



**Dissertation By**

**ITODO  
NWANKWO  
MICHAEL**

**THE DEPARTMENT OF  
PSYCHOLOGY,  
UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA,  
NSUKKA**

**REWARD PREFERENCE, MARITAL  
STATUS AND SEX AS PREDICTORS OF  
JOB INVOLVEMENT: A STUDY OF  
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ORGANIZATIONS  
IN NIGERIA**

**JUNE, 1994**

30 OCT. 1995

13.06.00  
I T O  
8689

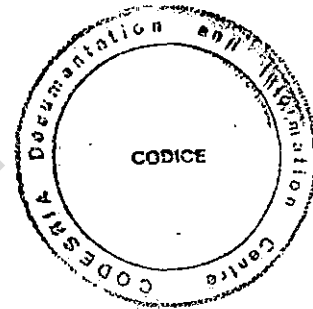
REWARD PREFERENCE, MARITAL STATUS AND SEX  
AS PREDICTORS OF JOB INVOLVEMENT: A STUDY OF  
PUBLIC AND PRIVATE ORGANIZATIONS IN NIGERIA

BY

ITODO NWANKWO MICHAEL

PG/M.Sc/89/8939

20 SEP. 1995



A RESEARCH PROJECT REPORT SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL  
FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DECREE OF  
MASTER OF SCIENCE

IN

THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY,  
UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA, NSUKKA

JUNE, 1994

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the positive contributions of several individuals to my acquisition of the ideas utilized in this study, the gestation of the ideas in my mind and the successful execution of the study.

I would wish, in particular, to acknowledge my indebtedness to Drs. On N. Osuji and H. U. Obi-Keguna for their dutiful guidance and generous support in supervising the study.

May I also thank Dr. I. E. Eye, Acting Head of Department of psychology, University of Nigeria, Nsukka (UNN), whose official and personal assistance enabled me to gain easier access to the executives of the organizations used in this study. Similar debts are owed to messrs Ezeadi and Nwobele of Life Breweries Limited, Umuahia. These individuals helped with the introduction of the researcher to some officials of their respective organizations, the distribution of the questionnaires and the collection of the completed questionnaires.

Finally, this research was conducted with the assistance of the Council for the Development of Social and Economic Research in Africa - CODESRIA under the Small Grants Programme for the writing of the institution. This assistance was in the form of finance and provision of relevant books to enhance the completion of the work. I am therefore very grateful to CODESRIA for further acknowledgement.

ITODO NWANKWO M.

Nsukka, Nigeria

June, 1994

This study investigated the relationships of the variables sex, marital status and reward preference for commendable job performance with the measured job involvement of workers in two breweries in Anambra State of Nigeria: one public, the other privately owned.

The Lodahl and Kejner (1965) 20-item Job Involvement questionnaire was administered to 211 male and female workers of the two organizations. The respondents were 120 and 24 male and female workers, respectively, from the public organization, and 67 and 5 male and female workers, respectively, from the privately-owned organization. The mean age of the respondents was 30.6 years, with a standard deviation of 7.47.

The correlation coefficients between the variables were obtained and  $\chi^2$  tests were utilized to analyze further the frequency trend of the significant correlations.

The results showed that neither sex nor marital status was significantly correlated with the measured job involvement of the respondents. However, there appeared to be a statistically significant relationship between the respondents' measured job involvement and whether they work in a public or private organization, although the significance of this relationship may be due to the influence of other variables. The respondents who preferred material rewards from their management for commendable job performance appeared more job-involved than those who preferred non-material rewards.

The respondents in the public organization exhibited a statistically significant tendency to prefer non-material to material rewards while those in the private organization exhibited the reverse tendency.

The results were discussed against the background of previous studies.

CODESRIA - LIBRARY

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>PAGE</u>
Title .. .. .	i
Reflections .. .. .	ii
Acknowledgements .. .. .	iii
Abstract .. .. .	v
Table of Contents .. .. .	vii
List of Tables .. .. .	viii
List of Appendices .. .. .	ix
<u>CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION</u> .. .. .	1
Introduction .. .. .	1
<u>CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE</u> .. .. .	5
Review of The Literature .. .. .	5
Operational Definitions of Concepts .. .. .	26
Statement of The Problem .. .. .	27
Hypotheses .. .. .	28
<u>CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY</u> .. .. .	29
Sample .. .. .	29
Procedure .. .. .	29
The Questionnaire .. .. .	31
Design/Statistic .. .. .	32
The Organizations .. .. .	33
<u>CHAPTER 4: RESULTS</u> .. .. .	35
Results .. .. .	35
Incidental Result .. .. .	39
Summary of Results .. .. .	40
<u>CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION OF RESULTS</u> .. .. .	42
Discussion of Results .. .. .	42
<u>CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS</u> .. .. .	49
Summary and Conclusions .. .. .	49
Limitations of The Study .. .. .	52
Recommendations .. .. .	52
REFERENCES .. .. .	54
APPENDICES	

LIST OF TABLES

<u>TABLE</u>		<u>PAGE</u>
3:1	Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) Data on The 20-Item JI Scale	31
4:1	Correlation Coefficients of The Variables Studied (Sex, Marital Status, Reward Preference, Type of Organization, JI)	35
4:2	A 2X2 Contingency Table of Reward Preference by JI	37
4:3	A 2X2 Contingency Table of Type of Organization by JI	38
4:4	A 2X2 Contingency Table of Respondents' Type of Organization by their Reward Preference.	39

LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX

- A           The questionnaire used in the pre-test.
- B           Calculation of split-half reliability of  
            the 20-item JI Questionnaire (pre-test).
- C           Calculation of internal consistency  
            reliability of the 20-item JI Questionnaire  
            (pre-test).
- D           The questionnaire used in the main study.

CODESRIA - LIBRARY



CHAPTER IINTRODUCTION

The accurate prediction and control of worker behavior is of critical importance to the management of any organization. The prediction and control are by no means an easy affair if cognizance is taken of the fact that individuals differ a lot in their attributes and, consequently, in their job behaviors.

Job involvement is one area of job behavior which is of interest to both the practitioner for personnel management purposes and the theoretician for research purposes. Job involvement has been conceptualized in various ways by various researchers, according to the latter's understanding of, and theoretical approach to, the concept. However, it is employed here to refer to a worker's feeling of psychological commitment to, and active engagement in, his job such that his good performance on the job is important to him.

Individual workers manifest different job behaviors as a result of their individual differences and consequent differences in job attitudes. The manager in an organization is mainly interested in ensuring that his workers perform their jobs toward the enhancement of the organizational aims and objectives. The individual worker, on his own part, would perform his job to the extent that he believes there is something in the job beneficial to him.

Since the 19th Century, scholars have been interested in the attitudinal attachment of the individual to his job (Saleh, 1981).

Berger (1964) pointed out that as individuals typically and normally locate their essential identities in their private spheres of life rather than in their work spheres of life, "the normal state of affairs in an industrial society is that people do not work where they carry on their private lives" (p.217). Life on the job, thus, would appear to take on the attribute of pseudo-identity, with the individual's true identity being expressed in the private sphere of life. On the other hand, it may also turn out that the individual worker's ego identity merges with his on-the-job behavior so much so that he experiences his self-expression on his job. In his exposition on the concept of vocation, or work, Weber (1958) showed how, especially through the agency of Protestantism, the modern concept of work evolved as secular work which serves to provide "fulfilment" and "meaning" for the individual, in contradistinction to "alienated work", under the conditions of which man works, not in order to fulfill himself, but out of sheer necessity and in order to survive.

Several factors have been reported as being significantly correlated with job involvement. These include age (Schwyhart & Smith, 1972), sex (Sekaran & Mowday, 1981), participation in decision making (Argyris, 1964, 1973; Siegel & Ruh, 1973; Vroom, 1969), success on the job (Argyris, 1964; McKelvey & Sekaran, 1977), among others. However, it would be worthwhile to study the applicability of the above findings to the job behaviors of the Nigerian worker.

Furthermore, there have been criticisms of the seeming inadequate commitment by the typical Nigerian worker to his job, and his poor attitude to the performance of his job (Ejiofor, 1979; Obi-Keguna, 1979) and the consequent poor productivity associated with such poor attitude to job performance (Obi-Keguna, 1984; Onosode, 1982).

This study looks at the relationships of the variables sex, marital status and reward preference for job done with the job involvement of workers in two similar organizations; one public, the other privately owned. Reward preference here implies the preference by the worker for material or non-material reward from his management in respect of his commendable job performance.

Among the characteristics common to the studies reported in the literature on job involvement, the most obvious appears to be the need for studies conducted with the Nigerian worker in mind. Can the findings of studies on job involvement conducted with non-Nigerian workers be taken to fittingly apply to Nigerian workers?

In most application forms, such information as age, sex, marital status, and so on are required by the prospective employer. Do such information as the sex and marital status of an applicant enhance the predictability of his/her job involvement as a worker? Furthermore, is there any relationship between a worker's job involvement and his preference for material or non-material reward for commendable job performance? Finally, does any significant difference exist between the measured job involvement of workers

in a public organization and those in a similar but privately owned organization?

It is the expectation of this researcher that the findings of this study will throw more light on the area of job involvement of the Nigerian worker, as well as be of help to worker-management theoreticians and practitioners alike.

CODESRIA - LIBRARY

CHAPTER 2REVIEW OF THE LITERATUREJob Involvement (JI) Defined

Various definitions of job involvement exist in the literature, reflecting differences in theoretical approaches to the concept:

"... the internalization of values about the goodness of work or the importance of work in the worth of the person, ... the degree to which a person's work experience affects his self-esteem" (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965, pp. 24-25);

"... the merging of a person's ego identity with his or her job" (McKelvey & Sekaran, 1977, p.282);

"... the degree to which the person identifies with his job, intends to be active in it, and considers his job activities important to his self-worth" (Saleh, 1981, p.24).

Locke (1983) defined a job-involved worker as one who takes his job seriously, one "for whom important values are at stake in the job, whose moods and feelings are significantly affected by his job experiences, and who is mentally preoccupied with his job" (p.1301).

Saleh (1981) argued that the differences in defining JI rose mainly from its conceptualization as unidimensional and, as such, each researcher focused on just part of the dimension. As an example, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) introduced two definitions: one related to the cognitive component of JI ("the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self image", p.24), and the other definition related to the affective component of JI ("the degree to which a person's work performance affects his self-esteem", p.25). Saleh (1981) accused Lodahl and Kejner (1965) of not having attempted to show how the latter's two definitions are related, while Kanungo (1981) criticised the data yielded by the operationalization of Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) conceptualization of JI as being ambiguous and difficult to interpret. However, these differences are indicative of the differences between researchers in approaching the concept of JI, as mentioned above: while Saleh (1981) conceptualized JI as a three-dimensional variable with the cognitive, affective and behavioral components, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) focused on the cognitive and affective components. Kanungo (1981) laid emphasis on just the cognitive component of JI.

Lawler and Hall (1970) stressed the cognitive or identity component of JI when they conceptualized it as the degree to which the person perceives his total work situation to be an important part of his life and to be central to him and his identity. Vroom (1969) focused on the conative component of JI when he viewed it as

being indicated by the degree to which the employee participates in his job. Vroom distinguished between psychological participation (or the amount of influence an individual perceives he has on decision-making processes), and objective participation (or the amount of influence the individual actually has on decision-making). The two may or may not be congruent, depending on other variables, e.g., the effects of needs on perception. Vroom used participation in the psychological sense.

This study conceptualizes JI as an attitude variable, with cognitive, behavioral and affective components. It operationally defines JI as a worker's feeling of psychological commitment to, and active engagement in, his job such that his good performance on the job is important to him. Freedman (1964, p.297), for example, defined "involvement" as "the degree of concern about or commitment to a specific response or position". In the area of job-behavior, such "concern about" or "commitment to" the job has to be manifested behaviorally in order to be of both empirical and worker-management relevance.

#### Analysing The Concept of JI

Researchers on JI (e.g., Lodahl & Kejner, 1965) have often pointed out that the job-involved worker is not necessarily the job-satisfied worker; the job-involved worker is rather believed to be the worker who does his "living" on the job: virtually his whole psychological being is directed at the job. On the other hand, the

non-job-involved worker does his "living" off the job: while he may perform his job to the satisfaction of his superiors, his psychological being, his interests, the essential part of his identity, are elsewhere off the job, not on the job. JI is, therefore, believed not to be identical with job satisfaction (Kanungo, 1981; Lawler & Hall, 1970).

However, such variables as satisfaction with the job itself, promotion, and supervision have been found to be positively associated with JI (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). Furthermore, it has been suggested (Locke, 1983) that a highly job-involved worker should be more likely to feel extreme job satisfaction or extreme job dissatisfaction (depending on the worker's degree of success on the job), while an uninvolved worker would experience less extreme emotional reactions to equivalent job experiences. One likely explanation for this is that the job-involved worker would be likely to strive towards perfection in his job and, as a result, would be very satisfied if he achieves his objective, and very dissatisfied if he fails.

Moch (1980) identified three relatively stable components of JI from Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) study:

- employees' ratings of how important their job is to them,
- the amount of energy and ambition employees direct toward their jobs, and
- employees' willingness to work independently of extrinsic (or material) rewards. Moch believed that despite the fact



that work-based social relationships may be positively related to JI, a worker who cannot achieve significant positive work-based relationships may seek job involvement as an alternative source of identity and self-esteem.

Saleh (1981) considered self-concept or self-definition as one of the primary elements in understanding the concept of JI. He referred to JI as a "self-involving attitude or belief" (p.18) and suggested that the concept referred to an individual, rather than to a group. McKelvey and Sekaran (1977) in presenting their "career-based theory of JI", suggested that individuals with different ego identities become involved in jobs of rather different kinds and, as such, jobs should be designed with the expectation that different types of employees look for different things.

It is believed that JI can be stimulated by making the job more challenging (e.g. Locke, 1983; Vroom, 1969). This is because in the absence of an adequate mental challenge, or in the presence of a job that is accomplished automatically (with expenditure of little or no effort, skill, or thought), boredom could set in as a result of unused mental capacity. With enough challenge, and if the challenge is accepted by the worker, the worker may then develop commitment to his work goals because he finds himself as being the main causal agent in performance: he exercises his individual judgement and choice. However, the challenge an individual confronts in a job has to be optimal. Too much challenge that is beyond the worker's

capacity to handle can lead to a sense of failure and frustration with the job.

Wiener and Gechman (1977) suggested that, rather than viewing JI as a complex, internal, psychological state which implied no relationship between its attitudinal processes and concrete, operational work behaviors, it should be viewed as a special class of job behaviors which would then be explained in relation to an existing and established construct. They regarded JI and job commitment as "inter-changeable labels for the same class of job behaviors" (p.48), and regarded job commitment behaviors as those accepted behaviors by the job incumbent which exceed formal and/or normative expectations relevant to the object of commitment. These include:

- the amount of personal time devoted to job activities, that is, the amount of time the worker spends on job-related matters outside the working time formally required for the organization,
- the amount of talk, conversation, and reading related to the job, and
- the personal sacrifices for the sake of the job.

Wiener and Gechman, however, appeared to have neglected the self-identity aspect of JI. If JI and job commitment are actually to be regarded as "interchangeable labels for the same class of job behaviors", then due cognizance should be taken of the personality attributes of the job incumbent, in addition to his overt job behavior. It is quite conceivable that a job incumbent may devote

extra time to his job, thereby making personal sacrifices for the sake of his job, in an effort to escape staff retrenchment. Inwardly, the worker may not actually feel a psychological involvement with the job.

Super (1982) used the term "salience" to denote the relative importance of the job to the worker: the degree to which the job role stands out from other roles, such as the role of a father or mother in the family, the role of a head of the family, the role of a citizen, and so on. There can be many different numbers, and combinations, of roles. Workers in modern societies are engaged in multiple social roles, and the job role is not acted out in a social vacuum (Champoux, 1981). It would, thus, be useful to understand why, and to what extent, individuals become involved in one role over another. Individuals who perceive their roles and situations to be discrepant with what they believe should be the case would change the roles and situations, if they can (Clark, 1959). A lack of power to effect such change will likely result in a state of alienation. Kanungo (1979, 1981) viewed alienation as resulting mainly from a worker's perceived lack of potential to satisfy his salient needs in his job. This is the crux of his "motivational framework" respecting the concepts of involvement and alienation: that a worker would become job-involved to the extent that he perceives the job as adequately providing the means by which he can satisfy his salient needs - needs for security affiliation, autonomy, achievement, and so on.

### Approaches To Research On JI

Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) reviewed organizational research on JI and arrived at three approaches to the concept:

- JI as an individual difference variable,
- JI as a situationally-determined variable, and
- JI as a result of the individual-situation interaction.

#### JI As An Individual Difference Variable

This approach views JI as being mainly determined by a number of personal attributes, and that any worker who possesses these attributes would be more likely to be job-involved, irrespective of the situational conditions in which the worker finds himself at his work-place. These personal attributes include the Protestant ethic - Weber, 1958 - (the belief that success is dependent on hard work, one is responsible for one's destiny, and that enjoyment of the Kingdom of Heaven is dependent on hard work on earth), the moral character of work, and a sense of personal responsibility. Proponents of the view that JI is an individual difference variable (e.g., Hall & Mansfield, 1971; Lawler, Hackman & Kaufman, 1973; Lodahl, 1964; and Runyon, 1973) have suggested that since the phenomenon of JI results from the introjection into one's personality of certain of the work values, through the process of socialization of the individual, JI would, therefore, probably be independent of such "external" factors as nature of a particular job, and environmental or economic stress. It should, therefore, be considered as a relatively stable

personality attribute. Lodahl (1964) suggested that the tendency to become psychologically work-involved may be fixed during relatively early cultural training of the individual, and is relatively immune to changes in other variables. He also reported a tendency that jobs perceived by a worker to be below his status are not likely to be challenging enough for him to become involved in.

There have been mixed reports on the relationships between JI and such individual difference variables as age, level of education, marital status, length of service on the job, and so on. Schwyhart and Smith (1972) studied the relationship of JI to such variables as satisfaction with company, company tenure, age, and number of promotions received. They reported findings to the effect that "workers for whom the job is important to their self image tend to be satisfied with the organization that employs them" (p.231), although this does not necessarily imply that the job-involved worker is also satisfied with his organization, or with his job. Schwyhart and Smith reported a significant positive relationship of JI to age, but no significant relationship of JI to number of promotions received by the worker. With regards to age, they suggested that the job may become more important to the self image of the manager as he approached 40 years, irrespective of his success in terms of promotions received. With respect to promotions, they suggested that JI may be an attitude fostered more by expectations.

Rabinowitz and Hall (1977) cited, among others, the studies by Mannheim (1975), and Gurin, Veroff and Feld which found no significant relationships between JI and age. However, the conflicting findings could be because the above-mentioned studies looked at the relationship between age and JI from one point in time, rather than longitudinally as workers move up or down the organizational hierarchy. Furthermore, since involvement appears to increase over time for more successful workers, in contradistinction to the less successful ones (Rabinowitz & Hall 1977) the variance in the age-JI relationship may not necessarily be due to age or time as such, but rather due to the type of work rewards and satisfactions received by the job incumbent over time.

In a study on the effects of externally-mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation, Deci (1971) conducted two laboratory experiments and one field experiment, and his findings indicated that:

- when money was used as the external reward, the subjects appeared to cognitively re-evaluate their activity from one which was intrinsically motivated to one motivated primarily by expectation of financial rewards. In other words, their intrinsic motivation appeared to decrease;
- on the other hand, when verbal reinforcement and positive feedback were the external rewards, intrinsic motivation was apparently enhanced. In other words, the subjects were less likely

to think of the non-monetary reinforcement as a mechanism to influence their activity. With reference to our local situation, it would be useful to know whether the JI of the Nigerian worker has any significant relationship with his reward preference.

With respect to sex and marital status, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) reported little or no relationship with JI. There is, however, yet to be a consensus on the above statement. Sekaran and Mowday (1981), for instance, reported that sex was significantly related to JI in an Indian sample, but not in a United States sample. In a study of 69 working wives, Gannon and Hendrickson (1973) reported that the JI and family involvement of the subjects used in their study were factorially independent. In other words, their subjects were capable of simultaneously exhibiting high interest and concern both for the job and the family.

Lacy, Bokemeier and Shepard (1983) examined the extent to which males differed from females in preferences for selected job attributes and in commitment to work. The job attributes utilized were:

- high income,
- job security,
- length of working hours, amount of free time,
- chances for advancement on the job and
- meaningfulness of work.

In their findings, Lacy et. al. reported that men indicated more commitment to continued working than women. For both sexes, however, they reported that younger (75.2%), highly educated persons (72.2%) and persons of high occupational prestige (73%) indicated more likelihood in continuing to work than those who were older (63.7%), had low education (65.6%), or had low occupational prestige (67%). According to the Lacy et. al. findings, the reported sex differences in commitment to work was partly accounted for by marital status: while unmarried respondents exhibited no sex differences, married men indicated significantly more commitment to work than married women (73.8% vs 60.2%), while unmarried women indicated significantly more commitment to work than married women (79.5% vs 60.2%).

From the above findings, it may be suggested that men work primarily as a fulfilment of a central life interest and, subsequently as a means of providing for their families, while women work primarily to supplement the income of their families. However, caution need to be exercised when making inferences about sex differences in job attitudes, because the latter are complex social phenomena which can be influenced by a variety of factors.

Brenner and Tomkiewicz (1979), in their study of sex differences toward job orientation, reported that males appeared to maintain the belief in their responsibility as leaders and "breadwinners", as indicated by their preference for characteristics



involving income, responsibility and leadership, while a significant number of the females did not regard job and career as the most important factor in their lives. The females placed more emphasis on comfortable working conditions and pleasant interpersonal relationships. It ought to be noted, however, that the Brenner and Tomkiewicz sample contained graduating students, rather than actual workers and, as they acknowledged in their report, job experience may cause changes in individual's work preferences.

Sausser and York (1978) tested the hypothesis that observed sex differences in job satisfaction were due to other moderator variables rather than due to the influence of sex alone. In their study of male and female government employees, they reported that significant observed differences (male greater than female) in satisfactions with promotions and work disappeared when the effects of age, education, tenure in organization and tenure in present position were held constant.

Brief and Oliver (1976) and Miner (1974) reported studies supporting the view that sex differences in job attitudes disappear when occupation and organizational level are controlled. As Miner put it, "... those women who become managers have the motivational capacity to do as well as males who become managers".

Miller, Schooler, Kohn and Miller (1979) argued that despite sex-role definitions which have traditionally emphasized maternal and marital responsibilities, the intellectual and personality

development of employed women is directly influenced by their current occupational experiences. It is their belief that, "for women, as for men, work has a decided psychological impact" (p.91).

Fry and Greenfeld (1980) studied the differences between policewomen and policemen in attitudes on measures of organization commitment, job satisfaction, work anxiety, role conflict and role ambiguity. Their findings suggested that organizational variables (e.g., environment, technology, leadership, size and so on) accounted for more differences in the job attitudes than sex.

Gaddy, Glass and Arnkoff (1983) studied the influence of sex role identity on professional married women's career involvement after having children, and reported that those who continued working after having children exhibited more "masculine" characteristics as social ascendancy, autonomy, orientation toward risk, individualism and intellectual ascendancy, as opposed to such "feminine" characteristics as nurturance, responsivity and emotionality. These women also reported a more equalitarian relationship in their marriages, as opposed to a traditional relationship in which the wife undertakes the major responsibility in childrearing at the expense of time devoted to her career. It is, therefore, to be expected that women who are more involved in their careers would divide their time between family responsibilities and their career in a different manner from less career involved women. However, with regard to our local situation, it would be worthwhile to find the

sex-JI and marital status-JI relationship in a Nigerian sample.

### JI AS A Situationally-Determined Variable

This approach to the phenomenon of JI suggests that a person becomes job involved to the extent that he perceives his job situation as fulfilling the relevant conditions and attributes that are central to his self-concept. If the worker perceives the job situation as enhancing the gratification of his growth and ego needs, he would be more likely to be job involved than if he perceives his job situation as serving to block the gratification of these needs. Such situational variables may include leader behavior, participation in decision making, worker's group, amount of autonomy on the job, job performance, and so on (Rabinowitz & Hall, 1977). It is also likely that a worker who considers the so-called lower-level needs as central to his being will be job involved if his job situation fulfils the needs for him.

Leaders who are more job-involved appear to be those with high "initiating structure" rather than those with high "consideration" approach to leadership (Lodahl & Kejner, 1965). Furthermore, a significant positive relationship has been found between JI and participation in decision making (Argyris, 1964, 1973; Siegel & Ruh, 1973; Vroom, 1969). It is yet to be clear, however, whether it is that high JI on the part of a worker earns him recognition from his superiors and thereby his inclusion in the decision making

machinery, or that increasing the participation of the worker in decision making increases his JI.

Lawler and Hall (1970) reported that the control and autonomy a worker exercises over his job is directly related to his level of JI. With respect to the relationship between JI and job performance, findings generally, though not yet conclusively, point to little or no significant relationship (Lawler & Hall, 1970; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Siegal & Ruh, 1973).

Although JI appears to possess a significant correlation with success on the job (Argyris, 1964; McKelvey & Sekaran, 1977), the interpretation of the relationship could be varied. McKelvey and Sekaran found that managers were more involved than non-managers; Hall and Nougaim (1968) suggested that the most successful managers experienced greater achievement satisfaction and became more job-involved than their less successful colleagues. In other words, that success yields involvement. However, it is also very plausible that JI breeds job success; that the more successful managers were more successful in the first instance because they were more involved with their jobs.

#### JI As A Result Of The Individual-situation Interaction

This approach is an integration of the two approaches discussed earlier: the individual differences approach and the situational approach. Viewing JI as a result of the individual-situation

interaction posits that although workers differ in the extent to which they are likely to become job-involved, as a result of their early socialization influences and their other individual differences the workers will also become job-involved when the job situation is such that they feel that it provides the opportunities for the fulfilment of their self-concept needs (Lawler & Hall, 1970; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Vroom, 1969; Wanous, 1974).

Rabinowitz and Hall (1977), in reviewing a number of studies that have been reported on JI, arrived at the following conclusions concerning the concept:

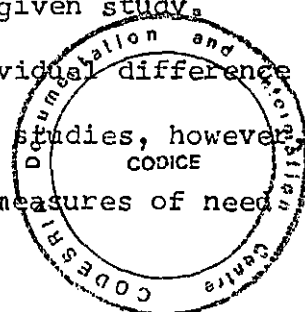
- JI is related to three categories of working variables: individual difference characteristics (e.g., age and protestant work ethic values), situational characteristics (e.g., participatory leadership and job stimulation), and work outcomes (e.g., satisfaction with the work itself, supervision, people, and turnover).
- JI is a generally stable characteristic.
- The data on JI are more consistent with the "importance of work" definition of JI than with the "extent to which performance affects self-esteem" definition.
- Rather than debating whether it is a job "input" or "output" variable, JI appears to be both: it appears to be a "feedback variable", both a cause and an effect of job behavior,
- The job-involved worker:

is a believer in the Protestant ethic,  
is older,  
has internal locus of control (that is perceives a reinforcement as being dependent on his own efforts) rather than external locus of control (that is, perceiving a reinforcement as being contingent upon extraneous forces),  
has strong growth needs,  
has a stimulating job (high autonomy, variety, task identity, and feedback),  
participates in decisions affecting him,  
is satisfied with the job,  
has a history of success,  
is less likely to leave the organization,

In the sense of the above characteristics of JI, a worker may still be job-involved in the face of job insecurity such as exists in our present-day Nigeria if that worker views his job along the above-mentioned attributes. However, it is also possible that a worker may just keep to his job in order to avoid being unemployed, while having no JI whatsoever. This is conceivable, as researchers (e.g., Lawler & Hall, 1970) have reported that performing well on the job is not necessarily related to JI.

Sekaran and Mowday (1981) carried out a cross-cultural study of demographic characteristics (age, sex, educational level, length of service in the organization, and time on the job) and job

characteristics (Skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job) as predictors of JI among workers in the United States of America and India. In their findings, they reported support for the view that JI results from an interaction of individual and situational variables, with job characteristics exerting more influence on JI than individual characteristics. They, however, acknowledge that findings such as theirs should be interpreted with circumspection, since the relative influence of individual versus situational variables on JI is dependent on the particular measures examined in a given study. In their study, Sekaran and Mowday limited the individual difference variables examined to demographic variables. Other studies, however (e.g., Saal, 1978) have included such variables as measures of need strength and work values.



This researcher is not aware of any comparative study on the JI of workers in public and private organizations. However, Eddy and Saunders (1972) have noted that a significant portion of the environment in public sector systems or organizations is explicitly political, and may have strong norms against many of the values and practices associated with organization development processes. This view aptly applies to the Nigerian situation where sectional sentiments appear to run deep, and most of the actions that are taken at the policy level in public organizations are based more on political expediency than the merit of such actions towards the enhancement of institutional efficiency and effectiveness.

While the political system is primarily distributive in terms of seeking ways to share a finite amount of resources among various competing interest groups, resulting in a win/lose relationship where the gain of one group frequently implies the loss of the other group, the well-functioning administrative system aims at being integrative in terms of communality of purpose, collaboration, and win/win relationships where efforts are made to minimize win/lose competition among operating units, and to enhance shared problem solving and planning (Eddy & Saunders, 1972).

In Nigeria, there is reason to believe that personnel selection and placement procedures are more political in public than in private organizations. In virtually all public institutions in Nigeria, political considerations potently influence the personnel selection policies. Perhaps the most obvious political consideration is the one referred to as "federal character" or "state character", as the case may be. This implies the practice of ensuring that the workers in any public institution or organization in Nigeria come from such areas of the country or of the state as to be geographically representative of the whole country or the state in such a manner that there is no preponderance of people from any particular section of the country, or of the state, in that organization (The Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1979). The above type of proviso can vitiate adequate personnel selection in public organizations (in contradistinction to private organizations where



the proviso does not apply) and may consequently put less qualified people into jobs. The proviso may also alienate some workers in public organizations from their jobs.

Other attributes that serve to distinguish public from private organizations include what Golembiewski (1969) referred to as the "unique habit background" of public agencies: the patterns within the institutional environment, such as:-

- The tendency among public officials to prefer patterns of delegation which maximize their sources of information and minimize the control exercised by subordinates. This practice may adversely affect the objective of increasing self-control and self-direction for people within the organization.
- Legal specification of appropriate work behaviors and remunerations: "equal pay for equal work, in sum, still practically means that exceptional work is not rewarded exceptionally" (Golembiewski, 1969, p.375). In private organizations, management possesses greater control over reward systems. In most public organizations, salaries and duties appear to be tied to the grade level system, with emphasis on transdepartmental uniformity.

Based on the foregoing, this study not only attempts to look at the relationship between JI and such variables as sex, marital status and workers' reward preferences, but also the relationship, if any, in the JI of workers in public and private organizations in Nigeria.

OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

The following concepts used in this study are operationally defined thus:

JOB INVOLVEMENT: A worker's feeling of psychological commitment to, and active engagement in, his job such that his good performance on the job is important to him.

MATERIAL REWARD: Money or gift given to a worker by his management, in appreciation of his commendable performance on the job.

NON-MATERIAL REWARD: Praise or letter of commendation given to a worker by his management, in appreciation of his commendable performance on the job.

PRIVATE ORGANIZATION: A wholly privately-owned organization, or one with majority private ownership.

PUBLIC ORGANIZATION: A wholly government-owned organization, or one with majority government ownership.

REWARD PREFERENCE: The preference by a worker for material reward rather than non-material reward, or vice versa, from his management in appreciation of his commendable performance on the job.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The central problem of this study is to look at sex, marital status and reward preference as predictors of job involvement in public and private organizations in Nigeria. Specifically, the study will attempt to answer the following questions:

1. Will knowledge of the sex of an individual enhance the prediction of the individual's job involvement?
2. Will knowledge of the marital status of an individual enhance the prediction of the individual's job involvement?
3. Is there a significant relationship between a worker's job involvement and the worker's preference for material or non-material reward for commendable job performance?
4. Is there a significant relationship between a worker's job involvement and whether the worker is in a public or private organization?

HYPOTHESES

In view of the statement of the problem above, the following hypotheses are postulated:

1. There is no statistically significant relationship between the job involvement of a worker and the worker's sex.
2. There is no statistically significant relationship between the job involvement of a worker and the worker's marital status.
3. There is no statistically significant relationship between a worker's job involvement and the worker's preference for material or non-material reward for commendable job performance.
4. There is no statistically significant relationship between a worker's job involvement and whether the worker is in a public or private organization.

CHAPTER 3METHODOLOGYSAMPLE

The sample consisted of 187 male and 24 female workers (N = 211) from all levels in two breweries in Onitsha, Anambra state. One of the aims of the study was to observe whether the type of organization in which an individual works (public versus private organization) has any statistical relationship with the individual's job involvement. The under-mentioned two organizations were, therefore, chosen for the study because they represented adequate examples of two similar organizations - one public, the other private - which are both in the same metropolitan environment.

Premier Breweries Limited (PBL), Onitsha

PBL is a public-owned brewery, situated at Onitsha.

Its equity share holdings are as follows:

- Anambra State Ministry of Finance (80%)
- Nigerian Industrial Development Bank (10%)
- Nigerian Bank for Commerce and Industry (10%)

The history of PBL dates back to 1974 when the defunct East Central State government entered into agreement with a German firm of Messrs Brauhaase for the establishment of a brewery at Onitsha. On January 25, 1976, a company with the name Diamond Breweries Limited was incorporated. The name was later changed to Premier Breweries Limited in December 1976.

Production started in October 1977 and on March 11, 1978, the brewery was officially commissioned by the then Military Governor of East Central State, Col. John Atom Kpera.

The staff strength is 1170: - 936 males and 234 females (Premier Breweries Limited Handbook).

Life Breweries Limited (LBL), Onitsha

LBL is a privately-owned company, situated just beside Premier Breweries Limited at Onitsha. LBL has Nigerian equity share holdings of 70% while the foreign technical partners - SOCAfrica - have the remaining 30% shares.

The 70% shares owned by Nigerian interests are distributed as follows:

- Nigerian Industrial Development Bank (11%)
- Central Investment Company Limited, Enugu (4.5%)
- Individual Nigerians (54.5%)

The company started production in late 1984. It has a staff strength of 282:- 235 males and 47 females (LBL Personnel Department).

The mean age of the 211 respondents used in the study was 30.60 years, with a standard deviation of 7.47.

PROCEDURE

As a pretest, copies of the questionnaire were administered to 60 workers (43 males and 17 females) at Golden Guinea Breweries Limited, Umuahia, Imo State. The only relevant changes made in the questionnaire after the pretest (see Appendices A and D) were:

- (i) the demographic part of the questionnaire appeared after the 20-item JI scale. This was done to ensure that respondents completed the JI items before providing the demographic data on themselves. It was the feeling of the researcher that putting the demographic part first may engender some reluctance on the part of respondents to sincerely respond to the JI items with the mental alertness the items deserve, thereby possibly affecting the responses;
- (ii) dichotomising the "Marital status" item into "single" and "married" because none of the respondents in the pre-test indicated that he/she was "divorced" or "widowed". The later two categories were, therefore, declared redundant by the researcher.

Statistical analyses of the pre-test responses yielded a split-half reliability coefficient of 0.76 and a corrected (Spearman-Brown) split-half reliability coefficient of 0.86 (see appendix B). With  $N = 60$ , mean = 36.92 and standard deviation = 5.54, the above-mentioned reliability coefficients compare favourably with the following reported by Lodahl and Kejner (1965, p.30) on the same 20 - item JI scale:

Table 3:1Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) Data On The 20-ItemJI Scale

<u>Norming Group</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>Split-half r</u>	<u>Corrected split-half r</u>
Nurses (N=137)	43.37	6.52	0.56	0.72
Engineers (N=70)	42.62	7.83	0.67	0.80
students (N=46)	48.06	9.56	0.80	0.89

The internal consistency reliability coefficient (coefficient alpha) of the pre-test responses was 0.77. A reasonable statistical estimate of the validity coefficient could be obtained from the index of reliability which is equal to the square root of the reliability coefficient. This value (0.88), known in domain sampling as domain validity (Ghiselli, 1964), is conceptually similar to the content validity since it indicates how well scores on the total domain under consideration (job involvement) could be predicted from scores on a scale measuring job involvement.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire consisted of Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) 20-item Job Involvement scale (see Appendix D). A total of 350 questionnaires were distributed (200 to Premier Breweries Limited and 150 to Life Breweries Limited). 218 questionnaires were completed and returned. This represented a percentage return of 62.29%. Out of this number, seven questionnaires (3.21%) were discarded as a result of improper and/or very incomplete responses, remaining a total of 211 (96.79%) properly filled questionnaires.



144 of the returned questionnaires were from PBL, representing a percentage return of 72%. 74 were from Life Breweries Limited, representing a percentage return of 49.33%.

For purposes of quantitative analyses, the questionnaire items were scored as follows: "Strongly Agree" (5), "Agree" (4), "Undecided" (3), "Disagree" (2), "Strongly Disagree" (1). The negatively-worded items (see items 10, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18 & 19) were scored in reverse order. The higher the total score on the questionnaire, the higher the measured JI.

#### \* DESIGN/STATISTIC

The study was carried out by means of a field survey; no variables were manipulated. Statistical analyses were by means of the point biserial correlation coefficient (rpb). Correlational analyses were utilized because of the ex-post-facto nature of the study and the fact that the researcher's main objective was to observe the relationships between the mentioned variables (sex, marital status, reward preference and type of organization) and job involvement. The point biserial correlation coefficient is usually the most appropriate measure of correlation to be utilized in studying the relationship between a continuous variable (JI in this study) and a genuinely dichotomous variable (sex, marital status, reward preference, type of organization) - McNemar, 1969; Nunnally, 1967; 1970).

The  $\chi^2$  statistic was utilized to further analyze the statistically significant correlations, in order to find which group exhibited a greater frequency of the variables under consideration. This cross-tabular  $\chi^2$  statistical analysis was used because the point biserial correlation coefficient does not make it easy for the researcher to make "less than" and "greater than" inferences from the data.

CODESRIA - LIBRARY

CHAPTER 4RESULTS

The correlation matrix of the variables studied is as follows:

Table 4:1

Correlation Coefficients of the Variables studied (Sex, Marital Status, Reward Preference, Type of Organization, JI)

	SEX	MASTAT	REPREF	ORGZTN	JI
SEX		-0.14	0.03	0.10	0.03
MASTAT			-0.12	-0.0011	0.06
REPREF				0.30 <sup>**</sup>	0.18 <sup>**</sup>
ORGZTN					0.14 <sup>*</sup>

N=211

KEY

\* = p 0.05

MASTAT = MARITAL STATUS

\*\* = p 0.01

REPREF = REWARD PREFERENCE

ORGZTN = TYPE OF ORGANIZATION

JI = JOB INVOLVEMENT

Table 4:1 above shows that the correlation between the sex of the respondents and their measured JI (0.03) was not statistically significant. The first null hypothesis of no statistically significant relationship between the JI of a worker and the worker's sex was, therefore, not rejected. The implication of this finding is that, with respect to the population studied, knowing the

sex of a worker is no statistically viable predictor of the worker's measured JI.

Table 4:1 also shows that the correlation between the marital status of respondents and their measured JI (0.06) was not statistically significant. The second null hypothesis of no statistically significant relationship between the JI of a worker and the latter's marital status was, therefore, not rejected. This finding implies that, with regard to the population studied, knowledge of whether a worker was married or single would not serve as a statistically viable predictor of the worker's measured JI.

The correlation between the variable "Reward Preference" and the variable "JI" as used in the study (0.18) was discovered to be statistically significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). As a result, therefore, the third null hypothesis of no statistically significant relationship between the worker's measured JI and his/her preference for material or non-material reward for commendable job performance was not accepted. The implication of this finding is that the measured JI of the respondents could be significantly accounted for by their reward preferences for commendable job performance. In other words, about 3.24% of the variance in the measured JI of the respondents was due to the effects of their reward preference.

A chi-square analysis of the relationship between the reward preference and the frequency of the measured JI of the respondents revealed the following table:

Table 4:2

A 2X2 Contingency Table of Reward Preference by Frequency of JI (Measured JI was dichotomised at the median: 20-60 = Low JI; 61-100 = High JI)

		JI Frequency		
		Low JI Respondents	High JI Respondents	
Reward Preference	Material Reward	17(11.89)	97(102.11)	114
	Non-Material "	05(10.11)	92(86.89)	97
		22	189	211

Corrected  $\chi^2 = 4.35$  (p < 0.05)

df = 1

Table 4:2 shows a statistically significant  $\chi^2$  (4.35, p < 0.05) with respect to the relationship between the reward preferences of the respondents and the frequency of their measured JI. From the table above, this statistically significant relationship suggests that those respondents who preferred material rewards from their management for commendable job performance tended to be more job-involved than the respondents who preferred non-material rewards.

Table 4:1 shows that the correlation between the respondents' type of organization and their measured JI (0.14) was statistically significant at the 5% level of significance. This statistically significant relationship suggests that the fourth null hypothesis should not be accepted. The fourth null hypothesis is that of no statistically significant relationship between the worker's measured JI and whether the worker is in a public or private organization.

The implication of the above finding is that the variance in the respondents' measured JI could be significantly accounted for by their type of organization.

A chi square analysis of the relationship between the respondents' type of organization and the frequency of their measured JI revealed the following table:

Table 4:3

A 2X2 Contingency Table of Type of Organization by Frequency of JI (Measured JI was dichotomized at the Median: 20-60 = Low JI; 61-100 = High JI)

	JI Frequency		
	Low JI	High JI	
	Respondents	Respondents	
Private	11(7.51)	61(64.49)	72
Public	11(14.49)	128(124.51)	139
	22	189	211

Corrected  $\chi^2 = 2.02$  ( $p > 0.05$ )

df = 1

Table 4:3 shows a statistically non-significant  $\chi^2$  (2.02,  $p > 0.05$ ) with respect to the relationship between the respondents' type of organization and the frequency of their measured JI. The above  $\chi^2$  value suggests that we should not reject the fourth null hypothesis of no statistically significant relationship between

the respondent's measured JI and whether the respondent is in a public or private organization.

### Incidental Result

Table 4:1 shows that the correlation between the reward preference of the respondents and their type of organization (0.30) was statistically significant ( $p < 0.01$ ). This finding suggests that about 9.00% of the variance in the respondents' reward preference is accounted for by their type of organization.

A chi square analysis of the relationship between the respondents' type of organization and their reward preference revealed the following table:

Table 4:4

A 2x2 Contingency Table of Respondents' Type of Organization by their Reward Preference

	Material Reward	Non-material Reward	
Private Organization	54 (38.9)	18 (33.1)	72
Public Organization	60 (75.1)	79 (63.9)	139
	114	97	211

$$\chi^2 = 18.09 \text{ (} p < 0.05 \text{)}$$

$$df = 1$$

The statistically significant  $\chi^2$  value in Table 4:4 (18.09) indicates

a statistically significant tendency on the part of the respondents from the public organization to prefer non-material to material rewards from their management for commendable job performance. On the other hand, the respondents from the private organization tended to significantly prefer material to non-material rewards from their management for commendable job performance.

#### SUMMARY OF RESULTS

1. There was no statistically significant relationship between the sex of the workers and their measured job involvement.
2. There was no statistically significant relationship between the workers' marital status and their measured job involvement.
3. There was a statistically significant relationship between the workers' measured job involvement and their preference for material or non-material reward for commendable job performance ( $p < 0.01$ ). Those respondents who preferred material rewards from their management for commendable job performance tended to be more job-involved than the respondents who preferred non-material rewards.
4. There was a statistically significant relationship between the workers' measured job involvement and whether they work in a public or private organization. The respondents in the public organization tended to be more job involved than the respondents in the private organization.



5. The respondents in the public organization exhibited a statistically significant tendency ( $\chi^2 = 18.09$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ) to prefer non-material to material rewards from their management for commendable job performance.

The respondents in the private organization, on their own part, exhibited a statistically significant tendency to prefer material rather than non-material rewards from their management for commendable job performance.

CODESRIA - LIBRARY

CHAPTER 5DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

From the results, the first null hypothesis of no statistically significant relationship between the JI of the respondents and their sex was not rejected. The correlation coefficient between sex and JI was found to be 0.03 ( $p > 0.05$ ). This result accords with the earlier suggestions that sex is not a statistically viable predictor of JI (Brief & Oliver, 1976; Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Miner, 1974) and that differences in the JI of the respondents are more likely to be as a result of the significant contributions of variables other than sex (Fry & Greenfeld, 1980; Sauser & York, 1978).

Although the modal traditional Nigerian society possesses a patriarchal pattern, the non-significant correlation between sex and JI in the respondents studied suggests that the subjects were quite capable of paying high attention to both their sex and job roles. With the finding that the female respondents were not significantly more job-involved than their male counterparts, nor vice versa, it could reasonably be inferred that other variables than sex did account for whatever significant differences in JI that exist among the respondents. Thus, an inference similar to Miner's (1974) may be drawn to the effect that the female respondents who exhibited high JI possessed the same motivational capacity to work as well as their male counterparts who exhibited high JI.

The results of the study also supported the second null hypothesis of no statistically significant relationship between the JI of the respondents and their marital status ( $r_{pb} = 0.06$ ;  $p > 0.05$ ). The null hypothesis was, therefore, not rejected. This finding suggests that the variance in the JI of the respondents was not significantly accounted for by differences in their marital status. This inference accords with the reports of Gannon and Hendrickson (1973) and Lodahl and Kejner (1965). In other words, marital involvement and JI could be factorially independent. Perhaps such demographic variables as sex and marital status play a less central role in determining the level of JI of workers. At least, so the data of the respondents used in this study suggest. Perhaps it ought not significantly matter to the manager or the prospective employer whether his worker or applicant is male or female, married or single with respect to the worker's JI. More research may be needed to clarify the contributions of sex and marital status in determining the level of JI of a worker.

The third null hypothesis was that of no statistically significant relationship between the worker's JI and his preference for material or non-material reward for commendable job performance. As can be observed in Table 4:1, this hypothesis was not supported by the result. It was, therefore, not accepted.

Table 4:1 indicates that the respondents' reward preferences significantly accounted for the variance in their measured JI (0.18,  $p < 0.01$ ). A  $\chi^2$  test of the relationship (Table 4:2) revealed that the respondents who preferred material rewards for commendable job performance were significantly more job-involved than those who preferred non-material rewards ( $\chi^2 = 4.35$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). It can also be observed from Table 4:2 that those more respondents who preferred material rewards than those who preferred non-material rewards exhibited a tendency of low job involvement. This finding suggests that the majority of the total respondents regarded material rewards as more important to them than non-material rewards. This would be hardly surprising in view of the difficult economic situation the workers found themselves in, as a result of the down-turn in the national economy. Furthermore, it may also be inferred from the results that those respondents who preferred material rewards from their management for commendable job performance were more job-involved because they perceived their job performance as closely linked with the enhancement of their material benefits and, as a result, possessed a greater feeling of commitment to, and active engagement in the jobs. As one of the respondents commented, "I am expected to do my job well. When I do that, I expect to get well paid". Another respondent commented that he preferred "money" to "gifts" as a reward, and that he would only recognize "praise" as a reward if it would be used in his promotion. To him "more salary"

was the first consequence of promotion, before such other things as "more prestige" and "more power".

The above-mentioned findings do not support the report of Deci (1971) that intrinsic rewards apparently enhanced subjects' intrinsic motivation so that the subjects were less likely to think of the intrinsic rewards as a mechanism to influence their performance. In any case, Deci's study was a laboratory experiment rather than a field survey as this study.

The fourth null hypothesis was that of no statistically significant relationship between the worker's JI and whether he is in a public or private organization. The data in Table 4:1 indicate that this null hypothesis should not be accepted ( $r_{pb} = 0.14$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). This result suggests that the respondents' type of organization did significantly contribute to the variance in their measured JI. However, a  $\chi^2$  analysis of the observed relationship (Table 4:3, page 38.) indicated a statistically non-significant  $\chi^2$  value of 2.02 ( $p > 0.05$ ), suggesting that the respondents from the two types of organizations were similar in their measured JI. Perhaps, then, other variables than type of organization contributed significantly in the observed correlation coefficient of 0.14 between the respondents' type of organization and their measured JI. This inference appears to be strengthened by the fact that the observed correlation coefficient of 0.14 represents about 1.96% of the variance in the respondents' measured JI.

One plausible reason for the above inference may be that the two organizations from which the respondents were drawn were actually similar in both structure, product and profit-oriented aims and objectives. Notwithstanding the fact that one of the organizations was private and the other public, the owners of both organizations view them primarily as investments that must make profit. This inference is made in view of the fact that virtually all public organizations are now being requested by governments to strive to be financially independent rather than to expect subventions from government. The public organization used in this study is one of such organizations. It is not viewed by the public as a service organization, but one that is expected to be run as a viable commercial enterprise. It would hardly be surprising, therefore, if the respondents in one of the organizations did not exhibit significantly more JI than those in the other organization.

An inference regarding the relationship between the measured JI of workers in other public and private organizations, especially organizations that are not similar in structure and product, may have to await further cognitive research. In choosing the two organizations used in this study, the researcher intended to control the variances that may be ascribed to dissimilarity in products and services.

From the results in Table 4:1, it can be seen that there was a statistically significant correlation between the respondents' type of organization and their reward preference (0.30,  $p < 0.01$ ). In other words, about 9.00% of the variance in the reward preference of the respondents was accounted for by whether they were from the private or the public organization.

A  $X^2$  test of the above-mentioned result (Table 4:4) indicated a statistically significant tendency on the part of the respondents from the public organization to prefer non-material rewards from their management for commendable job performance. The respondents from the private organization tended to prefer the material rewards.

Perhaps the size of the organizations had a part to play in the above-mentioned result. It might have been that the respondents from the public organization (which is the bigger of the two organizations) were more concerned with recognition and rise in status in their organization because of the greater benefits such would bring, rather than just increase in material benefits. On the other hand, the respondents from the private organization might have been more concerned with the material rewards due to what they might have perceived as the greater relevance of the material rewards than just recognition from a relatively growing organization. In other words, to be, say, a manager in a big organization would appear to be more personally gratifying than in a not-so-big an organization. In the latter, therefore, the worker may prefer to have his gratification in material terms.

Another possible explanation for the observed tendency on the part of the respondents from the public organization to prefer non-material rewards while those from the private organization preferred material rewards for commendable job performance may be the relative elaborateness of staff welfare services of the two organizations studied. The public organization, which is the larger of the two organizations, had such staff welfare services as the provision of staff buses for the transportation of staff to and from work, staff canteen, medical services, and so on. On the other hand, the private organization was yet to operate such elaborate staff welfare services, although its staff received financial allowances to subsidize their expenditure on welfare. It is, therefore, suggested that the respondents in the private organization studied had come to expect material rewards from their management, while those from the public organization might have been conditioned to expect more of non-material rewards from management since their organization already cares effectively for a significant part of their welfare needs. As a result, therefore, the public organization might wittingly or unwittingly have created and nurtured a climate of expectation of non-material rewards for its workers.



CHAPTER 6SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In view of the fact that several factors (psychological, demographic, situational) have been reported as being significantly correlated with job involvement, this study chose to look at the relationships of the variables sex, marital status and reward preference for commendable job performance with the job involvement of workers in two similar organizations; one organization public, the other privately owned. The Lodahl and Kejner (1965) 20-item JI questionnaire was administered first as a pretest to 60 male and female workers of a brewery in Umuahia, Imo state (corrected split-half  $r = 0.86$ , coefficient alpha = 0.77) and then to 211 male and female workers of two breweries in Onitsha; Anambra state: one publicly owned; the other privately owned.

The respondents were 120 and 24 male and female workers, respectively, from the public organization, and 67 and 5 male and female workers, respectively, from the privately owned organization. The mean age of the respondents was 30.6 years, with a standard deviation of 7.47.

A correlational matrix of the relationships between the variables was obtained and  $\chi^2$  tests utilized to analyze further the frequency trend of the significant correlations.

The results were as follows:

- The sex of the respondents did not serve as a statistically viable predictor of their measured JI
- There was no statistically significant relationship between the workers' marital status and their measured JI
- The respondents who preferred material rewards from their management for commendable job performance appeared more job-involved than those who preferred non-material rewards.
- There appeared to be a statistically significant relationship between the respondents' measured JI and whether they work in a public or private organization. However, the significance of this relationship may be due to the influence of other variables.
- The respondents in the public organization exhibited a statistically significant tendency to prefer non-material to material rewards while those in the private organization exhibited the reverse tendency.

From the findings of the study, it was inferred that such variables as sex and marital status were not significantly correlated with measured JI. It was also inferred that the public or private nature of the two organizations which were very similar in structure and products may not significantly account for the variance in the measured JI of the respondents. However, the measured JI of the

respondents had a significant correlation with whether they preferred material or non-material rewards from their management for commendable job performance.

It is suggested, therefore, that managers may do well to pay attention to the reward preferences of their workers as a means of being more able to predict and control their job behavior as related to their JI. In addition, it is suggested that sex and marital status may not have significant roles to play in determining measured JI.

CODESRIA - LIBRARY

### LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Most social science studies usually suffer from some characteristic limitations. In the first place, the researcher cannot reasonably claim to have studied all the factors that possibly significantly affect workers' measured JI.

Secondly, this being a field survey, this researcher had to depend on the goodwill of the prospective respondents to properly complete the questionnaires. As a result, therefore, not all those issued with questionnaires responded. This can serve as a limiting factor on the generalizability of the inferences.

### RECOMMENDATIONS

As a consequence of the above-mentioned limitations of the study, the following recommendations may be proferred for future research in JI:

1. Inclusion of more variables (e.g., worker's level in the organization, pay, cultural attributes) and a study of how they contribute to the variances in measured JI of workers in Nigerian organizations.
2. Utilization of an increased sample size. This may lead to more conclusive and generalizable inferences.

3. There may be the need to study the measured JI of workers in dissimilar public and private organizations while controlling the probable effects of their dissimilarity, in order to know more about whether or not the public or private nature of the organizations will significantly contribute to the JI of the workers.

4. Finally, it is suggested here that it may be worthwhile for subsequent research to look into how our country can produce workers who possess and exhibit high job-involvement.

CODESRIA - LIBRARY

REFERENCES

- Argyris, C. (1964). Integrating The Individual And The Organization. New York: Wiley.
- Argyris, C. (1973). Personality and organization theory revisited, Administrative Science Quarterly, 18, 141-167.
- Berger, P.L. (1964), Some general observations on the problems of work. In P.L. Berger (Editor), The Human Shape of Work: Studies In The Sociology of Occupations. New York: Macmillan, 211-241.
- Brenner, O.C., and Tomkiewicz, J. (1979). Job orientation of males and females: are sex differences declining? Personnel Psychology, 32, 741-750.
- Brief, A.P., and Oliver, R.L. (1976). Male-Female differences in work attitudes among retail sales managers. Journal of Applied Psychology, 61(4), 526-528.
- Champoux, J.E. (1981). A sociological perspective on work involvement. International Review of Applied Psychology, 30(1), 65-86.
- Clark, J.P. (1959). Measuring alienation within a social system. American Sociological Review, 24, 849-832.
- Constitution of The Federal Republic of Nigeria, (1979). Lagos: Daily Times of Nigeria.
- Deci, E.L. (1971). Effects of externally mediated rewards on intrinsic motivation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 18(1), 105-115.
- Eddy, W.B., and Saunders, R.J. (1972). Applied behavioral science in urban administrative/political systems. Public Administration Review, 32, 11-16.
- Ejiofor, P.N.O. (1979). Towards An Instrumentality Theory of Motivation: An Analysis of Errors In Reward/Disciplinary systems In Organizations. Unpublished Monograph.
- Freedman, J.L. (1964). Involvement, discrepancy, and change. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 69(3), 290-295.

- Fry, L.W., and Greenfeld, S. (1980). An examination of attitudinal differences between policewomen and policemen. Journal of Applied Psychology, 65(1), 123-126.
- Gaddy, C.D., Glass, C.R., and Arnkoff, D.B. (1983). Career involvement of women in dual-career families: The influence of sex-role identity. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 30(3), 388-394.
- Gannon, M.J., and Hendrickson, D.H. (1973). Career orientation and job satisfaction among working wives. Journal of Applied Psychology, 57(3), 399-340.
- Ghiselli, F.E. (1964). Theory of Psychological Measurement. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Golenblewski, R.T. (1969). Organization development in public agencies: perspectives on theory and practice. Public Administration Review, 29, 367-377.
- Gurin, G., Veroff, J., and Feld, S. (1977). Americans view their mental health. Cited in Rabinowitz, S., and Hall, D.T. Organizational research on job involvement. Psychological Bulletin, 84(2), 265-288.
- Hall, D.T., and Mansfield, R. (1971). Organizational and individual response to external stress. Administrative Science Quarterly, 16, 533-547.
- Hall, D.T., and Nougaim, K.E. (1968). An examination of Maslow's need hierarchy in an organizational setting. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 3, 12-35.
- Kanungo, R.N. (1979). The concepts of alienation and involvement revisited. Psychological Bulletin, 86(1), 119-138.
- Kanungo, R.N. (1981). Work alienation and involvement: problems and prospects. International Review of Applied Psychology, 30(2), 1-15.
- Lacy, W.B., Bokemeier, J.L., and Shepard, J.M. (1983). Job attribute preferences and work commitment of men and women in the United States. Personnel Psychology, 36(2), 315-320.
- Lawler, E.E. III, Hackman, J.R., and Kaufman, S. (1973). Effects of job redesign: a field experiment. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 3, 49-62.

- Lawler, E.E. III, and Hall, D.T. (1970). Relationship of job characteristics to job involvement, satisfaction, and intrinsic motivation. Journal of Applied Psychology, 54, 305-312.
- Locke, E.A. (1983). The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M.D. Dunnette (Editor), Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1297-1349.
- Lodahl, T.M. (1964). Patterns of job attitudes in two assembly technologies. Administrative Science Quarterly, 8, 482-519.
- Lodahl, T.M., and Kejner, M. (1965). The definition and measurement of job involvement. Journal of Applied Psychology, 49, 24-33.
- McKelvey, B. and Sekaran, U. (1977) Toward a career-based theory of job involvement: a study of scientists and engineers. Administrative Science Quarterly, 22(2) 281-305.
- McNemar, Q. (1969). Psychological Statistics. Fourth edition. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Mannheim, B.A. (1977). A comparative study of work centrality, job rewards, and satisfaction. Cited in Rabinowitz, S., and Hall, D.T., Organizational research on job involvement. Psychological Bulletin, 84(2), 265-288.
- Miller, J., Schooler, C., Kohn, M.L., and Miller, K.A. (1979). Women and work: The psychological effects of occupational conditions. American Journal of Sociology, 85(1), 66-94.
- Miner, J.B. (1974). Motivation to manager among women: studies of business managers and educational administrators. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 5, 197-208.
- Moch, M.K. (1980). Job involvement, internal motivation, and employees' integration into networks of work relationships. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 25, 15-31.
- Nunnally, J.C. (1967) Psychometric Theory. New York: McGraw-Hill.



- Nunnally, J.C., Jr. (1970). Introduction To Psychological Measurement. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Obi-Keguna, H.U. (1979). Management By Objectives: The Case For Nigeria. Paper presented at the Management Workshop organized by the Department of Political Science, University of Nigeria, Nsukka, July 5 & 6.
- Obi-Keguna, H.U. (1984). Work Motivation Research In Nigeria: Problems And Prospects. Paper presented at the inaugural conference of the Nigerian Psychological Association, held in Benin City, April 4-7.
- Onosode, G.D. (1982). Productivity is a matter of right attitudes. Management In Nigeria, June.
- Premier Breweries Limited Employee Handbook, (1985). Onitsha: Premier Breweries Limited.
- Rabinowitz, S., and Hall, D.T. (1977). Organizational research on job involvement. Psychological Bulletin, 84(2), 265-288.
- Runyon, K.E. (1973). Some interactions between personality variables and management styles. Journal of Applied Psychology, 57, 288-294.
- Saal, F.E. (1978). Job involvement: A multivariate approach. Journal of Applied Psychology, 63(1), 53-61.
- Saleh, S.D. (1981). A structural view of job involvement and its differentiation from satisfaction and motivation. International Review of Applied Psychology, 31(1), 17-29.
- Sauser, W.I. Jr., and York, M. (1978). Sex differences in job satisfaction: A re-examination. Personnel Psychology, 31, 537-547.
- Schwylhart, W.R., and Smith, P.C. (1972). Factors in the job involvement of middle managers. Journal of Applied Psychology, 56, 227-233.
- Sekaran, U., and Mowday, R.T. (1981). A cross-cultural analysis of the influence of individual and job characteristics on job involvement. International Review of Applied Psychology, 30(1), 51-64.

- Siegel, A.L., and Ruh, R.A. (1973). Job involvement, participation in decision making, personal background, and job behavior. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 91, 318-327.
- Super, D.E. (1982). The relative importance of work; models and measures for meaningful data. The Counseling Psychologist, 10(4), 95-103.
- Vroom, V.H. (1959). Some personality determinants of the effects of participation. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 59(3), 322-327.
- Vroom, V.H. (1969). Industrial social psychology. In G. Lindzey and E. Aronson (Editors), The Handbook of Social Psychology, Vol.5, 2nd Edition. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley.
- Wanous, J.P. (1974). Individual differences and reactions to job characteristics. Journal of Applied Psychology, 59, 616-622.
- Weber, M. (1958). The protestant Ethic And The spirit of Capitalism. Translated by Talcott Parsons. New York: Charles scribner's Sons.
- Wiener, Y., and Gechman, A.S. (1977). Commitment: a behavioral approach to job involvement. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 10, 47-52.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THE PRE-TEST

Department of Psychology  
University of Nigeria  
Nsukka

Dear Sir/Madam,

Please reply to each of the items below as sincerely as you can.

YOU DO NOT NEED TO DISCLOSE YOUR NAMES. The purpose of this questionnaire is to serve as part of a research project being undertaken by the author for a post-graduate degree in Industrial/Occupational Psychology of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

*J. Odum*

PLEASE TICK (✓) AS APPROPRIATE:

1. Sex:  Male  Female
2. Age (in years): \_\_\_\_\_
3. Marital Status: Single  Married   
Divorced  Widowed
4. Number of children \_\_\_\_\_
5. Number of dependants \_\_\_\_\_
6. Number of gainfully employed persons in immediate family \_\_\_\_\_  
("Immediate family" here refers to father, mother, unmarried children, unmarried brothers, and unmarried sisters.)

APPENDIX A (Continued)

7. Highest attained level of formal education:

- First School Leaving Certificate or Below
- G.C.E./School Certificate or Equivalent
- N.C.E./O.N.D. or Equivalent
- H.N.D. or B.Sc/B.A.
- Post-graduate

8. Position occupied in your organization:

- Junior Staff
- Senior Staff

9. Type of job you perform in your organization:

- Technical
- Clerical
- Accounting
- Professional
- Administrative
- Managerial

10. Your basic salary per annum

- Less than N2999
- N3000 - N4999
- N5000 - N6999
- N7000 - N8999
- N9000 - N10999
- N11000 and above

11. For how long have you been working in your present organization?

\_\_\_\_\_ years, \_\_\_\_\_ months.

APPENDIX A (Continued)

12. For how long have you been doing your present job? (Include period on the same job before you joined your present organization.)

\_\_\_\_\_ years, \_\_\_\_\_ months.

13. Which one of the following would you prefer from your management for doing your job well? Tick (✓) just one:

- |                        |                          |
|------------------------|--------------------------|
| Gifts                  | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Praise                 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Letter of commendation | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| Money                  | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Below are a number of statements concerning your present job, each of which you may agree or disagree with depending on your own personal attitude toward your present job. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by ticking (✓) only one of the five spaces representing the answer categories (strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, strongly disagree).

Statements	<u>Answer Categories</u>				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
14. I'll stay overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it					
15. You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job he does					
16. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job					

APPENDIX A (Continued)

	<u>Statements</u>	<u>Answer Categories</u>				
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
17.	For me, mornings at work really fly by.					
18.	I usually show up for work a little early, to get things ready	---	---	---	---	---
19.	The most important things that happen to me involve my work.	---	---	---	---	---
20.	Sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day's work.	---	---	---	---	---
21.	I'm really a perfectionist about my work.	---	---	---	---	---
22.	I feel depressed when I fail at something connected with my job	---	---	---	---	---
23.	I have other activities more important than my work.	---	---	---	---	---
24.	I live, eat, and breathe my job	---	---	---	---	---
25.	I would probably keep working even if I didn't need the money	---	---	---	---	---
26.	Quite often I feel like staying home from work instead of coming in.	---	---	---	---	---
27.	To me, my work is only a small part of who I am.	---	---	---	---	---
28.	I am very much involved personally in my work.	---	---	---	---	---
29.	I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work	---	---	---	---	---
30.	I used to be more ambitious about my work than I am now.	---	---	---	---	---

APPENDIX A (Continued)

<u>Statements</u>	<u>Answer Categories</u>				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
31. Most things in life are more important than work.	—	—	—	—	—
32. I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me.	—	—	—	—	—
33. Sometimes I'd like to kick myself for the mistakes I make in my work.	—	—	—	—	—

APPENDIX B (Continued)

RESPONDENTS	X (Even)	Y (Odd)	xy
41	38	31	3.61
42	42	39	12.57
43	39	38	0.25
44	36	34	2.69
45	44	40	25.81
46	43	38	12.57
47	43	34	3.75
48	43	37	8.49
49	38	26	8.21
50	40	35	0.09
51	38	24	10.05
52	41	43	16.81
53	32	29	40.97
54	49	43	81.45
55	38	35	0.07
56	38	38	2.83
57	39	29	0.47
58	31	32	23.13
58	35	29	23.21
60	38	39	3.75
$\Sigma$	2335	2095	1188.56
Mean	39.92	34.92	
SD	4.65	5.64	

$$r_{XY} = \frac{\Sigma xy}{n \times s_x \times s_y} = \frac{1188.56}{60 \times 4.65 \times 5.64} = 0.76$$

Spearman-Brown correction for split-half reliability

$$= \frac{2 \times 0.76}{1 + 0.76} = 0.86$$



APPENDIX B (Continued)

RESPONDENTS	X (Even)	Y (Odd)	xy
19	50	39	45.21
20	41	43	16.81
21	47	41	49.13
22	39	34	0.07
23	37	35	0.15
24	36	28	20.21
25	45	38	18.73
26	32	24	75.57
27	46	45	71.37
28	28	26	97.41
29	40	40	5.49
30	36	28	20.21
31	43	46	45.21
32	49	38	12.57
33	30	32	26.05
34	38	28	6.37
35	31	31	31.05
36	44	40	25.81
37	34	38	15.15
38	38	29	5.45
39	44	38	15.65
40	37	37	3.99

APPENDIX C

CALCULATION OF INTERNAL CONSISTENCY RELIABILITY  
OF THE 20-ITEM JT QUESTIONNAIRE (PRE-TEST)

RONDENTS	ITEM SCORES																				Σ
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
1	1	4	5	2	5	4	1	1	5	5	1	1	3	2	4	1	2	1	4	4	56
2	4	4	5	2	4	2	5	3	4	5	1	2	5	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	76
3	3	3	4	2	4	2	5	3	4	5	1	2	5	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	74
4	2	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	1	1	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	73
5	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	3	5	5	3	2	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	78
5	5	4	3	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	1	3	2	5	4	4	1	4	3	67
7	4	2	4	3	5	5	4	3	2	4	3	2	5	2	4	5	2	4	2	5	70
8	4	4	2	3	4	2	4	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	4	4	68
9	2	4	1	5	5	5	4	2	5	5	4	3	1	5	5	5	5	1	4	5	76
10	3	4	4	1	4	5	5	5	2	3	4	3	5	3	3	3	2	4	5	5	73
11	4	5	2	4	4	3	5	4	4	2	4	2	4	2	4	4	4	2	4	4	71
12	5	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	5	5	4	1	5	5	5	5	1	5	5	4	85
13	5	4	5	5	2	5	5	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	93
14	3	4	2	2	5	4	2	2	4	2	2	1	4	2	4	4	2	2	5	4	60
15	2	4	3	4	5	5	5	4	4	4	2	4	4	1	4	5	5	3	5	2	75
16	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	2	2	4	1	1	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	2	71
17	2	5	3	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	80
18	4	4	2	3	5	2	2	3	4	4	3	2	5	3	5	4	5	3	4	4	71
19	5	4	5	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	2	5	1	5	5	5	5	89
20	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	4	5	5	4	2	2	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	68
21	5	5	5	4	5	4	5	4	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	2	4	4	4	4	86
22	2	4	5	3	5	5	4	3	5	5	3	5	5	3	4	1	3	5	3	4	77

2. You can measure a person pretty well  
by how good a job he does

APPENDIX C (Continued)

ITEM SCORES

RESPONDENTS	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
47	5	4	3	2	4	4	5	3	5	5	4	1	5	5	4	1	3	5	5	4	7
48	4	5	5	2	5	4	4	4	5	4	4	3	4	4	4	5	5	2	3	4	80
49	5	3	4	4	5	4	4	3	4	1	2	2	4	2	5	1	2	2	3	4	64
50	5	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	5	4	3	2	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	75
51	5	2	2	3	4	1	5	4	4	2	1	3	4	1	5	5	5	1	3	4	62
52	3	5	5	4	2	5	5	4	5	5	3	1	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	84
53	4	2	2	4	2	2	4	2	4	4	1	1	4	2	4	4	3	4	4	4	61
54	5	5	5	3	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	2	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	4	92
55	5	4	2	4	2	2	5	4	5	5	2	2	4	1	5	5	3	4	5	4	73
56	5	4	4	2	4	4	2	4	4	5	3	2	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	76
57	4	2	5	4	5	3	4	2	4	4	3	1	4	2	4	4	2	3	4	4	68
58	2	4	1	3	5	2	2	4	5	5	2	2	4	2	4	2	4	4	2	4	63
59	4	4	5	2	4	2	4	4	2	2	2	2	4	4	4	4	2	3	4	2	64
60	4	4	3	3	2	4	5	5	5	4	3	4	4		4	4	4	3	4	4	77
	228	222	222	208	256	216	247	209	258	241	171	151	240	151	260	226	215	202	244	243	4446
	3.72	3.7	3.7	3.47	4.27	3.6	4.12	3.48	4.9	4.02	2.85	2.52	4	3.2	4.33	3.77	3.58	3.37	4.07	4.05	74.1
$\sigma^2$	1.46	1.08	1.74	1.14	0.72	1.37	1.14	0.98	0.85	1.26	1.64	1.69	0.86	1.59	0.42	1.64	1.66	0.82	0.88	0.72	90.62

$\sum \sigma_i^2$  = Sum of variances of all individuals' scores for each item

$\sigma_t^2$  = Variance of total scores on the test

$$\text{Coefficient alpha} = \frac{\left(\frac{n}{n-1}\right) \sigma_t^2 - \sum \sigma_i^2}{\sigma_t^2}$$

$$= \frac{20}{19} \frac{90.62 - 24.58}{90.62} = 0.77$$

Internal Consistency Reliability = 0.77

1. you can measure a person pretty well by how good a job he does

APPENDIX C (Continued)

RESPO	ENTS	ITEM SCORES																				
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
21		5	4	4	2	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	1	2	4	4	72
22		4	2	4	5	4	1	4	2	4	4	1	2	4	4	4	2	4	2	3	4	64
23		5	4	5	5	4	4	4	3	5	4	5	4	4	2	4	4	4	5	5	5	85
24		1	2	5	5	4	2	5	5	4	4	1	1	5	1	5	2	1	1	1	1	56
25		5	4	5	3	4	5	5	4	4	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	4	5	4	5	91
26		1	2	2	4	4	4	1	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	4	2	4	2	5	4	54
27		4	5	4	2	4	4	5	3	5	5	3	4	2	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	80
28		4	2	4	5	4	1	4	2	4	4	1	2	4	4	4	2	4	2	3	4	64
29		5	4	5	3	5	5	5	4	3	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	1	5	5	4	89
30		4	4	5	5	4	4	5	3	5	4	4	2	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	5	81
31		1	4	1	5	3	2	4	5	2	2	3	1	2	4	4	3	5	3	5	3	62
32		3	1	4	5	4	2	4	1	5	4	4	1	2	3	4	3	4	3	4	5	66
33		1	5	2	4	5	5	4	4	5	1	2	1	3	1	2	4	5	1	1	5	62
34		4	4	5	5	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	2	4	3	5	5	4	4	4	5	84
35		3	2	5	2	5	4	1	3	5	5	2	5	3	4	5	5	2	4	3	4	76
36		3	1	2	4	5	4	4	5	4	1	5	1	4	5	5	5	1	1	5	2	67
37		4	5	3	4	5	3	4	3	5	4	3	4	5	4	5	5	5	3	5	5	82
38		4	4	2	3	5	3	5	4	4	5	1	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	74
39		4	4	5	2	4	4	4	2	5	4	2	2	4	2	4	4	2	3	4	4	69
40		4	4	3	2	5	4	5	4	5	5	3	4	3	5	5	5	5	5	4	5	81
41		4	4	2	4	5	4	4	5	5	5	1	1	4	1	5	4	5	3	4	4	77
42		4	3	2	4	5	2	5	4	4	4	1	5	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	70
43		4	5	5	4	4	4	5	4	5	5	4	5	5	2	5	2	2	5	5	4	84
44		4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	2	4	4	5	2	2	5	5	4	81
45		4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	5	2	2	5	5	5	81

46. You can measure a person pretty well  
by how good a job he does

APPENDIX D

THE QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THE MAIN STUDY

Department of Psychology  
University of Nigeria  
Nsukka

Dear Sir/Madam,

Please reply to each of the items below as sincerely as you can. YOUR NAMES ARE NOT REQUIRED. You should, therefore, reply to each item as you actually feel, not necessarily as you think you are supposed to feel. The purpose of this questionnaire is to serve as part of a research project being undertaken by the author for a post-graduate degree in Industrial/Occupational Psychology of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Yours sincerely,

*J. F. Odum*

Below are a number of statements people make or might make about their job, each of which you may agree or disagree with depending on how you feel toward your job. Please show how you agree or disagree with each statement by ticking (✓) only one of the five spaces representing the answer categories (Strongly agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Strongly disagree).

<u>Statements</u>	<u>Answer Categories</u>				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I'll stay overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job he does	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX D (Continued)

statements	Answer Categories				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
3. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job	--	--	--	--	--
4. For me, mornings at work really fly by.	--	--	--	--	--
5. I usually show up for work a little early, to get things ready	--	--	--	--	--
6. The most important things that happen to me involve my work	--	--	--	--	--
7. Sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day's work.	--	--	--	--	--
8. I'm really a perfectionist about my work.	--	--	--	--	--
9. I feel depressed when I fail at something connected with my job.	--	--	--	--	--
10. I have other activities more important than my work.	--	--	--	--	--
11. I live, eat, and breathe my job.	--	--	--	--	--
12. I would probably keep working even if I didn't need the money.	--	--	--	--	--
13. Quite often I feel like staying home from work instead of coming in.	--	--	--	--	--
14. To me, my work is only a small part of who I am.	--	--	--	--	--
15. I am very much involved personally in my work.	--	--	--	--	--
16. I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work.	--	--	--	--	--

ANSWER BOOK (Continued)

Statement	Answer Categories				
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
17. I used to be more ambitious about my work than I am now.					
18. Most things in life are more important than work.					
19. I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me.					
20. Sometimes I'd like to kick myself for the mistakes I make in my work.					

PLEASE TICK (✓) AS APPROPRIATE:

21. Sex: Male  Female
22. Age (in years): \_\_\_\_\_
23. Marital status: Single  Married
24. Number of children \_\_\_\_\_
25. Number of dependents \_\_\_\_\_
26. Number of gainfully employed persons in immediate family \_\_\_\_\_  
 ("Immediate family" here refers to father, mother, unmarried children, unmarried brothers, and unmarried sisters.)
27. Highest attained level of formal education:
- First School Leaving Certificate or Below
- G.C.E./School Certificate or Equivalent
- N.C.E./O.L.D. or Equivalent
- H.N.D. or B.Sc/B.A.
- Post-graduate

APPENDIX D (Continued)

28. Position occupied in your organization:

Junior Staff

Senior Staff

29. Type of job you perform in your organization:

General Duties

Technical

Clerical

Administrative/Managerial

30. Your basic salary per annum

Less than ₦2999

₦3000 -- ₦4999

₦5000 -- ₦6999

₦7000 -- ₦8999

₦9000 -- ₦10999

₦11000--and above

31. For how long have you been working in your present organization?

\_\_\_\_\_ years, \_\_\_\_\_ months.

32. For how long have you been doing your present job? (Include period on the same job before you joined your present organization.)

\_\_\_\_\_ years, \_\_\_\_\_ months.

33. Which one of the following would you prefer from your management for doing your job well? Tick (✓) just one:

Gifts

Praise

Letter of commendation

Money

