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Enquiries

**A STUDY OF CROSS-NATIONAL AND SUB-CULTURAL DIFFERENCES
IN JOB ATTITUDES OF NIGERIAN EMPLOYEES**

BY

ISAAC OLUSOLA ADIGUN

“

*A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the
Institute of Social and Applied Psychology, University of Kent at Canterbury*

- January, 1989 -

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ABSTRACT

This study reports the results of two studies that examined the influence of culture on job attitudes. It is postulated that organisational theories developed in advanced nations are not applicable in developing nations because of the variations among different countries in cultural values which the worker brings with him/her to the workplace and which consequently affect his orientations to work.

The first study which is exploratory in nature, focuses on cross-national differences using a sample of 31 British and 43 Nigerian subjects. The results provide evidence for cross-national differences in job attitudes. Content analyses of the critical incidents collected from the two national samples show that, the British subjects display a relationship of 'motivator' and 'hygiene' factors to 'high' or 'low' job attitude which are compatible with the motivator-hygiene theory, whilst the same is less true of the Nigerian sample.

The second (main) study concentrates on job attitudes of Nigerian employees (N = 350) and in particular, among the three sub-cultural groups dominating the entire population. Critical incident themes obtained among the Nigerian sample in the exploratory study are used to construct a questionnaire for the study. The results show that (i) job motivation in Nigeria is influenced by seven factors that showed some support for the components of some process and content theories; all but two of the seven factors appear to affect job motivation both positively and negatively and therefore contradicts Herzberg position on the unilateral influences of motivational factors, (ii) there exists similar pattern of antecedents of organisational commitment between the Nigerian employees and their counterparts in other cultures. Across the three sub-cultural groups studied, the overall results seem to indicate that employees' cultural background has little impact on their perceptions of job motivation and commitment. However, a number of different organisational and personal variables were found to affect responses.

Taken together, the results of both studies indicate that job attitudes differ from one country to another due to cultural variations in frames of reference, orientations and values prevailing in different countries. However, employees' job attitudes do not significantly differ among various sub-cultural groups in a given country. Practical and research implications of the findings are discussed as well as directions for future research.

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PART ONE

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER ONE

ORIGIN OF THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The study reported here was undertaken with a view to ascertaining among other things, the extent to which organisational theories and method that have been developed and tested in advanced countries such as the United States of America could be generalised, especially to developing nations such as Nigeria. The assumption was that theories developed in industrialised countries are inappropriate in developing nations because values concerning work and the workplace differ from one culture to another.

Specifically, the purpose of the present investigation was to shed some light on the questions of: (i) what are the factors that energise Nigeria employees and/or focus their behaviours in one direction or another, (ii) what are the determinants of employees commitment to their organisations in a developing country, and (iii) are these factors consistent with those obtained in other cultures. An attempt was also made to explore the existence of cross-cultural differences in important perceptions of the job and attitudes towards the job and in the relationships among these variables and then to try to relate these differences to properties of the various cultures.

Cultural differences can affect work attitudes in two major ways. First, by providing individual with different frames of reference or standards of comparison to judge and evaluate their employment situation with, so that an individual from one cultural background may perceive a job as conflict-laden and varied while an individual from a different cultural background may perceive the same situation as monotonous and conflict free. Such differences in frames of reference may be transmitted in early socialisation periods and internalised by the individual (Wanous, 1974), or they may reflect current differences in the norms and expectations held by the various cultural groups, in line with the social informational model of job attitudes (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978; O'Reilly and

Caldwell, 1979).

Secondly, cultural differences may be expressed not in the levels of job related perceptions and attitudes but rather in the relationships among the various perceptions and attitudes. In other words, individuals with varied cultural background may attach different values to certain facets of the job, and these differences may be reflected in differences in the relationships between the various facets and the individuals' overall evaluation of their jobs. For example, perceptions and attitudes related to the level of pay may be more strongly related to overall job satisfaction in the case of one cultural group than in the case of another.

While the present study presents data concerning the first type of cross-cultural difference, that is, differences in the level of perceptions and attitudes, it is mainly concerned with the second type of differences, that is, differences in the relationships among variables. More specifically, the study explores differences related to two job-related attitudes - job motivation and organisational commitment - among the three major cultural groups in Nigeria : Hausa, Ibo and Yoruba. Since these three groups vary drastically on numerous social and cultural dimensions, we assume that such differences will be generalised to the employment situation.

This chapter describes the setting of the study and the problem which motivated it, hoping that such information will help the reader to have a better understanding of the results of the investigation and the subsequent discussions.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Interest in and speculation about peoples other than members of the group one happens to have been born a part of have been evident from the days of the historian Hecataeus of Miletus, who lived five or six centuries before Christ. Hecataeus was alleged to have written two books about the inhabitants of the then-known world of Europe and Asia, but not until the nineteenth century did systematic studies of national character

appear; in that century, also, anthropologists began field studies of customs and beliefs.

It can be seen that before the nineteenth century industrial organisation used to be fairly simple entities in which the manager - owner was dominant. He did not have to share his power with decision-making factors such as workers, trade unions, shareholders, bankers, customers, suppliers, governments, and so on. The culture of management was to a large extent that of the country to which the organisation belonged, even if geographically it happened to operate outside its borders.

According to Weinshall (1977), in those days the only way to find out about the possible effect of a given society or culture on management was to get acquainted with the former through anthropological research. Anthropologists, however, preferred to devote their time and resources to primitive and 'out of the way' cultures rather than to those of industrialised countries. The reasons for these preferences were several. First, the more primitive the culture, the easier it is to encompass it and study it as a total system. Second (and closely related to the first reason), was the fact that the far-away cultures were 'pristine' and undisturbed by the influence of colonial or organisational expansion. It was only after the Second World War that anthropologists began to take interest in the more industrialised countries. By that time, organisations had become much more complex in their decision-making processes and much more advanced in their management structures.

At the turn of the nineteenth century, a team from Cambridge University started the first experimental psychology project among what would now be called underdeveloped peoples. Curiously, this early lead was not followed up until some years after Second World War, when experimental psychologists became interested in groups outside the urbanised and literate samples of Europe and North America. In the meantime, interest in the psychology of underdeveloped peoples was kept up by psychologists working in the areas of personality and organisational behaviour (Weinshall, 1977).

In recent years, due partly to the growth of academic and research institutions in such regions of the world as Africa and Latin America and partly to an interest in international

concerns among psychologists themselves, and management and organisational behaviour researchers, there has been an increase in studies which for want of a better term, have been labelled 'cross-cultural'. According to Nath (1968), this increase is due to the two significant developments that have taken place since the Second World War: (i) the emergence of relatively underdeveloped new nations, and (ii) the increasing number of international corporations and agencies.

Most of the developing nations are now embarked on a programme of rapid economic development with the help of developed nations. The process of industrial development requires both technical knowledge and the administrative and managerial capacity to utilise such knowledge effectively. By and large, the developed countries have been rather successful in rendering technical assistance, but less so in aiding in the transfer of administrative skills (e.g. leadership style). In fact, Niehoff and Anderson (1964) point out that, even success in the case of technical assistance programmes cannot be taken for granted. They show that a failure to take into account the local value in administering the programme has often resulted in the failure of the attempted reform. This is so because, management techniques and philosophies are affected by societal norms, cultural values and social emotional issues which enter into the transfer process. At the United Nations Conference on the 'Application of Science and Technology for the Benefit of Less-developed Areas' (1963), it was suggested by a number of speakers that the cultural milieu in which management had to operate exerted a strong influence, both on managerial practices and on its supply of competent managers.

Farmer and Richman (1964) argue that organisation theory has been primarily developed in the United States without much concern for the external environment. Thus, one cannot at all certain whether generalisations from this theory hold 'for all environments'. Indeed, the resolution of this uncertainty is one of the main grounds for undertaking cross-cultural research.

Specifically, a number of studies have been published in recent years that deal with

leadership and motivation patterns of employees from different cultures (Haire, Ghiseli and Porter, 1966; Hofstede, 1980a; Heller and Porter, 1966; Cawsey, Reed and Reddon, 1982; Blunt, 1973; Howard and Shudo and Umeshima, 1983 ; Bottger, Hallein and Yetton, 1985). These studies raise questions about the validity of the variables and subjects chosen for study and about the appropriateness of generalising a theory from one culture to another. In many of these studies, equity theory (Adams, 1965), two-factor theory (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959), need achievement theory (McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell, 1953) and expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) are invoked or questioned - either by the authors or by respondents to the research. The resultant debate in the literature centers on whether these, or any other American theories, can be applied elsewhere. Related to the applicability of theory is the question of the transferrability of management practices or norms from one culture to another. In recent years a profusion of books and articles have appeared that discuss this issue (Drucker, 1981; Schein, 1981; Pascale and Athos, 1981).

The perennial argument between those who believe that management is a science governed by universal principles and those who say that these principles are culture-bound will probably be intensified as a result of current cross-cultural research in industrial and organisational psychology and on job motivation specifically. Particularly, the needs of developing countries for advanced technical and managerial know-how in their economic development efforts will compel organisational behaviour researchers to ascertain which elements of existing management know-how are transferrable and which are not. It is indeed true that to date many management 'process school' theorists believe that "management is management wherever practiced, a universal profession whose principles can be applied in every organised form of human activity" (Merrill, 1963). A mere glance at the existing textbooks on principles of management will validate this point. Harbison and Myers (1959), after studying management practices in twenty-three countries came to the conclusion that "Organisation building has its logic which rests upon the development

of management and there is a general logic of management development which has applicability both to advanced and industrialising countries in the modern world." (p. 117). Other theorists who hold this universal view include Bendix (1956) and Likert (1963).

However, many cross-cultural studies of management practices have challenged this contention of the so-called universalists. Gonzalez and McMillan (1961) in their study of the applicability of the American management philosophy in Brazil, found that the management philosophy is culture bound, that "American philosophy of management is not universally applicable." (p. 39). Similarly, in his study of 'Cross-cultural Perspectives on Management Principles', Oberg (1963) argues that if the ground rules under which the manager operate are different in different cultures and/or countries, then it would be quite fruitless to search for a common set of strategies of management. From his overseas experience and empirical research in Brazil and the United States he concluded that:

"Cultural differences from one country to another are more significant than many writers (on management theory) now appear to recognise If management principles are to be truly universal they must face up to the challenge of other cultures and other business climates (universalist claim) is hardly warranted by either evidence or intuition at this stage in the development of management theory." (pp. 141-142).

It is likely that few management principles will be found to be truly universal, that is, the same for all known cultures of the world. Nevertheless, it may be that management principles do hold across a group of nations. For example, studies in the United States, India, England and Japan supported the same general principle that general supervision yield better productivity and over-all performance (Likert, 1963). However, studies in Peru (Whyte and Williams, 1963) and Federal Republic of Germany (Hartmann, 1959) supported the opposite finding, that close supervision is better. Similarly, Haire et al. (1966) found that the principle of hierarchical necessity in the ordering of needs is supported in the Anglo-American countries, and fails to find support in four other clusters of countries, that is, Japan, Nordic-European countries, Latin-European countries, and Developing countries.

In 'A methodological review of cross-cultural management research', Nath (1968) suggests that: "at this stage of the development of management theory, it may be more useful to concentrate on empirical studies to develop and test contingent hypotheses, and in a sense, abandon the quest for universal principles." A plausible explanation for this is the primitive ethnocentrism of many cross-cultural studies. Drever (1952), defined ethnocentrism as an "exaggerated tendency to think the characteristics of one's own group or race superior to those of other groups or races."

Ethnocentrism can be very subtle and it is certainly easier to recognise it in contributions from other cultures than from one's own. For example, Haire et al.'s study of manager motivations in fourteen countries mentioned earlier in this paper, showed that the authors forced their data into a classification according to Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of human needs. Maslow's hierarchy implies that needs appear in an order; some, like 'security', are lower, more basic; when a lower level need is satisfied, the next higher need takes its place, and so on. Haire et al. order their five need categories as follows : security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualisation. The latter is Maslow's supreme category, and in Haire et al.'s operationalisation it includes three items : personal growth, self-fulfillment, and accomplishment.

To reiterate an earlier point, Haire et al. found that theoretical classification of five types of needs according to their priority exactly fits the patterns of results for the United States and England. Particularly, the data show that if we follow the categorisation of Maslow (who was an American), the scores from American managers follow the hierarchy of Maslow's theory more than those from other countries' managers. Interpreting this finding, it tells us more about Maslow than about the other countries' managers. Maslow categorised and ordered his human needs according to the United States middle-class culture pattern in which he was embedded himself - he could not have done otherwise. American theories fit American value patterns, and African theories will fit African value patterns. If we recognise culture as an all-encompassing influence on our mental

programming, as pointed out recently in an article 'Motivation, Leadership and Organisation: Do American Theories Apply Abroad' (Hofstede, 1980a), this should be no surprise. In taking Maslow's theory (or any other theories of motivation), and applying it to other cultures, however, Haire et al. (and any other researchers that have followed suit) have unconsciously and unintentionally been ethnocentric.

A casual glance at the voluminous literature related to cross-cultural organisational research shows that ethnocentrism is already present in the instruments used for the collection of data. The past two decades have seen an increase in comparative research on job attitudes by industrial social psychologists and business doctoral candidates, which consists of taking a questionnaire designed and pretested in the United States on students or business managers, sometimes translating it and administering it in other countries. (For comprehensive review of such studies, see for example, Ajiferuke and Boddewyn, 1970; Barrett and Bass, 1976; Nath, 1968; Roberts, 1970). Popular instruments include, 'Job Descriptive Index', 'Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire', 'Personality Research Form', 'Porter Need Satisfaction Questionnaire', 'Rokeach Value Survey', 'Sarnoff Survey of Attitudes Toward Life' and 'Likert Satisfaction Scale'. In this case, the ethnocentrism starts at the data collection. Questions are only about issues raised by the United States designers of the instrument which proved relevant to their test population and for which the American language has words.

Thus, the above review indicates that most of the cross-cultural studies bear a 'made in USA' stamp at present. They examine job attitude in other cultures from an American point of view. Campbell (1968) stated :

"increasingly high research standards mean increasingly high research budgets which further increase predominance of USA initiative. We need machinery which will make possible the distribution of research initiative among all nations at the same time achieving the value of multinational comparison." (p. 256).

By spreading the wealth this way, it may be found that what is significant and researchable question in one culture is simply no mystery in another. Berrien (1966) offered

several examples of the fact that issues studied in one culture may be of such trivial consequence in another culture as to be meaningless. This brings us back to the inexpedience of the quest for universal principles of management. One of the main findings of our literature review is that management principles, especially those related to employees job satisfaction and motivation are culture bound.

Let us apply these conclusions specifically to the question of job motivation and job satisfaction. The thrust of the arguments thus far culminates in a plea for a 'culturally-based' (Brown et al., 1973) conception of job satisfaction derived from a contextual and situational analysis of productive and nonproductive behaviours. In an important sense, motivation must be understood in terms of the social-cultural context in which they are found, as well as in terms of generalised descriptions of achieving norms or abstract constructions of psychological process. It is a truism, we cannot avoid ethnocentrism completely. As Nevis (1983) rightly questioned, "What framework can be used, other than the one that is known to the observer and that serves as her or his way of organising reality?" (p. 250). Admittedly, we have to start somewhere - an American must start from the base of American theories such as Maslow's and Herzberg's. It may be the only practical way to formulate questions and observations. But our contention is that we can do a lot better than we do now when extending our interests to other cultures. Data-collection methods can be culturally decentered. Perhaps, then, we would do well to pursue an ethnographic approach to the study of job attitude particularly in work with varied cultural groups.

1.3. Rationale for this Study

So far, we have emphasised in our discussion the inappropriateness of applying theories developed in advanced countries in cross-cultural research. The rest of our discussion center on specific problems tackled by the present investigation and the importance of the proposed topic.

The importance of job motivation for employees organisations and society as a whole cannot be overstated. Productivity of organisations and entire nations depend in part on the motivation of those nation's workforce. In the developing countries where productivity is comparatively lower than that in developed countries, the issues of motivation assume added significance. Certainly, motivation to work by itself alone without appropriate accompanying technology and employees' abilities and attitudes is not sufficient to boost productivity. But that motivation is so essential an ingredient of productivity, especially for industrial employees, is best illustrated in Ritchman's (1967) study of managers from China, India, Russia, and the United States; he wrote that : "Thus far, Red China has achieved substantial industrial progress more because of managerial motivation and attitudes than because of managerial technical know-how." (p. 70).

The importance of motivation has been long appreciated in the behavioural sciences. Research especially in the field of psychology has led to the development, testing, and refining of several theories and constructs - e.g. equity theory, Adams (1965); motivation-hygiene theory, Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, (1959); need achievement theory, McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell, (1953); and expectancy theory, Vroom (1964) - to explain and predict motivation in work settings. Most of this research has studied people in industrially advanced nations. Very little has been conducted in developing countries, especially in Nigeria. Today, as underdeveloped nations attempt to industrialise and build their economies, they face major problems, one of which is how to motivate their work forces. Problems of Motivation continue to plague many developing nations and are evident from the low productivity of many of these countries, despite heavy borrowing of capital and technology from the industrially developed countries.

For example, in the young African nation of Nigeria, problems of work motivation (or rather unsatisfactory attitudes toward work) cannot be more adequately illustrated. Gross inefficiency, incivility to customers, lack of punctuality, and failure to apply oneself diligently to statutory duties are vices characteristic of many workers in contemporary

Nigeria. Incidents of missing files and vouchers that later surface after gratuities are offered often occur in public offices. Reluctance or outright refusal to discharge official duties for flimsy excuses characterises many public and, to a lesser extent, private firms in Nigeria (Nduka, 1982); and stealing of official time and facilities for the pursuit of private ends permeates the hierarchy of wage-earning employees. President Shehu Shagari's admission (head of state address to the 17th Convocation Ceremony of the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria, as reported in the 9 March 1982 issue of the *National Concord*), that the Nigerians' attitude toward work is "one of the worst in the world," and his plea that the country could "achieve wonders if only every Nigerian (were) prepared to do an honest day's work for an honest day's pay" are perhaps the best articulation of the problem.

Although the problems of motivation have been evident in many developing countries (the very low productivity and continued complaints from political leaders in some of these countries about 'low productivity', 'inefficiency' and 'lack of will' to work hard on the part of the workforce; Lamb, 1979), few systematic investigations of the motives, values, habits and orientations that affect work behaviour have been conducted in these countries. Recognition of the developing countries' problems of low productivity prompted the global 'North-South dialogue', the most recent meeting of which was held in Cancun, Mexico ('A Survival Summit', 1981), but little has been done to research job motivation in many industrially disadvantaged nations. Instead, as Heller (1969) correctly observed, stress has been placed on the development of infrastructures like roads, railroads, electrical, power communications networks, and so forth. Although, such aspects of industrialisation provide a workplace, reactions they elicit from people in different parts of the world will not be identical. The implicit, but unwarranted assumption in stressing physical over human factors appears to be that people in these countries will respond to work situations just as their counterparts in the industrialised countries do. However, "the motivation of members to belong, work and advance in the organisation may be different from one society to another" (Tannenbaum, 1980: p. 283).

Barrett and Bass (1976), and Tannenbaum (1980) reviewed some previous cross-cultural studies related to job attitudes in many countries including some developing nations. But most of the studies have taken naive view of the nature of cultural differences and the role these differences play in predicting factors that influence employees' job attitude. Hence, these studies have severe and related limitations:

- (a) cross-cultural research has tended to emphasise comparisons across cultures rather than the job motivation factors that apply in a specific culture or country; the problem here is that what is important in any one culture may thereby be overlooked.
- (b) cross-cultural research on job attitudes may only provide fragmentary information at best or useless information at worst because most of these research aimed at validating one or two theories (developed in one culture) in a number of cultures.
- (c) most cross-cultural studies of job attitude problems have been comparisons among developed nations and the more advanced of the developing nations such as India, Argentina, Chile, and Mexico rather than among the less developed nations such as Tanzania, Nigeria and Ghana - specifically, no single comparative study among African countries is found.
- (d) cross-cultural research has given only limited attention to some situational variables (which are culture specific) that affect motivation.

Failures and weaknesses in cross-cultural research in the field of organisational psychology led Roberts (1970) to conclude an evaluative review of organisational related research with the statement that "increment in knowledge seems minimal and possibly not worth the effort thus far placed in cross-cultural work." (p. 345).

Although Roberts' assessment may be too harsh, the failures of cross-cultural research, particularly with regard to the needs of developing nations, and the general paucity of motivation research in these countries suggest more research and a new approach. That is, there is more need for people studying workers' attitude in developing nations to focus on observing, examining, and understanding work behaviour in those

countries than on validating theories developed elsewhere. The review of previous studies suggest that theories developed in industrialised countries may be inappropriate in developing nations because of their different value system. This need not represent a total rejection of validating theories developed in industrially advanced countries. It does involve preparedness on the part of cross-cultural researchers to develop new concepts of job motivation for different regions of the world if the data they collect do not fit into current theory.

In a sense, what is needed is an empirical approach that does not limit itself to some given a priori theoretical framework(s). Such an approach must begin by observing and examining productive and nonproductive work behaviours in work organisations in regions or cultures thus far not well studied, then proceed to develop theoretical concepts around the observations. Such an approach has major advantages :

- (i) from a theoretical standpoint, analysis of data collected can allow us to determine the degree to which job motivation in those cultures fits existing theory, and provide material to build new theory for those regions or modify current theory if the data so suggests.
- (ii) perhaps more important for the development of these countries, this approach would provide information that would be more likely to be used to enhance local job motivation and productivity.

Thus, this approach aims at theory building, practical applications and allows indirect cross-cultural comparisons.

1.4. Aims of the Study

It is against the above problems that this study is conceived and it primarily aims at :

- (1) investigating job attitude in Nigeria by examining perceived conditions, events, and processes that characterise highly productive and highly unproductive work behaviour.

- (2) providing cross-national empirical evidence for the differences between employees in developed and less developed countries, Britain and Nigeria respectively, in patterns of factors contributing to high and low job attitudes.
- (3) assessing the determinants of two relatively common job attitudes in organisational research - job motivation and organisational commitment - among the Nigerian workforce in general and specifically among the three major sub-cultural groups.
- (4) investigating the relationships between the dependent variables (measures of employees' perceptions of job motivation and commitment) and the independent variables (personal and organisational variables), as well as interactive effects between the independent variables as they relate to the dependent variables.
- (5) comparing the observed relationships (i) with those obtained by previous researchers in other cultures, and (ii) among the three sub-cultural groups.
- (6) determining the degree to which data from a developing nation (Nigeria) challenges and modifies existing theories of motivation and how if at all, such data may be used to adapt existing theory to the culture and unique conditions of an under-developed nation.
- (7) providing framework for the cross-cultural study of job motivation that stresses the importance of contextual conditions in eliciting motivating factors and that emphasises cultural relativity in the definition of the concept.
- (8) developing a locally relevant body of knowledge by formulating a motivation theory based on factors that support and accommodate some elements of various contemporary job motivation theories (developed in advanced countries), usable in developing countries particularly those that have social, cultural, and economic conditions similar to Nigeria.

We shall now look at the nature of the society in which our problem is located, in an attempt to highlight salient features which may influence our expectations about motivation to work of its members.

1.5. The Nigerian Context

Nigeria is one of the most populous country in Africa, with an estimated population of about 80 million people. It covers an area of about 941,849 square kilometers which implies an overall population density of about 85 person per square kilometer (Federal Ministry of National Planning, 1981). The coastline stretches for 800 kilometers from Badagry in the west to Calabar in the east, and includes the Bights of Benin and Bonny. Its boarders are contiguous with the Republic of Benin (Dahomey) to the west, Niger Republic to the north and the Republic of Cameroon to the east (see Figure 1).

The most prominent physical feature of Nigeria is the Niger River from which the country takes its name. It rises in the mountains northeast of Sierra Leone, traverses the northwest, joins the Benue River at Lokoja, near the center of Nigeria, and then flows due south into the Gulf of Guinea. Despite its length and dispersion, Nigeria's river system has not been a great commercial waterway for trade with the outside world, nor has it contributed significantly to the growth of an internal exchange economy. Navigational obstacles such as seasonal variations in water levels and shifting sand bars at the mouth of the Niger have not only restricted its use to sea-going ships of very shallow draft, but also limited the development of the river ports. Moreover, the heavily populated areas in the far north and in the west are at a considerable distance from these rivers. The river system therefore has not facilitated - indeed, in some respects it has positively hampered - economic intercourse among the major ethnic groups in Nigeria.

Until the second half of the 1960s, the economy of the country depended mainly on agricultural products, including oil-palm products from the eastern part of the country, cocoa and groundnuts in the western and northern parts respectively. In 1960, agriculture accounted for 70 percent of the GDP - Gross Domestic Product (Third National Development Plan 1975-1980), but agricultural products were and still are subject to the violent fluctuation in prices in the world market. Accordingly, earnings from that source were not very reassuring.

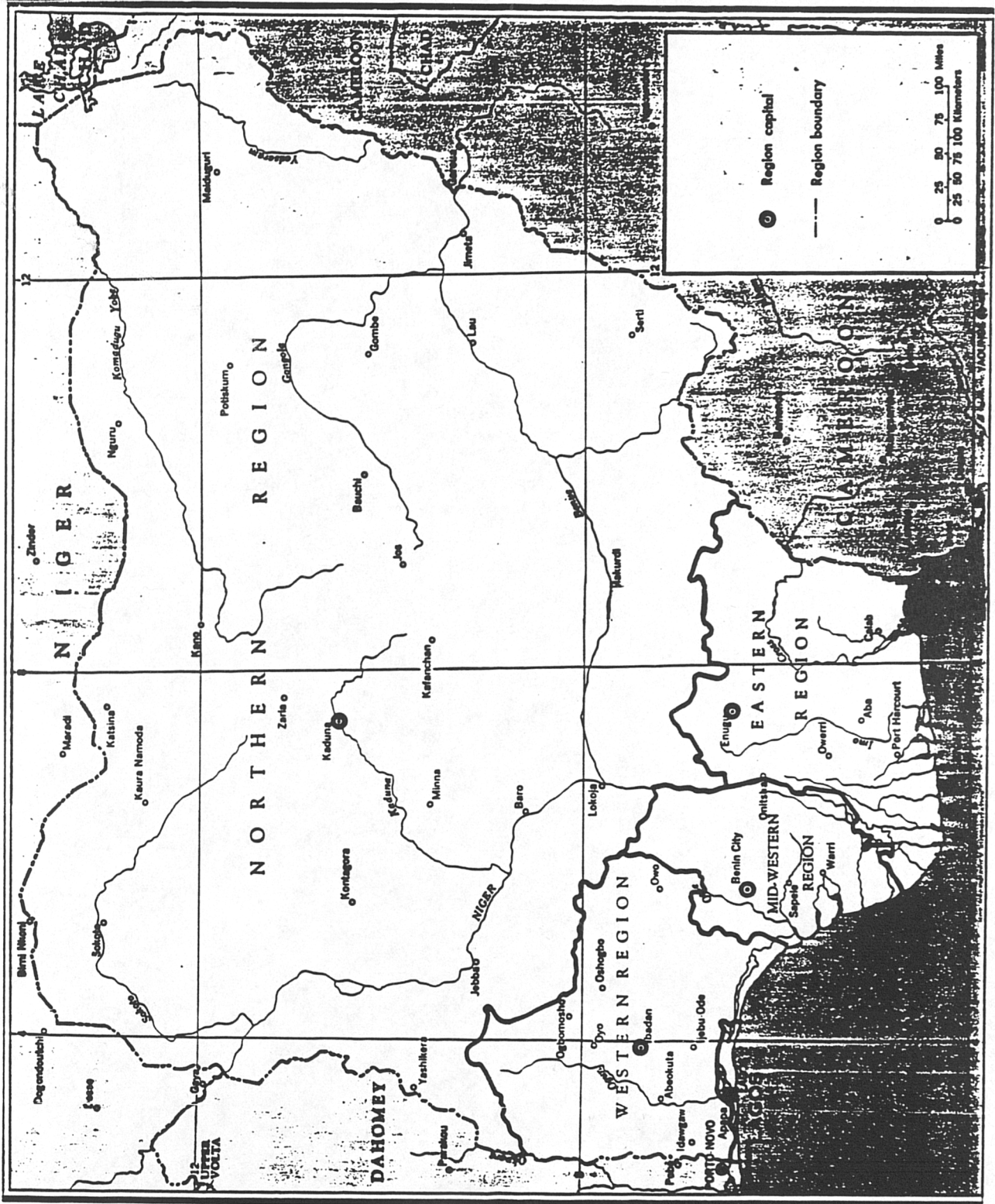


Figure 1 : Map of Nigeria

Manufacturing is still in its infancy in Nigeria. Engineering is largely repair and maintenance work, though structural steelwork is undertaken, and there are a few firms engaged in the assembly of imported components. In 1956, textile manufacture was negligible, but since then a large cotton mill has been established at Kaduna and later cigarette factories at Ibadan, Port Harcourt, and Zaria.

At the moment petroleum dominates the economy, while agricultural production languishes in the hand of a peasantry which lacks modern methods and mature organisation. Formerly, the major export crops of cocoa, palm products and groundnuts generated the export credits to pay for the importation of most manufactured goods. However, since the civil war, petroleum has emerged as the leading foreign exchange earner. For example, before the civil war petroleum accounted for less than twenty percent of the foreign export earnings, but currently, recently released figures indicate that now ninety-two percent of Nigeria's foreign export earnings come from oil (West Africa, July 8, 1973).

The importance of the oil industry is further reflected in Nigeria's external reserves, its annual budgets, and the major projects undertaken in recent years. Table 1 shows the dominant role of the industry's foreign exchange earnings compared with the traditional agricultural products. As can be seen in this Table, the growth in the oil sector has had implications for industrial and commercial development. Because money was available, the Nigerian potential was quickly spotted by entrepreneurs who, having sized up the opportunities, moved in. Furthermore, the 'oil-boom' enabled the government to engage in modernisation of the country's infrastructure, roads, telephones, and other public utilities. The construction and building industry in particular flourished. These in turn created employment and acted as a stimulus to industrial development.

In 1965 a new refinery was opened at Port Harcourt, and this was followed by two more, one at Warri (in 1978) and the other in Kaduna (in 1980). Again, the Ajaokuta Steel Mill, the steel plant at Warri and the huge electric plant at Sapele all flow from the 'effects'

TABLE 1: Nigeria's external trade: exports (N million) 1970-80

Description	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980
1. Oil sector											
Petroleum (crude)	510.0	953.0	1 176.2	1 893.5	5 365.7	4 563.7	6 321.6	7 072.8	5 401.6	10 166.8	13 523.0
2. Non-oil sector											
Cocoa	133.0	143.2	101.1	112.4	159.0	181.8	218.9	311.1	377.9	432.2	311.8
Groundnuts	43.6	24.4	19.1	45.5	6.8	—	0.2	0.1	—	—	—
Palm kernels	21.8	25.8	15.7	18.9	43.7	13.5	27.0	32.6	12.7	11.8	11.5
Rubber (natural)	17.4	12.4	7.4	19.4	33.2	15.2	14.4	11.1	12.6	13.0	11.8
Timber (logs and sawn)	6.2	5.2	8.1	1.5	11.2	4.6	0.9	0.5	0.1	—	—
Tin metal	33.8	24.2	19.1	15.5	26.4	20.4	15.5	13.3	9.4	10.8	9.8
Other exports	199.6	105.2	87.5	171.7	148.8	122.7	152.6	189.1	187.7	147.2	147.0
	455.4	340.4	257.4	384.9	429.1	358.2	429.5	557.8	600.4	615.0	491.9

— = no exports.

Source: Nigeria's Principal Economic and Financial Indicators, 1970-80, issued by the Central Bank of Nigeria.

of the oil industry. In addition to the very many uses that natural gas may be put to, including electricity and cooking gas, the industry is likely to generate many other industries, including plastic products, caustic soda and fertilisers. These government investments, financed from petroleum revenue, have the effect of stimulating the growth and development of industrial labour force.

As Nigeria becomes developed and transformed into a modern industrial society, the traditional aspirations may expand to include job security, participation in work decisions, etc. The educated workforce is fully aware of events around them, and with the change in the economic environment the workers will seek to achieve and maintain a sense of personal worth and importance, and to receive recognition and reward for what they do (Ukpanah and Udo-Aka, 1975). This will throw a direct challenge to the employers in trying to balance the competing interests of the workers, the shareholders and the society.

When Nigeria became independent on October 1, 1960, after being under British colonial rule for periods ranging from approximately fifty to approximately hundred years (Crowther, 1978), it was divided into three large regions (Eastern, Western, and Northern Nigeria), and in July 1963 a fourth region, the Midwest, was carved out of Western Nigeria. These regions have now been subdivided into twenty-one States (see Table 2). The regions' relationship to Nigeria's Federal Government is analogous to that of the American States to the American Federal Government. Nigeria federation is unique, however, in that one of its federal subdivisions, the Northern Region, has much more land and a few more people than the rest of the country combined.

Each region is dominated by an ethnic group, the vast majority of whose members live within it. In the Eastern Region the Ibo dominate, in the Western Region the Yoruba and the Northern Region is dominated by the Hausa-Fulani. Each of the dominant groups has its own history, tradition, and language and each has a contemptuous expression with which to describe the others, or all strangers. Each of the dominant groups has a greater population than any of the four countries that border upon Nigeria. Each would be quite

Table 2

The Emergence of Nigeria's States

<u>1963 (4 Regions)</u>	<u>1967 (12 States)</u>	<u>1976 (19 States)</u>	<u>1987 (21 States)</u>
Eastern	{ East Central South Eastern Rivers	{ Cross-Rivers Anambra Imo Rivers	{ Cross-Rivers Anambra Imo Rivers Akwa-Ibom
Western	{ Lagos Western	{ Lagos Ogun Ondo Oyo	{ Lagos Ogun Ondo Oyo
Northern	{ Kwara North Western North Central Benue Plateau North Eastern Kano	{ Kwara Niger Sokoto Kaduna Benue Plateau Gongola Borno Bauchi Kano	{ Kwara Niger Sokoto Kaduna Benue Plateau Gongola Borno Bauchi Kano Katsina
Mid-Western	Mid-Western	Bendel	Bendel

capable, had history developed differently, of being a medium-sized African nation itself. Their jealousies have dominated Nigeria's politics (see Coleman, 1971).

Within each region there are a number, and in the North a multitude of other minority groups. Each of them has its own language and traditions. As power passed from British to Nigerian hands, and the dominant position of the Ibo, the Yoruba, and the Hausa within the three original regions became clear, separatist movements sprang up among many of the minority groups. Often, the ethnic minority of one region allied itself with the ethnic majority of another, and thus regional politics have had the same ethnic cast as national politics.

Added to the ethnic differences between Nigeria's peoples are religious differences and differences in the impact of Western civilisation brought by colonial administrators. Islam has great influence upon most Northern groups, a lesser, though substantial influence in the West and next to no influence in the East. Christianity, conversely, has had great success in the East and West, but has met with almost no success in the Northern Region, where Islam was firmly established before the Christian Missionaries arrived. Both religions brought with them tools and skills necessary to widen man's horizons beyond his tribe. They are, for example, responsible for writing in Nigeria. With Islam came the Arabic script to the North; Christian missionaries in the South first put the Southern languages into writing and taught English as well (Fafunwa, 1970).

Similarly, Western secular civilisation has affected Nigeria's ethnic groups in very different ways. Because modern power depends largely upon acquisition of the skills of the West, new tensions have been thereby created. The Yoruba often regard themselves as superior to other Nigerian groups because the effects of Western education have spread widest and deepest among them. The Ibo, starting later, have almost caught up, but their aggressive efforts to do so have made the Yoruba jealous and angry. The Islamic peoples in the North have only very recently perceived their need for Western education which, with British encouragement they had rejected earlier (Crowther, 1978). They are still far less

willing than the Southerners to adopt Western ways, though, anomalously perhaps, the Northern elite is less self-consciously African than the Southern elite.

Some observers, both Nigerian and Foreign, have considered all the differences among Nigeria's peoples and have derided the very concept of a Nigerian nation. Thus, Awolowo (1947), leader of the opposition at the time of independence, stated early in his career :

"Nigeria is not a nation. It is a mere geographical expressionThe word 'Nigeria' is merely a distinctive appellation to distinguish those who live within Nigeria from those who do not." (pp. 47-48).

Similarly, a British governor, Clifford (1920) characterised the Nigerians as a :

"..... collection of self-contained and mutually independent Native states, separated from one anotherby vast distances, by differences of history and traditions, and by ethological, racial, tribal, political, social and religious barriers." (p. 194).

Other countries once dismissed as mere geographical expression have proved their right to be known as nations. Italy is an example. But, unlike Italy, Nigeria has neither a common faith, nor a common language (except to the extent that English serves as one for the elite) nor a historical tradition with the unifying force that the Roman Empire had for the modern Italian nation. Until independence in 1960, there was never a Nigerian, or a group of Nigerians who governed the entire country, or even one of its regions, though in the last few years of colonial rule the British had turned over more and more responsibility for government to the Nigerians (Coleman, 1971).

In a further attempt to show the distinctness of the three major ethnic groups, we shall now take a look at variations in their attitudes and behaviour patterns. This brings us to the unique and interesting features about Nigeria which make a study of job attitudes among the three main cultural groups an important venture.

1.5.1. Characteristic Features of the Three Cultural Groups Studied

According to Peil (1972), the social and cultural factors which constitute the structure of a society have an important role in the development of an industrial relations system in

any society. These factors affect and influence the behaviour of people and their general attitude to work and to leadership, to group cohesion and to their individual role in an organisation. In this section, we shall discuss certain of these societal factors or cultural values which the industrial workers among each of the three groups bring to the workplace and subsequently determine their impact on the workers. In this connection, the relevant question to ask is : what are the differences in cultural background of the industrial worker in Nigeria? To answer this question, we shall examine certain characteristic features of the three main cultural groups - Hausa, Ibo and Yoruba - based on limited available evidence.

It must be stated at the outset that as industrial workers among the three cultural groups migrate from the rural to the urban centres, they have in common a number of relevant socioeconomic attributes of rural life which they share with other West African societies. First, the three groups are unskilled in the modern sense of the word and are engaged primarily in agricultural pursuits, as we have already seen. The hub of activity in the village is the family, the immediate social unit regulating the life of the individual - both socially and economically. The economic activities of the people are exclusively on the land, the mainstay of their livelihood. Land does not belong to an individual; it belongs to the family and is managed on behalf of all by the oldest male member of the family. The head of each household is allotted a piece of land for farming by the head of the family acting on behalf of the family. The farmer, his wife and children then work the land, with the farmer directing the farm policy. He is responsible for the decisions as to how income realised should be spent. Generally, wage payment is not involved but the farmer provides the needs of his wife and children. Where members of a household are in difficulty, the family comes to their aid. Thus, a system of social security exists, designed to ensure the survival of the family and its members.

Second, in each of the three societies, there is high regard for age and experience and individual is prepared to accept the leadership of the older and more experienced person. Third, following the second point, the individual in the rural family is subject to a rigid

discipline and family (team) cohesion and is prepared to contribute to ensure the survival of that family. Therefore, the individual who comes to the urban centres to look for a job is not completely 'green', as he comes with ingredients of respect for properly constituted authority (his manager, for example), respect for a more knowledgeable and experienced person (his supervisor, for example), and has the discipline demanded by the group (such as union). These then are the general heritage of rural life common to all industrial workers in Nigeria irrespective of their cultural backgrounds.

However, the above background which is common to workers in many developing countries has led to the popular belief that workers in these countries come to modern industry with a handicap. The theory holds that as the whole background is the rural subsistence economy, where the tempo is regulated by farming seasons and is characterised by the informal and traditional life on the land, the job seeker who come to the urban area for industrial employment with no experience of modern machinery and a general lack of rigid discipline which modern industrial employment demands, is at a severe disadvantage. Furthermore, having been 'pushed' from the land in the village into the urban areas, there is again the 'pull' towards the village and to the family to which the individual belongs. Consequently, it is believed that such workers refuse to commit themselves to life in the city and the discipline of factory work, while yet others return to the village to take up family responsibilities (Myers and Kannappan, 1970). As a result, it is assumed that productivity is low and absenteeism and labour turnover are high.

Kilby (1960), who has undertaken extensive study of productivity in Africa (including Nigeria), once concluded that ".....in the context of the economics of development, low labour productivity may be considered as a primary characteristic of underdeveloped countries." He further observed : "The situation which has therefore emerged is characterised by high rates of absenteeism and turnover, lateness to work, inefficiency and inaptitude in the workplace....." Several factors were cited as responsible for this situation. The first is that under the traditional subsistence economy

work for personal gain was not known. Instead work was regarded as part of communal activity to be performed intermittently for limited and immediate purposes. Sex and age greatly influenced attitudes towards division of responsibility. It is also pointed out that the factors which make the African worker look for wage-paid labour, limited as they sometimes are, tend to have tremendous influence on his attitude to work and make him place high value on leisure. It is also stated that, to him (African worker), the meaning of work is simply that of providing money to satisfy their needs.

Many of these observations are systematically biased and were based on studies dating as far back as the 1960s. Since then a lot of things have changed. These studies were also carried out largely by Europeans in Europeans-dominated multiracial African countries where conditions under which the African lived and worked were inadequate. In Nigeria, as in many other countries, too much reliance was placed on information given by management, who are after all an interested party and will present biased evidence either on racial grounds or as a plea for continuing to pay low wages.

Another factor, evident from a study of the Nigerian situation, is that many industrial establishments do not bother to carry out a comprehensive study of factors bearing on productivity. Moreover industrial managers, mostly expatriates, lead a secluded life and so are in darkness as to the basic problems facing their workers.

However, the present study will see if the above assumptions on the effect of societal factors on workers' attitude hold in present-day Nigeria. We now take a brief look at specific characteristic features of each of the three cultural groups that participated in the present study.

The Hausa

The Hausa people are settled mainly in the north of Nigeria but also in the south of the Niger republic, which essentially consists of the basin of the Sokoto river and its tributaries to the west, and of a great plateau to the east. Unlike the lineage organised

societies of the southern half of Nigeria, the history and the social structure of the Hausa manifests many of the characteristics of North African socio-economic formations (Smith, 1965). Islam has taken hold by the fourteenth century, it become the popular religion and continues to be the basis of Hausa culture.

Politically, Hausaland has for long comprised a number of *Emirates* owing a common allegiance to the *Caliph* (Sultan) of Sokoto. Each *Emirate* was centred upon a capital town in which the *Emir* resided. Simply stated, the pre-colonial stratification system was composed of two basic strata or estates : the ruling-class (or *Sarakuna*) and the commoners (or *Talakawa*). During the colonial and nationalist period the *Sarakuna* dominated administrative and scholarship positions, both Islamic and western, while colonial economic development processes produced a differentiation of the *Talakawa* into more distinct social categories, best described as objective classes defined by the distinctiveness of the role each performed in the social division of labour (Smith, 1959).

Of interest in our discussion of the *Talakawa* is the development of a wealthy merchant class that is now investing in manufacturing industry, and correspondingly, the development of an urban wage labour group, commonly referred to as *leburori*, that is manual wage labourers, engaged in both bureaucratic and entrepreneurial wage relationships who, from the 1930's occupied certain sections of the Hausaland. Thus, unlike less stratified African societies, the Hausa industrial workers emerge with an explicit inequality consciousness of being a member of the *Talakawa* which, in turn, was reinforced by the colonial and national occupational status of *leburori* - all of which provide the ideological foundation for an industrial working class identity.

In discussing the government of contemporary Hausa society, Smith (1960) indicates that (i) political office is the most important means of acquiring wealth and social position, overshadowing other alternatives; (ii) clientage (serving others) is the primary means of acquiring political office; and (iii) clientage is widely practiced in the population and is an attribute of social organisation at all levels. This system places a premium on loyalty

obedience, and sensitivity to the demands of those in authority over a man; excellent performance in an independent occupational role, self-instigated action towards goals that do not benefit the competitive chances of a man's patron, do not yield the man access to the major status rewards of the society and might conceivably damage his career. Furthermore, as suggested by Smith, there are no significant alternatives to clientage and its authoritarian habits for a man of ambition.

Smith (1959) points out that 'ruling' and its attendant patterns of subservience and obedience (clientage) are inescapable aspects of social life in traditional and contemporary Hausaland. On their system of occupational ranking, Smith writes :

"In this scheme, *sarauta* (ruling) is an occupation and outranks all others. *Mallanci* (Koranic learning) and *kasuwanci* (successful trading), which have universalistic emphases, rank next. Below these comes the great majority of the traditional Hausa occupations; ranking lowest of all are butchers, praise-singers, drummers, blacksmiths, house servants, and hunters." (p. 251).

This indicates that acts of religious devotion, success in trading or even higher position in industrial organisation may somewhat raise a man's prestige, but major social rewards or the attainment of the most prestigious positions in Hausaland are achievable only through clientage. This is a status system which strongly favoured qualities of servility, respect for authority, allegiance to the powerful, and rejected qualities of independent achievement, self-reliant action, and initiative.

Among the Hausa, the rule of Islam law and tradition affects much more than mere religious worship for the rationale derived from Islamic law profoundly affects such seminal socio-economic exchanges as : land tenure, inheritance, taxation and even political legitimacy. Also, in the Islamic context, class-based protest often takes on the overt characteristics of a religious conflict. For example, within Islamic traditions and institutions, such as *sufi* brotherhoods and *jihadi* movements, profound changes have occurred historically in West Africa and, without doubt, the Islamic tradition will continue to be the ideological repository for the oppressed and Islamised peoples of West Africa.

Moreover, from the author's own observation, within Islamic traditions women are expected to cover every part of their body including face, head, and feet when going out, as a result, majority of them are restricted from taking wage labour but stay at home as *eleha* (full-time housewives), to take care of their children and husbands. The implication of this is that, men have to work very hard in order to provide for the needs of the family.

Meanwhile, for the commoner estate, that is the *Talakawa*, both leadership and to a significant degree social mobility derive from personal achievement in Islamic scholarship as a learned man, or *mallam*. Within a highly stratified society such as Hausa, therefore, leadership for political and social change, especially for the lower strata, is understood to come from this status group known as *mallams*. Given the *mallam's* role as interpreters of muslim law and tradition, they alone are able to question the legitimacy of established authority, and, if necessary, sanction movements designed to redress grievances. It must be stressed that grievances of a non-Islamic nature are often construed as violations of Islamic principle in order to legitimise and mobilise support for protest actions (Smith, 1959).

Hence, when referring to social change in West African Islamic societies, these specific conditions should be carefully considered, for not only is Islam likely to increase relative to Christianity, but it is likely to continue among the lower strata of West African cities, especially among those unable to gain access to Western education. Finally, despite many unprogressive traditional practices and abuses, the profession of Islam is clearly associated with anti-colonialism, for unlike many Christians, the Muslims of Northern Nigeria at least have avoided the devastating psychological effects of cultural imperialism so evident among many Christianised groups in Africa. In summary, then, the Islamic factor cannot be overstressed if one wishes to understand and explain the motivation and behaviour of Hausa's industrial workers.

Equally important is lack of enthusiasm for education among the Hausas. The reason for this could be traced to the history of education in Nigeria. When formal education was introduced to Nigeria, the first school were organised by the Christian missionaries and

their main objective was to use the school as a means for converting animists and Muslims to Christianity. Education was 'free' - but with strings attached. The British officials who were themselves Christians were representing, as Lord Lugard himself claimed, "the most Christian nation" in the world. British occupation was therefore synonymous with Christian evangelism, and the concept of a 'civilising mission' - helping the benighted Africans to accept Christianity and Western civilisation - became the order of the day (Ayandele, 1966). The primary and later the secondary schools were Christianity-oriented. The missionary by and large were able to carry out their mission with the approval of the British officials.

A good citizen in Nigeria and elsewhere between 1850 and 1960 meant one who was African by blood, Christian by religion and British or French in culture and intellect. All others, who were Muslims, animists, etc. were only tolerated or accommodated (Fafunwa, 1970).

We can therefore see the dilemma in which the Hausa (Muslims) found themselves between the nineteenth century and the early twentieth when the powerful forces of church and state combined to convert *Emirs*, Chiefs and people to Christianity. Christianity-oriented schools, textbooks, sermons and other built-in educational devices were employed as instruments of conversion. Consequently, the Hausa did not wholly approve of such Western education for their children. They were afraid that their children would be converted to Christianity by such an education.

The Hausa therefore fell far behind their Southern countrymen (the Yoruba and the Ibo who readily accepted Christianity and Western civilisation) in the acquisition of modern skills. In 1952, the time of the last census before independence, only two percent of persons more than six years old in the Northern Region (Hausa dominated area) were literate in Roman script (5.4 percent were literate in Arabic). The almost entirely Muslim provinces of Sokoto, Kano and Borno in the far North had one percent or less literate in the Roman script compared with sixteen percent literacy in the Roman script in the Eastern

Region (Iboland) and eighteen percent in the Western Region, including Lagos (Yorubaland). As late as 1951, there was only one university graduate among the Hausas, whereas there were hundreds of Ibos and Yorubas with graduate and postgraduate degrees (Annual Abstracts of Statistics, 1963). In 1966, there were still many fewer Northerners in school than Southerners. The North with a larger population than the rest of the country, had 17,700 students in secondary schools; the West had 124,868, and the East 68,737. There were 518,864 Northerners in primary schools as compared with 1,270,245 Westerners and 1,236,872 Easterners (Fafunwa, 1974). Those figures coldly counting the future leaders of Nigeria as well as competent industrial employees, show the difference between the attitudes of the Northerners (Hausa) and the Southerners (Ibo and Yoruba) toward Westernisation.

A side effect of the educational backwardness of the Hausa is that majority of them cannot be employed in industries, particularly in the skilled occupations. According to Schwarz (1965), in 1953, Southerners held 82 percent of the clerical service jobs in the Northern Region and in 1960, the year of independence, only 1 percent of the federal civil service was from the north and of those most were in the lower grades despite NPC (National People's Congress - the party of the north, which had won the federal elections) control of many ministries at the top. Even today, large numbers of marginally employed men work around the markets, wait outside stores and assist merchants in trading their goods while others are engaged in casual labour such as cartpushers, mud-mason's assistants, porters, lorry depot unloaders and petty hawkers of all varieties. Many Southerners are employed in the North as government employees, in the skilled occupations and in other key positions in industries down to the the lowest levels because there are too few educated Northerners. Moreover, the Hausa is less interested than the Ibo and the Yoruba in getting a steady job, acquiring skill, and raising is standard of living. The Southerner was accustomed to save, and this gave him a long term interest in his job; the Northerner lived more from hand to mouth (Wells and Warmington, 1963).

It is common for most industrial workers to begin their urban work careers in casual labour. Usually, through friends, bribes, or a mixture of both they obtain an opportunity to gain permanent employment as industrial workers.

Based on the above socio-political structure and attitudes of the Hausa, we may speculate that the Hausa industrial workers will place greater importance on instrumental rewards (or extrinsic job factors). That is, work will be regarded solely as a means to an end, as a way of obtaining the income necessary to support a valued way of life (maintaining the family, for example) which excludes work itself and other intrinsic factors such as opportunity for growth, advancement, and achievement.

The Ibo

The Ibo are a Southeastern Nigeria people who lacked political centralisation, urban organisation and Islamic influence in the pre-colonial period. Before the arrival of Europeans, the Ibo had no common name, nor did they have a common tradition of origin. In many cases the village group is the largest recognised political unit. In regard to the fact that they speak a related group of dialects, inhabit a coherent tract of land, and have many cultural features in common that distinguish them from Hausa and Yoruba groups, they may be called a people or tribe. There is no central political authority, neither over the whole of Iboland nor over parts of it. Authority is, in principle never vested in one individual. In each community, political functions are served by a council of elders. And even they are fully authorised to make political decisions, which have to be presented to the community that ratifies them by acclamation or refuses acceptance respectively.

Although decisions are reached by consensus, some members of the council of elders carry more weight in discussion than others. The criteria for leadership are seniority, the ability 'to speak well', and personal achievement, as expressed in activities such as title-taking and the giving of second funerals. For a man to be a respected and persuasive leader he must be an elder (that is, a member of one of the village-group age grades), he must be a good orator, and he must have established his claim to a position of leadership by his

achievement; one or two of these qualities are not enough (Green, 1948).

There were, varying from one area to another, age grades, title societies, individual title systems, or secret men's societies, which, together with the descent groups, served as organs for the differential allocation of social status and as channels for the flow of influence in the community. The title society, which was the most characteristic feature of Ibo status system not found everywhere, consisted in its most developed form of a series of ranked titles, the entry to which was contingent upon acceptance by existing title-holders, payment of a set entrance fee, and providing a feast for members of the society. Membership was open to anyone of free birth, but the fees and feasts effectively limited titleholding to those of some wealth. This was increasingly true as a man progressed to higher titles. Hereditary factors are not completely absent here, for if a man's father or grandfather was a respected leader his position is enhanced by this fact, but only if he himself successfully fulfills the qualities of leadership (Jones, 1962).

The title society was thus a means by which the wealth of a man could be translated into social and political status, ultimately the highest status which the local social system had to confer. In some areas the societies involved only a single title rather than a series of graded ranks; in others there were simply individual titles without a society; in still others there were 'secret societies'. All shared the characteristic of providing individuals of exceptional wealth with exceptional authority and status. Furthermore, as Forde and Jones (1962) say, "Even where there was no title-taking a man of wealth could attain to considerable political power, apart from any authority derived from his place in a kinship system, because he could provide the gunpowder and firearms needed for raiding and protection, and could build a considerable following" (p. 20).

Although the wealth necessary for acquiring high status could be inherited, it could also be accumulated through a man's own efforts; in either instance it needed to be accompanied by specific personal qualities. Ottenberg (1958) is quite definite on this point :

"The Ibo are highly individualistic people. While a man is dependent on his family, lineage, and residential grouping for support and backing, strong emphasis is placed on his ability to make his own way in the world. The son of a prominent politician has a head start over other men in the community, but he must validate this by his own abilities. While seniority in age is an asset in secular leadership, personal qualities are also important. A secular leader must be aggressive, skilled in oratory, and able to cite past history and precedent. A man gains prestige by accumulating the capital required to join title societies and perform other ceremonies. Much of the capital necessary for these activities is acquired through skill in fanning and ability to acquire loans. The ability to secure loans readily is reflection of a person's prestige, the respect granted him, and the effectiveness of his social contacts. The possibilities of enhancing status and prestige are open to virtually all individuals except descendants of certain types of slaves and are not restricted to members of particular lineages, clans or other social units. Ibo society is thus, in a sense, an 'open' society in which positions of prestige, authority and leadership are largely achieved." (pp. 136-137).

The overall picture which emerges of the Ibo social structure is not only of an open system in which any freeman could attain high status but of one that placed a premium on occupational skill, enterprise, and initiative. The man more likely to rise socially is the one who was sufficiently self-motivated to work hard and cleverly marshal available resources in the cause of increasing his wealth. He must have social skills, but this involved manipulating others to allow him use of their resources without becoming bound in subservience to them. His career was basically dependent on what he made of himself rather than (as among the Hausa) what he helped make of someone else. Higher social status was granted by the title societies and other agencies as subsequent recognition of a man's having already amassed wealth through occupational achievement and of his possessing capacities for leadership. Thus, the Ibo man who rose socially could correctly think of himself as a self-made man whose status mobility was a recognition of his own individual achievements.

The Ibo people impress outsiders as self-assertive, verbal people, clear in their aspirations and explicit as to the role of others in helping or hindering them in their goals. They are often described by non-Ibo as 'pushing' or 'aggressive', and it seems very possible that it is their concern for strength and achievement that lies behind these observations. On their cultural features, Forde and Jones (1962) write :

"The Ibo are generally held to be tolerant, ultra-democratic and highly individualistic. They dislike and suspect any form of external government and authority. They have a strongly developed commercial sense and a practical unromantic approach to life." (p. 24).

Unlike the Hausas, the Ibo embraced Western education with great enthusiasm and determination. Christian missions were welcomed, and were encouraged to set up schools in Iboland. Village improvement unions sponsored scholarships, and Ibo students flocked to secondary schools in the Western Region. By the late 1930's the Ibos were more heavily represented than any other tribe or nationality in Yaba Higher College (the highest Institution that time) and in most Nigerian secondary schools. Thenceforward the numbers of Ibo appointed to the African civil service and as clerks in business firms increased at a faster rate than that of any other group (Coleman, 1971). The influx of Ibos into the towns of the west and the north and their rapid educational development, which made them competitors for jobs and professional positions, were two indicators of their emergence as an active group in Nigerian affairs.

Moreover, the Ibo had had centuries of contact with Western economic forces prior to the formal establishment of British administration in 1900. According to Coleman (1971), for at least three centuries the coastal groups (including the Ibo) were deeply involved in a semicommercialised economy, first through the slave trade, and later, during the later part of the nineteenth century, through legitimate trade in palm oil and other products. Comparatively, the Ibo therefore had been in contact with the revolutionary ideas and techniques of Europeans long before the Hausas, as a result, they have better adjusted to modern work and are generally somewhat more progressive than any other tribe in Nigeria. In their Sapele study, Wells and Warmington (1963), came to similar conclusions :

"It was generally agreed that the Ibos make the most satisfactory workers. Many are migrants from the Eastern Region, where they are the dominant group in the population. They are generally of better physique than the local people, better educated on the whole, and more adaptable." (p. 152).

Finally, the Ibo political system gave great latitude to youth. An enterprising, talented young man who acquired wealth could attain political power, even over his elders (Meek,

1937). Ibo youths were organised into age-grade associations which not only had disciplinary power over their members but also played important political and judicial roles within the community (Talbot, 1926). In these features, Ibo culture differed rather markedly from both Yoruba and Hausa cultures, which placed a great value on age and ascribed status.

Following from the above cultural characteristics of the Ibo, we may assume that, more than the Hausas and the Yorubas, the Ibo employees will attach much importance to achievement-related behaviours in their work value orientations.

The Yoruba

The Yoruba which inhabit Southwestern Nigeria and adjacent sections of Dahomey might rightly claim to be the largest cultural aggregation in West Africa with a history of political unity and a common historical tradition. They have an ancient tradition of kingship, going back perhaps a thousand years, and under the Oyo Empire, dominated a large part of the West African coast. According to history, after a long period of fighting against the kingdom of Dahomey during the eighteenth century, civil war led to internal disintegration during the nineteenth century. This made it possible for the Fulanis to penetrate Yoruba territory and to Islamise its northern part. The Yoruba emerged from this divided into largely independent kingdoms. The wars and consequent migrations and resettlements continued intermittently until British domination in 1890 (Ajayi and Smith, 1964).

The government of the king is centered in a usually large city and administers to the city as well as to the whole kingdom. The kingdom is subdivided into chiefdoms, which depend on the king in military and extrapolitical affairs, in taxation, and in certain kinds of trials. Administration is performed by officials. These structural features are found among the Yoruba in a similar way as they are among the Hausa (Bascom, 1942).

At the center of a Yoruba state there was an *Oba*, or king (like the Emir among the

Hausa) but substantial power was also held by the heads of families and clans and subchiefs who did not owe their office to the king. They were chosen by a process of selection from below, beginning with the small family unit and continuing upward. Unlike the active Hausa kings, Yoruba monarchs were restricted by their divinity to their palaces, from which they rarely ventured. Although a Hausa king could be deposed only by his overlord, Yoruba kings could be disposed by the counsellors. Traditional electors and counsellors chose the Yoruba king from among the eligible males of the royal families; if the counsellors decided that his rule should end, he would be politely sent a parrot's egg as an indication that he should depart. When that happened he would commit suicide (Lloyd, 1954).

Yoruba monarchy was far from autocratic, being rather lightly superimposed on a social structure which contained strong and independent groupings organised on the basis of lineage, territory, and associational (that is, age, religious, occupational) ties. For the most part this groupings selected their own leaders, who acted as a check on the central authority of the king and as a means for the development of a popular consensus on issues before decision making. Thus the Yoruba political system despite its hierarchical form, was not an authoritarian one in which commands flowed from the king down the ranks of obedient office-holders; instead, power was dispersed among partly self-governing segments, with relatively little concentration at the center.

The Yoruba system of stratification and status allocation are very clear. There are the royal lineages from which the kings are chosen; there the chieftainly lineages in which chieftaincy titles are inherited; and there are the commoners whose stratum affiliation is hereditary. Among the commoners, there *are* crafts held by certain lineages and controlled by guilds that would allow for some occupational mobility only if the demand for apprentices could not be satisfied from within the craft. However, there are institutions a man of ambition may choose from for raising his social status. One is a clientage system similar to the Hausa's but not as elaborate. It is limited to the royal court, where a man may

gain the favour of the king and be promoted to an office. Another one is the *Ogboni* society, sometimes called a 'secret society', which every male can join, but whose ranks, however, are open only to those who can pay the rather high fees (Lloyd, 1965). This, then, is a way of translating wealth, which might be amassed through occupational activity, into political power and high social status, in a manner resembling that of the Ibo title societies. Thus, the status mobility system of the Yoruba constituted an environment rewarding to both the independent occupational achievement of the Ibo ideal and loyal clientage of the Hausa ideal. Every member of Yoruba society can be said to be affected by both achieved and ascribed status criteria.

From the writer's own experience (who is a Yoruba), the Yoruba are noted for the importance they place on social support and group solidarity. This is evident in their system of age grades and sets or *egbe*. The *egbe* is a group of men or women of approximately the same age, probably from the same quarter of the town, who decided voluntarily at adolescence, to form an association. Membership continues for life, but, once the members become middle-aged, the intensity of their participation often declines and they may form new groups with more recently won friends. A respected elder is invited to be the patron of the association, but other offices are filled by election among the members. The association gives a young man or woman a good opportunity to demonstrate his qualities of leadership long before he seeks political office. At their weekly (or monthly) meetings the association members eat, drink and discuss their personal problems. Also the members join hands together to help a fellow member who is in need. For example, during naming ceremony or funeral, the association members as a group offer social and financial supports to a fellow member performing the ceremony.

Another characteristic feature of the social organisation of the Yoruba is the *esusu* club. The less wealthy save money through the *esusu* club, in which each member pays a fixed sum collected, in his turn. Loans are freely given and men are beginning to pledge their houses as security, though this practice raises a number of legal issues. The pawning

of houses and even children is common. Thus it is fairly easy for all but the few desperately poor to raise a small capital sum (Forde, 1962).

Wealth confers great prestige on a man, and popularity if he is generous to his friends and relatives. In fact, where trader and customer enjoy a face-to-face relationship, popularity is essential to business success. The wealthy man usually aspires to political office - to take the highest chieftaincy title open to him - and, today, he is generally successful. The asceticism characterised in the Protestant ethic is conspicuously absent in most Yoruba people.

The Yoruba, like the Ibo, profited from the early introduction of formal education and training in skills, by the early missionaries. Early mission schools were established among the Yoruba and they continue to value education more highly than others. Even today, when Northern States government are providing scholarship to encourage the Hausa to obtain formal education, the Yoruba (and the Ibo) are struggling as private sponsored students to obtain higher education both at home (Nigeria) and abroad. Because of the high educational standards among the Yoruba, they are better adjusted to the requirements of modern industrial techniques and organisation and are therefore, found in managerial and supervisory positions in various organisations all over Nigeria. In fact, Wells and Warmington (1963) found that : "Yorubas..... had a good reputation; many were competent craftsmen, and some had been promoted to supervisory posts." (p. 52).

Finally, one important characteristic of the Yoruba observed by the writer, is obligation to one's extended family (this includes grandparents, great-aunts, and great-uncles, aunts and uncles, and so on). Since the family is the basic social and economic unit, it exerts strong normative pressures on the individuals; the pattern of mutual obligation among family members provides much of the person's security. Social status in the Yoruba community is also closely tied to family status. People's actions reflect on their families, and the families therefore take a strong interest in the behaviour of their members. Individual achievement brings honour to the family as well as the person.

The above characteristic features of the Yoruba indicates that the Yoruba employees can be placed midway between the Ibos and the Hausas in achievement orientation. Also, we may expect that factors relevant to interpersonal relations and family conditions (e.g. having good work-mates, good relations with superior, sickness/death in the family) should produce more extreme affective responses in Yorubas' job attitudes than in the two other groups.

The Three Groups Juxtaposed

In sum, marked differences in religious, cultural and social aspects exist among the three cultural groups. Most relevant to our study are the facts that the Hausa are conservative, religiously orthodox (Islam) with little formal education or urban sophistication. In Hausa society, achievement, defined as striving for excellence where standards of excellence are applicable, is of no importance for the individual's social rise or fall. Important values to the Hausa are loyalty, obedience, servility, sensitivity to the demands of those in authority, and respect for tradition. In an achieving society, individuals are socialised through early training in habits of excelling (McClelland, 1961); Hausa society trains its members in the habits of subordination, political intrigue, and opportunistic choice of patrons. And as Wells and Warmington (1963) observed, the Hausa are less interested than Yoruba and Ibo tribes in getting a steady job, acquiring skill, being promoted, and raising their standard of living.

The Ibo are the energetic parvenus, predominantly Christian who attach much importance to individualistic achievement values. Personal efforts and the use of one's abilities lead to a rise of status. The Ibo society may be characterised as an open society wherein high status may be obtained on the basis of occupational skill, enterprise, and initiative, with achievement being one the highest values. They have a reputation for being willing to take any sort of job, no matter how menial, when they first enter a town and then working their way up, living frugally and accumulating resources until they become wealthy. The Ibo are clearly a group of great entrepreneurial activity whose drive for

achievement and self improvement has made them seek opportunities wherever they were and take advantage of any new situation that presented itself. Although the Ibo came in contact with Western education much later than the Yoruba, from the early 1920's onward, in what Coleman (1971) has called "the Ibo awakening," the Ibo strove to catch up. And, as of this writing, the Ibo seem to dominate a considerable part of Nigeria intellectual life.

The Yoruba are the most urbanised among the three groups, with the longest history of Westernisation, Christianity, and education. While the rising of one's social status is through clientage among the Hausa and through occupational achievement among the Ibo, it is through combination of the two among the Yoruba. The Yoruba, more than the Hausa and the Ibo attach much importance to group solidarity and social support.

The differences among the three groups have been most incisively examined by Coleman (1971). It worth quoting at some length here the summary of these differences :

"..... tribal response to impact of modern economic forces has been highly varied in Nigeria, not only because of geographical, topographical, and historical differences, or of variations in the distribution of resources but also because of cultural differences in the capacity and predisposition of different groups and subgroups to adapt to the new forces. These cultural differences have been determined in part by the traditional social structure and the degree of upward mobility within that structure, the attitudes toward property and toward wealth individually acquired, and the relationship between wealth and political power. In traditional Ibo society, for example, there was much upward mobility and a fairly close correlation between the individual acquisition of wealth and the exercise of legitimate political power. In Hausa society a very different cultural pattern prevailed. Again, one finds further cultural variations, such as Yoruba youths refusing to turn to wage labour if it involved being a servant, Hausa traders finding clerkship unattractive These tribal variations are significant because they have partly determined the tribal composition of the commercialised and economically involved elements..... Another factor of indeterminate significance in the Ibo awakening was certain characteristic personality and behavioural traits attributed to this group. Some observers have sought to relate such traits to distinctive patterns of Ibo culture. M.M. Green points out that it is the "go-getter" who is admired, "the man who has wives and children and bestirs himself and make money A man who just sits quiet is not respected" Competitiveness, materialism, and emphasis upon achieved status are not unique with the Ibo, nor necessarily common to all Ibo. At the very highest level of generalisation and comparison, however, they are traits that gave birth to certain national stereotypes and provided a basis for distinguishing the attributes and behaviour of the typical Ibo from those of the typical Yoruba or Hausa." (p. 64).

These observations go as far as scientific caution allows in describing group characteristic features and in relating them to traditional social structures on the basis of ethnographic and historical impressions. The present study attempts to examine the effect of the differences in cultural and social aspects among the three groups on job attitudes. It is assumed that these differences will be generalised to the employment situation. Three hypotheses have been derived from the general characterisation of the three cultural groups, and will be briefly described at this point.

Hypotheses Relating to Sub-Cultural Differences

First, we hypothesised that relationships with co-workers (including superiors and subordinates) will be more strongly related to job attitudes among the Yorubas than among the Hausa and the Ibo groups. This hypothesis rests on the assumption that the importance of group solidarity and social support, which are major values in the Yoruba community (as evidenced by the *egbe* and *esusu* club as well as strong family tie) will significantly affect the Yoruba employees in the workplace.

Second, it is hypothesised that the Ibos will be significantly more motivated by the job content factors (such as achievement, responsibility, advancement, work itself and opportunity to develop self) than the Hausa and the Yoruba groups. This hypothesis is derived from the cultural characteristics of the Ibos - highly individualistic, ambitious, entrepreneurial, and competitive. These dispositions are encouraged by their social structure which is not only of an open system in which any freeman could attain high status but of one that placed premium on occupational skill, enterprise and initiative.

The third concerns the relationships between perceived task characteristics (skill variety, task significance, autonomy and feedback) and job motivation. The job enrichment model from which these constructs are derived (Hackman and Oldham, 1976) assumes the existence of certain work values and 'higher order' or 'growth' needs. It is believed that these values and needs are unevenly distributed among cultures and societies and mainly associated with industrially developed societies. It is therefore hypothesised that this job

enrichment model will 'work' better in the case of the Western-oriented, relatively modernised Ibo and Yoruba employees than in the case of the Hausa group. That is, the relationships of the above-mentioned task characteristics with job motivation are hypothesised to be stronger in the case of the Ibo and Yoruba employees who have had long exposure to European influence including Westernisation and education.

1.6. Plan of the Study

The plan of the study can best be understood by a brief review of each of the succeeding parts.

Part II contains literature review which develops a general theoretical perspective for the study. It is divided into two chapters (Chapters 2 and 3): Chapter 2 presents a review of previous studies on the determinants of employees' commitment to their organisation. This exercise is considered necessary because the aim of this study, among other things, is to compare the perceived determinants of employees' commitment in Nigeria with those obtained by previous researchers. Despite the problems associated with cross-cultural research that are pointed out earlier, there is no doubt that cross-cultural studies of job attitudes have produced some important findings that are relevant to our investigation; these are reviewed in Chapter 3.

Since the present study is not based on any particular theory of job motivation, we feel that it is not necessary to include a comprehensive review of these theories in part two (literature review) of this study. However, as we have emphasised the inappropriateness of generalising these theories (which were developed in advanced countries) to other cultures (especially developing nations), we assume some knowledge of their underlying assumptions on the part of the reader. Appendix 1 therefore presents a review of theories of motivation at work.

In an attempt to exempt the present study from our criticism of translating and administering instruments developed elsewhere by cross-cultural researchers, an

exploratory study was conducted with the primary aim of developing a locally relevant instrument for the main investigation. Part III presents the procedure and results of the exploratory study as well as its implications for the main study.

Part IV, which includes two chapters, (Chapter 5 and 6), summarises the main investigation. Chapter 6 deals with the methodology, that is, the design and administration of the questionnaire while Chapter 7 presents data analyses and results.

In Part V, the final chapter (Chapter 7), we summarise our findings, draw conclusions and offer suggestions for future research.

PART TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER TWO

A REVIEW OF ANTECEDENTS AND BEHAVIOURAL OUTCOMES OF ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a review of previous studies on organisational commitment in an attempt to identify some of its antecedents in other cultures. It will be recalled that one of the aims of the present study is to provide evidence of any difference in determinants of organisational commitment that may exist between other cultures (especially developed nations) and Nigeria (developing nation) by comparing our results with those of prior research. The present chapter therefore provides a background against which we can contrast our findings.

One other important objective of this chapter concerns the definition and description of the concept 'organisational commitment'. Although there has been an enormous output of literature on organisational commitment written by industrial and occupational psychologists and sociologists, there is yet to emerge a universally acceptable definition of the concept. The writer observed that each writer using the term (organisational commitment), is inclined to define it in relative terms according to the purpose of study. Therefore an attempt will be made to locate 'organisational commitment' within a conceptual framework of analysis, because as Locke (1969) says, "if one wishes to measure some phenomenon accurately, one must first know what it is one wants to measure." (p. 310).

The determination and prediction of employees commitment to their organisation has potential for becoming important to the study of organisational behaviour in several different respects. Such a position has support in the conceptualisations of organisational commitment proposed by Steers (1977), Angle and Perry (1983), and Mottaz (1987), which suggest that commitment represents a useful indicator of organisational effectiveness as

well as an important variable in shaping employee attitudes and beliefs. As pointed out by Steers (1977), there is evidence that organisational commitment is a better predictor of employee turnover than is job satisfaction (Koch and Steers, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulin, 1974) as well as indication that committed employees may perform better than uncommitted ones (Mowday, Porter and Dubin, 1974).

With such potential as an important attitudinal variable, it follows that the concept of employee commitment to the work organisation and the search for meaningful determinants of organisational commitment have received increased attention in the research literature of recent years (for example, Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Buchanan, 1974a and 1974b; Stevens, Beyer and Trice, 1978; Morris and Sherman, 1981; Chusmir, 1985; Mottaz, 1986a). The information which has become available as a result of this expanding interest is the subject matter of the present chapter.

Following an examination of the different ways in which the concept of job commitment has been defined and described, the discussion focuses on behavioural outcomes of commitment. Next, a rather comprehensive survey of antecedents of organisational commitment - personal, work- and organisational- related factors - is presented. We hope that this review of the job commitment literature and a brief summary of the findings will provide a background for the present study and also help in identifying fruitful areas of research.

2.2. Organisational Commitment : Definitions and Descriptions

A review of relevant literature showed that a myriad of definitions of the concept of organisational commitment exists. For example, Porter (1968) saw it as the willingness of an employee to exert high levels of effort on behalf of the organisation and acceptance of its major goals and values. Lee (1971) conceptualised commitment as "some degree of belongingness or loyalty." Buchanan (1974a) viewed it as a partisan, affective attachment to the goals and values of an organisation, to one's role in relation to goals and values, and to the organisation for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth. Lawler and

Hall (1970) defined job commitment as the "psychological importance of work to the individual." Porter, Steers, Mowday, and Boulian (1974) defined it as the :

".....strength of an individual's identification with, and involvement in, a particular organisation. Such commitment can be characterised by at least three factors : (i) a strong believe in, and acceptance of the organisations goals and values; (ii) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation; and (iii) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organisation." (p. 604).

Most of these researchers conceived of commitment as involving some form of psychological bond between people and organisations, although there is little consensus as to a useful operational index of the concept (Buchanan, 1974a).

Some other researchers considered organisational commitment to be the result of an exchange relationship, where individuals attach themselves to the organisation in return for certain valued rewards or payments from the organisation (Becker, 1960; Stevens, Beyer and Trice, 1978; Steers, 1977; Angle and Perry, 1983; Mottaz, 1986a). Individuals enter organisations with specific skills, desires, and goals, and expect a work setting where they can use their skills, satisfy their desires, and achieve their goals. To the extent that organisation is perceived as facilitating these ends, organisational commitment is likely to increase. On the other hand, if the organisation is perceived as failing to provide sufficient opportunities along these lines, organisational commitment is likely to diminish (Steers, 1977).

The concept of organisational commitment has also been used interchangeably in the literature, with 'job involvement' or 'ego-involvement in one's job' (Vroom, 1962; Morse and Weiss, 1955; Guion, 1958; Lodahl and Kejner, 1965; Rabinowitz and Hall, 1977; Cheloha and Farr, 1980). These authors describe the job-involved person as one for whom work is a very important part of life (a "central life interest," Morse and Weiss, 1955), and as one who is very much personally affected by his whole job situation : the work itself, his coworkers, the company, etc. On the other hand, the non-job-involved worker does the majority of his living off the job. Work is not as important a part of his psychological life.

His interests are in some other areas, and the core of his self-image, the essence of his identity, is not greatly affected by the kind of work he does or how well he does it.

It can be observed that the descriptions of organisational commitment reported above falls into two categories : (i) those which equate commitment with the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his job-related behaviour, and (ii) those which focus on the relative importance of particular interests. That is, a person is thought to be more committed to the extent that his job represents a more major or central life interest relative to other possible interests (for example, family, hobbies, etc.). Since there are no a priori reasons for assuming that one of these categories is in anyway superior to the other, the most reasonable approach appears to be to accept them both. For the purposes of the remainder of this discussion, then, an individual who is committed to his organisation or job involved will be understood as one who identifies psychologically with his job-related behaviour, one whose work activities have a substantial influence on his feelings of ego-enhancement and self-esteem, and one whose job context represents a major or central life interest relative to other qualitatively discriminable life interests.

A certain amount of empirical support for such a multidimensional description of organisational commitment or job involvement is available in the literature. In their study, Lodahl and Kejner (1965) identified three factors : (a) nonacceptance of items expressing very high job involvement, (b) an indifferent response to work, and (c) duty-bound positive job involvement, a kind of *arbeitsfreude* or a rejection of extra duties and of the general notion of work as a measure of self. Considering the similarity of factorial structure across their samples of 137 nurses and 70 engineers, Lodahl and Kejner concluded that job involvement is a multidimensional attitude thus provide support for our description of organisational commitment.

Further support for the multidimensional nature of organisational commitment came from the work of Schwyhart and Smith (1972). They administered the 20-item job involvement scale developed by Lodahl and Kejner (1965) to 200 second- and third- level

managers, and also performed a component analysis of the inter-item correlation matrix. The results yielded three components : (i) job ambition - a willingness to accept job responsibilities, (ii) job centrality - the importance of work, even to the exclusion of other activities, and (iii) job conscientiousness - a desire to be prepared for the job and to be judged by job performance. These components also lend credence to the aforementioned multidimensional description of organisational commitment or job involvement.

Having stipulated the multidimensionality of organisational commitment, the next task pertinent to defining and describing the concept involves placing it side-by-side with other job-related attitudinal constructs and determining whether the construct we are calling 'organisational commitment' has any unique meaning. For example, does 'organisational commitment' refer to something qualitatively different from 'job satisfaction/motivation', or are the two merely synonyms, accounting for the same variance in job related attitudes? Several researchers have addressed this question.

Lodahl (1964) used rating methods to determine job involvement from interview protocols. Data on 21 job attitudes were obtained from two separate samples of workers - 50 men from an automobile assembly plant and 29 women who did precision assembly work in an electronics plant. The data from each sample were separately intercorrelated and factor analysed. From the automobile assembly-line data, job involvement emerged as a separate factor, related only to product involvement, company involvement, and number of men working nearby. Also, from the electronic-assembly data, Lodahl found that job involvement emerged as an independent attitude factor, this time with the variables team involvement, product knowledge, and time on job. Thus, for both samples, job involvement emerged as a separate component, factorially independent of other job attitude variables dealing with satisfaction, motivation, and frustration.

Lawler and Hall (1970) administered Lodahl and Kejner's (1965) 6-item job involvement scale (an abbreviated version of their 20-item scale), along with 6 items designed to measure job satisfaction and 4 items designed to measure intrinsic motivation,

to 291 scientists working in 22 separate organisational research and development laboratories. A principal component analysis and a varimax rotation yielded a highly interpretable three-factor solution : (i) a satisfaction component, (ii) job involvement component, and (iii) an intrinsic motivation component. Lawler and Hall concluded therefore, that :

"Job involvement, defined as psychological identification with one's work, seems to be a distinctive job attitude, and that should be thought of as conceptually and empirically separate from satisfaction attitudes and from intrinsic motivation attitudes. Involvement can perhaps be thought of as the degree to which a person's total work situation is an important part of his life." (p. 310).

Similar results were obtained by Gechman and Wiener (1975) in their study of teacher commitment using job involvement as a correlate. They investigated the distinctness or communality of job involvement and job satisfaction by examining their relationships with "personal time devoted to work" (extracted from 24-hour diaries) and "positive mental health" (obtained from a paper-and-pencil adaptation of Kornhauser's (1965) structured interview procedure). By examining a series of partial correlations based on a sample of 54 female elementary school teachers, Gechman and Wiener concluded that "it is useful to treat satisfaction and involvement as distinct job attitudes."

Finally, based on a review of relevant literature Mottaz (1987), argue that work satisfaction and organisational commitment differ in several ways. First, work satisfaction refers to the degree to which individuals 'like', or are 'happy' with work, while commitment refers to their degree of 'attachment' or 'loyalty' to the organisation. Second, commitment is a more global concept, reflecting a general response to the organisation as a whole, while satisfaction represents a response to one's specific task and task environment. Third, commitment is considered to be a relatively stable attitude that develops slowly over time as individuals establish a relationship with the organisation. Satisfaction on the other hand, is considered to be a less stable, more rapidly formed attitude, reflecting more immediate reactions to particular aspects of the work situation.

Taken together, the data appear to indicate that organisational commitment (or job involvement) is a multidimensional job-related attitude which is logically and empirically distinguishable from other commonly accepted attitudes relevant to the work situation – the most pervasive of which, perhaps, is job satisfaction/motivation. Although the evidence is not completely one-sided (Lodahl and Kejner (1965) found that job involvement had "roughly the same factorial content as job satisfaction" for their sample of engineers), the majority of the relevant literature seems to support such a conclusion.

This section has presented a rather detailed examination of the different ways in which the construct 'organisational commitment' has been defined and described. The next section focuses on behavioural correlates of this job-related attitude.

2.3. Behavioural Outcomes of Commitment

A number of studies have examined the relationships between organisational commitment and several job related behaviours, including turnover (willingness to stay or leave the organisation), feeling of satisfaction, absenteeism/regular attendance, feelings of pride at work and performance. This section reviews some of those studies.

Few studies have related job involvement to performance or willingness to expend greater effort on the job. Vroom (1962) investigated the relationship between ego-involvement and performance for a sample composed of 94 supervisors, 305 non-supervisory electronics employees and 489 blue-collar refinery workers. He found that employees who were high in ego-involvement received slightly (yet significantly) higher performance ratings from their supervisors than did employees who were low in ego-involvement. Mowday, Porter and Dubin (1974) studied the relationships between work unit performance on the one hand, and employee attitudes and situational characteristics on the other hand, among 411 female clerical workers in 37 branches of a bank. These researchers found that high-performing branches were characterised by employees who possess high levels of commitment to the organisation. Similarly, Gechman and Weiner (1975) observed a significant positive relationship between job involvement and "personal

time devoted to work" ($r = .37, p < 0.01$).

Somewhat different results have been reported by Hackman and Lawler (1971), Lawler and Hall (1970), and Steers (1977). Hackman and Lawler found non-significant correlations between job involvement and the following self-ratings pertaining to performance: (i) quantity: $r = .07$; (ii) quality: $r = .07$; and (iii) overall effectiveness: $r = .11$. Similarly, Lawler and Hall found no relationship between involvement and self-rated performance: $r = .01$. For his samples of hospital employees, scientists and engineers, Steers found non-significant correlation between organisational commitment and overall performance ($r = .05$).

As Siegel and Ruh (1973) correctly observed, "the studies which have examined this relationship have produced conflicting and ambiguous results" (p. 320). Obviously more data are needed in order to help clarify the relationship between organisational commitment and job performance. The only conclusion tenable on the basis of the available evidence is that any linear relationship which might exist between these two variables is probably (i) positive, and (ii) modest in size.

Just as it was (and is) hypothesised that organisational commitment may be related to performance, so too has it been postulated that commitment to one's organisation may be associated with other work behaviours such as absenteeism and turnover. The assumption here is that if a person is highly committed to his organisation or involved in his job, he will not wish to leave it or even absent from it. Empirical studies relating these work behaviours to commitment appear to back up this idea, although not unanimously.

Wickert (1951), in one of the earlier relevant studies, found that those female telephone operators and service representatives who had quit were less ego involved (less committed) in their work than those who remained on the job. Also, Hackman and Lawler (1971), found a small but significant relationship between job involvement and the number of times an employee was absent during the twelve-month period in which their study took place (obtained from company payroll records): $r = .15, p < 0.05$. Porter et al. (1974), studied

changes across time in measures of organisational commitment and job satisfaction, as each related to subsequent turnover among a sample of psychiatric technicians. Their result indicated that the level of commitment for leavers is consistently lower than that of stayers during all four time periods. In the same vein, Steers (1977), having conducted separate correlational analyses for two separate samples of hospital employees (N=382) and, scientists and engineers (N=119), reported significant relationship between organisational commitment and (i) desire to remain : $r = .44$, $p.001$, $n=382$; and $r = .36$, $p.001$, $n= 119$; (ii) intent to remain : $r = .31$, $p.001$, $n=382$; and $r = .38$, $p.001$, $n=119$; (iii) attendance : $r = .28$, $p.01$, $n=119$; and (iv) turnover : $r = -.17$, $p.01$, $n=382$.

On the other hand, Patchen (1965) found significant negative involvement - absence correlations with full day absences for both engineers and steam plant personnel, and Saal (1978) reported a significant negative involvement - absence correlation for 218 manufacturing employees. Siegel and Ruh (1973) collected turnover data for 1,662 individuals working in a mid-western manufacturing establishment and found that job involvement correlated negatively with turnover ($r = -.17$, $p<.01$).

Thus, the nature of the commitment and turnover/absenteeism relationship remains unclear. The research conducted to date has yielded conflicting results. The only feasible conclusion to be drawn from these studies is that any linear relationship which might exist between these variables is probably (i) small in size, and (ii) in a direction such that higher levels of commitment tend to be associated with less turnover or absenteeism. Those individuals who are highly committed to an organisation's goals and willing to devote a great deal of energy toward those ends may be somewhat more likely to attend work regularly and remain with the organisation in an effort to assist in the realisation of such highly valued objectives.

Several studies have investigated the relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction. Schwyhart and Smith (1972) investigated the relationship between job involvement and company satisfaction. Company satisfaction was defined as the degree to

which an employee derives satisfaction from and identifies with the company in which he is employed. This variable was indexed by 20 items found to load on factors such as pride in company, company identification, and personal pride in organisation. The 20-item Lodahl and Kejner scale was correlated with company satisfaction, with obtained correlations of .44 and .45 ($p < 0.05$) for the samples. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) correlated their measure of job involvement with job satisfaction as measured by the Job Description Index. For a sample of engineers, they found that high job involvement was associated with four of five satisfaction variables at the .01 level. Similarly, studies of Weissenberg and Gruenfeld (1968) and, Gannon and Hendrickson (1973) among 92 male civil service supervisors and 69 working wives respectively confirmed the hypothesis that the higher the involvement, the more satisfied the person.

Moreover, few studies have examined the relationship between commitment and another class of behavioural variables which are motivational in nature. Hackman and Porter (1968), in their investigation of expectancy theory predictions of work effectiveness, gathered three kinds of information from 82 service representatives in a telephone company : (i) a list of common outcomes of "working hard;" (ii) indices of expectancy (that hardwork will indeed lead to these outcomes); and (iii) indices of valence (the degree to which the outcomes are liked or disliked). Adopting the equation :

$$F = \sum_{i=1}^n E_i \times V_i -$$

as an overall estimation of motivation or "force" to act (where E = the expectancy regarding outcome 1, and V = the valence of outcome 1). Hackman and Porter reported a correlation of .27 between self-reported motivation and supervisory ratings of "job involvement and effort." This correlation coefficient was statistically significant ($p < .01$).

Hackman and Lawler (1971) also included motivational variables in their study of employee reactions to job characteristics. They measured the level of intrinsic motivation with three Likert-type questionnaire items, and they obtained indices of where their 270

subjects stood with respect to three different (although not mutually exclusive) foci of work motivation : (i) being personally responsible for one's own work; (ii) producing a large quantity of work; and (iii) producing high quality of work. The following correlation coefficients reflecting the linear relationships between these motivational variables and job involvement were reported : (i) level of intrinsic motivation : $r = .39$; (ii) taking personal responsibility for one's work : $r = .20$; (iii) doing high quality work : $r = .16$; and (iv) doing large quantity of work : $r = .04$. The first three of these indices were statistically significant.

On the basis of these findings, we may conclude that highly committed employees (i) should be willing to expend greater effort on the job, (ii) should have a strong desire to stay with the organisation, (iii) should be willing to come to work regularly to contribute toward goal attainment, (iv) have high level of job satisfaction, and (v) should feel proud to work for the particular organisation.

Up to this point, the discussion has been directed at different ways in which organisational commitment has been conceptualised as well as behavioural manifestations of a committed worker. The next sub-chapter presents a literature review on antecedents of organisational commitment.

2.4. Antecedents of Organisational Commitment

A literature review reveals that much of the research on organisational commitment has been concerned with identifying the antecedents or determinants of this work attitude. These factors can be grouped into three main categories : (i) personal characteristics, (ii) work-related factors, and (iii) organisational-related factors. This section focuses on some of previous studies dealing with each of these categories.

2.4.1. Personal Characteristics

Personal characteristics consist of those individual variables upon which people may be expected to differ. Previous empirical studies indicate that age has been most frequently examined in relation to organisational commitment. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) examined

the relationship between personal and role-related factors and commitment to the employing organisation among 318 elementary and secondary school teachers and 395 registered nurses in western New York state. They observed that increases in age, implying the accumulation of valued resources in the employing system and a lessened attractiveness to other organisations, are marked by corresponding decreases in respondent's desire to change organisations ($p < 0.01$). Regardless of occupation, younger respondents who have not invested a great deal in their careers are found to be less committed to their organisations than older subjects whose careers are more fully developed. Morris and Sherman (1981), in a study of 506 employees drawn from three state government owned organisations, and Steers' (1977) study of 382 hospital employees, found age (along with other antecedents) to be a highly significant predictor of commitment.

Additional evidence bearing on the positive relationship between organisational commitment and age is available in the reports of five additional studies. Using a role and exchange theory framework to assess personal, role and organisational predictors of managerial commitment, Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978) reported a significant positive relationship between age and commitment ($r = .117$, $p < .01$) for their sample of 634 managers in 71 federal organisations. Similar results were obtained by Aranya and Jacobson (1975) among 228 system analyst in Israel ($r = .11$, $p < .05$); Schwyhart and Smith (1972) among 149 male middle managers ($r = .18$, $p < 0.05$); Lodahl and Kejner (1965) among 139 nursing personnel ($r = .26$, $p < 0.01$); and Hall and Mansfield (1975) among 290 professional scientists and engineers employed in research and development laboratories ($r = .29$, $p < 0.01$).

On the other hand, age has been found to be negatively related to commitment in some previous studies. Gurin, Veroff and Feld (1960) interviewed 922 employed males, comparing the relationship between age and ego-involvement in their jobs. They found no significant relationship between the two variables. In a study of males at all job levels in the labour force of Israel, Mannheim (1975) found no significant differences among age groups and their work role centrality scores. Similar result was obtained by Chusmir (1985) in his

study of variables affecting job commitment among 94 working men and 84 women in America. He reported that age (with other personal variables) did not have a significant impact on job commitment for either gender.

The research evidence on commitment and age relationship is mixed between studies showing insignificant differences among age groups and those that found increases in commitment level as individuals get older. However, on the basis of available information, it seems safe to assume that a moderate and positive relationship exists between organisational commitment and age - older workers tend to be more committed to their organisations.

The relationship between commitment and level of education has also been investigated. Once again, the existing research results are inconsistent. Mannheim (1975) in a study of several occupational groups, found positive relationship between commitment (work role centrality) and education. Similarly, Gurin et al. (1960), based on their interview survey, found that the higher educational groups expressed greater ego involvement due to the centrality of the job to their need gratification. Furthermore, a recent investigation by Mottaz (1986a) indicated that education has an indirect positive effect on organisational commitment by increasing work rewards (e.g. intrinsic and, organisational and social rewards).

On the other hand, studies by Steers (1977), Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972), Stevens et al. (1978), Angle and Perry (1983) and Chusmir (1985) have shown that education is inversely related to organisational commitment. The results of multiple regression analysis obtained by some of these researchers are : (i) Steers : $B = -.15$, $p.001$ (hospital employees); $B = -.24$, $p.001$ (scientists and engineers); (ii) Stevens et al. : $B = -.14$, $p<.01$; and, (iii) Angle and Perry : $B = -.11$, $p<.001$. Taking together, the available research evidence on commitment and level of education relationship, it is safe to assume that no linear relationship exists between the two variables.

Examination of data bearing on the question of gender differences in organisational commitment returns us to the "Land of Conflicting Results." In their recent work on employee-organisation linkages, Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) claim that it has been fairly consistently found that gender is related to commitment. In support of this claim, they cite studies by Angle and Perry (1983) and Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) which found that women as a group, were more committed than males to their organisations. Contrary to this suggestion, other empirical studies report inconclusive and even conflicting results. Stevens et al. (1978) and Chusmir (1985) did not find gender differences in the strength of the relationships between the antecedent variables and organisational commitment. It follows that the same variables can be used to explain and predict commitment for both men and women. Research findings of Rabinowitz (1975), and Aranya, Kushnir and Valency (1986), however, indicated that male workers were more job committed than female workers. Quite clearly, a definitive statement on the association between commitment and gender can not be made on the basis of available previous research evidence.

Several other personal variables have received attention from researchers interested in the antecedent of organisational commitment. Angle and Perry's (1983) study indicates that marital status has no effect on organisational commitment. Contrary to this indication, Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) report that single respondents are more likely than married or separated subjects to be positively disposed toward attractive employment alternatives ($p < 0.01$). Such a direct relationship was observed by Aranya and Jacobson (1975) between organisational commitment and, marital status and number of dependents.

To sum up, it is apparent from this review of the available literature that only two personal variables - age and education - have demonstrated any consistency with respect to their relationships with organisational commitment. Older workers have consistently tended to be more committed to their organisations than younger ones, and education has been consistently unrelated (at least linearly) to commitment. Findings related to sex and marital

status are not only equivocal but it is also clear that these variables have not been examined in relation to organisational commitment with sufficient frequency to permit even speculative generalisations.

2.4.2. Work-Related Factors

Well before the literature on organisational commitment began to expand in volume and scope, Kennedy and O'Neil (1958) researched the relationship between job contents and workers' attitudes in a sample of hourly workers in an automotive assembly plant. On the basis of their experimental manipulations, they concluded that increasing the level of responsibility attached to a particular job ("vertical job enrichment", in the terminology of today), tended to generate more favourable job-related attitudes and opinions on the part of the incumbents. Similarly, Bass (1965) suggested that one's job involvement is strengthened when he is permitted to make decisions on the job, and when he believes he is making an important contribution to the success of the company.

A more comprehensive look at the relationships between job commitment and specific task characteristics appeared in Hackman and Lawler's (1971) monograph. They identified the following six dimensions which may be thought to characterise jobs to a greater or lesser extent : (i) variety - the degree to which a job requires employees to perform a wide range of operations in their work and/or the degree to which employees must use a variety of equipment and procedure in their work; (ii) autonomy - the extent to which employees have a major say in scheduling their work, selecting the equipment they will use, and deciding on procedures to be followed; (iii) task identity - the extent to which employees do an entire, or whole, piece of work and can clearly identify the result of their efforts; (iv) feedback - the degree to which employees receive information as they are working which reveals how well they are performing on the job; (v) dealing with others - the degree to which a job requires employees to deal with other people to complete the work; and (vi) friendship opportunities - the degree to which a job allows employees to talk with one another on the job and to establish informal relationships with other employees at work.

Working with a sample of 208 employees, Hackman and Lawler reported the following correlations with job involvement : (i) variety : $r = .24$, $p < .05$; (ii) autonomy : $r = .22$, $p < .05$; (iii) task identity : $r = .12$, $p < .05$; (iv) feedback : $r = .24$, $p < .05$; (v) friendship opportunities : $r = .16$, $p < .05$; and (vi) dealing with others : $r = .03$, (n.s.).

Some other researchers have established the existence of positive linear relationships between commitment and the first four "core" job dimensions described above. Using the sum of these core job characteristics as a measure of job stimulation (scope), Rabinowitz (1975) found a significant relationship between this variable and job involvement ($B = .20$). The following indices of relationship between organisational commitment and specific task characteristics were also reported by Stevens (1977) : task identity - $B = .13$, $p < .001$; and feedback - $B = .17$, $p < .05$; by Mottaz (1987) : task autonomy - $B = .24$, $p < .05$; task significance - $B = .24$, $p < .05$; and task involvement - $B = .36$, $p < .05$; and, by Brief and Aldag (1975) : variety - $r = .35$, $p < .05$; autonomy - $r = .51$, $p < .01$; task identity - $r = .20$, $p < .05$; and feedback - $r = .40$, $p < .01$. Thus, the conclusion that tasks which provided workers with greater variety and feedback, which offer them a greater sense of autonomy, and which more readily permit them to identify the results of their labours, tend to be more frequently associated with higher levels of organisational commitment than do tasks which cannot be so described, is tenable.

Another set of work-related characteristics which has been examined in relation to job commitment/involvement concerns the potential inherent in a job to satisfy what are generally referred to as "higher order needs" or the importance to the individual of satisfying a particular esteem or growth desire (Maslow, 1954). Bass (1965) concluded his discussion of job involvement by echoing the feeling that six conditions lead to a strengthening of the variable : (i) the opportunity to make more of the job decisions; (ii) the feeling that one is making an important contribution to company success; (iii) success; (iv) achievement; (v) self-determination; and (vi) freedom to set one's own work pace. Maurer (1969) found that for a sample of middle managers in 18 manufacturing firms,

work role involvement was positively related to the importance, desired amount, and perceived existence of opportunities for satisfaction of esteem, autonomy and self actualisation needs. Similarly, Patchen (1970) found that job interest tended to be increased by combinations of (i) high job difficulty and high control over means, (ii) high control over means and high feedback, and (iii) high feedback and high difficulty. Lastly, Siegel (1969) stated that "a case can be made for the effect of local organisational conditions (such as opportunity for advancement and personal recognition) in heightening or diminishing the level of involvement which the employee initially brings to the job." (p. 333-334). It appears to be generally conceded, then, that higher levels of commitment tend to be evidenced by workers who perceive their job as having the potential to satisfy their higher order needs.

Based on the above findings on the relationship between commitment and job characteristics, we may expect that tasks which provide workers with variety, opportunities for satisfying esteem and autonomy (chance to make decisions) needs, tasks that have variety, and are interesting, important and challenging, will be strongly related to organisational commitment in the present study.

The relationships between organisational commitment and social features of the job have also been studied. Steers (1977) found that group attitudes was significantly related to commitment for 382 hospital employees ($B = .20, p.001$) and 119 scientists and engineers ($B = .24, p.001$). He also found optional interaction to be a significant determinant of organisational commitment for the hospital employees ($B = .19, p.001$) but not for the scientists and engineers. Lodahl and Kejner (1965), using a sample of engineers, discovered that job involvement was correlated with two social features of the job : (i) number of people contacted per day on the job ($r = .30, p<0.01$), and (ii) interdependence of the job, that is, the necessity for working closely with others ($r = .34, p<0.01$).

Previous research has also found organisational commitment to be positively related to employee cohesiveness. Blauner (1964) hypothesised that "for most employees, when work

is carried out by close-knit work groups, especially work teams, it will be more intrinsically involving and rewarding." (p. 28). Working with a sample of 372 male Japanese employees in electric factory, Marsh and Mannari (1977) found that employee cohesiveness ($B = .15$, $p < .01$) emerged as one of the four best predictors (including job satisfaction, perceived job autonomy and organisational status) of Japanese sources of commitment. Similarly, Mottaz (1987) found that co-workers assistance was positively related to organisational commitment ($B = .05$, $p < 0.05$); thus, provide support for Blauner's hypothesis. The present study will see if Blauner's hypothesis holds in a developing country.

According to Salancik (1977), high levels of employee commitment should be associated with supervision that is not overly tight or close. This prediction has received support from studies conducted by Mowday, Porter and Dubin (1974), Morris and Sherman (1981) and Mottaz (1987). Mowday et al. found that the level of employee attitudes was most highly related to functions performed (including supervision's response to feelings and immediate work colleagues) within each work unit studied. Morris and Sherman reported that high consideration behaviour on the part of the leaders tended to be associated with high level of commitment among subordinates within their sample of 506 employees drawn from three organisations ($B = .10$, $p < 0.01$). And Mottaz data, obtained from 1,385 workers showed that, supervisory assistance is positively and significantly related to organisational commitment ($B = .10$, $p < 0.05$). This study will also see if Salancik's view can be generalised to developing nations, particularly, Nigeria.

A final set of work-related characteristics which have been examined in relation to organisational commitment, concerns role conflict, role ambiguity and work overload. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) examined the relationship between personal and role-related factors, and organisational commitment among 318 teachers and 395 registered nurses. Organisational commitment was measured by 12 items dealing with pay, freedom, status, and interpersonal relations. The index of role tension/ambiguity measures a respondent's

feelings of (i) uncertainty about role requirements, (ii) insufficiency of organisational authority and influence, (iii) inadequacy of resources and facilities, and (iv) inability to cope with the interpersonal and social demands within the organisation. Their results showed that as the level of role tension/ambiguity increases among the teachers and nurses examined, the level of organisational commitment decreases significantly ($p < 0.001$). The data also indicated that organisational commitment did not vary as a function of perceived role conflict (i.e. the disparity between professional and organisational expectations concerning the proper role activities).

Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978) found work overload to be negatively related to organisational commitment for a sample of 611 managers ($B = -.15$, $p < 0.001$). In the same vein, Morris and Sherman (1981) reported a negative influence of role conflict ($B = -.21$, $p < 0.001$) and role ambiguity ($B = -.05$, n.s.) on organisational commitment for a sample of 506 employees. Taken together the findings on commitment and role ambiguity/conflict/overload relationship, it appears that level of employees commitment will decrease where these work-related characteristics exist.

This completes the survey of suggested and empirically determined relationships between organisational commitment and specific work-related characteristics. Across the relatively few studies reviewed, the findings have been surprisingly consistent. Generally, higher levels of job commitment tend to characterise workers whose tasks/jobs (i) involve a certain amount of responsibility, (ii) permit to make decisions and establishment of autonomy, (iii) contain a reasonable amount of variety, (iv) have the potential to satisfy higher order needs (achievement, self-esteem, job difficulty, opportunity to develop self, etc.), and (v) provide an adequate supply of feedback. Also, supervision that is not overly tight or close, good interpersonal relations with co-workers and absence of role ambiguity and work overload, increase the level of employee commitment to their organisation. Other tentative relationships have been suggested, but further generalisations must await further experimental support.

2.4.3. Organisational-Related Factors

This section deals with studies that have viewed commitment to be largely a result of all benefits and advantages, which accrue to a worker for being part of an organisation. Stevens, Beyer and Trice (1978) categorised them as those based on "exchange approach". One of the pioneering studies based on the exchange approach was presented by Becker (1960). It points out that there are certain extrinsic benefits (e.g. promotional opportunity, adequate working conditions, increment, etc.) which induce workers to remain attached to the organisation. Becker calls them "side bets". The following statement contains the major elements of Becker's side-bet theory:

"..... commitment has been achieved by making a side-bet. The committed person has acted in such a way as to involve other interests of his, originally extraneous to the action he has engaged in, directly in that action. By his own actions prior to the final bargaining session, he has staked something of value to him, something originally unrelated to his present line of action, on being consistent in his present behaviour. The consequences of inconsistency will be so expensive that inconsistency in his bargaining stance is no longer a feasible alternative." (p. 35).

When side bets are made to an organisation, the individual perceives associated benefits as positive elements in an exchange and, being reluctant to lose these benefits, is more likely to stay with that organisation (Stevens, et al. 1978). The individual thus becomes organisationally committed. With its economic rationale, the degree of commitment becomes largely, though not entirely, a function of the extent to which worker's physiological, safety, and security needs are met by the organisation. This view of side bets has found support in relatively recent studies.

Mowday, Porter and Dubin (1974) found the perceived influence of organisational policies concerning salary and promotion prospects to be one of the sources of organisational attachment for a sample of 411 female clerical workers in 37 branches of a bank. Steers (1977) found "rewards or the realisation of expectations" to be a significant predictor for 382 hospital employees ($B = 15, p < 0.001$). Similarly, Aranya, Kushnir and Valency (1986) reported a positive correlation ($r = .54, p < 0.01$), between organisational

commitment and low need satisfaction (comprising items such as pay, fringe benefits and job security) for a sample of 1,053 North American male and female accountants.

In addition, several studies have found that commitment is related to organisation dependability or the extent to which organisations are viewed as looking after the best interests of employees. For example, positive influence of organisational dependability on commitment was reported by Buchanan (1974a) : $B = .15$, $p < 0.01$, for a sample of 279 business and government managers, and by Steers (1977) : $B = .12$, $p.05$ and $B = .27$, $p.01$ for samples of 382 hospital employees, and 119 scientists and engineers respectively. Moreover, Angle and Perry (1983) found extrinsic factor (with items such as compensation, security and treatment by the organisation) to be a significant predictor of commitment for 1,099 bus operators ($B = .48$, $p < 0.001$).

The findings of Aranya and Jacobson (1975) study of theories of organisational and occupational commitment in Israel ($N=276$), showed a significant positive relationship between commitment and large increase in pay ($r = .17$, $p.01$). Also, Marsh and Mannari (1977) reported a significant positive relationship between commitment and perceived chances of promotion ($r = .11$, $p.05$) for a sample of 372 male employees in an electric factory. Moreover, Mottaz (1986a), in a recent study of organisational commitment among 1,385 workers representing several different occupational groups found that, extrinsic organisational rewards (such as adequate working conditions, pay equity, promotional opportunities, adequate fringe benefits and income level) have a positive significant effect on employees commitment to their organisation ($B = .09$, $p.05$). Taken together the evidence bearing on the relationship between organisational commitment and side bets there is consistent linear relationship between the two variables.

Another set of characteristics grouped under organisational-related factors and which has been examined in relation to job commitment concerns type of organisation with which an individual is associated, years of working experience (tenure) and positional or occupational level. Paine, Carroll and Leete (1966) found that managers from business and

industry compared with their counterparts in government agencies, feel better about their jobs. In his study of government managers, business executives, and organisational commitment, Buchanan (1974b) also found that business executives consistently report more favourable attitudes toward their organisations than government managers. This led him to conclude that there are certain characteristics of the private organisations' climate, such as competition with other firms, which could be expected to generate strong commitment norms among private sector managers.

Schwychart and Smith (1972) found no significant relationship between tenure and job involvement for samples of male middle managers. Similarly, Gechman and Weiner (1975) did not find a significant relationship between job involvement and years of teaching experience for a sample of 54 female elementary school teachers. Jones, James, and Bruni (1975) and Stevens et al. (1978) did, however, find a significant relationship between commitment and length of service among a sample of 112 civil service and military employees ($r = .35, p < 0.01$), and among 634 managers ($B = .24, p < 0.001$) respectively. Moreover, Mowday, et al.'s (1982) study indicated that higher-tenure employees tend to hold the more intrinsically rewarding jobs, receive high levels of extrinsic rewards such as pay, and have more close relationships than lower-tenure employees, hence are more satisfied with work and highly committed. Based on these limited findings the effects of tenure on employees' commitment is inconclusive.

Finally, Tannenbaum (1966) stated that individuals at higher ranks are generally more interested and more committed to their jobs than persons at lower levels. Several studies have tested this hypothesis. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) found no significant results in comparing job status levels of 137 nursing personnel to job involvement scores. In a similar vein, no significant relationships were found between occupational level and job involvement for samples of 40 employees in a Canadian government ministry (Rabinowitz, 1975). However, Mannheim (1975) found support for Tannenbaum's view in his study of work role centrality (commitment) among seven categories of occupations ($N=652$), and

Stevens et al. also reported a positive correlation between the two variables ($r = .06$). Once more, few studies performed to date on commitment/job level relationship have shown mixed results. However, the present study will see if Tannenbaum's assumption can be generalised to Nigerian situation.

In sum, these findings suggest a reciprocation norm in which employees develop greater feelings of responsibility when organisations are viewed as looking after the best interests of employees and as caring about employee well-being. Specifically, the available research evidence indicates that the more the organisation provides rewards (or extrinsic benefits) such as promotional opportunity, job security, good pay and adequate fringe benefits, the more the employees will be committed to the particular organisation. Because of the point we made earlier in this thesis that, in Nigeria, as in many other developing countries, people are yet to satisfy their basic physiological needs, we can therefore expect similar results in the present study, that is, positive relationship between employee commitment and "side-bets."

2.5. Summary and Conclusion

In this chapter we have defined and analysed some basic components of organisational commitment, and examined the range and nature of the variables which have been found to influence it. We have seen that organisational commitment is a multidimensional concept and has been used interchangeably in the literature with job involvement. It was also observed that the construct "organisational commitment" is logically and empirically distinguishable from job satisfaction/motivation.

This chapter has also attempted to identify behavioural outcomes and antecedents of organisational commitment. We found that organisational commitment is positively related to several behavioural outcomes such as willingness to stay with the organisation, willingness to attend work regularly, and feelings of pride and satisfaction. The antecedents variables were cast into three categories : (i) personal characteristics, (ii) work-related factors, and (iii) organisational-related factors. From each category, the following

variables were identified as significant predictors of commitment : (i) personal characteristics : age, education and sex; (ii) work-related factors : stimulating/interesting job (autonomy, variety, task identity, feedback), chance to make decisions regarding work, good interpersonal relations with superior and co-workers, and higher order need strength (achievement, self-esteem, job difficulty and opportunity to develop self); and (iii) organisational-related factors : job security, occupational level, promotional opportunity, organisation type and good working conditions. Comparatively, research findings on the last two categories (work- and organisational- related factors) showed relatively consistent linear relationship between commitment and antecedent variables, while results on personal characteristics/commitment relationship have shown mixed results. For example, while older workers have consistently tended to be more committed to their organisations than younger ones, higher education was negatively related to commitment.

In conclusion, the writer did not find any published research on commitment that has investigated the influence of culture (or ethnicity). It was also observed that most of these studies were conducted in advanced countries and consequently have relied on the advanced industrial societies as their settings. Specifically, we did not find any study of organisational commitment in Nigeria. Thus, this literature review indicates that our knowledge of antecedents of commitment behaviours among developing nations' employees, particularly Nigerian workforce, is lacking. Therefore, the present study, among other things, sought to provide empirical evidence of (i) determinants or antecedents of organisational commitment in a developing country - Nigeria, and (ii) any difference in organisational commitment, that may exist between developed and less developed nations by comparing our results with those of prior research. An attempt will also be made to expand upon preceding work in the area of organisational commitment by examining the influences of other personal characteristics such as personality (as measured by Eysenck Personality Questionnaire - EPQ) and cultural background.

Specifically, based on this review, the following assumptions can be made if we

assume that Nigerians do not differ from the industrialised (mainly USA) populations previously studied:

- (a) Organisational commitment will be strongly related to social features of the job (e.g. interpersonal relations, close-knit work groups, and co-workers assistance).
- (b) Organisational commitment will be strongly related to task characteristics.
- (c) There will be significant positive relationship between commitment and "side-bets."
- (d) There will be significant positive relationship between commitment and supervision that is not overly tight or close.
- (e) There will be significant positive relationship between commitment and age.
- (f) There will be significant positive relationship between commitment and occupational levels.
- (g) There will be significant negative relationship between commitment and educational levels.

Up to this point of our literature review, the discussion has been directed at previous research findings related to perceived determinants of organisational commitment; the next chapter temporarily removes the spotlight from organisational commitment, and focuses instead on previous studies on cross-cultural research related to job attitudes.

CHAPTER THREE

PREVIOUS STUDIES ON CROSS-CULTURAL RESEARCH RELATED TO JOB ATTITUDES

3.1. Introduction

This chapter attempts to provide a nonexhaustive review of the various meanings which workers in different cultures attach to their jobs, and work in general, and the implications that these meanings have for organisational behaviour and cross-cultural research. It seeks to answer questions such as why one individual is highly committed to the organisation (or highly involved with his work), spends long hours working and thinking about work-related problems, and derives considerable satisfaction from his job, while another resents more or less every minute he has to spend cooped up in the office or factory and would not be there at all were it not for the fact that he needs the money. These two *orientations to work*, the *instrumental* and the *involved*, as they are frequently referred to in the literature, form the basis of much of the discussion entered into below.

More specifically, this chapter aims at providing some accumulated empirical evidences for the assumption that, job attitudes differ from one culture to another, and any attempt, therefore, to apply a particular theory developed elsewhere, say of job motivation developed in the USA, or to transfer management practices or norms from one culture to another, is in serious error. While the literature review in the present chapter does not deal directly with the recent debate in the literature on applicability of American theories abroad (see Hofstede, 1981; Hunt, 1981; Goodstein, 1981; and Nevis, 1983), the argument developed is consistent with the contention of Hofstede (1980b) and Jahoda (1986) that attempts to enhance productive work behaviours generally, and incentives to further job motivation specifically can only succeed to the extent that they fit with basic values as reflected in culturally bound theory.

The secondary purpose of this review is to identify specific work-related (including

demographic) variables that have been found to have influence on employees work behaviour in different cultures. We hope that such an exercise will help in predicting the nature of relationship expected between such variables and job attitudes in the present study.

As a start, we shall present a discussion on theoretical framework of cross-cultural research in order to provide a background for the subsequent review. It is the writer's opinion that such an insight will help set the principles to guide unblurred cross-cultural investigations.

3.2. Theoretical Framework of Cross-Cultural Research

The significance of this part of the review is better demonstrated by answering the question : What principles guide cross-cultural research? Putting it differently, this question asks whether we have good theories and definitions of terms within which cross-cultural research is framed. To answer this question we shall examine various definitions of the term *culture*, how it shapes peoples' perceptions of work and motivations to work, and its bearing on cross-cultural research related to organisational behaviour.

Culture is one of those terms that defy a single all purpose definition, and there are almost as many meanings of *culture* as people using the term. Therefore, we find among the studies using a cultural explanation for managerial differences, a varied and divergent array of conceptions. These diverse views of *culture* cannot be explained solely on the ground that the writers come from different disciplines with dissimilar orientations and backgrounds, important as they may be. The real problem lies in the concept of *culture* itself. Since this concept is the invention of anthropologists, the most logical place to look for its explanation is in the field of anthropology. Unfortunately, there is no all-embracing definition of culture in anthropology, but there are many different definitions which are analytically useful for a wide variety of purposes.

Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) defined culture as :

"patterns, explicit and implicit of and for behaviour, acquired and transmitted by symbols constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups including their embodiment of artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other as conditioning elements of future action." (p. 181).

This omnibus definition of culture indicates the immense difficulty which cross-cultural researchers face, as, plainly, any kind of research study can in principle be correlated with any one of the cultural factors enumerated by Kroeber and Kluckhohn.

Kroeber and Parsons (1958) arrive at a cross-disciplinary definition of culture as "transmitted and created content and patterns of values, ideas, and other symbolic-meaningful systems as factors in the shaping of human behaviour and the artifacts produced through behaviour." Triandis (1972) distinguishes "subjective" culture from its expression in "objective" artifacts and defines the former as a "cultural group's characteristic way of perceiving the man-made part of its environment." Hofstede (1980a) treats culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another." Culture, in the sense enumerated here, includes systems of values; and values are among the building blocks of culture.

In his study of American and Mexican executives, Fayerweather (1959) defines culture as "the attitudes, beliefs, and values of a society." (p. 7). While this definition of culture is enumerative rather than exhaustive, it is useful since it at least identifies certain cultural elements. Hence, when the author speaks about cultural differences responsible for the variation in Mexican and American management practices - for example, authoritative versus democratic management - we know that he is talking in terms of these three elements.

In contrast to the above definition, Whitehill (1964) offers a more general description of culture as "the whole complex of distinctive features characteristic of a particular stage of advancement in a given society." (p. 69). This definition is not only broad, but it also underlines the dynamism inherent in every culture by stipulating a point in time. This is

important because most scholars, whether or not they define term, talk about culture as if it were static and unchanging, when in facts it exhibits both continuity and change.

Metaphorically, culture is to a human collectivity what personality is to an individual. Personality has been defined by Guilford (1959) as "the interactive aggregate of personal characteristics that influence the individual's response to the environment." Culture could be defined as the interactive aggregate of common characteristics that influence a human group's response to its environment. Culture determines the identity of a human group in the same way as personality determines the identity of an individual. Moreover, the two interact; "culture and personality" is a classic name for psychological anthropology (Barnouw, 1973). Cultural traits sometimes can be measured by personality tests.

In sum, there seems to be a consensus of opinion among writers that culture denotes socialisation processes which individuals undergo. A global term sometimes used to denote these processes is *implicit culture*. Following Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey (1962), the *implicit culture* of a particular society or ethnic group can be conveniently discussed in terms of the following categories : cultural beliefs, cultural values and cultural norms. All of these factors help to shape the individual's behaviour - his expectations, and his reactions to new experiences and to other people.

We will now briefly discuss these three factors (cultural belief, value and norm) which form the basis of the social and cultural contexts in which the individual is reared and which consequently play a significant role in determining his future patterns of behaviour.

The first factor relates to belief system of a society, which includes shared knowledge, superstitions, myths and legends, and which to a large degree serves to define the implicit culture of that society and to set it apart from other societies. Malinowski's (1926) early remarks about the functions of myths and legends in a society's culture still apply today. He regarded myth as being an indispensable part of culture. In his view, it provides practical guidelines for man's behaviour : "it expresses, enhances and codifies belief; it safeguards and enforces morality; and it vouches for the efficiency of ritual." (p. 23). Myth has a

prominent place in human civilisation : "it is not an ideal tale, but a hard-worked active force; it is not an intellectual exploration or an artistic imagery, but a pragmatic charter of faith and moral wisdom" (Malinowski, 1926: p. 23). Cultural beliefs therefore exert an important influence on individual behaviour, and to some degree will determine reactions to work in modern organisations.

The second factor which also affects behaviour pertains to values a person holds. According to Kluckhohn (1951): "a value is a conception, explicit or implicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means and ends of actions." It is also in line with the definition of Rokeach (1972): "to say that a person 'has a value' is to say that he has an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end-state of an existence is personally and socially preferable to alternative modes of conduct or end-state of existence." This definitions taken together reserve the word 'value' (cultural) for a particularly important belief shared by members of a society, concerning what ought to be or what is good or desirable.

Example of values which can exert an influence on behaviour at work is found in Gutkind's (1968) study of African responses to urban wage employment; Dorjahn and Hogg's (1966) study of job satisfaction in a Sierra Leone town; and Peil's (1972) study of the Ghanaian factory worker. Gutkind's finding suggests that for many of the indigenous peoples of Africa etiquette associated with the form and nature of interpersonal relations is accorded high value, and is closely linked to individual perceptions of self-esteem. Peil's findings corroborate this hypothesis :

"Mutual respect is extremely important. Workers and foremen both think they should have respect from management and from each other. Some of the complaints about being shouted at are due to the lack of respect which such treatment implies." (p. 96).

Further support is supplied by Dorjahn and Hogg, who found that a 'good boss' was regarded as one treated his employees with respect and spoke nicely to them. This entailed observing traditional requirements of etiquette of which politeness and kindness were

essential ingredients. Dorjahn and Hogg also noted that, the good manager should praise his employees and encourage them in public. Their mistakes or weaknesses should only be pointed out, politely, in private. And like anyone else who is unreasonable or unable to control his temper, a manager who behaves thus is looked down upon by workers in Sierra Leone. Patience and forbearance are necessary characteristics of the good manager.

The above example of values (courtesy, generosity, respect for others and self control) which an individual brings to the workplace indicates that certain management practices will be evaluated differently in different cultures, and hence be more or less effective according to the cultural values (e.g. shouting at people may work elsewhere but not in Ghana).

The next and the last cultural-related influence on behaviour is that exerted by norms. These specify standards or rules which dictate acceptable or appropriate, as opposed to unacceptable or inappropriate, behaviours in particular situations. Such norms may also embody the rewards and punishments associated with acceptable and unacceptable behaviours. It is useful to distinguish norms further into those for which conformity is not vital to the well-being of the group and those for which conformity is of vital importance to the society or group concerned.

Examples of both types of norm, which are to be found in many African societies, and the effects that such norms can have on behaviour in the workplace, are well conveyed by Banton (1957) in his study of social life in Freetown in Sierra Leone. As with many African nations, a fundamental feature of society in Sierra Leone at the time was the personalisation of relationships. A man has personal relations with all those people with whom he has regular interactions. These interactions are governed by norms of varying latitude. Very strong norms are applied to relationships with kinsmen, relatives and chiefs. Norms applied to relationships with strangers of the same ethnic group are weaker, and those governing relationships with strangers from another ethnic group are very weak indeed. Banton argued that, as a result "Africans do not readily adapt themselves to the

impersonal relationships of modern industry, such as those of worker to foreman." (p. 114). Very often, all that matters to the foreman or supervisor in modern work organisations is that a subordinate's work is up to standard. The worker that the worker might be a 'worthy' individual - "spending his money on his children's education instead of on beer and cigarettes - is of no interest to the employer" (Banton, 1957: p. 114). In present day

Africa, norms of this kind are not as common as they were, and they are therefore something of a picturesque example. They do, however, as in other nations, provide some indication of the variety of cultural norms capable of influencing behaviour at work. In summary, we have spoken thus far about factors influencing behaviour (work) in different cultures. The examples we have chosen to discuss, mostly from Africa, are those which reflect essentially age-old indigenous norms and values. We have therefore neglected the vast numbers of young people who have been raised and socialised in urban areas, and whose implicit cultures are likely to contain both traditional and modern elements. There is tremendous variation among town dwellers, however, and economic and ethnic factors are just two of the many variables which determine the socialisation practices of different groups in urban areas.

One tends to ask : What does all this (cultural beliefs, values and norms) tell us about the meanings which workers attach to the jobs they do and the organisations they work in? It implies that the values an individual holds and the norms of conduct he observes make him more or less amenable to the experiences of modern working life. England, Dhingra and Agarwal (1974) share this view, and have concluded that, beliefs, values and norms are of significance because they influence many aspects of organisational behaviour, such as :

- (i) Our perception of other individuals and groups, and therefore interpersonal relationships.
- (ii) The decisions we make, and the solutions we adopt to particular problems.
- (iii) What constitutes ethical or unethical behaviour.

- (iv) Our willingness to accept organisational goals, rules and regulations.
- (v) Our perception of individual and organisational success and appropriate means of attaining them.
- (vi) The way in which the organisation is structured and managed, and reactions to this.

The position adopted in this section with regard to the importance of implicit culture in determining the meaning of work has considerable support in the literature. Gutkind (1968), for example, notes that under certain circumstances "traditional values and the rejection or acceptance of the demands of modern commercial or industrial operations are closely related." (p.139). And Dawson (1963), observed that "traditional values thus limit the extent to which tribal groups adapt themselves to the new work demands of the emerging society." (p. 217). Clearly, as noted by Barrett and Bass (1976),

"what is valued in differing cultures affects motivation to work : "particularism or universalism, traditionalism or modernity, white collar orientation, pragmatism or moralism, workplace or home, and intrinsic or extrinsic rewards. What we shall see as we move from culture to another is that wide divergences appear in these kinds of values concerning work and the workplace." (p. 1647).

We shall now turn to looking a little more closely at some empirical evidence concerned with orientations to work in different cultures. We hope that such an exercise will help us to see more clearly how individual's beliefs, values and norms discussed above affect employees job attitudes in different cultures. In our review, we shall draw mainly from, but not limited to, studies that have directly employed cross-cultural approach - studies that provide data from, or discuss differences among, two or more cultures. We shall include a few single-culture studies which provide insights for cross-cultural researchers or those that are replicated in another culture.

3.3. An Overview of the Research on Cultural Differences and Job Attitudes

In carrying out cross-cultural research, a number of studies have been conducted showing differences among, or between countries (national differences) and between subcultures or ethnic groups of a given country (intra-country differences). To begin with, we shall consider a number of studies of job attitudes among, or between countries.

National Differences

To our knowledge, the first research study demonstrating certain broad culturally based influences on job attitudes was the classic international study of managerial attitudes by Haire, Ghiselli and Porter (1966). They collected 3,600 responses from managers in 14 countries concerning the types of satisfactions managers want from their jobs and the degree to which they feel these needs are actually being satisfied through their jobs. They considered, for instance, such questions as whether managers in Northern European countries see their jobs as more fulfilling than do managers in Southern European countries; and whether managers from "economically developed" countries, such as the United States and England, are more satisfied in their jobs than are managers from the developing countries of India, Argentina and Chile. To obtain information on these points, five types of Psychological needs were studied having slightly modified Maslow's (1954) original hierarchy of needs. These needs, in the theoretical order of their priority or prepotency, were : security, social, esteem, autonomy, and self-actualisation.

To measure these needs, the researchers developed 11 item-questionnaire arranged randomly rather than in a theoretical order. For each of the 11 items, the manager was asked the following questions and was to indicate his response on 7-point rating scales : (i) How much of the characteristic is there now connected with your management position? (ii) How much of the characteristic do you think should be connected with your management position? (iii) How important is this position characteristic to you? The answers to the third question were used to determine the importance attached to particular needs, that is, what the manager wants to get from his position. To determine degree of

fulfillment or satisfaction, or what he feels he is getting from his position, the difference between responses to question (ii) and question (i) was computed for each item for each respondent. Thus, the larger the difference between "should be" and "is now" the greater was the indicated dissatisfaction.

In discussing the findings of this rigorous, multi-national survey, Haire, et al. reported that managers tend to be alike from country to country in what they 'want' from their jobs, but they tend to be quite different in what they 'think they are getting from their jobs.' Both the absolute ratings of satisfaction for a particular need vary from country to country, and so also do the relative rankings of one or another need in comparison to all other needs. That is, the mean satisfaction for a given need, say esteem, may be high for country A and low for country B, but also country A may regard this need as the most satisfied of the five needs, whereas country B regards it about third in satisfaction.

However, they found that, across the fourteen countries the three lower-order needs of security, social and esteem are better satisfied (less dissatisfied) than are the two higher order needs of autonomy and self-actualisation. This fact indicates that there is some relationship between the position of a need in the theoretical hierarchy and the degree to which it is seen as being satisfied in the job. In general, the more basic the need, the better it is satisfied in the management job, as the theory might predict. The relationship is clearly not perfect though in this data, since esteem, the middle need in the theoretical hierarchy, is seen as being better satisfied than the two lower-order needs, security and social (Haire, et al., 1966).

Furthermore, for most meaningful analyses of their data, since the absolute and relative satisfaction of most of the five needs varies considerably from country to country, Haire et al. clustered the various countries into five groups according to patterns or profiles of satisfactions for the five types of needs. First are the four countries of mid/southern continental Europe (Latin-European countries) : Belgium, France, Italy and Spain. The second group includes Germany and the three Scandinavian countries - Denmark, Norway

and Sweden (Nordic-European countries). The third cluster includes the two English-speaking countries (Anglo-American countries) : England and the United States; and the fourth group includes Argentina, Chile and India (Developing countries). Japan stands by itself, its pattern being completely different from that of the four groups.

Comparing the differences in need satisfaction among the various clusters of countries, Haire et al. discovered that, for all the five need areas, the managers from Developing countries, followed by those from the Latin-European countries are the two most dissatisfied groups. The profiles for these two clusters are similar : moderately low for security need dissatisfaction, then decrease as they move to esteem dissatisfaction, and later show relatively large increases in dissatisfaction from esteem to autonomy needs and large increases again from autonomy to self-actualisation needs. The Nordic-European group deviates from this pattern, in that the expressed dissatisfaction with security needs exceeds that for social needs. The Anglo-American pattern also deviates, in that esteem need dissatisfaction is greater in this group than is social need dissatisfaction. The pattern for the English-American group is in direct relationship to the theoretical ordering of needs in terms of their prepotency. That is, managers from England and America are most satisfied in the most basic needs, security; then most satisfied in the next most basic needs, social needs; and so on, up to the last basic need of self-actualisation which produces the least degree of satisfaction for them.

Finally, the profile for Japan presents a picture of the "inscrutable East" (Haire, et al., 1966) as far as its pattern of satisfaction is concerned. Unlike that of any of the other four groups, the Japanese pattern shows an equal degree of satisfaction among the five types of needs. Japanese managers feel just as satisfied (or dissatisfied) about self-actualisation needs as they do about esteem, security, or any other types of needs. This uniformity of response from one type of need to another was not approached in any other country, is therefore a truly unique response pattern, and is the reason that Japan has been grouped in a category of countries by itself in Haire et al.'s analysis.

Individual country differences in satisfaction were also reported. India, Argentina, Spain, Chile and Italy are the countries which have the most dissatisfied managers. (France also, almost makes it into that category of countries.) Indian managers are the most dissatisfied managers of any country, for three of the five needs - autonomy, esteem and social; and the second most dissatisfied, for self-actualisation need. Only in the area of security needs are Indian managers not dissatisfied. Argentinan, Spanish and Chilean managers, in that order, are also very consistent in terms of a relatively high degree of dissatisfaction. Following in order are Belgium and Germany. Managers from Belgium feels most dissatisfied with self-actualisation needs and then with autonomy and social needs followed by security and esteem needs. Germany is somewhat similar to its southern European partners in having a relatively high over-all level of dissatisfaction, and is, in fact, closely related to Belgium in this respect. However, in the profile pattern of ranking of the five needs in terms of dissatisfaction, Germany seems more similar to its neighbours to the north. Like the Scandinavian countries, it tends to feel relatively well satisfied in esteem and social need areas and relatively less well satisfied on security needs. Security needs for German managers, in fact, are as unsatisfied as autonomy needs.

Looking at the other side of the coin, the most satisfied managers in individual countries, as shown in Haire et al. analysis, are the Swedish managers who rank among the three most satisfied national groups of managers in every need area. Other countries showing consistently high managerial job satisfaction across the various needs are the other two Scandinavian countries (Norway and Denmark), Japan and England. United States managers are relatively well satisfied in the two basic need areas of security and social needs, but are about average among the various countries on each of the other three needs.

The findings of this international study indicate that there are large variations in the patterns of motivational feelings among different countries. According to Haire et al., the factors underlying these differences seem to be not only the degree of economic development of the country, but also the culture of the country in relation to business.

Thus, the United States and England are at least as well developed economically, or more so, than Denmark, Norway and Sweden; yet the managers from the Scandinavian countries reported definitely higher need satisfaction. Likewise, the fact that the four countries comprising the Latin-European group showed a great similarity in their responses to motivational questions, in spite of their differing degrees of economic development, would imply that culture had some influence. Finally, when the study concluded, "theoretical classification of five types of needs according to their priority exactly fits the patterns of results for the United States and England but not for any other group of countries", this suggests, perhaps, that the theoretical formulation is especially relevant to the cultural conditions existing in these two English-speaking countries.

We found four cross-cultural studies that have employed the same theoretical framework and questionnaire as that decided on by Haire et al. (1966). The first came from Heller and Porter (1966) who compared the responses of American and English middle-level managers. Their finding was consistent with Haire et al.'s original study. Heller and Porter reported that there was some small difference between the English and American groups in their evaluation of work satisfactions which were now available to them, with the American group feeling slightly less satisfied. Both groups indicated relatively high satisfaction in the social and security need areas. There was considerable agreement on the importance of these satisfactions in absolute terms with self-realisation (self-actualisation) needs very much in the lead. The American-English agreement on incentives was also high with 'prospects of promotion', 'efficiency' and 'pay' receiving top scores. Thus, the authors concluded that the attitudes of the two groups were "surprisingly similar." Heller and Porter felt that these similarities were particularly noteworthy in view of the different socio-economic conditions prevailing in the two countries and their widely differing industrial traditions. This finding points to the existence of certain 'culture free' characteristics in the satisfaction of management.

The second study by Slocum (1971) compared the perceptions of need satisfaction and

importance for blue-collar workers in the United States and Mexico. In approaching the question of the satisfactions operative employees want from their jobs and the degree to which they feel these are actually being satisfied, the author studied five types of psychological need, derived from Maslow's need classification system (1954), as modified and used by Haire et al. (1966). Organisational and technological differences were controlled to isolate culture as the independent variable. The findings show that there were significant differences in nearly every need item score between the countries. The Mexican operatives were generally more satisfied in the needs and they also placed more importance on the needs than did the American operatives.

In discussing his findings, Slocum contended that culture significantly affects need satisfaction and importance for operative employees. Mexicans place a great deal of importance on informal and aesthetic values and, by nature, are not highly motivated to work, provided that the basic family needs have been satisfied (Ramos, 1962). The average Mexican worker goes to work primarily to provide his family with material needs. Family welfare is the primary concern of the Mexican worker, and, thus, these values were reflected in the satisfaction and importance of the lower order needs. The data show that the security need was the most important, but also the least satisfied need for the Mexican operative. The American workers placed less importance on the security need than did the Mexicans, but the Americans were also less satisfied in this need.

The American culture has been described by Williams (1965) and Sjoberg (1964), among others, as being highly mobile, in which new patterns of behaviour are constantly being introduced into the culture. The Mexican culture, however, has been characterised by high stability and low mobility (Williams and Smucker, 1966). These cultural differences would seemingly breed different sets of values between American and Mexican operatives. The difference in competition and social pressures between the United States and Mexico may help to explain why the American operatives' higher order needs are not easily satisfied as the Mexican operatives' needs. The need for self-actualisation has usually been

associated with growth and development, self-fulfillment and accomplishment. American workers are much more cognizant of these needs than are the Mexican workers and, therefore, the American operative holds these needs as highly important. The Mexican culture places much more emphasis on lower order needs, and this emphasis was noted in Slocum's study.

The remaining two studies did not make direct comparisons - obtained data from two or more cultures - but instead collected data from one country and compared the results with those obtained in the original study. Using the same questionnaire as Haire et al., Clark and McCabe (1972) studied the motivation and satisfaction of Australian managers and Blunt (1973) studied managerial job satisfaction in South Africa. Comparing the values of need satisfaction in the Australian sample with those for all managers, Clark and McCabe found that their dissatisfaction was higher on self-actualisation and lower on social, security and autonomy needs. They differ little in the degree of their dissatisfaction on esteem. Leaving aside self-actualisation, they were less dissatisfied than the average for all managers.

Taking each of the needs in turn, the Australian managers are most like the French managers in the extent of their dissatisfaction on self-actualisation. On autonomy, they are most like the managers from Belgium. For esteem, they are most similar to the American result, on security they are closest to Japan and social to Germany. Also, their data shows that the levels of dissatisfaction of the Australian sample are higher than England for all five needs; and higher than the United States on self-actualisation, security and social needs. They are about equal on esteem, and the United States shows more dissatisfaction than Australia on autonomy.

Clark and McCabe (1972) found that theoretical classification of five types of needs, from most to least important precisely fits the patterns of result for Australia as for United States and England in the original study. Thus, they concluded that the theoretical formulation is particularly applicable to countries that draw on English culture.

In Blunt's (1973) findings, there are a number of interesting and quite marked differences between South Africa and other countries with regard to the amount of need satisfaction experienced in the various need categories; South African English-speaking managers were much less satisfied than managers from other countries.

Compared with the results of the original study, South African managers are more dissatisfied in almost every need category than managers from England, United States, Australia, Denmark, Germany, France and Italy. The only exceptions are France and Italy whose managers are more dissatisfied with social needs than are South African managers. In slight mitigation however, developing countries such as Argentina, Chile and India seem to have more dissatisfied managers in all aspects. In almost every country the least satisfied need areas are autonomy and self-actualisation and the needs causing least dissatisfaction are, in most cases, security and social in that order. In Blunt's study the order is reversed : security needs caused more dissatisfaction than social ones.

Maslow's theory suggests that where there is greater dissatisfaction in lower level needs as compared to higher-level needs than the former should be of the greatest importance to the individual. Thus for South African managers, Maslow would predict that security needs were more important than social needs; this was the case in Blunt's findings, security was considered third most important and social fourth. Also, esteem which is a higher-level need than either security or social was ranked fifth in importance.

In discussing his findings, Blunt speculate that there are some variables (cultural and situational) within the South African setting which prevent the South African manager from satisfying the needs required for satisfactory self-actualisation. In this respect, it is possible that the political climate in South Africa contributes to dissatisfaction generally; in particular it is likely to affect the autonomy and self-actualisation need areas. This can be seen in the way that the dictates of apartheid severely restrict the individual to a limited variety of personal contacts with peoples from Asiatic or African races. Laws such as those which allow for indefinite detention without trial may also threaten the individuals

autonomy and his ability to satisfy self-actualisation needs within the wider social context. Restrictive measures, such as excessive censorship of both written and visual materials, undoubtedly contribute to the sterility of most forms of expressive art and culture (Blunt, 1973). Maslow (1954), has emphasised the importance of cultural factors in the determination of satisfaction :

"There are certain conditions that are immediate prerequisites for the basic needs themselves. Such conditions as freedom to speak, freedom to do what one wishes so long as no harm is done to others, freedom to express oneself, freedom to investigate and seek for information, freedom to defend oneself, justice, fairness, honesty, orderliness in the groups are examples of such preconditions for basic need satisfaction..... These conditions are defended because without them the basic satisfactions are quite impossible or at least severely endangered." (p. 192).

Blunt argues that the factors outlined by Maslow are severely undermined by governmental policies in South Africa. In view of this, it is hardly surprising that South African managers tend to be more dissatisfied than those from other countries. The arguments presented so far, led Blunt to conclude that the relatively high degree of dissatisfaction experienced by South African sample is a result of factors operating within the society as a whole rather than within particular companies.

In summary, the above review of five method-bound studies in seventeen different countries shows that the motivational equipment with which the employee approaches his job varies from culture to culture. Maslow's theory of motivation is supported in developed countries of England, United States and Australia; followed by South Africa but not in developing countries. This indicates that the theory of prepotency of needs is particularly well adapted to cultural milieu and organisational behaviour in the developed countries. Findings such as those reviewed above certainly reinforce our argument and those of other organisational behaviour researchers such as Hulin and Blood (1968), Maehr (1974) and Slocum (1971) concerning the importance of taking account of cultural and sub-cultural differences in examining attitudes to work.

Studies involving more than two nations, like those reviewed above have been

relatively rare. Lauterback (1961) studied managerial attitudes in five countries of Western South America : Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia and Chile. He found that managers in these countries are oriented toward immediate profits, for the most part, to the neglect of long-range considerations. Also, family links and political contacts are widely seen in all of these countries as being inextricably connected with investment and with business decisions in general. He concluded that, work habits of management and labour, therefore, are quite different from those in North America or Western Europe. Visitors from these parts of the world are inclined to conclude that South Americans are just "lazy", but what is really involved is a different way of looking at life and economic activities in general and at cultural values in particular. There have been recent claims in the popular literature about the superiority of the Japanese-inspired participative principles of "Theory Z" management for business productivity (Ouchi, 1981; Pascale and Athos, 1981). Yet motivational and value differences that might support this principles have seldom been evaluated psychometrically. In response to this need, Howard, Shudo and Umeshima (1983) studied managerial motivation and values in Japan and America. Two different instrument were administered to both groups - Rokeach Values Survey and a questionnaire measure of upward mobility desires based on Sarnoff Survey of Attitudes Toward Life. Items in the questionnaire were grouped into three types of items, which were formed into a priori scales. Five items had to do with 'Advancement', four items concerned 'Money' and the remaining items referred to general 'Forward Striving.'

The study found that Japanese groups scored significantly higher than the Americans on every scale. Their greater emphasis on general forward striving could be tied to their greater management emphasis on long-term rather than short-term results, an orientation considered underemphasised in modern American management techniques (Hayes and Abernathy, 1980; Peterson, 1982). But they were also more motivated toward advancement and making money than the American samples.

Within both the American and Japanese samples, the overall Sarnoff score was

correlated with being ambitious and capable (which the Americans had ranked higher) and wanting an exciting life and a sense of accomplishment (which the Japanese had ranked higher). Thus, ambition was manifested in different ways in the value rankings of the two national groups, with the Americans focusing on individual characteristics and the Japanese on desired end-states. Howard et al. therefore concluded that the social orientation of the Japanese may benefit productivity within their own culture, but the personal orientation appears related to success within the American culture. In light of this, attempting to increase productivity in America by foisting Japanese social values on American workers seems not only inappropriate but perhaps also potentially detrimental.

Whitehill (1964), in a similar but more systematic study than that of Howard et al., compared Japanese and American blue-collar workers. In an attempt to investigate systematically the impact of cultural values upon worker and management behaviour, a survey was made of 2,000 production workers, equally divided between Japan and the United States, and employed by four roughly comparable firms in each of the two countries. He found that the expectations of Japanese workers concerning the role of "good management" in providing employment continuity are considerable more exacting than their American counterparts. Turning to attitudes concerning involvement, two-thirds of the Japanese respondents, as compared with only one-tenth of the United States sample, felt that a well-managed company should own housing facilities and make them available to workers on a no charge or low rent basis. Japanese workers are more willing to identify themselves positively with the company and are more motivated to perform 'a fair day's work for a fair day's pay' than their American counterparts.

Another type of two-nation survey was a study of IBM personnel in poor and rich nations (Greenwood, 1971). The study found that job security was more prepotent in economically poor nations while needs for autonomy and challenging work were relatively more important in wealthy nations. The study of Cortis (1962) among 78 Bantus and 63 European workers had also come to the same conclusion. He found that Europeans are more

concerned with prestige, whereas the Bantus are more concerned with security, status and opportunities for advancement.

Finally, Nevis (1983) compared Maslow's hierarchy of needs as applied to the United States with a different hierarchy that seems to fit the assumptions driving the culture of the Peoples Republic of China (PRC). His study addressed the issues of cultural relativism and attempted to show how an American theory - Maslow's theory of motivation - could be applied to an understanding of China.

Beginning with an analysis of cultural assumptions underlying Chinese management practices, and working from Maslow's hierarchy, he constructs a Chinese hierarchy of needs. Using some limited survey data, he then expand this argument to what is happening in China today and to understand how the Hierarchy of needs model may be useful in studying other cultures. Four different types of needs emerged from Nevis' data. These needs in order of priority, were : belonging, physiology, safety and self-actualisation. This finding led the author to conclude that the concept of a hierarchy of needs is valid only in terms of a specific culture. And, as cultures change, or as problems of environmental adaptation undergo significant shifts in importance, adjustments in the prominence of needs and their satisfaction lead to changes in priority from one level of the hierarchy to another.

With respect to empirical evidence bearing on Maslow's need hierarchy concept in various cultures, it seems that a hierarchy of needs is a culturally relative concept but not a biological imperative. Hofstede (1980b), in his recent book "Culture's Consequences", provides support for this conclusion by using his own data and that of others to show the cultural relativity of the Maslowian framework and subsequently suggests different need hierarchies for varying cultures or countries.

Another motivation theory subjected to cross-national scrutiny is Herzberg's two-factor theory. In his original study of 200 engineers and accountants in the United States, Herzberg found five factors as strong determiners of job satisfaction - achievement,

recognition, work itself, responsibility and advancement; and five factors as determiners of job dissatisfaction - company policy and administration, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions. Early replications of this original study by the author of the theory with the assistance of other researchers were published in 'Work and the nature of man' (Herzberg, 1966). They included studies of Finnish supervisors, Hungarian engineers and soviet workers. In all of these studies, Herzberg's proposition was strongly supported (see Appendix 1 for the underlying assumptions of Herzberg's theory).

Many studies have been undertaken in other parts of the world to test the generality of the job satisfaction theory proposed by Herzberg et al. (1959). Two investigators (Padaki and Dolke, 1970) attempted to replicate Herzberg's original study in India. Both interview and questionnaire were used to gather data from supervisors in twenty different textile mills. The results indicated that the factors that lead to satisfaction and dissatisfaction were stable over time. The results only partially confirmed Herzberg's supposition. Perhaps, of more importance was the fact that personality characteristics were related to factors leading to satisfaction or dissatisfaction. For example, interpersonal relationships of the superior were perceived by the extroverts as leading only to dissatisfaction. In the same vein, reported incidence of achievement on a job did not lead to increased satisfaction from those who scored low in achievement motivation. This study only reinforces the proposition that there are many factors, both cultural and personal, which lead to satisfaction or dissatisfaction on the job.

In an attempt to determine whether the factors responsible for job satisfaction would be separate from the factors responsible for job dissatisfaction among workers resident in Perth, Western Australia, Johnston and Bavin (1973) gave two lists containing the main factors claimed by Herzberg to be responsible for job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction to a sample of 130 male subjects. Subjects were asked to rank each factor in order of its importance for liking their job on the one hand, and for disliking it on the other. In analysing their data, only two factors emerged which could be called motivators in

Herzberg's terminology. They were security and interpersonal relations. Four factors also emerged which could be called hygiene factors; these were pay, supervision, recognition and working conditions. In this study, Herzberg's dual factor theory was not confirmed, although three hygiene factors were regarded as dissatisfiers.

Jibowo (1977), studied the effects of motivators and hygiene factors on job performance among a group of 75 agricultural extension workers in former Western State of Nigeria. Adopting basically the same method as Herzberg et al., Jibowo found some support for the influence of motivators on job performance. There was also evidence to suggest, however, that hygiene factors, such as poor working conditions, low levels of pay, and poor supervision depressed productivity, and performance in general, thus contradicting Herzberg's theory. In other words, the hygiene factors - pay, supervision and working conditions - acted as motivators among the Nigerian workers studied by Jibowo.

Wall, Stephenson and Skidmore (1971), in their experimental field study, interviewed British subjects using questions derived from Herzberg's interview schedule. The experimental group comprising 14 male subjects answered the questions during the course of a formal job selection interview at a given company. The control group consisted of 14 employees of the same company, who answered the same questions during the course of an informal interview. The experimental group yielded results similar to those reported by Herzberg et al. (1959) while the control group did not.

Comparing each factor across both conditions, the investigators found that every 'motivator' (except 'possibility of growth') in the experimental group is more strongly related to 'high job attitudes' and less strongly related to 'low job attitudes' than every motivator in the control group. Considering the 'hygiene factors', Wall, et al. reported that every hygiene factor in the experimental group (except 'salary') is more strongly related to 'high job attitudes' than is every 'hygiene factor' in the control group. This study concluded that individuals in a highly ego-involved situation respond to job attitude questions in a manner predictable from the two-factor theory, whilst individuals in a less ego-involved

situation do not.

To assess more directly the relationship between ego-defensive processes within individuals and the tendency towards "Herzbergianism" a more comprehensive research project was undertaken with a larger sample of British subjects (Wall and Stephenson, 1970). The result indicates that, individual with a strong tendency to give socially desirable or approved responses answer job attitude questions in a manner more predictable from the two-factor theory than do individuals whose "need for social approval" is less marked. In the light of the evidence of this British data, Wall and Stephenson suggested that Herzberg's two-factor theory is untenable as a description of the structure of job attitudes and the determinants of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.

Another project by Whyte and Williams (1963) compared workers' attitudes in the United States and Peru. To identify cross-cultural differences, parts of the questionnaire developed and used by the second author for research in the United States company were translated to make up a questionnaire which the first author applied to blue- and white-collar workers in the Peruvian company; and then compared the results. The results showed that, for the United States workers, there was a negative relationship between closeness of supervision and satisfaction, while in the Peruvian data, there was a positive relationship. The authors concluded that : "On the basis of these results, we felt that we had demonstrated the existence of systematic cross-cultural differences in responses to industrial supervision."

Recently, Chitris (1984) made an attempt to test the applicability of two-factor theory of job motivation in Greece. Using unstructured interview technique, he obtained responses from kitchen staff to the top management staff in two Greek hotel industries. The questions for the interview centred around : kind of leadership, prestige of the job, accommodation facilities, opportunities to satisfy their needs, non-financial incentives and conditions existing in the workplace. This study found that the factors which affect the majority of the hotel staff in doing their job efficiently are basically : the level of wages,

working conditions and style of leadership. Dissatisfiers are : the short time of employment, non-payment job and the low payment for the non-working period. Clearly, the two-factor theory is not supported by the Greek data. One possible explanation for this result is that cultural values in Greece and in the United States (country of the original investigator) are totally different and this shapes the employees' perceptions of work and motivations to work.

Scott, Dornbusch and Utande (1979) have also discussed the effects of culture on organisational practice. As part of their comparison of two Nigerian and two United States firms, they asked employees in both countries "whether there were factors other than their performance that were taken to account in determining their organisational rewards and penalties." Considerably more than 50 per cent of the Nigerian samples indicated that ethnic or tribal affiliations affected the way they were assessed and rewarded. The authors themselves noticed tension between the three major ethnic groups, Hausa, Ibo and Yoruba, and were told of numerous cases of discrimination in the allocation of work and the distribution of rewards and punishments. Surprisingly, only one respondent in the US sample mentioned the importance of race in performance assessment and reward. Scott et al. inferred, not unreasonably, that "apparently tribal loyalties were a sufficiently strong force to intrude themselves in important ways into the functioning of these Nigerian organisations."

There is also a small body of published knowledge about the problems of generalising across cultures of findings in a single culture. In particular, attentions have been focused on the extent to which the view that all work activity in industrial societies tends to be of an "instrumental" nature (Goldthorpe, Lockwood, Bechhofer and Platt, 1968) can be generalised. Since this view is so self-evidently in debt to Goldthorpe et al.'s study of "affluent" workers, we shall briefly review their study. Subsequently, findings of similar attempts to test the proposition in different countries will be discussed.

A classic study conducted by Goldthorpe et al. (1968) in Britain suggests that workers

who display an instrumental orientation towards work are much more likely to put up with unpleasant working conditions in order to maximise their monetary incomes. They argued, in fact, that where workers' goals and expectations focus on monetary rewards associated with the job and security, this allows them to experience a certain degree of job satisfaction despite the intrinsically unpleasant and dissatisfying nature of the work itself. More precisely, according to Goldthorpe et al., the values which comprise the instrumental orientation are as follows :

- (i) Work is regarded solely as a means to an end, as a way of obtaining the income necessary to support a valued way of life which excludes work itself.
- (ii) Accordingly the workers' 'self-involvement' with the organisation is 'calculative' (Etzioni, 1975) : that is to say, it is characterised by weak or negative sentiments and maintained only so long as it satisfies economic needs.
- (iii) Since work is regarded as a purely instrumental activity, the involvement of the workers in their jobs is low : work neither constitutes a central life interest nor a source of psychologically significant experiences in terms of self-actualisation (Maslow, 1954).
- (iv) As a result, workers' lives are divided sharply into work and non-work activities. Work relationships are not likely to be extended outside the plant.

Goldthorpe et al. conducted their research among manual workers in the automobile industry in the town of Luton in England. All of the workers in their sample were male, married and between the ages of 21 and 46. Their time of life, plus the fact that they were married and many of them were buying their own houses, meant that their need for a substantial and steady income was about as high as it was ever likely to be. All of these factors combined, make it hardly surprising that the workers concerned placed so much store by extrinsic factors at work.

However, Goldthorpe et al.'s study was in a sense revolutionary in that it argued that technology and social relations at work were not the only sources of satisfaction and

meaning which the worker experiences in relation to his job. The researchers argued that values and meanings which the worker brought with him into the workplace had a more significant effect on his overall performance and morale than did objective features of the working environment.

The predominance of extrinsic factors among workers have also been established in other countries. In Nigeria, Kayode (1970) found that, out of eight job factors - pay, feeling of importance, opportunity for skill development, interest, power, room for initiative, security and promotion - the most important factor of a job to the average worker is pay. Another factor considered to be of importance by lower-level Nigerian workers was security of employment. Expatriate and African managers, on the other hand, attached most importance to the 'interest of the work' they were required to do. These results closely parallel those of Hutton (1969) and Peil (1972) among the Ugandans and Ghanaian respectively.

These findings imply that developing countries' lower-level workers regard paid employment in much the same way as workers in advanced countries. That is to say, instrumental orientations to work predominate. Indeed, in developing countries such as Nigeria, where levels of unemployment are extremely high, many workers are so overjoyed at having a job at all that questions pertaining to its intrinsic qualities rarely enter their heads. Peil's (1972) study of Ghanaian workers illustrates the point:

"About two-fifths of the workers could not think of anything they liked about their work. Not all of these were thoroughly dissatisfied; some had just not thought about their jobs as something about which one has positive feelings..... A quarter were just glad to have any job at all to support themselves." (p. 83).

The same may be said of the job aspirations of secondary school leavers in Kenya. Rado (1972) predicted that Kenyan school leavers when faced with the realities of the labour market, would be attracted initially by jobs which offer prospects of training, promotion and security. Once they had been unemployed for a few months, however, they were likely to accept any job, even that of a farm labourer. In contrast to the above findings, that

workers (low-level) regard their jobs purely as an instrumental activities - that is, something to be tolerated in order to obtain money to satisfy their needs, Morse and Weiss (1955) found that, for American workers, work is perceived as a central life interest. They were able to demonstrate empirically that, for American workers, having a job served many functions other than providing them with money to satisfy material needs. Included among the other functions served by work were : avoiding boredom, providing opportunities for social contact and promoting personal fulfillment. Their findings led them to conclude that even if workers had enough money to support themselves, they would still want to work. Working gives them a feeling of being tied into the larger society, of having something to do, of having a purpose in life. In a concluding summary of the meaning of work for the people they studied, Morse and Weiss noted :

"To the typical man in a middle-class occupation, working means having a purpose, gaining a sense of accomplishment, expressing himself. He feels that not working would leave him aimless and without opportunities to create. To the typical man in a working class occupation, working means having something to do. He feels that not working would leave him no outlet for physical activity; he would just be sitting or laying around." (p. 198).

The result of Morse and Weiss study suggests that, any attempt to generalise the idea that work is perceived as a means towards the end of earning a living as found by Goldthorpe et al. and supported by data from a number of developing countries, is detrimental. As we have seen, for low-level workers in developing countries and their counterparts in Luton study, the meaning of work is simply that of providing enough money to satisfy their need while work is a very important part of life for American workers, irrespective of the type of job held.

To sum up, while we cannot estimate from this limited selection of research studies in different nations of the world the precise contribution of cultural effects on employees' work attitudes, we can say that there clearly are such effects. First, countries differed in patterns of factor contributing to productive and nonproductive behaviours. Second, large parts of workers' value systems in one country are not related to those of workers in another country. Further, the possibility that motivation may take a variety of forms and

be pursued to differing ends has been clearly indicated. As we move from one culture to another, wide divergences appear in the expectations an individual brings to the workplace, which in turn affect his attitudes to work. Thus, it seems that concepts and dynamics of organisation behaviour theory may need considerable tailoring by group across national boundaries, and that blanket application of American theory and technique, at least with respect to job motivation and satisfaction variables, is hazardous.

Intra-Country Differences

In addition to studies of job attitudes among, and between countries, a few comparative studies within countries (e.g. black and white races, rural and urban origins, and ethnic or subcultural groups) have also been carried out. Hulin and Blood (1968) examined responses of workers from rural and urban backgrounds to various aspects of their job. They found that workers from a rural background were less alienated from their jobs than those from rural background. As a consequence, workers from rural background reacted favourably to job enlargement programmes aimed at increasing the interest of the job, whereas workers from urban communities often responded negatively. In contrary, another study by Susman (1973) reported that rural workers respond to greater job discretion with increased pride in accomplishment, whereas urban workers respond with greater general job interest.

Zurcher (1968), in testing the notions of particularism (value concerning work and the workplace governed by the personal relationship - friendship or ethnic affiliation - of the participants) found that Mexican bank employees were more particularistic than Mexican-Americans, and Mexican-Americans were significantly more particularistic than the Anglo-Americans. This was true for both bank officers and for line employees in his sample. Bloom and Barry (1967) administered a 40-item questionnaire to 85 Black blue-collar workers. The results were factor analysed and compared with a study of 117 White blue-collar workers. Hygiene factors were found to be more important to Blacks than to Whites. Thus, they found support for the view that Blacks and Whites bring different

expectations to jobs, with Blacks having lower expectations which are more easily met.

Contrary to the above finding by Bloom and Barry, Orpen and Ndlovu (1977), in their study of job satisfaction of clerks in commercial organisations in South Africa, showed Blacks to be more job involved than Whites. More importantly, they found that Blacks had significantly greater higher order needs and the correlation between participation and satisfaction was significantly greater amongst Blacks than Whites. Thus, the greater the Blacks participated in decision-making the greater was their satisfaction with their jobs. As Orpen and Ndlovu point out, such findings make nonsense of South African racial policies which seek to keep Blacks down on the grounds that they have no interest in higher order jobs.

Furthermore, Cawsey, Reed and Reddon (1982) compared human needs and job satisfaction of Francophone and Anglophone managers in Canada. The samples consisted of 90 English-speaking individuals from Ontario and Western Canada, and 106 French-speaking residents of Quebec, all drawn from a branch of national consumer lending company in Canada. Job satisfaction was assessed with the Job Descriptive Index (JDI). In their attempt to develop a complete understanding of the underlying relationships between human needs and job satisfaction, the authors combined the JDI and the Personality Research Form which assess a broader spectrum of human needs (such as, abasement, achievement, affiliation, cognitive structure, social recognition, nurturance, dominance, etc.) with the Social Desirability Scale, in a multidimensional approach.

From their data, Cawsey et al. found that the important needs for the English Canadian managers for job satisfaction, in descending rank order of importance were : social desirability, achievement, autonomy, affiliation, and abasement. For the French Canadian sample, the important needs for predicting job satisfaction in descending rank order of importance were : social desirability, autonomy, nurturance, and cognitive structure. Clearly, besides social desirability and autonomy, factors causing job satisfaction within the cultural groups are different. According to the researchers, the differences

demonstrate that when job satisfaction research is done, an a priori selection of human needs for investigation based on previous research may be misleading. They recommend that when different populations of subjects (or rather, different cultural or ethnic groups) are being studied, it may be necessary to consider quite different sets of needs in order to gain comprehensive understanding of the role of needs in job satisfaction. And finally, Orpen (1979a), tested the effects of 'Western' versus 'tribal' orientations among a group of 96 Xhosa machine operators, storemen and book-keepers on the relationship between enriched work (in terms of autonomy, variety, feedback, etc.), and job satisfaction and performance. The findings supported the hypothesis that the relationship between enriched work and job satisfaction was higher for Western-oriented employees than it was for tribal-oriented employees. This relationship was explained in terms of the different norms and values held by the two groups. It was suggested that Western-oriented workers had acquired

"a set of values similar to those of middle-clan whites.....(consequently) these employees tend to develop an orientation to work which stresses the role of work in one's personality and which regards work as a source of gratification of one's most important needs" (Orpen, 1979a: p. 123).

The results of Orpen's study indicate that motivation through job design needs to be assessed in the light of the various orientations to work which different people hold.

In conclusion, the findings of available studies related to job attitude and cultural differences (both between and within country) show the dangers inherent in any attempt to generalise too widely factors predicting productive and nonproductive work behaviours. In some cultures the concept of timing a performance simply does not exist. The idea of working at maximum speed does not make sense. In some cultures the workers are inclined to boast, to compete with one another, or to differ in their self-esteem from workers in other cultures. It appears that when such variables are likely to be relevant for the particular research problem the best strategy is to measure them explicitly. Thus, Jahoda (1986), in a recent article "Nature, Culture and Social Psychology", recommended that cross-cultural researchers "should recognise the necessity of looking at behaviour within a

particular socio-cultural framework that should be made explicit."

So far, we have made attempt to show that contemporary job motivation theories (most of which were developed in the USA) are in large measure not universally applicable due to the fact that the cultural values, beliefs and norms which the worker brings with him to the workplace and which consequently affect his orientations to work differ from one culture to another. In a sense, we have been concerned with fulfilling the primary objective of the present chapter. In an attempt to fulfill the secondary purpose, that is, to identify specific work-related variables that have been found to have influence on employees work behaviour in previous cross-cultural investigations, the next and final part of this chapter presents a review of selected work-related cross-cultural research.

3.4. Selected Work-Related Variables Emerging From Cross-Cultural Research

Employee job attitude cannot be fully understood without considering other work-related variables that have an impact on employee reactions in work situations. Earlier in this thesis (Chapter 1), some weaknesses of cross-cultural research in organisation psychology (job motivation in particular) were outlined. But despite these weaknesses and failures, cross-cultural research has produced findings that must be noted by any investigator whose work has some cross-cultural aspect, as in the case with the planned study. One criterion used in selecting the variables reviewed here, is the relevance of these variables and questions addressed in this study to the culture and country where the present research will be conducted. This criterion is based on the writer's own knowledge and familiarity with Nigeria. The reader seeking a comprehensive review of work-related cross-cultural research should consult Tannenbaum (1980), and Barrett and Bass (1976).

Leadership Style

Leadership styles and their effectiveness have been extensively investigated in developed countries and a number of theories have been advanced. Behavioural theory of leadership has propounded two leadership dimensions which can be stated as an

interpersonal orientation, and a task orientation (Bales and Slater, 1955; Katz, Maccoby and Morse, 1950). Interpersonal oriented leaders are considerate, have respect for, and build mutual trust for their group while task oriented leaders tend to structure, define, assign tasks, set deadlines and emphasise performance. Research results concerning the effectiveness of each style or combination of both styles have been inconsistent across countries as within countries. Thiagarajain and Deep (1970) found a positive relationship between participative supervision and employee satisfaction among workers in Belgium, Italy, United Kingdom and the United States. On the other hand, Meade (1967) observed in India that children led by a democratic leader were absent more often, turned out poorer quality of work and liked their leaders less than children in authoritarian-led groups.

Another issue pertaining to leadership is the disposition of managers towards participative decision making. Results generally indicate that managers from less developed countries tend to be less participative (Negandhi, 1973; Tannenbaum, Kavic, Rosner, Vianello and Wieser, 1974; Haire et al., 1966). Barrett and Ranke (1969) further reported that the preference by managers to use two-way rather than one-way communication correlated .75 with level of economic development of a country.

These differences in participative/autocratic styles of leadership between developing and industrialised countries have been explained in terms of differences in orientation towards authoritarianism. Despite some inconsistencies, the general view is that people in developing nations tend to have more authoritarian attitudes than their counterparts in developed nations. Hagen (1962) concluded an extensive literature review with the assertion that the harsh and unpredictable conditions in many traditional societies lead people to reliance on the judgement or will of some superior individual or person in authority.

If the preference for nonparticipative leadership in developing countries is a universal phenomenon, then it can be expected in this study that high job attitudes will be more associated with nonparticipative leadership and close supervision. However, since

nonparticipative leadership is not likely to lead to good interpersonal relations (which are stressed in developing nations, as will be seen below), this leadership must be a paternalism that blends some consideration with autocracy.

Interpersonal Relations in Organisations

Being closely tied to cultural factors, interpersonal relations in work settings can be expected to differ widely across nations. But bureaucracy, which characterises most work organisations in nearly all countries, does not consider cultural differences. Emphasis is placed on impersonality of contacts among job occupants (Weber, 1947). Cross-cultural investigators have sought to understand the differences in peoples interpersonal contacts and reactions to others in organisations across nations. Findings suggest that individuals from developed countries tend to be more impersonal in their dealings than persons from less developed countries. For example, Triandis (1967) found that Americans working in Athens were perceived by Greeks to be "inhumanly legalistic, rigid, cold and overconcerned with efficiency" and give little weight to interpersonal relations. Similarly, Triandis and Vassilou (1972) observed that Greeks attached more importance to recommendations by friends when hiring a new employee than did Americans. These findings are in line with the present writer's observations in Nigeria (a developing country). His observations and work experience suggest that people attach greater importance to harmonious social relations with co-workers and superiors than would be the case in a country like England, for example. It is plausible, therefore, to expect that in society like Nigeria, interpersonal relations will have a strong impact on employees' work attitudes.

Pay

Due to the central role pay plays in the interactions in work situations and its relationships to orientation to work and other work variables (for example, performance), even as a selective a review as the present one would be incomplete if pay was not discussed. The study of Herzberg et al. (1959) with a sample of 200 American engineers



and accountants concluded that pay had a relationship to job attitude, that is, inadequate pay increased dissatisfaction but had little effect on work motivation. On the contrary, there appears some consensus cross-culturally (at least in few developed countries studied) that pay in itself is not related to job attitudes. Zdravomyslov and Jadov (1964) found with 2,550 young soviet workers that pay level per se, had little influence on job satisfaction. Instead factors like job type influenced the pay satisfaction relationship. These two researchers observed that unskilled workers doing monotonous jobs were more dissatisfied with their jobs than skilled workers even though earnings of the unskilled employees were more than those of the skilled workers. These results have received support from Tannenbaum et al. (1974) with data from the United States, Austria, Yugoslavia, Germany, Hungary and Istrael to a limited extent. Because of the relative poverty of many developing countries, pay might be expected to assume greater significance. Thus, we can speculate that pay will have a strong link to attitudes towards the job in the present study.

Corruption

Associated with social change are issues of corruption in developing nations. While corruption is not a monopoly of developing nations or any group of countries, there have been many changes of corruption in developing nations following independence. In work settings, corruption takes the form of bribery, favouritism, nepotism, tribalism in hiring, promotions, firings, work assignment and other personal decisions. Such actions have a strong impact on the job attitudes of the persons involved particularly those perceiving themselves victimised.

Personal Characteristics

The finding that job satisfaction is correlated with satisfaction in other areas, as well as with general life satisfaction (Heneman and Schwab, 1985; Schmitt and Pulakos, 1985) has encouraged more extensive examination of personal, as opposed to environmental factors which might influence an individual's affective response in diverse areas of their

experience. Personal characteristics receiving greatest attention in cross-cultural studies include age, education, sex, number of dependents, marital status and work experience (tenure). In Tannenbaum et al.'s (1974) study of five nations, they found that favourable attitude towards both the job and company increases on the average with age. Also, King, Murray and Atkinson (1982) found support for linear relationship between age and job satisfaction in a within country comparison of workers living in four different regions of Canada - Atlantic, Quebec, Ontario and Prairie.

Unlike age, previous cross-cultural investigations have shown that education is not positively correlated with high job attitudes. The following quotations are a purposive, but nonetheless representative, sampling of a much larger universe of assertions to the effect that well-educated workers are relatively unhappy with their work : "Among those who are not allowed to use the educated skills they have acquired, boredom increases, hope for success collapses into disappointment, and the sacrifices that don't pay off lead to disillusionment" (Mills, 1951). "When higher educational levels are not met immediately by greater opportunity and challenge, increasing demands and restlessness should be expected in the workplace" (Schrank and Stein, 1971). "What is clear from almost every study of job dissatisfaction is that the placing of intelligent and highly qualified workers in dull and unchallenging jobs is a prescription for pathology - for the worker, the employer, and the society" (O'Toole, 1977). Analysis of research data in five countries by Tannenbaum et al. (1974) showed an identical pattern. Their results indicated that, education is negatively related to job satisfaction and attitudes towards the company. Quoting findings of other investigators, Tannenbaum (1980) states that similar results have been obtained in Brazil, Germany and Hungary.

On the other hand, previous research findings on gender-linked differences in work motivation are not consistent. For example, Murray and Atkinson (1981) found women to be more satisfied than men; Forgionne and Peters (1982) in a within country comparison found men to be more satisfied than women; and, King, Murray and Atkinson (1982),

Mannheim (1983) and Mottaz (1986b) found no significant difference between men and women in overall job satisfaction.

Recently, Saiyadain (1985) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and personal characteristics on samples of 778 Indians and 620 Nigerians. Of the seven personal characteristics examined (age, sex, marital status, dependents, education, experience and annual income), age was found to show a significant curvilinear relationship with satisfaction for the Indian sample and a significant linear relationship for the Nigerian sample; number of dependents and years of work experience showed significant linear relationships, and education showed a linear but negative relationship for both the Indian and the Nigerian samples. The results showed no relationship between sex, marital status and annual income, and job satisfaction for both samples.

The researcher also made an attempt to examine the extent to which the seven variables account for variance in satisfaction for both samples. The regression analysis showed that while for the Indian sample, the personal characteristics explained 34.9 per cent variance in satisfaction, they accounted for 71.7 per cent for the Nigerian sample. This result suggests that in less industrialised nations like Nigeria, personal characteristics do play a very significant role in determining satisfaction.

Moreover, research findings on the relationship between personal characteristics and work attitudes reveal the following trends : hygiene factors (e.g. friendly and supportive supervision and co-workers) are significantly associated with job longevity (Mottaz, 1986b); less experienced managers are more highly motivated by recognition (Forgionne and Peters, 1982); overall job satisfaction is lower for those with a larger household (Weaver, 1974); and married workers are highly motivated than those who never married (King et al., 1982). Furthermore, it has been found that government employees are less satisfied than their counterparts in private business (Paine, Carroll, and Leete, 1966; Rhinehart, Barrell, DeWolfe, Griffin and Spaner, 1969).

On the basis of these results, it is plausible to expect that differences in employees personal characteristics might be reflected in job attitude levels and patterns. The present study will among other things explore any bearing that age, education, sex, number of dependents, marital status, and work experience may have on productive and nonproductive behaviour in a developing country of Nigeria.

Job Characteristics

Another work-related phenomena of interest in the cross-cultural literature is that of job characteristics. Hackman and Lawler (1971) using an American sample of 200 telephone company employees found that jobs which provided more variety, autonomy, task identity and feedback led to higher employee motivation and job satisfaction both affectively and behaviourally. The effect was stronger for employees with higher order needs. These results have received support from cross-cultural investigations with hardly any conflicting results (in South Africa : Orpen, 1979b; in the USSR : Zadravomyslov and Jadov, 1964; and in Istrael, Austria, Italy, USA and Yugoslavia : Tannenbaum et al., 1974). According to Tannenbaum et al.'s study, negative effects of jobs with poor characteristics (e.g. routinised, monotonous, jobs that allow little learning and skill development) persist even when effects of education, age and hierarchical level have been controlled for.

The apparent universality of the relationship between job characteristics and job attitudes would suggest that such a relationship might exist in developing countries. This study will see if job characteristics are related to job attitudes among Nigerian workforce.

Occupational Level

The final work-related variable emerged from cross-cultural research is occupational or hierarchical level of the employees. Consistent empirical support has been found in the United States for the position that occupational level is positively related to favourable job attitudes (Centers, 1948; Centers and Bugental, 1966; Cummings and El Salmi, 1970; Bergmann, 1981; Stepina, 1985). In his survey of a cross-section of the male working

population, Centers found that security was the most important job motivator in lower-level occupations, whereas self-expression was of greater importance in higher-level occupations. Centers and Bugental found that the job motivations of workers at higher occupational levels stem from the work itself, opportunity for self-expression and interest-value of the work while at the lower occupational levels, job motivations are centered in factors which are external to the work itself - pay, security and co-workers.

Cross-cultural studies have confirmed the finding that individuals in the upper echelons of the organisation tend to be more motivated by the work content factors than individuals at the lower levels of the organisation. Tannenbaum et al. (1974) found that persons at upper levels, compared to those below, among the five nations studied, are predictably more satisfied with their jobs, feel more responsible and motivated in their work. A recent four-region study by King et al. (1982) *also confirmed that this finding holds across cultures.*

On the basis of these findings, it can be expected in this study that individuals at higher occupational levels would place a greater value on intrinsic job factors than would individuals at lower occupational levels, if the existence of linear relationship between favourable job attitudes and occupational levels can be generalised to developing countries, and Nigeria in particular.

3.5. Summary and Conclusion

In this chapter, we have explored the various meanings people attach to work, those factors - mainly external to the workplace - which play an important part in determining the meaning of work. Specifically, the major investigative thrust of this chapter has been directed at the values, beliefs and norms which the worker brings with him to the workplace and the effects that these have on his orientations to work. This chapter has attempted to show that norms, values and beliefs (which we called implicit culture) which shape individual's orientation to work differ from one culture to another and any attempt therefore to generalise factors determining high and low job attitudes across cultures is

mistaken.

The following points emerged clearly from this review :

- (i) The impact of the work-related variables differ from one country to another. For example, the findings suggest that employees in less developed countries tend to be less participative and give more weight to interpersonal relations than those in developed nations.
- (ii) The bulk of research evidence have been comparisons among developed nations and the more advanced of the developing nations such as India, Mexico and Chile rather than among the less developed nations such as Nigeria, Ghana and Tanzania (a support for our earlier stated criticism of previous cross-cultural studies). Consequently, our knowledge of the relationship between employees behaviour and the work-related variables among the developing countries of Africa (specifically Nigeria) for example, is lacking.
- (iii) While the importance of personal characteristics in personnel selection, job performance and training success has been emphasised by Drakeley, Heriot and Jones (1988), we found no published research on the relationship between employees job attitude and personal variables in Nigeria (with the exception of Saiyadain's (1985) study of India and Nigeria samples). As our review has shown, the few available research evidence in other cultures are also inconclusive. However, the personal characteristics most often found to be significantly related to employees job attitude were: age, education, work experience (tenure), type of organisation, sex, and number of dependents. The present study will, among other things, examine the relationship between these personal variables and job attitude in Nigeria, and compare the results with those reviewed in this chapter.
- (iv) Nevertheless, based on this review, we may speculate that factors such as pay, interpersonal relations, leadership, job, and personal characteristics will play significant role in determining high and low attitudes among the Nigerian workforce.

In conclusion, culture as defined here, can and sometimes does have a significant impact on employees attitudes. Lammers and Hickson (1979) in their review of empirical studies of the effects of culture on organisational functioning lend credence to this conclusion when they said that : "Both rank and file members and dominant elites perform their roles and relates to one another in ways which stem from values, norms and roles imported from the outside (implicit culture)." (p. 403). As we have attempted to show, this implicit culture differs from one society to another and any attempt to learn about factors influencing job attitudes in a given culture must be based on the socio-cultural context of that particular culture. That is, to focus on observing, examining and understanding work behaviour in a particular culture, then proceed to develop theoretical concepts based on the findings instead of validating theories developed elsewhere.

This conclusion seems to us of theoretical importance for it suggests the necessity of re-examining all theories of organisation behaviour in order to take into account the influence of the underlying culture within which the organisation is found.

The next chapter presents a summary of the exploratory study conducted with the aim of developing a locally relevant instrument for the main investigation (in Nigeria) - an instrument that does not limit itself to some given a priori theoretical frameworks but derived from contextual and situational analysis of productive and nonproductive work behaviours among Nigerian employees. The chapter also makes an attempt to provide further empirical evidence for the differences between employees in developed and less developed countries, Britain and Nigeria respectively, in patterns of factors contributing to high and low job attitudes.

PART THREE

THE EXPLORATORY STUDY

CHAPTER FOUR

THE EXPLORATORY STUDY AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR THE MAIN INVESTIGATION

4.1. Aim of the Exploratory Study

Earlier cross-cultural researchers of employees' job attitude in the industrialised countries have developed various instruments for assessing job motivation. But these instruments, and the phrasing of items in most of the published studies are not appropriate for the present study because of their limitations, some of which we have discussed in the preceding chapter. It will also be recalled from our literature review that previous researchers can be criticised for examining job attitudes in other cultures from an American point of view, because they translate and administer instruments developed in America. The present writer believes that many of these instruments are more suited to conditions and cultural milieu in the industrialised countries and are often unsuitable for use in developing countries.

Since the proposed investigation focuses specifically on a developing country (Nigeria), the first task before us was to make an attempt to exempt the present study from the above criticism. To this end, an exploratory study was conducted with the purpose of providing a framework for the cross-cultural study of job attitudes that stresses the importance of contextual conditions in eliciting factors influencing high and low attitudes to work. More specifically, the exploratory study was aimed at developing a locally relevant instrument for the main investigation - an instrument derived from contextual and situational analysis of productive and nonproductive behaviours among Nigerian workforce.

Another secondary purpose of the exploratory study was to provide empirical evidence for our assumption that differences exist between employees in developed and underdeveloped countries in patterns of factor contributing to high and low job attitudes. In view of this, we have included a British sample in the exploratory study for comparison

with the Nigerian sample. Moreover, the exploratory study attempted to check the validity of Vroom's (1966) criticism that feeling good and feeling bad about one's job cannot be equated with high and job attitude respectively.

The following sections present the method of data collection, procedure and results of the exploratory study.

4.2. Data Collection Method : The Critical Incident Technique (CIT)

The CIT (or story-telling method) was developed by Flanagan (1954) and it has been used by industrial psychologists to identify factors influencing high and low job attitudes (Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman, 1959; Myers, 1964). The method has been used to collect anecdotes of job behaviours which describe especially good and especially bad performance. For an incident to be critical, Flanagan stated that "it must occur in a situation where the purpose or intent of the act seems fairly clear to the observer and where its consequences are sufficiently definite to leave little doubt concerning its effects."

The anecdotes (obtained through interview or questionnaire) describe the general circumstances leading up to the incident, exactly what the individual did that was so effective or ineffective, the perceived consequences of the behaviour, and extent to which consequences were within the individuals' control. Thus, CIT is essentially a flexible technique for obtaining certain important facts concerning behaviour in any specific situation. It focuses on the unique rather than general and can therefore be modified and adapted to meet the need of every culture.

The writer believes that, the CIT is a less obtrusive way to collect information on what determines high and low job attitude in a particular culture than either direct questions or the use of a "wholesale" method developed elsewhere. Compared to some other alternate techniques such as projective technique and behavioural measures, and questionnaire technique, CIT is not theory bound and not cognitively too demanding for subjects. In the hands of a skilled person, CIT can obtain a great deal more information than either

questionnaire technique or mere observations.

An attempt will now be made to provide empirical evidence for a successful use of CIT in job attitude survey.

The Critical Incident Technique and Job Attitude Survey

A successful use of the CIT was made by Herzberg et al. (1959) to collect information on factors influencing (increasing or reducing) job attitude. Herzberg et al. interviewed 200 accountants and engineers representing a cross section of Pittsburg industry. Subjects were asked to : "Think of a time when you felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about your present job or any other job you have had. Tell me what happened." This request to subjects was followed by 14 questions that sought to establish why and how the situation occurred, its consequences and significance to the subject. The process was repeated for both good and bad critical incidents. Using the semi-structured interview procedure, the whats, whys, hows and wherefores of the critical events were collected. Herzberg et al. then performed a content analysis of their data. The result yielded two groups of factors - motivators and hygienes (see review of motivation theories pp. 74-78).

Herzberg's methodology and resultant two-factor theory has received severe criticism as was pointed out earlier. Critics of his methodology accused him of equating a satisfying event to a motivating event by asking respondents to talk about good or bad feelings about their job and inferring performance motivation from resulting data (Vroom, 1966). But as earlier indicated, Herzberg's theory appears to have some validity. The two-factor theory together with need hierarchy are the cornerstone of modern job design/redesign theory (Hackman and Lawler, 1971) which has received reasonable support in field settings. If the weaknesses noted in the methodology used in the Herzberg's study can be (validated and) remedied, then his methodology is most appropriate for the study proposed here. This is because such a technique is an empirical approach which is perfect for offsetting the disadvantage of using "wholesale" method of obtaining information on work attitudes (developed elsewhere) in cross-cultural research.

Thus, it was decided that, the exploratory study (which primarily aimed at developing a new instrument for the main investigation) should be designed in line with the CIT - a semistructured interview with questionnaire items based on those used by Flanagan (1954) and Herzberg et al. (1959) - to learn about events and conditions surrounding productive and nonproductive behaviour at work.

4.3. The Sample and Procedure of the Exploratory Study

Subjects

Subjects of this study were 31 (42 per cent) British and 43 (58 per cent) Nigerians drawn mainly from University of Kent, Bradford University, University of Manchester, Stockport Polytechnic and various private institutions in London (A summary of respondent biographical data is presented in Table 3). They ranged from shop floor to top management employees in the 24-65 year age group and came from a considerable range of industry, mainly in middle to large-size public and private firms. It is not claimed that the samples are representative of low to top level employees in the two countries. The fact that the majority of the subjects were attending courses in higher institutions of learning contributes to the comparability of the groups and to the interest of the findings.

Chi-square tests to determine the significance of differences between the two groups were computed on the variables of type of organisation worked in, occupational level, years of working experience, sex, marital status, educational level and those that filled the questionnaire form with follow-up interview as opposed to those that filled the questionnaire form only. As can be seen in Table 3, no statistically significant chi-square values were achieved on all of the variables so that it can be argued that the two samples were fairly similar and therefore comparable. However, there were marked trends in occupational level, level of education and interviewed/questionnaire. There were more Nigerian subjects in middle level management and professional courses than the British subjects. It can also be seen that more British subjects filled the questionnaire forms only while more

Table 3

Subject Characteristics in the Exploratory Study (per cent)

Characteristics	British (N=31)	Nigerians (N=43)
Type of Organisation		
Government	38.7	34.9
Industrial	16.1	20.9
Service	29.0	32.6
Others	16.2	2 11.6
		X = 0.60, n.s.*
Organisational level		
Shop floor level	16.1	11.6
First level management	51.6	46.5
Middle level management	12.9	32.6
Top level management	19.4	2 9.3
		X = 4.57, n.s.
Years of working experience		
Below 5 years	61.2	62.8
6 - 10 years	19.4	16.3
Over 11 years	19.4	2 20.9
		X = 0.11, n.s.
Marital status		
Single	25.8	27.9
Married	74.2	2 72.1
		X = 0.05, n.s.
Level of education		
Below university	22.6	20.9
University graduate	29.1	11.6
Postgraduate	38.7	39.5
Others (professional courses, etc.)	9.7	2 28.0
		X = 5.84, n.s.
Interviewed/Questionnaire form		
Filled questionnaire and interviewed	51.6	69.8
Filled questionnaire form only	48.4	2 30.2
		X = 2.50, n.s.
Age (in years)		
Minimum	24	25
Mean	36	36
Mode	36	27
Median	36	35
Maximum	50	65

*n.s. = Chi-square value not significant at 0.05 or less

Nigerians filled the forms and were also interviewed.

Procedure

The procedure used to collect data in this study can be summarised as follows :

- (i) A questionnaire form was designed to obtain subjects' biographical data and written reports of incidents concerning : (a) feelings of satisfaction/dissatisfaction, and (b) high/low motivation,
- (ii) In order to collect as many incidents as possible (and due to our relatively small samples), the subjects were asked to report more than one incident where possible, for each question in the questionnaire form,
- (iii) They were later asked to rank the incidents reported for each question in order of importance to them, and the most important was chosen for the basis of the follow-up interview,
- (iv) The subjects were interviewed first on incidents concerning feelings of satisfaction/dissatisfaction and second on incidents concerning high/low motivation. (See Appendix 2 for the questionnaire form).

Questionnaire forms were sent to the institutions mentioned earlier and with the help of some Nigerian and British students in these institutions, the forms were distributed among British and Nigerian students who indicated their willingness to participate in the study. The researcher later made arrangements to meet and interview the subjects in their various institutions. Those that could not be interviewed due to lack of time or other commitments were advised to fill the questionnaire forms only. Of the total 74 subjects, 61 per cent filled the questionnaire and were also interviewed while 39 per cent filled the questionnaire forms only (over 50 per cent were interviewed in each of the samples - detail included in Table 3).

When a subject entered (a previously arranged room for the interview) the researcher introduced himself and went on to establish rapport and explain the purpose of the study.

The researcher, who did not ask for the respondent's name, emphasised the confidential nature of the interview and assured the subject that nothing said in the interview would be told to, or discussed with, anyone and that only the researcher would have access to the information.

Then, each interviewee, having filled the questionnaire form and having ranked and chosen the most important incident (where more than one were reported), was first asked to describe the events which led to exceptionally good feeling about the job. The specific instruction reads: "Think of a time, or different times, when you felt exceptionally good (exceptionally bad) about your present job or any other job you have had. What was responsible for making you feel so good (bad)?" As the incident was narrated, the researcher asked the following Herzberg's type questions to guide the subject: "How long ago did this happen?" "What specifically led to the incident?" "What did you do different from the way you normally do your job? Why?" "What were the reactions of your superior(s), peers and subordinates?" "In what way(s) did the incident affect your thinking about yourself, your job, superiors, peers, company, friends and family?" "What were the consequences of this incident, short term and long term?"

Additional questions and probing were used to clarify unclear responses and to add to incomplete information. Some items used by Herzberg et al., for example the one asking subjects to rate the criticalness of their feelings on an abstract 21 point scale were changed (others dropped) and new ones considered suitable were added (see Appendix 3 for interview schedule finally used). After the good incident was completely explored, the researcher repeated the same procedure to collect bad critical incident.

Recall that Herzberg et al. were criticised for equating feelings of satisfaction to motivation in that they asked respondents to recall "a time when you felt exceptionally good about your job" and inferred motivation from the data so collected. To check the validity of this criticism, subjects of the present study were also asked to "think of a time or different times, when you worked exceptionally hard" anda time or

different times, when you worked exceptionally very little at your job." Such a statement deals with motivation since exceptionally hardwork and little effort can be assumed to be associated with high and low motivation respectively. The same procedure of semistructured interview described above (for good and bad feelings) was used. The major assumption here was that, the subjects will report different incidents for each motivational constructs (i.e. feeling good and working hard, and feeling bad and working very little), should any significant differences exist between them.

Each interview took approximately 20 minutes and was recorded by means of a tape recorder.

4.4. Analysis and Results

Content Analysis

Content analysis is a method of studying and analysing communications in a systematic, objective and quantitative manner to measure variables. According to Lasswell (1949), there two main approaches to content analysis: one approach is a priori approach in which classification of content is based on a previously thoughtout schematic system. The factors identified by Herzberg et al. or Maslow would, for example allow a building of a priori classification system or list of factors expected to emerge from the data. The other approach is a posteriori in that its schematic system is based on the data itself. This approach requires preliminary examination of the data and developing categories into which all the data are then classified.

In this study, a posteriori classification was used; that is, the category system was based on the data themselves. This is important in light of our earlier criticism of cross-cultural research in job attitudes which studies cultures with a priori conceptual schema developed in different cultures.

After the interview, the recordings were transcribed, the researcher studied all the interviews and questionnaire forms and developed a classification system based on the themes or "thought units" expressed in the interviews and the forms. A theme is often a sentence, a proposition about something. As stated by Holsti (1968), a theme or "thought unit" is a "single assertion about some subjects." Examples of statements used to characterise themes included the following: "I was about to be promoted," "the job gave me a challenge," "I was competing with other shifts," "my boss tell me off in front of other employees," "my senior brother died," and "my idea to a better approach to the work was opposed." These examples were used to represent themes concerned with promotion possibility, work itself, achievement, bad interpersonal relations with boss, personal or domestic/family problem and supervision respectively.

A total of 142 and 187 themes were obtained from content analysed data of good critical incidents (working hard/feeling good) reported by the British and Nigerian samples - an average of 4.6 and 4.3 themes per individual respectively. From bad critical incident stories (working little/feeling bad), a total of 96 and 131 themes were obtained from the British and and Nigerian samples - an average of 3.1 and 3.0 themes per individual respectively. Means for good critical incidents are somewhat bigger than those for bad critical incidents. A possible explanation for the difference might be that incumbents can describe effective behaviour more effectively than their ineffective behaviours and therefore are less likely to mention the ineffective behaviours (Vroom and Maier, 1961).

Each of the themes for good critical incidents was classified as "working hard" or "feeling good" and each of the themes for bad incidents was classified as "working little" or "feeling bad". Using the classification system developed earlier each statement was sorted and coded into nonoverlapping themes for each sample. For the British sample, 16 factors or motives were identified from good critical incident stories and 20 from the bad incidents. On the other hand, the Nigerian sample content analysed data yielded 20 motives from good incidents and 20 from the bad incidents.

Results

Frequency counts were performed for each of the motives extracted from the content analysis. The frequency for each motive represents the number of people within each sample who cited that motive as having encouraged them to work very hard (or feel good) and work very little (or feel bad). These frequencies therefore serve as a measure of the strength of each motive to encourage high job attitude or low job attitude (see Tables 4 and 5).

Judging from this empirical frequency distribution (as shown in Tables 4 and 5), it seems that our result did not lend support to Vroom's criticism of Herzberg's methodology. This was clearly demonstrated during the data-gathering stage (interview session) when the researcher asked the interviewee to "think of and describe another time (apart from the time you felt exceptionally good which you have just narrated) when you worked exceptionally hard at your job." Some of the respondents accused the researcher of merely playing with words saying that working hard and feeling good (and working little and feeling bad) are the same. Where a subject was able to recall and describe all the four different incidents (working hard, working little, feeling good and feeling bad) the themes extracted during content analysis from motivation (working hard and little) and feelings of satisfaction (feeling good and bad) cannot be classified differently from each other. Among the British sample (Table 4), only one item ("urgent work - has deadline") out of the total 36 motives, was mentioned by a considerable number of people (36 per cent) as a working hard factor and was not mentioned at all as a feeling good factor. Also, among the Nigerian sample (Table 5), only "too much or difficult work" out of the total 40 motives was mentioned by a greater proportion of the subjects (33 per cent) as a working hard factor and was not mentioned at all as a feeling good factor.

However, the results in Tables 4 and 5 indicate that the two samples narrated more stories when asked to think of a time when they worked exceptionally hard and exceptionally very little than when they felt exceptionally good and exceptionally bad. Perhaps,

Table 4

Motivational Variables Identified Through Content Analysis of Interview and Questionnaire Data - British Sample (N=31)

Good Critical Incidents (Motivating)

Item	Working Frequency	Hard Per cent*	Feeling Frequency	Good Per cent
1. Achievement	11	36	17	55
2. Work itself	15	48	9	29
3. Recognition	10	33	14	45
4. Responsibility	10	33	5	16
5. Urgent work	11	36	-	-
6. Supervision	4	13	6	19
7. Interpersonal relations	6	19	3	10
8. Proper placement	2	7	2	7
9. Pay	3	10	1	3
10. Training	1	3	2	7
11. Promotion	2	7	-	-
12. Too much work	2	7	-	-
13. Job security	2	7	-	-
14. Physical work conditions	1	3	1	3
15. Hardworking boss/co-workers	1	3	-	-
16. Profit	-	-	1	3

Bad Critical Incident (Demotivating)

Item	Working Frequency	Little Per cent	Feeling Frequency	Bad Per cent
1. Work itself	10	32	5	16
2. Failure to achieve	2	7	8	26
3. Supervision	5	16	5	16
4. Too little work	5	16	4	13
5. Family condition	4	13	3	10
6. Recognition	4	13	3	10
7. Physical working conditions	3	10	3	10
8. Interpersonal relations	4	13	1	3
9. Lazy/incompetent co-workers	3	10	2	7
10. Administration	3	10	2	7
11. Unjust blame/transfer	-	-	4	13
12. Job description (poor, ambiguous)	2	7	-	-
13. Profits	1	3	1	3
14. Fringe benefits (lack of)	1	3	1	3
15. Pay	1	3	1	3
16. Feeling/mood	1	3	1	3
17. Training	1	3	-	-
18. Corruption/favouritism	-	-	1	3
19. Company policy	1	3	-	-
20. Promotion	-	-	1	3

*The percentages total more than 100 per cent, since more than one theme (item) may appear in any single incident

Table 5

Motivational Variables Identified Through Content Analysis of Interview and Questionnaire Data - Nigerian Sample (N=43)

Good Critical Incidents (Motivating)

Item	Working Frequency	Hard Per cent*	Feeling Frequency	Good Per cent
1. Recognition	15	35	11	26
2. Promotion	8	19	11	26
3. Achievement	7	16	10	23
4. Responsibility	11	26	5	12
5. Too much or difficult work	14	33	-	-
6. Work itself	9	21	4	9
7. Supervision	6	14	7	16
8. Pay	5	12	6	14
9. Interpersonal relations	3	7	7	16
10. Physical work conditions	3	7	3	7
11. Fringe benefits	3	7	3	7
12. Training	2	5	4	9
13. Urgent work	5	12	-	-
14. Family conditions	2	5	3	7
15. Feeling/mood	4	9	1	2
16. Proper placement	2	5	2	5
17. Hardworking boss/co-workers	4	9	-	-
18. Job security	2	5	1	2
19. Clear job description	1	2	1	2
20. Profit	-	-	2	5

Bad Critical Incident (Demotivating)

Item	Working Frequency	Little Per cent	Feeling Frequency	Bad Per cent
1. Too little work	11	26	2	5
2. Supervision	7	16	4	9
3. Family conditions	8	19	3	7
4. Pay	7	16	3	7
5. Corruption, favouratism/tribalism	6	14	4	19
6. Interpersonal relations	4	9	6	14
7. Unjust blame/transfer	4	9	6	14
8. Administration	4	9	5	12
9. Work itself	3	7	3	7
10. Company policy	3	7	3	7
11. Failure to achieve	1	2	5	12
12. Recognition	1	2	4	9
13. Job security	1	2	3	7
14. Profits	1	2	3	7
15. Promotion	2	5	1	2
16. Fringe benefits	2	5	1	2
17. Lazy/incompetent co-workers	1	2	2	5
18. Physical working conditions	-	-	3	7
19. Training	-	-	3	7
20. Job description (poor, ambiguous)	1	2	-	-

*The percentages total more than 100 per cent, since more than one theme (item) may appear in any single incident

one reason for this is because "working hard" and "working very little" are very clear concepts, direct, easily understood and not as ambiguous as "feeling good" and "feeling bad." While it is therefore preferable to ask respondents to report events that have made them work hard or work very little in an attempt to tap motivating and demotivating factors, the criticism of equating feelings of satisfaction to motivation levied against Herzberg methodology, is probably not justified.

Since the above controversy is not the major concern of this study and due to fewer themes identified from feelings of satisfaction incidents, no further analysis was performed. Instead, we merged feeling good and feeling bad themes with working hard and working little themes on related items respectively, to produce high job attitude sequences comprising overall themes extracted from good critical incidents (feeling good and working hard) and low attitude sequences comprising overall themes extracted from bad critical incidents (feeling bad and working little) for each sample. Tables 6 and 7 present the results for the British and Nigerian samples respectively. Table 8 shows the differences between the samples and Figures 2 and 3 present the diagrammatic representation of the two sample's results.

We have said that the main purpose of this exploratory study is to generate instrument for the main study and, is therefore not intended to pursue rigorous psychometric testing of inferences from the data collected. Such testing will be the subject of another follow up. Nevertheless, a simple inspection of the data in Tables 6 to 8 challenges the contention of the so-called universalists. Taking the frequency counts of the content analysed data as a measure of pervasiveness and intensity, the British sample (Table 6) is highly and exclusively motivated by four job content factors - "achievement", "work itself", "recognition" and "responsibility". Turning to the analysis of the low sequences, it is surprising to note "work itself" again is the single most important factor determining bad feelings about a job followed by "failure to achieve", "supervision", and "too little work". The

Table 6

Motivational Variables Identified Through Content Analysis of Interview and Questionnaire Data - British Sample (N=31)

Item	Frequency	Per cent*
High Job Attitude Sequences		
1. Achievement	28	90
2. Work itself	24	77
3. Recognition	24	77
4. Responsibility	15	48
5. Urgent work	11	35
6. Supervision	10	32
7. Interpersonal relations	9	29
8. Proper placement	4	13
9. Pay	4	13
10. Training	3	10
11. Promotion	2	6
12. Too much work	2	6
13. Job security	2	6
14. Physical work conditions	2	6
15. Hardworking boss/co-workers	1	3
16. Profit	1	3
Low Job Attitude Sequences		
1. Work itself	15	48
2. Failure to achieve	10	32
3. Supervision	10	32
4. Too little work	9	29
5. Family condition	7	23
6. Recognition	6	19
7. Physical working conditions	6	19
8. Interpersonal relations	5	16
9. Lazy/incompetent co-workers	5	16
10. Administration	5	16
11. Unjust blame/transfer	4	13
12. Job description (poor, ambiguous)	2	6
13. Profits	2	6
14. Fringe benefits (lack of)	2	6
15. Pay	2	6
16. Feeling/mood	2	6
17. Training	1	3
18. Corruption/favouritism	1	3
19. Company policy	1	3
20. Promotion	1	3

*The percentages total more than 100 per cent, since more than one theme (item) may appear in any single incident

Table 7

Motivational Variables Identified Through Content Analysis of Interview and Questionnaire Data - Nigerian Sample (N=43)

Item	Frequency	Per cent*
High Job Attitude Sequences		
1. Recognition	31	72
2. Promotion	19	44
3. Achievement	17	40
4. Responsibility	16	37
5. Too much or difficult work	14	33
6. Work itself	13	30
7. Supervision	13	30
8. Pay	11	26
9. Interpersonal relations	10	23
10. Physical working conditions	6	14
11. Fringe benefits	6	14
12. Training	6	14
13. Urgent work	5	12
14. Family conditions	5	12
15. Feeling/mood	5	12
16. Proper placement	4	9
17. Hardworking boss/co-workers	4	9
18. Job security	3	7
19. Clear job description	2	5
20. Profit	2	5
Low Job Attitude Sequences		
1. Too little work	13	30
2. Supervision	11	26
3. Family conditions	11	26
4. Pay	10	23
5. Corruption, favouritism/tribalism	10	23
6. Interpersonal relations	10	23
7. Unjust blame/transfer	10	23
8. Administration	9	21
9. Work itself	6	14
10. Company policy	6	14
11. Failure to achieve	6	14
12. Recognition	5	12
13. Job security	4	9
14. Profits	4	9
15. Promotion	3	7
16. Fringe benefits	3	7
17. Lazy/incompetent co-workers	3	7
18. Physical working conditions	3	7
19. Training	3	7
20. Job description (poor, ambiguous)	1	2

*The percentages total more than 100 per cent, since more than one theme (item) may appear in any single incident

Nigerian sample (see Table 7) is highly motivated by four job content factors - "recognition", "promotion", "achievement" and "responsibility" while "too little work", "supervision", "family conditions" and "pay" are the most important factors determining low job attitudes.

Comparing the two samples (see Table 8-A), the results indicate that the British sample is more motivated by job content factors such as "achievement", "work itself", "responsibility", "urgent work", and "recognition" while the Nigerians are more motivated by job context factors such as "pay", "too much work" (or difficult work), "physical working conditions", "fringe benefits" and "family conditions". With the exception of "interpersonal relations", the Nigerian sample showed higher motivation in all of the 12 job context factors which emerged from the content analysis of good critical incidents (High job attitude). On the other hand, the British sample showed higher motivation in all of the job content factors with the exception of "promotion" and "training" where the Nigerian group is more motivated. There are three specific factors ("supervision", "job security" and "profit") in relation to which both samples are almost completely in agreement.

Specifically, on statistically significant level, the attitude of the British sample to "achievement" ($X^2 = 19.50$, $p < .001$), "work itself" ($X^2 = 16.04$, $p < .001$) and "urgent work" ($X^2 = 6.05$, $p < .01$), showed a higher degree of motivation while the Nigerians gave more weight to "promotion" ($X^2 = 12.62$, $p < .001$) and "too much work" ($X^2 = 7.25$, $p < .01$). Though not statistically significant, large differences were also observed for "responsibility" (British sample more motivated), "pay", "fringe benefits", "family conditions" and "feeling/mood" (with the Nigerian sample more motivated). In fact, "fringe benefits", "family conditions", "feeling/mood" and "clear job description" are not associated (or mentioned) with high job attitude among the British sample.

Among the demotivating items (low job attitude: Table 8-B) two content factors, "work itself" and "achievement" (failure of) and one job context factor, "supervision", were the major sources of dissatisfaction for the British sample while three job context factors, "too little work", "supervision" and "family conditions" produced the greatest dissatisfaction

Table 8

Differences Between the Two Samples on All Motivational Variables

Item	Per cent British Sample (N=31)	Per cent Nigerian Sample (N=43)	Per cent Difference
A High Job Attitude			
1. Achievement	90	40	50*
2. Work itself	77	30	47*
3. Recognition	77	72	5
4. Responsibility	48	37	11
5. Urgent work	35	12	23*
6. Supervision	32	30	2
7. Interpersonal relations	29	23	6
8. Proper placement	13	9	4
9. Pay	13	26	-13
10. Training	10	14	-4
11. Promotion	6	44	-38*
12. Too much work	6	33	-27*
13. Job security	6	7	-1
14. Physical work conditions	6	14	-8
15. Hardworking boss/co-workers	3	9	-6
16. Profit	3	5	-2
17. Fringe benefits	-	14	-14
18. Family conditions	-	12	-12
19. Feeling/mood	-	12	-12
20. Clear job description	-	5	-5
B Low Job Attitude			
1. Work itself	48	14	34*
2. Failure to achieve	32	14	18**
3. Supervision	32	26	6
4. Too little work	29	30	-1
5. Family condition	23	26	-3
6. Recognition	19	12	7
7. Physical working conditions	19	7	12
8. Interpersonal relations	16	23	-7
9. Lazy/incompetent co-workers	16	7	9
10. Administration	16	21	-5
11. Unjust blame/transfer	13	23	-10
12. Job description (poor, ambiguous)	6	2	4
13. Profits	6	9	-3
14. Fringe benefits (lack of)	6	7	-1
15. Pay	6	23	-17**
16. Feeling/mood	6	-	6
17. Training	3	7	-4
18. Corruption/favouritism	3	23	-20
19. Company policy	3	14	-11
20. Promotion	3	7	-4
21. Job security	-	9	-9

*p<0.01 **p<0.06

for the Nigerian sample. The largest differences between the two samples are concerned with: "work itself" (with the British sample more demotivated: $X^2 = 10.51$, $p < .01$), "failure to achieve" (British sample more demotivated: $X^2 = 3.56$, $p < .06$), "corruption, favouritism/tribalism" in promotion and work assignments (Nigerian sample more demotivated), "pay" (Nigerian sample more demotivated: $X^2 = 3.74$, $p < .05$), "physical working conditions" (British sample more demotivated) and "company policy" (Nigerian sample more demotivated). In both groups, "too little work" and "family conditions" were thought to be most important demotivators and, "profits" and "fringe benefits" least important. A close look at this result (Table 8-B) also revealed a factor - "feeling/mood" (don't feel like working) - that was identified only with the British sample and a different factor - "job security" - that was identified only with the Nigerians.

On the whole, there seems to be a considerable dissimilarity of view between the two national samples in percentage of subjects indicating high and low job attitude on each of the factors (see Figures 2 and 3).

Examination of the Data in terms of Wall et al.'s Measure of Herzbergianism

The above method of analysis and results are presented in a manner directly comparable to Herzberg et al.'s (1959) approach. But this approach has been criticised by Wall, Stephenson and Skidmore (1971) on the ground that some individuals yield several factors, while others yield only one, thus, verbose respondents may influence the results disproportionately. An alternative method that controls for the number of factors offered is therefore legitimate.

The alternative method used is similar to that of Wall et al. (1971). Equal weight is attributed to each person's total contribution rather than to each factor. In practice this means that factors are given scores depending upon whether they were the 'sole perceived reason' for the incident reported, 'one of two reasons,' 'one of three,' 'one of four' or 'one of five' reasons. Thus, where the factor was the sole reason, it scored 1.00; where one of two, .50; one of three, .33; one of four, .25; and one of five, .20. This method involves a

Figure 2
Comparison of High and Low Job Attitudes (Percentage Frequency)
British Sample

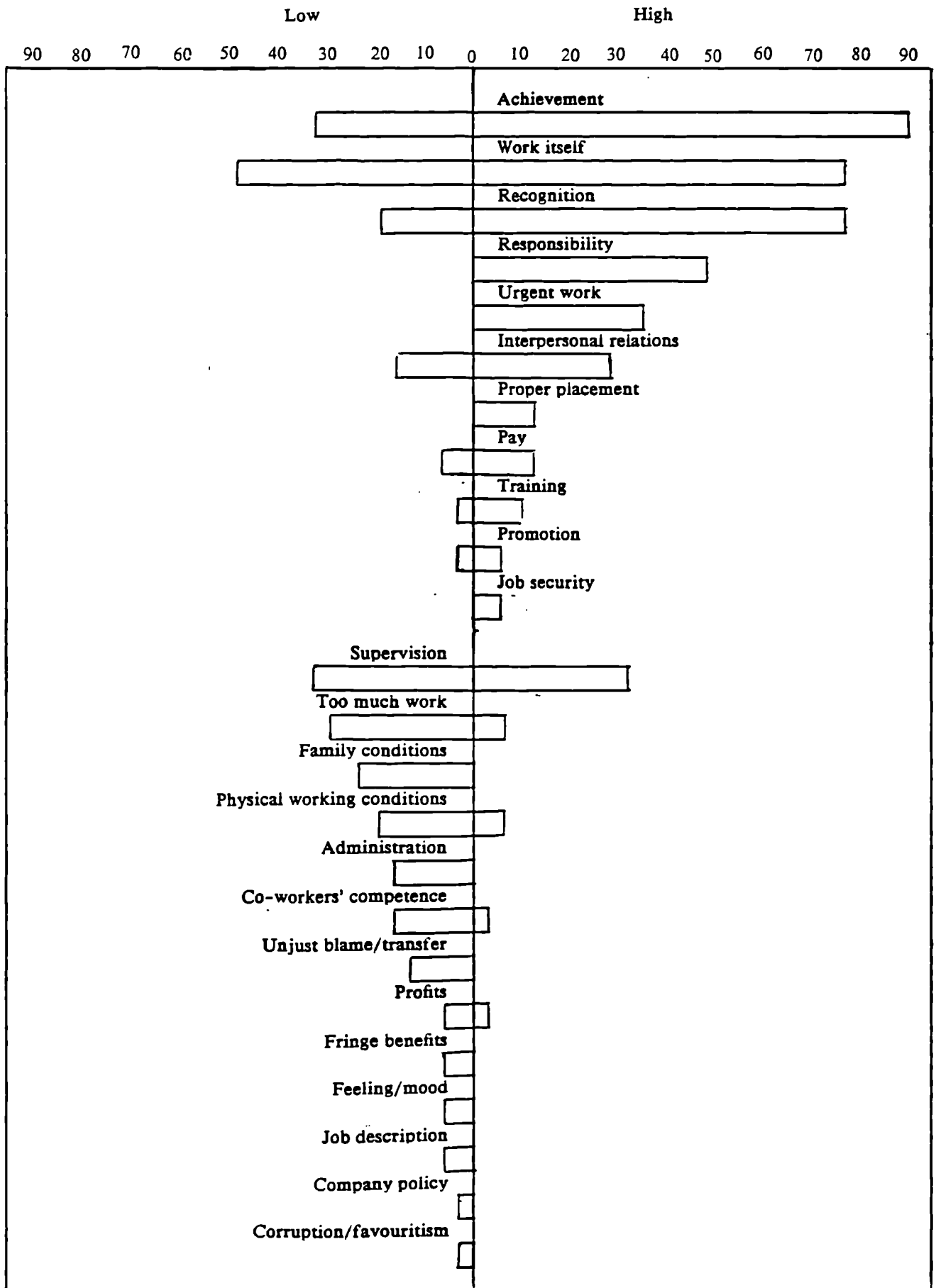
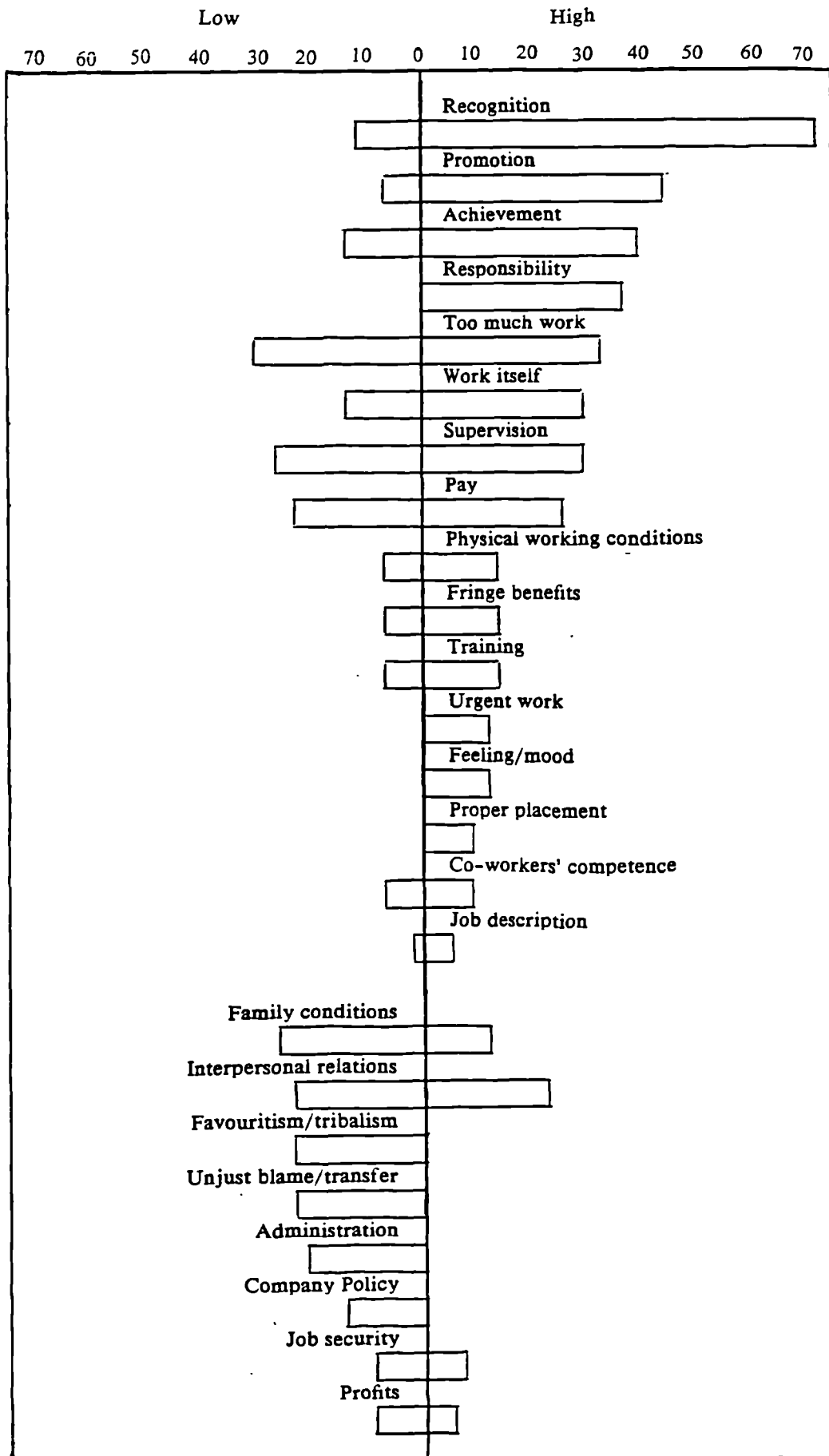


Figure 3

**Comparison of High and Low Job Attitudes (Percentage Frequency)
Nigerian Sample**



computation of what Wall et al. have called "Overall Herzbergian Score" (OHS). This score represents an individual's tendency to respond in the manner predicted by Herzberg's two-factor theory, i.e. the extent to which 'motivator' factors were perceived as determinants of past satisfaction and 'hygiene' factors were perceived as determinants of past dissatisfaction.

To take some examples: (i) Subject X gave two factors as reasons for high job attitude, both of which were motivators and therefore contributed positively to the Overall Herzbergian Score. He also gave three reasons for low job attitude, one of which was hygiene (positive contribution) and two were motivators which distracted from Herzberg et al.'s assumption. Where M = 'motivator' and H = 'hygiene factor,' his results could be symbolised as follows: high job attitudes (satisfaction): MM; low job attitudes (dissatisfaction): HMM. Herzberg's two-factor theory is correct in 3/5 instances, giving this individual as OHS of 0.60.

Example (ii): Subject Y yielded the following results: HHH for high job attitude and MM for low job attitude. His OHS score is 0.00, that is, none correct.

Two similar analyses were used to establish whether responses to high job attitude or low job attitude contributed differentially to the overall results (OHS):

- (a) Satisfaction Herzbergian Score (SHS). The motivator-hygiene theory predicts that 'motivators' will contribute only to high job attitude (satisfaction). The SHS measures the proportion of motivators to hygienes in relation to satisfaction alone. To take an example: Subject Xi gave four factors - HMHH - as reasons for satisfaction. His SHS = $1/4$ or 0.25.
- (b) Dissatisfaction Herzbergian Score (DHS). In relation to dissatisfaction the motivator-hygiene theory predicts that 'hygiene factors' will be the perceived determinants. To take an example: Subject Yii gave three factors - MHH - as perceived determinants. Herzberg's theory has made a prediction correctly in two out of three instances ($2/3$),

Table 9

OHS, SHS and DHS Scores of Selected Nigerian Subjects and Their British Matched Controls

Pair	OHS			SHS			DHS			
	Nigerian	British	Difference	Nigerian	British	Difference	Nigerian	British	Difference	
1.	0.43	0.89	-0.46	0.00	1.00	+1.00	1.00	0.67	+0.33	
2.	0.86	1.00	-0.14	1.00	1.00	0.00*	0.67	1.00	-0.33	
3.	0.90	1.00	-0.10	0.83	1.00	-0.17	1.00	1.00	0.00*	
4.	0.47	0.78	-0.31	0.50	0.78	-0.28	0.40	0.75	-0.35	
5.	0.44	0.67	-0.23	0.33	1.00	-0.67	0.67	0.00	+0.67	
6.	0.67	0.67	0.00*	0.75	0.50	+0.25	0.50	1.00	-0.50	
7.	0.80	0.86	-0.06	1.00	1.00	0.00*	0.00	0.50	-0.50	
8.	0.50	0.75	-0.25	0.50	0.78	-0.28	----	0.67	-----**	
9.	0.64	0.80	-0.16	0.80	1.00	-0.20	0.83	0.00	+0.83	
10.	0.83	0.60	+0.23	1.00	0.67	+0.33	0.67	0.50	+0.17	
11.	0.83	0.67	+0.16	0.75	0.75	0.00*	1.00	0.50	+0.50	
12.	0.71	0.86	-0.15	0.67	1.00	-0.33	0.75	0.75	0.00*	
13.	0.50	0.50	0.00*	0.67	0.71	-0.04	0.33	0.00	+0.33	
14.	0.67	0.67	0.00*	0.75	1.00	-0.25	0.50	0.00	+0.50	
15.	0.70	0.89	-0.19	0.83	1.00	-0.17	0.50	0.75	-0.25	
16.	0.58	0.83	-0.25	0.67	1.00	-0.33	0.50	0.67	-0.17	
17.	0.70	1.00	-0.30	1.00	1.00	0.00*	0.75	1.00	-0.25	
18.	0.57	0.80	-0.23	0.50	1.00	-0.50	0.67	0.67	0.00*	
Wilcoxon			T = -13.00	SHS			T = -15.50	DHS		
T value			p = 0.008	T value			p = 0.02	T value		
								T = 62.00		
								p = 0.57		

*Ties

**No reason was given as respondent could not recall feeling of exceptional dissatisfaction

yielding a DHS of 0.67.

The two-sample statistical tests for data obtained as discussed above assume that the two contrasting groups be of the same size - matched and paired as much alike as possible. Accordingly, the present researcher examined the biographical details supplied by each subject, and he obtained 18 pairs of subject (36 respondents from a pool of 74) comprising 18 Nigerians and 18 British subjects who were "individually" matched as closely as possible for age, occupational level and educational level.

Table 9 presents the OHS, SHS and DHS scores for each of the pairs of subject and the results of Wilcoxon's matched-pairs signed-ranks test. As will be seen, the British sample has significantly higher scores in two cases: OHS ($T = 13$, $p=0.008$) and SHS ($T = 15.5$, $p=0.02$) while no significant difference is found between the two samples in the case of DHS score ($T = 62.0$, $p=0.57$). These findings lead to the same conclusions as do the Herzbergian type analysis results obtained earlier (Table 8): that the British sample display a relationship of 'motivator' and 'hygiene' factors to 'high' or 'low' job attitudes which are compatible with the motivator-hygiene theory, whilst the same is less true of the Nigerian sample.

4.5. Conclusion: Implications for the Main Investigation

It would be risky to formulate sweeping generalisations on the basis of the limited findings reported above. Yet, the following conclusions which seem to be persuasive on at least a tentative basis, provide a framework for the proposed main study.

First, comparison of working hard (and working little) and feeling good (and feeling bad) shows no significant difference between the constructs among workers in both cultures studied (see Tables 4 and 5). However, the results indicate that it is preferable to ask respondents to report events that have made them work hard and work very little in an attempt to tap motivating and demotivating factors.

Second, the response pattern clearly shows that what is important in determining

positive or negative attitude towards work in one culture may be of trivial consequence in another culture. For example, the presence of job context factors such as good "fringe benefits" (e.g. car loan, company accommodation) and "family conditions" (e.g. no death/sickness in the family) would encourage high job attitude among the Nigerians but such did not affect their British counterparts. Also, personal "feeling and mood" (don't feel like working) would discourage high job attitude among the British subjects but the same factor (personal feeling - just feel like working) emerged as a motivator for the Nigerians in our sample. Further, lack of adequate pay and financial incentives would lead to non-productive work behaviour among the Nigerians while such factor hardly affects the British subjects (see Table 8-B).

Third, it is clear from Figures 2 and 3 that many motives that were cited in the critical incidents as those that encouraged high job attitude were also those associated with encouraging low job attitude. That is, job factors leading to job motivation are neither independent nor separate from job factors leading to demotivation. This is consistent with other researcher's assertion that both "motivators" and "hygienes" can affect motivation and demotivation and are of course, contradictory to Herzberg's two-factor theory (see Lawler, 1973; Bockman, 1971; Johnston and Bavin, 1973). However, the results presented in terms of OHS, SHS and DHS scores (Table 9), indicate that the response pattern for the British sample is significantly more in direct relationship to Herzberg's formulation than their Nigerian counterparts. That is, among the British subjects, "motivators" (e.g. "achievement", "work itself" and "recognition") are more often reported in connexion with "high job attitudes" than they are with "low job attitudes;" "hygienes" (e.g. "physical working conditions", "family conditions", "fringe benefits" and "personal feeling/mood") are more often related to "low job attitudes" than they are to "high job attitudes." Among the Nigerian sample, this tendency is decidedly less marked (see Figures 2 and 3 for comparison).

In Nigeria, as in most other developing countries, people have yet to satisfy their basic lower-order needs such as physiological, safety, social affiliations and security needs.

Consequently, job context factors in such societies assume the role of prime reinforcers in maintaining high job attitude. In contrast with this assumption, the result of our exploratory study suggests that significantly more importance was placed on higher-order needs (job content factors) such as "recognition", "achievement" and "responsibility", than lower-order needs (job context factors) such as "pay", "interpersonal relations", "physical working conditions" and "fringe benefits" (see Table 7).

Perhaps, the social class and characteristics of the subjects in this study explained the unexpected finding. Recall that these Nigerian subjects are studying in British higher institutions, they can be classified as middle class citizens who have satisfied their basic needs and consequently can afford to travel abroad (Britain) to further their studies. In fact, anybody that can afford to travel overseas for further studies is highly regarded as one of the elites in Nigerian society since this opportunity is scarce due to high cost involved (flight fare is about N7,000; annual tuition fee is approximately £4,500 (N36,000); annual maintenance fee is approximately £5,000 (N40,000) compare with the general minimum wage of N1,500 per annum). Also, the subjects' characteristics presented in Table 3 show that the Nigerian sample mainly consists of employees in fairly high occupational (first and middle level management) and educational (postgraduates) levels which further indicates that the Nigerians in this study are drawn from relatively high class group of the society and consequently contribute to the above result.

In conclusion, a final conviction arising from this exploratory study is that the success of cross-cultural research in the field of organisational psychology will depend, at least in part, upon understanding 'in depth' the nature and the impact of the cultural environment which exerts a significant influence upon workers' attitudes and behaviours. It is also realised that the forces affecting man's willingness to work are dynamic in nature and can be influenced by the instrument used in tapping these forces. The present writer therefore believes that a locally developed relevant instrument based on exploratory research such as the one reported here, is an appropriate and unobtrusive technique to tap motivating and

demotivating factors among Nigerian workforce.

To this end, the motives identified in the content analysed data, the motivating and demotivating factors, were themselves used as items to construct a questionnaire for the main investigation. This approach is supported by Dunham and Smith's (1979) view:

"The unique strengths and weaknesses of both interviews and questionnaires suggest that a combination of the two techniques provides the most effective organisational survey program. Thus, selective preliminary interviewing can be helpful for identifying critical issues to include in a comprehensive questionnaire." (pp. 14-15).

Accordingly, this research *can be assumed to utilise both the interview and the questionnaire methods of investigation.*

The next chapter describes the method of the main investigation including a summary of the instrument development procedure and other measures, data producing sample and experimental hypotheses.

PART FOUR

THE MAIN INVESTIGATION

CHAPTER FIVE

METHOD OF THE MAIN INVESTIGATION

5.1. Design of the study

The main purpose of the main investigation was to assess job motivation and commitment in Nigeria. In view of this, the first task before us was to select a representative sample of Nigerian employees. This section describes how this task was accomplished.

According to Schmidt (1979), when using or interpreting inferential statistics as those employed in this study, it is very important to know which sampling procedure was used to select population members for the sample. He wrote:

"Inferences about the population may not be possible if the proper sampling procedure was not used. Proper sampling procedure ensures that the sample adequately represents the population. A sample that is not representative of the population is called a biased (unrepresentative) sample." (p. 251).

We have therefore made an attempt to obtain a fairly representative sample for this study. However, several issues were taken into consideration before the sample was selected - the characteristics of the population from which the sample would be drawn, the type of data sought, the data gathering processes envisaged, and the statistical analyses planned. For example, the more subgroups there are within a population, the larger the sample size needs to be. That too bears a direct relationship to the statistical analysis to be used (Fox, 1969).

Bearing in mind also that "no data are sounder than the representativeness of the sample from which they were obtained no matter how large the sample" (Fox, 1969), a systematic sampling procedure was adopted as a precision-increasing technique. It was not possible to select predetermined numbers of individual employees according to age, sex or educational levels since there was no list from which to locate individuals within these categories. Consequently, the population was systematically selected along two easily

identifiable variables - cultural background and occupational level - which are also of interest in the present study.

As earlier shown, employees of various organisations in Nigeria come mainly from three ethnic groups (Hausa, Ibo and Yoruba) which differ extensively in their cultural backgrounds, social structures and geographical locations. Most organisations in Nigeria have four distinct categories of employees - shop floor, supervisory, middle level and top level managers - and to a large extent, indigenes in the locality as well as people from other ethnic groups, occupy these positions. In order to ensure a representative sample of every category within each ethnic group, it was decided that 20 organisations should be selected and invited to participate in this study. It was also arbitrarily decided that, for each cultural group, each selected organisation should provide a minimum of one employee in each of the four occupational levels. That is, twelve minimum employees from each organisation or an employee for each cell in Table 10. The table shows minimum expected subjects in each occupational level (60) and from each cultural group (80), given an overall envisaged sample size of 240 subjects. Taking into consideration the low response rate often encountered when self-completion questionnaire is administered, 500 copies of questionnaire were produced for this study.

Individual sample organisations were randomly selected from a list (Directory of major organisations in Nigeria), using the table of random numbers (Pagano, 1981).

5.2. The Data Producing Sample

A total of 500 copies of questionnaire were administered to the employees of randomly selected organisations in Nigeria. Of these, 364 (72.8%) of them returned their completed questionnaires. Unfortunately, 14 copies were not properly filled out (too many items not answered). That left 350 usable questionnaires or 70 per cent of the "accepting sample." The composition of the 350 data producing sample is shown in Table 11.

The data producing sample consisted of 80 Hausa employees (23%), 119 Ibos (34%)

Table 10

The Minimum Composition of the Envisaged Sample

Cultural Group	Occupational Level					Total
	Shop Floor Level	Supervisory Level	Middle Level	Top Level	Total	
Hausa	20	20	20	20	80	
Ibo	20	20	20	20	80	
Yoruba	20	20	20	20	80	
Total	60	60	60	60	240	

Table 11
The Composition of the Data Producing Sample (N=350)

Characteristics	Categories	Ethnic Background	N	Category 1		Category 2		Category 3		Category 4	
				n	%*	n	%	n	%	n	%
Age in years	1 = Below 25	Hausa	79	34	42.5	22	27.5	15	18.8	8	10.0
	2 = 26-30	Ibo	115	34	28.6	39	32.8	20	16.8	22	18.5
	3 = 31-35	Yoruba	149	22	14.6	40	26.5	43	28.5	44	29.1
	4 = Above 36	Total	343	90	25.7	101	28.9	78	22.3	74	21.1
$X^2 = 31.53, p < 0.01$											
Sex	1 = Male 2 = Female	Hausa	79	59	73.8	20	25.0				
		Ibo	118	90	75.6	28	23.5				
		Yoruba	149	127	84.1	22	14.6				
		Total	346	276	78.9	70	20.0				
$X^2 = 4.92, n.s.$											
Marital Status	1 = Single 2 = Married	Hausa	78	27	33.8	51	63.8				
		Ibo	115	55	46.2	60	50.4				
		Yoruba	149	48	31.8	101	66.9				
		Total	342	130	37.1	212	60.6				
$X^2 = 7.21, p < 0.05$											
Number of Dependents	1 = 0-2 2 = 3-5 3 = 6+	Hausa	74	24	30.0	23	28.7	27	33.8		
		Ibo	107	38	31.9	32	26.9	37	31.1		
		Yoruba	143	41	27.2	64	42.4	38	25.2		
		Total	324	103	29.4	119	34.0	102	29.1		
$X^2 = 7.43, n.s.$											
Number of years in Employment	1 = Below 5 2 = 5-9 3 = Above 10	Hausa	75	32	40.0	26	32.5	17	21.3		
		Ibo	117	44	37.0	46	38.7	27	22.7		
		Yoruba	149	47	31.1	45	29.8	57	37.7		
		Total	341	123	35.1	117	33.4	101	28.9		
$X^2 = 11.12, p < 0.05$											
Occupational Level	1 = Shop floor 2 = Supervisory 3 = Middle level 4 = Top level	Hausa	80	24	30.0	23	28.7	16	20.0	17	21.3
		Ibo	119	42	35.3	33	27.7	28	23.5	16	13.4
		Yoruba	150	28	18.5	42	27.8	44	29.1	36	23.8
		Total	349	94	26.9	98	28.0	88	25.1	69	19.7
$X^2 = 13.05, p < 0.05$											
Type of Organisation	1 = Public 2 = Private	Hausa	77	44	55.0	33	41.3				
		Ibo	118	65	54.6	53	44.5				
		Yoruba	150	96	63.6	54	35.8				
		Total	345	205	58.6	140	40.0				
$X^2 = 2.39, n.s.$											
Education	1 = Non-Graduate 2 = Graduate	Hausa	79	47	58.8	32	40.0				
		Ibo	117	69	58.0	48	40.3				
		Yoruba	149	60	39.7	89	58.9				
		Total	345	176	50.3	169	48.3				
$X^2 = 12.13, p < 0.05$											

*These percentages are based upon the total number of individuals sampled in each ethnic group (Hausa = 80; Ibo = 119; Yoruba = 151), not upon number of individuals who supplied relevant information in each group.

and 151 Yorubas (43%). The Hausa group consisted of approximately 74% and 64% male and married employees respectively. About 60% held non-managerial positions and were non-graduate. The average age of the Hausa subjects was 28 years while the average number of years in employment was 6.6 years. The categorical characteristics of the Ibo group was very similar to that of the Hausas. For example, the average number of years in employment for the Ibo group was exactly the same (6.6 years) with that of their Hausa counterpart, and the mean age for the two groups was 30 years.

The Yoruba group consisted of 127 male (84%), 96 government (63.6%) and 89 graduate (58.9%) employees. On the average the Yoruba subjects had 9 years of working experience while about 54% held managerial positions. Compared with the two other groups, the Yoruba group has fewer employees aged below 25 years (14.6) and has an average age of 33 years. The results of chi-square test also showed that the three cultural groups differed significantly from each other on all of the characteristics with the exception of sex, number of dependents and type of organisation.

Moreover, Table 11 showed that the initial target overall sample of 240 was exceeded and the minimum expected subjects of 20 in each occupational category for each ethnic group (see Table 10) were obtained for 9 (75%) of the 12 cells. The three cells that have less than 20 subjects were middle level employees among the Hausas and the top level employees among the Hausas and the Ibos. However, the number of individuals in the obtained sample and in the major demographical groupings are sufficiently large to allow statistically meaningful statements concerning the distribution of certain important variables in the general population and the relationships between variables.

5.3. Data Gathering Procedure

The questionnaire was administered to a sample of Nigerian employees between August 1986 and July 1987.

Before this time, a letter of introduction and invitation to participate was sent to each

of the selected organisations (Appendix 4). The present writer was also given a letter "To whom it may concern" which was so worded as to convince the organisations of the importance and seriousness of the survey (see Appendix 5). Coupled with the face sheet introduction to each questionnaire (Appendix 6-A), such a conviction, it was hoped, could help to enhance maximum co-operation and participation, and lessen the aversion which many organisations and employees in Nigeria show towards "academic researches." Such an exercise is often regarded as an irrelevant "esoteric pursuit of high-powered and specially trained intellectuals" (Okunrotifa, 1971: p. 154) or simply as the ladder through which researchers climb to greatness at the expense of the respondents (Ozumba, 1974).

In order to avoid the threat of serious attrition usually associated with mailed questionnaire, it was decided that the present researcher should personally administer the questionnaire in Nigeria. Another decision that was made concerns the transportation of the 500 copies of questionnaire (weighing about 50 kilogrammes) to and from Nigeria. Since the researcher could not carry all the 500 copies due to high cost involved (free baggage allowance to Nigeria by air is 20 kilogrammes and excess luggage is £10 per kilogramme), it was therefore planned that some copies should be left behind and that arrangement would be made with the University to send them to the researcher in Nigeria.

This plan was not successful because the University could not provide financial assistance for sending the questionnaires. The researcher who had left for Nigeria since August 1986, having waited without any information from the University for about two months, decided to return to Canterbury. On the day he was to leave Nigeria, some unknown thieves broke into his flat and carried away his valuable belongings including his Nigerian passport and air ticket. This was a big setback because obtaining passport in Nigeria is not easy. It is not considered as a "right" of every citizen as it is in most advanced countries. In fact, it sometimes takes about a year or more to obtain a passport after one has obtained, filled and submitted an application form, and paid the fee. However, the researcher obtained a new passport within two weeks (with the help of a Senior Passport

Officer who "had compassion" on the researcher) and was able to travel back to Canterbury immediately to carry the remaining copies of questionnaire. He later returned to Nigeria to continue his field work.

The researcher was based in Lagos the capital city of Nigeria. Since most industries in the Hausa dominated area (Northern part of Nigeria) were situated in Kano and Kaduna states, these two states were visited by the researcher. The Ibo and the Yoruba dominated the Southern part of Nigeria including states such as Lagos, Ogun, Ondo and Oyo which were also visited by the writer. It must be pointed out that transport system within Nigeria is slow, expensive and unreliable. For example, the train that was taken by the researcher from Lagos to Kano suppose to spend about 24 hours but did not reach Kano until the third day. To travel by road is most dangerous as most of the roads are not motorable. Hence, the researcher was able to visit limited organisations in only six states of Nigeria.

Some of the selected organisations indicated that they could not participate because majority of their workforce have been made redundant due to economic problems prevailing in the country at the time these data were being gathered. Using the same procedure of random numbers as used before, other organisations were selected to replace them. In some of the selected organisations, the list of employees (employees' register) was made available to the researcher from which respondents were randomly selected. Where this was not possible, the administration of the questionnaire was carried out by a delegated member of that organisation.

Such members served as research assistants and the researcher reported to these people from time to time to monitor the progress and collect completed questionnaires. It must be pointed out that some of these assistants occupied high positions in their respective organisations such as Regional Administrator, Divisional Manager, Head of Department, Supervisor, Principal Consultant and Training Executive. The use of such people is, according to Dunham and Smith (1979), the best procedure to follow because instances of errors and problems will be kept to a minimum.

The selected employees were given a copy of the questionnaire each, which they filled at their leisure, some at their places of work and some at home. These were later returned to the assistants in each organisation. As soon as each research assistant collected the completed questionnaires, especially those in the North and distant states in the South, he sent them at once to the researcher in Lagos. On the whole, the research assistants reported maximum co-operation from the respondents.

5.4. Development of Instrument for use in the Main Investigation

We have made attempts in the literature review to show that the instruments developed in advanced countries for tapping factors influencing high and low job attitudes are not appropriate in underdeveloped countries such as Nigeria, because what is valued in differing cultures affects employees job attitudes. We have therefore conducted an exploratory study purposely to generate a new locally relevant instrument for use in the main study. This sub-chapter discusses the major considerations that guide the development of this instrument, and in the subsequent sections, summary of the instrument and other measures are presented.

For each of the forty items identified in the exploratory study (see Table 7) to be included in the Job Attitude Questionnaire (JAQ) for the main study, one option was open to the present researcher. That is, each high and low job attitude motive had to have a certain minimum frequency. This would have helped to ensure a reasonably short questionnaire in the hope of avoiding deterioration in response quality often encountered when respondents lose interest because of long questionnaire. But because of relatively few items obtained in the exploratory study (high job attitude motive = 20 and low job attitude motive = 20), it was considered reasonable to include all of the 40 items in the questionnaire.

Another important matter was the consideration of the response format which the proposed questionnaire would adopt. In designing the format, two options were open to the researcher. The first was to adopt the forced-choice format such as asking the respondent to

indicate either their agreement or disagreement (without intermediate choice) with a statement. This method supplies alternatives like "agree or disagree," "yes or no," "1 or 2," "approve or disapprove." The subject chooses one of the supplied responses to report his reaction to each item. In so doing he gives a report of himself or indicates his reaction to the item. For example, such an approach would require the subjects, in our own case, to indicate what their reactions would be (i.e. either "makes me work very hard" (feel good about the job) or "makes me work very little" (feel bad about the job) when:

- (i) The work is interesting, challenging and has variety.
- (ii) Pay is low and other financial incentives are unlikely.

Although some writers might argue that such method of measuring job attitudes is more direct and less laborious, Weisberg and Bowen (1977) have asserted that single agreement or disagreement with a statement gives no clue as to the intensity of the person's views. Also, Kerlinger (1973) has indicated that, the response variance which such forced-choice approach provides, is very minimal. One important related consideration here, in deciding on "yes or no" (or forced-choice) format, was the type of analysis anticipated for the research. It was understood that different statistical operations make different assumptions about the data, and some require that answer categories be structured in special ways. In particular, many inferential statistical procedures such as, analysis of variance, factor analysis and multiple regression intended for the present study, require that ordinal or interval scaled responses be available. But as the structure of categories of response which the forced-choice method provides is not appropriate for generating such data, this method is therefore not suitable for the present study.

The second method, on the other hand, the Likert-type rating scale, which has become more popular partly because it lends itself to various statistical procedures, was adopted for the questionnaire. This method asks subjects to place themselves on an attitude continuum (with 5 or 7 points) for a given statement - running from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree," and each position on the continuum is given simple weights (of 1 to 5

or 1 to 7) for scoring purposes. The underlying assumption of this technique is that intensity can be measured by asking if respondent (i) disagrees very strongly, (ii) disagrees strongly, (iii) disagrees, (iv) not sure, (v) agrees, (vi) agrees strongly, or (vii) agrees very strongly.

According to Oppenheim (1966), Likert-type rating scales tend to perform very well when it comes to a reliable, rough ordering of people with regard to a particular attitude. They provide more precise information about the respondent's degree of agreement or disagreement with a particular attitude statement, and respondents usually prefer this to a simple "yes or no" format. Another advantage of this method over "yes or no" answers is the applicability of most statistical analyses to responses obtained from the subjects. Nevertheless, this response format has its limitations. The most serious criticism leveled against Likert-type scale is that, its pattern of responses often seems to contain response-set variance.

However, if the Likert-type scale is carefully designed, the problem of response-set could be averted, which would not be the case with a "yes or no" format, which has the obvious disadvantage of having a limited range of allowable content on the questionnaire. The final issue to be decided upon was whether the rating scale should have 5 or 7 points. Since some psychological research shows that people can make up to seven distinctions reliably (Miller, 1956), the response format adopted for the newly designed questionnaire to measure job attitudes (motivation and commitment) in the present study, asked the respondents to indicate their reactions to the items along the 7-point scale.

The research instrument (Job Attitude Questionnaire), which was developed for use in the main investigation in line with the above considerations, had five parts to it (see Appendix 6). The face sheet introduction (Appendix 6-A) laid due emphasis on the importance of this research and the anonymity of responses. We will now present the layout and summary of each part.

5.5. Summary of the Research Instrument

5.5.1. Measurement of Job Motivation (Appendix 6-B)

The first part of the Job Attitude Questionnaire (JAQ) focuses on assessing job motivation among Nigerian's employees. In Chapter *three*, we have emphasised that work may have variety of meanings for individuals and that what is valued in different cultures affects motivation to work. An understanding of these various meanings and the conditions under which individuals impute them to their work activity is an important initial step toward understanding the concept of job motivation in a particular society. Two approaches are identified in the literature.

The first approach is to classify individuals on the basis of their dominant orientation to work as in Goldthorpe et al.'s (1968) study reviewed earlier. Goldthorpe and his associates classify the various wants and expectations that workers seek to fulfill through their employment on the basis of several ideal type "orientations to work," set of consciously experienced expectations or goals which represent the priorities one holds with respect to his work activity. They hold the view that workers can be classified as having either instrumental or bureaucratic or solidaristic orientation to work. Briefly, workers who may be classified as having an instrumental orientation tend to see work as a means to ends external to the work situation and seek maximisation of economic returns at the expense of social and intrinsic rewards. Workers holding a bureaucratic orientation see the primary meaning of work as being service to the organisation in return for a career, and regard economic rewards as emoluments appropriate to an office rather than in terms of labour expended. On the other hand, workers holding a solidaristic orientation to work experience their work not simply as a means to an end but as a source of gratification for expressive and effective needs through group activity, and may sacrifice economic returns if these offend group norms and threaten group solidarity.

While such a classification as above may be useful in certain situations, and while particular individuals may have such single-minded and uncomplex motivations toward

their work, such categorisations do not appear very useful for a comparative analysis. Identifying workers as motivated by the desire to obtain a single type of reward tends to lead to a neglect of an analysis of the variation on the other dimensions.

The second approach to understanding the variety of meanings that individuals may impute to their work is to specify the range of gratifications that are available from work in a particular society and to assess the degree to which particular individuals in that society value each of these dimensions. In this view, individuals may be regarded as having a variety of work values as opposed to a single, dominant orientation toward work in general. As Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist, (1967) say:

"..... individuals may express the same amount of general satisfaction with their work but for entirely different reasons It is therefore likely that people find different satisfaction in work, and to understand these differences it is useful to measure satisfaction with the specific aspects of work and work environment." (Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire Manual).

The specific-factor approach asserts that "specific situationally dependent components account for most of the important content of employee attitudes, focusing on the unique rather than the general" (Weiss et al., 1967). Besides Herzberg's study, this approach has been used widely under various names such as "Job Descriptive Index" (Smith, Kendall and Hulin, 1969), and "The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire" (Weiss et al., 1967).

A similar approach was used by the present writer because according to Mills (1951):

"Every known dimension of work must be taken into account to understand the meaning of work and the sources of its gratifications. Anyone of them may become the foremost aspect of the job, and in various combinations each is usually in the consciousness of the employee." (pp. 233-234).

In the present study, the motives identified from the content analysed data of the exploratory study were used as the "every known dimension of work," as well as specific gratifications available to Nigerian employees.

All of the 40 motives (20 motivating and 20 demotivating items) identified from content analysed data were themselves used to construct a questionnaire to assess job motivation. Some related rules in question wording (Oppenheim, 1966; Weisberg and

Bowen, 1977) were observed in order to avoid ambiguous and unreliable answers. It was recommended that, the wording of questions should not only be directly related to the theory being investigated, one must also keep in mind who is going to be asked the questions. Accordingly, our questions were kept short and direct, taken into consideration low educational level of great proportion of Nigerian employees.

The forty items reflected a number of job motivation scales as conceptually categorised (for the sake of brevity) and elaborated below:

(i) Recognition (item nos. 1 and 13)

This scale measured employees perceived motivation with the respect and appreciation which he gets from "important others" such as superiors, peers and subordinates within the organisation. Recognition and status are broad conceptions which, according to Penn (1975) refer to the "notion of esteem, honour, reputation, eminence, renown, admiration and acclamation the granting of deference in social interaction and attribution of worthiness."

(ii) Work Nature (item nos. 2, 5, 11, 19 and 25)

This scale assessed employees perceived motivation with the nature, amount, and difficulty level of the work and how such work is assigned. Motives in this group included the amount or difficulty level of work assigned, presence of urgently required work or tasks with completion deadline, work described as interesting and challenging or work perceived as important and offering variety.

(iii) Responsibility (item no. 3)

This scale sought to measure employees' perceived motivation with opportunities which he had to be responsible (freedom to make decisions) for his own work or the work of others.

(iv) Pay (item nos. 4 and 30)

This scale assessed employees' perceptions of the adequacy of their basic salary structure, increments and other financial incentives. The emphasis was on the adequacy of the overall

pay system as it affected the employees. Lawler (1973) for example, regards a rational pay structure in any organisation as one of the important determinants of employees' job satisfaction and motivation.

(v) Company Policy and Administration (item nos. 6, 21, 28, 31, 32 and 36)

This scale measured employees' perceived motivation with the content and the methods of the formulation and implementation of policies and regulations by the organisation. The emphasis was primarily on personnel policies. Motives in this group included tribalism, favouritism and corruption in pay raises, promotions and work assignments, failure of company to keep promises, unjust blame/disciplinary action/transfer, and job description.

(vi) Achievement (item nos. 7, 16, 23 and 27)

This group of items measured the need to perform satisfactorily in accordance with the self-perception of one's abilities. The scale relates to opportunity to prove oneself and seeing the results of one's work.

(vii) Personal Problems (item nos. 8, 26 and 29)

Motives included in this category attempted to measure the impact of personal and/or domestic problems on employees' job motivation.

(viii) Growth and Advancement (item nos. 9, 12, 20, 35 and 39)

This scale measured employees' perception and assessment of the opportunities which he had to "grow" and to "excel" in his job. Motives in this group relate to promotion, training and placement.

(ix) Job Security (item nos. 14 and 22)

This index measured the degree of employees' perceived motivation with the security which his job provides. Security in this context relates to security from being sacked, and ensure being employed. Security is one of the important attributes which people seek from their jobs. As Chruden and Sherman (1976) have observed, it is "concerned in a large measure with the possible loss of income as a result of layoffs, disability or retirement as

well as with the loss of being needed and worthwhile." (p. 512).

(x) Interpersonal relations (item nos. 10, 15, 18, 33, 37 and 40)

This category was used to probe the extent of employees' perceived motivation with the way he and his co-workers (that is, superior, peers and subordinates) relate to each other. The motives in this category were relations with superior, subordinates and peers, co-workers' competence and supervision.

(xi) Working Conditions (item nos. 24 and 34)

This scale relates to those items measuring employees motivation with the physical conditions of work - adequacy or inadequacy of ventilation, lighting and other such environmental characteristics.

(xii) Fringe Benefits (item nos. 17 and 38)

This group of items assessed employees' perceived motivation with the amount of non-financial incentives they receive and the administration of such other extrinsic motivators such as car loan, company housing and staff bus.

As can be seen from Appendix 6-B, the different questionnaire items were located randomly over the pages in order to break up any response-set or predisposition on the part of the respondents.

5.5.2. Measurement of Organisational Commitment (Appendix 6-C)

A review of the literature on organisational commitment presented earlier in this thesis showed that the process by which commitments are formed and how such commitments influence subsequent behaviour in organisational settings consists of two parts: (i) behavioural outcomes of commitment and (ii) antecedents of commitment. These two components were included in our measure of organisational commitment.

The following behavioural outcomes, identified in the relevant literature, were employed to represent the first component:

- (1) Willingness to stay with the organisation - highly committed employees should have a strong desire to stay with the organisation (Porter et al. 1974).
- (2) Job satisfaction - highly committed employees should feel good about the job (Herzberg et al., 1959; Schwyhart and Smith, 1972).
- (3) Willingness to attend work regularly - employees who are highly committed to the goals of an organisation should be more likely to have a strong desire to come to work regularly to contribute toward goal attainment (Steers, 1977).
- (4) Willingness to accept change and innovation - highly committed employees should have a positive attitude toward change, that is, they should be more ready to accept change and innovation.
- (5) Less active in leisure pursuits - employees who are highly committed should be less active in leisure pursuits than low or non-committed employees who would be more active. The assumption here is that, the major interest of committed employees should be in their jobs and a great deal of time and effort would be devoted to the job, as a result, such employees have less time for leisure pursuits.
- (6) Identification - employees who are highly committed to the goals of an organisation and have positive attitudes toward it should be proud to work for the particular organisation and be identified with it (Schwyhart and Smith, 1972).
- (7) Job enjoyment - commitment should be related to job enjoyment under the assumption that committed employees would like the work they are doing.
- (8) Willingness to expend greater effort on the job - commitment should be related to job performance under the assumption that committed employees would expend greater effort on the job (Mowday, Porter and Dubin, 1974).

All of this eight outcomes were combined to measure commitment in the present study.

It must be pointed out that, while some of the above behavioural outcomes of commitment were identified in the literature, only few of them have been combined in previous studies related to organisational commitment. For example, Porter et al. (1974), Stevens et al. (1978) and Mottaz (1987) based their studies on the notion that commitment outcome is only manifested in employees' desire to stay with or leave the organisation while Steers (1977) used only three outcome variables - attendance, turnover and overall job performance - in his study. Therefore, by combining the above eight behavioural manifestations to measure organisational commitment, we may feel that the present study is relatively innovative.

In selecting variables to represent the second component, antecedents (recall that from the literature review in Chapter 2, antecedents of organisational commitment were cast into three categories: personal characteristics of members, work- and organisational- related factors), the following procedure was used.

First, the selection of personal characteristics was based on findings of previous research which we have reviewed in Chapter 2. Specifically, the personal attributes examined in this study were: age, sex, cultural background, marital status, number of dependents, educational level, self-esteem and personality type. As indicated earlier, several studies of determinants of organisational commitment have used these variables but incongruous findings have emerged. We have also shown that, most of the previous studies were conducted in advanced countries and consequently our knowledge of the relationship between commitment and these personal attributes in developing nations is lacking. Thus, these personal variables were selected in the present study in an attempt to fill the gap.

Second, twenty-five questions (based on the content analysed data of the exploratory study) were used to represent the other two antecedent categories (work- and organisational- related factors). Recall that these categories include variables such as level of responsibility attached to a job, variety, friendship opportunities, organisation dependability, work experience (tenure), occupational level, type of organisation and

certain extrinsic social and organisational rewards (see Chapter 2). All of these areas are covered by our questions. Each of the twenty-five items was assessed on all of the eight behavioural outcomes of commitment enumerated earlier. Thus, a committed employee in this study is operationally defined as someone who:

- (1) have a strong desire to stay with the organisation,
- (2) feels good about the job,
- (3) have a strong desire to attend work regularly,
- (4) is more ready to accept change and innovation,
- (5) is less active in leisure pursuits,
- (6) feels proud to work for, and be identified with, the particular organisation,
- (7) likes the job (job enjoyment), and
- (8) is willing to to expend greater effort on the job.

The eight behavioural manifestations were arranged on a seven-point rating scales that are bipolar with each extreme defined by positive/negative description of each manifestation. The arrangement was similar to that of Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum's (1957) semantic differential technique. The semantic differential technique has been used extensively in attitude measurement and a number of detailed reviews of such applications are available (e.g. Heise, 1969; Maguire, 1973). According to Heise (1969):

"The semantic differential has become a standard and useful tool for social psychological research. There is probably no social psychological principle that has received such resounding cross-group and cross-cultural verification as the structure of semantic differential ratings." (p. 421).

In the present study, the respondents were asked to "indicate (for each of the twenty-five questions of which thirteen were negatively phrased and reverse scored in an effort to reduce response bias - see Appendix 6-C) what you did or would do when" (e.g.):

(1) Your superior supervises closely:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

In setting up these scales, the location of the positive end were randomised in an attempt to counteract response set due to position.

5.5.3. Measures of Personal Characteristics

Personality Measure: The Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) - Appendix 6-D

A review of scant literature available on the relationship between personality and behaviour of an individual at his job suggests that people choose certain types of work behaviour in terms of their personality structure and to satisfy various needs. For example, Locke (1969) proposes that ^{ness} satisfaction is a consequence of the discrepancy between perceptions of the job and his value standards. Other authors express individual values as expectations and needs (Porter and Lawler, 1968; Vroom, 1964). Thus, values or needs and expectations are derivable in part from individual traits such as abilities, personality, and motivations. Obvious antecedents to job attitude, then, may be various individual traits broadly referred to under the public "personality."

While discussions of research and theory concerned with job attitude often mention individual traits as a progenitor to job attitude, there is a dearth of relevant evidence to support this notion (Campbell et al., 1970; Vroom, 1964). This lack of knowledge of the relationship between individual differences in personality and attitude to work has led

Guion and Gottier (1965) to conclude that:

"Tests based upon personality theories - e.g., the Guilford Series, the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, or the study of values - have not shown predictive validity with the regularity of the weighted application blanks. This might be because the personality theories represented are not specifically relevant to the work situation; if so, the implication is that such a theory should be advanced. It must be admitted that industrial psychology lacks a general theory of work; it lacks a specific theory of the relationship of motivational constructs to the behaviour of an individual at his job; and it lacks even a substantial body of research explicitly aimed toward the development of such theories." (pp. 135-136).

One possible inference from this analysis is that, failure to consider relevant intrinsic differences and specifically personality traits relevant to work behaviour in job attitude research, may impede theory building or result in erroneous deductions and conclusions when data are compared across populations working at different jobs or in different cultural milieus. While there is little evidence that personality measures are useful in personnel selection, in a number of instances personality has been related to turnover, accident rates and tenure (Guion and Gottier, 1965). These variables, especially turnover and tenure, have been associated consistently with job attitude (see Chapter 2 for a review), suggesting that there may be a relationship between individual traits such as personality and attitudes to work. For example, Pervin (1968), in a review of performance and satisfaction as a function of individual-environment fit suggests that satisfaction and performance may be viewed as resulting from the interaction of personality and environmental variables.

Several earlier attempts to assess the relationship between personality and work behaviour have limited their scope to personality variables such as temperament traits as measured by Guilford Personality Inventories (Guilford, 1952), the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire - 16PF (Cattell and Eber, 1967-1968), need for Achievement and its associated risk-taking propensity (McClelland, 1961; Spence and Helmreich, 1983; Orpen, 1985) and traits such as maturity and working class affinity as measured by Self-Descriptive Inventory (Ghiselli, 1971). While the findings of such earlier studies are highly suggestive, a broader range of work related individual variables and some other established dimensions

of personality still need to be considered. One such personality dimension which appear to have been largely neglected by organisation behaviour researchers is that of 'Extraversion' as conceived by Eysenck and Eysenck (1975), and measured by what has popularly become the "Eysenck Personality Questionnaire" (EPQ). In order to extend this line of investigation, the EPQ was therefore chosen for the present study.

The EPQ purports to give a measure of Neuroticism (N), Extraversion-Introversion (E), Psychoticism (P) and Lie or dissimulation factor (L). The dimension, Neuroticism, measures emotional instability and over reactivity, and the higher scorer tends to be an anxious, worrying individual, moody and frequently depressed, lack of autonomy and having low esteem. The highly extraverted individual is characterised as being sociable, a risk-taker and generally likes changes compared to the quiet, introspective, well-ordered, and controlled introvert. Extraversion-Introversion factors have been extensively researched and according to Eysenck and Eysenck (1975), they "contribute more to a description of personality than other set of two factors"

The psychoticism scale measures a personality trait which, in spite of the name given to it, is nonpathological; it is closely linked with tough-mindedness. According to Eysenck (1952), Psychoticism, like Neuroticism is hypothesised to be an underlying personality trait present in varying degree in all persons and which may predispose a person to the development of psychiatric abnormalities if present in marked degree. However, while arguing that psychiatric abnormalities are continuous with normality, Eysenck contends that Neuroticism and Psychoticism are different and unrelated dimensions. Individual scoring high on the Psychoticism scale are described as aggressive, isolated, glacial, and lacking in human feelings. The Lie scale attempts to measure the degree of dissimulation and the scale may be used to eliminate subjects showing a "desirability response set."

The development procedure of the EPQ has been comprehensively described in the accompanying manual (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1975). Its widespread use in personality research, its satisfactory validity and reliability statistics were also summarised in the

manual. The questionnaire contains 90 items (see Appendix 6-D) which provides four scores per subject - Neuroticism (23 items), Extraversion (21 items), Psychoticism (25 items) and Lie (21 items). All items are written in simplified English and answered either "yes" or "no".

Measure of Self-esteem at Work (Appendix 6-E)

Attempt was also made to examine the relationship between self-esteem and attitude to work. To this end, Quinn and Shepard's (1974) four items that were used in their study, "quality of employment survey", to measure self-esteem in a job-related context, were employed in the present investigation. The items are bipolar adjectival descriptors separated by a seven-point continuum, and respondents indicate how they see themselves in their work. The arrangement of the items was similar to that of Osgood et al.'s semantic differential technique discussed earlier.

Measure of Biographical Characteristics (Appendix 6-F)

Measure of biographical characteristics in this study were age, sex, ethnic background, marital status, number of dependents, work experience (tenure), organisation type, occupational, and educational levels. The choice of these characteristics was dictated by two considerations.

The first consideration concerned the earlier point we made that, although most of the individual variables enumerated above have been shown in previous studies to be correlates of motivation and commitment, there seems to be disagreement on the direction of relationship. That is, the evidence in the literature is mixed between studies showing significant positive or negative relationships on one hand and those that found no relationship at all on the other hand.

Second, examination of the literature also indicates that most studies were carried out in developed nations such as Europe and the United States of America, and relatively few studies in developing countries. As a result, little is known about the relationship which

may exist between these biographical characteristics and job attitudes in less developed nations.

The above biographical characteristics were therefore selected in the present study in an attempt to shed more light in this line of investigation.

To sum up, in the light of all the considerations examined thus far, the questionnaire used to investigate job attitude in this study (i) comprised of five parts - (a) measurement of job motivation, (b) measurement of organisational commitment, (c) personality measure (EPQ), (d) measure of self-esteem at work, and (e) respondents' biographical variables, and (ii) the newly developed measures (job motivation and commitment) was so worded in short and direct simplified English, keeping in mind low educational level of the respondents and maximise readability, and adopted a seven-point Likert-type rating scale in preference to forced-choice format such as "yes" or "no" response format.

5.6. The Scoring Technique

Each part of the Job Attitude Questionnaire (JAQ) was scored differently.

In the first part (job motivation), items were assigned numerical values along a agreement-disagreement continuum. For each of the 40 items, response choices were weighted as follows: strongly agree, 1; agree quite a lot, 2; agree just a little, 3; neither agree nor disagree, 4; disagree just a little, 5; disagree quite a lot, 6; and strongly disagree, 7. Scoring was on the basis of the weight assigned by the respondent to each item. In order to be consistent with the remaining part of the questionnaire, the scoring was reversed during analysis. The internal consistency estimate for the 40-item scale (Cronbach alpha) was 0.78.

With this scoring, an item that received a mean greater than 4 after summing and averaging across all respondents was considered motivating. The closer the mean to a value of 7, the greater the unanimity among the respondents that an item encourages high job attitude. Consequently, the size of the mean can be considered a measure of the motivating

strength of the items. Another indication of unanimity of subjects' responses to a given item, is the size of the standard deviation of the items. A smaller standard deviation would signify greater unanimity of responses than a larger one. Thus, the standard deviation can also be looked at as an indicator of motivating strength of items.

Similarly, items having a mean score less than 4 after summing up and averaging across respondents are considered to encourage low job attitude. The closer the mean value to 1, and the smaller the size of standard deviation, the greater the agreement among respondents that the item discourages high job attitude and therefore the greater the magnitude of such item as a demotivator. Items with a mean value of 4 on summing and on averaging across the sample are those where respondents were unsure as to whether such items encouraged or discouraged productive work behaviour; such items *may* be considered neutral.

Convergence of the items from the content analysis and questionnaire study is considered established if items from good critical incidents show mean values greater than 4 and closer to 7, while items from bad critical incidents show mean values lower than 4 and closer to 1.

In the second part (organisational commitment), each of the 25 items used to assess organisational commitment was evaluated on workers' responses to 8 pairs of behavioural outcomes. Recall that each pair of outcomes was arranged on a 7-point scale so that the positive and negative outcomes (e.g. feel good - feel bad) were at opposite ends of the scale. A score of 7 was assigned to the positive end and a score of 1 to the negative end of the scale. Thus, for each of the 25 items, minimum possible score is 8 and maximum is 56. For each subject, mean score on the sum of the 8 outcomes was calculated for each item and this mean score was used as specific measure of each of the 25 items. Reliability estimate (Cronbach alpha) of the 25-item scale was 0.88.

In scoring part three of the JAQ (Eysenck Personality Questionnaire), it was decided to obtain equal groups of introverts and extraverts, low-neurotics and high-neurotics,

low-psychotics and high-psychotics. Using the accompany EPQ's scoring sheet, the maximum possible score on each personality scale for a given subject are: Extraversion 21; Neuroticism 23; and Psychoticism 25. In the present study, subjects scoring above 16 (49.2% of the total respondents), 10 (48.5%), and 15 (49.5%) were allocated to the extravert, high-neurotic and high-psychotic groups respectively.

A 7-point response dimension was used for each of the four items employed to measure self-esteem at work (part four of the JAQ). A score of 7 was assigned to the positive end of each adjectival descriptor while a score of 1 was assigned to the negative end. After the scores were summed across the 4 items, mean score was calculated for each respondent, with a high mean score indicating high self-esteem. Mean score (6.02) was taken as the mid-point after summing and averaging across all respondents. Those who scored below the mean score were categorised as low-esteem (1), and above mean scorers as high-esteem (2).

The biographical variables in the final part of the JAQ, being different in nature from the first four parts, were scored differently. For instance, male was scored (or categorised) as 1 while female as 2, organisation type was categorised as 1 if government (or public) and as 2 if private (see Appendix 6-F for nominal scales used to categorise each biographical variable).

5.7. Hypotheses

A review of the prior research studies of work attitudes presented in Chapters 2 and 3 reveals that many antecedent conditions have been found to affect a person's positive and negative attitudes to work. The *result* in chapter 4 also indicates that the impact of the antecedent conditions are unevenly distributed among cultures and societies, that is, they vary from one culture to another. In order to extend this line of investigation, the following hypotheses will be tested in the present study:

Cultural Differences in Job Motivation

- (1) Relationships with co-workers will be more strongly related to job motivation among the Yorubas than among the Hausa and the Ibo groups.
- (2) The Ibos will be significantly more motivated by the job content factors than the Hausa and the Yoruba groups.
- (3) Perceived task characteristics will be more strongly related to job motivation in the case of the Ibos and the Yorubas than in the case of the Hausas.

Other Group Differences in Job Motivation

- (4) There will be significant differences among the perceived job motivation of Nigerian employees in different occupational levels. Specifically, it is hypothesised that low-level employees will value the extrinsic rewards of a job more than high-level employees who themselves will value more the intrinsic rewards.
- (5) The perceived job motivation of better educated employees will differ significantly from that of the less educated employees.
- (6) Significant differences between employees perception of job motivation will be related to variations in the length of their work experience (tenure).
- (7) There will be significant differences between the perceived job motivation of male and female employees.
- (8) Perceived job motivation will be significantly and positively related to variations in the age of the employees.
- (9) Significant differences between employees perception of job motivation will be related to variations in their personality characteristics.
- (10) Employees in government establishments will attach more importance to extrinsic job rewards (such as working conditions and material/physical provisions) than private organisations' employees who themselves will value more the intrinsic rewards.

- (11) Married employees will be more instrumental in their work value orientation than their single counterparts who will value more the intrinsic nature of work.
- (12) Employees perceived job motivation will be positively related to their level of self-esteem at work.

Organisational Commitment

- (1) Organisational commitment will be strongly related to social features of the job (e.g. interpersonal relations, close-knit work groups, and co-workers assistance).
- (2) Organisational commitment will be strongly related to task characteristics.
- (3) There will be significant positive relationship between commitment and "side-bets."
- (4) There will be significant positive relationship between commitment and supervision that is not overly tight or close.
- (5) There will be significant positive relationship between commitment and age.
- (6) There will be significant positive relationship between commitment and occupational levels.
- (7) There will be significant negative relationship between commitment and educational levels.

The next chapter presents the statistical procedures employed to test these hypotheses and the results.

CHAPTER SIX

DATA ANALYSES AND RESULTS

6.1. Statistical Procedures

In order to determine the nature of association among the various job motivation and commitment items, correlation matrices were computed on the continuous ordinal data which were derived from these variables. The use of such a correlational technique helped not only to ascertain whether or not there were any relationships among the variables or sets of data, but also to find out the direction and the magnitude of such relationships.

It is also desirable for a number of reasons to reduce the information obtained regarding the importance of the 40 items used to measure job motivation. First, it is likely that there are only a few dimensions of work underlying these 40 characteristics and thus it is theoretically more meaningful to discern and talk about these basic dimensions. Secondly, a single-item indicator is highly unreliable and thus more reliable information may be obtained by combining different indicators of conceptually the same construct into a single measure. In line with these considerations, the intercorrelations among the relative items were factor-analysed in an attempt to uncover their basic underlying dimensions. The scientific functions of exploring underlying factors and seeking parsimonious explanations were the major criteria used to select this technique (see Kerlinger, 1973). Factor scores were then computed in an attempt to compare the results of separate factor across different groups within the sample.

One important consideration when using factor analysis concerns the labels (or names) that have to be given to the factors identified. According to Rummel (1970):

"The choice of factor names should be related to the basic purpose of the factor analysis. If the goal is to describe or simplify the complex interrelationships in the data, a descriptive factor label can be applied." (p. 475).

Accordingly, the descriptive approach to factor naming was employed in the present study. It involves selecting a label that best reflects the substance of the variable loaded highly on

a factor.

In determining the variables that have appreciative loadings on a factor, Armor (1974) recommends that:

"Although there is no precise rule to define the highest loadings, experience has shown that items below .30 should be excluded. Items in the .30 to .40 are generally borderline; that is, sometimes they increase reliability and sometimes they decrease it, but usually they do not affect it in any appreciable way." (p. 35).

Specifically, concerning the acceptable level of factor loadings for analysis of multiple items, Armor states: "The set of items that loads highly on each factor (say, above .40 or so) with no higher loadings on other factors, is taken to form a scale." Also, for choosing rotation methods, he suggests: "... the varimax method seems to be the most widely used orthogonal solution at the present time."

The above considerations on the interpretation of factor analysis' results, guided the present researcher.

T-Tests or "difference-between-means" tests (one-tail probability directional tests) were used to investigate the extent of the differences between pairs of sample groups on the various scales and factor scores. That is, whenever one of the two sets of variables was discrete and the other continuous, a t-test was used. However, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was computed whenever there was the need to examine the equality (or otherwise) of means and factor scores from more than two sub-samples while two-way ANOVA was computed whenever there was the need to examine interactive effects of two independent variables on a given dependent variable.

Moreover, multiple regression was used to examine the relationship between personal characteristics and measures of organisational commitment. The following definition by Kerlinger and Pedhazur (1973) exemplifies the fit between the research emphasis of this study and the capabilities of multiple regression:

"Multiple regression is a method of analysing the collective and separate contributions of two or more independent variables, X_i , to the variations of a

dependent variable, Y." (p. 3).

It is the intent of this study to explain the relationship between commitment and employees' personal characteristics as parsimoniously as possible. Antecedents of commitment employed in the present study (i.e. work-related, organisational-related and personal variables) are considered complex phenomena and multiple regression has the capability to provide a valid explanatory framework. This objective is the same as the general explanatory goal of science. Given the emphasis in this study it is considered essential to know what relationships exist between the independent and dependent variables. This need is fulfilled by multiple regression analysis, which provides for analysis the complexity and interaction of individual antecedent variables as well as their combined influence on commitment.

The measurement assumptions for multivariate analytical methods (such as factor analysis and multiple regression used in the present study) including interval data, normal distribution and non-systematic residual errors are recognised. While the data being used in this research, as with much of social science data, may not strictly meet each assumption, some relatively recent methodological arguments support the pursuit of explanation with the most powerful tools available. This use, however, must recognise the restrictions that violation of these assumptions place on the interpretation of the results (Boyle, 1970; Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973). Also, the widespread use and value of factor analysis and multiple regression techniques in behavioural research is well documented (Kerlinger, 1973; Kerlinger and Pedhazur, 1973; Blalock and Blalock, 1968), and they have been used for analysing psychological research (Furnham, 1982), job motivation and satisfaction (Howard and Umeshima, 1983; Heneman and Schwab, 1985; Schmitt and Pulakos, 1985; Orpen and Bonnici, 1987) and organisational commitment (Stevens, Beyer and Trice, 1978; Morris and Sherman, 1978).

Much behavioural research has assumed interval properties for measures which may have "partially interval" properties. Kerlinger and Pedhazur (1973) have argued strongly for

the advantages of this approach because of the strength of parametric techniques. Others have also discussed the effects and implications of making the interval-scale assumptions for ordinal data (Heise, 1969). Borgatta (1969), also questions the value of the "obvious fads" that have been associated with assumptions about parametric versus nonparametric statistical approaches. He argues that the need to improve measures and deal with known properties should be emphasised rather than leaving to live with poor measures and statistics. Kerlinger and Pedhazur support this view by reviewing relevant studies which have shown that F and T-tests are particularly "robust" and resist the violations of assumptions provided that the researcher is aware of the violations and the effects on his results. Also Boyle (1970) has demonstrated that ".....interval scale assumptions are not of crucial importance in or regression analysis."

Perhaps the concise argument by Bohrnstedt and Carter, (1971) summarised the position of this research in regards to the methodology being used:

"..... the point is that, under almost any conceivable research situation, statistical tests are robust enough to allow the researcher to use them with little fear of gross errors regardless of whether or not he has an interval or ratio scale so long as his ordinal measure is monotonically related to the underlying true scale." (p. 131).

To this argument is also added the caveat that the researcher must be cognizant of his assumptions about the measurement properties of his data and act appropriately in interpreting and presenting his results.

To conclude, sophisticated statistical measures were avoided as much as possible. The concern of the present writer was to present the data in such a way as to make them meaningful and optimally comprehensible to the focal audience of this study (including employees, organisation administrators and policy-makers in Nigeria). As Davis and Salasin (1975) have observed in their elaborate review of the utilisation of researches, "a portion of the apparent demoralisation among veteran evaluators may be attributed to the slow process of utilisation of evaluation results." (p. 625). An important question arising from that observation is, what causes such slow processes of research utilisation? Although Carter (1971)

thinks that the acceptance of a research report is dependent on the self-interests of the audience, some other factors may also influence the audience's acceptance and utilisation of a research report. One such factor is the way the research report is communicated to the audience. According to McIntosh (1979):

"Very often it (statistical information) is presented in ways which are not easily comprehensible to non-numerate decision makers. The use of elaborate statistical tests may be designed to impress fellow academics. It is likely to be a barrier to the majority of the decision makers." (p. 81).

In view of all of the arguments presented so far, it was decided to present the research data of this study in such forms (mean scores, factor scores, standard deviations, graphs, t-tests, analysis of variance and regression weights) as would give the average reader anchor points for interpretation and understanding.

6.2. Presentation of the Results

The primary concern of this study was to assess two relatively common job attitudes in organisational research - job motivation and organisational commitment - among the Nigerian workforce in general and specifically, among the three cultural groups. This sub-chapter describes the order of presenting the results of data analysis pertaining to this topic.

First, we will look at the sample as a whole and compare the results of questionnaire study with that of exploratory study reported in chapter 4. Second, comparison of the mean scores among the three cultural groups on all of the 40 motivational items will be presented. Third, the results of factor analysis and structure of factors identified will be discussed. Fourth, differences among various groups will be examined (t-test and ANOVA results on factor scores) and evidences will be drawn from the data in an attempt to answer the research question and to test the hypotheses that were postulated earlier. Finally, the results of data analysis concerning antecedents of organisational commitment will be reported.

The data presented in this thesis were computerised using the latest version (release 2) of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSX) programme.

6.2.1. Job Motivation

The results were subjected to various analyses to test the experimental hypotheses.

Firstly, it was decided to check the validity of the job motivation questionnaire by comparing its result with that obtained in the exploratory study described in Chapter 4. Table 12 shows means and standard deviations of motives (items) extracted from good and bad critical incidents which were used in constructing the questionnaire.

As can be seen from Table 12, all items extracted from good critical incidents but four ("supervision", "physical working conditions", "family conditions" and "mood/feeling"), have means greater than 4. In contrast, items from bad critical incidents have means that are less than 4, except for "supervision" and "pay" which have means higher than 4. These questionnaire results lend strong support to the themes identified from the content analysis in that 80 per cent of good incident-related motives have been associated with job motivation and 90 per cent of those from bad incidents have been shown by an independent sample of employees as tending to cause demotivation.

A close examination of the standard deviation shows that, the values generally become smaller as item means get closer and closer to 6 for motivating items while the same is true as means get closer and closer to 2 for demotivating items. This shows response unanimity among the 350 subjects who completed the questionnaire, that a particular item is motivating or demotivating and provides an index of motivational strength of the items.

Secondly, it was of further interest to see whether significant differences exist among the three cultural groups on specific motives, and if so, in what way. Table 13 presents the mean scores of the three groups on the various items and the result of an analysis of variance to test the differences among the groups. It can be seen that the three groups are quite similar with regard to good incident-related motive response patterns - significant

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations of all Motivational Items (N=350)

Item	Mean	S.D.
Good Incidents (Motivating)		
1. Recognition	5.72	1.40
2. Promotion	5.12	1.65
3. Achievement	5.42	1.46
4. Responsibility	5.02	1.80
5. Too much or difficult work	4.65	1.84
6. Work itself	5.31	1.75
7. Supervision	3.17	1.93
8. Pay	4.58	1.96
9. Interpersonal relations	5.91	1.17
10. Physical working conditions	3.68	2.18
11. Fringe benefits	4.97	2.09
12. Training	5.04	1.70
13. Urgent work	4.97	1.83
14. Family conditions	3.31	2.17
15. Feeling/mood	2.22	1.76
16. Proper placement	5.34	1.93
17. Hardworking boss/co-workers	5.52	1.36
18. Job security	4.95	1.92
19. Clear job description	5.04	1.71
20. Profit	5.04	1.86
Bad Incidents (Demotivating)		
1. Too little work	3.04	1.90
2. Supervision	4.78	1.85
3. Family conditions	3.54	2.17
4. Pay	4.11	2.07
5. Corruption, favouritism/tribalism	3.91	2.11
6. Interpersonal relations	2.33	1.67
7. Unjust blame/transfer	2.47	2.04
8. Administration	3.45	2.03
9. Work itself	3.36	2.01
10. Company policy	3.88	1.89
11. Failure to achieve	3.13	2.00
12. Recognition	3.65	2.09
13. Job security	3.25	2.05
14. Profits	3.59	2.00
15. Promotion	3.77	2.03
16. Fringe benefits	3.66	2.24
17. Lazy/incompetent co-workers	2.78	1.80
18. Physical working conditions	3.37	2.24
19. Training	3.95	2.12
20. Job description (poor, ambiguous)	2.62	1.84

Table 13

**Comparison of the Mean Scores Among the Three Cultural Groups
on all Motivational Items**

Item	Hausa (N=80)	Ibo (N=119)	Yoruba (N=151)	F Value
Good Incidents (Motivating)				
1. Recognition	5.85	5.59	5.76	0.88
2. Promotion	5.35	5.08	5.01	1.14
3. Achievement	5.37	5.29	5.55	1.09
4. Responsibility	4.17	4.92	5.26	2.74
5. Too much or difficult work	4.41	4.89	4.58	1.73
6. Work itself	5.13	5.38	5.34	0.51
7. Supervision	3.01	3.22	3.21	0.31
8. Pay	4.91	4.40	4.56	1.68
9. Interpersonal relations	5.86	5.90	5.94	0.13
10. Physical working conditions	3.90	3.93	3.36	2.79
11. Fringe benefits	5.01	4.98	4.94	0.03
12. Training	4.99	5.01	5.10	0.15
13. Urgent work	4.86	5.15	4.87	0.93
14. Family conditions	3.76	3.01	3.30	2.88
15. Feeling/mood	2.65	2.27	1.97	4.06*
16. Proper placement	5.34	5.20	5.44	0.52
17. Hardworking boss/co-workers	5.23	5.64	5.57	2.31
18. Job security	4.76	5.22	4.79	2.03
19. Clear job description	5.53	5.32	5.39	0.36
20. Profit	5.50	5.17	4.70	5.10**
Bad Incidents (Demotivating)^a				
1. Too little work	3.18	3.16	2.89	1.08
2. Supervision	5.11	4.97	4.46	4.30*
3. Family conditions	4.19	3.73	3.04	8.27**
4. Pay	3.88	4.13	4.21	0.63
5. Corruption, favouritism/tribalism	4.18	4.11	3.62	2.63
6. Interpersonal relations	2.68	2.38	2.11	3.14*
7. Unjust blame/transfer	2.92	2.62	2.12	4.57*
8. Administration	2.95	3.79	3.44	4.12*
9. Work itself	3.30	3.60	3.19	1.37
10. Company policy	3.80	4.09	3.75	1.21
11. Failure to achieve	3.22	3.27	2.97	0.85
12. Recognition	3.55	3.77	3.60	0.33
13. Job security	3.37	3.44	3.05	1.40
14. Profits	3.38	3.62	3.67	0.57
15. Promotion	3.94	3.89	3.58	1.11
16. Fringe benefits	3.53	3.92	3.51	1.29
17. Lazy/incompetent co-workers	3.28	2.74	2.56	4.29*
18. Physical working conditions	3.27	3.06	3.67	2.62
19. Training	3.85	4.37	3.67	3.83*
20. Job description (poor, ambiguous)	2.69	2.85	2.40	2.07

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

a Questionnaire items were scored such that mean values decreased as demotivating magnitudes increased

differences are revealed only in "profit" and "feeling/mood," with the Hausas highly motivated followed by the Ibos and then the Yorubas. On the other hand, significant differences occurred for seven motives, namely, "supervision," "family conditions," "interpersonal relations," "unjust blame/transfer" and "lazy/incompetent co-workers" (with the Yorubas highly demotivated followed by the Ibos and then the Hausas), "administration" (with the Hausas highly demotivated followed by the Yorubas and then the Ibos), and "training" (with the Yorubas highly demotivated followed by the Hausas and then the Ibos), in regard to perceptions of motives from bad incident among the three sub-samples.

Finding almost no differences among the three cultural groups in the good incident variable means and relatively few differences in the bad incident themes, we turn now to examine relationships among variables. This was considered necessary before we reach conclusions about existence or nonexistence of sub-cultural differences, because of our earlier criticism that a single-item indicator is highly unreliable and that more reliable information may be obtained by combining different indicators of conceptually the same construct.

Factor Analysis

In an attempt to identify underlying construct (or factors) that explain the correlations among the 40 themes, principal factor procedure was used. This method is a type of common factor analysis and communalities were estimated by squared multiple correlations of each variable with the others. Methodological guidance on the uses of factor analysis is provided by Norusis (1986):

"First, the correlation matrix for all variables is computed. Variables that do not appear to be related to other variables can be identified from the matrix Since one of the goals of factor analysis is to obtain "factors" that help explain these correlations, the variables must be related to each other for the factor model to be appropriate." (p. 127).

In testing the hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix, that is, all diagonal terms are 1 and all off-diagonal terms are 0, Norusis suggests: "If the hypothesis

that the population correlation matrix is an identity cannot be rejected because the observed significance level is large, you should reconsider the use of the factor model."

Bartlett's test of sphericity in SPSSX was used in the present study to test the above hypothesis. The value of the test statistic for sphericity obtained (based on chi-square transformation of the determinant of the correlation matrix) for the 40 motivational variables is large (3978.43) and the associated significance level is small (.000), so it appears unlikely that the population correlation matrix is an identity (see Appendix 7).

Another indicator of the appropriateness of using factor analysis is the value of the Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy which is an index for comparing the magnitudes of the observed correlation coefficients to the magnitudes of the partial correlation coefficients. According to Norusis:

"If the sum of the squared partial correlation coefficients between all pairs of variables is small when compared to the sum of the squared correlation coefficients, the KMO measure is close to 1. Small values for the KMO measure indicate that a factor analysis of the variables may not be a good idea, since correlations between pairs of variables cannot be explained by the other variables." (p. 129).

In line with this view, Kaiser (1974) characterises measures of sampling adequacy in the 0.90's as marvelous, in the 0.80's as meritorious, in the 0.70's as middling, in the 0.60's as mediocre, in the 0.50's as miserable, and below 0.50 as unacceptable. The value of the overall KMO statistics obtained for the 40 motivational variables is 0.82 - a value which is reasonably large enough for a good factor analysis (see Appendix 7).

Having confirmed the appropriateness of using factor analysis to combine different indicators of conceptually the same constructs in our data, and before we examine any group differences, attempt was made first, to establish further, convergence of the themes from the content analysis and questionnaire study. To this end, two-factor solution was computed. Table 14 presents the results of a principal component analysis with rotation to a varimax criterion (Kaiser, 1958) done on the 40 items that were used to assess job motivation.

Table 14

**Result of a Factor Analysis (Varimax) of the Items Used to Assess
Job Motivation (Two-Factor Solution)**

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	h^{2*}
Relation with others (not cordial)	.6358	-.0264	.4049
Unjust blame/transfer, demotion	.6188	.1685	.4113
Failure to achieve	.5813	-.1241	.3534
Job security (threatened)	.5797	.0311	.3370
Promotion (lack of)	.5732	-.1067	.3345
Company policy (bad, not keeping promise)	.5664	-.1169	.3345
Recognition (lack of)	.5609	-.1897	.3506
Fringe benefits (lack of)	.5506	-.2063	.3458
Mood/feeling ("don't feel like working")	.5291	.1238	.2952
Lazy/incompetent co-workers	.5183	-.0257	.2693
No chance for further training	.5084	-.0704	.2635
No clear job description (role ambiguity)	.5033	-.1209	.2680
Work itself (no variety, not interesting)	.5024	-.1326	.2700
Administration (not care for welfare)	.5023	-.1843	.2862
Pay (low, no financial incentives)	.4925	-.1107	.2548
Corruption, favouritism, tribalism	.4741	-.0336	.2259
Supervision (general, freehand)	.4323	.0790	.1931
Physical working conditions (unpleasant)	.4169	-.0358	.1751
Too little work	.4060	.0262	.1655
Family conditions (domestic problems)	.3828	.3240	.2515
Company not making profits	.3297	-.0268	.1094
Pay (good, adequate financial incentives)	-.2255	.6781	.5107
Chance for further training	-.1194	.6511	.4382
Work itself (interesting, important)	-.0825	.6239	.3961
Achievement (proving oneself)	-.2003	.5913	.3897
Chance for promotion	-.1472	.5874	.3667
Clear job description	-.1563	.5663	.3451
Responsibility	-.0845	.5565	.3168
Recognition (praise from others)	.0191	.5365	.2882
Harworking co-workers	-.1082	.5180	.2800
Fringe benefits	-.0910	.4875	.2460
Relation with co-workers (cordial)	-.1392	.4648	.2354
Proper placement	-.1153	.4634	.2281
Urgent work (has deadline)	.0844	.4469	.2069
Supervision (close)	.1029	.3619	.1416
Company making profits	.0425	.3094	.0975
Physical working conditions (pleasant)	.0429	.2950	.0889
Personal problems (none, domestic, location)	.1204	.2837	.0950
Too much or difficult work	.2401	.2581	.1243
Job security (reassured)	-.0821	.2294	.0594
Eigenvalue	6.5762	4.1831	

*Represents the sum of the squared factor loadings for the variable over all the factors produced by the analysis

As can be seen in Table 14, the first factor is clearly a demotivation factor with all of the bad incident items loading on it except one item ("close supervision"), which loads on the second factor. All of the good incident themes load on the second factor with the exception of two items ("autonomous supervision" and "mood/feeling"), which load on demotivation factor. The structures of the two factors fit almost exactly into the a priori categorisation scheme based on the content analysis' results of the exploratory study. Thus, this result indicates that the motives extracted from content analysed data (which were used to construct the questionnaire for the main study) are factorially independent and relatively distinct variables, and are therefore valid for assessing productive and nonproductive work behaviours of Nigerian employees.

In order to identify a relatively small number of underlying dimensions to represent relationships among sets of many interrelated variables in each of the two categories obtained from two-factor solution, the two categories (motivating and demotivating items) were separately^{factor} analysed. A criterion that only factors that account for variances greater than unity - the eigenvalue greater than 1 (Kaiser, 1960), was used in determining factor extraction. This method was chosen because of its wide popularity and values as qualified by Rummel (1970), "the eigenvalue-one criterion is a neat and easy one to apply" in solving the number-of-factors problem (p. 363). The structures of the separate factor analyses are presented below.

6.2.1.1. Structure of Factors Identified

Table 15 shows the factor analysis results of good incident themes (motivating items). Six factors emerged which accounted for 58 per cent of the variance. Factor I may be interpreted as representing a "group feeling" (or interpersonal relations) dimension, Factor II accounts for similarity among items relating to a "working conditions" dimension, Factor III accounts for the similarity among items referring to a "work nature" dimension, Factor IV involves a "material/physical provision" dimension, Factor V may be labelled "supervision" and Factor VI may be interpreted as representing a "possibility of growth" dimension

Table 15

Factor Analysis (Varimax) Results for the Job Motivation Scale
(Motivating Items)

Factor	Items	Loading*	Eigenvalue**	Variance (%)
Interpersonal Relations (Group feelings)	Responsibility (chance to make decisions)	.68	4.60	24.2
	Recognition (praise from others)	.65		
	Relation with co-workers (cordial)	.64		
	Clear job description	.57		
	Hardworking co-workers	.57		
Working Conditions	Fringe benefits (accommodation, loans)	.78	1.83	9.7
	Promotion or chance for promotion	.65		
	Job security (ensure being employed)	.62		
	Pay (good pay/financial incentives)	.57		
	Chance for further training	.46		
Work Nature	A lot of work (or difficult work)	.75	1.16	6.1
	Company making profits (work progress)	.66		
	Work that is urgent (or has deadline)	.66		
	Work itself (interesting, challenging)	.46		
Materials/ Physical Provisions	Physical working conditions (pleasant)	.73	1.10	5.8
	Personal/family problems - none (workplace near home)	.69		
Supervision	Superior supervises closely	.89	1.03	5.4
Possibility of Growth	Proper placement	.74	1.30	6.8
	Achievement (proving oneself)	.46		

*Items with a loading of above 0.40 were retained

**Eigenvalue of the principal components analysis

of work.

Table 16 shows the factor analysis results of bad incident themes (demotivating items). In all, six factors emerged which together accounted for 55.2 per cent of the total variance. Judging from the factor structure of demotivating items, and factor labels used to describe each category of motivating items above as well as the loadings of each item on a factor, it appeared that five of the six factors of demotivating items were inverses of five of the six motivating factors. Hence, five demotivating factors have the same labels with motivating factors - "interpersonal relations," "working conditions," "work nature," "materials/physical provisions" and "supervision." The sixth demotivating factor relates to "company policy and administration."

It was decided that, instead of identifying and discussing six motivating and six demotivating factors separately, it is more accurate to identify five factors with potential both for enhancing and impairing motivation plus a factor (possibility of growth - motivating factor) with only positive impact, and another factor (company policy and administration - demotivating factor) with only negative impact on motivation. In Figure 4, the rotated factor loading matrices indicating positive and/or negative impact associated with different factors are diagrammatically presented. It should be noted that since each factor analysis was performed separately, the loadings of motivating and demotivating items are not directly comparable. These results are summarised below.

Factor I - Interpersonal Relations

This factor relates to group feelings/relations with others and is defined at one (motivating or positive) end of the diagram in Figure 4 by (a) responsibility and chance given by superiors to make decisions, (b) recognition or praise from superiors, co-workers, or subordinates, (c) good interpersonal relations, (d) clear job description, and (e) degree to which superiors and co-workers are hardworking and competent. At the negative or demotivating end are found (a) bad interpersonal relations in the work group, (b) feelings of shame because of unjust blame/demotion, (c) lazy and/or incompetent superiors and

Table 16
Factor Analysis (Varimax) Results for the Job Motivation Scale
(Demotivating Items)

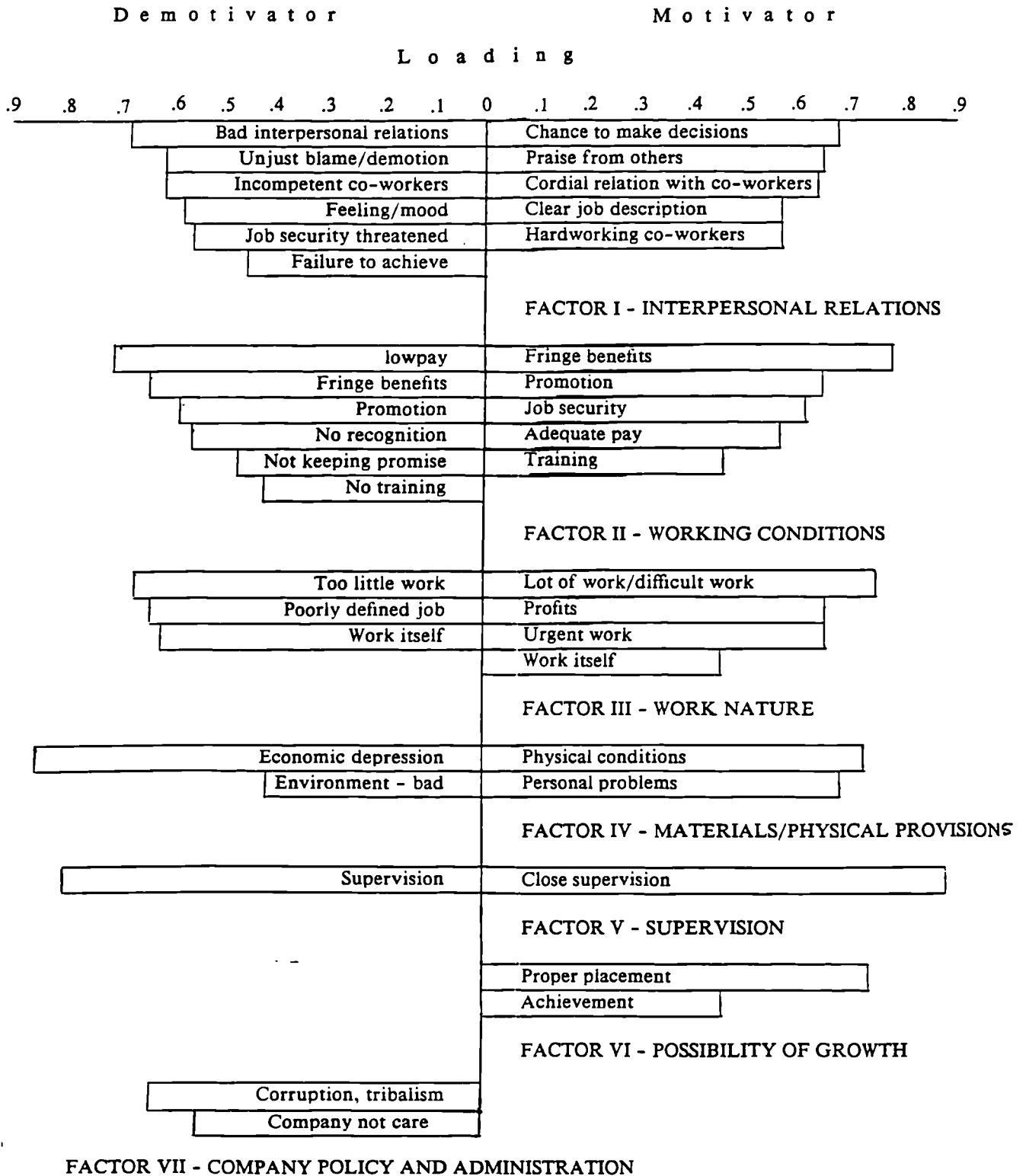
Factor	Items	Loading*	Eigenvalue**	Variance (%)
Interpersonal Relations (Group feelings)	Relation with co-workers (friendless)	.68	5.46	26.0
	Unjust blame/transfer, demotion (shame feeling)	.61		
	Lazy/incompetent co-workers	.61		
	Feeling/mood ("just don't feel like working")	.58		
	Job security threatened (shame feeling)	.56		
	Failure to achieve (shame feeling)	.45		
Working Conditions	Pay (low pay, no financial incentives)	.70	1.42	6.8
	Fringe benefits (no housing/car loan)	.64		
	Promotion (lack of)	.58		
	Recognition (no appreciation/compliment)	.56		
	Failure to keep promises	.47		
	No chance for further training	.42		
Work Nature	Too little work	.67	1.26	6.0
	Poorly defined job	.64		
	Work itself (not interesting/challenging)	.62		
Materials/ Physical Provisions	Economic depression (no profits and raw materials)	.85	1.01	4.8
	Physical working conditions (unpleasant)	.42		
Supervision	Superior gives freehand (open supervision)	.80	1.06	5.0
Company Policy/ Administration	Corruption, tribalism, favouritism	.63	1.17	5.6
	Company not care for welfare	.54		

*Items with a loading of above 0.40 were retained

**Eigenvalue of the principal components analysis

Figure 4

Diagrammatic Representation of the Rotated Varimax Factor Loading Matrices for the Motivating and Demotivating Items on each Factor



co-workers, (d) feeling/mood, "not in working mood," (e) job security threatened, and (f) failure to achieve. Two of these are the inverse of items in the motivating group - interpersonal relations and co-workers' competence. Thus, whereas presence of good interpersonal relations can encourage high job attitude, its absence can discourage high job attitude. Valuation of interpersonal relations factor reflects a worker's desire for the satisfaction of social needs from the work activity, and its importance in this study reaffirms earlier work (Triandis and Vassilou, 1972; Nevis, 1983).

Factor II - Working Conditions

Motivating items which appeared under the second factor, working conditions, were: (a) fringe benefits, (b) chances for promotion, (c) job security, (d) good pay and adequate financial incentives, and (e) chance for further training. Factor analysis results of demotivating items also produced a cluster that was similar to the motivating items in the working conditions component. Items included in this component were: (a) low pay and inadequate financial incentives, (b) lack of fringe benefits, (c) no promotion, (d) no recognition or appreciation for a job well done, (e) failure of company to keep promises, and (f) no chance for further training. This finding clearly shows that working conditions can affect job attitude both positively and negatively.

Factor III - Work Nature

This factor relates to the nature, amount, and difficulty level of the work and how such work is assigned. Like the first two factors, work nature too has motivating and demotivating components. The motivating component consisted of items such as, a lot of work (or difficult work), urgent work (has deadline) and work itself while demotivating component contained three work-related items: too little work, poorly defined job and work itself (not interesting, not challenging). Locke's goal-setting formulation, that when specific goals are assigned, employees would be motivated to exert more effort than when nonspecific goals (no completion deadline) are set, is supported by this finding.

Factor IV - Materials/Physical Provisions

This dimension represents workers' wishes for adequate resources with which to do their jobs well and it includes such motivating items as the physical working conditions (pleasant) and location (not far from home) at one end, and economic depression (which leads to no sales, no profit, no raw materials) and unfavourable physical working conditions (no equipment, no furniture, no air-condition) at the negative end of the dimension.

Factor V - Supervision

With fairly high loading on one motivating and demotivating item each, this factor concerned exclusively superior-subordinate relationship. It is defined at the positive end by close supervision and at the other end by autonomous or general/open supervision. While a form of democratic leadership where the superior is not "breathing down the nose" of his subordinates (or general supervision) impairs job motivation, autocratic leadership (or close supervision) encourages high job attitude among Nigerian employees. This finding does not in any way invalidate or contradict the earlier European-American claims that democratic form of leadership (or what has popularly become participative management) acts as the panacea for most organisational ills. However, it confirms Davis' (1977) warning that not all organisations need exactly the same amount of participation, open communication, or any other related behavioural practice to be equally effective.

Factor VI - Possibility of Growth

This factor contained two motivating items: (a) placement in a job with regard to one's skills and previous training, and (b) achievement - opportunity to set and meet own's goals and to prove oneself. Unlike the other factors identified so far, the impact of growth opportunity on motivation appears to be totally positive: presence of growth opportunity enhances high job attitude but its absence has no negative impact on employees' motivation. This result is consistent with earlier findings (Herzberg, et al., 1959; Lawler, 1973).

Factor VII - Company Policy and Administration

This factor pertains to the degree of unfairness perceived in organisational practices and consists of two demotivating items: (a) tribalism, corruption, or favouritism in employment decisions such as promotion, bonus and work assignment, and (b) lack of willingness to listen to, or care about, employees' problems and welfare. Like the sixth factor which is unipolar, the impact of company policy and administration on motivation too, is unipolar but appeared to be totally negative. That is, employees' perception of unfair treatment impairs motivation, but the reverse does not hold true. This finding is consistent with Herzberg's postulation that when job context factors (including company policy and administration) deteriorate to a level below that which the employee considers acceptable, demotivation occurs, but when job context can be characterised as optimal, employees are not motivated; such improvement only serve to remove the impediments to positive job attitudes.

Having identified the basic dimensions (factors) underlying the intercorrelations among the motivating and demotivating themes, factor scores were then computed for each individual for each of the six motivating and six demotivating factors obtained.

There are several methods for estimating factor score coefficients. The three methods available in "SPSSX FACTOR" are: (i) Anderson-Rubin, (ii) least squares regression, and (iii) Bartlett. According to Norusis (1986): "If principal components extraction is used (as the case in the present study), all three methods result in the same factor scores." However, the least squares regression method was used in computing factor scores in this study. These factor scores were used as the dependent variables in subsequent analyses.

Analyses of variance and t-tests were run on the factor scores of each subject on each factor. To test the hypotheses enumerated earlier, these analyses were performed for the sample as a whole and separately for each of the three cultural groups. The independent variables used for each analysis were: occupational level, level of education, years of working experience, sex, age, personality characteristics, type of organisation, marital status and

level of self-esteem at work.

Tables 17 and 18 present the mean ranks of motivating and demotivating factors, and the mean scores of the three cultural groups on the various factors with the results of an analysis of variance to test the differences among the groups respectively while Tables 19 to 30 present statistical differences in the perceived job motivation of various groups.

An attempt will now be made to answer the research question and test the hypotheses related to job motivation that were postulated for this study. In doing so, evidence will be drawn from the above results.

Factors influencing Job Motivation in Nigeria

What are the factors influencing job motivation in Nigeria?

Job motivation in Nigeria seems to be determined by seven factors (see Figure 4): (i) interpersonal relations, (ii) working conditions, (iii) work nature, (iv) materials/physical provisions, (v) supervision, (vi) possibility of growth, and (vii) company policy and administration. All but two of the seven factors appear to affect job motivation both positively and negatively.

Attempt was also made to determine the strength of each factor as a motivator and as a demotivator. In order to do this, the mean scores of the component of items loading on each factor were summed and a further computation of their means were calculated to yield a "factor intensity score." Such a technique is not unknown in attitudinal researches. For example, Blood (1969), adopted this same method in his study of work values and job satisfaction. A rank ordering of the mean of such scores (Table 17) shows the importance of the six motivating factors to be in this order: interpersonal relations, possibility of growth, work nature, working conditions, close supervision, and materials/physical provisions. On the other hand, demotivating factors are shown to be (in order of potency): bad interpersonal relations, work nature, general/open supervision, materials/physical provisions, company policy and administration, and working conditions.

Table 17

Mean Ranks of Motivating and Demotivating Factors

Factors	No. of Items*	Factor Intensity Score** by Rank	
<u>Motivating</u>			
Interpersonal Relations	5	5.51	} High Motivators
Possibility of Growth	2	5.38	
Work Nature	4	4.99	
Working Conditions	5	4.92	} Low Motivators
Close Supervision	1	4.78	
Materials/Physical Provisions	2	3.50	
<u>Demotivating***</u>			
Interpersonal Relations	6	2.70	} High Demotivators
Work Nature	3	3.01	
Supervision	1	3.17	
Materials/Physical Provisions	2	3.48	} Low Demotivators
Company Policy/Administration	2	3.68	
Working Conditions	6	3.84	

*As grouped by factor analysis results in Tables 15 and 16

**Sum and average of the means (Table 12) of component of items loading on each factor

***Questionnaire items were scored such that mean values decreased as demotivating magnitudes increased

It was of further interest to examine Kilby's (1960) assertion, referred to in the background chapter of this thesis, that the meaning of work to African workers is simply that of providing enough money to satisfy their needs (money to discharge traditional functions, status recognition, and financial requirements of consumption). One question concerning this assertion is: Are Nigerian employees more likely value the extrinsic job rewards (e.g. high income, job security, financial incentives) than the intrinsic rewards (e.g. achievement, opportunity for growth)?

In order to answer this question in the present study, it was considered appropriate to divide the rank ordering of the mean of factor intensity scores of the six motivating factors into "high" and "low" (see Table 17). Hopefully, such a division would reveal the extrinsic/intrinsic dimension of mostly valued factors ("high") and factors that were valued least ("low"). It can be seen that the three factors classified as "high motivators" consist of one extrinsic (interpersonal relations) and two intrinsic (possibility of growth and work nature) factors. The "low motivators" consist of purely extrinsic factors - working conditions, close supervision, and materials/physical provisions. Thus, it can be argued that, Nigerian employees more likely valued the *intrinsic factors than the extrinsic factors*.

This limited finding is consistent with what we observed earlier in the exploratory study, that significantly more importance was placed on higher-order needs (job content factors) such as recognition, achievement and responsibility, than lower-order needs (job context factors) such as pay, physical working conditions and fringe benefits (see Table 7). Taken together, these results provide support for our earlier stated criticism that, many observations about developing nations' employees such as that of Kilby, are systematically biased and were based on studies dating as far back as the 1960s, and that, since then a lot of things have changed.

6.2.1.2. Group Differences in the Perceived Job Motivation

Twelve hypotheses asserting significant differences between the various groups of employees in their perceived job motivation and valuations of the various job-related

factors were proposed earlier in this thesis. As stated earlier, difference-of-means tests (notably t-tests and ANOVAs) were conducted for the whole sample and separately on each of the three cultural groups' factor scores in order to test these hypotheses (Tables 18 to 30). Each hypothesis is tested first, for the entire sample (N=350), and then for each cultural group, in an attempt to compare them with each other.

- (1) Relationships with co-workers will be more strongly related to job motivation among the Yorubas than among the Hausa and the Ibo groups.

This hypothesis rests on the assumption that the importance of group solidarity and social support, which are some of the major values in the Yoruba community will have significant impact on their work behaviours.

Comparison of the mean scores of the three cultural groups on each factor is presented in Table 18. Looking at the factors related to relationships with co-workers (i.e. interpersonal relations), it can be seen that, while no statistically significant difference was observed among the three groups ($F = 2.17, p=0.10$) on interpersonal relations (motivating), a ranking of the six motivating factors for each of the three groups showed that, for the Yorubas, interpersonal relations was given the first priority while the Hausas and the Ibos gave more weight to work nature. On the negative side, bad interpersonal relations (demotivating) would significantly demotivate the Yoruba group more than the Hausa and the Ibo groups ($F = 10.01, p<0.000$). That is, strained relationships among the Yoruba employees (superiors, peers and subordinates) have stronger adverse effect upon their work behaviours than among the Hausa and the Ibo employees.

Taken together, the above results on interpersonal relations as a motivator and a demotivator, the first hypothesis was accepted.

- (2) The Ibos will be significantly more motivated by the job content factors than the Hausa and the Yoruba groups.

This hypothesis is derived from the cultural and social conditions described earlier in this thesis, which led the Ibos to attach much importance to factors such as achievement,

Table 18 - A

Mean Scores^a of the Three Cultural Groups on Motivating and Demotivating Factors

Factor	Hausa (N=80)	Ibo (N=119)	Yoruba (N=151)	F Value (ANOVA)	F Value (ANCOVA)
<u>Motivating</u>					
Interpersonal Relations	-0.12	-0.08	0.13	2.17	2.66
Working Conditions	0.12	0.05	-0.11	1.66	1.71
Possibility of Growth	0.10	-0.13	0.05	1.50	1.77
Work Nature	0.21	0.15	-0.13	2.75	2.42
Materials/Physical Provisions	0.13	-0.01	-0.06	0.92	1.87
Supervision	0.03	0.00	-0.02	0.07	0.25
<u>Demotivating</u>					
Interpersonal Relations	0.42	-0.06	-0.17	10.01**	7.10**
Working Conditions	-0.15	0.07	0.02	1.31	2.42
Work Nature	-0.01	0.17	-0.13	2.93*	2.07
Company Policy and Administration	0.04	0.03	-0.05	0.33	0.99
Supervision	0.28	0.11	-0.24	8.69**	3.48*
Materials/Physical Provisions	-0.17	0.01	0.08	1.58	1.26

*p<0.05, **p<0.001

a Factor scores

NOTE:

The above findings on sub-cultural group differences were less affected by the variations among the groups on demographic variables. This was born out by the fact that, when age, education, marital status, years of working experience and occupational level were controlled in an analysis of covariance (see ANCOVA results above), the initial observed differences (in ANOVA results) among the groups on all of the 12 factors remain the same with the exception of 2 demotivating factors - work nature (where the difference was completely removed) and supervision (where the difference was significantly reduced from F = 8.69, p = 0.000 to F = 3.48, p = 0.032).

growth and advancement.

For this hypothesis to be supported in the present study, we will expect the Ibo group to show significant higher motivation on possibility of growth and work nature (motivating) factors, and significant higher demotivation on bad work nature (demotivating) factor than the Hausa and the Yoruba groups. It can be seen on Table 18 that no significant difference existed among the three groups in regard to possibility of growth factor. For good work nature (motivating), the Ibos and the Hausas combined, on a marginal level, scored significantly higher than the Yorubas ($F = 2.75$, $p=0.07$) while for bad work nature, significant difference existed among the three sub-samples ($F = 2.93$, $p=0.05$), with the Ibo group less demotivated. In other words, the Hausa and the Yoruba groups were significantly more demotivated by bad work nature than the Ibos, and the Ibo group while more motivated by good work nature than the Yorubas, was not more motivated than the Hausas. These findings therefore repudiate the hypothesis above.

- (3) Perceived task characteristics will be more strongly related to job motivation in the case of the Ibos and the Yorubas than in the case of the Hausas.

This hypothesis concerns the relationships between perceived task characteristics (skill variety, task significance and autonomy) and job motivation. The job enrichment model from which these constructs are derived (Hackman and Oldham, 1976) assumes the existence of certain work values and 'higher order' or 'growth' needs. It is believed that these values and needs are unevenly distributed among cultures and societies and mainly associated with industrially developed nations. The above hypothesis is posited therefore to test the view that this job enrichment model will 'work' better in the case of the Western-oriented, relatively modernised Ibo and Yoruba employees than in the case of the other one group. That is, the relationships of the above mentioned task characteristics with job motivation are hypothesised to be stronger in the case of the Ibo and the Yoruba employees.

The task characteristics being directly assessed in the present study are represented by three factors: possibility of growth, work nature and supervision (see factor analysis results

for group of items forming each factor in Tables 15 and 16). The results on Table 18 showed the existence of significant differences among the three groups, on work nature ($F = 2.93, p=0.05$) - with the Yorubas highly demotivated, followed by the Hausas and then the Ibos - and on (autonomous) supervision ($F = 8.69, p<0.000$) - with the Yorubas again highly demotivated, followed by the Ibos and then the Hausas. Table 18 further showed that, there were no statistically significant differences among the three groups on possibility of growth and work nature (motivating) factors.

Overall then, it does seem that task characteristics do not affect the job motivation of the Ibo and the Yoruba groups more than they affect the Hausa group. *There is therefore no support for the hypothesis that the job enrichment model 'works' better for the Western-oriented, relatively modernised employees (the Ibos and the Yorubas) than the Hausa employees.*

An attempt was also made to identify those specific variables which exerted significant influence on all of the motivating and demotivating factors within the sample as a whole. Toward this end, we ran separate stepwise multiple regression analyses involving various selected demographic, organisational and personality variables as independent variables and treating each factor as the dependent variables. The results are presented in Tables 18-B and 18-C.

To summarise the highlights, self-esteem at work emerged as a significant predictor of 5 of the 6 motivating factors (see Table 18-B) while psychoticism significantly predicted 4 of the 6 demotivating factors (see Table 18-C). The standardised regression coefficients (Beta weights) showed that, the relationships between the 2 predictor variables (self-esteem and psychoticism) and each factor were positive. That is, the higher the levels of self-esteem at work and psychoticism an individual have, the more such an individual likely to value specific factor as a motivator and demotivator respectively.

We shall now test each of the specific hypotheses on various group differences posited earlier in this thesis.

Table 18-B

Results of Stepwise Multiple Regression for Each Motivating Factor

A Interpersonal Relations

Independent Variables	Beta	T-value	P
Self-esteem at work	0.33	6.61	.0000
	R = 0.33	R ² = 0.11	

B Working Conditions

Self-esteem at work	0.19	3.55	.0004
Neuroticism	-0.12	-2.33	.0202
	R = 0.23	R ² = 0.05	

C Possibility of Growth

Self-esteem at work	0.19	3.61	.0004
Work experience	0.15	2.86	.0045
Type of organisation	0.13	2.52	.0121
Sex	-0.11	-2.04	.0423
	R = 0.29	R ² = 0.08	

D Work Nature

Self-esteem at work	0.25	4.82	.0000
Type of organisation	0.18	3.51	.0005

$$R = 0.31 \quad R^2 = 0.09$$

E Materials/Physical Provisions

Age	0.11	2.06	.0402
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$$R = 0.11 \quad R^2 = 0.01$$

F Supervision

Self-esteem at work	0.18	3.57	.0004
Age	-0.18	-3.49	.0005

$$R = 0.27 \quad R^2 = 0.07$$

Table 18-C

Results of Stepwise Multiple Regression for Each Demotivating Factor

A Interpersonal Relations

Independent Variables	Beta	T-value	P
Education	-0.22	-4.28	.0000
Psychoticism	0.12	2.24	.0257
Neuroticism	0.11	2.14	.0335
	R = 0.29	R ² = 0.08	

B Working Conditions

Occupational level	-0.16	-3.12	.0020
Psychoticism	0.16	2.98	.0031
Neuroticism	-0.12	-2.33	.0202
	R = 0.25	R ² = 0.06	

C Company Policy and Administration

Type of organisation	-0.12	-2.29	.0229
	R = 0.12	R ² = 0.01	

D Work Nature

Psychoticism	0.13	2.49	.0134
Occupational level	-0.11	-2.14	.0329
Type of organisation	-0.11	-2.11	.0353

R = 0.22 R² = 0.05

E Materials/Physical Provisions

Type of organisation	-0.27	-5.26	.0000
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R = 0.27 R² = 0.07

F Supervision

Education	-0.15	-2.87	.0043
No. of dependents	0.11	2.08	.0384
Psychoticism	0.10	1.90	.0585

R = 0.22 R² = 0.05

- (4) There will be significant differences among the perceived job motivation of Nigerian employees in different occupational levels. Specifically, it is hypothesised that low-level employees will value the extrinsic rewards of a job more than high-level employees who themselves will value more the intrinsic rewards.

As can be seen in Table 19, significant differences were revealed on two demotivating factors (interpersonal relations: $F = 2.77, p=0.04$ and supervision: $F = 2.91, p=0.03$) for the whole sample with the higher occupational level employees highly demotivated. Figure 5 shows this clearly, that is, the existence of significant positive relationships between interpersonal relations and supervision (as demotivating factors), and occupational level.

While no significant main effect of occupational level was revealed for all of the motivating factors (see Table 19), significant interactions were observed between occupational level and cultural background on interpersonal relations (see Table 20-A), and between occupational level and level of education on close supervision (see Table 20-B). As Figure 6-A shows on interpersonal relations, the Ibo and the Yoruba employees in supervisory position were highly motivated than their Hausa counterparts while the Hausa top

Figure 5

Differences in Mean (Factor) Scores of Employees in Different Occupational Levels on Interpersonal Relations and Supervision (Demotivating) Factor

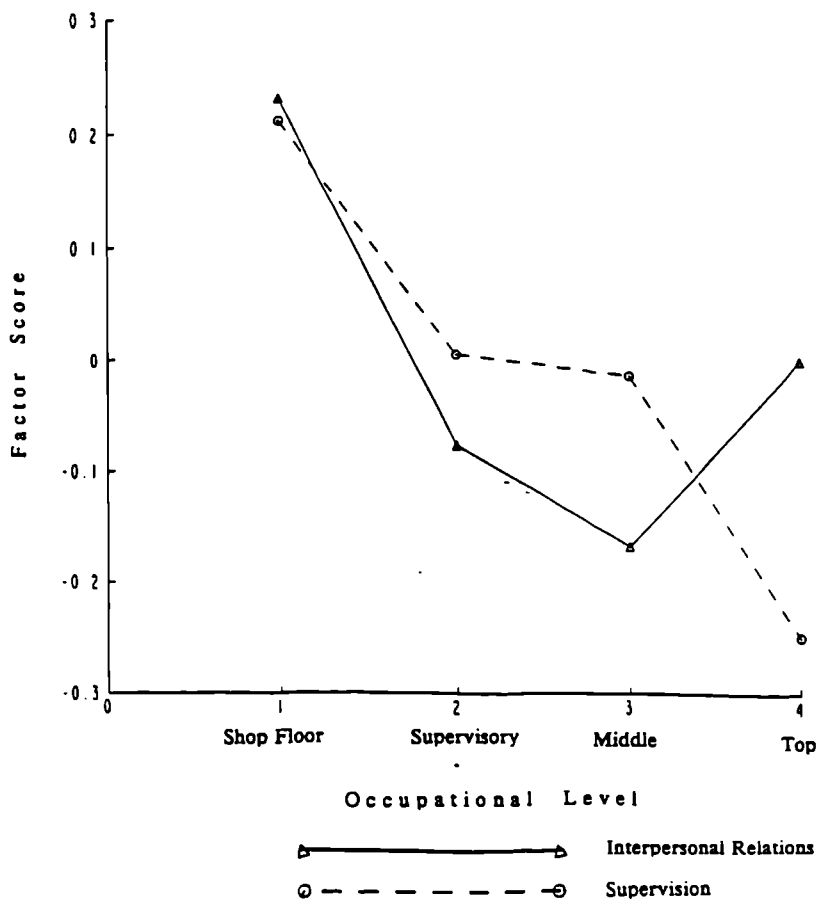


Table 19

Statistical Differences in the Perceived Job Motivation of Employees in Different Occupational Levels^a

Factor	Whole Sample (N=94) (N=98) (N=88) (N=69)				Hausa (N=24) (N=23) (N=16) (N=17)				Ibo (N=42) (N=33) (N=28) (N=16)				Yoruba (N=28) (N=42) (N=44) (N=36)							
	1	2	3	4	F Value	1	2	3	4	F Value	1	2	3	4	F Value	1	2	3	4	F Value
<u>Motivating</u>																				
Interpersonal Relations	-.03	.00	-.07	.13	0.57	.18	-.19	-.66	.09	3.11*	-.17	.11	.04	-.45	1.18	-.00	.03	.07	.41	1.43
Working Conditions	.10	-.10	.04	-.03	0.71	.61	-.08	.00	-.18	3.19*	-.08	-.01	.35	.02	1.21	-.07	-.18	-.15	.01	0.26
Possibility of Growth	-.10	-.09	.16	.05	1.39	-.01	-.15	.88	-.14	3.94**	-.12	-.31	-.06	.14	0.86	-.13	.12	.04	.09	0.40
Work Nature	.17	-.04	-.07	-.09	1.23	.22	-.21	.20	-.12	0.90	.28	.16	-.07	.20	0.72	-.06	-.10	-.17	-.20	0.15
Materials/Physical Provisions	-.04	-.14	.09	.22	1.75	.07	.28	-.07	.19	0.33	.08	-.28	.14	.02	1.16	-.32	-.25	-.05	.32	3.60*
Supervision	.14	.01	-.13	-.05	1.23	.12	-.25	-.03	.33	1.20	-.00	.03	.07	.41	1.43	.05	.07	-.09	-.12	0.37
<u>Demotivating</u>																				
Interpersonal Relations	.23	-.08	-.17	.01	2.77*	.63	.20	.13	.69	0.98	.26	-.29	-.25	-.10	2.46	-.15	-.06	-.23	-.26	0.56
Working Conditions	.18	.05	-.08	-.21	2.41	-.11	-.15	-.20	-.17	0.02	.33	.23	-.39	-.10	4.14**	.22	.03	.15	-.28	1.60
Work Nature	.15	.04	-.09	-.14	1.49	.27	.06	-.19	-.33	1.28	.24	.19	.07	.11	0.20	-.08	-.09	-.15	-.16	0.07
Company Policy and Administration	.07	-.10	-.00	0.04	0.49	-.06	.09	.11	.06	0.13	.15	-.27	.10	.26	1.41	.06	-.06	-.10	-.06	0.15
Supervision	.21	.00	-.02	-.25	2.91*	.63	.21	.13	.04	1.37	.26	.15	.22	-.52	3.21*	-.22	-.23	-.22	-.27	0.02
Materials/Physical Provisions	.03	-.04	-.05	.08	0.29	-.11	-.12	-.43	-.05	0.36	-.00	.03	-.04	.13	0.11	.21	-.04	.07	.11	0.38

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

^a 1 = Shop floor level 2 = Supervisory level 3 = Middle level 4 = Top level

Table 20

Two-Way Analysis of Variance (Interactions) on Job Motivation Measures

Mean	Source	F
------	--------	---

A Interpersonal Relations (Motivating)

	Shop floor level	Supervisory level	Middle level	Top level
Hausa	0.12	-0.25	-0.03	0.33
Ibo	0.22	0.10	-0.25	-0.32
Yoruba	0.50	0.07	-0.09	-0.12

Culture (A)	2.09
Occupational level (B)	0.54
Interactions (A x B)	2.42*

B Close Supervision

	Shop floor level	Supervisory level	Middle level	Top level
Non-Graduate	0.20	-0.04	-0.05	0.57
Graduate	0.06	0.10	-0.18	-0.33

Education (A)	3.05
Occupational level (B)	0.71
Interactions (A x B)	3.46*

*p<0.05

Figure 6-A Interaction of Occupational Level with Cultural Background on Interpersonal Relations (Motivating) Factor

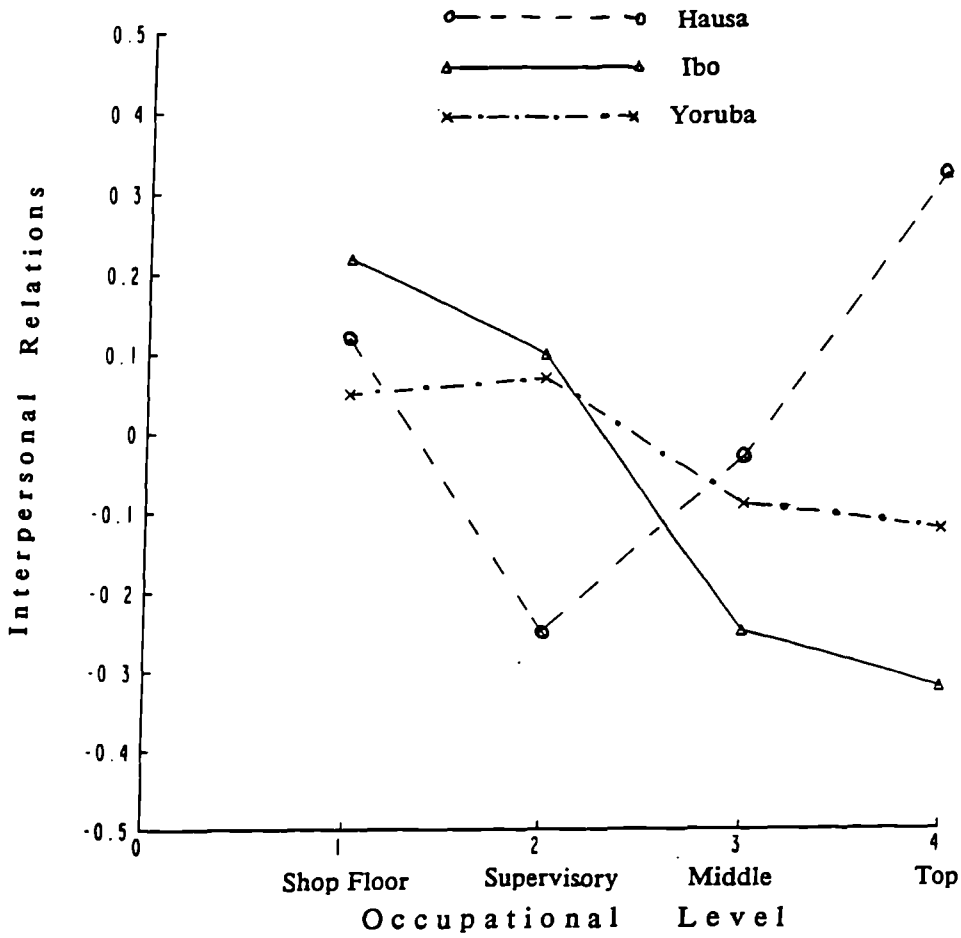
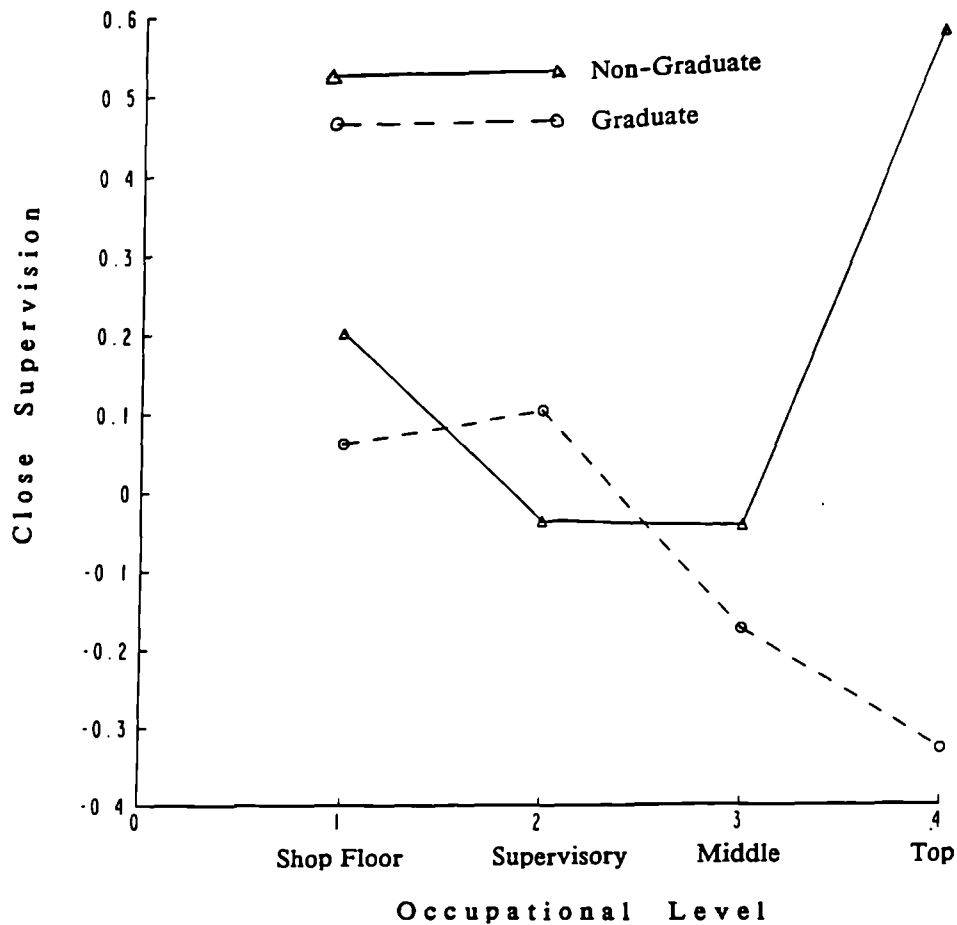


Figure 6-B Interaction of Occupational Level with Education on Close Supervision



level employees showed higher motivation than their Ibo and Yoruba counterparts. More specifically, Figure 6-A showed negative relationship between interpersonal relations and occupational level for the Ibo and the Yoruba employees, and a positive relationship between the two variables for the Hausa group especially if we drop the shop floor category from the analysis. On close supervision, it appeared that there is negative relationship between occupational level and close supervision for better educated (graduate) employees and a "J" shape relationship between the same variables for less educated (non-graduate) employees (see Figure 6-B). As clearly depicted in the Figure, the largest difference occurred between non-graduate and graduate top level employees, with non-graduates given significant more weight to close supervision as a motivator (mean factor score = 0.57) than the graduates (mean factor score = -0.33).

For each cultural group (see Table 19), significant differences were observed for three of the six motivating factors: interpersonal relations ($F = 3.11, p=0.03$), working conditions ($F = 3.19, p=0.03$) and possibility of growth ($F = 3.94, p=0.01$), and for none of demotivating factors, among the Hausas. On the other hand, among the Ibos, there were no significant differences among employees in different job positions on any of the motivating factors, but significant differences were revealed on two of the six demotivating factors: working conditions ($F = 4.14, p=0.008$) and supervision ($F = 3.21, p=0.03$). Table 19 further showed that, for the Yorubas, the only factor on which there was significant difference among the four hierarchical levels was adequate materials and physical provisions ($F = 3.60, p=0.02$).

To test the specific hypothesis (i.e. difference between non-managerial and managerial levels), it was considered appropriate to combine the shop floor and supervisory employees to form the non-management group, and the middle level managers with the top level managers to form the management group. T-tests were then run on the mean (factor) scores of the two categories of employee for the entire sample (see Table 21) and for each cultural group.

Table 21

**Statistical Differences in the Perceived Job Motivation of Employees in
Non-Managerial and Managerial Levels**

Factor	Non-Managerial (N=192)	Managerial (N=157)	T Value
<u>Motivating</u>			
Interpersonal Relations	-0.01	0.01	-0.26
Working Conditions	-0.00	0.01	-0.08
Possibility of Growth	-0.09	0.11	-1.93*
Work Nature	0.06	-0.08	1.30
Materials/Physical Provisions	-0.09	0.10	-1.78*
Supervision	0.07	-0.10	1.61*
<u>Demotivating</u>			
Interpersonal Relations	0.07	-0.09	1.55
Working Conditions	0.12	-0.14	2.42**
Work Nature	0.10	-0.11	1.95*
Company Policy and Administration	-0.02	0.02	-0.32
Supervision	0.10	-0.12	2.10*
Materials/Physical Provisions	-0.00	0.00	-0.06

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

For the combined (entire) sample, the results (Table 21) showed significant differences on three motivating factors: possibility of growth ($t = -1.93$, $p=0.03$), materials and physical provisions ($t = -1.78$, $p=0.04$) and supervision ($t = 1.61$, $p=0.05$). Management employees scored higher on possibility of growth and materials/physical provisions while non-management employees showed higher motivation with close supervision. Likewise, significant differences were revealed on three demotivating factors: working conditions ($t = 2.42$, $p=0.008$), work nature ($t = 1.95$, $p=0.03$) and supervision ($t = 2.10$, $p=0.02$). In all of these factors, management employees were more demotivated than the non-management employees.

The results of analyses for each cultural group did not show any significant differences between non-management and management employees on all of the six motivating (with the exception of possibility of growth: $t = -1.83$, $p=0.04$; among the Hausas with the management employees more motivated) and the six demotivating factors.

On the strength of the results presented above, both for combined and separate analyses on occupational level and job motivation, it is safe to conclude that while scattered differences existed among the perceived job motivation of Nigerian employees in different occupational levels (e.g. bad interpersonal relations and working conditions - with the higher occupational level employees highly demotivated, possibility of growth - with the management employees highly motivated, and close supervision - with the non-management employees highly motivated), there was no clear-cut distinction between the work value orientations of employees in different occupational levels. Specifically, both non-management and management employees had something to value in both the intrinsic and the extrinsic aspects of job rewards.

- (5) The perceived job motivation of the graduate employees will differ significantly from that of the non-graduate employees.

This hypothesis was supported for four of the six motivating factors (working conditions: $t = 1.90$, $p<0.03$; possibility of growth: $t = 1.70$, $p=0.05$; work nature: $t = 1.70$, $p=0.05$;

close supervision: $t = 2.18, p=0.02$) and two of the six demotivating factors (interpersonal relations: $t = 4.77, p<0.000$; supervision: $t = 4.11, p=0.000$) by the entire sample (Table 22). In all of the four significant differences on motivating factors, non-graduate employees were more motivated while on demotivating factors graduate employees showed significant negative work attitudes.

The results also indicate that the importance placed on possibility of growth factor is moderated by the type of organisation with which the employees are associated. As Table 23 and Figure 7 show, less educated employees showed significant high^{er} job attitude than their better educated counterparts in public sector while this difference is less marked among the private organisation's employees. It can also be seen that, graduate employees in private organisation were significantly more motivated when their jobs present them with opportunities to grow psychologically than their counterparts in public sector.

When the hypothesis was tested among each cultural group, it was rejected for all of the six motivating factors by the three sub-samples, with the exception of possibility of growth among the Yorubas ($t = 4.11, p<0.000$), ^{where} the non-graduate employees highly motivated (see Table 22). This Table further shows that the three cultural groups perceived demotivation with the same factors, although there were variations in their respective degrees of perceptions. As can be seen, significant differences appeared for interpersonal relations (Hausa: $t = 2.09, p=0.02$; Ibo: $t = 2.18, p=0.02$; Yoruba: $t = 3.30, p<0.000$) and for supervision (Hausa: $t = 2.85, p<0.00$; Yoruba: $t = 2.91, p=0.00$). In all cases, graduate employees were more demotivated than non-graduate employees.

In sum, the picture that seems to emerge from this data corroborated earlier findings which were reviewed in Chapter 3 of this thesis, that is, level of education is negatively related to job attitude (Tannenbaum et al., 1974; Tannenbaum, 1980; Saiyadain, 1985).

Table 22

Statistical Differences in the Perceived Job Motivation of Employees in Different Educational Levels^a

Factor	Whole Sample (N=176)		Hausa (N=47)		Ibo (N=69)		Yoruba (N=89)		
	I	T Value	I	T Value	I	T Value	I	T Value	
<u>Motivating</u>									
Interpersonal Relations	-.04	.01	-0.50	-.16	-.08	0.41	-.18	.03	-1.08
Working Conditions	.12	-.08	1.90*	.15	.14	0.06	.15	-.03	0.97
Possibility of Growth	.09	-.09	1.70*	.09	.21	-0.49	-.16	-.08	0.44
Work Nature	.08	-.10	1.70*	.00	.00	0.01	.25	-.01	1.34
Materials/Physical Provisions	.01	.01	-0.01	.10	.19	-0.34	-.06	.07	-0.73
Supervision	.12	-.11	2.18*	.15	-.11	1.13	.10	-.14	1.22
<u>Demotivating</u>									
Interpersonal Relations	.24	-.25	4.77***	.11	-.29	2.18*	.65	.06	2.09*
Working Conditions	-.04	.01	-0.40	.03	.10	-0.42	-.16	-.21	0.20
Work Nature	.01	-.01	0.13	.15	.20	-0.24	-.02	-.01	-0.03
Company Policy and Administration	.08	-.07	1.46	.15	-.12	1.40	-.19	-.11	1.39
Supervision	.21	-.22	4.11***	.33	-.17	2.85**	.27	.30	-0.13
Materials/Physical Provisions	-.05	.06	-1.06	-.04	.11	-0.86	-.20	-.11	-0.31
							.09	-.34	3.30***
							-.02	.03	-0.28
							-.14	-.11	-0.14
							-.09	-.03	-0.38
							.04	-.43	2.91***
							.05	.10	-0.31

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

a 1 = Non-Graduate 2 = Graduate

Table 23

Interaction of Level of Education and Type of Organisation on Possibility of Growth Factor

	Mean	Source	F
		Public	Private
Non-Graduate	0.09	0.10	
Graduate	-0.26	0.18	
		Education (A)	2.81
		Type of Organisation (B)	4.17*
		Interaction (A x B)	3.82*

*p<0.05

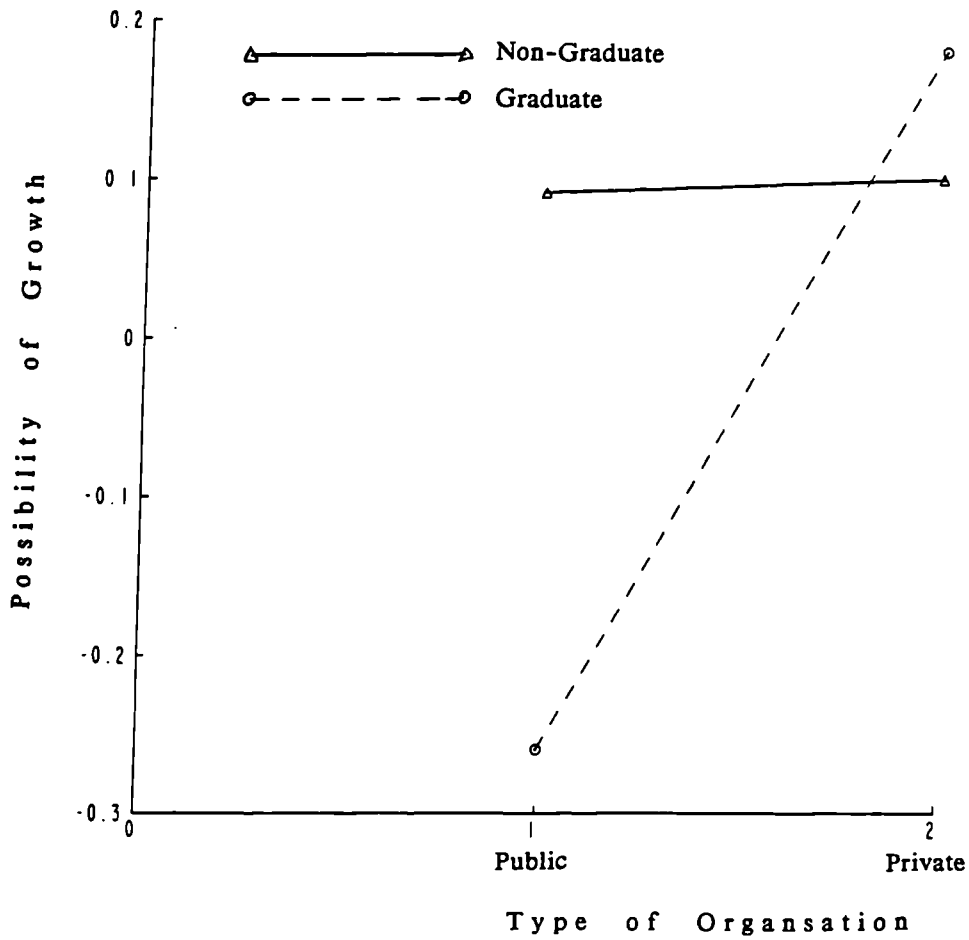


Figure 7

- (6) Significant differences between employees perception of job motivation will be related to variations in the length (years) of their work experience.

This hypothesis was postulated in order to test the substantiality or generalisability of the findings by some organisational researchers that, work experience is positively related to job attitude (Saiyadain, 1985), and that hygiene factors and tenure are associated (Mot-taz, 1986b).

The results of statistical analysis of variance among the three levels of work experience examined in the present study show that, when the three sub-samples were combined (whole sample), one of the motivating factors, materials and physical provisions ($F = 3.00$, $p=0.05$), and three of the six demotivating factors, working conditions ($F = 3.28$, $p=0.04$), work nature ($F = 3.80$, $p=0.02$) and supervision ($F = 4.98$, $p=0.007$), confirmed the above hypothesis (see Table 24).

A close examination of the whole sample result revealed that the differences reported above were mostly between those employees with less than ten years as a group and those with more than ten years of working experience. For example, whereas the former tended to score almost equally but less than the latter on motivating factors such as interpersonal relations and materials/physical provisions, the latter seemed to attach more importance to demotivating factors such as working conditions and work nature. However, interaction of years of working experience and type of organisation on materials/physical provisions which is presented in Table 25 and graphically depicted in Figure 8, shows a positive relationship between years of working experience and materials/physical provisions among private organisation's employees but a curvilinear relationship among employees in public sector.

The hypothesis was rejected for all of the motivating factors by the results of each sub-sample analysis (see Table 24). Turning to demotivating factors, significant differences were found for interpersonal relations among the Hausas ($F = 6.51$, $p<0.000$); for working conditions and materials/physical provisions among the Ibos ($F = 3.72$, $p=0.03$ and $F =$

Table 24

Statistical Differences in the Perceived Job Motivation of Employees with Different Years of Working Experience^a

Factor	Whole Sample (N=123)			Hausa (N=26)			Ibo (N=44)			Yoruba (N=45)			F Value		
	1 (N=117)	2 (N=103)	3 (N=103)	1 (N=32)	2 (N=26)	3 (N=17)	1 (N=44)	2 (N=46)	3 (N=47)	1 (N=47)	2 (N=45)	3 (N=57)			
<u>Motivating</u>															
Interpersonal Relations	-.05	-.12	.15	-.02	-.41	-.12	1.32	-.17	.01	-.11	0.29	.04	-.07	.35	2.86
Working Conditions	-.06	-.00	.05	.36	.01	-.22	2.35	-.16	.14	.20	1.60	-.27	-.16	.06	1.33
Possibility of Growth	-.11	.05	.09	.13	.33	-.19	1.30	-.32	.01	-.02	1.54	-.07	-.06	-.04	1.64
Work Nature	-.11	.04	.03	-.15	.24	-.16	1.29	.14	.04	.30	0.57	-.31	-.06	-.04	1.15
Materials/Physical Provisions	-.04	-.12	.19	.18	-.12	.53	1.81	-.02	-.10	.12	0.42	-.21	-.15	.13	2.10
Supervision	-.03	-.02	.02	-.06	-.12	.33	1.23	-.05	.11	-.16	0.64	.00	-.09	.02	0.18
<u>Demotivating</u>															
Interpersonal Relations	-.10	-.07	.09	.08	.08	1.19	6.51**	-.06	-.06	-.15	0.08	-.26	-.17	-.12	0.46
Working Conditions	.06	.08	-.23	-.42	-.11	-.08	1.01	.32	.03	-.29	3.72*	.14	.24	-.24	3.30*
Work Nature	.10	.04	-.25	.15	-.30	-.25	1.62	.17	.23	-.03	0.59	-.01	.04	-.35	2.62
Company Policy and Administration	-.16	.06	.12	-.13	.26	.21	1.57	-.03	.03	.08	0.09	-.29	-.02	.12	2.24
Supervision	.03	.04	-.10	.46	.18	.05	1.15	.04	.29	-.08	1.55	-.28	-.30	-.16	0.33
Materials/Physical Provisions	-.12	.23	-.12	-.20	-.02	-.37	0.50	-.21	.37	-.21	5.60**	.01	.24	.00	0.97

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

a 1 = Below 5 years 2 = 5-9 years 3 = Above 10 years

Table 25

Interaction of Type of Organisation and Years of Working Experience on Materials/Physical Provisions (Demotivating) Factor

	Mean	Source	F
	Below 5 5 to 9 Above 10		
Public	0.09 0.47 -0.16		
Private	-0.38 -0.19 -0.07		
		Type of Organisation (A)	4.45*
		Work Experience (B)	11.57**
		Interaction (A x B)	4.23*

*p<0.05 **p<0.01

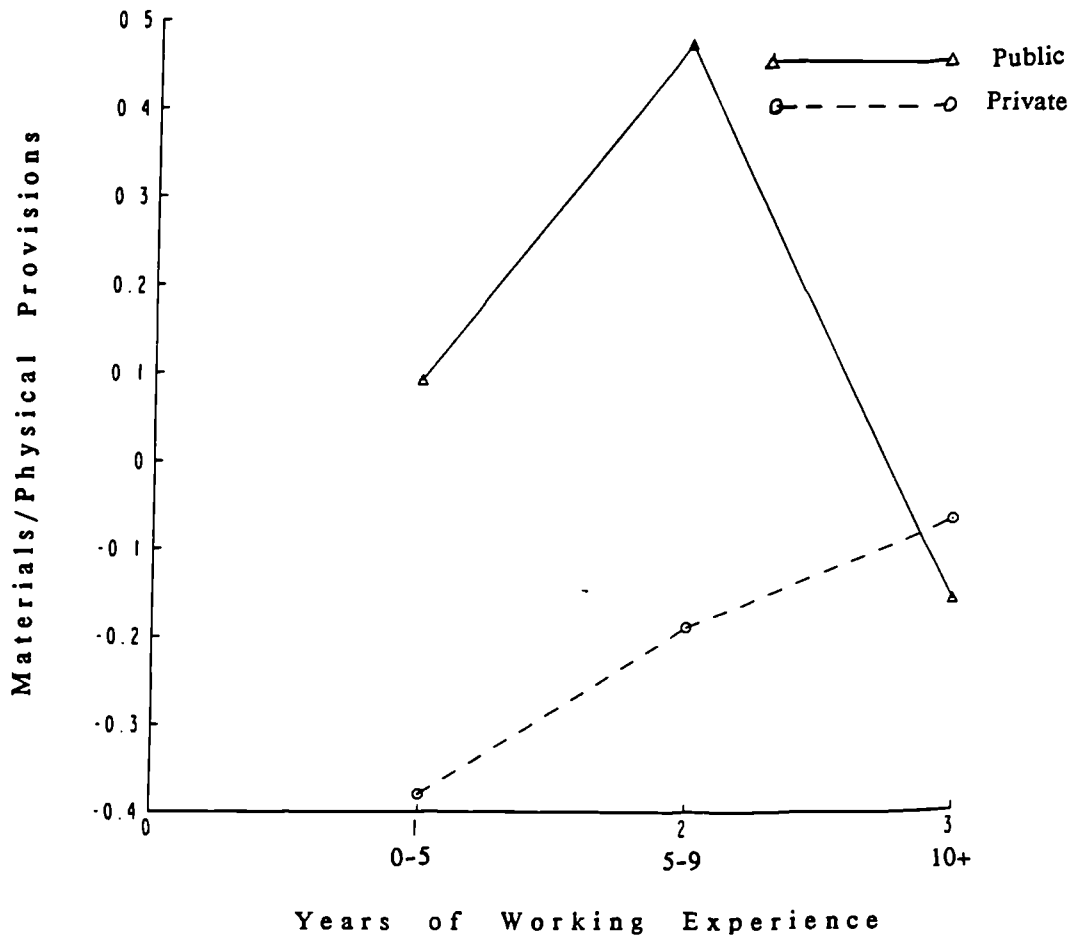


Figure 8

5.60, $p < 0.000$ respectively); and for working conditions among the Yorubas ($F = 3.30$, $p = 0.04$). For the observed significant differences among the Ibos and the Yorubas, highly experienced employees were more demotivated than less experienced ones while the inverse was true for the difference observed among the Hausas.

Taken together, the above results indicate that employees with more years of working experience appeared to value the calculative or instrumental rewards of a job more than their less experienced counterparts who seemed to value more intrinsic aspects. Thus, our findings are consistent with what other researchers have observed (Saiyadain, 1985; Mottaz, 1986).

- (7) Employees in government establishments will attach more importance to extrinsic job rewards (such as working conditions and materials/physical provisions) than private organisations' employees who themselves will value more the intrinsic rewards.

In Nigeria, financial incentives and other extrinsic organisational rewards accrued to employees working in government establishments (with possible exception of highly educated employees in executive positions) are generally low compare to their counterparts' in private sector. The above hypothesis was posited to test the assumption that private sector employees who are relatively adequately being catered for by their organisations (e.g. good pay, bonus, increment, etc.) and have therefore satisfied their physiological needs will attach more importance to higher order needs (e.g. possibility of growth, intrinsic job aspects) than their counterparts in public sector who themselves will be more motivated by extrinsic rewards in order to satisfy their lower order needs.

For this hypothesis to be supported in this study we will expect employees in government to score significantly higher on motivating factors such as working conditions and materials/physical provisions and lower on similar demotivating factors than their counterparts in private organisations. With the same token, employees in private organisations are expected to score significantly higher on motivating factors such as work nature and possibility of growth and be affected (negatively) more than their counterparts in government

when such factors are lacking.

Examination of the results for the entire sample (Table 26) showed that employees in government were more motivated by working conditions ($t = 1.68, p0.05$) than their counterparts who were more motivated by possibility of growth ($t = -2.10, p0.02$) and work nature ($t = -3.28, p0.000$). This finding lend strong support to our assumption. However, the results of demotivating factors indicate that employees in private organisations were significantly more demotivated by two extrinsic factors: company policy and administration ($t = 2.54, p0.01$) and materials/physical provisions ($t = 3.64, p0.000$) than their counterparts who themselves were more demotivated by supervision ($t = -2.07, p0.02$).

As we have previously shown, significant interactions were observed between level of education and type of organisation on possibility of growth factor (see Table 23 and Figure 7) and between type of organisation and work experience on materials/physical provisions (see Table 25 and Figure 8). It can be seen in Figure 7 that public and private sectors' employees who were less educated have similar perceptions of the importance of possibility of growth as a motivating factor while better educated in private sector scored significantly higher on possibility of growth than their counterparts working in government establishments. On the other hand, employees with less than ten years of working experience in private sector gave significant more weight to materials/physical provisions (lack of) as a demotivator than their relatively inexperienced counterparts in public sector (Figure 8).

Turning next to separate analyses for the three sub-cultures (Table 26), the hypothesis was supported for three motivators: working conditions ($t = 2.79, p0.003$), possibility of growth ($t = -1.60, p0.06$) - among the Ibos only - and work nature among the Ibos ($t = -2.22, p0.01$) and among the Yorubas ($t = -2.86, p0.003$). It was rejected for all of the six motivating factors among the Hausas. On demotivating factors, the hypothesis was supported for only work nature factor among the Ibo group ($t = 2.07, p0.02$). Table 26 further reveals significant differences between the two categories of employees in each cultural group but not in the direction predicted. For example, employees in private organisations

Table 26

Statistical Differences in the Perceived Job Motivation of Employees working in Public and Private Organisations

Factor	Whole Sample		H a u s a		I b o		Y o r u b a		
	Public (N=205)	Private (N=140)	Public (N=44)	Private (N=33)	Public (N=65)	Private (N=53)	Public (N=96)	Private (N=54)	
		T Value		T Value		T Value		T Value	
<u>Motivating</u>									
Interpersonal Relations	-0.00	.00	-0.01	-0.71	-0.10	-0.05	-0.26	0.54	
Working Conditions	.08	-0.11	1.68*	0.80	.27	-0.22	2.79**	-0.14	
Possibility of Growth	-0.08	.14	-2.10*	-1.06	-0.25	.03	-1.60*	-1.14	
Work Nature	-0.15	.20	-3.28***	-0.07	-0.03	.37	-2.22**	-2.86**	
Materials/Physical Provisions	-0.08	.10	-1.60	0.03	-0.05	.03	-0.39	-2.27**	
Supervision	.00	-0.01	0.15	0.80	-0.05	.03	-0.40	-0.05	
<u>Demotivating</u>									
Interpersonal Relations	-0.03	.03	-0.49	-0.49	-0.04	-0.08	0.22	-0.31	
Working Conditions	-0.04	.05	-0.80	-0.89	-0.00	.18	-1.07	0.31	
Work Nature	.05	-0.06	0.99	1.35	.34	-0.03	2.07*	1.14	
Company Policy and Administration	.12	-0.16	2.54**	0.21	.17	-0.14	1.62*	2.34**	
Supervision	-0.10	.13	-2.07*	-0.73	-0.01	.26	-1.58	-0.85	
Materials/Physical Provisions	.16	-0.23	3.64***	2.04*	.17	-0.16	1.89*	2.26**	

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

in the three cultural groups were more demotivated than their counterparts in government by materials/physical provisions (demotivating) factor (Hausa: $t = 2.04$, $p=0.03$; Ibo: $t = 1.89$, $p=0.03$; Yoruba: $t = 2.26$, $p=0.01$).

- (8) Significant differences between employees perception of job motivation will be related to variations in their personality characteristics.

Taking each personality dimension in turn, it can be seen in Table 27-A that for the combined sample low scorers on neuroticism scored significantly higher on three motivating factors - interpersonal relations, working conditions and possibility of growth than high scorers. However, the observed difference between high and low scorers on working conditions (demotivating) indicates that, job attitude of low scorers is significantly affected (negatively) when working conditions are inadequate or poor.

With regard to psychoticism, high scorers more than the low scorers, scored significantly higher on one motivating and four demotivating factors (see Table 27-B). Of particular interest here is the finding among high scorers on work nature factor which showed that, while they were more motivated when the nature of work is interesting, challenging and has variety, they were less affected than the low scorers when work nature cannot be so described (a support for Herzberg's claim). It is also clear from Table 27-B that, on interpersonal relations, less psychotic individuals (low) showed higher negative work attitude than their more psychotic (high) counterparts. This negative relationship between interpersonal relations (as a demotivator) and psychoticism is not surprising because of the expectation that the work behaviour of those who are tough-minded and lack in human feelings (i.e. more psychotic individuals) should not be affected (or less affected) when relationships among co-workers can be described as friendless (bad interpersonal relations). Like the observed difference between working conditions (demotivating) and neuroticism, low scorers on psychoticism too showed higher demotivation than the high scorers. No significant difference (or interactions) was found for any of the twelve factors among the entire sample on the dimension of extraversion.

Table 27

Significant Differences in Mean (Factor) Scores of High and Low Scorers on Personality Dimensions (Whole Sample: N=350)

Factor	Mean		T Value	p	
A	<u>Neuroticism</u>				
		<u>High (N=151)</u>	<u>Low (N=142)</u>		
	Interpersonal Relations (Motivating)	-0.10	0.13	2.00	0.024
	Working Conditions (Motivating)	-0.13	0.13	2.20	0.015
	Possibility of Growth	-0.12	0.14	2.36	0.010
Working Conditions (Demotivating)	0.12	-0.15	2.43	0.008	
B	<u>Psychoticism</u>				
		<u>High (N=150)</u>	<u>Low (N=153)</u>		
	Work Nature (Motivating)	0.07	-0.15	-1.99	0.024
	Interpersonal Relations (Demotivating)	0.11	-0.25	-3.24	0.000
	Working Conditions (Demotivating)	0.12	-0.15	-2.40	0.009
	Work Nature (Demotivating)	0.13	-0.09	-1.92	0.028
General Supervision	0.09	-0.11	1.75	0.041	

Turning to the results of significant relationship between dimensions of job motivation and personality for each of the three cultural groups, it can be seen that, among the Hausas (Table 28), one factor each distinguished between introversion/extraversion and high/low psychoticism. They were close supervision (Table 28-A: with introverts more motivated) and working conditions (Table 28-B: with less psychotic highly demotivated). While there was no high/low neuroticism difference on any of the twelve factors, a significant interaction effect was found between neuroticism and extraversion on working conditions (motivating) factor. It seems that extraverted-neurotics (more) attach more importance to good working conditions as a source of motivation (Table 28-C).

Among the Ibos (Table 29), significant differences were observed on possibility of growth and interpersonal relations between high and low neurotics (with low scorers highly motivated on the former and also highly demotivated on the latter factor) - see Table 29-A. It can also be observed in Table 29-B that high psychotic individuals gave more weight to work nature (motivating) than their low psychotic counterparts who themselves gave significant more weight to bad interpersonal relations as a source of nonproductive work behaviours. Unlike among the Hausa group, there were no significant extraversion and interaction effects on any of the twelve factors.

Of the twelve factors among the Yoruba sub-sample, significant differences were revealed for four factors on neuroticism (Table 30-A) and three on psychoticism (Table 30-B) scales. On all of these factors, less neurotic and less psychotic employees were more affected than more neurotic and more psychotic individuals. It can also be seen that, on working conditions (demotivating), significant interaction was observed between neuroticism and extraversion with extraverted-neurotics (more) highly demotivated, though neither neuroticism nor extraversion had significant main effect on this factor (see Table 30-C).

In conclusion, the results of the relationship between employees perception of job motivation and personality characteristics (as measured by EPQ) both for the entire sample

Table 28

Significant Differences in Mean (Factor) Scores of High and Low Scorers on Personality Dimensions (Hausa: N=80)

Factor	Mean		T Value	p
A	<u>Extraversion</u>			
	<u>High (N=33)</u>	<u>Low (N=37)</u>		
Close Supervision (Motivating)	-0.24	0.19	1.91	0.030
B	<u>Psychoticism</u>			
	<u>High (N=40)</u>	<u>(Low (N=24))</u>		
Working Conditions (Demotivating)	0.11	-0.73	-3.56	0.000

C Interaction of Neuroticism and Extraversion on Working Conditions (Motivating)

	Introvert	Extravert
Less Neurotic	0.36	0.10
More Neurotic	-0.19	0.64

Source	F
Neuroticism (A)	0.82
Extraversion (B)	1.26
Interaction (A x B)	7.05**

**p0.01

Table 29**Significant Differences in Mean (Factor) Scores of High and Low Scorers on Personality Dimensions (Ibo: N=119)**

Factor	Mean		T Value	p
A	<u>Neuroticism</u>			
	<u>High (N=62)</u>	<u>Low (N=35)</u>		
Possibility of Growth	-0.22	0.14	1.93	0.029
Interpersonal Relations (Demotivating)	0.15	-0.22	-1.85	0.034
B	<u>Psychoticism</u>			
	<u>High (N=62)</u>	<u>(Low (N=45)</u>		
Work Nature (Motivating)	0.26	-0.10	-1.80	0.038
Interpersonal Relations (Demotivating)	0.11	-0.35	-2.48	0.008

Table 30

Significant Differences in Mean (Factor) Scores of High and Low Scorers on Personality Dimensions (Yoruba: N=151)

Factor	Mean		T Value	p
A				
	<u>Neuroticism</u>			
	<u>High (N=56)</u>	<u>Low (N=75)</u>		
Interpersonal Relations (Motivating)	-0.03	0.24	1.73	0.044
Working Conditions (Motivating)	-0.42	0.06	2.55	0.006
Possibility of Growth	-0.18	0.12	1.68	0.049
Materials/Physical Provisions (Motivating)	-0.22	0.06	1.77	0.040
B				
	<u>Psychoticism</u>			
	<u>High (N=48)</u>	<u>Low (N=84)</u>		
Work Nature (Motivating)	0.01	-0.28	-1.70	0.046
Interpersonal Relations (Demotivating)	-0.05	-0.30	-1.76	0.040
Work Nature (Demotivating)	0.09	-0.22	-1.80	0.037

C Interaction of Extraversion and Neuroticism on Working Conditions (Demotivating)

	Less Neurotic	More Neurotic
Introvert	-0.06	-0.19
Extravert	-0.18	-0.60

Source	F
Extraversion (A)	1.96
Neuroticism (B)	3.12
Interaction (A x B)	4.99*

*p0.03

and within each cultural group provide support for the above hypothesis. Also, a comparison of the differences across the three cultural groups indicates that the effects of personality on job attitude differ from one culture to another, especially between the Hausa as a group, and the Ibos and the Yorubas combined.

(9) Employees perceived job motivation will be positively related to their Self-esteem at work.

In Quinn and Shepard's (1974) initial study, self-esteem at work was correlated 0.50 with "Overall Job Satisfaction" and was also found to be associated (0.25) with job satisfaction by Beehr (1976). The above hypothesis was posited to test the extent to which these findings could be generalised.

As expected, significant positive relationships were found between self-esteem and five motivating factors (interpersonal relations, working conditions, possibility of growth, work nature and supervision) among the entire sample (Table 31). In all of these factors, except supervision, high scorers were significantly more motivated than low scorers. The results on supervision (as a motivator and as a demotivator) showed that when supervision is close (motivator) low self-esteem scorers were more motivated but when not close (demotivator) they were more demotivated than high self-esteem scorers.

On separate analyses, Table 31 showed that for all of the six motivating factors, except supervision among the Hausa group and working conditions, materials/physical provisions and supervision among the Yoruba group, high scorers on self-esteem at work in each cultural group reported high job attitude than low scorers. Statistically significant differences were proved for interpersonal relations (Hausa: $t = -2.62$, $p0.006$; Ibo: $t = -3.60$, $p0.000$; Yoruba: $t = -3.68$, $p0.000$), working conditions and possibility of growth at the weaker 0.06 level (Ibo: $t = -1.55$ and $t = -1.57$ respectively) and work nature (Hausa: $t = -2.44$, $p0.009$). However, low scorers were more motivated with close supervision among the Hausa ($t = 2.90$, $p0.003$) and the Yoruba ($t = 1.64$, $p0.05$) groups than high scorers. Moreover, the results on demotivating factors showed that low esteem scorers among the

Table 31

Statistical Differences in the Perceived Job Motivation of Employees with High and Low Levels of Self-esteem

Factor	Whole Sample (N=170)		H a u s a Low (N=33) High (N=45)		I b o Low (N=54) High (N=65)		Y o r u b a Low (N=83) High (N=66)		T Value	
	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High		
<u>Motivating</u>										
Interpersonal Relations	-.30	.28	-.45	.11	-2.62**	-.47	.24	-.13	.43	-3.68***
Working Conditions	-.12	.12	.02	.22	-0.88	-.09	.18	-.19	-.01	1.07
Possibility of Growth	-.10	.10	-.06	.19	-0.55	-.28	.00	-.05	.13	-1.16
Work Nature	-.14	.15	-.32	.25	-2.44**	.05	.24	-.19	-.01	-1.19
Materials/Physical Provisions	-.04	.05	.15	.15	-0.03	-.12	.08	-.06	-.06	0.00
Supervision	.13	-.11	.42	-.23	2.90**	-.02	.02	.10	-.17	1.64*
<u>Demotivating</u>										
Interpersonal Relations	-.05	.04	.68	.21	1.58	-.22	.07	-.22	-.12	-0.86
Working Conditions	.00	-.00	-.10	-.22	0.50	.03	.11	.02	.04	-0.10
Work Nature	.07	-.07	-.03	-.02	-0.03	.27	.08	-.02	-.24	1.40
Company Policy and Administration	.06	-.05	.09	.06	0.16	.05	.02	.05	-.19	1.48
Supervision	-.22	.21	-.24	.69	-4.07***	-.07	.26	-.30	-.18	-0.78
Materials/Physical Provisions	.02	-.02	-.22	-.15	-0.27	.14	-.09	.03	.14	-0.67

*p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Hausa and Ibo groups were significantly more demotivated by supervision than high scorers. The same was true among the Yorubas but not statistically significant.

On the basis of these findings, especially within the whole sample (the three groups combined), the above hypothesis was accepted.

(10) Married employees will be more instrumental in their work value orientations than their single counterparts who will value more the intrinsic nature of work.

For the entire sample, the results in Table 32 showed that the importance employees placed on intrinsic nature of work (possibility of growth) varied by marital status but not in the direction predicted. Married employees scored significantly higher than single employees. However, married employees also gave significant more weight to working conditions (extrinsic factor) than single employees. There were no significant differences between the two categories in the importance placed on the four remaining motivating factors. Turning to sources of low job attitudes (demotivating factors), it was found that bad working conditions and bad work nature produced significantly lower job attitude for married employees than for single employees who themselves were more demotivated by bad company policy and administration than married employees.

The results further showed that the effect of marital status on working conditions (as a motivator) was moderated by number of dependents. As can be seen in Table 33 and Figure 9, married employees with less than 6 dependents gave significantly more weight to working conditions than their single counterparts. However, it is also clear in Figure 9 that, single employees who have more than 6 dependents gave more weight to bad working conditions as a source of low job attitudes.

The results of comparisons within each cultural group presented in Table 32 showed significant differences for working conditions (motivator) among the Ibos ($t = -1.88$, $p0.03$) and the Yorubas ($t = -2.46$, $p0.008$), and also for possibility of growth among the Ibos ($t = -1.90$, $p0.03$) only, with married employees highly motivated in each case. However, the results on demotivating factors showed that bad working conditions have more negative

Table 32

**Statistical Differences in the Perceived Job Motivation of
Single and Married Employees**

Factor	Whole Sample (N=130)		H a u s a (N=27)		I b o (N=55)		Y o r u b a (N=48)		
	Single (N=130)	Married (N=212)	Single (N=27)	Married (N=51)	Single (N=55)	Married (N=60)	Single (N=48)	Married (N=101)	
<u>Motivating</u>									
Interpersonal Relations	.04	-.04	0.73	-.17	0.57	-.25	1.60	.15	-0.55
Working Conditions	-.11	.10	-1.83*	.04	1.55	.23	-1.88*	-.41	-2.46**
Possibility of Growth	-.13	.10	-2.09*	.11	0.26	.03	-1.90*	-.10	-1.40
Work Nature	-.03	.01	-0.35	.01	-.20	.20	-0.51	-.19	-0.44
Materials/Physical Provisions	-.08	.03	-0.93	.13	0.19	.02	-0.83	-.15	-0.83
Supervision	.06	-.03	0.86	.01	0.45	-.04	0.54	.03	0.45
<u>Demotivating</u>									
Interpersonal Relations	-.02	.01	-0.29	.61	-1.74*	-.10	0.53	-.10	-0.22
Working Conditions	.19	-.14	2.90**	-.20	0.02	-.14	2.69**	.25	1.88*
Work Nature	.21	-.13	3.11***	-.24	2.52**	.10	1.04	.02	1.43
Company Policy and Administration	-.16	.12	-2.24**	.13	-0.81	.22	-1.88*	-.24	-1.63
Supervision	-.02	.01	-0.27	.25	0.52	.07	0.55	-.46	-1.88*
Materials/Physical Provisions	.03	-.02	0.44	-.27	0.98	.02	-0.03	.07	-0.10

*p<0.05, **p<0.01 ***p<0.001

Table 33

Interaction of Marital Status and Number of Dependents on Working Conditions (Motivating) Factor

	Mean	Source	F			
	Below 2	3 to 5	Above 6			
Single	-0.25	-0.29	0.29			
Married	0.27	0.12	-0.02			
				Marital Status (A)	3.42	
				Dependents (B)	0.01	
				Interaction (A x B)	3.98*	

*p<0.05

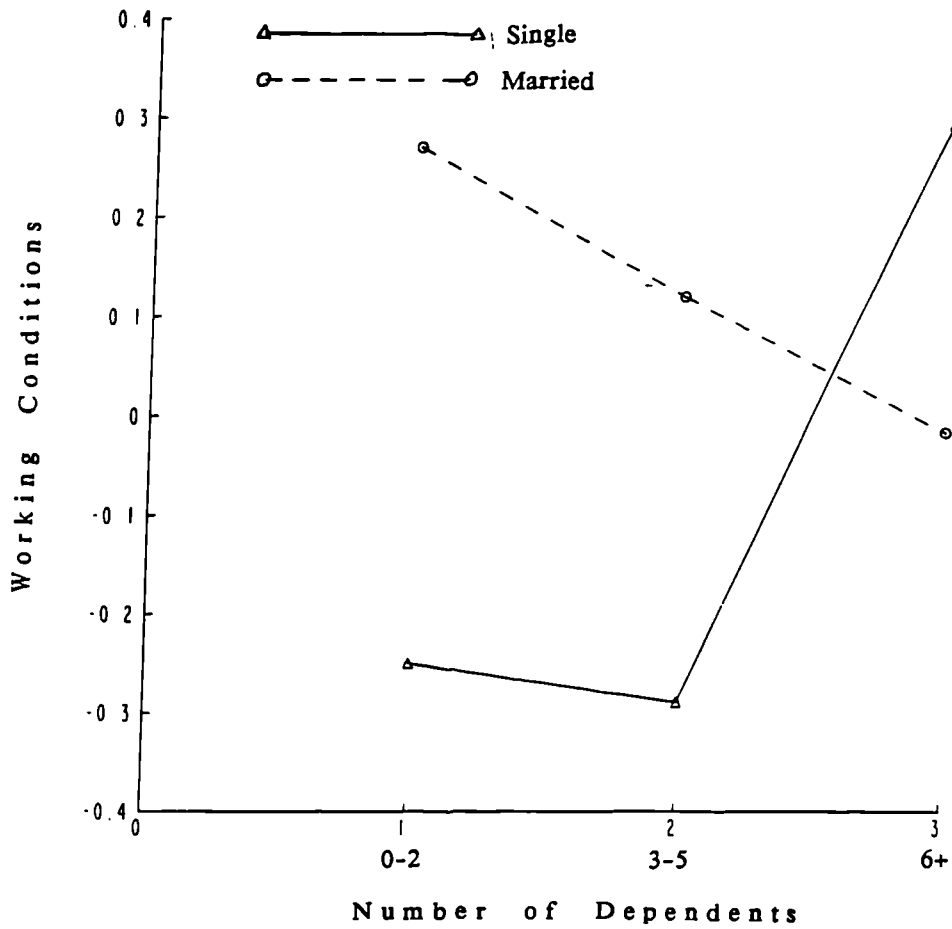


Figure 9

effect on married employees' job attitudes than on single employees' job attitudes among the Ibo and the Yoruba groups. On the other hand, the result on work nature among the Hausa group showed that single employees were highly demotivated ($t = 2.52, p=0.008$) than married employees.

Taken together, the above results indicate that while married employees attached more importance to working conditions (instrumental orientation), they also attached more importance to possibility of growth (intrinsic factor) than those who never married. Thus, the above hypothesis was partially confirmed.

(11) There will be significant differences between the perceived job motivation of male and female employees.

As Table 34 shows, there were no significant gender differences in all of the six motivating factors within the Hausa and the Yoruba groups as well as within the three groups combined (whole sample). This hypothesis was therefore rejected by the combined sample and the two groups as far as motivating factors are concerned. Among the Ibos, statistically significant results were obtained for two motivating factors - interpersonal relations ($t = -1.91, p=0.03$) with female employees *more motivated and working conditions* ($t = 1.77, p=0.04$) with male employees more motivated.

With respect to causes of low job attitudes (demotivating factors), it can be seen in Table 34 that, for the whole sample, four factors distinguished between male and female employees: interpersonal relations, working conditions (with males highly demotivated), company policy and administration and materials/physical provisions (with female more demotivated). For each cultural group, gender differences were found with respect to materials/physical provisions among the Hausas (with females more demotivated); company policy and administration among the Ibos and the Yorubas (with females more demotivated) and supervision among the Yoruba group (with males more demotivated).

Table 34

Statistical Differences in the Perceived Job Motivation of Male and Female Employees

Factor	Whole Sample		H a u s a		I b o		Y o r u b a					
	Male (N=276)	Female (N=70)	Male (N=59)	Female (N=20)	Male (N=90)	Female (N=28)	Male (N=127)	Female (N=22)				
	T Value	T Value	T Value	T Value	T Value	T Value	T Value	T Value				
<u>Motivating</u>												
Interpersonal Relations	-.02	.08	0.49	-.11	-.17	0.26	-.20	.27	-1.91*	.14	.05	0.33
Working Conditions	.05	.11	0.26	.14	.16	-0.09	.16	-.25	1.77*	-.08	-.18	0.42
Possibility of Growth	.01	-.00	0.93	.09	.29	0.93	-.13	-.16	0.15	.07	-.07	0.57
Work Nature	-.00	-.02	0.89	.03	-.07	0.34	.16	.17	-0.03	-.13	-.21	0.38
Materials/Physical Provisions	.01	-.04	0.73	.13	.14	-0.02	-.00	-.07	0.35	-.03	-.15	0.49
Supervision	.04	-.09	0.32	.09	-.09	0.72	-.06	.14	0.90	-.00	-.04	0.16
<u>Demotivating</u>												
Interpersonal Relations	-.05	.20	-1.69*	.29	.77	-1.34	-.10	.11	-0.89	-.17	-.19	0.09
Working Conditions	-.06	.18	-1.77*	-.27	.10	-1.44	.06	.16	-0.48	-.04	.29	-1.27
Work Nature	.02	-.10	0.91	-.03	.02	-0.19	.24	-.06	1.36	-.11	-.26	0.69
Company Policy and Administration	.07	-.22	2.03*	.03	.19	-0.58	.15	-.32	1.95*	.03	-.45	2.36*
Supervision	-.03	.12	1.13	.34	.10	0.85	.11	.13	-0.13	-.30	.13	-1.72*
Materials/Physical Provisions	.06	-.22	2.01*	-.02	-.55	1.64*	.08	-.21	1.44	.09	.06	0.14

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

(12) Perceived job motivation will be significantly and positively related to variations in the age of employees.

This hypothesis was supported for materials/physical provisions (motivating), working conditions (demotivating) and supervision (demotivating) among the whole sample (Table 35). That is, the older the employees the more they were motivated by materials/physical provisions ($F = 3.57, p=0.01$) and more demotivated by working conditions ($F = 2.59, p=0.05$) and general supervision ($F = 4.10, p=0.007$).

Within each sub-sample, on motivating factors, positive significant relationships were found for close supervision among the Hausas ($F = 3.11, p=0.03$), for favourable working conditions ($F = 2.75, p=0.004$) and adequate materials/physical provisions (only if we drop the second category) among the Yorubas (Table 35). Among the Hausas, possibility of growth was again found to be significantly but negatively related to variations in the age of employees ($F = 3.42, p=0.02$) while no significant difference was revealed in any of the six motivating factors among different age groups in our Ibo sub-sample.

When we turn to demotivating factors, we found that significant differences exist only in regard to interpersonal relations ($F = 4.67, p=0.005$) among the Hausas, and company policy and administration ($F = 4.00, p=0.009$) among the Yorubas, contrary to expectation (the older the employees, the less they were demotivated by such factors). However, positive relationships emerge for supervision ($F = 3.00, p=0.04$) among the Hausas, and working conditions ($F = 3.45, p=0.02$) among the Ibos. In other words, the older the Hausa and Ibo employees, the more they were demotivated by supervision and working conditions respectively. Such trend was less marked among the Yoruba group.

The pattern of interaction observed between age and cultural background on possibility of growth factor showed that Hausa employees below the age of 35 years were more motivated than any other age groups among the Ibo and the Yoruba sub-samples while those above 36 years (among the Hausas) seemed not to be affected by possibility of growth factor (see Table 36 and Figure 10). This result suggests that the older Hausa employees

Table 35

Statistical Differences in the Perceived Job Motivation of Employees in Different Age Groups^a

Factor	Whole Sample				H a u s a				I b o				Y o r u b a								
	1 (N=90)	2 (N=101)	3 (N=78)	4 (N=74)	F Value	1 (N=34)	2 (N=22)	3 (N=15)	4 (N=8)	F Value	1 (N=34)	2 (N=39)	3 (N=20)	4 (N=22)	F Value	1 (N=22)	2 (N=40)	3 (N=43)	4 (N=44)	F Value	
<u>Motivating</u>																					
Interpersonal Relations	.05	-.02	-.13	.08	0.69	.10	-.35	-.28	-.22	1.25	-.09	-.02	-.17	-.17	0.13	.19	.16	-.07	.26	0.90	
Working Conditions	.02	-.09	-.06	.20	1.32	.35	.20	-.07	-.42	1.76	-.11	.04	.10	.35	1.04	-.30	-.36	-.12	.24	2.75*	
Possibility of Growth	.03	-.08	.08	.01	0.40	.31	.21	.19	-.91	3.42*	-.22	-.31	.09	.09	1.26	-.02	-.01	.04	.14	0.20	
Work Nature	.00	-.01	-.01	-.01	0.01	-.01	.02	.27	-.50	0.94	.26	-.01	.07	.34	0.79	-.38	-.04	-.15	-.10	0.63	
Materials/Physical Provisions	-.08	-.12	-.09	.32	3.57*	.01	.29	-.09	.65	0.97	-.17	-.08	-.12	.26	0.94	-.08	-.38	-.08	.30	4.06**	
Supervision	.05	-.04	-.07	.04	0.29	-.06	-.24	.24	.91	3.11*	.19	.16	-.07	.26	0.90	.09	-.01	-.08	-.05	0.16	
<u>Demotivating</u>																					
Interpersonal Relations	.06	-.03	-.10	-.02	0.39	.18	.19	.49	1.87	4.67**	.10	-.16	-.16	-.22	0.63	-.19	-.03	-.29	-.20	0.87	
Working Conditions	.13	.10	-.12	-.23	2.59*	-.07	-.38	-.40	.35	1.45	.28	.24	-.20	-.39	3.45*	.20	.24	.01	-.25	1.90	
Work Nature	.14	.03	-.13	-.11	1.39	.03	.07	-.32	.11	0.50	.20	.32	-.01	-.05	0.90	.23	-.27	-.13	-.17	1.35	
Company Policy and Administration	-.20	.06	.14	.08	2.08	-.10	.23	.20	.10	0.66	-.03	.07	-.08	.26	0.47	-.64	-.05	.23	-.01	4.00**	
Supervision	.19	.12	-.18	-.25	4.10**	.47	.54	-.23	-.29	3.00*	.19	.08	.13	-.00	0.20	-.22	-.07	-.31	-.36	0.72	
Materials/Physical Provisions	-.14	.11	.00	.01	1.00	-.25	.01	-.10	-.39	0.33	-.16	.18	-.22	.12	1.26	.07	.11	.14	.04	0.09	

*p<0.05, **p<0.01

a 1 = Below 25 years 2 = 26-30 years 3 = 31-35 years 4 = Above 36 years

Table 36

Interaction of Cultural Background and Age on Possibility of Growth Factor

	Mean				Source	F
	Below 25 yrs	25 - 30 yrs	31 - 35 yrs	Above 36 yrs		
Hausa	0.31	0.21	0.19	-0.91		
Ibo	0.22	-0.31	0.09	0.09		
Yoruba	-0.02	-0.01	0.04	0.14		

Culture (A)	1.90
Age (B)	0.31
Interaction (A x B)	2.74*

*p<0.05

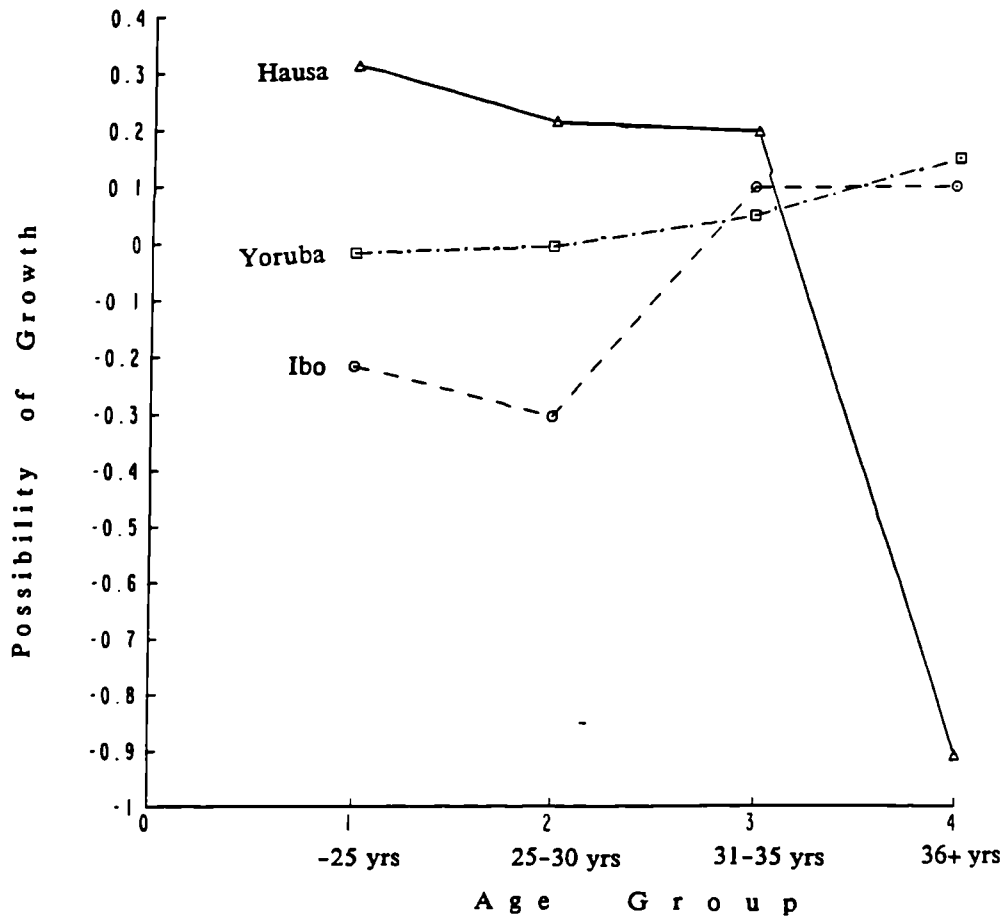


Figure 10

who perhaps, are less educated, have little influence of Westernisation (if at all) and more embedded in Islamic culture and tradition do not seek for satisfaction of 'growth' needs in the workplace compared to their younger ones and all other age groups among the Ibo and the Yorubas. However, this finding should be viewed with caution since we have fewer employees above 36 years among the Hausa group than any other group in the analysis (see number of employees in each age category included in the analysis for each cultural group on Table 35).

6.2.2. Organisational Commitment

The results were analysed in four stages:

(i) Because of our earlier criticism of single-item indicators for their lower reliability, attention was first focused on obtaining a simpler structure for the 25 items used to assess commitment. To this end, factor analysis was computed. The result yielded a three factor solution, under the criterion that eigenvalues must equal or exceed one (Rummel, 1970); however, only the third factor (with one item loaded on it - supervision), was clearly interpretable. Several items loaded on the first and even the second factor. Accordingly, using factor analysis as a point of departure, scales were created judgementsly by clustering items that are relatively highly intercorrelated, and by linking items that belong together, conceptually, within job-facet categories of the sort suggested by such writers as Locke (1976) and Kerlleberg (1977), and based on our earlier review of antecedents of organisational commitment.

The procedure was successful, within limits. Only five composite scales having acceptable alphas were created. As Table 37 shows, these are job scope, intrinsic rewards, work group, extrinsic rewards and fairness (in organisation practices). Four of the 25 items, however, did not intercorrelate well enough to justify their combination into multi-item scales. Thus, Table 37 lists nine antecedent variables, five of which are composites. The other four are measured by single questionnaire items and named according to the facets they represent. Mean score of each antecedent variable was then obtained and rank

Table 37

Organisational Commitment Variables

Variable	Items Included	Mean	Rank
Job Scope (reliability = 0.83)*	Doing the work which you are trained for The job allows you responsibility/chance to make decisions The job is interesting, challenging and has variety The work is always urgent (or has to be completed by a deadline)	5.67	2
Intrinsic Rewards (reliability = 0.77)	There is chance for further training You achieve your goals (achievement) You just feel like working There is praise, compliment and recognition for a job well done	4.44	5
Work Group (reliability = 0.80)	Your boss and co-workers are hardworking Good interpersonal relations with boss and co-workers	5.70	1
Extrinsic Rewards (reliability = 0.81)	Good physical working conditions Adequate financial incentives (pay, bonuses, etc.) There are chances for <i>promotion</i> Job security is assured The job offers fringe benefits (car, housing, etc.) Workplace not far from home.	5.47	3
Fairness (in organisation practices) (reliability = 0.82)	Company is caring and listening to personal problems Boss does not practice tribalism, favouritism, etc. There is no demotion, transfer or unjust blame The company is keeping promises made to you There is clear job description (resource adequacy)	4.46	4
Supervision	Superior is not supervising closely	2.80	9
Quantity of work	Assigning much work	3.88	6
Family Conditions	No sickness/death or other domestic problems	3.40	8
Company Success	The company is making profit	3.52	7

*Cronbach's alpha

ordered (see Table 37). These mean scores were used in all of the subsequent analyses.

(ii) Next, an attempt was made to examine the influence of culture. Toward this end, one-way analyses of variance were computed using cultural background as independent variable and antecedents (or sources) of commitment (see Table 37) as dependent variables. Table 38 presents the ANOVA results. The results indicated that there were no significant differences among the three cultural groups on all of the nine sources of commitment (with the exception of intrinsic rewards where the Ibos scored significantly higher than the Hausas) and on the overall commitment factor (i.e. combination of the nine perceived sources of commitment). This result seems to suggest that culture has no main significant effect on all of the antecedents of commitment employed in the present study.

However, Table 38 shows some interesting findings. First, the more the organisations in Nigeria allow high levels of interaction among the workers (which leads to greater social involvement) the more their employees, irrespective of their cultural background, will feel committed. This view is supported by the fact that, out of the nine sources of commitment, work group emerged as the most important for the three groups. This finding, on the relationship between the degree of social involvement of employees in *organisations and commitment*, lends strong support to Blauner's (1964) hypothesis mentioned earlier in the literature review which states that: "for most employees, when work is carried out by close-knit work groups especially work teams, it will be more intrinsically involving and rewarding." It is also consistent with what other researchers have established (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965; Steers, 1977; Buchanan, 1974a; Marsh and Mannari, 1977; Mottaz, 1987), and thus provides support for the first hypothesis on the relationship between organisational commitment and social features of the job.

Second, Table 38 reveals that, in order of importance across the three groups, the second and third antecedents are job scope and extrinsic rewards respectively. That is, tasks which provided workers with variety and challenge, gave opportunity for advancement through proper placement, and chance to make decisions, lead to greater commitment (job

Table 38

Analysis of Variance: Cultural Background and Commitment Variables

Commitment Variable	Hausa (N=80)	Ibo (N=119)	Yoruba (N=151)	F Value (ANOVA)	F Value (ANCOVA)
Job Scope	5.56	5.72	5.74	1.55	0.86
Intrinsic Rewards	4.28	4.60	4.44	2.29*	1.90
Work Group	5.65	5.75	5.69	0.41	0.51
Extrinsic Rewards	5.35	5.53	5.53	1.90	1.44
Fairness	4.32	4.56	4.51	1.58	1.04
Supervision	2.78	2.74	2.89	0.70	0.43
Quantity of Work	3.86	3.79	4.00	1.07	0.20
Family Conditions	3.43	3.41	3.36	0.09	0.03
Company Success	3.61	3.41	3.54	0.73	0.65
Overall Commitment ^a	38.79	39.55	39.64	0.85	0.85

*Difference between the Hausa and the Ibo groups is significant at 0.05 level

a Means obtained by summing scores across the nine commitment variables

NOTE:

When the effects of demographic variables (age, education, marital status, number of years in job and occupational level) were controlled in an analysis of covariance (see ANCOVA results above), there were still no significant differences among the sub-cultural groups on all of the nine commitment variables (although the observed difference between the Hausa and the Ibo groups on intrinsic rewards when ANOVA was computed, is removed). Overall, the ANCOVA results lend strong support to our earlier conclusion that culture seems to have no main significant effect on antecedents of commitment measured in the present study.

scope). In addition, the extent to which organisations are viewed as caring about employee well-being and looking after their best interests (such as adequate financial incentives and fringe benefits, job security, promotion opportunities and good physical working conditions) is another important factor determining job commitment among Nigerian employees (extrinsic rewards). Again, these findings are consistent with results of similar studies in other cultures: Japan (Marsh and Mannari, 1977), Israel (Aranya and Jacobson, 1975), and midwestern metropolitan area, USA (Mottaz, 1986a; 1987). Thus, our second and third hypotheses based on previous research findings on the relationships between organisational commitment and (i) task characteristics, and (ii) extrinsic job rewards or "side-bets" were accepted.

Lastly, the result on supervision contradicts Salancik's (1977) view that employee commitment should be associated with supervision that is not close which has received considerable support from studies conducted in developed countries (Mowday, Porter and Dubin, 1974; Morris and Sherman, 1981). Table 38 shows that, for the three cultural groups studied, supervision (not tight or close) emerged as the least important among the nine perceived determinants of commitment. That is, when supervision is not close employees will not feel committed. This result indicates that, while supervision that is close is associated (negatively) with employee's sense of commitment in advanced nations (e.g. the USA), the opposite is true in developing countries, at least in Nigeria. Therefore, the fourth hypothesis was rejected.

(iii) The results in Table 38 suggest the feasibility of combining the three subsamples into a single homogeneous group since no significant main cultural effect was observed on all of the commitment variables as well as on the overall score. The main effects of the independent variables (personal and organisational-related characteristics) on each of the nine perceived sources of commitment and the overall score were then examined through t-tests and a series of one-way analyses of variance among the combined sample. The results are presented in Table 39. Levels of significance and T or F values are

Table 39

Main Effects of Each Independent Variable on All of the Nine Perceived Sources of Commitment

Perceived Sources of Commitment	Age	Occupational level	Education	Sex	Independent Variable			Level of Neuroticism	Level of Psychoticism	Level of Self-esteem
					Type of Organisation	Marital Status	Extraversion			
Job Scope	NS	0.017 (F = 3.46)	0.002 (T = -3.18)	NS	NS	NS	0.072 (T = -1.47)	0.076 (T = 1.44)	0.050 (T = 1.65)	NS
Intrinsic Rewards	0.027 (F = 3.11)	NS	NS	0.009 (T = -2.40)	0.016 (T = -2.16)	NS	NS	0.030 (T = -1.89)	NS	0.002 (T = 2.87)
Work Group	NS	0.017 (F = 3.46)	NS	NS	NS	0.068 (T = 1.50)	NS	0.024 (T = 1.99)	0.007 (T = 2.46)	0.020 (T = -2.06)
Extrinsic Rewards	NS	0.027 (F = 3.10)	NS	NS	NS	0.089 (T = 1.35)	0.058 (T = -1.57)	NS	0.008 (T = 2.45)	NS
Fairness	0.075 (F = 2.32)	NS	NS	0.031 (T = -1.88)	0.074 (T = -1.45)	NS	0.031 (T = -1.87)	0.069 (T = -1.49)	NS	0.000 (T = 3.38)
Supervision	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.099 (T = -1.29)	NS	0.039 (T = -1.77)	NS	0.000 (T = 3.25)
Quantity of Work	NS	0.056 (F = 2.55)	0.007 (T = -2.50)	NS	NS	0.003 (T = -2.78)	NS	NS	NS	0.007 (T = 2.46)
Family Conditions	NS	NS	NS	0.019 (T = -2.12)	0.018 (T = -2.11)	NS	NS	0.043 (T = -1.72)	NS	0.090 (T = 1.34)
Company Success	NS	NS	0.050 (T = 1.61)	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.040 (T = -1.75)	0.015 (T = -2.18)	NS
Overall Commitment	NS	NS	NS	NS	0.069 (T = -1.49)	NS	NS	0.071 (T = -1.47)	NS	0.013 (T = 2.25)

reported for all relationships at the .10 level of significance and below. (See Table 40 for mean score of each group on each commitment variable).

Several of the independent variables were significantly related to perceived sources of organisational commitment. As Table 39 shows, age was associated with commitment to the organisation, as measured by intrinsic rewards and fairness in organisation practices. Contrary to expectation (hypothesis 5), commitment does not increase linearly from younger to older employees. On each of these two antecedents, employees aged between 31 to 35 years expressed highest perception of commitment, followed by those aged below 25 years and above 36 years, and then those in 26 to 30 years age bracket (see Table 40-A). Therefore, this limited finding contradicts our earlier assumption based on the literature review that as individuals get older his valuation of these job aspects as commitment facilitator increases (Aranya and Jacobson, 1975; Stevens, Beyer and Trice, 1978; Hall and Mansfield, 1975). In fact, the overall score result seems to provide support for the view that no significant differences exist among different age groups and organisational commitment (Mannheim, 1975; Chusmir, 1985).

Occupational level was also significantly related to four commitment variables - job scope, work group, extrinsic rewards and work quantity - but not to the overall commitment factor (Table 39). Observation of the mean scores in Table 40-B suggests that if we drop the category of employees at the highest level (that is, top managers), the relationships between the four commitment variables and occupational level were as expected, that is, individuals at higher ranks will value these job aspects as sources of commitment more than persons at lower levels (hypothesis 6). On the whole, however, it appears that there is a trend towards curvilinear relationships between the four specific measures and occupational level, that is, as individuals reach the top level of position hierarchy, their valuation of job scope, work group, extrinsic rewards and work quantity as determinants of commitment decreases. One possible explanation for this result is that, those who are in the top level category (mostly directors, administrators and general managers) have satisfied their lower

Table 40-A

Mean Scores of Employees in Various Age Groups* on Commitment Variables

Commitment Variable	1 (N=90)	2 (N=101)	3 (N=77)	4 (N=73)	F Value	p level
Job Scope	5.68	5.62	5.81	5.68	0.92	n.s.
Intrinsic Rewards	4.61	4.23	4.64	4.37	3.11	0.026
Work Group	5.80	5.67	5.77	5.54	1.56	n.s.
Extrinsic Rewards	5.54	5.42	5.61	5.41	1.54	n.s.
Fairness	4.54	4.30	4.67	4.43	2.32	0.075
Supervision	2.76	2.79	2.78	3.00	0.78	n.s.
Quantity of Work	3.64	3.91	4.10	3.93	2.04	n.s.
Family Conditions	3.54	3.36	3.29	3.32	0.63	n.s.
Company Success	3.66	3.47	3.49	3.36	0.80	n.s.
Overall Commitment	39.77	38.65	40.15	39.03	1.69	n.s.

* 1 = Below 25 years 2 = 26-30 years 3 = 31-35 years 4 = Above 36 years

Table 40-B

Mean Scores of Employees in Various Occupational Levels* on Commitment Variables

Commitment Variable	1 (N=94)	2 (N=97)	3 (N=88)	4 (N=68)	F Value	p level
Job Scope	5.50	5.77	5.84	5.65	3.46	0.017
Intrinsic Rewards	4.43	4.49	4.58	4.28	1.04	n.s.
Work Group	5.61	5.78	5.88	5.50	3.46	0.017
Extrinsic Rewards	5.37	5.55	5.65	5.37	3.10	0.027
Fairness	4.49	4.58	4.52	4.28	1.43	n.s.
Supervision	2.72	2.89	2.69	2.99	1.38	n.s.
Quantity of Work	3.62	3.96	4.11	3.91	2.55	0.056
Family Conditions	3.39	3.48	3.24	3.46	0.60	n.s.
Company Success	3.69	3.53	3.37	3.42	1.15	n.s.
Overall Commitment	38.78	40.02	39.89	38.75	1.72	n.s.

* 1 = Shop Floor 2 = Supervisory Level 3 = Middle Level 4 = Top Level

order needs by virtue of their positions (such people in Nigeria use company car with driver, live in company maintained accommodation, well furnished air-conditioned office, etc.), therefore, extrinsic social and organisation rewards are not important to them as commitment reinforcers. Perhaps, people in such highest level will place significant more importance on intrinsic rewards (such as achievement, recognition and company success) as determinants of job commitment.

Level of education was another variable hypothesised to have significant main negative effect on commitment (hypothesis 7). As Table 39 shows, education was significantly related to job scope, work quantity and at the same time weakly related to extrinsic rewards. In all, better educated employees scored significantly higher than less educated employees (see Table 40-C). The t-statistics also showed that level of education was positively related to overall commitment and two other specific antecedents - intrinsic rewards and fairness, but the relationships were not strong. On the other hand, less educated workers gave significant more weight to company success as perceived determinant of job commitment than their highly educated counterparts.

Taken together, the results on the nature of the relationship between education and perceived sources of organisational commitment, we can conclude that when the organisation is perceived as providing opportunity for advancement through proper placement, and other intrinsic work-related rewards (e.g. responsibility and challenging/interesting job) as well as giving much work to do, better educated workers feel more committed than their less educated counterparts. To this extent, our results support the findings of other similar studies reviewed earlier (Gurin, et al., 1960; Mottaz, 1986a), though the result seems to negate our hypothesis.

A further inspection of Table 39 reveals that employees' perception of factors influencing commitment as measured by intrinsic rewards, fairness in organisation practices and family conditions varied by gender and type of organisation. In all of these variables, female employees (see Table 40-D) and those working in private organisation (see Table

Table 40-C

Mean Scores of Graduate and Non-Graduate Employees on Commitment Variables

Commitment Variable	Non-Graduate (N=174)	Graduate (N=169)	T Value	p level
Job Scope	5.57	5.83	-3.18	0.001
Intrinsic Rewards	4.44	4.46	-0.18	n.s.
Work Group	5.66	5.74	-0.94	n.s.
Extrinsic Rewards	5.44	5.54	-1.36	n.s.
Fairness	4.43	4.53	-0.91	n.s.
Supervision	2.87	2.78	0.77	n.s.
Quantity of Work	3.73	4.05	-2.50	0.007
Family Conditions	3.44	3.35	0.64	n.s.
Company Success	3.61	3.40	1.61	0.055
Overall Commitment	39.18	39.64	-0.88	n.s.

Table 40-D**Mean Scores of Male and Female Employees on Commitment Variables**

Commitment Variable	Male (N=275)	Female (N=69)	T Value	p level
Job Scope	5.70	5.65	0.49	n.s.
Intrinsic Rewards	4.38	4.71	-2.40	0.009
Work Group	5.70	5.71	-0.10	n.s.
Extrinsic Rewards	5.49	5.49	-0.01	n.s.
Fairness	4.43	4.67	-1.88	0.032
Supervision	2.84	2.73	0.77	n.s.
Quantity of Work	3.89	3.86	0.17	n.s.
Family Conditions	3.31	3.68	-2.12	0.019
Company Success	3.47	3.61	-0.69	n.s.
Overall Commitment	39.20	40.04	-1.23	n.s.

40-E) scored significantly higher than male and public sector employees respectively. Also, the results showed that, women as a group and private organisations' employees attached more importance to all of the nine variables combined (overall commitment) as perceived determinants of commitment to their organisations than their counterparts, although, the differences were not highly statistically significant. This limited finding on gender differences confirms what other previous studies on gender-commitment relationship have acknowledged (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Angle and Perry, 1981, Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982) with the possible exception of Rabinowitz, (1975) and Aranya, Kushnir and Valency, (1986).

However, this result must be viewed with caution since it is difficult to ascertain whether or not the relationships between commitment and the two variables (gender and type of organisation) were spurious. Most of the employees in the entire sample were public sector employees (60%), the majority of whom were male (84%). This made it difficult to isolate the unique effects of organisation type because gender also had significant effects on the same measures of commitment associated with type of organisation. Unfortunately, due to the small number of female employees in the total sample (20%), it was not possible to control for the effects of type of organisation and gender simultaneously.

Marital status was also found to be significantly related to quantity of work and weakly related to work group, extrinsic rewards and supervision (Table 39). Single employees were more likely than their married counterparts to place high importance on extrinsic considerations (extrinsic social and organisational rewards). On the other hand, married employees scored higher than single employees on the importance of work quantity and supervision (see Table 40-F). There were no significant differences between single and married employees in the importance placed on the remaining antecedents as well as the overall commitment factor.

The effects of personality as measured by Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ) on

Table 40-E**Mean Scores of Employees in Public and Private Sectors on Commitment Variables**

Commitment Variable	Public (N=203)	Private (N=140)	T Value	p level
Job Scope	5.69	5.70	-0.10	n.s.
Intrinsic Rewards	4.35	4.61	-2.16	0.016
Work Group	5.70	5.71	-0.05	n.s.
Extrinsic Rewards	5.48	5.51	-0.36	n.s.
Fairness	4.42	4.57	-1.45	0.074
Supervision	2.79	2.85	-0.48	n.s.
Quantity of Work	3.84	3.97	-0.91	n.s.
Family Conditions	3.27	3.58	-2.11	0.018
Company Success	3.54	3.46	0.56	n.s.
Overall Commitment	39.08	39.91	-1.49	0.069

Table 40-F**Mean Scores of Single and Married Employees on Commitment Variables**

Commitment Variable	Single (N=129)	Married (N=211)	T Value	p level
Job Scope	5.75	5.65	1.14	n.s.
Intrinsic Rewards	4.52	4.42	0.85	n.s.
Work Group	5.78	5.65	1.50	0.068
Extrinsic Rewards	5.56	5.45	1.35	0.089
Fairness	4.43	4.52	-0.83	n.s.
Supervision	2.72	2.87	-1.29	0.099
Quantity of Work	3.67	4.04	-2.78	0.003
Family Conditions	3.34	3.44	-0.73	n.s.
Company Success	3.43	3.55	-0.89	n.s.
Overall Commitment	39.18	39.57	0.72	n.s.

organisational commitment were also limited. As can be seen in Table 39, level of extraversion was positively associated with job scope, extrinsic rewards and fairness, but did not have significant effects on any other commitment variable (see also, Table 40-G). Of the nine antecedents of commitment, five revealed significant differences on the neuroticism (less or more) scale. The results showed that, intrinsic rewards, supervision, family conditions and company success emerged as perceived important determinants of commitment for more-neurotic employees than their less-neurotic counterparts who themselves placed greater value on work group (see Table 40-H). The results also indicate that level of neuroticism was moderately associated with overall commitment factor (Table 39). Moreover, four commitment variables distinguished between less psychotics and more psychotics. They were: company success, where more psychotics had higher scores than their less psychotics counterparts, and job scope, work group and extrinsic rewards, where the opposite was true (see Table 40-I). This finding suggests that for those employees who are more-psychotic their perceived sources of commitment are unrelated to job aspects such as job scope, work group and extrinsic rewards.

Finally, the result on the relationship between self-esteem at work and commitment variables showed that those high on self-esteem relied less on the job for their commitment to the organisation (Table 39). This is due to the fact that out of the nine commitment variables employees who were low in self-esteem placed greater value on four (intrinsic rewards, fairness, supervision, and work quantity) as well as on all of the nine variables combined (overall commitment) as perceived determinants of commitment than those high on self-esteem (Table 40-J).

The interactive effects of selected characteristics were also examined. The analyses found several significant interactions (see Table 41). For example, cultural background and self-esteem at work, and organisation type and occupational level had significant interactive effects on job scope (Table 41-A); interactions between organisation type and cultural background, between organisation type and occupational level, and between occupational

Table 40-G

Mean Scores of Introverted and Extraverted Employees on Commitment Variables

Commitment Variable	Introvert (N=157)	Extravert (N=152)	T Value	p level
Job Scope	5.66	5.78	-1.47	0.072
Intrinsic Rewards	4.46	4.55	-0.78	n.s.
Work Group	5.71	5.74	-0.35	n.s.
Extrinsic Rewards	5.45	5.58	-1.57	0.058
Fairness	4.42	4.63	-1.87	0.031
Supervision	2.75	2.84	-0.73	n.s.
Quantity of Work	3.91	3.91	-0.03	n.s.
Family Conditions	3.48	3.31	1.17	n.s.
Company Success	3.47	3.54	-0.48	n.s.
Overall Commitment	39.34	39.84	-0.91	n.s.

Table 40-H**Mean Scores of Less-Neurotic and More-Neurotic Employees on Commitment Variables**

Commitment Variable	Less-Neurotic (N=142)	More-Neurotic (N=151)	T Value	p level
Job Scope	5.78	5.66	1.44	0.076
Intrinsic Rewards	4.35	4.58	-1.89	0.030
Work Group	5.81	5.63	1.99	0.024
Extrinsic Rewards	5.55	5.47	1.02	n.s.
Fairness	4.41	4.58	-1.49	0.069
Supervision	2.69	2.92	-1.77	0.039
Quantity of Work	3.83	4.00	-1.24	n.s.
Family Conditions	3.30	3.56	-1.72	0.043
Company Success	3.36	3.62	-1.75	0.040
Overall Commitment	39.13	39.97	-1.47	0.071

Table 40-I**Mean Scores of Less-Psychotic and More-Psychotic Employees on Commitment Variables**

Commitment Variable	Less-Psychotic (N=153)	More-Psychotic (N=150)	T Value	p level
Job Scope	5.79	5.65	1.65	0.050
Intrinsic Rewards	4.50	4.43	0.59	n.s.
Work Group	5.83	5.61	2.46	0.007
Extrinsic Rewards	5.60	5.41	2.45	0.008
Fairness	4.52	4.50	0.18	n.s.
Supervision	2.74	2.90	-1.27	n.s.
Quantity of Work	3.98	3.84	0.97	n.s.
Family Conditions	3.35	3.47	-0.85	n.s.
Company Success	3.36	3.67	-2.18	0.015
Overall Commitment	39.68	39.44	0.42	n.s.

Table 40-J

Mean Scores of Employees with High and Low Levels of Self-esteem on Commitment Variables

Commitment Variable	Low (N=170)	High (N=175)	T Value	p level
Job Scope	5.65	5.74	-1.12	n.s.
Intrinsic Rewards	4.62	4.30	2.87	0.002
Work Group	5.61	5.79	-2.06	0.020
Extrinsic Rewards	5.49	5.49	0.06	n.s.
Fairness	4.66	4.31	3.38	0.000
Supervision	3.01	2.63	3.25	0.000
Quantity of Work	4.05	3.73	2.46	0.007
Family Conditions	3.49	3.30	1.34	0.090
Company Success	3.52	3.51	0.09	n.s.
Overall Commitment	40.02	38.85	2.25	0.013

level and education were significant for work quantity (see Table 41-C); and, type of organisation and occupational level had significant interactive effect on overall commitment (see Table 41-H).

The patterns of the interactive relationships are interesting. In the case of cultural background and level of self-esteem at work, valuation of job scope as perceived determinant of commitment was higher among the Hausas and the Yorubas who were high on self-esteem (Figure 11) while the same was true for intrinsic rewards and supervision among low-scorers on self-esteem across the three cultural groups (see Figure 12 and 13 respectively). However in general, Figures 11 to 13 showed that the differences between the low and high esteem Hausa employees were larger than the differences between the same group among the Ibo and the Yoruba groups. Thus, self-esteem at work is more strongly related to organisational commitment (as measured by job scope, intrinsic rewards and supervision) among the Hausas than among the other two cultural groups. A significant interactive effect was also observed between cultural background and type of organisation on employees' perception of work quantity as a source of commitment. As depicted in Figure 14, the Yorubas and the Ibos who were private organisation employees gave highest and lowest weights to work quantity respectively.

Moreover, Figures 15 to 20 on the patterns of the interactive relationships between type of organisation and occupational level showed that significant differences occurred mainly among supervisory employees working in government and those working in private organisations. These patterns held for the overall perceived source of commitment as well as all specific commitment variables that were significantly related to the interaction of type of organisation and occupational level except work quantity, where the largest difference occurred between shop floor employees who were working in government establishments and those in private sector (Figure 20). It can also be seen that employees who were on supervisory level to the top management level in the private sectors had higher scores on

Table 41

Two-way Analysis of Variance (Interactions) on Commitment Indicators

	Mean	Source	F	p
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A Job Scope

	Hausa	Ibo	Yoruba
Low Self-esteem	5.25	5.79	5.71
High Self-esteem	5.80	5.67	5.77

Self-esteem (A)	1.61	
Culture (B)	1.51	
Interaction (A x B)	4.62	0.010

	Shop Floor Level	Supervisory Level	Middle Level	Top Level
Public	5.51	5.62	5.89	5.76
Private	5.47	5.95	5.77	5.48

Organisation Type (A)	0.00	
Occupational Level (B)	3.45	
Interaction (A x B)	2.34	0.073

Table 41 continued.....

	Mean	Source	F	p
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B Intrinsic Rewards

	Hausa	Ibo	Yoruba
Low Self-esteem	4.73	4.72	4.51
High Self-esteem	3.92	4.49	4.36

Self-esteem (A)	8.28		
Culture (B)	2.43		
Interaction (A x B)	2.80	0.062	

	Shop Floor Level	Supervisory Level	Middle Level	Top Level
Public	4.49	4.20	4.52	4.15
Private	4.36	4.84	4.65	4.48

Organisation Type (A)	4.70		
Occupational Level (B)	1.03		
Interaction (A x B)	2.24	0.083	

Table 41 continued.....

	Mean	Source	F	p
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C Work Quantity

	Hausa	Ibo	Yoruba
Public Sector	3.80	3.95	3.78
Private Sector	3.90	3.58	4.39

Organisation Type (A)	1.17		
Culture (B)	1.28		
Interaction (A x B)	5.26	0.006	

	Shop Floor Level	Supervisory Level	Middle Level	Top Level
Public	3.90	3.74	4.02	3.66
Private	3.16	4.22	4.24	4.29

Organisation Type (A)	0.81		
Occupational Level (B)	2.61		
Interaction (A x B)	5.52	0.001	

	Shop Floor Level	Supervisory Level	Middle Level	Top Level
Non-Graduate	3.37	4.02	3.88	3.85
Graduate	4.31	3.78	4.23	3.93

Education (A)	3.85		
Occupational Level (B)	1.54		
Interaction (A x B)	3.56	0.015	

Table 41 continued.....

	Mean	Source	F	p
--	------	--------	---	---

D Supervision

	Hausa	Ibo	Yoruba
Low Self-esteem	3.29	2.99	2.92
High Self-esteem	2.45	2.54	2.86

Self-esteem (A)	10.05		
Culture (B)	0.35		
Interaction (A x B)	3.46	0.033	

E Work Group

	Shop Floor Level	Supervisory Level	Middle Level	Top Level
Public	5.64	5.62	5.93	5.61
Private	5.56	5.96	5.79	5.34

Organisation Type (A)	0.00		
Occupational Level (B)	3.19		
Interaction (A x B)	2.21	0.087	

Table 41 continued.....

	Mean		Source	F	p	
F Extrinsic Rewards						
	Shop Floor Level	Supervisory Level	Middle Level	Top Level		
Public	5.40	5.40	5.68	5.44		
Private	5.33	5.73	5.61	5.24		
				Organisation Type (A)	0.09	
				Occupational Level (B)	3.01	
				Interaction (A x B)	2.23	0.084
G Fairness						
	Shop Floor Level	Supervisory Level	Middle Level	Top Level		
Low Self-esteem	4.97	4.72	4.55	4.42		
High Self-esteem	4.18	4.45	4.47	4.09		
				Self-esteem (A)	12.71	
				Occupational Level (B)	1.84	
				Interaction (A x B)	2.18	0.090
H Overall Commitment						
	Shop Floor Level	Supervisory Level	Middle Level	Top Level		
Public	39.41	38.44	39.75	38.66		
Private	37.78	41.92	40.04	38.91		
				Organisation Type (A)	2.04	
				Occupational Level (B)	1.54	
				Interaction (A x B)	4.43	0.005

Figure 11

Interaction of Self-esteem and Culture on Job Scope

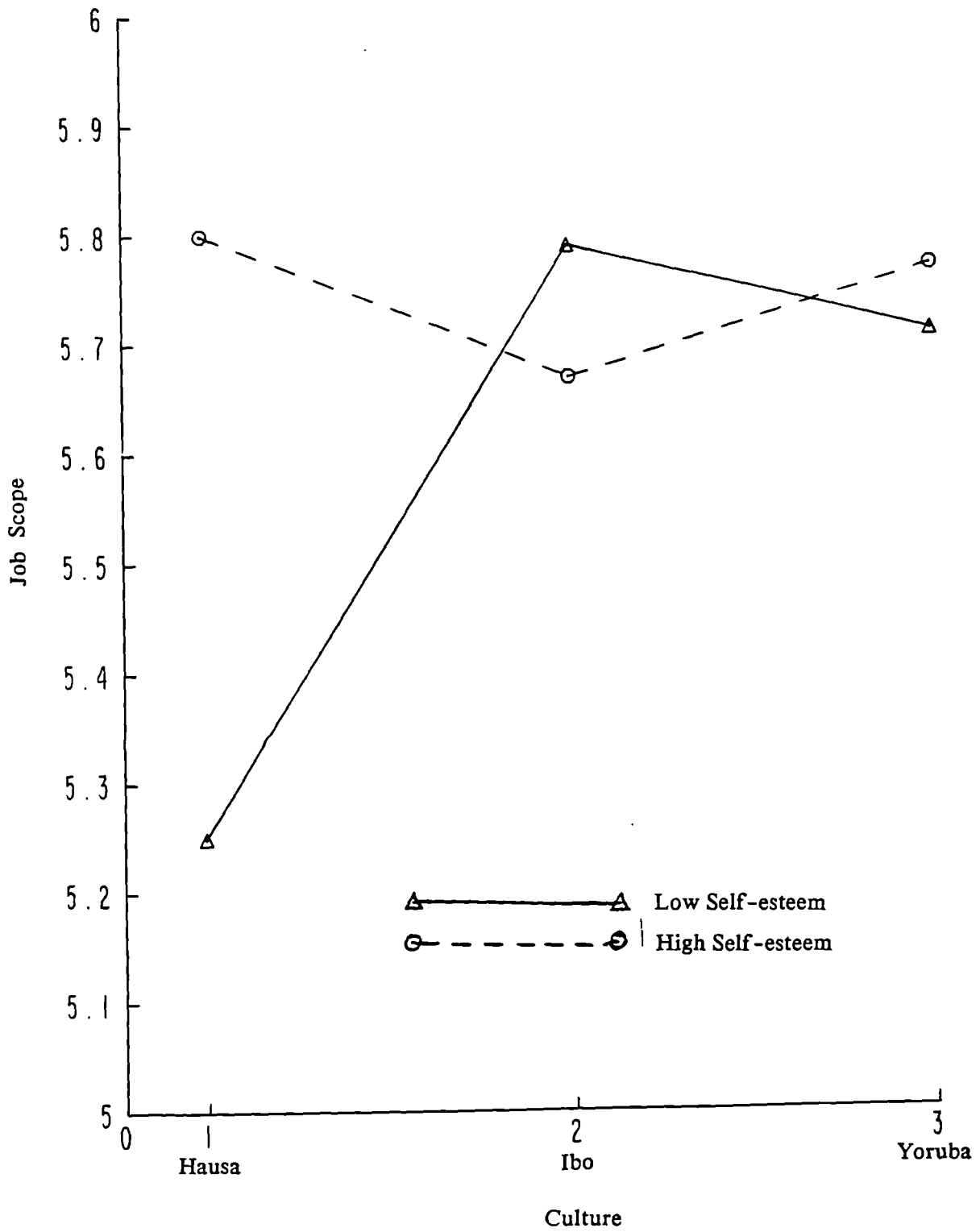


Figure 12

Interaction of Self-esteem and Culture on Intrinsic Rewards

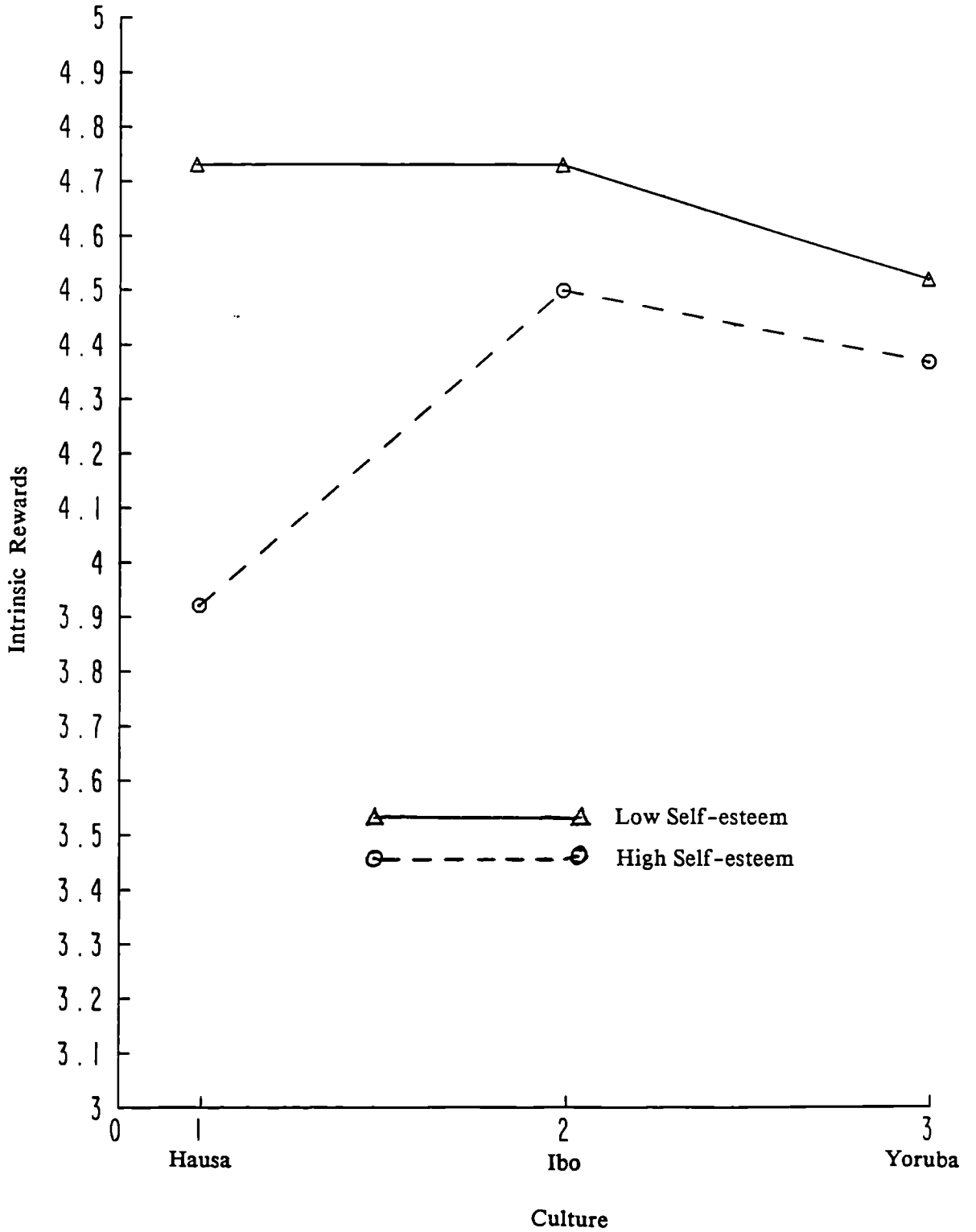


Figure 13

Interaction of Self-esteem and Culture on Supervision

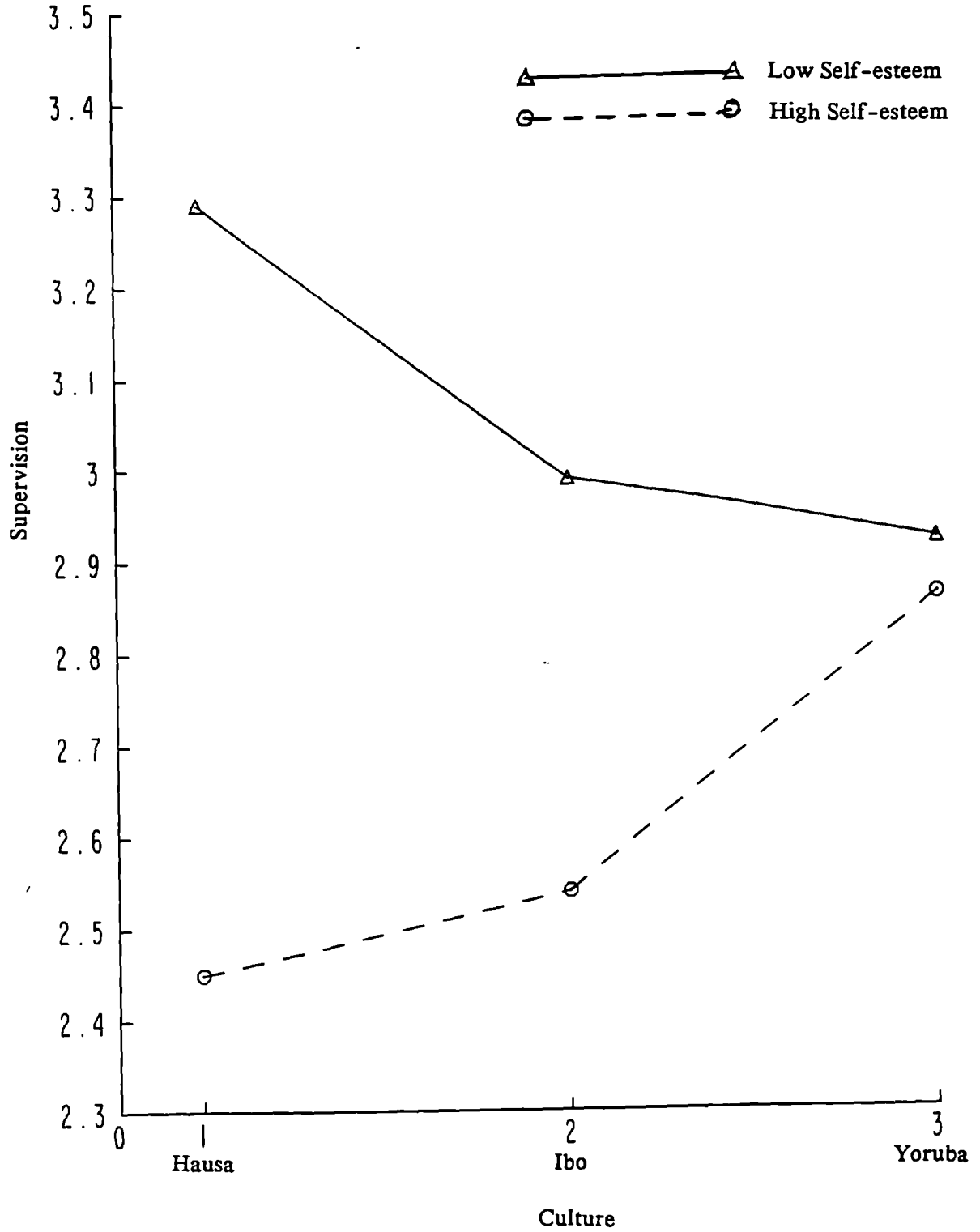


Figure 14

Interaction of Organisation Type and Culture on Work Quantity

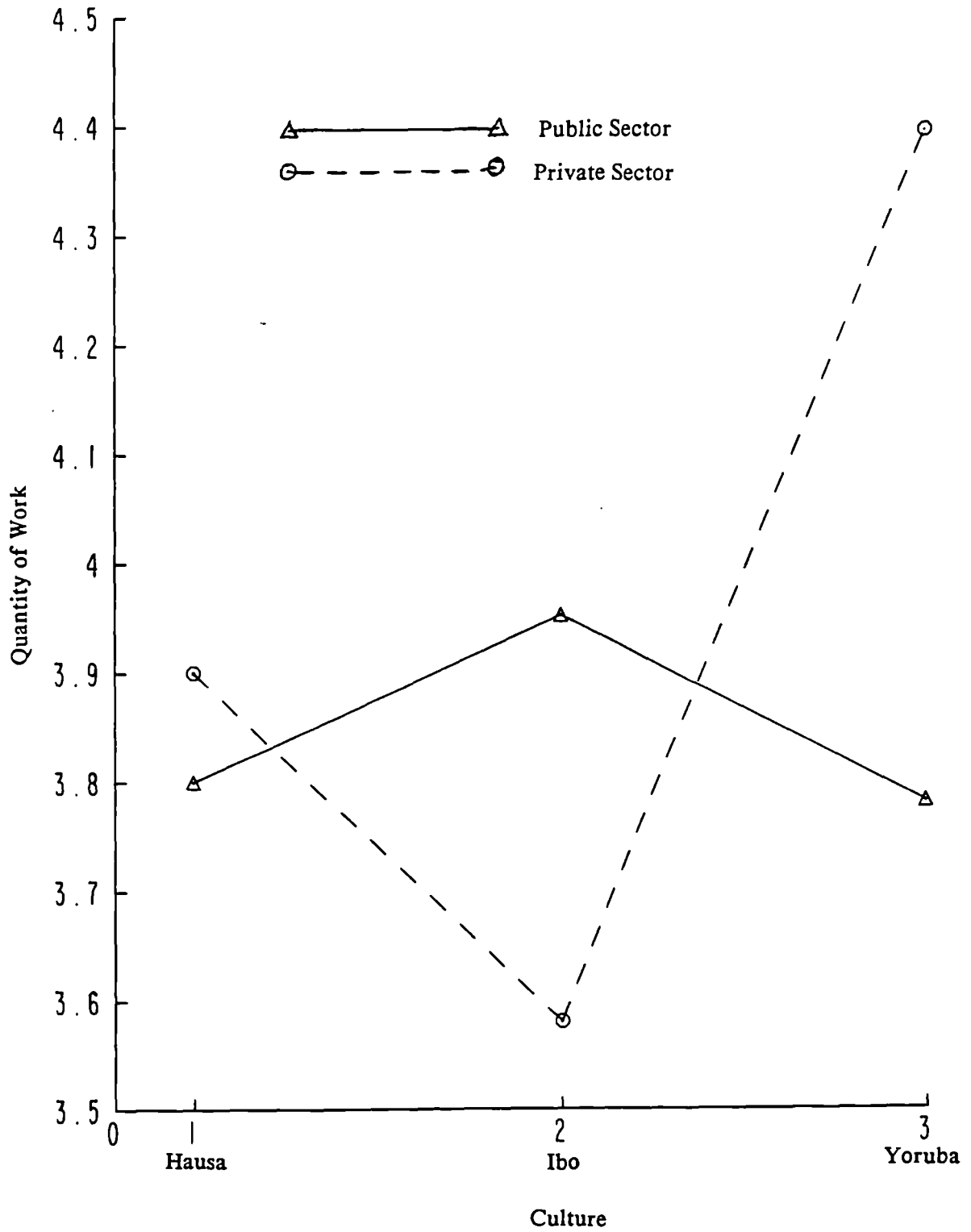


Figure 15

Interaction of Organisation Type and Occupational Level on Overall Commitment

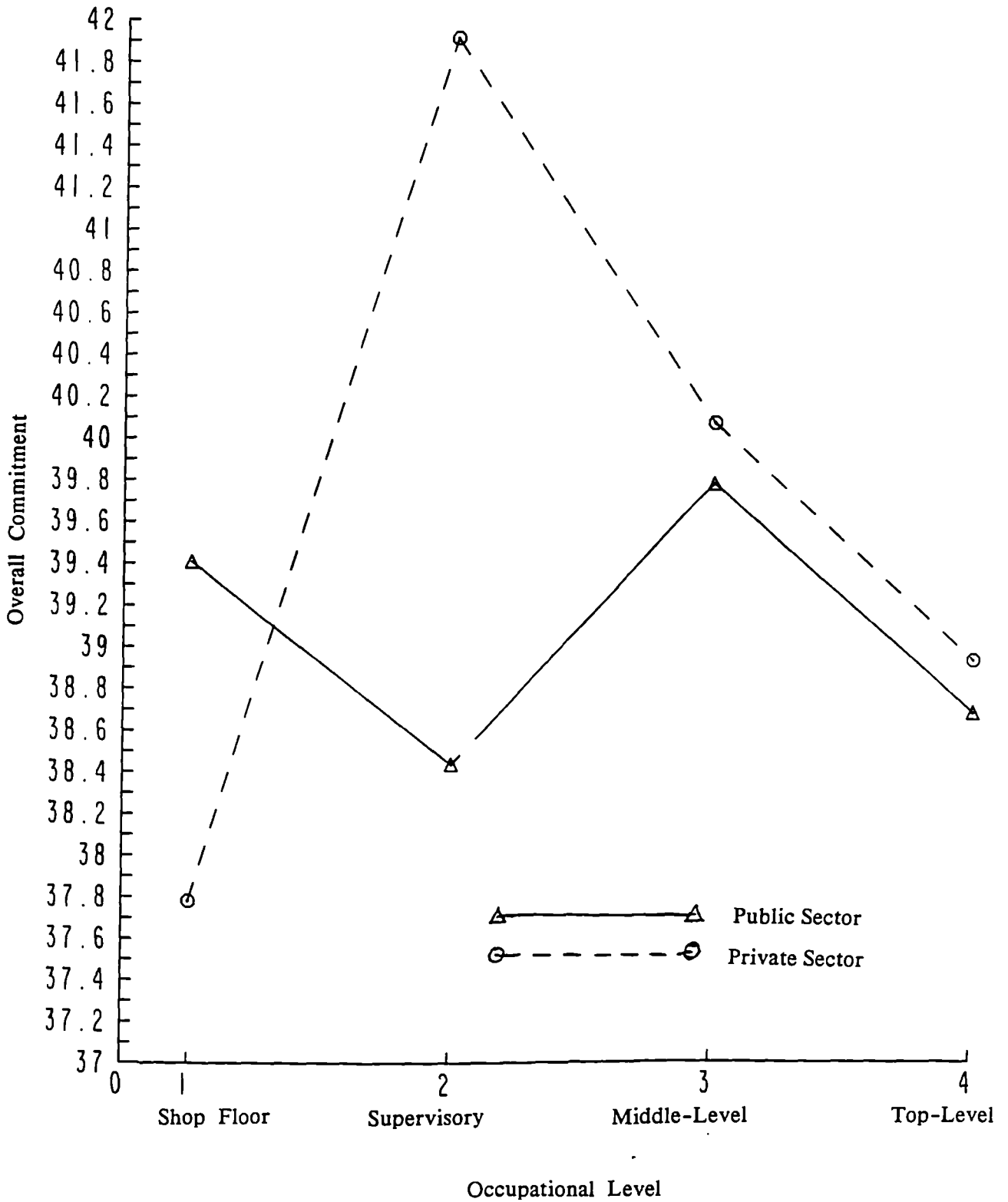


Figure 16

Interaction of Organisation Type and Occupational Level on Job Scope

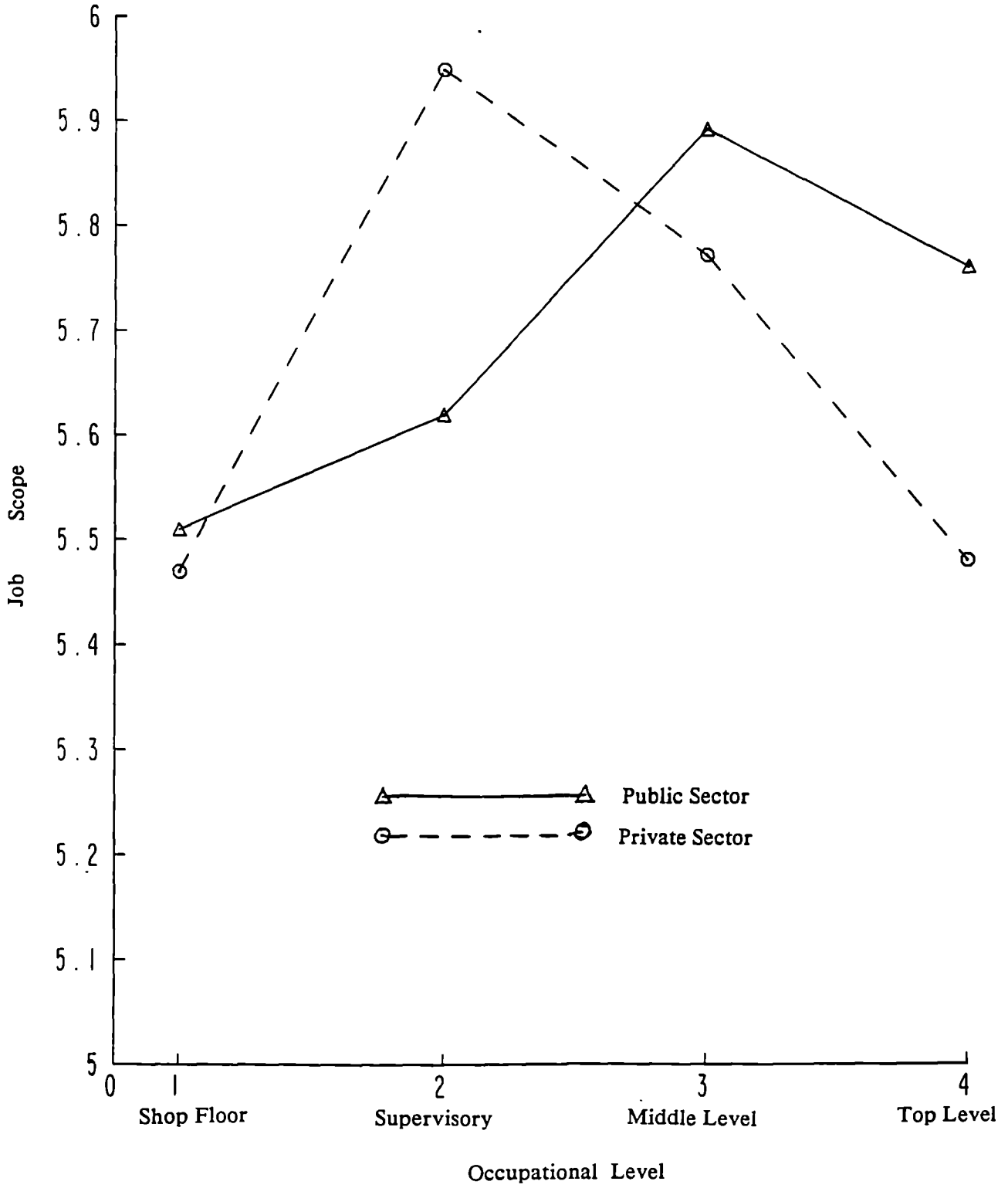


Figure 17

Interaction of Organisation Type and Occupational Level on Intrinsic Rewards

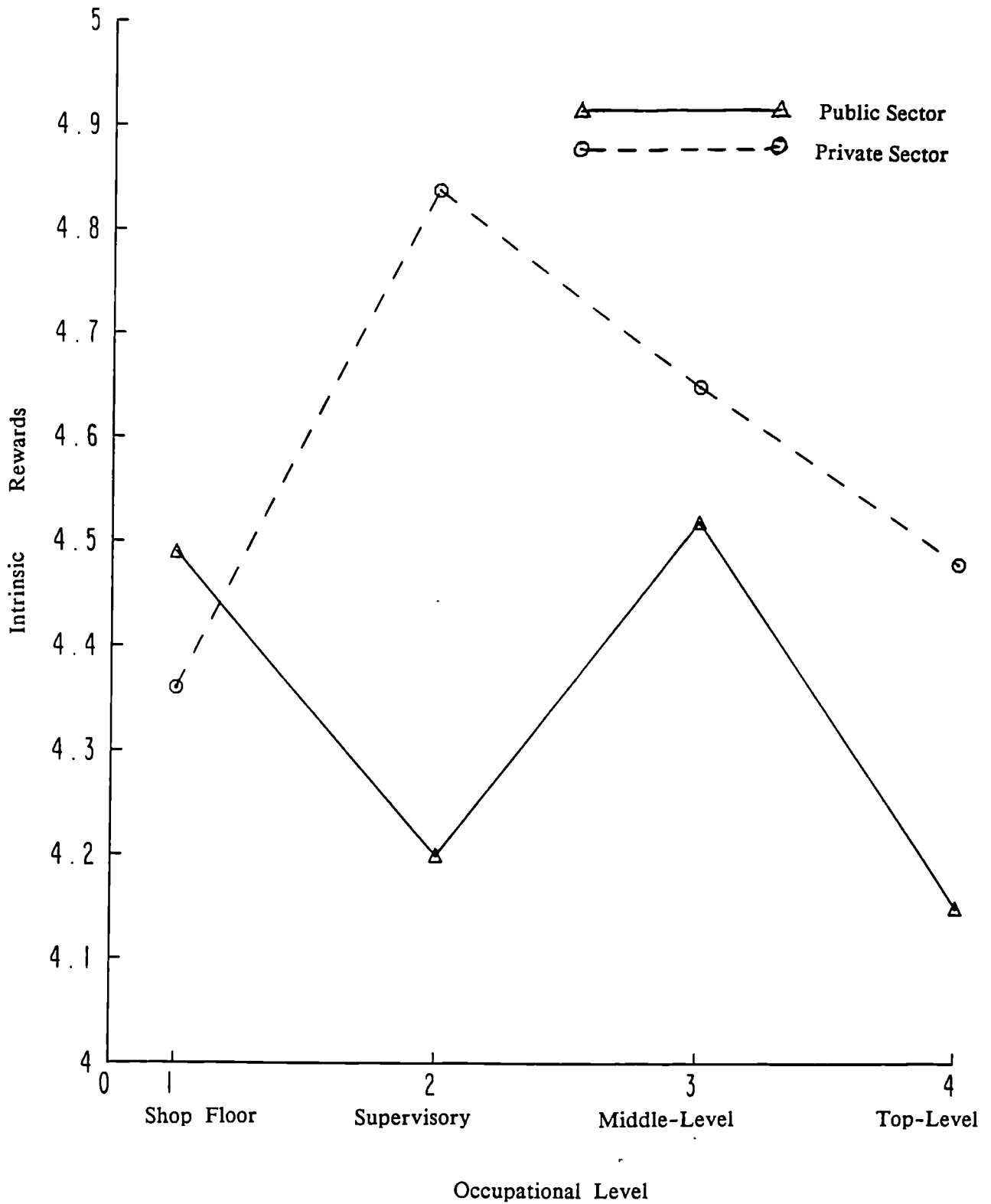


Figure 18

Interaction of Organisation Type and Occupational Level on Work Group

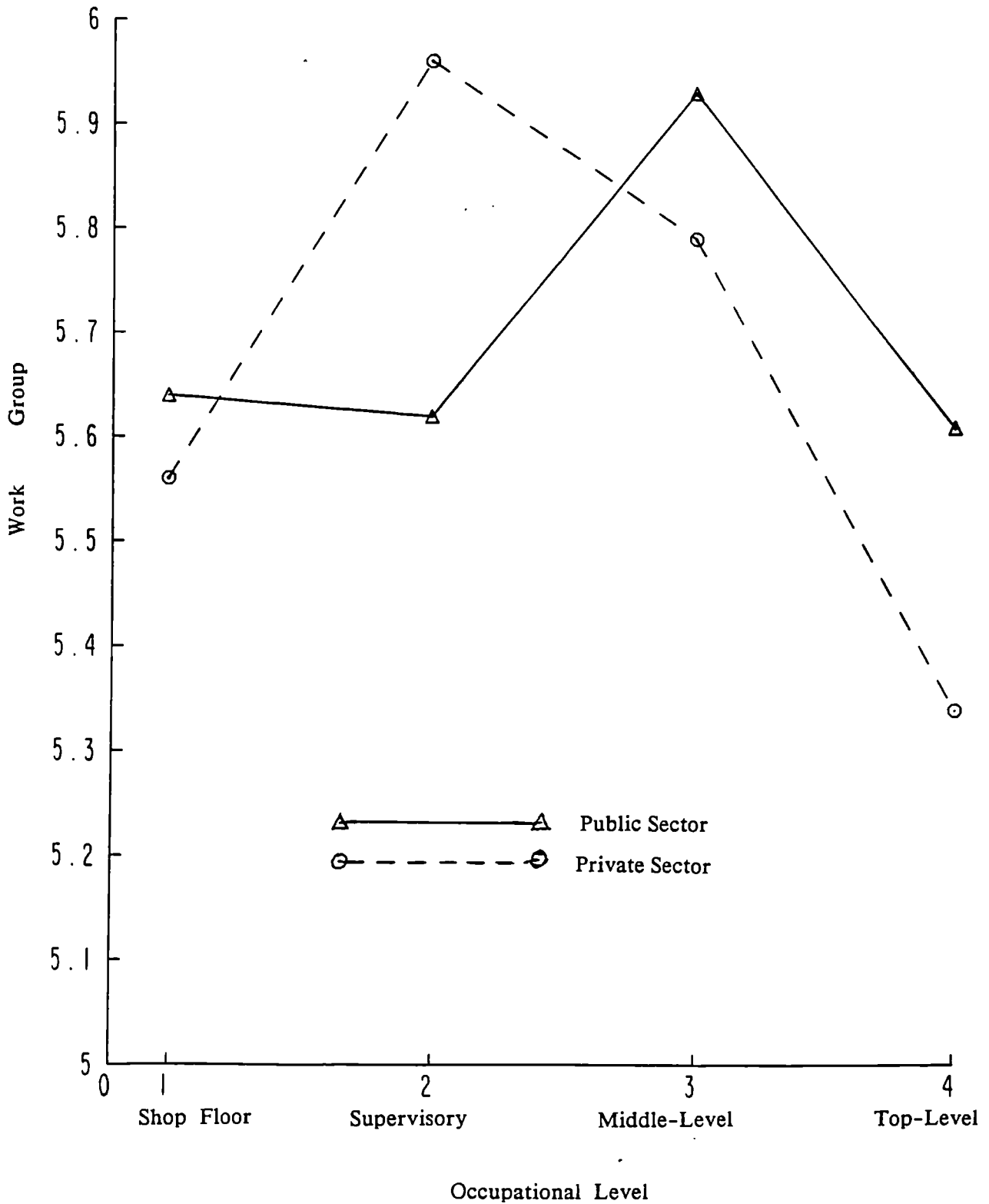


Figure 19

Interaction of Organisation Type and Occupational Level on Extrinsic Rewards

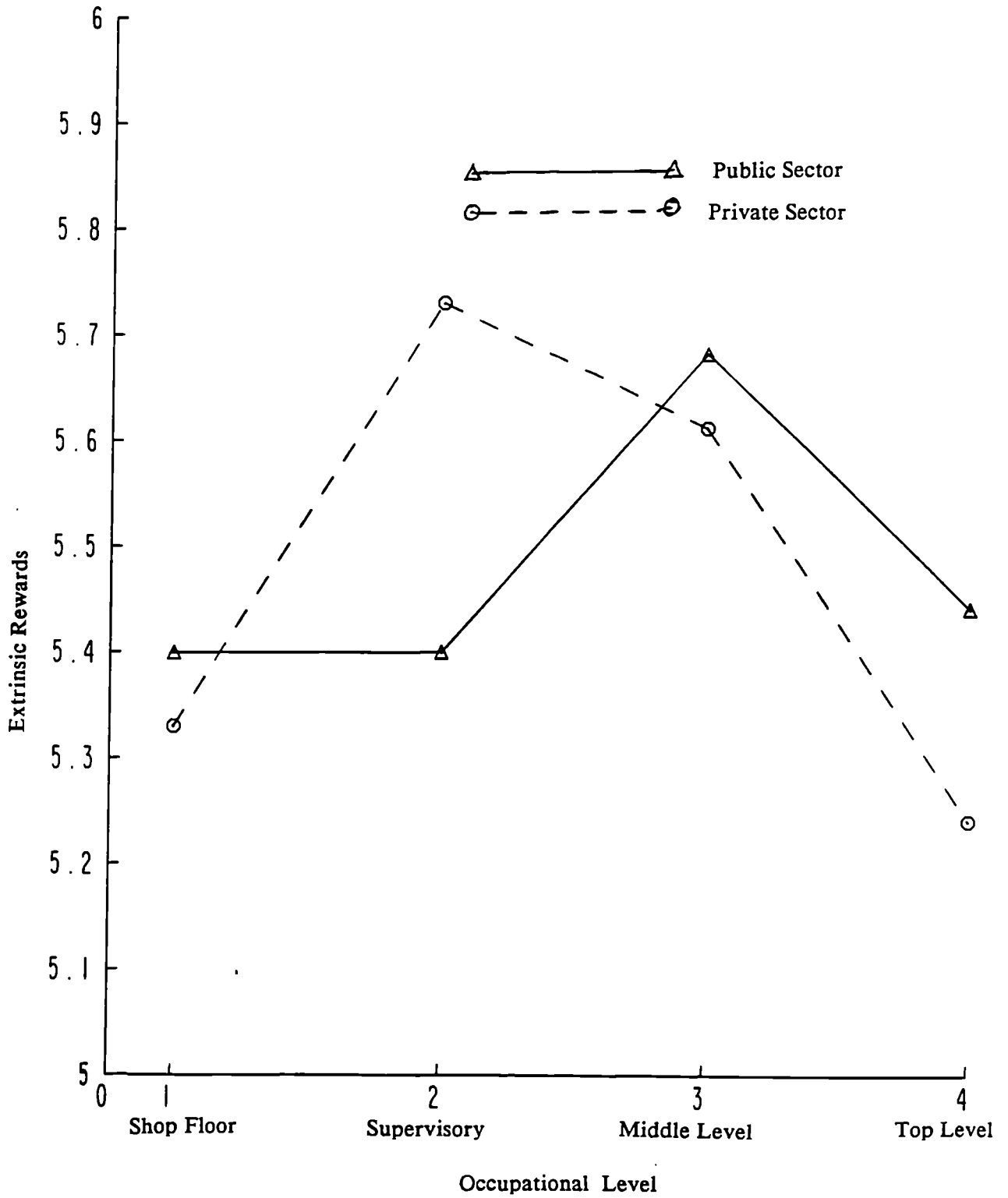
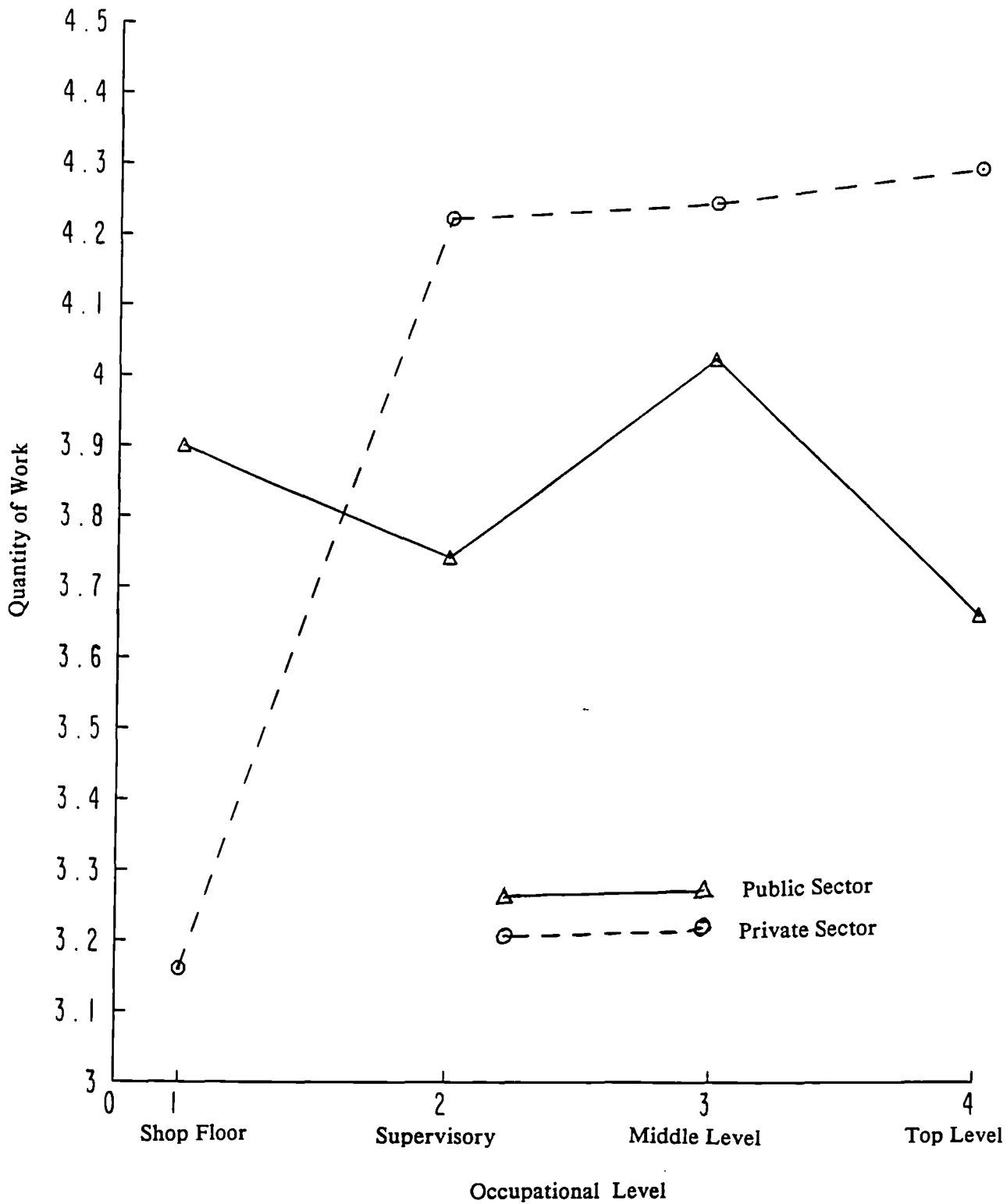


Figure 20

Interaction of Organisation Type and Occupational Level on Work Quantity



overall commitment (Figure 15), intrinsic rewards (Figure 17) and work quantity (Figure 20) than their counterparts in the public sectors while the opposite was true for the shop floor workers.

This result is consistent with that of Paine et al. (1966), who found that managers from business and industry compared with their counterparts in government agencies, feel better about their jobs. It also provides support for our assumption stated earlier that, for individuals at higher occupational level, intrinsic rewards will be more associated with their perceived sources of commitment than instrumental or extrinsic social and organisational rewards.

Turning now to the pattern of interactive relationships between occupational level and level of self-esteem at work (Figure 21), it can be seen that, those who were low in self-esteem across the four hierarchical levels produced high scores on fairness in organisation practices with the largest difference between shop floor employees who were high and those who were low in self-esteem at work. This pattern also revealed a negative relationship between occupational level and fairness among low self-esteem scorers while the reverse was true for high esteem scorers especially if we drop the highest occupational level. A further inspection of Figure 21 showed that, shop floor employees who were low in self-esteem had the highest score while top management employees who were high in self-esteem had the lowest score.

Finally, organisational commitment as measured by work quantity was found to be significantly related to the interaction of level of education and occupational level (Figure 22). The result showed that highly educated shop floor employees valued work quantity more than less educated employees in the same occupational level. Thus, this finding indicates that better educated shop floor employees (who are likely to be engaged in white-collar occupations such as clerical and sales) will be more committed to their organisations than their less educated counterparts (who presumably engaged in blue-collar occupations such as operatives and labourers) in a situation where there is always much work to do.

Figure 21

Interaction of Self-esteem and Occupational Level on Fairness

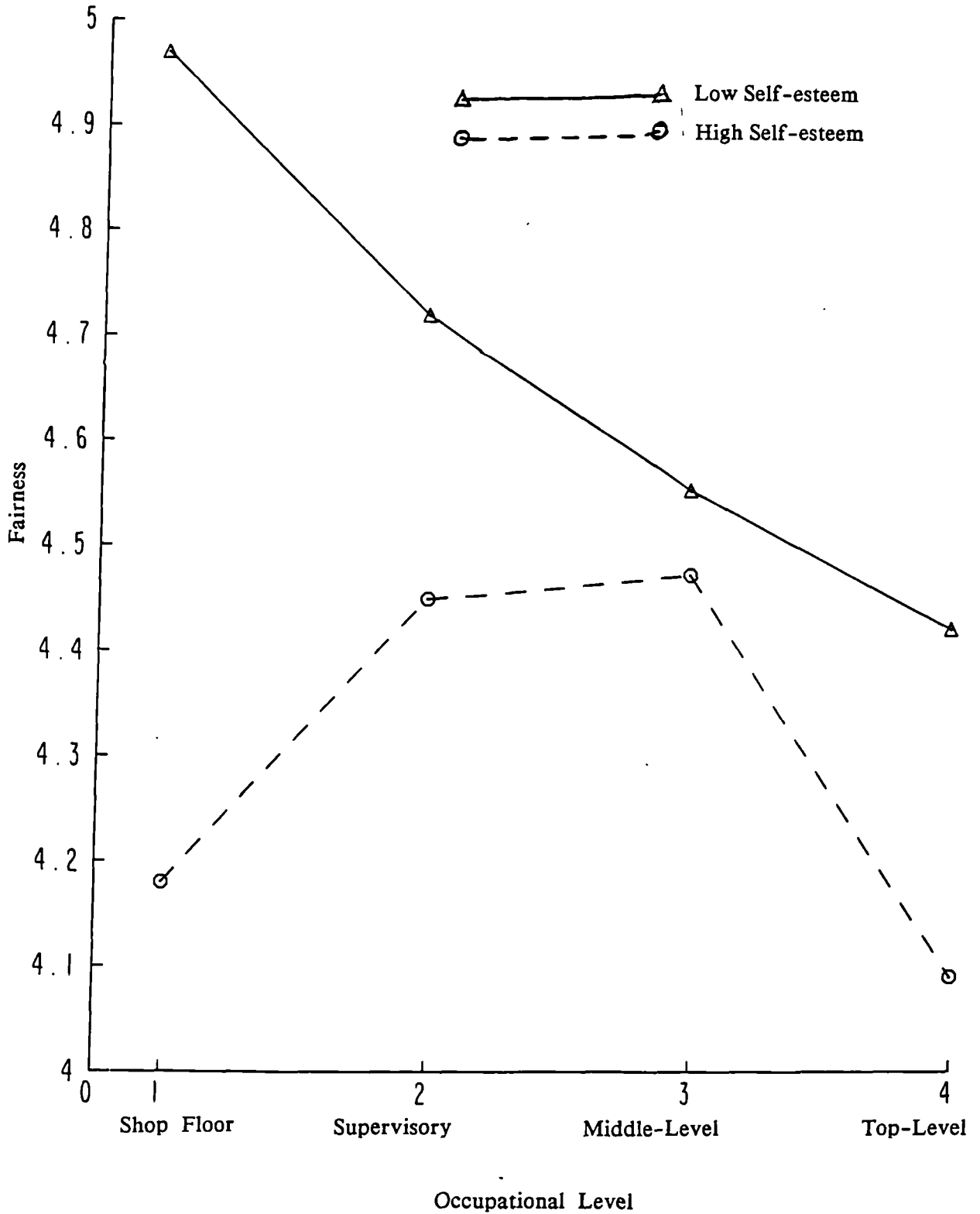
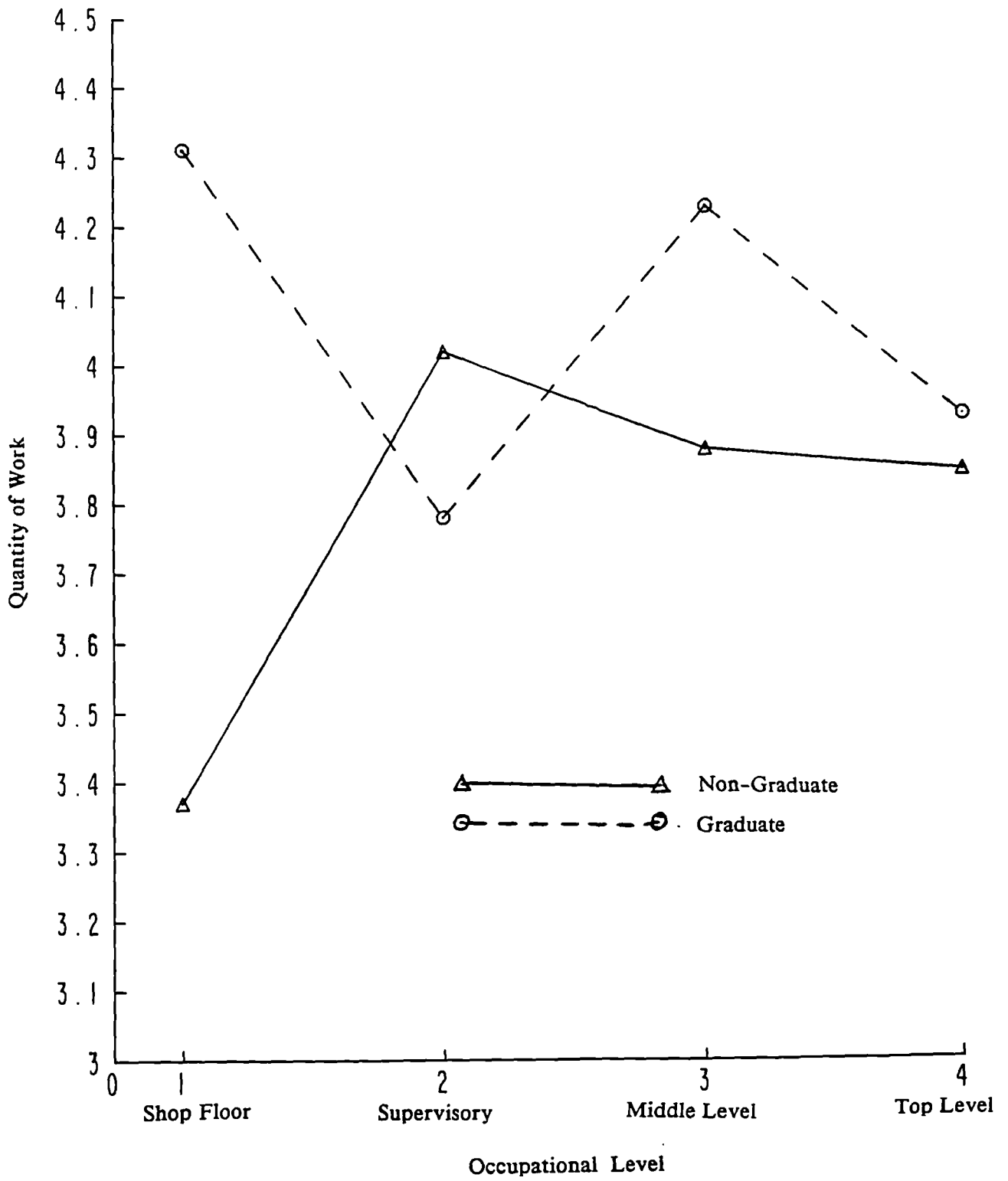


Figure 22

Interaction of Education and Occupational Level on Work Quantity



(iv) In order to estimate the conjoint effects of demographic variables (age, marital status, education, gender and number of dependents), organisational influences or exchange-based measures (occupational level, work experience and type of organisation) and personality variables (extraversion, neuroticism, psychoticism and self-esteem) on commitment measures separately and to assess the predictive utility of each independent variable, several multiple regression analyses were computed.

When using multiple regression analysis, it is necessary first to consider the problem of multicollinearity. This problem arises when two or more independent variables in a regression equation are "highly" interrelated (Pedhazur, 1982). Such high intercorrelations may lead to a reduction in the magnitude in the partial regression coefficients and also increase their standard errors (Mottaz, 1987).

One method of detecting the presence of multicollinearity is to scan the data for high correlation coefficients among the independent variables. While there is little agreement about what constitutes a high correlation coefficient, the cut-off value is generally 0.70 (Farrar and Glauber, 1967). Accordingly, in order to test for multicollinearity in the present data, a correlation matrix was computed for all of the twelve independent variables in the three predictor sets. Examination of the data suggested that multicollinearity was not a serious problem (no correlation coefficient exceeded 0.70). As might be expected, the highest correlations among the independent variables were .67 (age and work experience) and .62 (age and occupational level). Among the remaining 142 correlation coefficients, only 2 were above .50 (see Appendix 8). Thus, multicollinearity does not appear to be severe in the present study.

Attention was then focused on testing the impacts of the three sets of predictor variables on each of the nine specific measures, as well as the overall measure of commitment for each cultural group. Toward this end, the conjoint effect of all components comprising each of the predictor sets were forced into separate multiple regression equations. Multiple

correlations between each of the predictor sets and the dependent variables were thus computed. Since interest centered on which set of predictors was more strongly related to each commitment measure for each of the three cultural groups, all the relevant variables in each of the three predictor categories were used in their respective analyses. Only statistically significant results for each cultural group are reported in Table 42. However, when a predictor set was found to be significant for any of the commitment measures, results of other predictors were also reported for purposes of comparability. For example, personality variables among the Hausas (Table 42-A), emerged as a significant predictor of job scope while other predictor sets were not but their results were included in the Table.

Taking each predictor set in turn, our results showed that, demographic variables as a group emerged as the best predictor of organisational commitment as measured by work group (Table 42-A) among the Hausas (multiple $R = 0.39$, $F = 2.72$, $p=0.02$) and by work quantity (Table 42-B) among the Ibos (multiple $R = 0.32$, $F = 2.51$, $p=0.03$). The overall predictive relationship of the demographic variables set was not significant for any of the commitment measures among the Yorubas (Table 42-C). The second predictor set (exchange-based variables), was weakly related to only work group ($R = 0.30$, $F = 2.49$, $p=0.07$) for the Hausas and strongly related to four measures (Intrinsic rewards, $p=0.05$; fairness, $p=0.04$; work quantity, $p=0.003$; and family conditions, $p=0.03$) for the Yorubas. Results of the multiple regression showed that this predictor set has no significant impact on any of the commitment variables for the Ibos. Personality variables showed significant relationships with six commitment measures (job scope, $p=0.000$; intrinsic rewards, $p=0.04$; work group, $p=0.000$; extrinsic rewards, $p=0.03$; fairness, $p=0.05$; and supervision, $p<0.000$) for the Hausa group, with work quantity ($p=0.03$) and overall commitment ($p=0.04$) for the Ibos, and with none for the Yoruba group. It is evidently clear from this comparison - the impact of each predictor set on employees' commitment among the three cultural groups - that, none of the three predictor sets exerted a significant impact on any of the commitment variables across the three sub-samples (Table 42).

Table 42

Predictions of Specific Commitment Indicator from Conjoint Effect of Variables Specified in each of the Three Predictor Sets

A Hausa (N = 80)

Predictor Sets	Dependent Variables																				
	Work Group			Quantity of Work			Job Scope			Intrinsic Rewards			Extrinsic Rewards			Fairness			Supervision		
	R	R ²	F	R	R ²	F	R	R ²	F	R	R ²	F	R	R ²	F	R	R ²	F	R	R ²	F
Demographic Variables	.39	.16	2.72**	.35	.13	2.16*	.32	.10	1.72	.24	.06	0.89	.25	.06	1.02	.25	.06	0.99	.32	.11	1.81
Exchange-Based Measures	.30	.09	2.49*	.19	.03	0.91	.18	.03	0.82	.24	.06	1.63	.23	.05	1.43	.21	.05	1.22	.07	.01	0.14
Personality Variables	.54	.30	7.87***	.18	.03	0.63	.52	.28	7.13***	.35	.12	2.68**	.36	.13	2.86**	.34	.12	2.52**	.47	.23	5.45***

*p<0.10

**p<0.05

***p<0.01

Table 42 continued.....

B Ibo (N = 119)

Predictor Sets	Dependent Variables								
	Job Scope		Quantity of Work		Overall Commitment				
	R	F	R	F	R	F			
Demographic Variables	.28	1.93*	.32	.10	2.51**	.10	.10	.21	
Exchange-Based Measures	.20	.04	1.59	.22	.05	2.09	.13	.02	0.68
Personality Variables	.18	.03	1.01	.30	.09	2.77**	.29	.08	2.54**

C Yoruba (N = 151)

Predictor Sets	Dependent Variables											
	Intrinsic Rewards		Fairness		Quantity of Work		Family Conditions					
	R	F	R	F	R	F	R	F				
Demographic Variables	.13	.02	0.53	.15	.03	0.75	.16	.02	0.74	.18	.03	0.95
Exchange-Based Measures	.22	.05	2.60**	.23	.05	2.84**	.25	.06	3.20**	.24	.06	3.14**
Personality Variables	.18	.04	1.33	.17	.03	1.02	.15	.02	0.85	.21	.04	1.68

*p<0.10

**n<0.05

***n<0.01

Taken together, these findings indicate that the impact of each predictor set on commitment differs from one cultural group to the other. For example, personality variables (levels of extraversion, neuroticism, psychoticism and self-esteem at work) as a group accounted for significant levels of variance on commitment to the organisation as measured by job scope, intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, and fairness for the Hausas but not for the Ibo and the Yoruba groups while organisational/exchange-based variables (occupational level, years of working experience (tenure) and type of organisation) as a group have significant impacts on intrinsic rewards, fairness and work quantity for the Yoruba group but not for the Hausa and the Ibo groups.

On a more specific level, interest was next focused on an attempt to identify those specific variables which exerted significant influence on all of the perceived sources of organisational commitment. To accomplish this, we ran ten stepwise multiple regression analyses for each cultural group, involving all variables in the three sets of predictors (independent variables) and treating each antecedent of commitment as the dependent variables. The results are presented in Table 43.

The standardised regression coefficients (Beta weights) are being used to present the regression results so that the relative contributions of each independent variable on the dependent variable can be compared. The multiple correlation coefficient (R) and coefficient of determination (R^2) were obtained from the final step in the multiple regression computations where all of the significant independent variables were entered into the equation. Only those variables with at least a significance level of $p < 0.05$ (approximate t value of 2.00) are presented except where theoretical points are being pursued or comparisons made; then the probability level for inclusion was $p < 0.10$ (approximate t value of 1.70). Appendix 8 may be consulted to determine what predictor variables were included as independent variables in each of the regressions.

If an independent variable was found to be significant for any of the three cultural

groups, it was included in the relevant Tables for all of the other groups for purposes of comparability. For instance, self-esteem at work (Table 43-A) was statistically significant for the Hausas and not significant for the other groups, but it was kept for all of the three cultural groups.

Taking each perceived source of commitment in turn, Table 43-A showed that, self-esteem, psychoticism and extraversion among the Hausas, and education among the Ibos, were significantly associated ($F = 9.08$, $p=0.000$ and $F = 7.45$, $p=0.007$ respectively) with job scope. The total amount of explained variance in commitment as measured by job scope for each of these two groups were 26% and 6% respectively. None of the 12 independent variables showed significant relationships with job scope for the Yoruba group.

The data on associations between intrinsic rewards and the predictor variables (Table 43-B) revealed that, three variables entered the regression equation for the Hausa group, none for the Ibos and two for the Yorubas. The contribution of these variables for the prediction of commitment as measured by intrinsic rewards were statistically significant (Hausa: $F = 5.52$, $p=0.002$; Yoruba: $F = 5.34$, $p=0.006$). As can be seen in the Table, Hausa employees who were female with low level of self-esteem at work and less experienced, and Yoruba employees who were in private organisations and high in level of neuroticism attached more importance to intrinsic rewards.

The next regression equations concerned the association between the predictor variables and the dependent variable of work group. Results of statistically significant prediction of this commitment indicator (Table 43-C) showed that, two personality and one demographic variables emerged as the best predictors for the Hausa group. The three significant predictors accounted for 32 per cent of the variation in commitment as measured by work group ($F = 12.18$, $p=0.000$). None of the variables in the three predictor sets resulted in significant predictor for the Ibo and the Yoruba groups.

Table 43

Standardised Regression Weights and Multiple Correlation Coefficients for the Prediction of Commitment Measures Among each Cultural Group

A Job Scope

Independent Variables	Hausa (N = 80)		Ibo (N = 119)		Yoruba (N = 151)	
	Beta	T-value	Beta	T-value	Beta	T-value
Self-esteem at work	.35	3.51****	-.08	-0.89	.04	0.49
Psychoticism	-.34	-3.42****	.04	-0.49	.06	0.73
Extraversion	.18	1.77*	.09	0.94	.02	0.18
Education	.09	0.86	.24	2.73**	.09	0.95
	R = 0.51	R ² = 0.26	R = 0.24	R ² = 0.06		

B Intrinsic Rewards

Self-esteem at work	-.30	-2.91***	-.11	-1.08	-.03	-0.42
Work experience	-.21	-2.02**	-.10	-0.73	-.01	-0.06
Sex	.20	1.86*	.19	1.94	.04	0.54
Type of organisation	-.02	-0.22	.09	0.90	.20	2.51***
Neuroticism	-.02	-0.17	.09	0.96	.17	2.08**
	R = 0.42	R ² = 0.18			R = 0.26	R ² = 0.07

C Work Group

Psychoticism	-.38	-3.97****	-.10	1.01	-.03	0.34
Self-esteem at work	.27	2.85***	.01	0.09	.04	0.46
Age	-.27	-2.79***	-.12	-0.72	-.05	-0.33
	R = 0.57	R ² = 0.32				

*p<0.10, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01, ****p<0.001

Looking next at extrinsic rewards (Table 43-D), two regression coefficients each were statistically significant for the Hausa and the Ibo groups. They were psychoticism and age for the Hausas and occupational level and marital status for the Ibos. The estimates indicate that the lower the level of psychoticism and the younger the employee among the Hausa group ($F = 5.34, p=0.007$), and the higher the occupational level and the more single an employee was among the Ibos ($F = 4.74, p=0.01$), the more likely the employee will be committed to the organisation when extrinsic rewards such as financial incentives, good physical working conditions and job security were provided.

Table 43-E shows that, one personality variable, two demographic and all of the three variables in the predictor set of organisational influences were significantly associated with organisational commitment as measured by fairness in organisation practices. As can be seen, significant beta weights were found for self-esteem, gender and work experience among the Hausas ($F = 5.41, p=0.002$); only self-esteem among the Ibos ($F = 4.89, p=0.03$); and occupational level, age and type of organisation among the Yorubas ($F = 3.94, p=0.01$).

Regarding the relationships between the dependent variable of supervision and the 12 predictor variables (Table 43-F), the regression equations showed that, three variables for the Hausas ($F = 7.84, p=0.000$), two variables for the Ibos ($F = 5.06, p=0.008$) and only one personality variable for the Yoruba group ($F = 3.96, p=0.05$), were significantly related to the dependent variable. All other variables showed nonsignificant relationships with supervision.

From the results of stepwise multiple regression analysis in Table 43-G, it can be seen that gender and organisation type were significantly associated with sense of commitment as measured by work quantity among the Hausas and the Yorubas respectively. The unique contributions of sex and organisation type for respective group were significant at $p=0.07$ ($F = 3.45$) and $p=0.003$ ($F = 9.38$) levels respectively. The significant predictors which entered the equation for the Ibo group were marital status, psychoticism and self-esteem.

Table 43 continued.....

D Extrinsic Rewards

Independent Variables	Hausa (N = 80)		Ibo (N = 119)		Yoruba (N = 151)	
	Beta	T-value	Beta	T-value	Beta	T-value
Psychoticism	-.29	-2.68***	-.11	-1.22	-.03	-0.70
Age	-.21	-1.93*	-.08	-0.58	-.01	-0.10
Occupational Level	.07	0.52	.27	2.72***	-.10	-0.85
Marital Status	-.09	-0.77	-.25	-2.52**	-.01	-0.08
	R = .35	R ² = .12	R = .27	R ² = .08		

E Fairness

Independent Variables	Hausa (N = 80)		Ibo (N = 119)		Yoruba (N = 151)	
	Beta	T-value	Beta	T-value	Beta	T-value
Self-esteem at work	-.28	-2.64***	-.20	-2.21**	-.10	-1.28
Sex	.23	2.13**	.13	1.45	.01	0.11
Work experience	-.22	2.06**	-.07	-0.79	-.02	-0.20
Occupational Level	.10	0.78	.00	0.03	-.29	-2.83***
Age	.08	0.47	.04	0.48	.20	1.97**
Type of organisation	-.07	-0.61	.08	0.90	.14	1.82*
	R = .42	R ² = .18	R = .20	R ² = .04	R = .27	R ² = .07

F Supervision

Independent Variables	Hausa (N = 80)		Ibo (N = 119)		Yoruba (N = 151)	
	Beta	T-value	Beta	T-value	Beta	T-value
Self-esteem at work	-.36	-3.59****	-.23	2.58***	-.00	-0.04
Extraversion	.28	2.69***	.04	0.50	-.12	-1.43
Education	-.20	-1.99**	-.05	-0.55	-.04	-0.51
Work Experience	.03	0.28	.19	2.16**	.05	0.62
Neuroticism	.06	0.54	.10	1.13	.16	1.99**
	R = .49	R ² = .24	R = .28	R ² = .08	R = .16	R ² = .03

*p<0.10, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01, ****p<0.001

Table 43 continued.....

G Work Quantity

Independent Variables	Hausa (N = 80)		Ibo (N = 119)		Yoruba (N = 151)	
	Beta	T-value	Beta	T-value	Beta	T-value
Sex	.21	1.86*	-.12	-1.35	.04	0.49
Marital status	-.00	-0.01	.24	2.76***	.05	0.68
Psychoticism	.03	0.22	-.16	-1.84*	.04	0.45
Self-esteem at work	-.14	1.23	-.16	-1.81*	-.05	-0.63
Type of organisation	-.01	-0.10	-.10	-1.12	.24	3.06***
	R = .21	R ² = .04	R = .34	R ² = .12	R = .24	R ² = .06

H Family Conditions

Number of dependents	-.27	-1.95	-.21	-2.27**	.03	0.44
Type of organisation	-.08	-0.64	.10	1.08	.20	2.55***
Psychoticism	-.13	-0.97	-.04	-0.43	.13	1.67*
			R = .21	R ² = .04	R = .25	R ² = .06

I Company Success

Sex	.28	2.56***	-.03	-0.30	-.04	-0.52
Psychoticism	.17	1.50	.20	2.21**	-.04	-0.51
Type of organisation	-.16	-1.41	-.18	-1.98**	.08	1.00
Work experience	-.12	-1.11	-.16	-1.82*	-.02	-0.17
	R = .28	R ² = .08	R = .30	R ² = .09		

J Overall Commitment

Sex	.25	2.31**	.10	1.09	-.01	-0.06
Work experience	-.21	-1.87*	-.01	-0.08	-.00	-0.03
Self-esteem at work	-.17	-1.58	-.17	-1.90*	.00	0.03
Extraversion	.13	1.17	.16	1.75*	-.10	-1.31
Type of organisation	-.11	-0.94	.06	0.69	.19	2.33**
Neuroticism	-.08	-0.73	.10	1.09	.14	1.69*
	R = .30	R ² = .09	R = .24	R ² = .06	R = .23	R ² = .05

*p<0.10, **p<0.05, ***p<0.01, ****p<0.001

The multiple correlation of these three variables prediction equation and the dependent variable of work quantity was highly significant ($F = 5.92, p=0.004$).

When family conditions was regressed on the predictor variables (Table 43-H), it was found that Ibo employees with fewer number of dependents, and Yoruba employees who were working in private organisations and more psychotic showed higher perception of commitment ($F = 5.14, p=0.03$ and $F = 4.94, p=0.008$ respectively). Moreover, multiple regression result in Table 43-I showed that, female Hausa employees and Ibo employees who were more psychotic, working in public sectors and have less years of working experience were highly committed when the organisation was making profit (Hausa: $F = 6.53, p=0.01$; Ibo: $F = 3.69, p=0.01$).

The last regression equations concerned the prediction of overall commitment among the three cultural groups (Table 43-J). From the available predictors, two variables each emerged as best predictors for the three groups. They were: gender and work experience for the Hausas, self-esteem and extraversion for the Ibos, and type of organisation and neuroticism for the Yorubas. The amount of variance explained in overall commitment by the two variables in each case was statistically significant (Hausa: $F = 3.93, p=0.02$; Ibo: $F = 3.40, p=0.04$; Yoruba: $F = 4.17, p=0.02$). Overall, the best predictor of organisational commitment is gender for the Hausas, self-esteem for the Ibos and the type of organisation with which the Yorubas are associated. Thus, our results confirm what previous researchers have acknowledged (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982; Bass, 1965).

Taken together, the multiple regression results in Table 43, it is clear that specific variable that significantly related to each perceived source of job commitment could be found in all of the three predictor sets. These findings therefore provide support for hypothesised links of the three antecedent constructs to the construct of organisational commitment as measured by the nine specific commitment variables and the overall commitment factor.

The next chapter presents summary and discussion of the results, implications for practice and directions for future research.

CONCLUSIONS

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

7.1. General Summary

This study originated out of a recognition of the importance of understanding the factors influencing employees job attitude in Nigeria and of the importance of stressing contextual and situational conditions in cross-cultural research. In the introduction, we stressed the theoretical and practical importance of studying cross-cultural differences in the field of organisational behaviour. It was pointed out that many of the American theories and methods in this field are taken, taught and applied intact in different cultural contexts, and that this almost blind adoption of American theories and tools may lead researchers and practitioners in other countries into making errors. Our reason for this was that the social and cultural contexts in which the individual is reared play a significant role in determining his other future patterns of work behaviour, and also vary from one culture to another.

As a start, we made an attempt to provide empirical evidence for the impact of cultural values on employees job attitudes and also to provide a framework for the cross-cultural study of job attitudes that stresses the importance of contextual conditions in eliciting factors influencing productive and non-productive work behaviours. To this end, an exploratory study was conducted using British and Nigerian samples (Chapter 4). The cross-cultural comparisons performed in the exploratory study and presented in Tables 4 to 9, and in Figures 2 and 3, reveal various scattered differences.

The British subjects were more motivated by job content factors such as achievement, work itself, responsibility, urgent work and recognition while the Nigerians gave more weight to job context factors such as pay, too much work, physical work conditions, fringe benefits and good family conditions. The results presented in terms of Overall Herzbergian Score (OHS), Satisfaction Herzbergian Score (SHS) and Dissatisfaction Herzbergian Score

(DHS) clearly indicated that the response pattern for the English sample was significantly more in direct relationship to Motivator-Hygiene theory of job motivation (developed in advanced country!) than their Nigerian counterpart. That is, among the English subjects, motivators such as achievement, work itself and recognition were more associated with high job attitudes than they were with low job attitudes; 'hygienes' such as family conditions, company policy and administration, job security were more related to low job attitudes than they were to high job attitudes. Among the Nigerian subjects, this observation was less true (see Figures 2 and 3).

Thus, the result of the exploratory study lend credence to our earlier criticism of the inappropriateness of generalising theories developed in advanced nations to developing countries. As earlier indicated, this need not represent a total rejection of validating theories developed in industrially advanced countries. However, it does involve preparedness on the part of cross-cultural researchers to develop new concepts of job motivation for different regions of the world if the data they collect do not fit into current theory. Such a preparation must begin by developing a locally relevant instrument that is not limited to some given a priori theoretical framework but is based on contextual and situational analysis of productive and unproductive behaviours of a particular cultural group to be studied.

A locally relevant instrument was therefore developed for the present investigation by using all of the themes extracted from content analysed data of the exploratory study (Nigerian sample only) to construct a questionnaire in an attempt to assess two relatively common job attitudes in organisational research (job motivation and organisational commitment) among the Nigerian workforce. The remaining part of this chapter is concerned with summarising and discussing the basic findings of the study with regard to each of the earlier stated research objectives and relating the findings to the stated hypotheses and prior research findings.

Summary of Major Findings

It might be useful if we first recapitulate the major findings which will form the bases of the discussions that follow. The analyses and interpretations of the data derived from this investigation (Chapter 6) have led to the following conclusions:-

- (1) Job satisfaction in Nigeria is organised around seven factors: (i) interpersonal relations, (b) working conditions, (c) working nature (d) materials/physical provisions (e) supervision (f) possibility of growth, and (g) company policy and administration. All but two of the seven factors (possibility of growth and, company policy and administration) appear to affect job motivation both positively and negatively (Tables 15 and 16, and Figure 4).
- (2) Nigerian employees more likely valued the intrinsic job rewards of possibility of growth and work nature than the extrinsic rewards of working conditions, supervision and materials/physical provisions (Table 17).
- (3) Relationships with co-workers was more strongly related to job motivation among the Yorubas than among the Hausas and the Ibos (Table 18).
- (4) The Ibo employees were not significantly more motivated by job content factors than the Hausa and the Yoruba groups, contrary to expectation. However, on one job content factor (work nature), the Ibo and the Hausa groups on a marginal level, were significantly more motivated than the Yorubas (Table 18).
- (5) The job enrichment model (incorporating factors such as work nature, possibility of growth and autonomy) did not seem to "work" better for the Western-oriented, relatively modernised Ibo and Yoruba employees than the Hausa employees (Table 18).
- (6) Significant differences existed among the perceived job motivation of employees in different occupational levels. This was true for interpersonal relations and supervision within the whole sample with the higher level employees highly demotivated; for

interpersonal relations, working conditions (with the shop floor employees highly motivated) and possibility of growth (with the middle managers highly motivated) among the Hausas; for working conditions (with the middle managers highly demotivated) and supervision (with the top managers highly demotivated) among the Ibos; and for materials/ physical provisions (with the top managers highly motivated) among the Yorubas (Table 19).

- (7) There was no clear-cut distinction between non-management and management employees' work value orientations. Both of them had something to value in both the intrinsic and the extrinsic aspects of job rewards (Table 21).
- (8) Better educated employees (graduates) showed higher demotivation with interpersonal relations among the three groups and with supervision among the Ibos and Yorubas while nongraduate employees showed higher motivation with possibility of growth among the Yorubas only. Within the entire sample, less educated employees were significantly more motivated by working conditions, possibility of growth, work nature and close supervision than their better educated counterparts who themselves were significantly more demotivated by interpersonal relations and supervision (Table 22).
- (9) There were significant positive relationships between work experience, materials/physical provisions (motivating), working conditions and work nature (demotivating) within the whole sample; and working conditions (demotivating factor) among the Ibo and Yoruba employees while negative relationship existed between work experience and interpersonal relations (demotivating factor) among the Hausa employees (Table 24)
- (10) Whereas employees in government establishment may be described as more extrinsic reward-oriented in their work value, their colleagues in private organisations were more intrinsic reward-oriented (Table 26).

- (11) When relationships among co-workers can be described as friendless (bad interpersonal relations) work behaviours of those who are tough-minded and lack in human feelings (that is, more psychotic individuals) were significantly less affected than that of their less or non-psychotic counterparts (Table 27-B).
- (12) Employees perceived job motivation as measured by interpersonal relations, working conditions, and possibility of growth, was significantly and positively related to their level of self-esteem at work (Table 31).
- (13) Age was negatively related to valuations of extrinsic job^{rewards} (working conditions - fringe benefits, job security, pay) among the Hausa employees while the opposite was true among the Ibos and the Yorubas (Table 35).
- (14) There exists similar pattern of perceptions of factors influencing commitment between the Nigerian employees and their counterparts in other cultures (e.g. Blauner, 1964; Buchanan, 1974a; Morris and Sherman, 1981; Angle and Perry, 1983; Mottaz, 1987). Specifically, organisational commitment was strongly related to social features of the job, perceived task characteristics (job scope) and "side-bets" (extrinsic organisational rewards).
- (15) Whereas close supervision decreases employee level of commitment in advanced countries (e.g., the USA) when supervision is not overtly tight or close, Nigerian employees' level of commitment would diminish (Table 37).
- (16) No significant positive relationship existed among different age groups and perceived sources of organisational commitment. Employees aged between 31-35 years valued intrinsic rewards and fairness in organisational practices as determinants of commitment most, followed by those aged below 25 years and above 36 years and then those in 26-30 years age bracket .
- (17) There was no clear-cut distinction among the three groups on all of the perceived determinants of organisational commitment. For the three sub-samples, work group, job scope and extrinsic rewards, emerged as the most important perceived sources of

commitment (Table 38).

- (18) Extrinsic social and organisational rewards were more important as commitment reinforcers for low occupational level employees than for those at top level (Table 39).
- (19) When the organisation is perceived as providing opportunity for growth through proper placement and other intrinsic work-related rewards (e.g. responsibility and challenging/interesting job) commitment tended to increase among the better educated workers than among the less educated.
- (20) The best predictor of overall commitment factor is gender for the Hausas, self-esteem at work for the Ibos and the type of organisation with which the Yorubas are associated (Table 42-J).

7.2. Discussion of the Findings and Their Implications for Practice

Having thus recapitulated the major findings of this study, an attempt will now be made to discuss the findings, focusing attention on their practical and theoretical implications. The findings on the factors influencing job motivation are discussed first, followed by cultural differences and subsequently, the determinants of organisational commitment.

In reading the practical recommendations contained in the discussion, the reader is cautioned that some recommendations may appear somewhat overstated. This is especially so in those cases where the writer believed his inferences to be supported by previous research findings. In addition, since the suggestions are meant for practitioners, managers and administrators, who are often looking for practical guidelines (McIntosh, 1979), the writer considers specific suggestions to be more useful than vague and hesitant generalisations.

7.2.1. Factors influencing Job Motivation

Factor analysis result yielded seven factors, five of which can both enhance and impair motivation. In this section, the motivating segment of the factor is examined before the demotivating part; that is, factors will be discussed as motivators then as demotivators. In this discussion, the term motivator refers to a factor or group of items while item refers to a single motivator or demotivator.

Interpersonal Relations

The first factor from our analysis is interpersonal relations (or group feelings). The motivating segment of this factor composed of 5 motivating items, is the degree to which job conditions allow individuals to fill a void - resulting from a basic need for cooperation and comradeship, recognition, security and sense of belonging - in their lives. Results show that such conditions exist when chance to make decision, praise from others for a job well done (recognition) and opportunity to establish intimate relationships with coworkers and supervisors, are present on the job. Moreover, good interpersonal relation is enhanced by clear job description by the superior and the degree to which superiors and co-workers are hard working and competent (Table 15).

This result contradicts the research findings in England and the United States (Haire, et al., 1966) and in Australia (Clark and McCabe, 1972) reviewed earlier. While social motivation at work (or belongingness needs) contribute more to low job attitudes than to high job attitudes of employees in these advanced countries, they are the most important sources of high job attitudes among the Nigerian workforce. It ought to be noted that all of the motivational items which make up the interpersonal relations factor were associated more with motivation (i.e. have higher mean scores) than pay, concern for job security and fringe benefits (Table 12). This result like that of Triandis and Vassilou (1972) among the Greek employees and Nevis (1983) in China cited earlier, casts further doubt on the view held by some cross-cultural researchers (Greenwood, 1971; Rado, 1972) that concern for pay and other materials/physical provisions will generally be more predominant among

employees in less developed and less wealthy countries of the world. Instead of global and rather simplified explanation, it is more useful to look at differences within nations. Such an approach as will be seen later in this thesis proves more explanatory.

The emergence of interpersonal relations as the most important source of high job attitude (see Table 17) confirms our earlier assumption based on the writer's own observation and work experience in Nigeria on the strong impact of interpersonal relations in developing countries compared to the more industrialised nations. It was pointed out that harmonious social relations with others were not only important in people's daily lives but assumed almost, if not completely, the same significance in work settings. This assumption is strongly supported in this study by both the results on individual motivating items (mean scores) and group of items (factor analysis). However, the results in Table 31 showed that the importance of interpersonal relations as a motivator is particularly stronger among those employees with high level of self-esteem than among those with low level of self-esteem at work.

Contrary to Herzberg et al.'s (1959) results, the factor analysis results in the present study show that interpersonal relations can both encourage high job attitude and discourage it. Six items were clustered on the demotivating component of interpersonal relations. These items include bad relations with superiors and co-workers, feelings of shame among one's co-workers as a result of demotion/disciplinary action as well as failure to achieve, and lazy/incompetent superiors and co-workers.

It is important to note that out of the twenty demotivating items measured in this study, all of the above mentioned items loading on interpersonal relations factor were associated more with demotivation (i.e. have lower mean scores) than all of the remaining items but two (see Table 12). This is also confirmed by the emergence of interpersonal relations factor as the most highly ranked factor among the six demotivating factors (Table 17). These results, including the motivating component discussed above, indicate that interpersonal relations have strong positive and negative impact on employees work

behaviour. Simply stated, when interpersonal relations with superior, subordinated and peers are cordial, employees are motivated to work very hard but when the relationships are friendless they will work very little. We can therefore conclude that the importance of employees desire for the satisfaction of social needs (Maslow, 1954) from the work activity as found by Triandis and Vassilou (1972) and Nevis (1983) is reaffirmed in this study.

Decline in work motivation as a result of interpersonal relations (bad) appears to be more pronounced for those in higher occupational levels and better educated employees (see Tables 19 and 22, respectively), though there was no significant interaction. This finding is not only surprising but repudiates the assumption by some researchers (Bergmann, 1981; Centers and Bugental, 1966; Tannenbaum et al., 1974; King et al., 1982 and Stepina, 1985) that occupational level is positively related to favourable job attitudes. However, one possible explanation is that the higher occupational employees who are generally in charge of supervision have also to make sure that the organisational goals are achieved; but if the employees should restrict their output due to bad relationship between them and superiors, organisational goals will be frustrated and the superiors will feel highly dissatisfied than the subordinates. This is particularly true when the strained relationship is between less educated shop floor but competent employees and a better educated superior who is less competent. This may be a unique situation to Nigeria since it is a common practice to employ highly educated people to fill supervisory/managerial positions without properly considering their technical competence - this is one of the main sources of bad relationship between the shop floor employees and the superior and ultimately restriction of output.

The implications of the above findings are many. First, when organisation allows its members chance to make decisions and encourages ^{management} employees to show recognition for hard work to subordinates, peers and superiors by whatever means, good relations with others are enhanced and consequently employees will work very hard. Second, hard working employees should, where possible, not be put together with lazy peers as they (hard-

working employees) may be induced to restrict their efforts. Third, job description should be communicated by the superior in such a way that is simple for the employees to know exactly what is expected of them. Such clarity of role not only promotes good relations between the subordinates and the superior but also motivates the employees to work harder. Finally, we suggest that, where possible more experienced employees should be promoted to vacant supervisory positions as such practice will reduce bad relations often resulted between the old competent employees and a newly recruited superior.

Working Conditions/Rewards

The second factor is working conditions. It defines the rewards given by the organisation to the employees in return for their services. This factor, like the first one (interpersonal relations) just discussed has the potential to increase and reduce employee job motivation. As a source of motivation, working conditions group together the motivational items of fringe benefits, chance for promotion, job security, pay, and chance for further training. Results show that employees who receive reasonable levels of pay or see possibility of a pay raise, a bonus, a merit increment or other type of financial incentive will put more effort into their work. In addition, the providing of fringe benefits such as car loan, company housing, staff bus, etc. were shown to have positive effect on motivation. Furthermore, the perception that steadiness of employment or job security depends on hard work results in greater effort than if no such perception exists.

The grouping of chances for promotion and for further training under working conditions factor was not a surprise. This is so because the Nigerian employees, unlike their counterparts in advanced countries who see these motivational elements (chances for promotion and for further training) as opportunities for advancement and growth (Herzberg et al., 1959), see them as means to acquire more money and gain access to some fringe benefits accruing only to highly educated and those in higher positions. For example, only the employees in grade level 7 (level of pay) and above are entitled to car loan, and those above grade level 10 are automatically entitled to company maintained car

with driver and company maintained fully-furnished accommodation, to mention a few of their benefits. Thus, promotion from one occupational level to another undoubtedly makes a strong appeal to Nigerian employees not mainly for the social prestige that it confers or for the opportunity to grow psychologically it affords, but for both its money value and material benefits.

The finding that pay and job security can increase motivation not only contradicts what have been observed in other cultures (Herzberg, et al., 1959; Zdravomyslov and Jadov, 1964; Tannenbaum et al., 1974) but confirms our earlier speculation that because of the relative poverty of many developing countries basic physiological needs such as pay and job security will make employees in these countries work very hard. However, it is surprising to note that pay and job security did not emerge as the most potent motivational elements, considering the current unfavourable economic conditions in Nigeria. In fact, out of the twenty motivating items measured in the present study, job security and pay ranked fourteenth and sixteenth respectively in order of importance (see Table 12).

As stated earlier, the lack of favourable working conditions can strongly impair employees job attitude. As a demotivator, working conditions is constituted by six motivational elements. The first of these is pay - this could be low pay, no bonus, no increment, or lack of other financial incentives. The second is, absence or inadequacy of fringe benefits including lack of housing and car loans. The effect of this variable is most likely a result of inequity resolution when employees compare themselves to family members and friends working for organisations that provide fringe benefits. Other items grouped under this factor are lack of promotion, lack of appreciation or compliment for a job well done, failure of company to keep promise, and no chance for further training.

This finding which clearly shows that working conditions can both encourage and discourage high job attitude, again, directly contradicts Herzberg et al.'s two-factor theory. As can be seen, factor analytic results produced two clusters of items including four each, that were directly opposite each other. These items were: pay, fringe benefits, promotion

and training (see Figure 4). Thus, this result lends credence to what other researchers (Brockman, 1971; Dunnette, et al., 1967) have earlier observed that, sources of high and low job attitudes are not separate or necessary independent of each other.

Working conditions appear to be particularly more important for extraverted-neurotic (more) employees among the Hausa (Table 28-C) and the Yoruba (Table 30-C) groups. Comparatively, this group of employees among the Hausas gave significant more weight to good working conditions as a source of high job attitude while job attitudes of the same group of employees among the Yorubas were highly affected (negatively) by bad working conditions. It is also important to note that for married employees within the whole sample, working conditions seem to significantly influence their job attitudes more than those who never married. Results from this study indicate that married employees were highly motivated by this factor and on the other hand, highly demotivated when these conditions or organisational rewards were inexistent or inadequate (Table 32). That working conditions could decrease job motivation of this category of employees was expected in this study because if there were no fringe benefits, good pay and chance for promotion (from one level of pay to another), these employees will not be able to cater adequately for their families and dependents. This may result to frustration and demoralisation which in turn have dilapidated effect on their job behaviour. However, result in Table 33 showed that single employees with more number of dependents gave more weight to working conditions as a motivator than their married counterparts.

On the basis of the emergence of working conditions as a factor influencing job motivation, it is important for management to make available adequate financial rewards to stimulate employees job efforts. Organisations should design their pay structures in such a way that employees can always look forward to a raise, bonus, or some type of financial incentives. As we have observed, such financial rewards served as incentive towards productivity, especially when such rewards were made contingent upon hard-work. In addition, organisational policies must be designed and communicated such that employees

fully understand that increased performance will result in steadiness of employment.

Furthermore, jobs should ^{be} designed where possible, such that there are several promotional steps to which employees keep aspiring. Moreover, further training and learning on the job are not only desirable in terms of imparting skills leading to more effective work behaviour, but because increased motivation results as well and which in turn leads to better performance. Caution must be exercised, however, in introducing training programmes that raise employee expectations of promotion opportunities that may not exist as this would likely impair job motivation. In such circumstances, careful explanation of what employees can expect following training is important from the outset.

Finally, we recommend that supervisors, managers, and those concerned with selection and recruitment should not make any attempt to widen the gap between what people want and what they can reasonably expect to have by making promises that they will not be able to fulfill. For such unfulfilled promise will be seen as act of dishonesty which leads to bad morale, dissatisfaction, nervousness and consequently low job attitude.

Work Nature

The third factor is task-related and relates to the amount and/or difficulty level and urgency of the task, the degree to which it is interesting, challenging, has variety and is perceived important, and how such task is assigned. One of the items composing this task-related factor is the amount and/or degree of difficulty of the assigned task. With a mean score of 4.65 (see Table 12), the employees work harder when too much or more difficult work was assigned. This is in line with Locke's (1968) view that more difficult goals result in greater effort.

Another motivational item loading on work nature factor is urgency of the work assigned. Subjects reported working harder when an assigned task was urgent or had a completion deadline (Mean = 4.97). Again, this result is confirmatory of the goal-setting position that specific goals elicit more effort than non-specific ones (Locke, 1968). Two

other motivational items grouped under work nature factor are first, work that is seen as important, is interesting, challenging and has variety, and second, the extent to which the organisation is successful in achieving its goal in terms of making profit (overall achievement of the organisation). That these two items emerged as motivators is in line with Herzberg et al.'s results since he also found them to be associated with high job attitude.

Taken together, these results show that the nature of the tasks and the way they are assigned greatly determine reaction to such tasks. Namely, tasks that are difficult, important, interesting, challenging and has variety are highly motivating. Further, work that gives employees knowledge of how their jobs contribute to the overall achievement of organisational goals and work assignments which have completion deadlines makes the employees work very hard.

Contrary to Herzberg's claim of independence of motivators and "hygienes", work nature does not only affect employee work motivation positively, but can influence it negatively as well. Work nature becomes a demotivating factor when either too little work is assigned, and when such work is poorly defined and when the work is not interesting, not challenging, has no variety and unimportant.

Examination of the results in Tables 22 and 26 shows that, work nature is significantly affected by level of education and type of organisation respectively, though no interactive effect is observed. It can be seen that, employees in private organisations and less educated (non-graduates) were more highly motivated than their counterparts in public organisations (government) and better educated (graduates). This finding provides support for our earlier stated assumption that employees in private organisations will be more motivated by intrinsic factors (e.g. work nature) than their counterparts in government which is also in line with Rinehart et al.'s (1969) finding reviewed earlier. This result is expected because the public sector (government) is not profit oriented and consequently there is generally not much work to do or work that is urgent. One of the main tasks of public sector employees

is dealing with people's general welfare which one may say has no specific measurable goal. Further, working in any government establishment is always looked down upon by the general public due to poor working conditions as compared with private sector; hence, government employees in Nigeria, irrespective of their occupational levels, are commonly called "public servants."

On the other hand, the negative relationship observed between work nature and education, though in line with what has been obtained in other cultures (Tannenbaum, 1974; Tannenbaum, 1980), is unanticipated. One possible explanation for this result is that less educated employees are engaged mostly in practical skills which provide an individual with opportunities for challenge which is not always the case with their well educated counterparts who normally hold managerial positions and remain in their offices (or "cages" as often called in Nigeria) all day. Also, since less educated employees do not generally hold management position (as such position is exclusively for the highly educated employees), they may have tasks assigned to them by their superior (or manager) which are urgent and must be completed by a deadline while their well educated counterparts who are likely to be managers are not always under such work pressure.

Practical implications of these findings are that, anyone overseeing the work of others (e.g. managers and supervisors) should use objective setting and appraisal schemes. This well-known management practice of setting specific (and challenging) goals for employees to reach and continuous joint review of performance by the subordinates and the superiors has been referred to as "Management by Objectives" - MBO (see Drucker, 1961). We do not consider an elaborate system necessary. What is being suggested here is an approach whereby the individual can feel he is operating within a framework; that he can ascertain within that framework what is required of him. In this way, he can determine to what extent he has succeeded during a given period. The old idea (still at large in Nigeria) of calling an employee up in December and telling him that his work during the year has not been satisfactory (or has been satisfactory) must be abandoned. That approach is too

subjective and lends itself to distrust and arguments. Rather, specific targets that are more difficult (though not too difficult) than normal should not only be set by the superiors in agreement with the subordinates but such work duties should also be clearly defined within the framework of the departmental objectives, and the progress made should be reviewed throughout the year. Further, attempts aimed at making tasks more interesting, increasing job width, depth and task significance are highly desirable especially for private employees and those who are less educated. Finally, employees should be informed from time to time of the progress made by the organisation as such information is likely to encourage high job attitude.

Materials/Physical Provisions

This factor represents workers' wishes for adequate material resources with which to do their job well (and other conveniences). The motivating component comprising of two items: (i) pleasant work environment (for example, big office with air-conditioning, good furniture and lighting, adequate materials, tools and equipment) and (ii) family considerations, that is, nearness of home to the workplace (work location) and good family conditions (for example, no sickness/death in the family or other domestic problems). This finding is consistent with Locke's (1984) assertion that "most employees prefer work locations close to home, clean, spacious work areas, and aesthetically attractive surroundings".

Analysis of the demotivating items yielded a factor which is almost the opposite of adequate materials/physical provisions (motivating) factor. It contains two items: (i) lack of profit due to general economic depression - hence, no means of providing adequate materials; and (ii) unpleasant work environment - e.g. no air-conditioning, no good furniture, etc. Thus, the effect of physical work environment on Nigerian employees is bipolar, that is, when there is adequate material resources and pleasant work environment, the employees are motivated to work hard but when these provisions are absent, their level of performance diminishes. Results indicate that this is particularly true for more

experienced employees in private organisations (Figure 8) and older employees (Table 35).

This finding implies that, for optimum productivity or service, physical factors like heat, light, atmosphere, hygiene, and safety, and the facilities such as adequate tools and equipment, and transport, are of great importance. Where possible, management should build staff quarters as near as possible to the workplace so that the employees will not have to travel several miles to and from workplace everyday. Also, such a provision enables the employees to have their family near them and in case of any urgent domestic problem they can be easily contacted. This is very important because, in Nigeria, there are no easy and reliable public transport systems and telephone services. Even if one owns a personal means of transport (a car, for example), the usual traffic jam, due to poor conditions of most Nigerian roads, discourages one from going to work with it. Moreover, a car owner is discouraged from leaving home early in an attempt to avoid the traffic jam because of car-snatchers (and armed robbers) which is very common in Nigeria today. Hence, the importance of the above recommendation - provision of accommodation for the employees near the workplace. Where this is not possible, staff buses should be provided for different areas and routes, to collect employees to the workplace.

Supervision

This factor relates to the degree to which the employees are given control by their superior over the work they do. The motivating segment is defined by one item, close supervision (or non-participative/autocratic leadership), and by one demotivating item, open or autonomous supervision (certain amount of freedom given an individual by the superior to tackle his work in his own way) at the other end (see Figure 4). This result suggests that Nigerian employees prefer task oriented/autocratic style of leadership to participative/democratic style. Thus, this finding among the Nigerian employees lends credence to what other cross-cultural researchers mentioned earlier (Whyte and Williams, 1963; Meade, 1967; Negandhi, 1973; and Tannenbaum et al., 1974), have observed: that employees from less developed countries tend to be less participative. However, this

observation is particularly strong among less educated top level employees (see Figure 6-B), and those with low level of self-esteem at work (see Table 31).

Why are the employees from developing countries highly motivated by non-participative and close supervision? One possible explanation is found in an extensive literature review by Hagen (1962) cited earlier who asserted that the harsh and unpredictable conditions in many traditional societies lead people to reliance on the judgement or will of some superior individual or person in authority. This is particularly true in Nigeria where some workers carry over traditional attitudes toward elders into their relationships with their superiors (for example, greetings with prostration). Superiors are expected to look after the workers' interests with higher authorities. The roles of the superior are viewed by the workers as organising, controlling, directing and motivating. Any superior who is performing these roles is regarded as a disciplinarian who walks around to see that things are done properly and on time. From the writer's work experience, as long as the subordinates are paid well and regularly, as long as they have adequate materials and equipment for their work, and as long as the superior does not intrude into their private lives, they will not begrudge his authority and style of supervision (or leadership) which is naturally very close.

Perhaps, it may also be that employees want their work to be monitored in order not to make mistake, that is, they want feedback from their performance from time to time. This is particularly important because of the fear that any serious mistake may lead to loss of job (termination of employment). In Nigeria where employment opportunity is very scarce, loss of job should not be taken lightly as it may take up to 3 to 5 years before one finds another suitable job. Therefore, when the employees are closely supervised by receiving adequate feedback from the superior, they feel better in carrying out their duties at least with confidence that they will not make serious mistake which may lead to termination of employment.

Another plausible explanation is the view that, for participative management to work,

the subordinates must possess certain characteristics. The characteristics include relatively high needs for independence, a readiness to assume responsibility for decision making, understanding and identification with the goals of the organisation, and the acquisition of the knowledge and experience necessary to deal with problems (Knudson, Woodworth and Bell, 1979). Nigerian employees seem to lack most of these attributes. Therefore any attempt to force participative management on organisations in Nigeria just because it has worked elsewhere is in serious error.

The implication of this finding is clear: for optimum performance, employees in Nigeria need autocratic leaders who can get things done through people - a cadre of benevolent despots who would "constantly monitor the activities of their subordinates and exercise firm control over their actions" (Ogwuma, 1982). Organisations in Nigeria should adopt the orthodox principle of administration known as the 'span of control' which states that the number of people who can be closely supervised by one individual is strictly limited. It is therefore recommended that the ratio of supervised to supervisor should be low enough so that each supervisor does not have more subordinates than he can readily observe.

Another implication of this result is that, the superior should provide adequate feedback and necessary guidance for subordinates in order to alleviate the fear of making mistake which may be in the minds of the subordinates if the superior wants them to contribute maximally to the organisational goals.

Possibility of Growth

The sixth factor from our analysis is possibility of growth. Unlike the other factors discussed so far, the impact of possibility of growth on motivation appears to be totally positive, that is, existence of opportunities for growth causes high job attitude while its absence does not contribute to low job attitude. This factor, composed of two motivating items - proper placement and opportunity to prove oneself (achievement) - is the degree to which job conditions allow individuals to advance and develop their skills and capabilities

and thus experience some psychological growth.

The emergence of possibility of growth factor in this study reaffirms what has already been found or implied in a number of studies and writings on motivation pertaining to human needs. Possibility of growth may be considered related or equivalent to self-actualisation (Maslow, 1954), growth (Alderfer, 1972), higher order needs (Lawler, 1973) and advancement (Herzberg, 1966). Specifically, in so far as Herzberg's theory is concerned, this limited finding supports his general hypothesis that the "motivators" which are intrinsic (including possibility of growth), function mainly on the positive side of the overall job satisfaction scale. Like the items loading on interpersonal relations factor, the two motivating items which make up the possibility of growth factor were assigned more weight than pay, fringe benefits and physical working conditions (see Table 12). This result, contrary to Kayode's (1970) finding among 440 workers of one manufacturing firm in Nigeria, indicates that Nigerian employees value more the intrinsic rewards (growth needs, proper placement, achievement) than extrinsic job rewards (pay, fringe benefits, physical working conditions). It is important to note that Kayode carried out his study about two decades ago and it is possible that job value orientations of the Nigerian workforce have changed over this period due to relative increase in industrial expansion and consequently more job opportunities.

Like the work nature factor, the effect of possibility of growth on work behaviour is moderated by employees' level of education and the type of organisation he is working. Results indicate that less educated employees working in public sector showed higher job attitude than their better educated counterparts working in similar government establishments (Table 23). As Figure 7 shows, it is also clear that less educated employees working in private organisations showed higher job attitude than their better educated counterparts in public sector. These results indicate that less educated employees have the desire to grow psychologically, and since they have no opportunity to satisfy this through higher education, they seek satisfaction of such desire in the workplace. Therefore, when

their job conditions allow them to advance and develop their skills and capabilities, they derive intrinsic satisfaction and work very hard at their jobs. On the other hand, it is probable that better educated employees in public sector (who normally hold managerial positions) are complacent about what they have achieved in life and are therefore less affected (that is, work harder than the less educated) by any opportunity in the workplace to grow or prove themselves.

For practising manager, consultant or administrator, it is important to set up work conditions that foster growth. Some jobs demand particular qualifications, such as degrees, diplomas, certificates of education and specific experience training and skills. Matching people and jobs (placement) should therefore be based as far as possible on previous training, education and experience. This is consistent with Vroom's (1964) view that when task requirements and employees' abilities are matched, the employees will be motivated to make use of their abilities and will work harder at such task. However, it is important not to specify qualifications higher than those really required, as over-qualified employees become easily dissatisfied with their jobs.

In additions jobs should be designed such that there are challenges (opportunities to prove oneself), and goals or targets to which employees keep aspiring. The way in which jobs are organised or designed, however, will vary according to the needs of the individual and the particular work group but may include one of these four main options:

- (i) Job Rotation - the moving of employees to different jobs at agreed intervals. This does not call for the use of greater skills but gives variety and thus lessens boredom.
- (ii) Job Enlargement - giving the employee the whole of a recognisable sub-unit of work to carry out. This again does not call for greater skill but helps identification with the product or service and results in a heightened sense of achievement.
- (iii) Job Enrichment - building greater autonomy into the job, with scope for the use of discretion, less detailed control and the inclusion of preparatory and auxiliary tasks. Job enrichment programmes attempt to build in over time, scope for development of

an individual's skills to provide a sense of personal achievement. The approach allows people to strive for certain forms of self-reward, feelings of achievement or self-esteem, which are inherently linked to their performance at work (Lawler, 1969).

- (iv) Autonomous Working Groups - giving authority and responsibility for an identifiable section of the work to a group of people who have to meet specific targets and standards but who are left to organise much of the way in which this is done. This calls for the delegation of certain duties normally carried out by supervisors and others - ordering of materials, allocation of jobs, etc. An advantage of autonomous group working is that, if the job goal is reached, the group members can feel they really accomplished something significant which consequently gives the individual a sense of competence and efficacy (see ^{summary of} goal-setting theory in Appendix 1 and Locke and Latham, 1983).

Taken together, increasing job width and depth where possible is therefore an important way to encourage hardwork from organisational members.

As our results indicate, especially within the entire sample, employees working in public sector (Table 26), those who are low in their level of self-esteem at work (Table 31), and those who are single (Table 32) are significantly less affected by possibility of growth factor, therefore, it is vital to ensure that opportunities for growth are not imposed on these categories of employees who have no desire for such opportunities. For such employees, other techniques such as providing extrinsic rewards like financial incentives and fringe benefits may be more effective in encouraging positive job attitudes. In fact, other studies have shown that differences in growth need strength (Hackman and Lawler, 1971), subcultural differences (Blood and Hulin, 1967) and differences in knowledge and skill levels (Hackman, 1977) affect employee's reactions to enriched jobs or those providing some degrees of growth. In line with practical suggestions outlined above, recommendations from these other studies have been that extrinsic sources of motivation be used for employees who do not respond positively to enriched or enlarged jobs.

Company Policy and Administration

Company Policy and administration factor describes the inadequacy of company organisation and management as well as personnel policies. The result showed that these inadequacies exist when: (i) the supervisors or bosses practice tribalism, favouritism, nepotism or corruption in employment decision such as work assignments, promotion and pay rise, and (ii) there is lack of willingness on the part of the company or employer to listen to or care about employee problems and welfare. Like the possibility of growth factor, the impact of company policy and administration too is unipolar but totally negative. That is, when the above inadequacies are perceived by the employees, demotivation occurs but their absence does not impair motivation. This observation is particularly strong among private organisation employees (Table 26), those who are single (Table 32) and female employees (Table 34). This result found partial support for Herzberg et al.'s (1959) notion of the unilateral influences of motivating and hygiene factors.

In order to alleviate tribalism and favouritism, it is recommended that the senior managers monitor how the supervisors and junior managers deal with their subordinates especially on issues concerning rewards and punishment. It is important to note that employees in many organisations (especially those situated in urban areas) come from various cultural groups and the practice of tribalism and favouritism especially between the supervisors and the subordinates is a common phenomenon. Scott et al. (1979), provided empirical evidence for this view in their cross-cultural study reviewed earlier, on the effects of culture on organisational rewards and penalties among Nigerian and American employees. They found that more than 50 percent of the Nigerian samples indicated that ethnic or tribal affiliations affected the way they were assessed and rewarded. In view of these results, the need for managers to base their various employee related decisions (placement, promotion, pay raises, etc.) on merit and relevant work-related information cannot be overstated. One other suggestion here is that organisations should have clear cut

policies pertaining to issues affecting employee well being and such policies must be clearly communicated to all workers.

The emergence of company policy and administration-specifically, on issues relating to organisation's reactions to employees personal or domestic problems - as a source of unproductive behaviour should not be a surprise for, if the management become so obsessed with the purely technical aspects of the factory processes that workers' grievances, personal problems and feelings on day-to-day matters come to be ignored, they (workers) will not only feel depressed and resentful, but restrict their outputs (Brown, 1971). It is no longer true to say that a person's private life is no concern of his/her employer for an unresolved problem, a continuing anxiety or a failure to reconcile the apparently irreconcilable will almost inevitably affect performance attitude and morale. We therefore recommend that the managers, administrators and supervisors should be given appropriate training in intergroup relations management in order to give advice and guidance (e.g. on social, personal and domestic problems) to those who need it. Or, where possible, the organisation should appoint a specialist (as counsellor or industrial psychologist) to whom those in trouble can be referred.

7.2.1.1. Cultural Differences in Factors influencing Job Motivation

Another set of important results from this study are the relationships between the seven factors of job motivation just discussed and cultural backgrounds and personal characteristics. It was hypothesised that relationships with co-workers will be more strongly related to job motivation among the Yorubas than among the Hausas and the Ibos. Results in Table 18 show that this assumption is weakly supported as significant difference ($F = 2.17$; $p=0.10$) exist between mean factor scores of the Hausas and the Ibos as a group and the Yorubas, in regard to interpersonal relations (motivating) factor, with the Yorubas highly motivated. Also, when we rank ordered all of the six identified motivating factors, it was revealed that interpersonal relations was given the first priority by the Yorubas while the Hausas and the Ibos gave more weight to work nature factors. This hypothesis is

further confirmed by the results obtained on the effect of interpersonal relations (demonstrating) factor (Table 18): on a highly significant level the Yorubas showed highest demotivation followed by the Ibos and then the Hausas ($F = 10.01$; $p < 0.001$). This result was expected on the basis of previous knowledge of some of the major cultural values earlier reviewed (for example group solidarity and social support) characterised of the Yoruba community.

However the interaction of occupational level with cultural background on perception of good interpersonal relations as a source of high job attitude indicates that the Ibo and the Yoruba employees in supervisory position were ^{more} highly affected than their Hausa counterparts while the Hausa top level employees showed higher motivation than their Ibo and Yoruba counterparts (see Figure 6-A).

In addition, we assumed that the Ibos, based on their individualistic, ambitious, entrepreneurial, and competitive characteristics, will be significantly more motivated by the job content factors (work nature and possibility of growth) than the Hausa and the Yoruba groups. Analysis of the results in Table 18 repudiates this assumption. On the motivating factors no statistically significant difference existed among the three groups in regard to possibility of growth factor. As can also be seen in Figure 10, the Hausa and the Yoruba employees across various age groups (with the exception of Hausa employees above 36 years) gave more weight to possibility of growth than their ^{bo} counterparts. On a marginal level, the three groups differed significantly on their valuations of work nature factor ($F = 2.75$; $p = 0.07$) with the Hausas highly motivated, followed by the Ibos and then the Yorubas. In fact, the results in Table 18 (demotivating factor) showed that the Yoruba and the Hausa groups were significantly more demotivated by work nature factor than the Ibos indicating that the job content factor (work nature) was more strongly related to job motivation of Yoruba and Hausa employees than that of their Ibo counterparts ($F = 2.93$; $p = 0.05$)

Similarly, one other hypothesis asserting significant difference between the Ibos and the Yorubas on one hand and the Hausa on the other, on their perceptions of task

characteristics was rejected. Specifically, we hypothesised that perceived task characteristics (possibility of growth, work nature and supervision) will be more strongly related to job motivation in the case of the Western-oriented, relatively modernised Ibo and Yoruba employees than in the case of the other one group. The results (Table 18) indicated that on work nature, the Hausas were highly motivated followed by the Ibos and then the Yorubas ($F = 2.75, p=0.07$). On the other hand, the Yoruba employees showed highest level of demotivation followed by the Hausa group and then the Ibos on work nature factor (demotivating). This difference is statistically significant ($F = 2.93; p=0.05$). Again, on general supervision (autonomous) as opposed to close supervision, the Hausa group was significantly less demotivated than the Ibos who themselves were significantly less demotivated than the Yoruba group ($F = 8.69; p<0.001$). No statistically significant difference was observed among the three groups on their perceptions^{of the} relationship between possibility of growth factor and job motivation.

The most important and relevant question concerning the above two unconfirmed assumptions is : why did the Hausa group show higher motivation on work nature and were less demotivated by general supervision (as opposed to close supervision) than their Ibo and Yoruba counterparts? This question is particularly important in view of the marked differences among the three groups in their value systems earlier reviewed in the introduction to this study (Chapter 1). It was pointed out that the Hausa system places a premium on loyalty, servility, obedience, respect for authority and Islamic traditions. They are reluctant to accept European type of modernity and education and are not interested in proving themselves in achievement competition. Whereas, the Ibo and Yoruba groups who have had long exposure to European influence, education and Christian religion, place greater importance on self-reliant action, entrepreneurial activities and independent achievement.

There is one possible answer to this question. The Federal government of Nigeria has for some time now been making several attempts to bridge the gap between the Northerners

(Hausas) and Southerners (Ibos and Yorubas) especially in the areas of acquisition of modern skills and industrial expansions. For example, admission into government owned higher institutions, as stated in the National policy on Education (1977), is now on 'quota basis' (that is, equal number of students must be admitted from each of the three cultural groups irrespective of their qualifications or eligibility). As a result, many qualified Southerners are denied admission. Also, the Northern state governments now encourage the Hausas to go to school by providing bursary awards and scholarships up to University level in Nigeria and overseas. There is no such opportunity in any of the southern states. In view of these encouragements on the parts of the Federal and state governments one may speculate that the few Hausa people who have positively responded, and who are consequently employed in industries (recall that our samples were drawn from industrial organisations) have shifted their value orientations from that based on Islamic culture and traditions, clientage and ascribed status to that based on achieved status and self enhancing attributions and as a result ^{have developed better attitudes toward} work (or have placed high value on intrinsic job aspects) than the Ibos and the Yorubas who are relatively less privilege in present day Nigeria. However, this is only a speculation, and its clarification awaits future research in this area.

On the whole, the overall picture that emerges from our results, is of relative stability of factors influencing job motivation (especially those encouraging high job attitude - motivating factors) across cultural backgrounds. Almost no differences were revealed in the levels of the various motivational themes and perceptions (see Table 13), and the differences in the relationships among variables (^{see} Table 18 - factor analysis result - with the exception of the three on **Low** job attitude mentioned above which reached statistically significant level), do not cohere in a meaningful or systematic way. This stability of job attitudes across cultures is surprising in view of our hypotheses which were based on previous knowledge of the three cultures and on a rich literature review of previous studies in this field (see Chapter 3).

In particular we refer here to earlier cross-cultural studies (or rather studies

comparing sub-cultures or blacks and whites or ethnic groups in a given country) which exposed differences within the American society (Hulin and Blood, 1968; Slocum, 1971), in South Africa (Orpen, 1979) and in Canada (Cawsey, et al., 1982), and attributed the found differences in work attitudes and perceptions to differences in frames of reference, orientations and values among the various cultures or communities. In contrast, our results seem to demonstrate that, on the whole, the realities of the job are clear enough to be perceived in a similar manner by people with different cultural backgrounds, and that the pattern of relationships among perceptions and evaluations of the job is also generally similar across cultures, apart from three specific exceptions - bad interpersonal relations, general supervision and bad work nature factors.

However, a comparison of within-group differences on work-related and personal variables in one cultural group with another reveals various scattered differences. The results of within-group differences for each cultural group, were presented in Tables 19 to 36. Recall that each of the hypotheses on organisational-related variables and personal characteristics was tested separately on the factor scores for each of the three cultural groups and for the entire sample. Our main concern here is to construct a profile of the job- motivated and/or -demotivated person in each cultural group based on significant within - group differences observed on each of the seven factors discussed earlier in this section of our report, and compare the same (profiles), with each other. A summary of these profiles is presented in Figure 23.

We consider such a summary useful for our discussion as it enables us to describe an individual who places greater importance on a specific factor in one cultural group different from an individual in another culture. For example, we can describe an individual who attaches more importance to extrinsic rewards as a source of a job motivation in a given culture as someone who is older, low in self - esteem and married, and in another culture as someone who is male, less educated and working in public sector and still within another cultural group as someone who is single, extravert and shop floor

Figure 23

A Summary of Profile of Motivated and Demotivated Individuals in Each Cultural Group

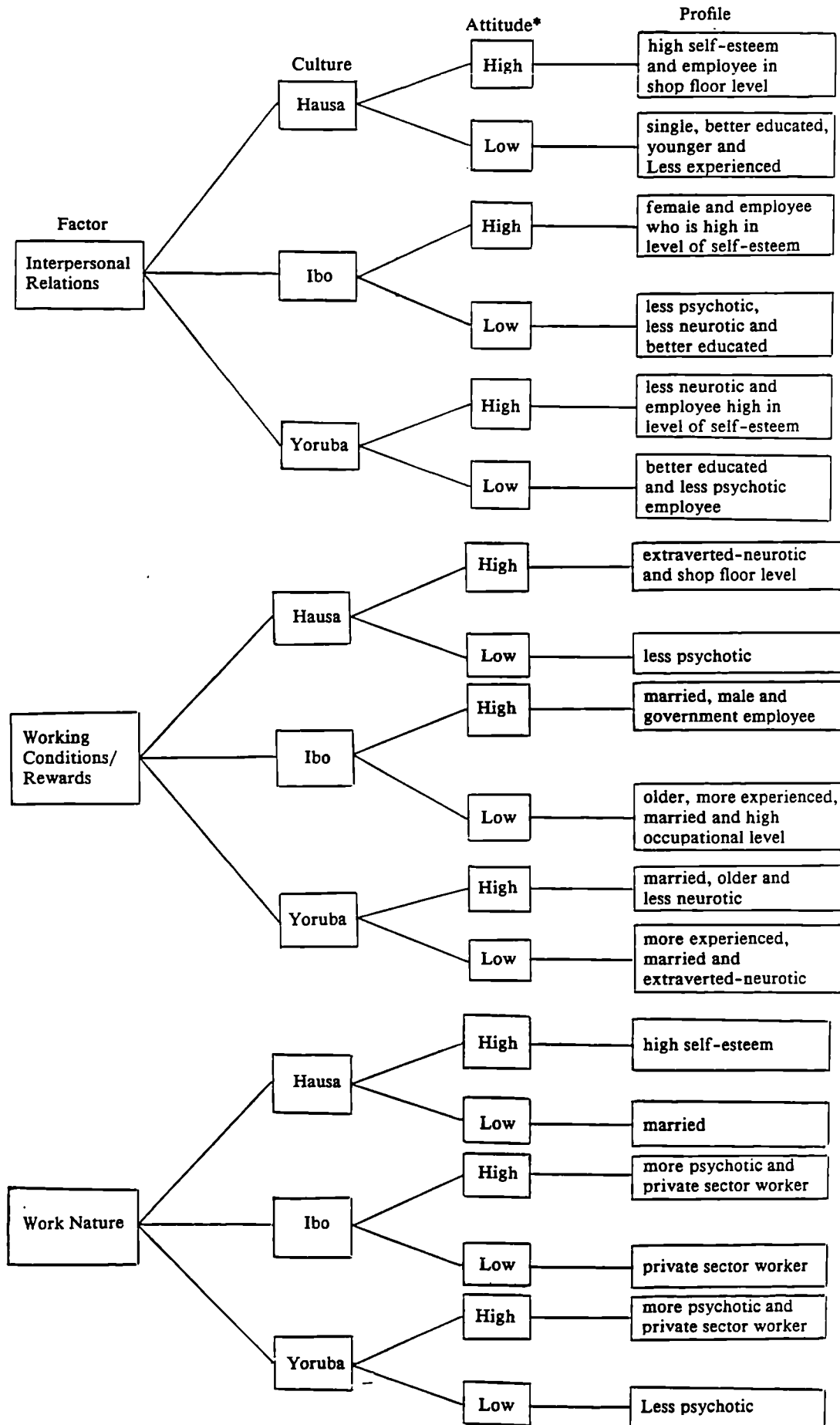
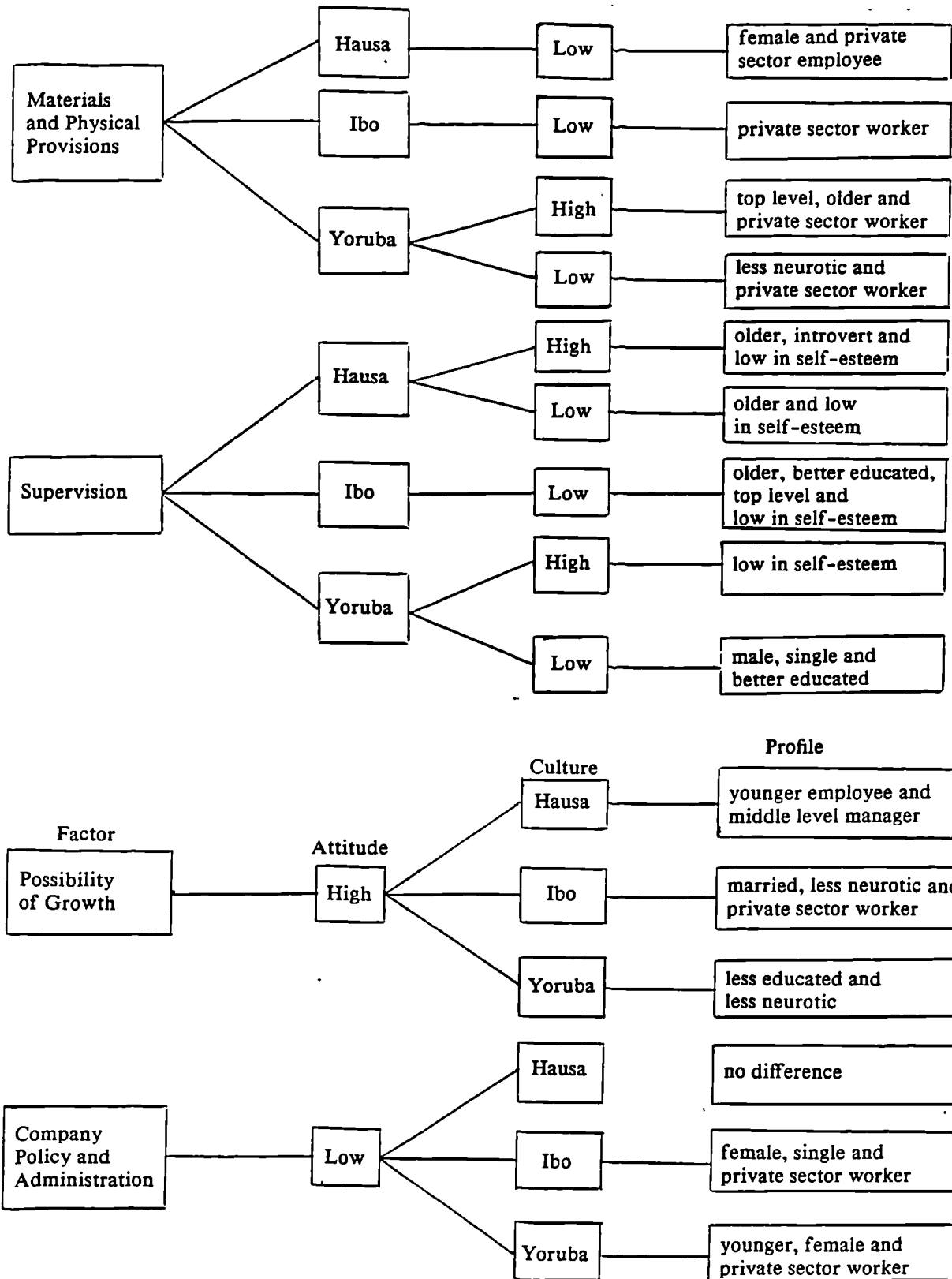


Figure 23 continued.....



*High attitude denotes motivating while low attitude means demotivating

worker. This approach of characterising or describing an individual is not new in job attitude research. Rabinowitz and Hall's (1977) study cited earlier in our literature review, though not based on empirical findings as the case in the present study, but based on a review of extensive research literature, presented a profile of the job involved person including personal and work-related variables.

As can be seen (Figure 23), on all of the seven factors, the profile of an individual in each cultural group differs from each other with the exception of private sector employees in the three groups who showed higher demotivation on materials/physical provisions (demotivating segment) than their counterparts in public sector. Thus, those who attached much importance to interpersonal relations as a motivator among the Hausa group may be described as those who were high in self-esteem and shop floor level workers; among the Ibo group as female employees and those ^{who} were high in self-esteem; and among the Yorubas as less neurotic and high self-esteem individuals. On the other hand, those whose job attitudes were low when interpersonal relation is perceived as demotivating may be described as, younger, less experienced, better educated, and single employees among the Hausa group; better educated, less neurotic and less psychotic individuals among the Ibos; and less psychotic, and better educated employees among the Yoruba group.

The Figure also reveals some other trends. First, materials/physical provisions factor has the same degree of positive effect on the Hausa and the Ibo groups irrespective of personal characteristics (such as age, education, personality and sex) and organisational related variables (such as type of organisation and occupational level), whereas among the Yorubas, older top level and private sector employees were highly motivated than their younger, low level and public sector counterparts. Second, while the older low esteem and introvert^{ed} Hausa employees and low esteem Yorubas placed much emphasis on close supervision (motivating) for optimum performance, the Ibo employees as a group placed the same value on this factor as a motivator. Finally, females, single, and private sector employees among the Ibos and younger, female and private sector employees among the

Yorubas showed higher demotivation with company policy and administration factor while no such (or other) difference was observed among the Hausas on their valuation of company policy and administration factor as a demotivator.

The implications of the above interpretation of observed differences among the three cultural groups are many. First it points to the fact that while employees from different cultural backgrounds may not significantly differ from each other on their perceptions of sources of job motivation they differ in their (or other) demographic and organisational-related characteristics (such as age, education, occupational level, sex, marital status, type of organisation, personality, etc.) on the importance they place on a particular factor either as motivator or demotivator. Therefore, organisations in Nigeria (or elsewhere having employees from diverse cultures) should provide for this in their policies or guidelines for employee motivation.

Second, while there are many motivational factors out of which the practitioners (e.g. managers and supervisors) who want to do a good job of effectively motivating their employees (in Nigeria) may select from, they should be flexible in their use and not lock themselves into a particular one. This is important since some employees will respond to one and some to another depending on their demographic characteristics. For the practitioners, there is no substitution therefore, for knowing the employees individually (including their cultural backgrounds) in order to provide the most effective means of motivating them. In a sense, it should be realised that motivation is individualistic - what turns one employee on will leave another employee cold.

Finally, (and closely related to the two points above), it points to the importance of personal characteristics in selection and placement processes. Such biographic data of the employees will help the managers and supervisors in providing effective and appropriate reinforces to enhance productivity. In other words, such knowledge on the part of the supervisors provides a 'fit' between individual characteristics and what energises an individual to focus his/her behaviours in one direction or another and consequently, as

earlier indicated, enables the superiors to do a good job of effectively motivating those working under them.

7.2.2. Determinants of Organisational Commitment

The main objectives of this part of the present investigation were: (i) to study the determinants of organisational commitment in a developing nation (Nigeria); (ii) to provide empirical evidence of any difference in organisational commitment factors that may exist between developed and less developed nations by comparing our results with those of prior research some of which were reviewed in Chapter 2; and (iii) to examine the influences of personal (including cultural background) and organisational characteristics on sources of commitment.

Several important conclusions tend to emerge from the findings related to the above objectives. First, factors affecting Nigerian employees' commitment to their organisations, in order of importance, are: (i) work group (ii) job scope (iii) extrinsic rewards (iv) fairness in organisation practices (v) intrinsic rewards (vi) work quantity (vii) family conditions, and (ix) supervision (see Table 37). The results indicate that the valuation of these factors is independent of employee's cultural background. That is, the three cultural groups have similar perceptions of the nine factors influencing commitment employed in this study, with the exception of intrinsic rewards where the Ibos scored significantly higher than the Hausa group (see Table 38).

Second, a comparison of the importance of some of these commitment factors among Nigerian employees and antecedents (work- and organisational- related factors) of organisational commitment among employees in other cultures, shows relatively consistent patterns. For example, the finding that, the more the organisations in Nigeria allow high levels of interaction among the workers (as a result of the importance placed on work group) the more they (the workers) will be highly committed, is consistent with what other researchers have established (Blauner, 1964; Lodahl and Kejner, 1965; Buchanan, 1974a; Steers, 1977; Marsh and Mannari, 1977; Mottaz, 1987). This consistency is also true for job

scope (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Brief and Aldag, 1975; Morris and Sherman, 1981), company success (Bass, 1965), work quantity (Stevens et al., 1978; Maurer, 1969), extrinsic rewards (Becker, 1960; Mottaz, 1987; Aranya Kushnir and Valency, 1986), intrinsic rewards (Siegel, 1969; Bass, 1965; Aranya and Jacobson, 1975) and fairness (Buchanan, 1974a; Mowday et al., 1974; Angle and Perry, 1983). We can therefore conclude that, there exist similar patterns of antecedents of organisational commitment between Nigerian employees and their counterparts in other cultures.

However, the result on the importance placed on supervision did not support Salancik's (1977) hypothesis which stated that: high levels of employee commitment should be associated with supervision that is not overly tight or close. While this prediction has received support in America (Mowday, Porter and Dubin, 1974; Morris and Sherman, 1981), the result of the present study indicated that when supervision is not close, employees' level of commitment will diminish. This result is similar to that obtained on factors influencing job motivation which was reported earlier in this thesis. Therefore, it re-emphasises the importance of close supervision in an attempt to enhance positive job attitudes (highly motivated and highly committed) and confirms the appropriateness of our recommendation offered earlier.

Thirdly, it was found that good family conditions (no sickness or death in the family or other domestic problems) is related to employee commitment. Although, it was ranked eighth in order of importance (Table 37), the fact that such a unique precursor of commitment emerged among Nigerian employees is interesting. This is because, limited as it is, the finding provides support for our earlier criticism of previous cross-cultural research that when studying job attitude in a given culture, the use of instrument developed elsewhere is not appropriate as what (factor) is unique and important in that particular culture (the culture under study) may be overlooked.

A fourth significant finding of the present study concerns the relationship between individual characteristics and each commitment variable, and on the overall commitment

factor. To summarise the highlights, the most important correlates are occupational level, gender, type of organisation and personality as measured by neuroticism, psychoticism and self-esteem at work (Table 39). Age, education and marital status have limited main effects on commitment variables while number of dependents and work experience (tenure) have no direct effect on employees' perception of job commitment as measured by either specific commitment variable or overall commitment factor.

Results of the present study ^{are} consistent with Tannenbaum's (1966) assumption that individuals at higher ranks are generally more interested and more committed to their jobs than persons at lower levels. The results showed that higher occupational level employees perceived higher commitment to be associated with job scope, work group, extrinsic rewards and work quantity measures than lower level employees (Table 39). This finding is also consistent with that of Mannheim (1975) and Stevens et al. (1978) in Israel and the United States of America respectively. On the other hand, the confirmed assumption that the older one becomes, the more likely he is to have made a large number of "side-bets" (Becker, 1960), thereby increasing his commitment to the employing organisation (Hrebiniak and Alutto, 1972; Stevens, Beyer and Trice, 1978; Schwyhart and Smith, 1972; Hall and Mansfield, 1975) is repudiated in this study. However, our finding is consistent with those of Mannheim (1975) and Chusmir (1985) which indicate that age does not appear to have a significant effect on organisational commitment (with the exception of one commitment variable - intrinsic rewards).

Closer examination of the interactive effects of some characteristics on the three cultural groups' perceptions of factors influencing job commitment were necessary to arrive at some highly tentative suggestions about possible cultural variations in commitment. Results indicate that the Hausas and the Yorubas who were high on self-esteem perceived higher commitment to be associated with job scope, than the low esteem scorers while the opposite was true among the Ibo employees (Figure 11). Similar group difference is observed between the public and private sector employees on the importance placed on

work quantity as a commitment facilitator. The Hausa and the Yoruba employees in private sector scored significantly higher than their counterparts in public sector whereas the Ibo public sector employees scored significantly higher than their counterparts in private sector (Figure 14). In these two instances, the interactions are highly statistically significant, $p < 0.01$ (see Tables 41-A and 41-C).

Moreover, the interactive effects of occupational level and type of organisation on overall commitment factor and five specific commitment variables (job scope, intrinsic rewards, work group, extrinsic rewards and work quantity) are significant (Figures 15 to 20). The results show that high level employees in the private sector had higher scores on intrinsic rewards (Table 41-B), work quantity (Table 41-C) and overall commitment (Table 41-H) than their counterparts in the public sector while the opposite is true for shop floor employees. This result is consistent with Paine et al.'s (1966) earlier finding that managers in private sectors (business and industry) feel better about their jobs than their counterparts in government agencies.

In addition, results of the multiple regression analysis show that demographic variables as a group (age, marital status, education, gender, number of dependents) have no significant impact on job commitment for the three groups (with the exception of work group and work quantity measures among the Hausas and the Ibos respectively) - see Table 42. This finding too, is consistent with Chusmir's (1985) result in his study of variables affecting job commitment among 178 employees in the United States of America.

Finally, a particularly noteworthy finding is the observed differences among the three cultural groups on the commitment variables when the personal and organisational related characteristics are categorised into three predictor sets - demographic, exchange-based and personality. The results show that, personality variables as a group accounted for significant levels of variance on commitment to the organisation as measured by work group, job scope, intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards, fairness and supervision for the Hausas (Table 42-A), but not for the Ibos and the Yorubas. On the other hand, personality variables as a

group emerged as significant predictor of work quantity and overall commitment among the Ibos (Table 42-B), but such was not observed among the Hausa and the Yoruba groups. Furthermore, exchange-based measures as a group have significant impacts on intrinsic rewards, fairness, quantity of work and family conditions for the Yorubas (Table 42-C), but not for the Hausas and the Ibos. Taken together, this finding shows that the importance placed on the perceived sources of commitment by the three groups varies by demographic, exchange-based and personality characteristics.

Examination of stepwise multiple regression analyses for each cultural group involving all variables in the three sets of predictors also reaffirms the variations among the three groups (Table 43). For example, from the available predictors (the 12 independent variables) of overall commitment (Table 43-J), two different variables emerged as best predictors for each cultural group - gender and work experience for the Hausas; self-esteem and extraversion for the Ibos; and type of organisation and neuroticism for the Yorubas. More specifically, the best predictor of overall commitment is gender (demographic variable) for the Hausas; self-esteem at work (personality variable) for the Ibos; and the type of organisation (exchange-based variable) with which the Yorubas are associated. To this extent, the results of the present study are in consonant with the findings of several other studies on antecedents of organisational commitment reviewed earlier (e.g. Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982; Buchanan, 1974b; Stevens, Beyer and Trice, 1978), and also provide support for the hypothesised links of the three predictor sets to the construct of organisational commitment.

The implications of the above findings are straightforward. First, practitioners should be aware of the fact that work group, job scope and extrinsic rewards are strongly related to sources of commitment among Nigerian employees. If they are concerned with improving specific antecedents, these three work-related facets may be the most important areas on which to focus. Second, practitioners in Nigeria might be acting unwisely if they make changes or formulate policies to enhance commitment based on past research findings

in other cultures that, high level of employee commitment is associated with supervision that is not close. Results of the present study indicate that they would be more likely to succeed if they were to adopt leadership style that is fairly close and paternalistic in nature in facilitating employees commitment. Third, organisations in Nigeria (especially private organisations) might find it advantageous to be more concerned about the overall job commitment (as well as specific antecedents such as intrinsic rewards and work quantity) of their higher occupational level employees. Results of the present investigation show that employees within the supervisory and managerial levels place greater value on those facilitators - intrinsic rewards, work quantity and overall, were highly committed.

There are also two important theoretical implications of the above findings. First, in the area of organisational research, the most important implication of this study probably derives from its demonstration that instead of using a global measure of organisational commitment as is the case at present in the relevant literature (see for example, Organisational Commitment Questionnaire - OCQ; Mowday et al., 1979; Porter et al., 1974; Lodahl and Kejner, 1965), it may be useful to examine specific antecedents of commitment (or sub-scales) each tapping a different feature of work and where necessary combine these specific measures into a total (or overall) *commitment score*. (*This is similar to "Overall Job Satisfaction" and "Specific Satisfaction" measures; see Cook, Hepworth, Wall and Warr, 1981*). The advantage of this approach especially when comparing groups, is that, while similar response pattern may emerge for different groups on overall score, an examination of specific factors may reveal significant group differences. And second, this study points to the fact that, there are important interactions between the individual characteristics and organisational influences which need to be taken into account in understanding the impact of various kinds of work-related antecedents on the behavioural manifestations of committed and non-committed employees.

7.3. Conclusions and Directions for Future Research

This study found that job motivation in Nigeria workforce is influenced by seven motivational factors: interpersonal relations, working conditions, work nature, materials and physical provisions, supervision, possibility of growth and, company policy and administration. Contrary to the position of Herzberg motivator-hygiene theory, all but two of the seven can affect job motivation both positively and negatively.

The job motivation theory which emerge in this study incorporates within it elements of several (process and content) formulations of job motivation (see Appendix 1): Components of the goal-setting and two-factor approaches are embodied in the factor work nature. The powerful effect of inequity resolution on work behaviour have been subsumed under working conditions and company policy/administration factors. Proposition of the need achievement theory is comprised in the factor possibility of growth. And finally, a number of factors from the motivator-hygiene theory have been embodied in factors such as interpersonal relations, work nature, materials/physical provisions, and supervision.

The fact that some components of various theories of job motivation have been confirmed in this study should be seen as a demonstration of some but incomplete validity of these theories. The lack of support from the data for some components of these theories is an indication of their shortcomings or partial deficiency with respect to validity. This point illustrates and reiterates the position (emphasised in the introduction of this study) concerning the futility of attempting to explain complex work behaviour relying on a single motivation framework or theory since, as has been demonstrated here, no single formulation of motivation appears to sufficiently explain perception of work behaviour. However, the theory proposed here has the advantage that it incorporates the more promising parts of general existing theories. Besides being empirically derived, the theory contains elements that may be unique to the social, cultural and economic conditions of many developing nations particularly Nigeria.

The point that this theory embodies elements that may be unique to Nigeria raises the issue of generalisability of the theory, especially as it was based on data from conditions and a sample that was entirely Nigerian. While this is acknowledged, the fact that the theory incorporated components or concepts from models of some demonstrated validity in some countries perhaps makes this criticism less damaging. Besides, elements incorporated in the seven factors, that can be said to be unique to Nigeria constitute only a small component of the derived theory.

On organisational commitment, this study implies that workers in a developing economy (e.g. Nigeria), like their counterparts elsewhere, express greater commitment to those organisations which: (i) allow high levels of interaction (cordial) which lead to greater social involvement, (ii) provide tasks that have variety, challenge and opportunity for advancement, and (iii) take better care of their financial and physiological needs (such as adequate financial incentives, job security, good physical working conditions and fringe benefits). For the three cultural groups studied, the findings indicated that the best predictor of overall commitment, from the twelve available antecedents, differ from each other. Thus, the best predictor of organisational commitment is gender for the Hausas, self-esteem at work for the Ibos and the *type of organisation with which the Yorubas* are associated.

All in all, the strength of the data presented in this thesis (on the two job attitudes studied), accrue from the care taken in the design of this study. First, unlike the Herzberg study which was criticised (Vroom, 1966) for asking employees to remember times when they were very satisfied and very dissatisfied, and proceeded to infer motivation from resulting data (Herzberg et al., 1959), the present study focused on motivation by asking subjects to talk about incidents when they worked very hard and when they put very little effort into their work. Since working very hard and working very little are evidence of motivation, the study clearly addressed the issue of job motivation more than the Herzberg study did.

Secondly, the greatest strength in the design of this research lies in the fact that results from content-analysed critical incident-interview data were validated using a different method: A questionnaire developed from the data was administered to a new sample of employees not included in the exploratory study. Third, organisational commitment was assessed on a combination of eight different behavioural outcomes as opposed to previous related studies that have used only one outcome variable - desire to stay with or leave the organisation - with the exception of Steers (1977) who used three outcome variables (attendance, turnover and performance) in his study - see Chapter 5 on development procedure of the questionnaire. Finally, the sample of 350 employees consisting of private and public sector workforce in four occupational levels was drawn from the three main cultural groups (Hausa, Ibo and Yoruba) that represented the entire population of Nigeria.

Regarding cross-cultural differences in the two job attitudes among the three groups, we can conclude that the attitudes of the three groups were surprisingly similar. The data suggest that the three cultural groups are relatively more integrated than we imagine. We feel that these similarities are particularly noteworthy in view of the different numerous social and cultural dimensions, including Westernisation prevailing in the three communities. However, we are obligated to include the traditional caveat that confirmation of this finding must await constructive replication by use of longitudinal or other research designs. This recommendation for future research is particularly strong since the instrument used in the present study is newly developed.

This research should be replicated in other developing countries, particularly those that have social, cultural, and economic conditions similar to Nigeria. Results of such investigation can then be compared with those obtained in the present study to see whether consistent patterns exist among workers in these countries. Attempts should also be made by future research to refine the new scales developed in this study to measure job motivation, in such a way that differential negative and positive impact of the motivational

factors can be measured and depicted. Such a refinement will help us to see the extent to which any given factor tends to have greater potential to increase than to decrease motivation or vice versa. It would also be informative to determine the most likely behavioural outcome of a committed and non-committed worker out of the eight outcomes combined in the present study to characterise a committed and non-committed employee.

As a final point, the present study found some support for the existence of differences in sources of productive and nonproductive work behaviours among workers in advanced and developing countries (see results of exploratory study presented in Chapter 4) - that is, existence of between countries or national differences - but found relatively no difference among various cultural groups in a given country (see results presented in Chapter 6) - that is, nonexistence of within country or subcultural group differences. Can we therefore conclude that job attitudes only differ from one culture to another due to their differences in frames of reference, orientations and values but do not significantly differ among various subcultures (or ethnic groups) in a given country? This is an important research question for future examination in the area of cross-cultural research related to organisational behaviour.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1

A Review of Job Motivation Theories

- A. The Concept of Job Motivation**
- B. Content Theories**
- C. Cognitive Process Theories**
- D. Acognitive Process Theories**
- E. Summary and Conclusion**

APPENDIX 1

A REVIEW OF JOB MOTIVATION THEORIES

A. The Concept of Job Motivation

In retrospect, as early as 1789, the philosopher Bentham coined the phrase "hedonic calculus" to describe the process by which individuals weigh advantages and disadvantages of their behaviour. Later, psychologists like James and McDougall (instinct theory), Freud (unconscious theory) and Thorndike (drive theory) proposed more comprehensive theories of motivation at the turn of the century and early this century (see Cofer and Appley, 1964; Atkinson, 1964; for reviews of early motivation models). It is to this early works that today's motivation theories owe their roots.

Ever since the above pioneering efforts, there has been an enormous output of literature on job motivation but there is yet to emerge a single, comprehensive, definitive theory of job motivation. The bulk of available research evidence indicates that previous psychological theorists as well as their more philosophically oriented predecessors have frequently relied upon some kind of moving, pushing, driving or energising force or agency. The ubiquity of the concept of motivation, in one guise or another, is nevertheless surprising when one considers that its meaning is often scandalously vague (Brown, 1961).

According to Scott (unpublished manuscript), some of the difficulties in motivational psychology can be attributed to the vagueness of the constructs need and drive. Needs are assumed to be derived from deficits. The concept need is used as an explanation of the arousal as well as the direction of behaviour. Some writers (Isaacson, Hutt and Blum, 1965) argue that the vagueness of the concept of need has been aggravated by the adoption of the term need to designate motives that are not biologically based and that do not stem from an internal deficit; for example the need for power or the need for achievement. Young (1961) notes that the concept of need is firmly embedded within motivational psychology but it is nevertheless a source of confusion. Maslow (1954), on the other hand, defends the use of

the concept need in that study of motivation must be in part study of the ultimate human goals or desires or needs.

Another difficulty in motivational psychology is the disagreement on the domain of the concept of motivation. Broad and narrow conceptions of motivation are encountered in the literature and various definitions have been proposed by different theorists. Maier (1949) limits motivation to goal oriented behaviour. Brown and Farber (1951) assign to motivation the function of energising while that of directing and regulating activity is attributed to learning. For Patchen (1970), motivation means "the internal push to perform well on the job." Vroom (1964) sees the concept of motivation as "..... a process governing choices made by persons or lower organisms among alternative forms of voluntary activity." These narrow conceptions of motivation are contrasted with some other broader points of view. Bindra (1959) defines motivation so as to include both energising and regulating behaviour while Young (1961) argues that all behaviour is motivated. For Campbell and Pritchard (1976) :

"..... motivation has to do with a set of independent/dependent variable relationships that explain the direction, amplitude, and persistence of an individual's behaviour, holding constant the effects of aptitude, skill, and understanding of the task and the constraints operating in the environment." (p. 65).

Despite the divergent views of motivation in the psychological literature, some of which are hinted above, the following motivational theories can be identified :

- (i) Cognitive process theories of motivation
- (ii) Content theories of motivation
- (iii) Acognitive process theories of motivation

This classification of theories of motivation was on the basis of whether they postulate conscious mental processes (cognitive) or whether they contend that behaviour is regulated by past habits or reinforcement history (acognitive). This distinction has some significance for the present study. For it can be expected that greater differences across cultures are

more likely with theories positing that behaviour is determined by conscious decisions of the individual than with theories maintaining that behaviour is a function of reinforcement history. Another basis for distinction is whether the theories focus on identifying specific factors within the individual or environment which determine behaviour (content) or if they focus on processes by which behaviour is controlled (process).

In the summaries below, content theories are discussed first, cognitive process theories next, then one cognitive process theory is presented. The discussions are mainly concerned with the interaction between the theories and empirical research on job motivation.

B. Content Theories

Need Hierarchy Theory

Maslow (1954) explained human motivation in terms of a dynamic hierarchy of needs. He postulated that human needs can be classified into five distinct categories ranging from the lowest to the highest order : physiological, safety, love, esteem and self-actualisation. According to Maslow, a motive is an unsatisfied need which dominates the organism. When a specified need is gratified - and he talks of relative gratification - it is no longer a primary determinant of behaviour, and another need of higher order will seek satisfaction and in turn dominate the organism until it is satisfied. This process continues until the highest order need of self-actualisation is gratified. Thus, relative gratification of a given need submerges it and activates the next higher order need which continues to organise and dominate the individual's personality and capacities until it (need) is satisfied.

There has been a growing tendency to regard Maslow's needs-hierarchy as a fixed quantum but Maslow himself has emphasised that "it is not nearly as rigid as we may have implied" (Vroom and Deci, 1970: p. 35). In fact there is ample evidence of overlap among these allegedly discrete want-systems (Schneider and Alderfer, 1973). Even so, Wilcox (1969) argues, in point of fact, man in the aggregate sense does not behave on Maslow's schema :

"It is true that when man's belly is filled with bread new needs emerge - for cakes and ale. If it were otherwise there would be only cloth coats and no mink coats; chevrolets but not cadillacs; and no walnut baskets in offices, only utilitarian metal." (p. 55).

In other words, and this is reasonable, satiety is necessarily determined by innate biological drives as Maslow affirms but is mostly affected by cultural norms and values. For example, for some people, self-esteem might be more important and consequently more urgent than, say, love. In that case, the order would be reversed.

Maslow's identification of various human needs is much more important than his ordering them into a hierarchy which may or may not be adequate. Much depends on an individual's other characteristics such as his idiosyncratic talents and constitutional peculiarities.

Maslow's concept of need hierarchy has influenced empirical studies of workers' motivation to a great extent and has been used to explain and prescribe management practices (McGregor, 1960; 1967; Schein, 1965) and job enrichment (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman, 1977). Adopting that concept as a basis for his studies, Porter (1964) contributed to better understanding of employees' job attitudes. Porter expressed the purpose of his research on managerial attitudes as an attempt to investigate how managers perceive the psychological characteristics of their jobs. This was done by looking at the relationships between several organisational variables on the one hand, and managers' attitudes toward needs and need satisfaction on the other. It may be useful to present hereunder a summary of some of the findings of Porter's study as reviewed by Blum and Naylor (1968) :

- (a) The vertical location of management positions appears to be an important variable in determining the extent to which psychological needs are fulfilled;
- (b) The greatest differences in the frequency of need fulfillment deficiencies between bottom and middle management positions occur in the esteem, security and autonomy areas. These needs are significantly more often satisfied in middle than in bottom

- management;
- (c) Higher order psychological needs are relatively the least satisfied needs in both bottom and middle management;
 - (d) Self-actualisation and security are seen as more important areas of need satisfaction than the areas of social, esteem and autonomy by individuals in both bottom and middle management positions;
 - (e) The highest order need of self-actualisation is the most critical area of those studied in terms of both perceived deficiency in fulfillment and perceived importance to the individual (p. 31).

Porter's findings as reported above validate at least, among other things, Maslow's thesis that self-actualisation is the highest need and one which is not easy to attain. Likewise, Paine, Carrol and Leete (1966) using a Porter's type questionnaire, found employees engaged in field to be more satisfied than those in office work. On the other hand, employees in a government agency were less satisfied across all need items than private industry employees. Edel (1966) arrived at the same conclusion using Porter's questionnaire with first line supervisors and middle managers in a large government agency.

While the above findings and those of Aronoff (1967) in the British West Indies and Aronoff and Messe (1969) working with American university students found support for Maslow's formulation, the bulk of research findings have been non-supportive of propositions from the theory. Friedlander (1965), in his study of the relative importance of job aspects for 1,468 government employees showed that, Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory cannot claim universal applicability. Self-actualisation needs were found to be more important to white collar workers while interpersonal values were more important to blue collar workers. In addition, Rauschenburger, Schmitt and Hunter (1981) found no support whatsoever for the need hierarchy concept.

Disconfirmatory evidence for propositions of the Maslow model has led some researchers to suggest some modifications. Alderfer (1972) proposed a 3-level (existence,

relatedness and growth) need hierarchy theory and this received some empirical support from Wanous and Zwany (1977). Based on his earlier empirical research (Lawler and Suttle, 1972), Lawler (1973) suggested a two-step hierarchy with existence and security needs at the lowest level and all the higher order needs at the next level. Later, Lawler and Suttle (1975) added a modification that "..... prepotency of higher level needs for an individual would be determined by such things as his childhood experience, his age,....."

In spite of the various weaknesses of Maslow's theory such as that it is florid, idealistic and sometimes vague, it has been and continue to be widely used in organisations. For example, Argyris (1964) work on the conflict between the individual and the organisation may have been influenced, directly or indirectly, by Maslow's notion of self-actualisation. Beer (1966), too, used Maslow's concept in his investigation of the interrelationships among employees' needs, leadership and motivation. For thus provoking further thought and research at least, Maslow should be honoured for his initiative.

For purposes of the present study, it would be interesting to see, and would provide strong empirical support, if a motivational pattern similar to the need hierarchy formulation emerges from the data to be collected. However, it is important to note that in the USA, where Maslow developed his theory, it is estimated that something like 85 per cent of the population have their physiological needs relatively well catered for. On the other hand, in developing countries the figure would be very much lower, and we would therefore expect this need category to feature prominently in people's motivational make-up. At work, such factors as salary level, working conditions (e.g. materials, temperature and furniture), and distance from home to work would feature prominently as determinants of motivation.

Motivation - Hygiene Theory

The motivation - hygiene concept (known also as the two-factor theory) proposed by Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959) reflects the influence of hedonism on the study

of the motivation to work among employees. According to Herzberg (1966) :

"The motivation to work was a study designed to test the concept that man has two sets of needs : his need to avoid pain and his need to grow psychologically." (p. 71).

To test this hypothesis, approximately 200 engineers and accountants representing a cross section of Pittsburgh industry were interviewed. Subjects were asked to recall two incidents when they felt exceptionally good and exceptionally bad about their jobs, and the nature of the events that helped the subjects' attitudes return to their normal state. The Herzberg et al. approach to the study of job attitudes centers around three concepts : factors, attitudes and effects. By obtaining from the individual an account of his high or low morale, an influence of factors and effects could be made. This approach has its origin in the critical incident technique developed by Flanagan (1954). The results of the study were formulated in a theory of job attitudes, the motivation - hygiene theory. The theory postulates that :

- (a) Job factors producing job satisfaction are qualitatively different and separate from job factors producing job dissatisfaction. Therefore, it is more adequate to view job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction as two separate and parallel continua rather than the obverse of each other.
- (b) Job content factors determine job satisfaction. These factors, labelled "motivators" or "satisfiers" tend to be more intrinsic and include interesting and challenging work, responsibility, advancement, recognition and achievement.
- (c) Job context factors determine job dissatisfaction. These factors are extrinsic and include working conditions, supervision, interpersonal relations, company policy and administration, and salary. These have been labelled "hygiene" factors or "dissatisfiers".

This dual approach to job motivation represents a departure from earlier conceptions of job satisfaction where variables affecting satisfaction were viewed as operating on a continuum such that :

"a factor that influences job attitudes should influence them in such a way that the positive or negative impact of the same factor should lead to a corresponding increase or decrease in morale" (Herzberg, et al., 1959: p. 111).

Herzberg's motivator - hygiene dichotomy parallels Maslow's distinction between high level "growth" needs (esteem and self-actualisation) and low level "deficit" needs (physiological and safety needs). Of particular interest too is the way he characterises people as either "motivation seekers" or hygiene seekers".

The motivation - hygiene theory has for years provoked a great deal of critical debate which has not yet been resolved. Numerous studies have either upheld or questioned Herzberg's thesis. (For comprehensive review, see Bockman, 1971; and Johnston and Bavin, 1973).

Myers (1964) interviewed 50 scientists, 55 engineers, 50 supervisors, 75 male technicians and 52 female assemblers, in an attempt to test Herzberg's theory. The two-factor theory was supported for all five groups of Myer's population, though differences in the patterning of factors did occur. Also, Hinrichs and Mischkind (1967) administered a questionnaire to 613 technicians. The questionnaire was concerned with reasons for present satisfaction with a current job situation. Their results refute the two-factor hypothesis that motivators are more important than hygiene factors. Furthermore, Dunnette, Campbell and Hakel (1967) factor analysed job factors obtained from 133 store managers, 44 secretaries, 129 engineers and research scientists, 89 salesclerks, 49 salesmen and 92 army reservists and night school students. Three motivators and one hygiene factor emerged as the most important determinants of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Whilst motivators were found to be more important than hygiene factors in relation to satisfaction, they were also more important in relation to dissatisfaction. However, many researchers now accept that both factors, "motivators" and "hygienes", affect satisfaction and dissatisfaction (see Lawler, 1973; Bockman, 1971).

Apart from the above conflicting results, Herzberg's claims have also brought widespread criticism both at the theoretical and empirical levels. Most criticism has been

directed at his sample and at the methodology used to collect data (Johnston and Bavin, 1973).

In criticising Herzberg for oversimplifying his methodology, Dunnette et al. (1967) emphasised the individuality of workers; what workers see as satisfying depends not only upon the situation in which they find themselves, but also on their personal needs at the time. In support of this, a study by Saleh (1964) suggested that specific job factors such as pay and security tend to increase in importance as the worker grows older. Saleh pointed out that Herzberg failed to take into account the fact that the engineers and accountants interviewed were mostly of middle age, and that satisfiers were more relevant to their particular needs, and were therefore more meaningful to these two groups of workers, at the time of the interview.

Further bias was suggested by Vroom (1966) who pointed out that Herzberg and his associates equated satisfaction to motivation by asking respondents to talk about good or bad feelings about their jobs and inferring motivation from resulting data.

Hulin (1966) questioned the validity of Herzberg's satisfiers on the grounds that he did not take into account the effect that the community environment has on the worker. *Whether the worker works in the slums or in prosperous community will affect his satisfaction, particularly with regard to pay.* He emphasised that the worker evaluates his present position in the context of the alternatives open to him. This was also suggested by Friedlander (1965), who said that Herzberg has shown little concern for the influence of social location and social class upon a worker's value system. Ewen (1964) further suggested that since data from nine different locations in the Pittsburgh area were combined by Herzberg into one analysis, the effect of different geographical locations could not be ascertained. Probably, the highest criticism of the motivation-hygiene theory is that from Dunnette et al. who stated that : "It seems that evidence is now sufficient to lay the two-factor theory to rest, and we hope that it may be buried peaceably." (p. 174).

Despite these criticisms, and others which have been omitted, motivation-hygiene theory appears to have some validity and should therefore not be written off as unimportant. Its significance does not so much lie in the dichotomous dimensions it emphasises, as in the fact that it clearly and readily lends itself to further empirical investigation. The two-factor theory together with Maslow's (1954) need hierarchy concept are cornerstones of modern job design and re-design theory (Hackman and Lawler, 1971; Hackman, 1977) which has received substantial empirical support in field settings. In fact, Hackman and Oldham (1980) point out that :

"In sum, what the Herzberg theory does, and does well, is point attention directly to the considerable significance of the work itself as a factor in the ultimate motivation and satisfaction of employees. And because the message of the theory is simple, persuasive and directly relevant to the design and evaluation of actual organisational changes, the theory continues to be widely known and generally used by managers." (p. 58).

Therefore the most important contribution of Herzberg's theory to our understanding of motivation at work is that it draws attention to the potential significance of the intrinsic characteristics of work.

Because the present will use a methodology similar to the one used by Herzberg, this study may partly be seen as an attempt to replicate Herzberg's under a different cultural, social, economic and political environment. Nevertheless, the present research is different not only in methodological improvements over Herzberg's (see procedure of exploratory study) but also in the main assumption that motivation patterns in developing countries might be greatly different from those in the West and consequently might be different from what Herzberg and his associates found.

Need for Achievement

Building on Murray's (1938) list of human needs (see Table A), McClelland (1961) and McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1953) have developed a theory of human motivation centered around the need for achievement (abbreviated "n Ach"). The achievement motive, as the n Ach is often referred to, is perhaps the most thoroughly

Table A

Murray's List of Human Needs

Need	Characteristics
Achievement	Aspires to accomplish difficult tasks; maintains high standards and is willing to work toward distant goals; responds positively to competition; willing to put forth effort to attain excellence.
Affiliation	Enjoys being with friends and people in general; accepts people readily; makes efforts to win friendships and maintain associations with people.
Aggression	Enjoys combat and argument; easily annoyed; sometimes willing to hurt people to get his or her way; may seek to "get even" with people perceived as having harmed him or her.
Autonomy	Tries to break away from restraints, confinement, or restrictions of any kind; enjoys being unattached, free, not tied to people, places, or obligations; may be rebellious when faced with restraints.
Endurance	Willing to work long hours; doesn't give up quickly on a problem; persevering, even in the face of great difficulty; patient and unrelenting in his work habits.
Exhibition	Wants to be the center of attention; enjoys having an audience; engages in behavior which wins the notice of others; may enjoy being dramatic or witty.
Harmavoidance	Does not enjoy exciting activities, especially if danger is involved; avoids risk of bodily harm; seeks to maximize personal safety.
Impulsivity	Tends to act on the "spur of the moment" and without deliberation; gives vent readily to feelings and wishes; speaks freely; may be volatile in emotional expression.
Nurturance	Gives sympathy and comfort; assists others whenever possible; interested in caring for children, the disabled, or the infirm; offers a "helping hand" to those in need; readily performs favors for others.
Order	Concerned with keeping personal effects and surroundings neat and organized; dislikes clutter, confusion, lack of organization; interested in developing methods for keeping materials methodically organized.
Power	Attempts to control the environment and to influence or direct other people; expresses opinions forcefully; enjoys the role of leader and may assume it spontaneously.
Succorance	Frequently seeks the sympathy, protection, love, advice, and reassurance of other people; may feel insecure or helpless without such support; confides difficulties readily to a receptive person.
Understanding	Wants to understand many areas of knowledge; values synthesis of ideas, verifiable generalization, logical thought, particularly when directed at satisfying intellectual curiosity.

Source: Adapted from D. N. Jackson, *Personality Research Form Manual*. Goshen, N. Y.: Research Psychologists Press, 1967.

researched individual human motive. Atkinson (1958) and McClelland et al. (1953) view the achievement motive as a relatively stable predisposition to strive for success. More specifically, *n Ach* is defined as "behaviour toward competition with a standard of excellence" (McClelland et al., 1953).

A review of relevant literature led to the identification of the following assumptions concerning the theory of achievement motivation :

- (a) Achievement oriented individuals should prefer situations that facilitate the self-assessment of competence. This preference, which has typically been assessed in terms of task choice and persistence, may also be a determining factor in task involvement, and may contribute to subsequent intrinsic motivation (Spence and Helmreich, 1983).
- (b) Achievement oriented individuals will be interested in *diagnostic ability assessment* and desirous of objective ability feedback. They are particularly likely to become involved in activities that afford evaluation. They hold high expectation for performance and, after failure feedback, are more likely to respond with additional effort rather than task avoidance. Consequently, they may benefit maximally from available competence information. Consistent with Steers and Porters' (1983) findings, high need for achievement is characterised by : (i) a strong to assume personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems; (ii) a tendency to set moderately difficult achievement goals and take calculated risks; (iii) a strong desire for concrete feedback on task performance; and (iv) a single minded preoccupation with task and task accomplishment.
- (c) Those who are not oriented toward achievement on the other hand, have lower performance expectations, avoid ability assessment when possible, and experience evaluation anxiety. In unavoidable achievement situations, evaluative pressure may interfere with their effective use of competence cues in judging self-efficacy. The negative aspects of evaluation may typically be more salient and detrimental for low achievers. Also, low need for achievement is typically characterised by a preference

for low risk levels on tasks and for shared responsibility on tasks.

The above assumptions which underlie the theory of achievement motivation were based on two factors : (i) intrinsic determinants which are required to produce n Ach in the individual, and (ii) extrinsic factors which operate to bring about the individual conditions under which n Ach is produced (McClelland, 1961). The most widely accepted theory, backed by considerable evidence, indicates that child-rearing or socialisation practices are the most important intrinsic factors. Rosen (1962) summarises the evidence as follows :

"Several studies have shown that achievement motivation has its origin in a complex of interrelated socialisation practices. The first and the most important of these is 'achievement training'. Parents who provide this type of training set high goals for their child, indicate a high evaluation of his competence to a task well, and impose standards of excellence upon problem-solving tasks, even in situations where such standards are not explicit. Also related to the development of achievement motivation is another set of socialisation practices called 'independence training'. This type of training involves expectations that the child be 'self-reliant' when competing with standards of excellence. At the same time the child is granted 'autonomy' in problem-solving and decision-making in situations where he has both freedom of action and responsibility for success or failure. Essentially, achievement training is concerned with getting the child to do things well, while independence training seeks to teach him to do things on his own (self-reliance) in a situation where he enjoys relative freedom from parental control (autonomy)." (p. 612).

Studies conducted by McClelland (1961) in *Brazil, Japan and Germany indicate that* achievement demands made by mothers at the age of eight are more likely to produce high n Ach than such demands made earlier or later. In addition to these specific dimensions of training, aspects of family structure (considered extrinsic by McClelland) have been shown to be involved in the development of n Ach. The optimal pattern for producing n Ach seems to be : a somewhat dominating mother who emphasises standards of excellence, and a father who allows his son autonomy. The authoritarian, father-dominated family is less likely to produce men high in achievement motivation, as Rosen (1962) has argued in his study of Brazil. Thus achievement motivation is seen as fostered by a pre-adolescent environment consisting of a particular pattern of adult-child relationships and training experiences.

The "extrinsic" factors most emphasised by McClelland are the ideological convictions of parents which lead them to modify their child-rearing practices in the direction of those described above as optimal for the development of n Ach. If the parents strongly adopt an ideology stressing individualism and self-reliance, they will attempt to promote these qualities in their children through intense training in independence and self-reliance. Thus, McClelland adds to Webber's hypothesis that Protestantism led to the spirit of modern capitalism by asserting that it did so through the mediation of the child-rearing practices of Protestant parents which produce generations of men high in n Ach who actively engaged in entrepreneurial activity.

Unlike the two-factor theory, the n Ach construct has received widespread empirical support. Research findings in both laboratory and field have demonstrated a positive relationship between n Ach and level of performance in a variety of settings (McClelland, et al., 1953; Cummin, 1967; Steers, 1973; Weiner and Kulka, 1970). In a research extending over two decades and covering many developed and underdeveloped countries, McClelland (1961) and his associates investigated the relationship between n Ach in a nation and the nation's level of economic growth. McClelland concluded from his research that n Ach was positively related to the level of economic growth measured by amount of electrical output in a given country.

Despite the impressive support, the n Ach framework has not been without its critics. Maehr (1974) cautioned that since different cultures do provide different contexts for social learning, it is likely that members of these cultures will hold varying orientations toward achievement and that such orientations will determine when and how achievement motivation will be exhibited. McClelland, like others concerned with personality and achievement has given minimal attention to distinctions between the motive to achieve and the ways in which this motive might be actualised - dependent on culturally approved means and ends. Rather, the achievement motivation literature emphasises that achievement depends on a generalised desire to achieve and, at least by implication,

minimises the importance of knowing and valuing the appropriate instrumental behaviours. Culturally derived beliefs about ends (terminal values) and means (instrumental values) typically play little or no significant role in conceptualising achievement motivation (Rokeach, 1967).

Moreover, the personal desire or inclination to achieve is usually confounded with the goal to achieve in such a way that little consideration is given to the possibility that one might exhibit all or most of the basic behaviour supposedly characteristic of highly motivated persons, only directed to different ends - ends that are appropriate in one culture, but not another culture. Possibly also, the most cross-culturally valid definition of high- and low- achievement-motivated persons must be based on the structure of social meanings an individual holds - the subjective side of culture (Saral and Crotts, 1971).

Despite the above criticisms, the n Ach concept has important implications for job design. According to Steers and Porter (1983), enriching an employees job by providing greater amounts of variety, autonomy and responsibility would probably enhance performance for those employees who are high in n Ach. Also, it is achievement motivation which is largely responsible for the effects of knowledge of results (i.e. information about level of performance), and of success and failure, in work performance. To Argyle (1983), this knowledge of results can improve performance in two ways : (i) If this information is given before the action is completed, it enables the performer to correct his performance to make it more accurate; (ii) If the performer is not highly skilled at the task and if knowledge of results is given after each performance, it helps him learn to perform better. Knowledge of results of group performance has been found to improve the performance of groups working in laboratory tasks. In a laboratory experiment, French (1958) found that feedback about task performance had most effect when group members were high in achievement motivation; when they were low in achievement motivation, feedback on the social interaction had more effect.

As earlier indicated, the n Ach construct has received widespread support in many

developed and developing nation cultures (McClelland, 1961). As a result, it is highly probable that achievement need may emerge as a factor of job motivation in this study.

C. Cognitive Process Theories

Equity Theory

Models of equity, exchange or social comparison have been proposed by, among others, Homans (1961), Patchen (1961) and Adams (1963, 1965). Equity theory stresses that it is relative rather than absolute feelings which determine how a person feels about his pay. The theorists suggest that people evaluate their jobs favourably if they think they are being fairly treated. According to Black's Law Dictionary (Black, 1957):

"equity denotes the spirit and the habit of fairness, justness, and the right dealing which would regulate the intercourse of men with men, the rule of doing to all others as we desire them to do to us; or as it is expressed by Justinian, to live honestly, to harm nobody, to render to everyman his due." (p. 634).

The notion of equity is based on the above definition. Essentially a motivation theory, equity theory asserts that the main way in which a person evaluates his job is by comparing his own work experiences with those of another person. According to Adams (1965), an employee's feeling of fair or unfair treatment is a product of one or two calculations:

- (i) a computation of the ratio of inputs which an individual brings into the work situation (such as age, experience, educational qualifications and training, effort and skill) to the outcome he gets from the job (such as fringe benefits, pay, job status and rewards intrinsic to the job); and
- (ii) an attempt to relate these to those of a "comparison other".

Equity exists if the two ratios match and the individual is not likely to change his inputs or outcomes. If, however the ratios are perceived to be unequal, the individual experiences tension and will be motivated to reduce with the force or intensity of the motivated behaviour being directly proportional to the amount of tension created by the inequity.

In other words according to the theory of equity, individuals usually examine two ratios :

- (1) The ratio of the person's perceived outcomes (O_p) to his perceived inputs (I_p); that is :

$$\frac{O_p}{I_p}$$

- (2) the ratio of the person's perceptions of the "comparison others" outcomes (O_o) to the comparison other's inputs (I_o); or

$$\frac{O_o}{I_o}$$

These two sets of ratios are then compared and the result may take one of the following forms :

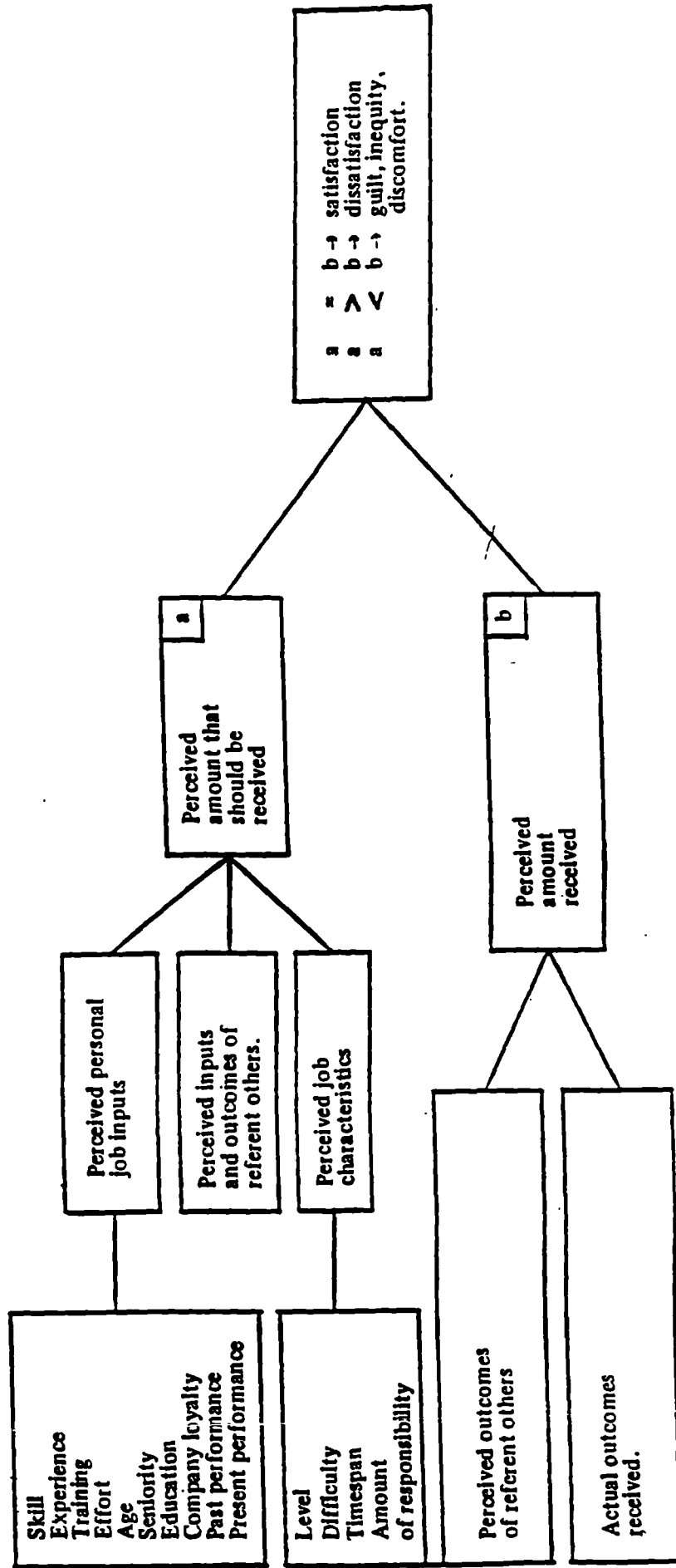
- (a) $\frac{O_p}{I_p} = \frac{O_o}{I_o}$ (a state of perfect equity);
 (b) $\frac{O_p}{I_p} < \frac{O_o}{I_o}$ (a state of inequity in which case that person perceives that he is far worse than the "comparison other");
 (c) $\frac{O_p}{I_p} > \frac{O_o}{I_o}$ (he perceives his own outcomes to be far higher than the "comparison other").

(See Figure A for a summary of equity theory model).

Equity theory has been quite widely tested by, for example, Goodman and Friedman (1971), Klein and Maher (1966), Weick (1966), and Carrell (1978). Some of the most frequently observed effects are that persons underpaid under a piece-rate system increase work quantity at the expense of quality to achieve equity. On the other hand, individuals perceiving overpayment inequity under piece-rate increase quality without increasing quantity. Other findings are that overpaid hourly-employees increase quality and/or quantity of their work while those underpaid reduce these aspects of performance to regain equity (see Steers and Porter, 1983; for a summary of equity theory research).

Although the support for Adam's theory appears impressive, his theory does fall short in certain respects. As Lawler and O'Gara (1967) have pointed out, individuals differ in the extent to which they tried to achieve equity. No attempt is made to distinguish inputs from outputs while some factors such as authority, may be perceived as either depending on

FIGURE A
A MODEL OF THE DETERMINANTS OF SATISFACTION BASED
ON THE THEORY OF EQUITY



Source: From *Motivation in Work Organisations*, by E. E. Lawler III.
(monterey, California: Books/Cole publishing Co., 1973) p. 67

individual difference, situational factors or both. Friedman and Goodman (1967) noted that a person's self perceptions were ignored. They argue that this, too, could affect the input/output balance.

No doubt, one of the strengths of equity theory is its inclusion of interpersonal processes or what Adams calls "social comparison". It must however be understood that sometimes a worker could evaluate the outcomes he gets from his job equitable or inequitable based on some "composite internal standards" which may not necessarily be tied to a group or a "comparison other". Weick (1966) calls this phenomenon, "equity in the social isolate". According to him :

"If internal standards are used in place of social standards, then a person should experience equity when his inputs are in alignment with his outcomes regardless of whether both are low or high. When inputs and outcomes are unequal, as in the case where a person works hard; yet is paid very little, tension would be expected, even if the person's comparison person had high inputs and low outcomes. The fact that someone shares his plight would not be sufficient for him to experience equity." (p. 427).

Weick's observation above highlights the importance of one's value system as a moderator of one's job expectations. Another factor often neglected by equity theorists is the role of outside-work-behaviours or phenomena as other sources of feelings of equity or inequity with job outcomes. For example, a man with large family might feel unhappy with his job outcomes (e.g. pay) even when they are fairly comparable with what a "comparison other" with no family gets from his job situation. It thus seems an insoluble task to try and predict with reasonable accuracy when a worker is likely to perceive equity or inequity with regard to his job rewards.

Despite having certain theoretical and methodological drawbacks, the approach of equity theory has provided a useful conceptual framework for considering attitudes towards pay and other job facets. Lawler (1971) for instance, has drawn on equity theory as well as theory of social comparison and discrepancy theory to formulate a multivariate model of the determinants of pay satisfaction. According to Steers and Porter (1983), equity theory emphasises the necessity for managers to be aware of social processes in

organisations and to view motivation in dynamic, changing terms.

The concept of equity is an interesting one to examine in cross-cultural contexts. Because of the political ideology of some countries, the equity norm may not be as salient as it might be in other countries. In the proposed study the concept of equity is not directly addressed; however, the approach of this study - starting with no a priori theoretical framework - may very well bring in the equity norm if the idea of equity is salient in the culture to be studied.

Expectancy Theory

According to Cameron (1973), expectancy theory of job motivation is founded on the belief that man as a rational being chooses at any given point in time from among a set of alternative plans of behaviour the one he expects will maximise the attractiveness of the sum of outcomes that would result. It is an attempt to explain an individual's perception of the relationships between behaviour and its antecedents or consequences.

Perhaps the first known theoretical formulation of performance/expectancy theory may be attributed to Vroom (1964) who defines "expectancy" as "an action-outcome" association - the extent to which an individual believes that a certain action will result in a particular outcome. The central concepts in the theory are expectancy, valence (the desirability of a given event or outcome), outcome (any potential need related to consequence of behaviour), and instrumentality (the likelihood that a given level of performance leads to desired outcomes). The theory posits that, the motivation for an individual to perform a given task is a function of the expectancy that effort leads to required performance, the likelihood that performance leads to outcomes and desirability of the outcomes in question. Borrowing from the realm of mathematics, this can be expressed as :

$$MF = E VI$$

where

MF	=	motivation or force to act
E	=	expectance that effort leads to performance,
V	=	valence of outcomes, and
I	=	the instrumentality

The main issues of expectancy theory have been summarised by Lawler (1973) :

"The strength of a tendency to act in a certain way depends on the strength of an expectancy that the act will be followed by a given consequence (or outcome) and on the value or attractiveness of that consequence (or outcome) to the actor." (p. 45).

To Cameron, there are some four basic assumptions upon which the theory rests, namely,

- (i) that people do have preferences among the various outcomes that they see as possible;
- (ii) that people have expectancies about the likelihood that an action or effort on their part will lead to the behaviour or performance that they intend it to;
- (iii) that people have expectancies about the likelihood that certain outcomes will follow their behaviour; and
- (iv) that people do not behave at random. (p. 7).

Taken together, the tenet of expectancy is that people will tend to do a thing the more they think such performances will lead to results which they want or value. It admits, for example, the possibility of individuals having varying goals or needs and of perceiving different connections between their actions and achievements of these goals (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1977).

While numerous studies have been done to test the validity of the expectancy-theory approach to predicting employee behaviour (Heneman and Schwab, 1972; Mitchell, 1974; Porter and Lawler, 1968; Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler and Weick, 1970; Hackman and Porter, 1968); the results are quite mixed. For example in a study of management employees, Porter and Lawler (1968) found that the greater the importance attributed to pay, the higher were the individual's performance evaluations and ratings of effort while Hackman and Porter (1968), in a survey of telephone operators found that the medium correlation between measures of performance and valence of outcomes was only .16.

Although expectancy theory is viewed by Kennedy, Fossum and White (1983) as the most widely accepted theory of motivation in contemporary industrial and organisational

psychology, it has not gone unchallenged (Mitchell, 1974; Campbell and Pritchard, 1976; Conolly and Wolf, 1981). In particular, Lawler and Suttle (1973) criticised the theory on the ground that it "has become so complex that it has exceeded the measures which exist to test it." Also, expectancy theory stipulates that a person chooses from among several alternatives, but as queried by Wanous, Keon and Latack (1983), it does not specify how many outcomes are appropriate; as well as which outcomes are relevant for particular people in a particular situation.

Despite mixed evidence on its usefulness in predicting employee behaviour and limitations, expectancy theory is considered a valuable tool for diagnosing the motivational system of an organisation (Kennedy, Fossum and White, 1983; Steers and Porter, 1983). According to Cameron (1973), expectancy theory is "a useful way of thinking about what motivates people and therefore how jobs should be changed." (p. 10). It facilitates meaningful evaluation of a person's job performance as it "clearly places greatest emphasis on the role of motivation or force to perform as a determinant of job performance" (Heneman and Schwab, 1972: p. 5).

Goal-Setting Theory

The basic assumption of goal-setting theory is that goals and intentions are immediate regulators of human action. According to Locke (1968), definite goals such as specific deadline (a time limit for completing a task) or quota (a minimum amount work or production) lead to higher performance than general goals such as "do your best" or work as far as possible. Further, difficult goals result in better performance than easy goals as long as the individual accepts and commits himself to attaining the goals. Locke further added that though such variables as task characteristics, incentives, supervision and feedback may have some effect on performance, these variables have little or no effect at all when differences in goals and intentions are controlled for.

The above propositions were supported by results from a number of laboratory studies reported by Locke (1968). More recently, some field studies have also supported goal-

setting theory propositions (see Steers and Porter, 1974; Latham and Yukl, 1975; Locke, Shaw, Saari and Latham, 1981; for comprehensive review).

Locke and Bryan (1967) conducted a study which provided evidence in support of goal-setting theory that specific, challenging (difficult) goals lead to higher output than vague or no goals. They found that subjects trying for specific hard goals performed at a significantly higher level than subjects trying to "do their best." Locke and Bryan, therefore, concluded that a "do best" goal does not tend to produce the highest possible level of performance.

In a study of complex computation, Mace (1935) obtained a similar finding to that of Locke and Bryan. He gave one group of subjects specific hard standards, geared to their ability level, to aim for in each work period, whereas other subjects were told simply to "do their best." The group with hard standards improved much faster than the "do best" group. The results of another study by Ivancevich (1974) indicated that performance improved in the plant where specific performance goals were set but there was no improvement in other plant without specific performance objective.

Another prediction by goal-setting theorists that harder goals lead to better performance than easy goals, has also received support from a number of studies reviewed by Locke (1968); and more recent studies have also attempted to test the prediction. Blumenfeld and Leidy (1969) evaluated the effect of goal difficulty in an incentive programme designed to motivate salesmen and servicemen engaged in checking and adjusting soft drink vending machines to an optimal temperature. They found that employees who were assigned hard goals serviced more vending machines than those assigned easy goals. Becker (1978) with an energy conservation task, Erez (1977) with a clerical task, and Strang, Lawrence and Fowler (1978) with a computation task, all found that only subjects who had hard goals performed better than subjects with easy goals.

Although most of the studies found some evidence supporting the propositions of goal-setting theory, it is not without weaknesses. Firstly, goal-setting proposition

concerning goal difficulty contradicts an Achievement theory which predicts that achievement oriented persons (who are also likely to be the high performers) tend to choose and perform well on tasks of medium difficulty (Sales, 1970). The theory is also in direct disagreement with expectancy theory which would predict greatest motivation on easy tasks where success and therefore rewards are certain - of course, assuming rewards to be contingent on performance.

Secondly, Latham and Yukl (1975) argue that, even when goal setting is feasible for a job, it may not be effective for all types of employees who hold that job. They point out that, the complexity of the job, management practices, hierarchical levels and employees' traits such as needs, personality and cultural background may determine whether an employee will respond favourably to goal setting and also moderate the effects of goal difficulty and participation in goal setting. Moreover, goal-setting theory says little on how goals, expectations or intentions are established in the first place (Howell, 1976); evidence presented by Miner and Dachler (1973) suggest that people prefer goals they expect to be able to reach. Related to this point is perhaps the strongest criticism of goal-setting propositions. That is, when goals are extremely difficult to attain, there may be little commitment on the part of the individual to attain such goals. In such a situation, goals and intentions may have no effect on performance. Unfortunately, none of the studies reported in goal setting research literature varied goal difficulty to address this issue.

D. Acognitive Process Theory

Drive-Reinforcement Theory

Whereas the last three theories discussed treat behaviour as having roots in conscious mental processes, drive-reinforcement theory holds that behaviour exhibited is a result of past reinforcement history and stimulus-response relationships. The theory stemmed directly from consideration of biological survival as elaborated by Hull (1943). For him, bodily needs were the ultimate basis of motivation. The term drive was used by Hull in the

following manner :

"Since a need, either actual or potential, usually precedes and accompanies the action of an organism, the need is often said to motivate or drive the associated activity." (p. 57).

In the Hullian system, behaviour arises and is modified primarily in reference to the organism's needs which he must act to reduce. Hull conceived primary drives "as stimuli, the reduction of which is reinforcing so far as the acquisition of responses is concerned" (Cofer and Appley, 1964: p. 503). Hull presented a list of primary drives arising from states of tissue needs and having the general function of arousing or activating behaviour.

Drive as such mobilises the organism into general action but did not, without learning, lead to specific behaviours appropriate to specific motivations and goals (Cofer and Appley, 1964). Consequently, Hull proposed that those acts that are immediately followed by a "need reduction" are retained, a notion similar to Thorndike's law of effect which states that responses closely followed by pleasurable events (rewards) are more likely to recur in similar situations. These primary motivational mechanisms (primary drives and primary reinforcements) are supplemented in the Hullian system by a conception of acquired or secondary drives and reinforcements.

The basic propositions of this theory are :

- (1) behaviour will be strengthened if it is followed closely in time by positive reinforcement of rewards; conversely, behaviour can be weakened or extinguished by withdrawal of rewards and/or presentation of punishment, and
- (ii) rewarding of individuals only part of the time (partial reinforcement) rather than all the time leads to acquisition of behaviour more resistant to extinction; however, acquisition of behaviour is faster when individuals are rewarded each time they emit the required behavioural response.

Hundreds of laboratory studies with animal subjects have been conducted to test the above propositions. These studies have generally provided impressive support for drive

reinforcement theory. Results from studies in field setting have also yielded support though this support has not been so strong as that from the laboratory (see review by Schneir, 1974). Use of pay incentives (a type of positive reinforcement) has been observed to result in higher productivity (Lawler, 1971). Other studies such as the one at the Emery Air Freight Company showed that feedback and praise reinforcement could be used to shape appropriate job behaviours (AMACOM, 1973).

Drive-reinforcement theory of motivation has been under attack from such theorists as Hebb (1949), White (1966), McClelland et al. (1953) and Deci (1972a, 1972b). The arguments against the theory are basically the following :

- (a) A motive has two aspects: energising and directing behaviour. The drive concept has been concerned only as an energising force while most psychologists regard the directing and patterning aspects as the problem in motivation (Hebb, 1949).
- (b) White (1966) argues that while drive-reinforcement theory has proved explanatory in the laboratory; the theory's predictions are unlikely to hold in the complexities of real life. According to Whyte, the theory ignores the social comparison process - issues of equity. That even though, rewards may be contingent on performance, performance cannot increase and might even decrease if much inequity is perceived.
- (c) The emphasis on biological needs seems to limit motivation much too narrowly (Hebb, 1949).
- (d) According to Deci (1972), the drive-reinforcement model of job motivation aims at satisfying lower order needs (Maslow, 1954) and ignores higher order needs.
- (e) The tension notion is usually conceived as a negative affective state derived from painful experience. However, there is evidence that other kinds of stimulation give rise to innate gratifications. Thus, any theory of motivation, it is argued, "should take account of the active comforts and pleasures of life as well as the discomforts, tensions and their relief" (McClelland et al. 1953: p. 12).

In assessing the impact of drive-reinforcement theory upon the study of employees motivation, it can be said that the concept of need reduction implicitly underlies most of the studies on motivation in industry. However, the concept need is not restricted to biological needs, rather, the emphasis is always on psychological and social needs. The individual is assumed to have certain needs which he seeks to satisfy (reduce) on the job.

Of particular interest to the present study, is the assumption that drive-reinforcement theory will hold better cross-culturally than cognitive and even content theories. Since the reinforcement approach ignores mental processes which are influenced by such things as values, attitudes and beliefs, the effect of culture on this approach is somewhat limited. Thus, it can be expected that each individual's behaviour (irrespective of culture) will be determined by his unique past reinforcement history. While the design of the present study does not permit a direct test of drive-reinforcement theory propositions, it is probable that critical incidents from this study will show themes that support the non-cognitive theory.

E. Summary and Conclusions

The fact that all theories just reviewed have explained work behaviour under certain conditions, despite weaknesses and contradictions, illustrates the complexity of human motivation. Behaviour is nearly always multidetermined, at times by seemingly conflicting motives. The very nature of this complexity tends to render inadequate any approach relying on single theory to explain behaviour. But with the empirical approach the present study proposes, it can perhaps, be expected that a combination of interaction of variables from the theories reviewed (if these are salient in the country to be studied) plus other work-related and cultural variables may emerge from the data.

This review of the literature on theories of job motivation raises three important questions : (i) Do these theories offer complete explanations of human behaviour? (ii) Do they apply in other cultures (especially in developing countries)? (iii) Do they enable accurate predictions to be made? These are important questions to raise, not only for scientific reasons, but also because theories of motivation are widely applied to people in

practical work settings. It is possible that the current state of knowledge is such as to warrant considerable caution in applying theories of motivation at work. Furthermore, the theories of motivation covered in this review have their origins in the West (especially, USA). If they are of questionable validity there (as indicated by conflicting research findings), then they must be viewed with some circumspection in other regions of the world. In fact, a relatively recent review of the validity of theories of motivation at work indicated that practitioners and scholars alike have been guilty of the premature application of theories which cannot yet fully justify the confidence shown in them (Pinder, 1977).

As a final point, our literature review of previous empirical evidence in different cultures (see Chapter 3) show that most of these theories are not universally applicable (due to different value systems existing in each society) and therefore cross-cultural researchers interested in studying employees job attitudes should be aware of the fact that, current approaches "are vulnerable to a number of crucial omission and distortions, *such as the stock of cultural values and norms an individual has acquired from his or her living environment*, that render them both incomplete and unrealistic" (Nord, 1977: p. 1028).

Appendix 2

Exploratory Study Questionnaire Form

UNIVERSITY OF KENT AT CANTERBURY
SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY RESEARCH UNIT

BEVERLEY FARM
THE UNIVERSITY
CANTERBURY
KENT

DIRECTOR
PROFESSOR GEOFFREY M. STEPHENSON

TELEPHONE (0227) 66822

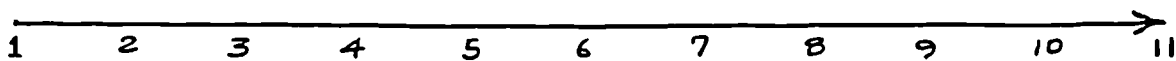
Please place a circle around the letter which pertains to you.

1. AGE:Years
2. SEX: a. Male b. Female
3. ETHNIC BACKGROUND: a. Hausa b. Ibo c. Yoruba d. Other (Specify).....
4. MARITAL STATUS: a. Single b. Married c. Divorced d. Widowed
5. NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS: a. 0-2 b. 3-5 c. 6-8 d. 9 or more
6. RESIDENCE: a. City b. Suburbs
7. LENGTH OF RESIDENCE IN THE AREA: a. 1-4years b. 5-8years c. 9-12years d. Over 12years
8. NUMBER OF YEARS IN MANAGEMENT POSITION: a. Less than 5years b. 5-10years .c. Over 10years
9. TYPE OF POSITION: a. First level management b. Middle management c. Top management
0. TYPE OF INDUSTRY/ORGANISATION: a. Government b. Industrial c. Construction
d. Service e. Other (Specify).....
1. LOCATION OF INDUSTRY/ORGANISATION: a. City b. Suburbs
2. LEVEL OF EDUCATION: a. Less than high school b. High school graduate
c. University graduate d. Postgraduate
e. Other (Specify).....
3. NUMBER OF YEARS IN EMPLOYMENT:

Think of a time, or different times, when you worked exceptionally hard at your job or any other job you have had. What was responsible for making you work so hard? Please describe below what happened to make you work hard at your job.

How seriously was your work behaviour influenced by what happened?

Pick a spot on the line below to indicate how extreme was the effect on your behaviour.

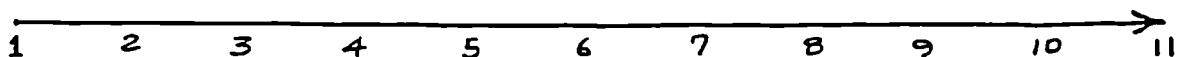


Note: Number 1 should be used for a sequence that hardly affected your feelings; 2 should be used for a sequence that affected your feelings as seriously as the most important events in your working experience.

Think of a time, or different times, when you worked exceptionally very little at your job or any other job you have had. What was responsible for making you work very little? Please describe below what happened to make you work very little at your job.

How seriously was your work behaviour influenced by what happened?

Pick a spot on the line below to indicate how extreme was the effect on your behaviour.

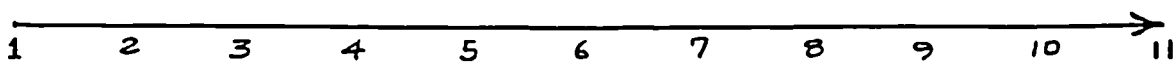


Note: Number 1 should be used for a sequence that hardly affected your feelings; 2 should be used for a sequence that affected your feelings as seriously as the most important events in your working experience.

Think of a time, or different times, when you felt exceptionally good about your present job or any other job you have had. What was responsible for making you feel so good? Please describe below what happened to make you feel good about your job.

How seriously was your work behaviour influenced by what happened?

Pick a spot on the line below to indicate how extreme was the effect on your behaviour.

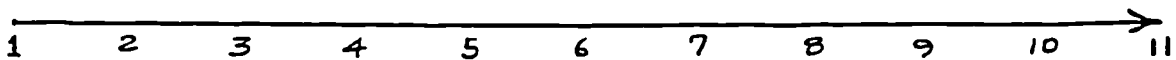


Note: Number 1 should be used for a sequence that hardly affected your feelings; 2 should be used for a sequence that affected your feelings as seriously as the most important events in your working experience.

Think of a time, or different times, when you felt exceptionally bad about your present job or any other job you have had. What was responsible for making you feel so bad? Please describe below what happened to make you feel bad about your job.

How seriously was your work behaviour influenced by what happened?

Pick a spot on the line below to indicate how extreme was the effect on your behaviour.



Note: Number 1 should be used for a sequence that hardly affected your feelings; 2 should be used for a sequence that affected your feelings as seriously as the most important events in your working experience.

Appendix 3

Interview Schedule

Think of a time or different times when you worked exceptionally hard (when you put in very little effort for a bad incident) at your job or any other job you have had before this one.....(pause)..... Please describe to me exactly what happened as you remember it.

- (1) How long ago did this happen?
- (2) What specifically led to the incident?
- (3) What did you do different from the way you normally do your job? Why?
- (4) Was what happened typical of what was going on at the time?
- (5) Describe your feeling as the event took place.
- (6) Can you tell more precisely why you felt the way you did at the time?
- (7) What did your superior(s) say or do?
- (8) What did your peers say or do?
- (9) What did your subordinates say or do?
- (10) What were the consequences (results) of this incident, short term and long term?
- (11) What did you tell your family and/or friends about the incident?
- (12) In what way did the incident affect your thinking about yourself, your job, superiors, peers, company, subordinates, friends and family?
- (13) In what way(s) did you change the way you did your job as a result? Why?
- (14) Under what circumstances can such incident happen again?

- (15) What can you do to increase (or reduce) the chances of this incident occurring again?
- (16) What can your superiors, peers, subordinates do to increase (or reduce) the chances of a similar incident occurring?
- (17) What else is there that I should know that you may not have mentioned that I need to fully understand what happened?

Appendix 4

Institute of Social and
Applied Psychology
The University
Canterbury
Kent CT2 7LZ
Telephone: 0227 764000
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY ■ ■ ■ ■

Our Ref: IOA/PhD/101/86

23 July 1986

Your Ref:

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a research student of the University of Kent at Canterbury studying for my PhD in Social and Applied Psychology.

I am currently researching into: Factors Influencing Job Motivation and Performance in Nigeria.

I am pleased to inform you that your organisation/company has been considered as one of those to be visited during my field work in the country later this year.

Could you please confirm in writing, if this is acceptable to you.

Your earlier reply will be greatly appreciated.

Yours sincerely,



ISAAC O. ADIGUN
Research Student.

Please address your reply to: P.O. BOX 78, EBUTE-METTA, LAGOS, NIGERIA.

Appendix 5

Institute of Social and
Applied Psychology
The University
Canterbury
Kent CT2 7LZ
Telephone: 0227 764000
Telex: 965449

Director
Professor Geoffrey M Stephenson FBPsS

UNIVERSITY OF KENT
AT CANTERBURY □ ■ □ ■

Our Ref: IOA/~~PhD~~/102/86

1 August 1986

Your Ref:

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I should like to introduce Mr. ISAAC O. ADIGUN, a full-time registered student, studying for PhD in ~~Social~~ and Applied Psychology.

He is currently conducting a field survey for his research project: Factors Influencing Job Motivation and Performance in Nigeria. As his supervisor, I would be obliged if you could give him every assistance in this project.

I am sure that you will find the results of the investigation useful for increasing employees' job performance in Nigeria.

I should like to assure you that all your responses and documents will be treated with complete confidentiality.

Thank you for your co-operation.

Yours sincerely,



GEOFFREY M. STEPHENSON

Appendix 6

Research Instrument - The Job Attitude Questionnaire

- 6 - A Face Sheet Introduction**
- 6 - B Job Motivation**
- 6 - C Organisational Commitment**
- 6 - D Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ)**
- 6 - E Self-esteem at Work**
- 6 - F Personal Characteristics**

6 - A Face Sheet Introduction

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Director
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JOB ATTITUDE SURVEY

INTRODUCTION

My name is Isaac Adigun, a doctoral student from the University of Kent at Canterbury. I am conducting research on employees' job motivation and productivity. The project I am working on will help our understanding of factors that influence (increase and reduce) employees' work motivation on their jobs in Nigeria. Your cooperation and participation in this project is very important as it will help to understand how different occupational levels of employees can increase motivation in order to enhance productivity.

I am going to ask you some questions about some of your job experiences. I would like you to answer them as accurately as possible. Every answer you will give is CONFIDENTIAL and WILL NOT BE TOLD TO ANYONE in your company or anywhere else - only the researcher will have access to this information.

Thank you.

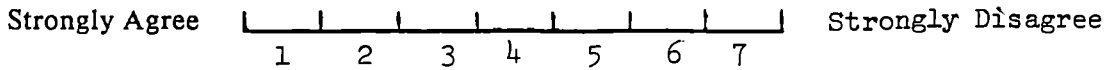
DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ON THIS BOOKLET

PART I

In the section below you will see a series of statements. Basing on your own present work experience please indicate your agreement or disagreement. Use the scale in front of each statement.

Example:

It is easier to work in cool weather than in hot.



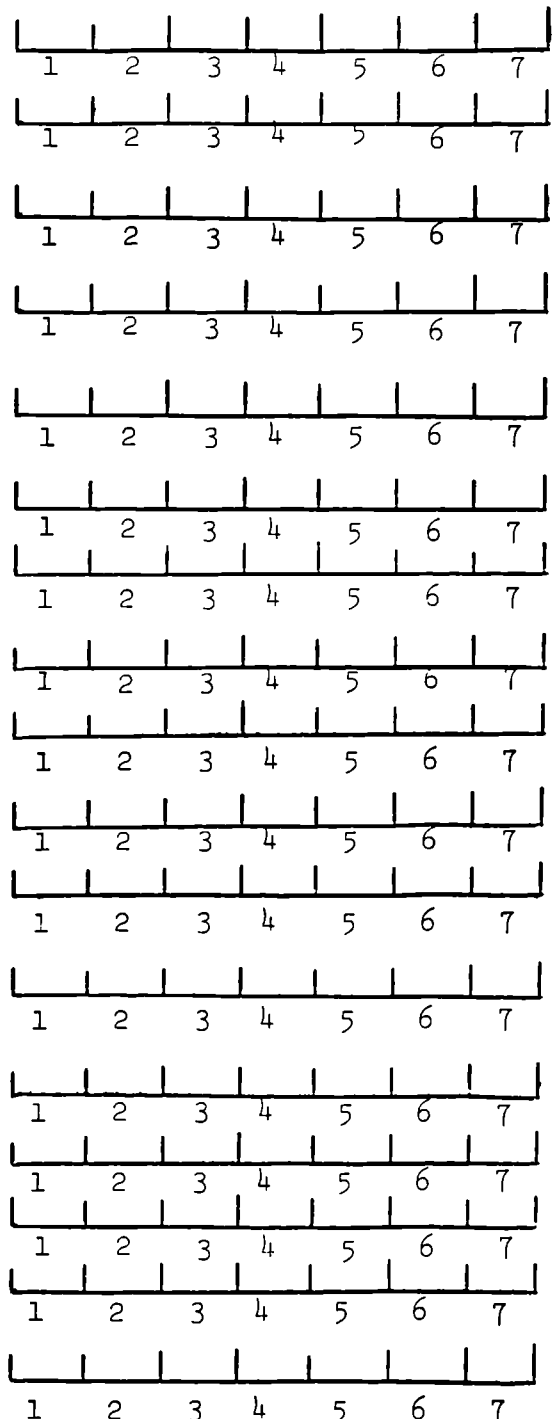
If you think it is easier to work in cool weather, put an (X) above 2; if you think it is much easier to work in cool weather, put a mark above 1. If you are not sure, put a mark over 3 or 4 and so on. Put your mark in a space, not on the boundaries.

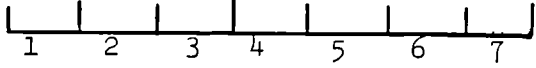
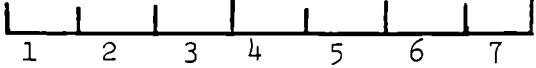
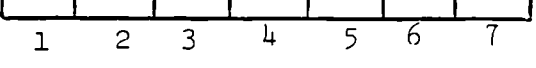
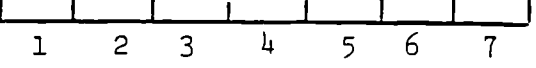
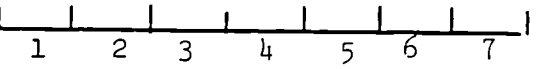
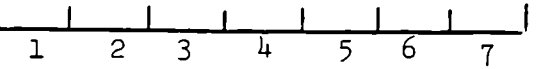
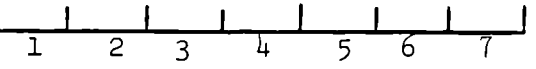
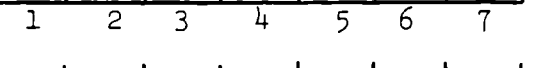
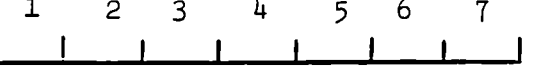
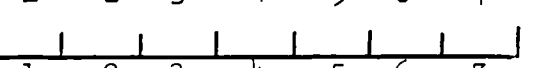
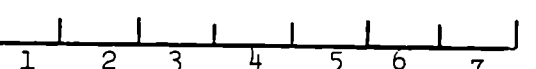
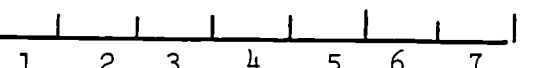
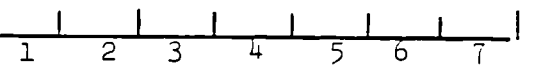
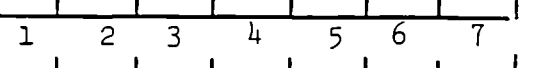
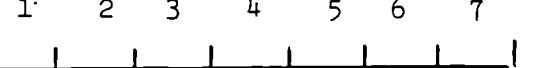
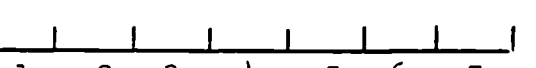
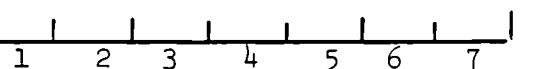
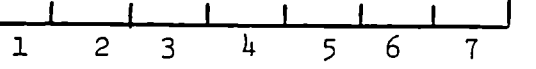
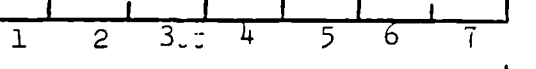
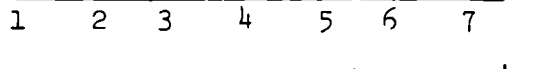
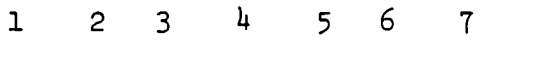

You will work very hard when:

Strongly Agree

Strongly Disagree

1. There is chance to be complimented, appreciated, praised or recognised for working hard.
2. You have been assigned too little work.
3. The job allows you responsibility and chance to make decisions.
4. Pay is low and increments, bonuses, merit increments and other financial incentives are unlikely.
5. The work is interesting, important, challenging and has variety.
6. Supervisors or bosses practice tribalism, favouratism, nepotism or corruption.
7. The company is making a good profit.
8. There is sickness or death in the family or you have other personal or domestic problems.
9. Promotions or chances for promotion are very unlikely.
10. There are good relations, understanding between yourself, superiors and co-workers.
11. There is difficult or a lot of work to be done.
12. There is little chance to learn more on your job or little opportunity for further training.
13. There is no praise, appreciation, compliment or recognition for hardwork.
14. Job is secured (you are not likely to be sacked).
15. Your boss/superior hardly looks at your work at all.
16. You fail to achieve your goals.
17. The job offers fringe benefits (company housing, loans, transport to work).



	Strongly Agree	Strongly Disagree
18. Your superiors and/or co-workers are lazy or incompetent.		
19. The work is urgent and must be completed by a deadline.		
20. You are promoted or there are chances for promotion.		
21. Company or employer does not care or listen to personal problems.		
22. Job security is threatened (you are likely to be sacked).		
23. There is general economic depression and your company is not making profit.		
24. You are given a big office with air-conditioning, good furniture and lighting.		
25. The work is not challenging and has no variety.		
26. Your workplace is not very far from home and you have no domestic problem.		
27. There is possibility for achievement on your job.		
28. The company or superiors do not keep their promises made to you.		
29. You just don't feel like working.		
30. Pay is reasonable and there is possibility for merit increment, bonus, or financial incentive.		
31. You are demoted, suspended or subjected to disciplinary action.		
32. There is clear job description.		
33. Your superiors or co-workers are hardworking.		
34. Your office is not equipped (no air-conditioning or good furniture).		
35. You are doing the work which you are trained for.		
36. Work is not properly explained or that you have no specific job.		
37. Your superior supervises closely.		
38. There are little or no fringe benefits (housing, car loan, etc.).		
39. There is a chance for further training.		
40. There are bad relations or misunderstanding between yourself, your superior or your co-workers.		

PART II

INSTRUCTIONS:

On the following pages of Part II will be listed several factors connected with your own position in your firm. For each such factor, you are asked to give eight ratings. Each rating will be made on a seven-point scale, which will look like this:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

Please circle the number on the scale that represents the amount of factor being rated.

Example:

1. There was chance to retire at an early age.

If the chance to retire at an early age has made you to feel bad about the job, then circle the number nearer to 'Feel bad about the job'. If the chance to retire at an early age has tended to make you feel good about the job, you would circle the number nearer to 'Feel good about the job'. If you are not sure whether the chance to retire at an early age would make you feel bad or good, or can arouse the two feelings, then circle any number between the scale which you think represent your feeling.

For each scale, circle only one number. PLEASE DO NOT OMIT ANY SCALES.

Using instructions above and your own personal experience, indicate what you did or would do when:

1. Your superior supervises closely:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

2. You are promoted or there are chances for promotion:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

3. Work is not properly explained or that you have no specific job:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

4. You are given a big office with air-conditioning, good furniture, etc. :

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

5. The job allows you responsibility and chance to make decisions:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

6. There is little chance to learn more on your job or little opportunity for further training:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

7. Your superiors or co-workers are hardworking:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

8. You fail to achieve your goals:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

9. There are good relations, understanding between yourself,superiors and co-workers:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

10. Company or employer does not care or listen to personal problems:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

11. You are doing the work which you are trained for:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

12. You have been assigned too little work:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

13. Superiors or bosses practice tribalism, favouratism, nepotism or corruption:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

14. You just don't feel like working:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

15. Pay is low and increments, bonuses, merit increments and financial incentive are unlikely:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

16. Job is secured (you are not likely to be sacked):

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

17. There is general economic depression and your company is not making profit:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

18. You are demoted, transferred, suspended or subjected to disciplinary action:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

19. The job offers fringe benefit (company housing/car, loans, canteen, staff bus):

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

20. There is sickness or death in the family or you have other personal or domestic problems:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

21. Your workplace is not very far from home:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

22. There is no praise, appreciation, compliment or recognition for hardwork:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

23. The work is interesting, important, challenging has variety:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

24. The company or superiors do not keep their promises made to you:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

25. The work is urgent and must be completed by a deadline:

a. Stay with the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Leave the organisation
b. Feel bad about the job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Feel good about the job
c. Punctual/Regular attendance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unexcused absenteeism
d. Resistance to change	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Readily accept change
e. Less active in leisure pursuits	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Active in leisure pursuits
f. Not proud to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Proud to work for
g. Like the work (job enjoyment)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Dislike the work
h. Work very little	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Work very hard

PART III

INSTRUCTIONS Please answer each question by putting a circle around the "YES" or the "NO" following the question. There are no right or wrong answers, and no trick questions. Work quickly and do not think too long about the exact meaning of the questions.

PLEASE REMEMBER TO ANSWER EACH QUESTION

- | | | | |
|----|--|-----|----|
| 1 | Do you have many different hobbies?..... | YES | NO |
| 2 | Do you stop to think things over before doing anything?..... | YES | NO |
| 3 | Does your mood often go up and down?..... | YES | NO |
| 4 | Have you ever taken the praise for something you knew someone else had really done? | YES | NO |
| 5 | Are you a talkative person?..... | YES | NO |
| 6 | Would being in debt worry you?..... | YES | NO |
| 7 | Do you ever feel "just miserable" for no reason?..... | YES | NO |
| 8 | Were you ever greedy by helping yourself to more than your share of anything?.. | YES | NO |
| 9 | Do you lock up your house carefully at night?..... | YES | NO |
| 10 | Are you rather lively?..... | YES | NO |
| 11 | Would it upset you a lot to see a child or an animal suffer?..... | YES | NO |
| 12 | Do you often worry about things you should not have done or said?..... | YES | NO |
| 13 | If you say you will do something, do you always keep your promise no matter how inconvenient it might be?..... | YES | NO |
| 14 | Can you usually let yourself go and enjoy yourself at a lively party?..... | YES | NO |
| 15 | Are you an irritable person?..... | YES | NO |
| 16 | Have you ever blamed someone for doing something you knew was really your fault? | YES | NO |
| 17 | Do you enjoy meeting new people?..... | YES | NO |
| 18 | Do you believe insurance schemes are a good idea?..... | YES | NO |
| 19 | Are your feelings easily hurt?..... | YES | NO |
| 20 | Are <i>all</i> your habits good and desirable ones?..... | YES | NO |

21	Do you tend to keep in the background on social occasions?.....	YES	NO
22	Would you take drugs which may have strange or dangerous effects?.....	YES	NO
23	Do you often feel "fed-up"?.....	YES	NO
24	Have you ever taken anything (even a pin or button) that belonged to someone else?.....	YES	NO
25	Do you like going out a lot?.....	YES	NO
26	Do you enjoy hurting people you love?.....	YES	NO
27	Are you often troubled about feelings of guilt?.....	YES	NO
28	Do you sometimes talk about things you know nothing about?.....	YES	NO
29	Do you prefer reading to meeting people?.....	YES	NO
30	Do you have enemies who want to harm you?.....	YES	NO
31	Would you call yourself a nervous person?.....	YES	NO
32	Do you have many friends?.....	YES	NO
33	Do you enjoy practical jokes that can sometimes really hurt people?.....	YES	NO
34	Are you a worrier?.....	YES	NO
35	As a child did you do as you were told immediately and without grumbling?.....	YES	NO
36	Would you call yourself happy-go-lucky?.....	YES	NO
37	Do good manners and cleanliness matter much to you?.....	YES	NO
38	Do you worry about awful things that might happen?.....	YES	NO
39	Have you ever broken or lost something belonging to someone else?.....	YES	NO
40	Do you usually take the initiative in making new friends?.....	YES	NO
41	Would you call yourself tense or "highly-strung"?.....	YES	NO
42	Are you mostly quiet when you are with other people?.....	YES	NO
43	Do you think marriage is old-fashioned and should be done away with?.....	YES	NO
44	Do you sometimes boast a little?.....	YES	NO
45	Can you easily get some life into a rather dull party?.....	YES	NO
46	Do people who drive carefully annoy you?.....	YES	NO
47	Do you worry about your health?.....	YES	NO
48	Have you ever said anything bad or nasty about anyone?.....	YES	NO
49	Do you like telling jokes and funny stories to your friends?.....	YES	NO
50	Do most things taste the same to you?.....	YES	NO
51	As a child were you ever cheeky to your parents?.....	YES	NO
52	Do you like mixing with people?.....	YES	NO
53	Does it worry you if you know there are mistakes in your work?.....	YES	NO
54	Do you suffer from sleeplessness?.....	YES	NO

- | | | | |
|----|---|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 55 | Do you always wash before a meal?..... | <input type="checkbox"/> YES | <input type="checkbox"/> NO |
| 56 | Do you nearly always have a "ready answer" when people talk to you?..... | YES | NO |
| 57 | Do you like to arrive at appointments in plenty of time?..... | YES | NO |
| 58 | Have you often felt listless and tired for no reason?..... | YES | NO |
| 59 | Have you ever cheated at a game?..... | YES | NO |
| 60 | Do you like doing things in which you have to act quickly?..... | YES | NO |
| 61 | Is (or was) your mother a good woman?..... | YES | NO |
| 62 | Do you often feel life is very dull?..... | YES | NO |
| 63 | Have you ever taken advantage of someone?..... | YES | NO |
| 64 | Do you often take on more activities than you have time for?..... | YES | NO |
| 65 | Are there several people who keep trying to avoid you?..... | YES | NO |
| 66 | Do you worry a lot about your looks?..... | YES | NO |
| 67 | Do you think people spend too much time safeguarding their future with savings and insurances?..... | YES | NO |
| 68 | Have you ever wished that you were dead?..... | YES | NO |
| 69 | Would you dodge paying taxes if you were sure you could never be found out?.... | YES | NO |
| 70 | Can you get a party going?..... | YES | NO |
| 71 | Do you try not to be rude to people?..... | YES | NO |
| 72 | Do you worry too long after an embarrassing experience?..... | YES | NO |
| 73 | Have you ever insisted on having your own way?..... | YES | NO |
| 74 | When you catch a train do you often arrive at the last minute?..... | YES | NO |
| 75 | Do you suffer from "nerves"?..... | YES | NO |
| 76 | Do your friendships break up easily without it being your fault?..... | YES | NO |
| 77 | Do you often feel lonely?..... | YES | NO |
| 78 | Do you always practice what you preach?..... | YES | NO |
| 79 | Do you sometimes like teasing animals?..... | YES | NO |
| 80 | Are you easily hurt when people find fault with you or the work you do?..... | YES | NO |
| 81 | Have you ever been late for an appointment or work?..... | YES | NO |
| 82 | Do you like plenty of bustle and excitement around you?..... | YES | NO |
| 83 | Would you like other people to be afraid of you?..... | YES | NO |
| 84 | Are you sometimes bubbling over with energy and sometimes very sluggish?..... | YES | NO |
| 85 | Do you sometimes put off until tomorrow what you ought to do today?..... | YES | NO |
| 86 | Do other people think of you as being very lively?..... | YES | NO |
| 87 | Do people tell you a lot of lies?..... | YES | NO |
| 88 | Are you touchy about some things?..... | YES | NO |
| 89 | Are you always willing to admit it when you have made a mistake?..... | YES | NO |
| 90 | Would you feel very sorry for an animal caught in a trap?..... | YES | NO |

PLEASE CHECK TO SEE THAT YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS

PART IV

Here are some words and phrases which ask you how you see yourself in your work. For example, if you think that you are very 'successful' in your work, put a mark in the box right next to the word 'successful'. If you think that you are not at all successful in your work, put a mark in the box right next to the words 'not successful'. If you think you are somewhere in between, put a mark where you think it belongs.

SUCCESSFUL NOT SUCCESSFUL

NOT IMPORTANT IMPORTANT

DOING MY BEST NOT MY BEST DOING BEST

UNHAPPY HAPPY

PART V

To help us with the statistical analysis of the data, please give the following information about yourself. (Place a circle around the letter which pertains to you.)

1. AGEYears
2. SEX a. Male b. Female
3. ETHNIC BACKGROUND: a. Hausa b. Ibo c. Yoruba d. Other(Specify).....
4. MARITAL STATUS: a. Single b. Married c. Divorced d. Widowed
5. NUMBERS OF DEPENDENTS: a. 0-2 b. 3-5 c. 6-8 d. 9 or more
6. RESIDENCE: a. City b. Suburbs
7. NUMBER OF YEARS IN EMPLOYMENT:Years
8. TYPE OF POSITION: a. First level b. Middle level c. Top level d. Staff
9. TYPE OF ORGANISATION: a. Government b. Industrial c. Construction d. Other.....
10. LOCATION OF INDUSTRY/ORGANISATION: a. City b. Suburbs
11. LEVEL OF EDUCATION: a. Less than high school b. High school c. Graduate
d. Postgraduate e. Other (Specify).....

Appendix 7

Correlation Matrix of All Motivational Items with the Results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity

	PRaises	LITWORK	FREEDOM	LOWPAY	VARIETY	FAVOUR	PROFIT	PROBLEMS	NOPRODNT	GOODFRN	LOTWORK	NOTRAIN
PRaises	1.00000											
LITWORK	-.05441	1.00000										
FREEDOM	-.25593	-.08003	1.00000									
LOWPAY	-.00191	-.18973	-.03386	1.00000								
VARIETY	-.24637	-.03926	-.41644	-.05964	1.00000							
FAVOUR	-.07160	-.15704	-.10317	-.24932	-.10073	1.00000						
PROFIT	-.06032	-.04142	-.05356	-.04664	-.24777	-.04459	1.00000					
PROBLEMS	-.28432	-.17465	-.05719	-.17201	-.19314	-.19314	-.21735	1.00000				
NOPRODNT	-.06700	-.04837	-.04681	-.38930	-.21846	-.06941	-.23567	-.08625	1.00000			
GOODMEN	-.27846	-.04444	-.36110	-.01739	-.26885	-.08546	-.04839	-.08625	-.08625	1.00000		
LOTWORK	-.10710	-.07646	-.05309	-.08549	-.26885	-.11396	-.08546	-.11428	-.11428	-.02748	1.00000	
NOTRAIN	-.07837	-.21186	-.08726	-.15809	-.33375	-.25765	-.04249	-.11861	-.26841	-.02748	-.10801	1.00000
NOBRAISE	-.20212	-.26760	-.17781	-.37303	-.10385	-.20066	-.07029	-.15218	-.30071	-.12046	-.14454	-.33647
SECURITY	-.03931	-.12867	-.06865	-.11337	-.12186	-.01329	-.01922	-.02644	-.21767	-.15612	-.01418	-.01480
FRECHAND	-.06822	-.23094	-.06438	-.25991	-.06438	-.13958	-.03662	-.05582	-.18751	-.03784	-.00671	-.20152
FAILURE	-.06903	-.25122	-.15118	-.15432	-.15410	-.25413	-.05648	-.14740	-.31709	-.21451	-.03185	-.22414
BENEFITS	-.14898	-.02654	-.12648	-.21610	-.14221	-.02005	-.16507	-.15369	-.11073	-.14956	-.01697	-.09668
LAZYWOKA	-.01603	-.19237	-.01588	-.13369	-.10178	-.24828	-.09108	-.10445	-.23236	-.08352	-.04669	-.18764
URGENCY	-.17178	-.02036	-.19929	-.04170	-.34767	-.02910	-.23173	-.18959	-.00981	-.13752	-.34834	-.02737
PROMOTED	-.25333	-.15553	-.27084	-.18445	-.24372	-.02186	-.08329	-.10082	-.30293	-.27194	-.00729	-.08374
NOTCARE	-.10151	-.26331	-.08420	-.14718	-.10728	-.27347	-.11113	-.14631	-.21174	-.24214	-.13175	-.18234
NOSECURE	-.10007	-.05030	-.02033	-.28693	-.04588	-.14516	-.01741	-.16832	-.37961	-.13058	-.12115	-.19531
NOSECURE	-.07965	-.06667	-.09621	-.13317	-.12072	-.17365	-.17925	-.06889	-.15491	-.01320	-.11820	-.14370
HYGIENE	-.03357	-.10732	-.05244	-.13292	-.06673	-.04257	-.07744	-.04605	-.11318	-.13591	-.04065	-.04065
NOVARETY	-.05357	-.18341	-.14020	-.15431	-.31416	-.09498	-.00389	-.13579	-.21039	-.09202	-.05617	-.25500
NOPROBS	-.14689	-.05206	-.23201	-.08767	-.03897	-.01541	-.02358	-.06911	-.02779	-.09504	-.07893	-.07463
ACHIVMET	-.29380	-.03169	-.11633	-.13316	-.40606	-.04658	-.07676	-.03496	-.18402	-.24844	-.09528	-.14258
UNFAITH	-.03627	-.21470	-.07469	-.13150	-.08894	-.13677	-.01428	-.17144	-.27404	-.13571	-.14019	-.24088
FEELING	-.24854	-.31417	-.03960	-.15130	-.01149	-.18665	-.04964	-.20340	-.20493	-.03532	-.07835	-.19825
GOODPAY	-.32785	-.01693	-.29241	-.27014	-.30958	-.19657	-.18657	-.08394	-.24454	-.19445	-.00309	-.16744
DEMOTIOM	-.07280	-.20279	-.01055	-.24713	-.03394	-.25835	-.00844	-.22691	-.28202	-.08641	-.05694	-.27461
SPECIFIC	-.30772	-.00644	-.37424	-.02730	-.11207	-.14751	-.08582	-.04321	-.07461	-.24432	-.13977	-.12101
HADWOKA	-.02874	-.00644	-.37424	-.02730	-.11207	-.14751	-.08582	-.04321	-.07461	-.24432	-.13977	-.12101
NOTEQUIP	-.02874	-.07932	-.01265	-.18267	-.00284	-.35441	-.02440	-.07502	-.24297	-.01766	-.18517	-.24259
RIGHTJOB	-.13941	-.16260	-.14240	-.07897	-.40860	-.04089	-.17469	-.09474	-.07512	-.14734	-.06317	-.13346
NOSEPC	-.00344	-.27000	-.11720	-.18558	-.18906	-.16924	-.02334	-.12547	-.23197	-.09435	-.01924	-.22794
CLOSUPA	-.29556	-.05531	-.18126	-.18558	-.18906	-.08301	-.10898	-.14554	-.11117	-.17499	-.14879	-.08265
NOBNEFT	-.07964	-.17125	-.13773	-.31288	-.06837	-.17261	-.04234	-.12060	-.31688	-.12663	-.04240	-.29165
TRAINING	-.27343	-.02813	-.11271	-.18556	-.06040	-.06942	-.12321	-.14912	-.19608	-.08938	-.17275	-.12729
BADMEH	-.01252	-.19760	-.04156	-.21477	-.14568	-.26539	-.01157	-.16103	-.29999	-.17668	-.01272	-.23373

	NOBRAISE	SECURITY	FRECHAND	FAILURE	BENEFITS	LAZYWOKA	URGENCY	PROMOTED	NOTCARE	NOSECURE	NOPROFIT	HYGIENE
NOBRAISE	1.00000											
SECURITY	-.07387	1.00000										
FRECHAND	-.20208	-.06439	1.00000									
FAILURE	-.30670	-.03764	-.26914	1.00000								
BENEFITS	-.14980	-.27857	-.03331	-.07428	1.00000							
LAZYWOKA	-.00191	-.05705	-.21787	-.13403	-.01864	1.00000						
URGENCY	-.06608	-.00558	-.01343	-.07304	-.04498	-.02775	1.00000					
PROMOTED	-.19829	-.26995	-.06452	-.05642	-.40001	-.07131	-.16260	1.00000				
NOTCARE	-.34970	-.03213	-.19730	-.25483	-.09419	-.26915	-.01707	-.14881	1.00000			
NOSECURE	-.02695	-.17792	-.09462	-.16863	-.14582	-.28912	-.08552	-.02389	-.25745	1.00000		
NOSECURE	-.03029	-.20684	-.00558	-.08590	-.19741	-.06801	-.10837	-.28969	-.01056	-.03320	1.00000	
NOVARETY	-.17257	-.11289	-.15641	-.26300	-.00774	-.22237	-.07442	-.07584	-.26941	-.14285	-.21579	1.00000
NOPROBS	-.21456	-.08911	-.08457	-.14221	-.28015	-.05400	-.03134	-.17857	-.02509	-.06628	-.03644	-.31135
ACHIVMET	-.31687	-.07321	-.25350	-.33921	-.25900	-.14144	-.18811	-.18811	-.07610	-.06105	-.20705	-.20705
UNFAITH	-.18139	-.02320	-.25389	-.26076	-.02503	-.27416	-.03970	-.02127	-.13216	-.29149	-.08102	-.11733
FEELING	-.20205	-.18157	-.03825	-.18666	-.45786	-.07144	-.13866	-.48757	-.26717	-.13728	-.11080	-.15078
GOODPAY	-.29604	-.03816	-.28042	-.18646	-.18846	-.14144	-.04212	-.06050	-.15528	-.34919	-.10768	-.13237
DEMOTIOM	-.14567	-.03487	-.04013	-.14002	-.20716	-.07787	-.18539	-.26220	-.15430	-.00169	-.07952	-.02930
SPECIFIC	-.04762	-.03371	-.05957	-.16339	-.15773	-.21785	-.24640	-.19404	-.12781	-.03447	-.04317	-.00452
HADWOKA	-.16573	-.05129	-.19282	-.19244	-.17499	-.22429	-.00494	-.18050	-.09840	-.25947	-.21151	-.36156
NOTEQUIP	-.10104	-.03531	-.01794	-.13186	-.19596	-.08302	-.21000	-.16726	-.10570	-.03085	-.01954	-.09478
RIGHTJOB	-.19499	-.06348	-.16381	-.19759	-.00446	-.24149	-.10999	-.12933	-.19734	-.24794	-.15813	-.03887
NOSEPC	-.02178	-.03706	-.12194	-.01294	-.03521	-.02939	-.24106	-.00420	-.03723	-.16343	-.07021	-.01150
CLOSUPA	-.01661	-.19066	-.18352	-.22007	-.39984	-.18667	-.05117	-.26777	-.22392	-.34921	-.12903	-.02328
NOBNEFT	-.18575	-.18852	-.06114	-.18306	-.31416	-.04117	-.17686	-.45366	-.16044	-.06286	-.00044	-.14431
TRAINING	-.22307	-.06979	-.23893	-.33770	-.01783	-.32872	-.03142	-.02428	-.25992	-.38524	-.13120	-.03178

	NOVARETY	NOPROBS	ACHIVMET	UNFAITH	FEELING	GOODPAY	DEMOTIOM	SPECIFIC	HADWOKA	NOTEQUIP	RIGHTJOB	NOSEPC
NOVARETY	1.00000											
NOPROBS	-.08006	1.00000										
ACHIVMET	-.15118	-.11890	1.00000									
UNFAITH	-.26403	-.05666	-.15584	1.00000								
FEELING	-.20407	-.14867	-.10928	-.26595	1.00000							
GOODPAY	-.11955	-.22278	-.42961	-.26709	-.05474	1.00000						
DEMOTIOM	-.32615	-.12634	-.01322	-.22021	-.28366	-.02960	1.00000					
SPECIFIC	-.12010	-.11811	-.28616	-.16744	-.39541	-.0195	-.0195	1.00000				
HADWOKA	-.14174	-.04392	-.27272	-.01011	-.20138	-.32041	-.08502	-.39660	1.00000			
NOTEQUIP	-.17730	-.03286	-.14554	-.21885	-.20894	-.11258	-.18230	-.07504	-.00519	1.00000		
RIGHTJOB	-.45871	-.10672	-.24051	-.11555	-.02216	-.29500	-.00657	-.19844	-.18220	-.00326	1.00000	
NOSEPC	-.36094	-.17901	-.15445	-.20329	-.08003	-.28374	-.28917	-.15588	-.16016	-.18210	-.04869	1.00000
CLOSUPA	-.03852	-.03223	-.24668	-.02337	-.09295	-.09850	-.07565	-.25204	-.21263	-.01383	-.15194	-.04869
NOBNEFT	-.23483	-.00398	-.13117	-.34531	-.24464	-.30905	-.25583	-.20695	-.07271	-.22593	-.09764	-.35736
TRAINING	-.14933	-.10581	-.35987	-.10388	-.01950	-.48900	-.39237	-.30657	-.03470	-.34543	-.13431	-.13431
BADMEH	-.28471	-.17081	-.19072	-.27606	-.39096	-.04791	-.47729	-.17277	-.16827	-.23925	-.01694	-.36884

	CLOSUPA	NOBNEFT	TRAINING	BADMEH</
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Appendix 7 continued.....

PRAISES	'RECOGNITION FOR WORKING HARD'
LITWORK	'ASSIGNED TOO LITTLE WORK'
FREEDOM	'RESPONSIBILITY/CHANCE TO MAKE DECISIONS'
LOWPAY	'PAY/FINANCIAL INCENTIVES ARE LOW'
VARIETY	'WORK IS INTERESTING/CHALLENGING/VARING'
FAVOUR	'BOSSES PRACTICE TRIBALISM/FAVOURATISM'
PROFIT	'COMPANY MAKING GOOD PROFIT'
PROBLEMS	'SICKNESS/DEATH/DOMESTIC PROBLEMS'
NOPROMOT	'CHANCES FOR PROMOTION UNLIKELY'
GOODMEN	'GOOD RELATIONS BTW SELF/BOSS/COWORKERS'
LOTWORK	'DIFFICULT/LOT OF WORK'
NOTRAIN	'LITTLE CHANCE FOR FURTHER TRAINING'
NOPRAISE	'NO RECOGNITION FOR HARDWORK'
SECURITY	'NOT LIKELY TO BE SACKED'
FREEHAND	'AUTONOMY'
FAILURE	'NO ACHIEVEMENT'
BENEFITS	'FRINGE BENEFITS-HOUSING, LOANS, ETC.'
LAZYWOKA	'BOSSES/COWORKERS LAZY AND INCOMPETENT'
URGENCY	'WORK IS URGENT/HAS DEADLINE'
PROMOTED	'CHANCES FOR PROMOTION'
NOTCARE	'COMPANY NOT CARE/LISTEN TO PROBLEMS'
NOSECURE	'NO JOB SECURITY'
NOPROFIT	'COMPANY NOT MAKING PROFIT'
HYGIENE	'GOOD PHYSICAL CONDITIONS'
NOVARETY	'WORK NATURE-NOT CHALLENGING/VARING'
NOPROBS	'NO PROBLEMS-DOMESTIC, ETC.'
ACHIVMET	'ACHIEVEMENT'
UNFAITH	'BAD COMPANY POLICY'
FEELING	'MOOD, FEELING, PERSONAL DEVOTION'
GOODPAY	'GOOD PAY/FINANCIAL INCENTIVES'
DEMOTION	'DISCIPLINARY ACTION-DEMOTION, SUSPENSION'
SPECIFIC	'CLEAR JOB DESCRIPTION'
HADWOKA	'HARDWORKING SUPERIORS/COWORKERS'
NOTEQUIP	'BAD PHYSICAL WORKING CONDITIONS'
RIGHTJOB	'PROPER PLACEMENT'
NOSPEC	'NO CLEAR JOB DESCRIPTION'
CLOSUPA	'SUPERVISION'
NOBENEFIT	'LITTLE/NO FRINGE BENEFITS'
TRAINING	'CHANCE FOR FURTHER TRAINING'
BADMEN	'BAD INTERPERSONAL RELATIONS'

Appendix 8

Correlations Among the Twelve Independent Variables in the Three (Commitment) Predictor Sets

	AGE	SEX	MARITAL	DEPENDENT	EXPERIENCE	POSITION	INDUSTRY	EDUCATION	EPQE	EPQN	EPQP	ESTEEM
AGE	1.000											
SEX	-.176	1.000										
MARITAL	.528	-.040	1.000									
DEPENDENT	.391	-.133	.313	1.000								
EXPERIENCE	.671	-.056	.396	.000	1.000							
POSITION	.620	-.147	.354	.245	.485	1.000						
INDUSTRY	.620	-.147	.354	.245	.485	.018	1.000					
EDUCATION	.146	-.048	.128	.000	.018	.000	.058	1.000				
EPQE	.104	-.034	.047	.058	.027	.119	.054	.049	1.000			
EPQN	-.081	.058	-.122	.073	-.058	.004	.000	1.000	.165	1.000		
EPQP	-.081	.058	-.122	.073	-.058	.004	.000	1.000	.165	.079	1.000	
ESTEEM	-.073	.080	.035	.034	.037	.106	.010	.145	.077	.079	.074	1.000

AGE in years'
SEX of subject'
MARITAL atatus'
DEPENDENT of dependents'
EXPERIENCE Years of working experience'
POSITION Type of position'
INDUSTRY Type of organisation'
EDUCATION Level of Education'
EPQE Level of extraversion'
EPQN Level of neuroticism'
EPQP Level of Psychoticism'
ESTEEM Level of self-esteem at work'

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