, or parochial (a, b) and all other responses (c, d, e). Item 15, church activity during youth, was dichotomized between active church member (a) and all other responses (b, c, d, e).

CHAPTER III

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Preliminary Analysis

The items used to index involvement, commitment, identification, and opportunity for participation were selected on the basis of cluster analysis conducted as part of previous investigations using essentially the same data. The two items used to index importance of participation were selected on the basis of face validity. Inter item correlations and scale reliabilities are presented in Table 1. The correlations between the three attituded scales and the opportunity for participation scale are presented in Table 2. Inspection of the inter item correlation matrix and scale reliabilities provided justification for the a priori grouping. In all cases the alpha estimates of internal consistency for each of the scales exceeded the corresponding inter scale correlations.

To investigate hypothesis 1 and 2 the sample was divided into first line workers (those with no supervisory responsibilities) and managers (everyone else). To investigate hypothesis 2 both of these groups were then trichotomized into high, medium, and low thirds on each of the nine Rokeach values and importance of participation.

TABLE 1
ITEM-SCALE CORRELATIONS AND SCALE RELIABILITIES

Scale Name	Number Of Items	Item Total r's			Median Item r with the other scales	Alpha
		High	Median	Low		
Involvement	9	.81	.66	.31	.43	.87
Commitment	5	.62	.55	.51	.32	.69
Identification	2		.72		.46	
Opportunity for Participation	5	.79	.66	.58	.50	.81
Importance of Participation	2		.53		-.03	.41

Note: N = 2030

TABLE 2
INTER-SCALE CORRELATIONS (ALPHA ESTIMATES IN THE DIAGONAL)

	Involvement	Commitment	Identification	Opportunity for Participation
Involvement	(.87)			
Commitment	.57	(.69)		
Identification	.58	.45	(.66)	
Opportunity for Participation	.53	.38	.47	(.81)

Note: Sample size ranged from 2732 to 2752. Median N = 2741

Individual Difference Contingency Theory

Results

Hypothesis 1 stated that there is a positive relationship between opportunity for participation and the job attitudes, involvement, commitment, and identification. As Table 3 shows the relationship was substantial for all three of the job attitudes both for first line workers and managers.

TABLE 3

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ATTITUDE MEASURES AND OPPORTUNITY FOR
PARTICIPATION FOR DIFFERENT HIERARCHIAL LEVELS

Attitude	SAMPLE		
	Total	Workers	Managers
Involvement	.53 (2750)	.44 (2183)	.53 (384)
Commitment	.38 (2750)	.34 (2183)	.39 (384)
Identification	.47 (2730)	.40 (2168)	.39 (383)

Note: The figures in parentheses indicate the number of observations on which the correlations were computed.

Hypothesis 2 stated that values would moderate the relationship between opportunity for participation and the three job attitudes. Table 4 shows these correlations for workers on the high, medium, and low groups for each of the values. Table 5 gives the corresponding results for managers. An inspection of the data indicates no support

TABLE 4

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN OPPORTUNITY FOR PARTICIPATION AND
JOB ATTITUDES FOR THE VALUE SUBGROUPS OF WORKERS

Value	Value Group			Rank order of correlations Monotonic?	If Monotonic in predicted direction?	If in predicted direction, similar finding for managers?
	Hi	Med	Low			
Accomplishment						
Involvement	.45	.46	.41	No		
Commitment	.34	.32	.33	No		
Identification	.43	.41	.36	Yes		
Equality						
Involvement	.41	.44	.49	Yes	No	
Commitment	.27	.33	.39	Yes	No	
Identification	.39	.38	.43	No		
Freedom						
Involvement	.40	.50	.43	No		
Commitment	.26	.37	.34	No		
Identification	.38	.48	.34	No		
Ambitious						
Involvement	.43	.45	.43	No		
Commitment	.27	.36	.34	No		
Identification	.40	.42	.38	No		
Capable						
Involvement	.48	.42	.42	Yes	Yes	No
Commitment	.36	.33	.30	Yes	Yes	Yes
Identification	.43	.39	.39	No		
Imaginative						
Involvement	.51	.46	.34	Yes	Yes	No
Commitment	.41	.32	.25	Yes	Yes	No
Identification	.44	.40	.35	Yes	Yes	No
Independent						
Involvement	.41	.48	.44	No		
Commitment	.33	.33	.33	No		
Identification	.38	.43	.40	No		
Responsible						
Involvement	.45	.42	.46	No		
Commitment	.29	.34	.35	Yes	No	
Identification	.39	.38	.44	No		
Self-Controlled						
Involvement	.46	.44	.43	Yes	Yes	No
Commitment	.32	.32	.34	No		
Identification	.39	.41	.41	No		
Participation						
Involvement	.44	.46	.42	No		
Commitment	.35	.38	.27	No		
Identification	.41	.45	.33	No		

Note: Sample size ranged from 483 to 838. Median N = 603.

TABLE 5

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN OPPORTUNITY FOR PARTICIPATION AND
JOB ATTITUDES FOR THE VALUE SUBGROUPS OF MANAGERS

Value	Value Group			Rank order of correlations monotonic?	If Monotonic in predicted direction?	If in predicted direction, similar finding for worker?
	Hi	Med	Low			
Accomplishment						
Involvement	.45	.55	.50	No		
Commitment	.41	.33	.36	No		
Identification	.25	.45	.50	Yes	No	
Equality						
Involvement	.63	.48	.45	Yes	Yes	No
Commitment	.22	.40	.45	Yes	No	
Identification	.49	.42	.34	Yes	Yes	No
Freedom						
Involvement	.55	.50	.49	Yes	Yes	No
Commitment	.40	.47	.24	No		
Identification	.44	.38	.40	No		
Ambitious						
Involvement	.59	.57	.43	Yes	Yes	No
Commitment	.46	.54	.11	No		
Identification	.38	.42	.44	Yes	No	
Capable						
Involvement	.61	.41	.51	No		
Commitment	.48	.31	.30	Yes	Yes	Yes
Identification	.32	.37	.52	Yes	No	
Imaginative						
Involvement	.44	.57	.54	No		
Commitment	.39	.45	.31	No		
Identification	.34	.40	.47	Yes	No	
Independent						
Involvement	.46	.57	.57	No		
Commitment	.40	.46	.30	No		
Identification	.41	.37	.47	No		
Responsible						
Involvement	.43	.54	.62	Yes	No	
Commitment	.40	.46	.30	Yes	No	
Identification	.42	.26	.52	No		
Self-Controlled						
Involvement	.53	.48	.58	No		
Commitment	.20	.48	.45	No		
Identification	.49	.41	.33	Yes	Yes	No
Participation						
Involvement	.55	.53	.51	Yes	Yes	No
Commitment	.39	.42	.33	No		
Identification	.42	.32	.50	No		

Note: Sample size ranged from 97 to 149. Median N = 120.

for this hypothesis was found. Out of a total of 60 rankings of correlations only 14 rankings were in the predicted direction, 10 were in the opposite direction, and the remainder were curvilinear. The chance expectation is that 10 would be in the predicted direction.

Unlike the Blood and Hulin (1967) study, no improvement was found when only one hierarchical level was investigated. The 14 rankings that were in the predicted direction were divided evenly between managers and workers - and only one of these (capable x identification) was in the predicted direction for both samples. Furthermore, there was little differential support among the values. For only one of the values, imaginative, did the rank order of correlations go in the predicted direction with all three attitude measures - but only for first line workers; for managers two out of three were curvilinear and the third was in the opposite direction. The 14 out of the 60 rankings that were in the predicted direction were distributed over eight of the ten values. Of these eight values, five also had rankings in the opposite direction. Finally there was no systematic difference in support among the three attitude measures.

To determine if there was restriction of range in opportunity for participation in the value subgroups the relationship between opportunity for participation and each of the values was investigated. Table 6 shows these correlations for just line workers and managers. The correlations ranged from $-.16$ to $.07$ with a median correlation of $-.01$. Although several of the correlations did exceed conventional levels of significance it seemed inappropriate to attach any great significance to them because of the inconsistency and low absolute levels. Essentially no relationship was found between opportunity for participation and the values.

TABLE 6

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN OPPORTUNITY FOR PARTICIPATION AND VALUES

Value	SAMPLE			
	First Line Workers		Managers	
	Correlation	Significance Level	Correlation	Significance Level
Accomplishment	-.03	.14	-.15	.003
Equality	-.00	.86	+.01	.84
Freedom	+.03	.15	-.11	.03
Ambitious	-.08	.001	-.09	.09
Capable	-.03	.26	-.16	.002
Imaginative	-.03	.17	-.12	.03
Independent	+.00	.92	+.03	.56
Responsible	-.04	.13	+.01	.78
Self-Controlled	+.01	.59	+.06	.28
Participation	+.07	.001	+.06	.25

Note: Sample size ranged from 2242 to 2665. Median N = 120.

Discussion

Method variance. Both the attitude measures and the opportunity for participation measure were assessed by Likert type items. Furthermore all of these items had a "right" or socially desirable answer. Therefore it is possible that these variables were in part measuring a common trait - a response bias to answer Likert type items of this form in a consistent manner. One way to check if two measures are assessing the same trait is to compare their correlations with other traits measured by different methods. To do this the correlations of the attitude and opportunity for participation measures with all other items in the present study were compared. Table 7 shows the correlations of the opportunity for participation and each of the attitude measures with each of these "other" variables whenever one of the correlations with the other variable exceeded .10.⁹ To demonstrate that it is a common trait would require proving that the correlations are the same - the null hypothesis - and cannot be done. However, as inspection of Table 7 reveals, the attitude and opportunity for participation measures do correlate with nine other items in a very comparable fashion. The rank order of the correlations for involvement, commitment, and identification with the nine "other items correlated .83, .88, and .87 respectively with the rank order of correlations between opportunity for participation and these same nine items. Therefore, it seems likely that both attitude and opportunity for participation measures were in part measuring a common trait and to that extent their inter correlations were inflated. This effect should be kept in mind when interpreting the strong support found for the first hypothesis.

TABLE 7

COMPARISON OF CORRELATIONS OF ATTITUDES AND "OTHER" ITEMS WITH
CORRELATIONS OF OPPORTUNITY FOR PARTICIPATION
AND THESE "OTHER" ITEMS

"Other" Items	Opportunity for Participation		Attitude	
		Involvement	Commitment	Identification
Urban versus rural back- ground	+.17	+.12	+.05	+.11
Urban versus rural resi- dence	+.21	+.18	+.09	+.17
Section of town	+.13	+.11	+.06	+.10
Skill level of father's occupation	+.14	+.11	+.04	+.05
Frequency of Church attend- ance	-.08	-.13	-.05	-.06
Church activity during youth	-.11	-.15	-.09	-.11
Accomplishment	-.13	-.13	-.07	-.09
Ambitious	-.10	-.15	-.07	-.10
Capable	-.11	-.13	-.09	-.10
Rank order correlation between these correlations and those for opportunity for participa- tion		.83	.88	.87

Note: Sample size ranged from 2234 to 2520. Median N = 2564

However, the fact that the reliability exceeds the interscale correlations indicates that there is some unique trait variance.

It is also conceivable that this method variance could account for part of the failure of values to moderate this relationship. If the trait, response bias, were correlated with the values it could have nonuniformly inflated the obtained correlations and thus camouflaged any underlying relationship.

Confounding. The main reason for investigating the relationship between opportunity for participation and values was that they posed a potential confound for hypothesis 2. Had opportunity for participation correlated with the values there would have been restriction in range in opportunity for participation when the subjects were subgrouped on the values. However, the essentially zero relationships that were found indicate that this is not the case.¹⁰

Values. There are three aspects of the value measure that make it open to criticism. The first is the difficulty of the task of filling out the instrument - ranking the 18 values. Inspection of the data shows that many of the subjects did not comprehend, or at least did not follow, the instructions. Secondly, because the Value Survey appeared at the very end of the lengthy questionnaire the attention of many of the subjects may have been reduced. The fact that 1011 (37%) of the subjects chose not to fill out the instrument or answered incorrectly (or their responses were coded incorrectly) makes the reliability of the values suspect. This could account for part of the failure to get any support for hypothesis 2 and 3. Thirdly, it must be remembered that the Value Survey is completely ipsative. It is

quite conceivable, for example, that many of the subjects in the low accomplishment group actually attach greater importance to accomplishment than some of those in the high accomplishment group. This brings up the question of whether the theory predicts that human relations hypothesis should hold for those who attach a high absolute amount of importance to accomplishment (normative) or whether they should hold for those who attach high importance to accomplishment compared to other life values (ipsative). While no reference to this point was made in the literature reviewed for this study it appears that most of the authors have assumed the normative interpretation.

It should be pointed out that one of the values, importance of participation, was not difficult to fill out, appeared earlier in the questionnaire, and was not ipsative. However, it failed to provide any better support for either hypothesis than did the other values.

Sample. There are several peculiarities of the sample that may have influenced the results. a) All of the companies were operating under some form of the Scanlon Plan which should, at least in theory, have put a floor effect on the range of opportunity for participation provided by the job. b) None of the subjects lived in a extremely large city and therefore differed in that respect from the Blood and Hulin (1967) sample. c) The religious make up of the sample, while perhaps representative of that geographic area, is certainly not representative of American society and very likely in sharp contrast with the Blood and Hulin (1967) sample. This may have exerted an influence on their values that was not detected by the ipsative instrument. However, the median rankings of the values for the

present sample and the Rokeach (1968) national white sample did correlate .90 and .93 for the terminal and instrumental values respectively.

Conclusion

There is, of course, one other possible interpretation for the lack of moderating effects. That is, the participative management theorists may be correct in deemphasizing the importance of individual differences on the relationships between job and organizational characteristics and employee responses. It is difficult to imagine that individual differences in general and values in particular have no systematic effects on employee responses to participation in decision making. However, it may be that such effects are not as great as some of the critics of the participative management position (Hulin & Blood, 1968; MacKinney et. al., 1962; Strauss, 1963) would have us believe - at least not great enough to emerge through the limitations of the present study. Clearly, more research is needed before it can be concluded that values exert any systematic influence on the relationship between participation in decision making and attitudes toward the job.

Values and Background Factors

Results

Hypotheses 4a. through 4o. stated that certain background factors correlate with the values. Table 8 shows the obtained correlations along with their hypothesized direction. Of the 150 correlations, 86

TABLE 8

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN BACKGROUND ITEMS AND VALUES

Background Items	Direction Predicted	Value				
		Accomplishment	Equality	Freedom	Ambitious	Capable Imaginative
Part of country where raised (South=low)	+	<u>+0.03</u>	<u>-0.00</u>	<u>+0.02</u>	<u>+0.01</u>	<u>-0.00</u>
Urban versus rural background (rural=low)	+	<u>+0.10</u>	<u>.02</u>	<u>-0.01</u>	<u>-0.03</u>	<u>+0.15</u>
Urban versus rural residence (rural=low)	+	<u>+0.11</u>	<u>.03</u>	<u>-0.05</u>	<u>+0.02</u>	<u>+0.10</u>
Section of town (poor sec.=Low)	+	<u>+0.03</u>	<u>-0.00</u>	<u>-0.02</u>	<u>-0.02</u>	<u>+0.11</u>
Industrialization of home town	+	<u>+0.05</u>	<u>-0.01</u>	<u>-0.01</u>	<u>-0.03</u>	<u>+0.04</u>
Type of schooling (Parochial/military=low)	+	<u>-0.01</u>	<u>+0.02</u>	<u>+0.05</u>	<u>-0.01</u>	<u>-0.01</u>
Books around home	+	<u>-0.09</u>	<u>+0.02</u>	<u>+0.01</u>	<u>-0.04</u>	<u>-0.13</u>
Education	+	<u>-0.12</u>	<u>-0.22</u>	<u>-0.20</u>	<u>.00</u>	<u>+0.08</u>
Father's education	+	<u>-0.23</u>	<u>-0.20</u>	<u>-0.32</u>	<u>-0.01</u>	<u>+0.03</u>
Mother's education	+	<u>-0.17</u>	<u>-0.17</u>	<u>-0.27</u>	<u>-0.01</u>	<u>+0.06</u>
Geographic mobility	+	<u>+0.07</u>	<u>+0.00</u>	<u>-0.02</u>	<u>-0.02</u>	<u>+0.08</u>
Skill level of father's occupation	+	<u>+0.11</u>	<u>-0.03</u>	<u>-0.01</u>	<u>+0.03</u>	<u>+0.16</u>
Frequency of church attendance	-	<u>-0.01</u>	<u>-0.02</u>	<u>-0.08</u>	<u>-0.03</u>	<u>-0.00</u>
Importance of religion	-	<u>+0.00</u>	<u>-0.01</u>	<u>0.08</u>	<u>+0.02</u>	<u>-0.02</u>
Church activity during youth	-	<u>-0.03</u>	<u>+0.03</u>	<u>-0.03</u>	<u>-0.04</u>	<u>-0.05</u>
Percent in Predicted Direction		67%	33%	40%	33%	100% 87%

Note: Underlined correlations are those that exceed .10 or are less than -.10. Sample size ranged from 1808 to 2566. Median N = 2207.

TABLE 8

(Continued)

Background Items	Independent	Responsible	Self- Controlled	Participation	Percent Predicted Direction
Part of country where raised(South=low)	+04	-00	-01	-03	60%
Urban versus rural background(rural=low)	-05	+04	-00	-01	50%
Urban versus rural residence(rural=low)	+01	+04	-01	+01	70%
Section of town (poor sec. = low)	+00	+01	+01	-02	60%
Industrialization of home town	+03	+03	+03	-00	60%
Type of schooling(parochial/military=low)	+01	-00	-01	+04	50%
Books around home	+07	+04	-00	-03	70%
Education	-01	+04	-03	-02	30%
Father's occupation	-02	+00	-07	-02	30%
Mother's education	-00	+02	-02	-03	40%
Geographic mobility	+04	+02	-00	-03	60%
Skill level of father's occupation	+02	+04	-06	-02	60%
Frequency of church attendance	-18	+01	+05	-03	80%
Importance of religion	-13	+02	+01	-03	60%
Church activity during youth	-11	-04	+00	-04	80%
Percent in Predicted Direction	87%	80%	13%	33%	

(57%) were in the predicted direction. There seemed to be little difference in support among the background factors. The three religion items fared the best, 22 of these 30 correlations were in the predicted direction. There were systematic differences among the values. Fifty three of the 60 correlations (88%) for capable, imaginative, independent and responsible were in the predicted direction. Only 2 of the 15 correlations (13%) for self controlled were in the predicted direction. If only those correlations greater than .10 or less than -.10 (those underlined in Table 8) are considered, a distinct pattern becomes apparent. Of the 24 correlations that meet this criterion, 9 of them are between the three education measures and the values accomplishment, equality, and freedom. These correlations, ranging from -.12 to -.32 are all in the opposite direction to that which was hypothesized. Of the remaining 15 correlations all are in the hypothesized direction, and all involve the four values accomplishment, capable, imaginative and independent.

Discussion

These hypotheses were designed to investigate the value manifestations and background determinants of the concept of modernism. The intercorrelations of the background factors are depicted in Table 9. Generally the correlations tended to be low except for those obviously related items (i.e. the 3 religion items, 3 education items, and the two urban-rural items). Thirty-five (33%) of the correlations were negative. These low intercorrelations may in part be due to the inappropriateness of the assumed continuum in the responses and the

TABLE 9
CORRELATION MATRIX OF BACKGROUND ITEMS

Item	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Part of country where raised														
Urban versus rural background	+0.04													
Section of town	+0.02	-.66												
Geographic mobility	-.10	+0.02	+0.01											
Urban versus rural residence	-.08	+0.41	+0.35	+0.02										
Industrialization of home town	+0.05	+0.40	+0.33	-.02	+0.23									
Type of schooling	-.03	-.19	-.13	+0.06	-.14	-.09								
Books around home	+0.02	-.03	-.05	+0.10	-.11	+0.01	+0.20							
Education	+0.02	-.07	-.09	+0.06	-.12	-.01	+0.19	+0.52						
Father's education	+0.03	+0.03	+0.02	+0.02	+0.00	+0.03	+0.13	+0.37	+0.34					
Mother's education	+0.05	+0.19	+0.19	+0.05	+0.07	+0.09	-.07	-.09	-.14	-.12				
Skill level of father's occupation	+0.02	+0.24	+0.30	+0.05	+0.15	+0.11	-.10	-.08	-.07	-.04	+0.26			
Frequency of church attendance	+0.06	+0.11	+0.09	-.01	+0.08	+0.05	-.02	-.07	-.05	-.05	+0.17	+0.19		
Church activity during youth	+0.02	+0.13	+0.12	-.00	+0.06	+0.07	-.04	-.02	-.02	+0.01	+0.19	+0.30	+0.62	
Importance of religion	+0.05	+0.10	+0.10	-.00	+0.05	+0.05	-.02	+0.01	+0.00	+0.02	+0.20	+0.22	+0.57	+0.75

Note: Sample size ranged from 1898 to 2591. Median N = 2469

dichotomizing of four of the items. There is no psychological reason why these items should correlate. However, to the extent that the values are positively related to each other, the low intercorrelations among the background factors put a ceiling on their possible correlations with the values. The ipsative nature of the Value Survey makes it difficult to assess these interrelationships among the values and is undoubtedly partly responsible for the low correlations with the background factors. However, once again it should be pointed out that the one nonipsative value, participation, fared no better than the ipsative Rokeach values.

As was mentioned previously, the value self-controlled correlated consistently in the "wrong" direction with the background factors. However, this value has no strong theoretical relationship to the modernism construct.

More perplexing are the negative correlations between education and accomplishment, equality, and freedom. Not only is this in contrast with the hypotheses but is also in marked contrast with the Rokeach and Parker (1970) findings. With a sample size of 1404 these authors found a significant positive relationship between education and accomplishment and nonsignificant positive relationship between education and equality and freedom.

Conclusion

Because the measure of modernism was a past hoc selection of Rokeach values and then partly chosen for reasons other than their relation to modernism; and because they were measured ipsatively, it is

difficult to have much faith in the accuracy with which they are measuring the construct. In light of this it seems premature to draw any conclusions regarding the second part of the study, the background determinants of the values that relate to modernism.

FOOTNOTES

- 1 This study is particularly interested in participation. However, since job enlargement, job enrichment, job complexity, participative management etc., do seem to have considerable overlap both conceptually and in their hypothesized effects no distinction is being made here. The term job enrichment is intended to include all of the approaches.
- 2 This is especially apparent when we examine the actual measures used. The six slum/urbanization variables that were interpreted as alienation from middle-class norms were all formed from various combinations of the following census data: percentage of native white, percentage of non-white, percentage of urban population, total population, per capita motor vehicle deaths, percentage of immigration, percentage of dwellings vacant, percentage of new homes, percentage of sound housing, median income, percentage of workers in wholesale, per capita retail sales, percentage with income over \$10,000, average farm income, percentage of workers in agriculture, percentage change in farm level of living, and population density.
- 3 Slum conditions was ". . . indexed mainly by the weighted sum of the standard scores of percentage of native white (reversed scoring), percentage of non-white, and percentage of owner occupied housing (reversed scoring). (p. 286)." While the authors never address themselves specifically to the racial composition of the plant locations it seems very likely that "high slum conditions" indicates the absence of whites.
- 4 The ipsative nature of the Value Survey, while often a liability, does have the effect of reducing faking and social desirability. (Rokeach, 1968)
- 5 The reader may notice that while much of the literature that was reviewed concentrated on job satisfaction, it is not included in these attitudes. However, two items that have been used elsewhere (Berner, 1971) to index satisfaction were included in the involvement scale (8,9). As has been pointed out elsewhere (Ruh, 1970), it is these other attitudes that are more frequently mentioned by the human relation theorists.
- 6 The value job participation was measured by a two item scale completely unrelated to the measurement of the Rokeach values. It was used to replicate one of Ruh's (1971) investigations. However there were several notable differences. This study used

correlational rather than AOV techniques. Rather than the more global measures of ego need gratification provided by the job and importance of same, only opportunity for job participation and importance of job participation were investigated. Also, on the basis of some cluster analysis conducted subsequent to the Ruh study, more internally consistent attitude scales have been developed.

- 7 This concept has grown out of economics and sociology and been operationalized as a psychological variable by Smith and Inkeles (1966) and Kahl (1968). Other dichotomous classifications that have been assumed to correspond to modernism-traditionalism are gemeinschaft-gesellschaft and "folk-urban."
- 8 "To us the most fundamental of these observations lies in the evidence we find of the trans-cultural nature of the human psyche. We consider it notable in the highest degree that a pool of some 119 attitude questions and some 40 related informational and behavioral items should show such extraordinarily similar structure in six such diverse countries--and even more than that number of cultural groups. If we had started with the same theory and the same pool of items, but then devised a separate and different or distinctive scale of modernity for each of the six countries, the result might be interesting, but would not be compelling. Yet to find that in all six countries basically the same set of items both cohere psychologically and relate to external criterion variables in a strictly comparable fashion is we believe, a finding of the first importance. (p. 377)."
- 9 More explicitly, any other variable that correlated greater than .10 (or less than -.10) with any of the attitude or opportunity for participation measures was retained and its correlation with the attitude and opportunity for participation measures are presented in Table 7. This criterion was employed because the fact that two variables correlate in a similar fashion with a third variable provides evidence that there might be method variance. However the fact that they both don't correlate with the third variable provides no information.
- 10 This is even truer for attitudes. Their correlations with values tended to be even smaller than those for opportunity for participation.

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