RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK VALUES AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT OF PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTOR EXECUTIVES

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CONTENTS

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Abstract

The present study explored the relationship between work values and organizational commitment of public and private sector executives. The study was completed in two phases. In the phase I, an indigenous questionnaire, namely, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was developed and empirically tested on an independent sample of 150 male executives from different public and private sector organizations to measure the level of commitment. The results of phase I provided sufficient evidence for the reliability of the questionnaire. Moreover, the correlation between sub scales of these measures and total scores were also high. The second phase of the study was concerned with hypotheses testing. The sample included 105 middle level executives from public sector and the same number of executives from the private sector. The age range of sample was between 25 and 56 years. Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed during the first phase of the study and Survey of Work Values (Wollack, Goodale, Wijting & Smith, 1971) were used as major data collection instruments. It was assumed that private sector executives will be more committed to their job and will show intrinsic orientation toward work compared to public sector executives. The results indicated significant differences between the two sectors on variables of work values and organizational commitment. The executives of private sector had high mean scores on intrinsic work values. There was a significant positive correlation between intrinsic work values and organizational commitment of private sector executives. The correlational analysis revealed that demographic variables have a better relationship with work values compared to organizational commitment. The results have been discussed in the context of prevailing social values in the Pakistani society.

ii

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF ANNEXURES

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Poets and politicians, novelists and economists, philosophers and psychologists have speculated about the nature, meaning, advantages and disadvantages of the work. Freud believed that love and work were the most meaningful acts of all people, whereas Carlyle thought it was the grand cure for all the miseries and maladies of this life (as cited in Furnham, 1987,p.141). Historical evidence shows how the meaning of work has changed over the centuries. The Greeks distinguished between the creative work for elite and physical toil for slaves. The Hebrew thought it an honourable necessity for all, imposed on man because of the sins of their fathers (as cited in Furnham, 1987,p.143).

The twentieth century theorists have also speculated on the nature of work though they have differed on a number of grounds, for example, the extent to which they see work as necessary for psychological growth; the stress on the content of the work tasks in organizational structure, and their emphasis on individual's different structure, and their emphasis on individual differences. Kahn (1981) argued that there are three facets of work characterized by such terms as *affiliation, addition, and fulfillment*. Weber's (as cited in Furnham, 1987,p.143) concept of Protestant Work Ethic (PWE) has been that it is a self - imposed willingness of individual to identify and conform with the goals of the society and to volunteer her services to the abstract ethic of industrial acquisition, effort, enterprise and growth.

The nature, purpose, or the meaning of work has been debated by all the great modern writers like Freud, Marx, and Morris, etc. Anthony (as cited in Furnham, 1987,p.143) has suggested that the ideology of work has taken two forms: an official view, representing the employer's injunction that work should be well done, and another radical view that work should be re-organized.

Hall offered his definition of work as:

Work is the effort or activity of an individual performed for the purpose of providing goods or services of value to others: It is also considered to be work performed by the individual. Work is an activity that is directed to goals possibly beyond the enjoyment of the activity itself (as cited in Furnham, 1987, p.144).

There are different academic conceptions of work like Freudian, Marxist and humanist approaches (Salaman, 1986). In Freudian theory, work fulfills many functions, for example, work prevents uninhibited satisfaction of sexual and aggressive instincts and imposes rules of conduct, which require people to live by the reality and not the pleasure principle. Work encourages transaction with physical environment, which strengthens ego-inner control mechanism and curbs in-born tendencies to carelessness, irregularity and unreliability. Thus the task of work is to socalize and mature people by providing the necessitites for the survival but also encouraging socially acceptable co-operative activities.

Work has overt and covert functions but emphasis is not on the content of different jobs so much as on psychological significance of work as a whole. Freud (1962) noticed that as a path to happiness work is not valued very highly by men. They do not run after it

as they do after other opportunities for gratification. A great majority of people work only when forced by necessity, and this natural human aversion to work gives rise to most difficult social problems.

Several researchers have noted that working is more than just a means to an end for many employed men, and that it serves as a function, other than economic, in both middle and working class people. Fineman (1987) claimed that work is a key source of identity, self-respect and social status and the most central life activity, more important than leisure. The work people do classifies them in terms of class, status and influence, and established hierarchies and groupings from which people derive a sense of security, recognition, belonging and understanding. Work identity may be transferred to children or other family members but may be lost on retirement or unemployment.

Work is a source of relationship outside the nuclear family because work allows emotional outlets in family relationships as well as enriching the scope of interpersonal relationships, which in turn has benefits on family. Work provides an opportunity to develop skills and creativity, and allows for the mastery, control, or altering of environment. There is considerable satisfaction in the integrity and co-ordination of intellectual and motor functions, which lead to development of skills. Work is a factor which structures time into regular, predictable time period involved with rest, refreshment and actual work. Work provides a useful temporal framework within which people can become maximally active and happy.

Fineman (1987) viewed work as a source of sense of purpose; best work prevents signs of alienation such as feeling of powerlessness, self-estrangement, isolation and meaninglessness while at best, and work endures interdependence with others, which helps

in development and achieving of goals. Work is a source of income and control; work means putting oneself in the hands of employers during the working hours so long as it provides sufficient money to assure oneself of independence and free choice of leisure and future outside the work place. Work is intrinsically valuable and rewarding as much as, even more than, what it buys. Work provides secure, predictable and, increasing rewards for effort, allowing for the development and acquisition of discretion, power and control over people, things and process (Feather, 1984).

The meaning that people attach to work is very important on the part of an individual, organization, and social level. Work values are work related beliefs, attitudes, preferences, and interests of individual and are conceptually different from job related constructs such as job satisfaction, motivation, and role perception (Shah, Kaur, & Haq, 1992). Work values characterize the expectation of individual toward the work; these are the normative pre-dispositions of an individual in work environment. An individual's likes / dislikes, his orientation toward work and the work environment play a significant role in determining the salience of various work values to the individual.

The term, which designates work value generally, is descriptive of either of the internal state of the person needs, or of the kind of the reward or satisfaction available to that internal need (Zytowski, 1970). Thus the concept of work value of prestige implies that a person has an internal disposition to obtain those external attributes called prestige. Super (1970) defined work values as an outward expression of needs and frame of reference for exploring occupations and as a major dimension for describing the way in which individuals relate themselves to job (p.235).

Zytowski (1970) defined work values as a set of concepts, which mediates between the person's affective orientation and classes of external objects offering similar satisfaction (p.176). In the following the concept of work values has been discussed in some details.

WORK VALUES: CONCEPT AND THEORY

There are several ways in which the concept of work values might be used. For example, a person might express interest in becoming a particular businessman but finds himself blocked from attaining the objectives because of the large capital investment it requires. If his attraction to business is understood as valuing autonomy, other occupational alternatives should be immediately apparent. Within one or few work values, the individual has the orientation to explore many specific occupations (Zytowski, 1970).

The concept of work value may be regarded as a special usage of the general use of "value" and can be defined as the conception of what is desirable that individuals hold with respect to their work activity. Work values reflect the individual's awareness of the condition he seeks from work situation, and they regulate his actions in pursuit of that condition. They, thus, refer to general attitude regarding the meaning that an individual attaches to the work role as distinguished from his satisfaction with that role.

However, it is necessary to distinguish this term from related concepts that have been used to refer to the same concept. For example, values should be distinguished from expectations, which denote individual's belief about what will occur in the future; but what is expected may not correspond to what is wanted and, conversely, what is valued may or

may not correspond to what is expected. Values should also be distinguished from needs, which refer to the objective requirements of an organism's well- being (Karim, 1993).

The concepts of needs and values are thus closely related since individuals may value those factors associated with the job which satisfy their needs; but values also may be irrational and whether or not one's values correspond to his needs, it is one's values which regulate one's actions and determine his emotional responses (Macnab & Fitzsimmons, 1973). The conceptual space of work values is conceived as a geometric subspace and items conceived as points in that subspace may be selected. The location of the points can be determined by conceptual classifications and ordering of the items they represent (Borg, 1990).

Various concepts of work values have been employed to explain an individual's level of job satisfaction as the extent to which his job satisfies his need as well as to forecast his occupational entry. However, job satisfaction measures have not been adapted to the task of predicting occupational choice. If the choice of an occupation or job is viewed as an attempt to gain the greatest anticipated satisfaction, then the same construct, values might be suitable for the prediction and explanation of both behaviors. Although the concept of work values has not been adequately defined, it has been considered important by the persons planning to work and of factors associated with job satisfaction (Zytowski, 1970).

Job satisfaction as a corollary of need or values has been studied by several investigators (for example, Blum & Russ, 1942; Ginzberg & Herma, 1964). Their findings supported the idea that job satisfaction can be predicted by the degree to which the person's occupation satisfies his needs, differences were found between persons in different types and level of work. Herzberg (1958) asserted that the relationship between

values and satisfaction is curvilinear, as the job related factors contribute to satisfaction, but work context related factors contribute to dissatisfaction. Friedlander (1965) has formulated satisfiers and dissatisfiers into growth and deficiency needs. He found that these differentiate between white and blue-collar workers.

The concept of work values has thus been employed in significant ways by many investigators in the field of vocational behavior but with little interchange or recognition of each other's work (see, for example, Elizure, 1996; Judge & Bretz, 1992; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987; Rounds, 1990; Singer & Stefflre, 1959). Billings and Cornelius (1980) emphasized the need for basic research on the nature of work values; they pointed out that better understanding of the dimensions in the domain would facilitate integration of theory and aid in developing items for research and evaluation. They suggested and empirically tested a definitional framework for work values.

Such an empirically based definition would represent guidelines for the collection of data i.e. the systematic selection of items and creation of new items if necessary to cover the domain of work values. Values have been considered as needs, personality types, motivation, goals, utilities, attitudes, interests, and nonexistent mental entities. Values are important elements in an individual's frame of reference. These are believed to have substantial influence on the affective and behavioral responses of individual and changing values are frequently evoked as explanations for a variety of social ills, employee problems in the work place, and a purported increase in unethical business practices (Etzioni, 1993; Mitchell & Scott, 1990).

At the organizational level, values are viewed as a major component of organizational culture, and are often described as principles responsible for the successful

management of a number of companies (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986 ; Schien,1985). At the most basic level, theoreticians (e.g., Feather, 1995; Rokeach,1973) have focused on two types of values. One type is the value that individual places on an object or outcomes (for example, the value one places on pay). A second type of value is more likely to be used to describe a person as opposed to an object (Feather, 1995). These values have been further subdivided into instrumental and terminal values (Rokeach,1973). Terminal values are self- sufficient end-states of existence that a person strives to achieve, for example, a comfortable job, wisdom. Instrumental values are modes of behavior rather than states of existence.

Rokeach (1973) has proposed a functional relationship between instrumental and terminal values wherein instrumental values describe behaviors that facilitate the attainment of the terminal values. Values are considered as normative standards to judge and to choose among alternative modes of behavior (Becker & McClintock, 1967). The most widely used approach classifies work values as intrinsic and extrinsic but the adequacy of the intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy has been questioned (see, for example, Billings & Cornelius, 1978; Centers, 1966; Gorn &Kanungo, 1980).

Structure of Work Values

Values are generally described as being learned in isolation from each other. However, situations inevitably present themselves where a person's values come into conflict. For example, someone who has been taught to be honest and to be helpful may be asked to help another by lying. In fact, because values relate to nearly all forms of behavior, one would be hard pressed to think of a situation that did not involve value

conflict at some level. Over a lifetime, people naturally resolve such conflicts by engaging in a cognitively driven process of paired comparisons between their values (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Many theorists and researchers believe that a person's values are hierarchically organized according to their relative importance to individual (Locke, 1991; Ravlin & Meglino, 1987; Rokeach, 1973). This view, however, is not shared by all researchers. Some acknowledge that an individual's values may be held independent of each other (e.g., Kluckhon, 1951). This view allows the possibility that a person's values may be uniformly high or uniformly low. It also recognizes that values may be equal in their intensity.

Researchers working within different paradigms have used different definitions of intrinsic and extrinsic. Ginzberg, Axelrad, and Herma (1951) tricothmized work values into three categories namely, intrinsic work values, extrinsic work values, and concomitant work values. Schwarzweller (1960) found support for this analysis but added a fourth cluster for females related to the homemaker role. Rosenberg and Davis (1957) also used the same category and concluded that when individual values are combined into intrinsic-extrinsic dichotomy, certain associates with socio-economic factors appear. Friedlander (1965) factor analyzed the factors of Herzberg (1958) and yielded three components namely, social environment, task centered opportunities for self-actualization and recognition through advancement.

Ginzberg, Axelrad, and Herma (1951) also found it necessary to add a category of concomitants and social relations namely, associates and supervisory relations in addition to extrinsic rewards (money, security, prestige) and intrinsic satisfaction, e.g., achievement, independence, creativity, etc. Crites (1963) factor analyzed eleven variables

from measures of work values and found that the value factors like, material security, job, freedom, personal status, social service and organizational security are related to type but not to strength of vocational interests and that they are independent motivational factors. Roe (1956) suggested that certain needs or values might be assumed to take general pre-eminence over others, like those under the survival needs label. One can make a connection between survival needs and valuing economic return on a work value taxonomy.

Despite the absence of a universal set of work values, persons in or anticipating entry into a given occupation appear to have value hierarchies more similar than those entering diverse occupations. It has also been demonstrated satisfactorily that those employed in higher-level occupations value intrinsic rewards, while low level workers hold extrinsic rewards more strongly. The role of concomitant or human relations value orientation has not been established. Post-Kammer (1987) found that work values become more intrinsic in nature with the passage of time. He concluded that contrary to traditional sex role expectations, girls valued achievement and variety to higher extent than did boys. He found that not only do boys and girls possess different work values but also they differ in values that are related to career maturity. The findings of this study indicated that girls have more work values that are related to their career maturity than do the boys. Super (1972) has classified work values in two categories, namely, intrinsic work values, and extrinsic work values. These have been detailed out in the following.

Intrinsic Work Values

Intrinsic work values are said to be cognitive, e.g., altruism, creativity, aesthetic, intellectual stimulation and management. These are related to actual performance of the job, e.g., achievement, responsibility, and nature of work. Moreover, these are mediated by the person himself. Slocum (as cited in Kalleberg, 1975) implies that intrinsic rewards are associated with satisfaction of higher order needs, intrinsic work values are derived from the job itself, associated with the content of the job or task. These are administered or mediated by the individual himself, or self internally mediated or self-reinforcing. These values are subjective or intangible in the form of feelings, ends in and of themselves, inherently valued for their own sake.

Extrinsic Work Values

Extrinsic work values are either instrumental or affective, e.g. economic returns, associates, independence, prestige, security, supervisory relations, surroundings and way of life. These values are related to the environment in which the job is being performed, for example, company policy, working conditions, and interpersonal relationships. These are externally mediated, that is, some one other than the employee himself mediates them. These values are associated with satisfaction of lower order needs, and are derived from the task or work associated with the context of the task or job, administered by the organization or agents of the organizations. These values are objective or tangible in the form of concrete objects or events, these are valued because of what they can lead to or buy.

England (1987) found that workers develop personal value system by organizing a constellation of beliefs concerning preferable modes of conduct or existence. In a study of

effects of personal values on the behaviour of managers, he found three levels of value importance namely, intended values, adopted values, and pragmatic values. These are briefly described below.

Intended Values

Values that a person holds to be important regardless of role situation are intended values. Such intended values as honesty, fairness, success, dependability, and loyalty are learned from one's culture, family, peers, and educational experiences.

Adopted Values

Adopted values are acquired through organizational experience. This class of values is held to be an important contributor to personal success within an organization. When adopted values are contrary to intended values, an individual may experience a conscience struggle over how to behave, e.g., many people disapprove of those who embrace "power" and "prejudice" as personal value, but at work these values may be not only accepted but actually rewarded. Some people reconcile this conflict by behaving according to one set of values within the organization and according to another set on the out side.

Pragmatic Values

To the extent that values are congruent inside and outside the organization, they are labelled as pragmatic values. That is, values such as money or success may be personally important (intended) and also viewed as relevant for organizational success. The reinforcement effect of these consistencies enables such values to serve as practical guide to organizational behaviour.

Dimensions of Work Values

Work may have variety of meanings for individuals in an industrial society. It has no inherent meaning but rather individuals impute such meanings to their work activity. One way to understand the variety of these meanings is to specify the range of gratifications that are available from work in an industrial society and to assess the degree to which particular individual value each of these dimensions. Kalleberg (1977) defined the following six dimensions of work that are differentially valued.

Intrinsic Dimension

Intrinsic dimension refers to those characteristics associated with the task itself, whether it is interesting and allows the worker to develop and use his/ her abilities, allow the worker to be self-directive and whether the worker can see the results of the work. Valuation of this dimension thus reflects the workers desire to be stimulated and challenged by the job and to be able to exercise acquired skills at work.

A Convenience Dimension

This refers to job characteristics that provide solid creature comforts, i.e., a "soft" job. These include convenient travel to and from work, good hours, freedom from conflicting demands, pleasant physical surroundings, no excessive amounts of work, enough time to do the work and an opportunity to forget about personal problems. This dimension may be viewed in opposition conceptually to the intrinsic dimension as it represents a valuation of facet external to the task itself. While the convenience dimension

refers to those aspects of work that are "extrinsic" to the task itself, it does not exhaust the range of extrinsic characteristics that are differentially valued.

Financial Dimension

The financial dimension includes such items as the pay, fringe benefits and job security. Valuation of this dimension reflects a worker's desire to obtain present and future monetary rewards from a job.

Relationship with Co-workers

This extrinsic dimension refers to relationships with co-workers and includes such items as whether the job permits chances to make friends, whether co-workers are friendly and helpful and whether one's co-workers take a personal interest in him/her. Valuation of this dimension reflects a worker's desire for the satisfaction of social needs from the work activity.

Opportunities for Career Dimension

This refers to the opportunities the job provides for a career, a dimension that includes such items as whether the chances for promotion are good, whether promotions are handled fairly and whether the employer is concerned about giving everyone a chance to get ahead. Valuation of this dimension represents a workers desire for advancement and recognition.

Resource Adequacy

The final dimension of work that is differentially valued may be labeled resource adequacy. This dimension represents workers wishes for adequate resources with which to do their jobs well and includes such items as whether the help, equipment, authority and

information required for job performance are adequate, whether co-workers are competent and helpful and whether the supervision is conducive to task completion.

This last dimension of work may be viewed as being different from the previous ones in that it doesn't refer to what workers "ultimately" want from their jobs. Yet in order to obtain such rewards as money, intrinsic gratification, advancement, etc., workers must perform adequately in their jobs. Successful role performance is not only contingent upon the demands of a role and the characteristics of the person occupying it, it may also be dependent upon the amount of resources or facilities that are supplied to the role occupant.

Thus a worker may be concerned with and value not only the ultimate rewards provided by the job but may be equally concerned with the more immediate problem of securing resources sufficient for adequate performance in the work role (Quinn, 1972). Availability of resources also affects the degree of control of a worker. Workers with more resources should have greater power with respect to obtaining job rewards than workers with a few resources. According to Kalleberg (1977), resources are operationalized by four indicators, which are as follows:

(a). The length of time the worker has been in the work force, a proxy for the age of worker as well as the general skills the worker has accumulated through work experience.

(b). The educational attainment of the worker, a measure of the credentials possessed by the worker and such cognitive and non-cognitive characteristics related to job performance that are associated with education.

(c). The worker's race, a proxy for the likelihood that the worker experienced discriminations in the labor market. Whether or not the worker belongs to a union or employee's association, a measure of resources available to workers to bargain for job rewards in their behalf.

(d). The relationship of measures of resources to job rewards is more complex. Workers with more experience in the work force perceive that they have greater rewards than workers with less experience do. Older workers do not perceive their chances for a career to be greater than do younger ones. Workers who possess resources in the form of membership in the organization perceive that they have greater rewards with respect to financial dimension and lower rewards in respect to the intrinsic and resource adequacy dimension of the work (Kalleberg, 1977).

The Domain of Work Values

To analyze the work values domain systematically, Elizur (1984) made an attempt to define its essential facets. Two basic facets were determined after content analysis of the literature on work values and examination of items included in various studies led to the delineation and classification of content areas that constitute the conceptual space of work values, namely:

(a) modality of outcome, and

(b) relation to task performance.

These have been briefly described below:

Modality of Outcome

Various work outcomes are of material nature. Some of them can be directly applied (such as pay) others have direct practical consequences (such as benefits, hours of work, work conditions, etc.) This class of outcomes can be defined as material or instrumental in a sense that they are concrete and of practical use.

Although material outcomes are more salient, various other outcomes occur that are not of material nature. Most studies include items that ask about relations with people including colleagues, supervisor, and others. An additional class of outcomes includes items such as interest, achievement, responsibility and independence. These items represent psychological rather than social or material outcomes. They may be classified as cognitive rather than affective or instrumental. Thus a facet deals with the modality of the outcomes. Its three elements specify whether the outcome is material, social or psychological.

Relation to Task Performance

The second classification concerns the relationship of outcome to task performance: it cuts across that of modality. Management of organizations recognizes the necessity of motivating individuals to join the organization and to attend to work .For that purpose they provide various encouragements usually given before task performance and not conditional on its outcome. These include benefit plans, work conditions, various services, such as transportation, subsidized meals as well as other resources provided by the organization. Katz and Kahn (1966) referred to them as system rewards earned merely through

membership in the system .The term resources is suggested to characterize this class of outcomes.

Certain other outcomes, however, are usually provided after task performance and in exchange for it, such as recognition, advancement, status, and pay, especially, when it is performance contingent .The term rewards may best characterize this class of work outcomes. Thus the second fact classifies items according to the outcome performance relationship and its elements specify whether it is a resource in the organizational environment or it is rather given as rewarding performance. On the basis of this observation, Elizure (1984) drafted a formal definition of work values by means of a mapping sentence whose domain includes two facets and whose range expresses the degree of importance of the outcome to the respondent.

Elizure (1984) distinguished work values into those that come with job as a resource of the organizational environment or "system rewards." and those that are dependent on the individual's performance "resources". He suggested a correspondence between the definitional-framework and empirical observation that suggests itself to ask whether the conceptual categories correspond to empirical classification of value system, i.e., conceptually similar items should also be empirically similar. Borg (1986) defined advancement as a primarily cognitive work value, because interesting work, as one of the typical consequences of advancement is a work value that is rated as more important than the material consequences of the advancement. Some theorists and researchers maintain that organization transmit a relatively narrow set of values, or a sub set of values (Kluckhon, 1951; Schien, 1985). This suggests that very specific values are most relevant

in organizations. However, individuals' behavior in organizations is influenced by social as well as organizational forces.

Meglino and Ravlin (1998) proposed a framework for identifying the types of values related effects that theorists and empirical researchers have investigated. This framework is intended as a basis for organizing the literature on values. This framework indicates that values are thought to arise from socialization processes and genetics. Values then have two main conduits by which they affect outcomes. Values can have a direct effect on an individual's outcomes or they may affect the outcomes to the extent that they are similar or congruent with the values of an "other". These ''other'' values can be those of a specific person or the aggregate values of a group or organizational unit. Value congruence can affect outcomes by clarifying communications, removing ambiguity and conflict, and enhancing interactions. Some of these influences are likely to be moderated by task and situational variables. For example, values will have little impact on behavior if situational variables restrict behavior from taking place. Consequently situational interventions, such as those designed to increase performance, are likely to have different effects on persons with different value structures (e.g., those with high versus low achievement) and on units with different levels of value congruence.

Measurement of Work Values

The diversity of instruments used to measure work values in organizations indicates a lack of consensus on the values that researchers feel are important. This issue is further complicated by the fact that these instruments measure values at different levels of

specificity. For example, organizational researchers have employed Rokeach's (1973) measure of general social values as well as Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, and Smith's (1971) survey of work values. This not only raises concerns for comparing the findings of different studies, it also creates problems for the understanding of value-related processes. If inappropriate values are measured, the absence of significant findings can be incorrectly attributed to the lack of any real relationship (Meglino & Ravlin, 1998). Furthermore, measuring values that are specific to a particular organization constrains value research to studies in single organizations that are of limited generalizability. So, it does seem obvious that there should be a reasonable amount of correspondence between values that are measured and the phenomenon being investigated.

Value researchers are divided on the appropriate way to measure values. Some researchers (for example, England, 1974; Wollack et al., 1971) have used methods that measure values independently of each other. Others (e.g., Cable & Judge, 1996,1997; Chatman, 1991; Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989) have employed methods that assess preferences between different values. Cattell (as cited in Meglino & Ravlin,1998) used the term *normative* to describe the former method and *ipsative* to describe the latter. Researchers who utilize ipsative methods also point to advantages of their procedures. The most important of these derives from how these researchers conceptualize the nature of values themselves.

Values are believed to be less than totally conscious, somewhat below than individual's level of complete awareness (see, e.g., Locke, 1976). As a result, accurate value measurement is thought to require assessments made in choice situations. Ipsative measuring techniques (i.e., rank order, forced choice) require respondents to make such

choices. Therefore, ipsative scores are believed to more closely present an individual's true values, rather than his public endorsement of socially desirable statements. Furthermore, some researchers maintain that values are hierarchically structured based on their relative importance to an individual. Because ipsative methodologies ultimately yield a rank ordering of values based on importance, they are believed to duplicate the way values are cognitively held by an individual. Because values are socially desirable phenomenon, Ipsative scores are less prone to social desirability bias because values are assessed in comparison to each other.

Thus, ipsatively rated value scores are likely to remain relatively stable despite changes in desire for social approval. Normatively rated value scores tend to increase as the desire for social approval increases (Ravlin & Meglino, 1987). As a result, normally occurring differences in the desire for social approval within a subject population can produce artifactually inflated relationships between normatively measured values and other self-reported constructs that are also socially desirable (e.g., job satisfaction, self- reported performance). Despite decades of research on values, and numerous studies comparing normative and ipsative measurement techniques, there appears to be no clear resolution to the value measurement controversy.

Meglino and Ravlin (1998) proposed a contingency approach to values measurement that considers the phenomenon one is trying to understand. If one is trying to comprehend a respondent's choices from among alternative course of action, then ipsative measurement would appear to be more appropriate. This suggests that values being measured are reasonably representative of the alternative choice of behavioral choices faced by the respondent. On the other hand, if one wishes to understand respondent's

assessment, classification, or comparison with regard to one or a number of entities (organizations, jobs, persons, etc.), then normative measurement would seem to be more appropriate. This assumes that values being measured represent the dimensions upon which individuals actually base their assessment. In each of these cases, the particular methodology is more phenomenologically correct in that it closely mirrors the actual cognitive process engaged in by individuals. Some important measures of work values are detailed out in the following.

Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES)

The Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES) is designed primarily to measure four general workplace values: achievement, working hard, concern for others/ helping others, fairness and honesty/ integrity. The CES utilizes forced choice format because of the high social desirability of values. Several studies have indicated that individuals respond to the instrument in a generally transitive manner, that responses relate to decision making, prosocial behavior and ratings of performance, and that congruence on the measures between subordinates and supervisors is related to job satisfaction, job commitment, and other important work outcomes. Findings also indicate that scores on the concern for others sub-scales are inversely related to individuals tendency to respond to information in terms of personal costs and benefits (Korsgaard, Meglino, & Lester, 1996, 1997).

The CES has been used in research in two ways: to construct profiles of the four values and to examine the impact of one of the individual values. As a value profile measure, CES has been found to relate to job satisfaction, attendance, work performance, job choice, and judgements of employability (Adkins, Russell, & Werbel, 1994; Judge & Bertz, 1992; Meglino, Ravlin & Adkins, 1989). Research conducted with the individual

value sub-scales has shown that people make judgements and act in a manner that is consistent with a particular value as indicated by CES (McNeely, 1991; McNeely & Meglino, 1994). These studies have provided evidence of the predictive validity of the CES.

Work Value Inventory

Super (1962) originally developed the work value inventory in conjunction with the *career pattern study*. The initial form of this inventory was a forced-choice paired comparison of around two hundred items. Work value inventory is basically focused on values, which are extrinsic to as well as those which are intrinsic in work, the satisfaction that people seek in work and the satisfactions, which are outcomes of work. The inventory covers fifteen values, e.g., altruism, aesthetics, creativity, intellectual stimulation, achievement, and independence, etc. Extensive normative information is offered in the source publication, based on a large representative sample of students. Percentiles, means and standard deviations for each sub-scale are presented according to grade and sex. Conventional estimates of internal reliability are not cited, but limited evidence of high inter-item correlations within sub-scales is described. The reliabilities of scales are presently all above.80, except for two with coefficients of .74 and .76.

The Survey of Work Values

The survey of work values comprises six sub scales each designed to measure a separate value dimension. The sub-scales are: Social status of the job, (e.g., the effects that individual has on his social standing); activity preference, that is, the preference of individual to keep himself active and busy among friends, relatives, co-workers and in his own eyes; upward striving, the desire to seek continually a higher level job and better

standard of living; attitudes towards earning, (e.g., the value an individual places in making money on the job); pride in work, that is, the satisfaction and enjoyment an individual derives from work; Job involvement, (e.g., the degree to which individual takes an active interest in co-workers, company friends and the job). Each of the sub scales comprises nine items, of which from two to four are reverse scored. Alpha coefficients of internal reliability for the six sub-scales ranging from .57 to .82 have been reported by Stone, Ganster, Woodman, and Fusilier (as cited in Cook & Wall, 1981).

Individual Values in Organizations

At the organizational level, work values are viewed as a major component of organizational culture, and are often described as principles responsible for the successful management of a number of companies. The values of managers and employees in organizations are phenomena that have captured the interest of researchers, practitioners, social critics, and the public at large. Meglino and Ravlin (1998) reported a comprehensive review of the most recent literature in this area. According to them values in organizational context have been studied in three ways, namely, dependent variables, independent variables, and moderator variables. These are briefly discussed in the following.

Values as Dependent Variables

Several studies examining values as dependent variables investigated multiple independent variables that were exclusively demographic. Thus a substantial number of studies examined value differences as a function of organizational level, sex, age, race, and education (Cherrington, Condie, & England, 1979). Ralston, Gustafson, and Cheung

(1992) examined value differences between executives of three nations and detected significant differences in the areas of innovation, task orientation, and integration. Whitney and Schmitt (1997) examined race as a determining factor in value differences, and concluded that race related to six out of fifteen value dimensions, when age, sex, parental education, and socio-economic status were controlled. Lubinski, Schmidt, and Benbow (1996) observed that in a sample of gifted adolescents, values were remarkably stable over a twenty years time frame. Dominant value orientation either remained unchanged, or moved to an adjacent value. This finding reaffirmed the conceptualization of values as very stable elements tending to form early in life.

Values as Independent Variables

Several studies examined work values as independent variables and focused specifically on moderated relationship and found significant relationships between job satisfaction, ethical decision- making, and career success. Judge and Bertz (1992) used a policy capturing approach to determine the effects of values on decisions and concluded that three of four values measured by Comparative Emphasis Scale interacted with a job's value orientation to predict the likelihood of accepting a job offer. They found that the fit between an individual's dominant value and the value orientation of the job was more influential than pay and promotional opportunities. McNeely and Meglino (1994) examined the relationship between one value and a variety of values and found a number of diverse effects. Concern for others and empathy were found to relate positively to secretaries' prosocial behavior directed at individuals. Classification as a cooperator related positively to assigning more importance to fairness. These studies strongly

supported effects of values on decisions, and suggested effects for affect and for perception in ambiguous situation.

Values as Moderator Variables

As research into the intercultural implications of organizational behavior increases, values are often suggested to play a moderating role in how organizations should be managed and structured (e.g., Hofstede, 1980). Another thrust of research on the moderating role of values deals with the value of concern for others and its moderating influence in decisional and behavioral processes. Korsgaard, Meglino, and Lester (1996,1997) observed that concern for others moderated the relationship between situational or task variables (i.e., the favorableness and specificity of feedback, and decision risk and payoff). Overall, persons high in concern for others tended to exhibit less self-interested behavior, and increased willingness to respond to social cues. Value of concern for others has been demonstrated to influence affect, decisions, and behavior that reach far beyond a simple relationship to helping behaviors.

An individual's orientation towards work and the work environment play a substantial role in determining the salience of various work values to the individual. Hence, the individual may be intrinsically or extrinsically motivated and the nature of these values will determine the degree of work morale of an individual and his relationship with an organization. Considerable research evidence has revealed the importance of individual differences in work values that determine which rewards individuals consider important and are thus commitment producing (Kaur & Singh, 1996). Werkmeister (1967) provides

evidence for a relationship between work values and organizational commitment, which suggests that the act of commitment is a manifestation of individual's own self, and the value considerations leading to commitment reflect value standards that are basic to the individual's existence as a person. Kidron (1978) found a moderate relationship between Protestant work ethic and commitment. Further he found that work values were related more to moral than calculative commitment. Putti, Aryee, and Lang (1989) reveal that work values have a moderate relationship with organizational commitment. Shah, Kaur, and Haq (1992) also confirmed the same findings. These findings clearly show that value orientation of employees strongly influence the level of employee's commitment.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: CONCEPT AND THEORY

In the past decade or so, the concept of organizational commitment has grown in popularity in the literature of Industrial/organizational Psychology. Work related commitment could increase performance, reduce absenteeism, reduce turnover, and benefit both the employee and organization. Morrow (1983) suggested that there is considerable construct redundancy in research on commitment. Commitment has been operationalized in terms of careers, organizations, norms, identification, morals, work, job involvement, security, and other conceptually related variables (see, for example, Becker, 1960; Blau, 1985,1986; McGee & Ford, 1987; Myer & Allen, 1984; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian, 1974; Reichers, 1985; Wiener & Vardi, 1980). The concept has received a great deal of empirical study both as a consequence and antecedent of work related variables.

As a consequence, organizational commitment has been linked to several personal variables, role states and aspects of the work environment ranging from job characteristics to dimensions of organizational structure. As an antecedent, it has been used to predict employees' absenteeism, performance, turn over and other behavior (Mathieu & Hamel, 1991; Zahra, 1984). Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) has suggested that gaining a greater understanding of the process related to organizational commitment has implications for employees, organizations and the society as a whole. Employees' level of commitment to an organization may make them more eligible to receive both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards associated with membership.

Organizational commitment is conceptualized as an affective state, for example, identification with the organization and in terms of observed and intended behaviors, deciding to stay, or actually staying with the organization, and in terms of two different behavioral manifestations, a desire to retain membership in an organization and the willingness to exert extra effort on its behalf (Meyer, Allen, & Gellatly, 1990; Mottaz, 1988). Finally commitment is conceptualized as both instrumentally, i.e., as a variable that accounts for behavior in terms of expected gains and losses and normatively, as a variable that accounts for behavior in terms of values that override instrumental considerations (Allen & Meyer, 1990a).

Organizational commitment has been defined in several other ways. However, the various definitions share a common theme in that organizational commitment is considered to be a bond or linking of the individual to the organizations. For example, Porter, Crampon, and Smith (1976) defined Organizational Commitment (OC) as "an affective or emotional orientation to an entity; the organization. Affectivity committed employees

remain with the organization for its own sake, apart from its purely instrumental worth" (p.87).

The most commonly studied type of organizational commitment has been defined according to the following categories, described by Mowday, Koberg, and McArthur (1984).

      (a) Attitudinal commitment

      (b) Calculated commitment

Attitudinal commitment

Attitudinal organizational commitment is generally defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization, characterized by three factors: a) A strong belief in organizational goals and values and acceptance of these goals and values. b) A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization. c) A strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982, p.27).

Calculated commitment

Becker defined calculated commitment as a structural phenomenon which occurs as a result of individual-organizational interaction and alterations in side-bets or investments overtime (as cited in Hrebiniak & Alutto, 1972, p.556). Individuals become bound to organizations because they have side bets, or sunk costs invested in organization and "cannot afford" to separate themselves from it. For example, a blue collar employee who undergoes an apprenticeship program and who collects seniority in the process may find that sunk costs in time and seniority commit him to the organization, that is, he cannot

afford to leave and go elsewhere. However, this type of commitment does not express an employee's agreement with organizational goals or a willingness to facilitate organizational goal attainment, only that the individual feels bound to the organization. As a result of this binding process, employees typically engage in some form of psychological bolstering. That is, such employees attempt to rationalize or self-justify their situation to demonstrate to themselves that they have indeed made the right choice by joining that particular organization. However, It is important to note that attitudinal and calculated commitment are not entirely distinct concepts, because the measurement of each contains elements of the other, that is, individuals do become bound to organizations as a result of past choices but such a bound does not guarantee high levels of attitudinal commitment to the organization. Similarly, it is possible for employees to feel highly committed to an organization attitudinally and believe in the organization's mission, yet not be irrevocably bound to remain with the organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982).

Kidron (1978) made a distinction between calculative and moral commitment and concluded that work values are related more to moral than calculative commitment. He found that respondents with higher Protestant work values tended to express high moral commitment, while those with low Protestant work values tended to express low moral commitment. However, respondents who expressed high moral commitment tended to have high calculative commitment as well. His findings indicated that there was a convergence between the two types of commitment, and that values appeared related, mainly to the identification of the participants with the organization and internalization of its values and goals. Values, however, were not related to the decision to leave the organization given some better alternatives in other position out side the organization.

A theoretical framework to understand the concept of commitment in the Indian context has been presented by Punekar and Haribabu (as cited in Pandey, 1988) they considered commitment as a value orientation guided by the process of socialization which inculcates many other values suitable for the achievement of the goal. The essential components of commitment, according to them, are performance value and value of discipline. A worker who is committed in this sense needs no external inducement for performance. On the other hand, a worker who is not committed needs external inducement for performance such as satisfying working conditions. A committed worker enjoys doing something for others and his behavior is less vulnerable to manipulation (as cited in Pandey, 1988).

Theories of Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment has recently been considered as a mediator variable in several causal models of employee's behavior. Researchers have considered more closely the nature of nomological network related to the construct of organizational commitment. Different types and foci of commitment have developed and tested different models of commitment, both as an endogenous variable and as mediating variables. These developments offer great promise for advancing understanding of these commitment influences on employees' behavior. Historically two conceptualizations of organizational commitment have dominated. These are Side-bet Orientation, and Individual-organization Goal Congruence Orientation. These have been described briefly in the following.

Side-bet Orientation

Becker (1960) described commitment as "a disposition to engage in consistent time of activity, as a result of accumulation of side bets that would be lost if the activity were discontinued" (p.36). The consistent time of activity refers to maintaining membership or employment in the organization. The term side bet has been used to refer to anything of value that individual has invested e.g., time, efforts, money, that would be lost at some perceived cost to the individual if he or she were to leave the organization. Such investments include contribution to pension plan, development of organizational specific skills or status, use of organizational benefits and so on.

The side bet orientation of Becker (1960) primarily focuses on the accumulated investments an individual stands to lose if he leaves the organization. The basic idea is that over time, leaving an organization becomes more costly because people fear losing what they have invested in organization and become concerned that they cannot replace these things. For example, people may be unwilling to leave their jobs because they are concerned about being perceived as "job hoppers" and stake their reputation for stability on remaining in their present jobs, they make a side bet on some aspect of themselves on continued organizational membership.

According to side-bet theory of organizational commitment, commitment increases with the accumulation of investments, or side bets. Some side bets increase with age and tenure, others decrease over time. For example, younger employees may be sensitive to the fact that, with less work experience, they often have fewer job opportunities. As they obtain more experience, alternative employment opportunities may increase, decreasing

the magnitude of one important cost associated with leaving, that of having no other job (Cohen, 1990).

Becker (1960) suggests that side bets will not influence commitment unless individual is aware that they have been made, and they must be perceived as sizeable enough that the individual finds himself unwilling to lose them. He suggested that employees who are older and who have been employed longer with a particular organization have a stronger affective commitment to it and are more satisfied with their jobs. It may be because these employees have received more rewards from the organizations, they are in better position and they represent a self-selected group, or that they have justified to themselves their long service to the organization by deciding they like it (Meyer & Allen, 1984).

The Individual-Organizational Goal Congruence Orientation

Porter and his associates (1976) have popularized this approach. It reflects people's willingness to accept and work toward meeting organizational goals. It views organizational commitment as the result of several factors, which have been briefly discussed in the following.

Individual-organizational value similarity is assumed to affect coordination, satisfaction, and commitment through the mechanism of prediction. That is, when the employees possess similar values they also have clear role expectations because they can more accurately predict each other's behavior. So an individual experiences less role ambiguity and conflict and is therefore more satisfied and committed to their organization. Congruence between workers and their organizations affects a number of individual level

outcomes such as personal success, intention to remain with the organization, understanding of organizational values, etc.

This approach suggests that values of workers do not appreciably change over time, rather the effects appear to enhance the impact of value congruence on organizational commitment. Meglino (1989) found the presence of significant value congruence relationship at the lowest levels of organization, between the workers and their organizations. These relationships included significantly greater overall job satisfaction, greater organizational commitment and a marginally significant reduction in lateness (see also, Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989, 1996). Meglino, Ravlin, and Adkins (1996) found that value congruence between workers and organizations affects a number of individual level outcomes, for example, personal success, intention to remain with the organization, understanding of organizational values, etc. They concluded that congruence effects for job satisfaction and organizational commitment were very evident at supervisory level; that is, satisfaction and commitment were higher when production workers values were closer to those of their supervisors.

Several other studies utilizing general perception of value congruence with the organization clearly indicate that perceived congruence relates positively to affective outcomes, including satisfaction, commitment, involvement, job choice intentions, optimism abut the organization's future, and adaptability (see, for example, Cable & Judge,1996; Harris & Mossholder,1996).

Organizational commitment has recently been considered as a mediator in several causal models of employee behavior. A few models have considered organizational commitment as endogenous variables.

Steers (1977) presented a model of commitment concerning the antecedents and out comes of commitment. This model suggested that the nature and quality of an employee's work experience and work environment influence commitment. Work experiences are viewed as a major socializing force and represent an important influence on the extent to which psychological attachments are formed with the organization. Experiences that have been found to influence commitment include group attitude toward the organization, organizational dependability and trust, perception of personal investment and personal importance to organization, and rewards or the realization of expectations. Steer's (1977) model suggested that important influences on commitment can be found in three general areas of organizational life, and that commitment leads to several specific behavioral out comes, e.g., highly committed employees have a strong intent to remain with the organization and employees who are highly committed to the goals of an organization and have positive attitude toward it are more likely to have a strong desire to come to work and contribute toward goal attainment.

Steers (1977) concluded that antecedents of commitment are quite diverse in nature and origin. Individuals come to organization with certain needs, desires, and skills and so forth, and expect to find a work environment where they can utilize their abilities and satisfy many of their basic needs. When the organization makes effective use of its employees, the likelihood of increasing commitment is apparently enhanced. When employees have higher level of education, it may be more difficult for an organization to provide sufficient rewards, as perceived by the individual to equalize exchange. Steers (1977) also tested the hypothesis that commitment is associated with increase in an employee's desire and intent to remain with an organization

Mathieu (1989) formulated and tested a model of commitment among military training cadets and found that commitment was enhanced to the extent of satisfaction with training, low role strain, and high need for achievement. Mathieu also found support for direct influence of job satisfaction and mental health on levels of commitment. The influences of role strain and perception of job and organizational characteristics were mediated by their influences on employees job satisfaction.

Podsakoff, Williams, and Todor (1986) studied organizational commitment as a mediator in causal models and focused on predicting other employees' reactions or behavior. They found that organizational commitment mediated the influence of organizational formalization and role ambiguity on alienation among professionals and non-professionals.

Ferris (1981) used organizational commitment as a mediator variable that linked various employee personal characteristics and work experiences to job performance and found that the dimensions of attitudinal organizational commitment played significant mediational roles. DeCotiis and Summers (1987) developed a causal model that predicted employees' motivation, performance, and turnover. They found that perception of organizational climate mediated the influence of personal characteristics and work experience on employees' turnover process.

In conclusion, it is clear that the concept of organizational commitment has been gaining attention in recent years. Gaining a better understanding of how commitment develops and is maintained overtime has vast implication for employees and organizations alike. The relationships involving organizational commitment are neither simple nor universal, and can be conceptualized in variety of ways.

Consequences of Organizational Commitment

As a consequence, organizational commitment has been linked to several personal variables, role states, (e.g., performance, withdrawal behavior, etc.) and other aspects of work environment ranging from job characteristics to dimensions of organizational structure. (see, for example, Locke, 1976; Randall, 1990 ; Reichers,1985; Romzek,1989). Some of these have been described briefly in the following.

Performance

Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) concluded that commitment level would influence, performance and that the relationship between organizational commitment and performance is likely to be moderated by factors like pay policies. However, calculative commitment exhibits a high positive correlation with performance in instances where pay is related closely with performance, for example, piece role system; and less so where there is little connection e.g., straight salary system (Ferris, 1981; Ferris & Aranya,1983). However, attitudinal commitment correlates positively with performance when role expectations are clearly defined rather than when they are ambiguous. Organizational commitment has demonstrated relatively high correlation with behavioral intentions (Merrens & Garret,1974).

Withdrawal Behaviors

As a correlate, organizational commitment has more often been used to predict withdrawal behavior. Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) suggested organizational commitment as one of a number of factors involved in the process of employee attendance.

Mowday et al. (1982) predicted that the strongest and most predictable behavioral consequence of employee commitment should be lower turnover rates.

Several other studies have indicated moderate relationship between organizational commitment and turnover (see, for example, Husellid, 1991; Marsh & Mannari, 1971, 1977; Porter, Crampon, & Smith, 1976; Porter, Steers, Mowday, & Boulian 1974). Various aspects of work environment, for example, supervision practices and job content factors, influence employees' affective responses, e.g., job satisfaction and organizational commitment intentions, withdrawal cognition, and decision process, that are directly related to an individual's likelihood of turnover.

Mobley (1982) proposed that organizational commitment correlates positively with intentions to search job alternatives, and the intentions to leave the organization. This suggests that the influence of organizational commitment on behavior can be mediated by behavioral intentions. Organizational commitment serves as summary index of work-related experiences and influences behavioral intentions directly.

Factors Influencing Organizational Commitment

Once the organization has extended an offer to an applicant and that individual has decided to enter into a psychological contract by accepting the offer, then the applicant becomes an organizational member. However, the preparation needed to become a functioning part of the organization has just begun. The applicant must now become schooled in and committed to the organization's goals, objectives and ways of conducting business. Organizational commitment, then, is not simply loyalty to an organization.

Rather, it is an ongoing process through organizational actors who express their concern for the organization and its continued success and well-being (Kiesler,1971; Northcraft & Neale,1994 ; Robbins, 1991). Kaur and Singh (1996) Investigated the relationship between work values, organizational commitment and self-actualization and concluded that organizational commitment is positively associated with work values such as social status, activity preference, upward striving and pride in work. The correlational analysis revealed that highly committed employees value self-actualization, possess high self-concept, are proud of their job, but are more concerned about their future goals and less involved in their present work. The organization is a source for the fulfillment of future aspirations and the attainment of social power and commitment is considered to be the outcome of social status achieved within the organization. Salancik (1977) suggests that four major factors lead to commitment, namely, visibility, explicitness, irreversibility of behaviors, and personal volition for behaviors are the factors that commit individuals to acts (see also, Hunsaker, 1987; Kiesler,1971; Robbins,1991; Northcraft & Neale,1994) .

Visibility

One major determinant of how committing a particular behavior may be is how observable that behavior is to others. Behaviors that are secret or unobserved do not have a committing force behind them because they cannot be linked to a specific individual. One of the most simple and straightforward ways to commit individuals to an organization is to make their association with the organization public information. If they are part of the organization, they (by association) support that organization and its goals. Many organizations are already taking advantage of this visibility notion to increase employee commitment. When a new employee joins an organization, the employee's photograph and

a formal announcement are sent to the local newspapers, in-house publications, and other such outlets to inform others of the new arrival.

Maintaining visibility is not a difficult task. For instance, it takes about the same time for inspectors to write a number after their task is completed as it does to write their names, or for the company to provide a nameplate on a door as to leave it blank. Very little additional effort is required to associate individuals with their work, their accomplishments, and their organization. The more visible individuals and their contributions, the more committed they are likely to be to the organization.

On some occasions, however, an organization does not want its members clearly associated with their acts .For example, there is a conscious attempt through the use of uniforms to reduce the visibility of individual soldiers, prison guards, and police officers so that a particular individual is not associated with some of the more unpleasant tasks. Thus, the uniform in this case clearly identifies the individual as a soldier or police officer, but the individual within the uniform is not unique. In addition, organizations may decrease the visibility of individuals performing onerous tasks or tasks with a high likelihood of failure. This reduced visibility is likely to enhance the willingness of an individual to take on a task with negative overtones.

Explicitness and Irreversibility

Visibility alone is not sufficient to commit individuals to their actions. It must be combined with explicitness: the more explicit the behavior, the less deniable it is. Thus, explicitness is the extent to which the individual cannot deny that the behavior occurred. Explicitness of behavior depends upon two factors: its observability and its openness.

When a behavior cannot be observed but only inferred, it is less explicit. Irreversibility means that the behavior is permanent- it cannot easily be revoked or undone.

Organizations also are aware of the committing aspects of the irreversible acts. Many organizations have developed benefit packages that are not transferable from one firm to another .The irreversible loss of these benefits, should an individual choose to leave the organization, commits the individual to continued employment. Training an employee in a skill that is specific to the organization or developing an employee's abilities to match the unique constellation of an organization's expectations also reduces the likelihood that the person will disengage from the organization.

Other factors influence a person's perceived attachment to the organization. Personal or family-related factors may foster an individual's commitment to an organization. Children in school, the cost of housing in other parts of the country, the circle of friends and acquaintances, and the spouse's job are all personal factors that may bind a person to an organization. Of course, the commitment may be more to the *status quo* than to the organization.

An organization may attempt to compete with the personal factors that tie an individual to a locality by creating a network of relationships at work that become important. Developing work or project teams or fostering collaborations among specific coworkers are primary ways to connect workers to the organization. Further dependencies upon coworkers are fostered when employees are unable to develop relationships outside the organization because of frequent moves.

The greater the employees' entanglement with these relationships, the more costly

termination would be to the employee. Employees' perceptions of the irreversibility of their positions in an organization develop naturally over time. The longer they are employed by an organization, the more their skills are tailored to the unique demands of that firm. What they know and how they think about a business become, in reality, what they know and how they think about the particular way their organization does business. In fact, given the committing nature of organization-skills, it is probably against the best interests of the organization to encourage employees to develop general skills that would make them more attractive to other organizations.

Developing generalized skills reduces the uniqueness of an individual's fit with a particular organization while simultaneously increasing that individual's attractiveness to others. The organization should clearly consider the potential cost and benefits of encouraging such skill development. The irreversibility of behavior is important because it influences the psychological contract (Littler, 1985).

Volition

Volition and its observable equivalent personal responsibility is the fourth mechanism that binds us to our actions. Without volition, behaviors are not committing. When trying to separate ourselves from our actions, we might protest that we do not like what we are doing, but the money was too good to refuse. Another way in which we try to distance ourselves from certain behaviors (usually those associated with unpleasant circumstances) is to insist that we have little personal responsibility for the behavior or the outcome.

Enhancing employees' personal responsibility for their actions is critical to establishing and maintaining their commitment to the task and the organization. A number

of organizational interventions acknowledge the importance of personal volition. For example, organizations are designing tasks in ways that increase an individual's personal responsibility for performing or scheduling them.

A second form of organizational intervention that emphasizes volition or personal responsibility is *participative decision-making*. If a work group is involved in making a decision or solving a problem, its members will be more committed to the implementation of that decision or solution than if they were simply informed of it. Their reasoning might be that if they chose to participate in the development of a solution, then they must be committed to it. This feeling of personal responsibility in turn increases employees' stake in the solution's successful implementation.

Commitment to the organization and its goals is important because individuals adjust their attitudes and expectations in situations to which they are committed. While enhancing organizational commitment is an ongoing process, it is probably most critical early in an employee's association with an organization to assure continued attachment.

Job Features

Many characteristics of job situation can affect a person's perception of responsibility. Some positions simply carry more responsibility, and persons in higher positions tend to be more committed. Similarly, some jobs offer more discretion and self-determination to their occupants, and it has been found that employees in autonomous positions generally have more favorable attitudes than those with little freedom to decide how to do their jobs. In addition to the job and freedom it permits, the manner by which the job is supervised and monitored can affect perceptions of responsibility. Maguire and Ouchi (as cited in Mowday, Porter, & Steers,1982) found that close output supervision

improves employee satisfaction but that close behavioral supervision does not. Monitoring and providing an individual with feedback about his work performance can increase a person's felt responsibility. Hackman and Oldham (as cited in Mowday, Porter, & Steers,1982) found worker's perception of responsibility was in part a function of feedback about their performance.

Commitment also derives from the relation of an employee's job to those of others in the organization. Some jobs are rather isolated and can be done independently of other jobs in the organization. It has been found that jobs that are not integrated with the work activities of others tend to be associated with less favorable attitudes. Work integration can affect commitment by the fact that integrated jobs are likely to be associated with salient demands from others in the organization. If a person's job affects the work of others in the organization, it is likely that those others will communicate their expectations for performance of that job. Such expectations can be committing in that the other people explicitly or implicitly hold the person accountable for what he does. When the individuals do not know what was expected of them they tend to be less committed to the organization. Anything, which contributes to creating definite expectations for a person's behavior would enhance his felt responsibility and commitment. Integration may be one such contributor.

Another most pervasive condition of job, which affects commitment, is its instrumentality, the fact that work is a means to some other end. While all jobs are done in exchange for salary, there are great variations in the extent to which the instrumental basis for work are salient or not. Ingham (as cited in Mowday, Porter, & Steers,1982) observed

that workers are attracted to larger firms because of higher pay offered, but that this instrumental orientation leads to little personal involvement with organization.

In addition, Hall and Schneider (1972) and Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) proposed some other correlates or factors significant in determining the degree of individual's commitment to an organization. These include, motivation, job involvement, stress, and job satisfaction. In the following some of these factors have been described briefly.

Motivation

Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) proposed that highly committed employees are thought to be motivated to exert high levels of energy for their organization. Internal motivation e.g. feeling of accomplishment and self-fulfillment are related to attitudinal commitments whereas external motivation e.g., that derived from the attainment of tangible rewards are related to calculate commitment. Hussain (1991) found that salary, promotion, recognition for better work, sympathetic supervision, opportunity for development of skills, opportunity for participation in decision making, and freedom of work were the most crucial factors for the motivation of the workers in private sector.

Job Involvement

Morrow (1983) defined job involvement as "the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work". It describes an employee's attachment to his job. It correlates more highly with attitudinal as compared to calculative commitment. Employees may become committed to an organization and maintain membership because it offers numerous side bets (Blau, 1986). Blau and Boal (as cited in Pandey,1988) found the interaction of organizational commitment and job involvement to be significantly

related to turnover beyond the main effects of sex, marital status, tenure, organizational commitment and job involvement.

Sharma and Kapoor (1978) examined demographic variables in relation to job involvement in a sample of white-collar workers of a public service department and found that job level, salary, age, and length of service were positively associated with job involvement. Educational qualification was found to be negatively associated with job involvement, i.e., the higher the educational level, the lower the degree of job involvement.

Sharma and Sharma (1978) reported the similar findings of an association between job level, age and service period. The findings showed that those lower in organizational hierarchy had a significantly lower degree of job involvement compared to those higher in organizational hierarchy. Similarly, the younger employees expressed a lower degree of job involvement compared to experienced employees. The first five years in service did not appear to have an impact on the level of job involvement compared to the next five years.

Stress

Bateman and Strasser (1984) defined stress as a composite of role strains, often measured by summing role conflict, ambiguity, and overload. It is also possible that employees who become attached to and remain with an organization because of side bets are likely to experience greater strain. Highly committed employees are likely to experience greater stress stemming from incompatible demands placed on employees by supervisors and from work- non work conflicts, e.g., simultaneous desire to work overtime and to spend time with one's family (Greenberg, 1990; Hunsaker, 1987). Employees who are highly committed to an organization may experience greater stress and anxiety

following a widely publicized industrial accident e.g. strikes, than would a less committed employee.

Job Satisfaction

The influence of job satisfaction and its components is one of the more thoroughly investigated topics in the organizational commitment literature. Job satisfaction refers to an overall affective orientation on the part of individuals towards work roles, which they are presently occupying. This conceptualization implies that job satisfaction is a unitary concept and that individuals may be characterized by some sort of vaguely defined attitude toward their total job situation. A worker's level of job satisfaction is a function of the range of specific satisfactions and dissatisfactions that he experiences with respect to the various dimensions of work. Attitudinal commitment is related more strongly to overall job satisfaction, whereas calculative commitment is more highly related to satisfaction with promotional opportunities and pay. Mathieu (1991) investigated the relationship between commitment and job satisfaction and concluded that commitment and satisfaction are reciprocally related, however, the influence of satisfaction on commitment was found to be stronger than the reverse effect.

A review of organizational commitment literature shows that two classes of variables, i.e., individual and organizational, have been used as antecedents of organizational commitment. (see, for example, Bateman & Strasser, 1984; Luthans, Baack, & Taylor,1987; Mathieu,1991; Mathieu & Zajoc, 1990; Steers,1977; Zahra, 1984).

The individual or demographic variables commonly comprise age, sex, tenure, education, income ,and marital status. These demographic variables are presumed to cause commitment because, through employees' actions, they make some penalty-producing

arrangements, the result of which leaves them committed to the organization (Becker, 1960). The organizational variables comprise task characteristics, pay, supervision, opportunities for advancement, etc.

There is empirical support available for both positions (e.g., personal and organizational variables) in the organizational commitment literature. Some researchers have found demographic variables to be most powerful predictors of organizational commitment than organizational variables (e.g., Koch &Steers, 1978). In contrast, others have found organizational variables to be more powerful predictors of organizational commitment than individual variables (Angle & Perry, 1983; Morris & Sherman, 1981). Mathieu and Zajoc (1990) considered personal characteristics, job characteristics, and organizational characteristics as antecedents of organizational commitment. In the following the antecedents of organizational commitment are discussed briefly.

Personal Characteristics

Personal characteristics refer to those variables, which define the individual, for example, age, education, sex, etc. Putti, Aryee, and Liang (1989) examined the relative importance of work values and demographic variables in explaining organizational commitment and found that education is the only demographic variable that has a strong and statistically significant relationship with commitment, They concluded that better-educated employees stress an intrinsic orientation to work. Education also exhibited a negative correlation according to Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982). They concluded that more educated individuals have higher expectations that organization may be unable to meet. It may also be that more educated employees have a greater number of job options and are less likely to become entrenched in any one position or company.

Some studies have suggested a positive relationship between age and organizational commitment. This relationship is attributed to limited alternative opportunities and greater sunk costs in later years. Older workers become more attitudinally committed to an organization for a variety of other reasons, including greater satisfaction with job, having received better positions and having "cognitively justified" their remaining in an organization (Cherrington, Condie, & England, 1979). Similarly Grusky (1966) has shown that women become more committed to an organization because they have to overcome more barriers than men to gain membership and because men are represented by higher values as compared to women (see also, Bruning & Snyder, 1983).

Salary is generally considered to represent a side bet, which results in increased calculative commitment. Salary levels also increase feeling of self-esteem and accounts for the positive relationship with attitudinal commitment. Hall, Schneider, and Nygren (1970) investigated the personal factors associated with organizational commitment and found that a person who values affiliation, public service, and security is more likely to enter and identify with a job which provides maximum opportunities for the attainment of these values.

Morris and Sherman (1981) found positive relationship between perceived competence and commitment and concluded that self-referent process may serve as a means of linking an individual to the organization to the extent that it provides for growth and achievement needs. Highly skilled employees are of great value to organization, which is likely to increase their reward and so their calculative commitment is increased (Larson & Fukami, 1984).

Organizational Characteristics

Larger organizations are generally seen as less personable and harder to identify with. These increase the chances of promotion and other forms of side bets as well as the opportunity for interpersonal interactions, which in turn results in increased commitment. Wiener (1982) suggested that organizational environment may act as normative influences and affect members organizational commitment by shaping their belief systems. Individuals with a high need for achievement become more committed in a competitive setting, which provides them a supportive environment (see also, Hackman,1971; Wesch & LaVan, 1981; Wiener, Muczyk, & Jable, 1987).

Commitment to the organization and its goals is a major factor in predicting performance. Thus it is critical that organizations have mechanisms to enhance the development of organizational commitment among new employees. In fact, one way in which organizations with high levels of employee commitment differ from organizations with low levels of employee commitment is that the former are "strong culture" firms. For employees to be part of a strong culture, they must be educated according to the expectations and practices of the organization. The extent of their commitment to their jobs and the organization may well hinge on their ability to understand, accept, and become a part of the organizational culture (Ott, 1989).

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE SECTORS

The structure of most organizations generally falls in one of the two categories, namely, public and private sectors (Rainey, Backoff, & Levine, 1978). These have been described briefly in the following:

Public sector

Public sector is generally characterized by a bureaucratic model, which is mechanistic in nature. Public sector includes government organizations, institutions and agencies whose missions are not profitable and profit motivated. Bureaucratic model is characterized by high complexity, high formulation, a limited participation by low workers, a limited network and little participation by the low level members in the decision making. So men at the top prescribe the behavior of the men below them, where seniors rule over the juniors and reliability of behavior is maintained by the directors, by rules and regulations and by the standard operating procedures. In Pakistan particularly, this system does not allow an individual approach and there is a lack of interpersonal relationship among workers and a distance is maintained between supervisors and subordinates (Khalique, 1974; Khalique & Rehman, 1987).

Workers in public sector are required to maintain constituencies, seek multiple goals, and obtain funding through a proper process, which is susceptible to political influence. The culture of public sector is one of conflicting values, where the special restrictions and limitations posed by the competing objectives interfere with the actual attainment of productivity and efficiency goals. Because public sector workers are also expected to meet the demands of public responsiveness, they are faced with constant conflict between the goals of accountability and efficiency (Whorton & Worthley, 1981).

Private sector

Private sector, in contrast, is characterized by a systematic structure, which is low in complexity and formulation. Private sector collectively includes those corporations and business firms whose missions are oriented around profit making as the return for competitive risk taking. Workers in private sector operate in a competitive environment , where profitability is the ultimate criteria of success. In order to achieve these objectives, they are expected to be responsive to market and customer demands and to implement organizational policies that facilitates efficient and economically rational action.

The private sector economic dynamics are defined as a dependence on the market for resources, which provide incentives and automatic penalties that reinforce policies for cost reduction operating efficiency, and effective performance. In private sector, the extent to which certain actions are encouraged and rewarded is generally determined by the degree to which they help meet the goals of increased efficiency (Katzell & Yankelovich, 1976; Neff, 1977).

Zald (1973) based his differentiation of public and private sector on patterns of ownership and funding. However, some government organizations (e.g., banks) are financed by user charge, and certain private organizations are primarily reliant on government contracts (e.g., autonomous and semi-autonomous organizations).

Fottler (1981) proposed a continuum between private and public sector organizations and identified four classes of organizations within the continuum between profit making and government organizations. Management functions, whether in public or private sector, are conceptually similar. Following Thompson's (1982) notion,

effectiveness depends on matching the internal organizational structure to the demands of the task environment; it appears that effective functioning of private and public organizations would depend upon different criteria, because each must adapt to different environmental contingencies, e.g., one would expect differences between the two sectors in the source of funding and ownership, the legal and political environment, and the criteria for accountability and control, to have a direct impact on the structure and practice in two types of organizations (Rhinehart, Barrel, DeWolf, & Griffin, 1969; Turk, Wamsly, & Zald, 1979).Among the environmental factors which are often cited in literature as differently affecting organizations in the two sectors include, differences in the degree of market exposure, and source of funding. Stated in broad terms, differences between practices of the private and public sectors are expected to be primarily in efficiency-related areas, because major differences between the two sectors lie in their respective sources of funding, and the consequent productivity and efficiency requirements. Private sectors are more actively pursuing policies that address efficiency, whereas the difference between the two sectors will not be significant in the non- efficiency related areas.

Sanghi (1992) Investigated the effects of work values upon the job satisfaction and personal adjustment of public and private sector engineers and found that public sector indicated positive relationship between value of opportunity for intellectual development, personal skills and achievement, kind of work and job satisfaction. In private sector value of financial benefits, supervisors and co-workers were positively correlated with satisfaction. Among intrinsic factors, value of opportunities for intellectual development, opportunities for independent and responsible work, recognition for accomplishment of work done were correlated to job satisfaction.

Sanghi (1992)also suggested that the mass media carefully monitors of what is done in the public sector, determined to expose and route out bureaucratic incompetence and the like, public business is viewed from a variety of different perspectives and must be responsive to a greater or lesser degree, to each of these. These pressures tend to make public agencies cautious and fearful of innovations lest they are chastized for being wasteful and lacking in proper concern for the public goods, In contrast, business in private sector operates more privately and does not need to be responsive to different pressures like public sector.

Shah, Kaur, and Haq (1992) examined organizational commitment in relation to work values of public and private sector industries in Pakistan. It was assumed that the employees of private sector industry would be more committed to organization and will show a higher job satisfaction as compared to employees of public sector. The results of this study indicated significant differences between employees of public and private sector industries on job involvement. There was a significant correlation between intrinsic work values and commitment for the employees of public sector. The differences on work values and commitment between public and private sector employees were not significant. The results were discussed in the context of prevailing social values in the Pakistani society.

It was also observed that private sector executives were significantly higher on the job involvement as compared to public sector, which indicated the interest and seriousness of the employees with which they performed their duties. The higher job involvement of the private sector employees indicated two major aspects which seemed to have determined the differences in job involvement of private and public sector executives, i.e.,

the meaning of work in the context of organization, and reward and punishment associated with the quantity and quality of work, an employee delivers in any organization.

The study of Shah, Kaur, and Haq (1992) also showed that public and private sectors differed significantly in their characteristics of job involvement, that is, in the public sector there was no well-defined system of rewards based upon performance as compared to private sector. However other characteristics, such as security of job, status, and monetary benefits (mostly through corruption) indicate some professions in the public sector organization.

In the west, however, differences in satisfaction between the private and public sector are expected to be associated with differences between the two sectors in conditions that affect motivation and satisfaction. Buchanan (1974 b) suggested that a deficiency in goal clarity that characterizes the multiple, conflicting and often intangible objectives typical of public sector, contribute to lower satisfaction and commitment levels. He concluded that contradictions and frequent diffusions of public organizational goals interfere with the individual's perception of his own role and of the impact of his behavior on overall organizational efficiency.

Public sector organizations are subject to ongoing and some times discretional political interventions by ministers forcing the management to serve as agents, the position of management as agents, is more complicated because ownership is more diffused and ambiguous in the public sector than it is in private sector. As it may not be entirely clear who is the principal for a public sector official, governmental or the political structure serves as contenders, having the potential to obscure accountability and responsibility. This lack of clarity about purpose leads to confusion and demoralization.

From this discussion it becomes clear that in our society public and private sector organizations differ significantly in structure, objectives, strategy formulation and implementation, and reward and punishment associated with quality and quantity of work, an employee delivers in any organization. These have been described below.

Structure

Private sector organizations share collective and joint efforts and responsibilities of workers to make the organizations effective and efficient. This aspect practically relates to the survival of an organization and its work force. If a particular organization is competitive and it gets good returns for its output then it not only flourishes but the benefits are also shared by the employees. This concept of efficiency and productivity and the competitiveness of the organization have little relevance in public sector. If public sector organization runs in loss, It is compensated or overcome by the government, whereas the losses in the private sector can lead to its bankruptcy and closure. More ever, public sector management is not much concerned in maintaing the competitiveness and profitability of the organization.

Objectives

Objectives in public sector are often ambiguous, multi-faceted and conflicting because of the "public interest" and ongoing political intervention. According to their founding aims, public sector organizations are supposed to perform efficiently and ensure public accountability, legality, equity in treatment and integrity in behavior. The goals are often indefinite in terms of contents and weightings, which makes them vulnerable to the shifting sands of political advantages. In this environment, consistency of decision making is generally sought through a culture developed around professional values and procedural

norms and rules rather than through meeting consumer's demands. With a lack of clarity regarding outputs, the public sector organizations focus on inputs, they measure their performance in terms of input or process–based measures, for example, numbers employed or cases dealt with. In turn, when outcomes are not easily measurable, the risk of political intervention increases. On the other hand private sector organizations are free from political interventions and focus on uni-dimensional goals, for example, profit. Private sector generally has flexible and adaptive goals that tend to be associated with a concern for meeting consumer needs.

Strategy Formulation and Implementation

In public sector, policy making tends to be highly structured with an emphasis on deliberate strategies. This leads to a formalized style of strategy formulation and planning. Such formalized planning easily becomes ritualistic and acts to reinforce the *status quo*. However, despite the existence of highly formalized planning in public sector, there is often a sense of strategic drift. Public sector organizations find it more difficult to evolve and change than do private sector counterparts. The plans act as binding constraints on strategy. In terms of strategy formulation and implementation, public sector organizations seem to be more closed and less responsive in terms of reacting to the non-political part of external environment.

The Concept of Reward and Punishment

The security of the job and a non-contingency of reward and punishment on upward movement of persons are major factors in inculcation of work values. In public sector of Pakistan there is no one definite system of reward and punishment based on performance, whereas in private sector, a competitive atmosphere and maintenance of

status in society fosters the job involvement and commitment. In the employees of the private sector organizations, there is a feeling among workers that they will not lose their jobs because of no fault on their parts and will be able to remain in organization as long as they want. Whereas, in public sector, workers lack the motivation because their jobs depend on the whim of the management. So, when workers feel insecurity, uncertainty and fear of losing jobs, they get dissatisfied and lose encouragement and inspiration in their work. More ever, there is a tendency to examine the policies toward recognition for good performance as a means of increasing their motivation. Recognition for good work leads to high motivation among the employees and makes them more committed to the organization. Differences in satisfaction between the private and public sectors are expected to be associated with differences between the two sectors in conditions that affect motivation and satisfaction. Motivation theories attribute the origins of satisfaction to specific conditions in the work environment. Literature on goal setting, and expectancy theories of motivation suggest that challenge, clear goals, feed back, and reward contingent on performance contribute to positive motivational states and satisfaction (Locke, 1976; Vroom, 1964).

The largest difference in the two sectors under discussion is, in fact, in the area of reward system existing in a particular organization (Rhinehart, Barrel, DeWolf, & Griffen, 1969). Soloman (1986) provided strong support for the hypothesis that rewards of private sector are contingent on performance to a significantly higher degree than those of public sector. Satisfaction with these policies was also significantly high among private sector employees. Conversely, rewards represented the area of greatest dissatisfaction among service organizations of public sector. These findings confirmed the differences in

incentive structures of the two sectors. Soloman (1986) also concluded that money as an incentive is both more readily available and considered as more important among employees of both sectors, whereas pay is considered to be more important among employees of business organizations than among those in government organizations. This is an indication of differences in managerial attitudes relative to both value of pay and other rewards, and existence of rewards in private compared to public sector.

Schuster, Colletti, and Knowles (1973) indicated that a curvilinear relation between amounts of pay and the subjective value attached to pay existed in the private but not in the public sector. He also predicted that policies that promote efficiency would be more prevalent in the private sector as compared to the public sector organizations. Differences were found to be significant in all efficiency related areas, including improvements of methods, task clarity, task autonomy and significance. The first two areas were particularly developed in service organizations of the private sector. No differences between the private and public sector were found in perceived levels of participation in task variety and development, suggesting that practices that are not directly related to task efficiency do not necessarily differ between the two sectors (Rainey, Backoff, & Levine, 1978).

The Federal Employment Survey (as cited in Soloman,1986) pointed out performance appraisal, feedback, and reward of performance as the specific areas in which dissatisfaction was expressed in public sector. Another study by the National Center for Productivity (as cited in Soloman,1986) reported lower technical competence among supervisors of the public sector compared to their private counterparts.

These findings might reflect either lower concern or less investment in training on the part of public sector organizations, or inability to recruit quality personnel. Private

sector managers in this research reported significantly higher satisfaction than the public sector, providing strong support for the hypothesis that satisfaction with job and organizational climate would be significantly higher among private sectors compared to public sector.

Hayward (1978), as a result of his research on the job satisfaction in the public sector, suggested that business organizations might provide a baseline against which government organizations can be compared. These findings permit some generalizations about the constraints of the public sector that dictate less efficient policies. Policymakers in public sector are faced with special organizational impression; they confront controversial political and often value-laden issues very specific to their society.

RATIONALE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

It is evident from the review of literature that values of managers and workers in organizations are phenomena that have captured the interest of researchers, practitioners, social critiques and public at large. Work values are viewed as a major component of organizational culture and are often described as principles responsible for successful management of organizations. It may be seen from the preceding account that in the west, during the past two decades a substantial number of studies have examined the value differences as a result of organizational level, sex, age, race and education. This studies focused specifically on moderated relationships of work values with other variables of interest, for example, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job involvement, and work environment.

However, in Pakistan, phenomena of work values and the variables moderating or buffering their impact, have not been given much attention by the researchers. In fact, here this phenomenon is yet to be acknowledged and investigated adequately. So far, only one study has been carried out on individual's values and commitment to the organization (for example, Shah, Kaur, & Haque, 1992). Common observation indicates that an increasingly large number of professionally qualified people have become members of formalized and non formalized organizations, but no significant research efforts have been made to know whether this employment relationship signifies an unwilling submission to the organization as a traditional part of reference, whether people are committed to an organization for the sake of monetary benefits, or they have willingness to identify themselves with organization and its goals, that is, they have an intrinsic orientation toward work. During the course of employment, workers are likely to accommodate value orientation and other aspects of their professional self-perception to the conditions of their relationships with management. They adjust their work values as their tenure of employment lengthens in a direction that brings them more committed to organizational goals. As can be seen from the introductory account that concept of organizational commitment has grown in popularity in the literature of industrial / organizational psychology recently.

Interest in work related commitment stems from its demonstrated linkage with such behaviorally related outcomes as absenteeism, performance, turnovers, employee retention, motivation, and job satisfaction (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). Organizational commitment has been studied either as independent variable or dependent variable and as a

form of psychological contract that employees make in response to benefits provided by organizations.

The present study is an attempt to explore the relationship of work values and organizational commitment of public and private sector executives. As is evident from the relevant research quoted, there are significant differences in the two sectors in areas of structure, objectives, strategy formulation and implementation, reward and control systems, and meaning of work as perceived by executives of the two sectors. So the work values and level of commitment to organization is likely to be different (Shah, Kaur, & Haque, 1992). Public sector is generally identified by a bureaucratic model, having a very limited participation of workers in decision making. Reliability of behavior in public sector is generally maintained by rules and regulations and by standard operating systems. The culture of public sector is one of conflicting values and objectives because of on-going political intervention. On the other hand, private sector is characterized by a systematic, diversified structure and uni-dimensional, profit oriented goals, and business based employment.

Employment in private sector is based upon performance, workers operate in a competitive environment and profitability is the ultimate criteria of success. In Pakistan, with the growth of private sector and emergence of bureaucracy as a primary vehicle in socio- economic development of country, these two sectors have been playing a vital role. The executives of both sectors are considered to be the policy makers, the decision-makers, and shapers of common people's destiny and they are weighed to be the central figures in

economic and social life of the society. In Pakistani context, intuitively it seems that private sector employees are more committed to their organizations and are likely to have intrinsic orientation toward work.

On the other hand, there is a lack of emphasis in motivating individuals to hard work, efficiency, and independence in public organizations of our society, which negatively influences the intellectual and motivational dynamics of the individual. The disintegration of moral fabric of the Pakistani society in the form of rampant corruption, nepotism, favoritism and undue advantages to politically like- minded individuals has caused much damage to work values and integrity of an individual. An excessive demonstration of the wealth and power in the society has brought the personal monetary gains in focus of attention of the majority of its people. The white-collar government jobs, especially, Central Superior Services have become more attractive for professionals because of the exercise of authority and corruption with the relative impunity. The public sector organizations are plagued by indifference and lack of commitment to the organization caused by their employees. However situation in private sector is slightly different. The criteria of reward and punishment here, are not only usually transparent but also applied consequently to all.

The central idea behind the present research is to explore the relationship between work values and organizational commitment of executives and to explore what type of values are considered more substantial by the executives in public and private organizations.

METHODOLOGY

METHOD

Objectives of the Study

The review of literature quoted in the chapter I reveals that the values of the executives strongly influence their level of commitment to the organization. The present study investigates the relationship between indices of work values and organizational commitment of public and private sector executives in Pakistani context. Specifically, the present study aims at achieving the following research objectives:

1. To develop an indigenous scale for the measurement of organizational commitment.

2. To investigate the relationship between work values and organizational commitment.

3. To investigate whether the public and private sector executives differ in their work values.

4. To investigate whether the public and private sector executives differ in their organizational commitment.

Hypotheses

To achieve these objectives, the following hypotheses have been formulated:

1. There is a significant difference in the work values of public and private sector executives.

2. There is a positive relationship between work values and organizational commitment of public sector executives.

3. There is a positive relationship between work values and organizational commitment of private sector executives.

4. There is a significant difference in the organizational commitment of public and private sector executives.

5. Public sector executives are more extrinsically oriented as compared to private sector employees.

6. Demographic variables, i.e., age, education, and experience are positively correlated with work values and organizational commitment.

Definitions of the Variables

In the present research, the variables of research have been defined as following:

Work Values

Work values refer to general attitude regarding the meaning that an individual attaches to the work role as distinguished from his satisfaction with that role (Zytowski, 1970). Work values are an outward expression of needs and frame of reference for exploring occupations and a major dimension for describing the way in which individuals relate themselves to job (Super, 1970). For the purpose of present research, the combined scores on the six sub-scales of the Survey of Work Values (Wollack, Goodale, Witjing, & Smith, 1971) were taken to be the indicators of individual's values at work place.

Dimensions of Work Values

Kalleberg (1977) defined the following dimensions of work values :

Intrinsic Dimension refers to those characteristics associated with the task itself, whether it is interesting and allows the worker to develop and use his/ her abilities and to be self-directive and whether the worker can see the results of the work.

Extrinsic Dimension refers to those characteristics associated with the outcomes of work, e.g., instrumental economic returns, associates, independence, prestige, security, surroundings and way of life.

Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment refers to a state in which an employee identifies with a particular organization and its goals and wishes to maintain membership in organization as reciprocal to achieving his job values within that organization (Mowday, Porter, & Steers,1982). Moreover, Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) three dimensions of organizational commitment were considered for the present research. These dimensions are as follows:

Identification refers to a strong belief in, and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, pride in organization.

Involvement refers to a willingness to invest personal efforts as a member of the organization, for the sake of organization.

Loyalty refers to devotion for, and attachment to the organization and a strong desire to remain member of the organization.

Public Sector

Public sector includes government organizations, institution and agencies, whose missions are not profitable and profit motivated, characterized by high complexity, high formulation, a limited participation by low workers, a limited network and little participation by the low level members in the decision making (Whorton & Worthley, 1981).

Private Sector

Private sector collectively includes those corporations and business firms whose missions are oriented around profit making and the return for competitive risk taking. The private sector economic dynamics are defined as a dependence on the market for resources, which provides incentives and automatic penalties that reinforce policies for cost reduction, operating efficiency, and effective performance (Hunsaker, 1987).

Instruments

Two instruments were used for the present study. For the measurement of work values, Survey of Work Values developed by Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, and Smith in (1971) was used (see Annexures A & B) whereas for the measurement of organizational commitment, a questionnaire developed during the first phase of study was used as major data collection agent (see Annexure I). The first instrument, namely, The Survey of Work Values (SWV) has been described below:

The Survey of Work Values

The Survey of Work Values (SWV) developed by Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, and Smith (1971) has been designed to measure attitudes towards work, especially those aspects that deal with the meaning that an individual attaches to his role at the work place. During the past three decades this scale has been used widely by majority of researchers as an instrument to describe the way individuals relate themselves to work. The Survey of Work Values comprises six sub scales, which have been described briefly in the following:

Pride in work scale measures the satisfaction and enjoyment an individual derives from work.

Job involvement scale measures the degree to which an individual takes an active interest in co- workers, company functions and desires to contribute to the job.

Activity preference scale measures the preference of individual to keep himself active and busy on the job.

Attitudes towards earning scale measures the value an individual places in making money on the job.

Social status of the job scale measures the effects the job has on individual's social standing among friends, relatives, co- workers and in his own eyes.

Upward striving scale measures the desire to seek continually a higher level job and a better standard of living.

Each of the six sub-scales has been designed to measure a separate value dimension. Four of these dimensions (e.g., pride in work, upward striving, job

involvement, and activity preference) are classified as intrinsic, the next two (attitudes towards earning and social status of the job) are classified as extrinsic work values. Each of the sub-scales comprises nine items, two to four of which are reverse scored. Responses to all the six sub-scales are made on 5-point scale ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Sub-scale scores are obtained by averaging item scores. Stone (1975) reported alpha coefficients of internal reliability for the six sub-scales ranging from .57 to .82. Putti, Aryee, and Liang (1989) factor analyzed the six sub-scales and found that all them were positively correlated with each other except for the pride in work and attitude toward earning scale, which showed a negative, negligible, zero-order correlation. Three of the work value sub-scales, i.e., pride in work, job involvement, and activity preference indicated fairly strong inter-correlations ranging from .80 to.88. Kaur and Singh (1996) reported test-retest reliability coefficients for the six sub-scales ranging from .59 to.85.

In Pakistan, Shah, Kaur, and Haq (1992) provided an analysis of reliability of Survey of Work Values (SWV) and showed that the instrument is psychometrically adequate. Their results indicated higher internal consistency of the measure of SWV. The sub-scales of Social Status and Attitude Toward Earning were significantly correlated with the total scores on the measure of extrinsic values with a correlation of .69 and .82. The measures of intrinsic work values also had highly significant correlation with the sub-scales of Activity Preference ($r = .79$, $p<. 001$), Upward Striving ($r = .56$, $p<. 001$), Pride in Work ($r = .79$, $p<. 001$), and Job Involvement ($r =. 62$, $p<. 001$).

Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) developed during the first phase of the present research was used as the main data collection agent. The OCQ consists of 46 items. It is a measure of three dimensions namely, Identification, Involvement, and loyalty. 13 items are reverse scored, these items are 4, 8,11, 17, 21, 24, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 38, 41, and 45. The OCQ is a five-point scale in which responses range from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The numericals for rating categories are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. The scoring for positive items is reversed, these items are 5, 4, 3, 2, 1. If a negative item is marked with 'strongly disagree' it may receive a score of 1 and if a positive item is the same it may receive a score of 5. Combined scores on three dimensions of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) are taken to indicate the level of commitment. Further details of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) are given under procedure of phase I of the present study as well as under Results.

Research Plan

The objectives of present research were achieved in two phases. Phase I deals with development of an indigenous questionnaire for measurement of organizational commitment. Phase II deals with investigation of relationship between work values and organizational commitment of public and private sector executives.

Phase I

This part of research was aimed at development of an indigenous questionnaire for measurement of organizational commitment. The questionnaire was developed in four steps.

    a. Item generation

    b. Face validation

    c. Empirical evaluation

    d. Determination of reliability of the scale.

Step-wise procedures of the development of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire have been described in the following.

Item Generation

For the development of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, items were constructed pertaining to involvement, identification and loyalty towards organization. Some of the items were derived from an earlier questionnaire developed and used in a study on organizational commitment by Buchanan (1974a). Additional items were generated with the help of literature review. The five rating points used for questionnaire ranged from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The total items in the questionnaire were 68, including 23 reverse scored items (see Annexure D). Items were categorized according to Mowday, Steers, and Porter's (1979) three dimensions of organizational commitment. Consensus among judges

for the categorization of items into Involvement, Identification, and, Loyalty was achieved during the face validation phase.

Face Validation

The questionnaire was given to seven judges out of which three were professional psychologists and four were heads of different public and private sector organizations. These judges were given a brief introduction about the study and were requested to check the items for face validation. In the light of their suggestions five items having overlapping content were excluded (see Annexure E). Among the remaining 63 items, 23 items were identified for the dimension of Involvement, 23 items for Identification, and 17 items for Loyalty.

Empirical Evaluation

Sample

Two samples one of 75 male business executives (managers, directors), from the private sector and the other of 75 male executives, namely civil servants from the public sector with age range 25-55 years, and grade level 17-21 were drawn from different civil service and finance organizations of public and private sectors. A minimum of five years experience was determined as a requirement for a participant to be included in the sample. Only males were made a part of the sample of the study. The respondents were representative of middle and top management in both sectors. The following demographic variables were controlled as the major criterion for the selection of sample:

I.   Age

II.   Education.

III.   Grade level

IV.   Income.

V.   Length of the job (experience)

Procedure

Initially, the questionnaire was given to seven judges. Who were given a brief introduction about study and were requested to check items for face validation. In the light of their suggestions, five items having overlapping content were excluded. After evaluation by judges, data were collected from public and private sector organizations for empirical evaluation. Subjects were instructed to indicate their degree of agreement / disagreement according to the given code. After empirical evaluation, data were subjected to statistical analysis for determination of reliability. First of all item analysis was run to determine the internal consistency of questionnaire. The data were further analysed with the help of principal component analysis, which yielded three factors. A factor loading of more than 0.35 was used as a criterion for inclusion of items in the factor.

Determination of Reliability

For the determination of the reliability of the questionnaire, first of all an item analysis was carried out to determine the internal consistency of the questionnaire and its dimensions. All the items were found to be significant at .000 level except for items 23 and 48. Item analysis yielded a reliability coefficient of

.93 for the entire 63 items. The other three dimensions yielded a reliability coefficient of .74 for involvement, .89 for identification, and .81 for Loyalty.

Data were further analyzed with the help of principal component analysis, which yielded three factors (see Annexure F). Majority of items had highest factor loading on factor 1, which indicates the uni-dimensional characteristics of the questionnaire. A factor loading of more than 0.35 was used as a criterion for inclusion of a statement in the factor. According to this criterion, thirty items were selected for factor I, seven were selected for factor II and nine for factor III (see Annexure F). Seventeen items having a factor loading of less than 0.35 were excluded from the questionnaire (see Annexure G). Finally, the questionnaire retained 46 items (see Annexure H).

Phase II

This part of research was aimed at investigating the relationship between work values and organizational commitment of public and private sector executives in Pakistani context.

Sample

Two samples one of 105 male business executives (managers, directors), from the private sector and the other of 105 male executives, namely civil servants from the public sector with age range 25-55 years, and grade level 17-21 were drawn from different civil service and finance organizations of public and private sectors. A minimum of five years experience was determined as a requirement for a participant to be included in the sample. Only males were made a part of the sample

of the study. The respondents were representative of middle and top management in both sectors. The major criterion for the selection of sample was similar to that of phase I, namely:

I.   Age

II.   Education.

III.   Grade level

IV.   Income.

V.   Length of the job (experience)

Procedure

For data collection, the subjects were approached individually. A minimum of five years experience was determined as a requirement for a participant to be included in the sample. Only males were made a part of the sample of study. Participants were briefed regarding the nature of the research being carried out, to obtain their consent and co-operation. The questionnaires were handed over to them and they were requested to furnish the required information. A demographic information sheet was also administered on the sample to collect information on variables like age, education, income and job experience. It was made clear to them that the collected information would be kept confidential and would be used only for research purposes. They were requested to give their answers as honestly as they could and not to leave any question unanswered. The completed questionnaires were checked and the scores were subjected to statistical analysis to test the hypotheses of the study.

RESULTS

RESULTS

The present study was carried out in two phases. Phase I dealt with development and determination of reliability of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The phase II of the study was concerned with hypotheses testing. The results of two phases are as following.

Phase I

In phase I of the present study, an indigenous questionnaire for measurement of organizational commitment was developed. This Phase included item generation, categorization, face validation and empirical evaluation. In the first step, items were generated from different heads of public and private organizations and through literature review. Agreement of judges was achieved for the relevance of items to the content. In the light of their suggestions, items having overlapping content were excluded. At the final step i.e., empirical evaluation, the psychometric properties of the scale were tested and established. For this purpose, first of all item analysis was run to determine the internal consistency of the scale. The purpose of item analysis was to select the items that form a homogeneous scale. All the items were significant at .000 level, except for items 23 and 48. Table 1 shows the item total correlation- coefficient.

The data were further analyzed with the help of principal component analysis. The factors were extracted by limiting the extraction up to three factors. Majority of items had highest loading on factor I which indicates uni-dimensional characteristics of the scale. However, a few items had positive loading on remaining two factors. Table 2 shows the item loading on three factors.

Table 1

Item-total correlation of the Organizational Commitment Scale (N = 150)

Items	r	Items	r
1	.56	33	.39
2	.62	34	.71
3	.43	35	.54
4	.37	36	.32*
5	.51	37	.63
6	.65	38	.53
7	.16*	39	.58
8	.63	40	.41
9	.31*	41	.56
10	.46	42	.51
11	.42	43	-.11*
12	.47	44	.64
13	.28*	45	.51
14	.54	46	.59
15	.46	47	.32*
16	.60	48	.47
17	.54	49	.41
18	.58	50	.34*
19	.69	51	.32*
20	.61	52	.48
21	.53	53	.49
22	.53	54	.45
23	.34*	55	.15*
24	.21*	56	.25*
25	.30*	57	.26*
26	.25*	58	.38
27	.17*	59	.40
28	.10*	60	.40
29	.48	61	.35
30	.52	62	.39
31	.69	63	.46
32	.63		

*indicates the items that do not fulfill the criteria of inclusion in the scale.

Table 2

Loading of scale items on three factors extracted by rotated factor matrix (N = 150)

Item No.	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Item no	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
1.	.369	.324*	.300*	33	.313*	.267*	.544
2.	.642	.249*	.042*	34	.647	.335*	.165*
3.	.198*	.162*	.448	35	.258*	.267*	.544
4.	.379	.279*	.066*	36	.197*	-.065*	.431
5.	.293*	.063*	.066*	37	.651	.144*	.151*
6.	.683	.266*	.050*	38	.483	.197*	.184*
7.	-.107*	.035*	.468	39	.693	.124*	.017*
8.	.712	.082*	.134*	40	.333*	-.095*	.464
9.	.217*	.003*	.325	41	.462	.033*	.447*
10.	.373	.322*	.118*	42	.505	.031*	.270*
11.	.380	.042*	.258*	43	-.217*	-.144*	.168*
12.	.547	-.096*	.203*	44	.610	.193*	.203*
13.	.274*	.105*	.045*	45	.552	-.046*	.258*
14.	.651	.150*	-.064*	46	.528	.180*	.251*
15.	.362*	.175*	.317*	47	.230*	-.242*	.348*
16.	.568	.199*	.183*	48	.368	.206*	.221*
17.	.559	.062*	.165*	49	.203*	.067*	.507
18.	.417	.352*	.234*	50	.227*	.277*	.122*
19.	.600	.430*	.123*	51	.145*	.507	-.042*
20.	.654	.095*	.186*	52	.340*	.107*	.396
21.	.571	.080*	.154*	53	.168*	.238*	.595
22.	.369	.368*	.206*	54	.428	.098*	.237*
23.	.211*	.105*	.345*	55	.361	-.071*	-.250*
24.	-.206*	.462	.333*	56	.110*	.584	-.239*
25.	.095*	.430	.037*	57	.047*	.604	-.116*
26.	.010*	.327*	.160*	58	.154*	.518	.072*
27.	-.090*	.005*	.153*	59	-.008*	.689	.205*
28.	-.094*	-.100*	.437	60	.058*	.747	.007*
29.	.503	.336*	-.106*	61	.143*	.584	-.076*
30.	.252*	.088*	.629	62	.201*	.429	.098*
31.	.591	.297*	.260*	63	.253*	.468	.106*
32.	.588	.256*	.195*				

* Do not fulfill the criteria of inclusion in a factor.

A factor loading of more than 0.35 was used as criterion of inclusion of a statement in the interpretation of a factor (Emmons, 1984, Siddique, 1992).The items included in each factor according to this criterion have been presented in the following tables.

Table 3

Items selected for factor 1 and their factor loading

Items	Factor Loading	Items	Factor Loading
1	.369	21	.571
2	.642	22	.369
5	.593	29	.503
6	.683	31	.591
8	.712	32	.588
10	.373	34	.647
11	.380	37	.651
12	.547	38	.483
14	.651	39	.698
15	.362	41	.462
16	.568	42	.505
17	.559	44	.610
18	.417	45	.552
19	.600	46	.528
20	.654	48	.368

Table 3 shows that there are 30 items in factor 1 having a loading of greater than 0.35. The table also shows the highest number of items selected for the scale. All the items have positive loading.

Table 4

Items selected for factor II and their loading

Items	Factor Loading	Items	Factor Loading
4	.379	61	.584
58	.518	62	.429
59	.689	63	.468
60	.747		

According to this table there are 7 items having a loading higher than 0.35.All the items selected for this factor have a significant item total correlation at .000 level of significance. All the items have positive loading.

Table 5

Items selected for factor III and their loading

Items	Factor Loading	Items	Factor Loading
3	.448	49	.507
30	.629	52	.396
33	.544	53	.595
35	.544	54	.428
40	.464		

This table indicates that there are 9 items having a loading of higher than the fixed criterion for inclusion of items in a factor. All the items have positive loading and they are significant at .000 level of significance. The first factor had an eigenvalue of 14.2 and

explained 22.6 % of the total variance. Table 6 shows the eigenvalues and % of variance explained by three factors.

Table 6

Eigen values and Variance explained by three factors

Factor	Eigen value	Percentage of Items	Percentage of Total Variance
1	14.23	22.6	22.6
2	3.63	5.8	28.4
3	2.97	4.7	33.1

In order to estimate the reliability of three dimensions of the Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, alpha coefficient for three dimensions were computed. Table 7 shows the alpha coefficient of the three dimensions.

Each factor was considered to be the indicator of individual's commitment to the organization. A label was assigned to each factor on the basis of commonality of item in the factor. The description of these factors on the basis of relevant items appear to be as following:

Factor 1 : Identification

Factor 2 : Involvement

Factor 3 : Loyalty

Identification

Identification is viewed as a pride in organization and internalization of organizational goals. Significant loading on this factor suggests that the executives posses a well defined sense of pride in organization and they really care about the fate of their organization. They accept organizational goals and values for the sake of organization

and have a strong belief in exerting a great deal of efforts in order to help the organization to be successful beyond that excepted.

Involvement

Involvement is viewed as a willingness to invest personal effort as a member of the organization. Significant loading on this factor suggest that executives have a strong sense of attachment to their organization and they can accept any type of job assignment in order to keep working with their organization.

Loyalty

The significant positive loading on this factor reveal that executives have a desire to maintain membership in the organization for long time and they talk of their organization to others as a great place to work for. They are proud to tell others about their membership with their organization.

Table 7

Alpha Coefficient of the three dimensions of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)

Scales	No. of Items	Alpha Coefficient
Identification	30	.95*
Involvement	9	.89*
Loyalty	7	.94*
Total OCQ	46	.93*

*p<.000

According to table 7 the results of alpha coefficient show that that reliability of the three dimensions i.e., Identification, Involvement and Loyalty is above than 0.9 which means that they are considerably reliable scales.

Table 8

Inter-correlation between sub-scales of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

(N = 210)

	Identification	Involvement	Loyalty	Total
Identification	-	.66	.57	.95
Involvement		-	.49	.78
Loyalty			-	.73

Note: All the correlation are significant at .0001 level

Table 8 presents the correlation between different dimensions of Organizational Commitment. The results indicate high positive correlation between all the dimensions of the scale. According to results the strongest relationship exists between identification and involvement (r= .66 p>.0001). The results also indicate that the lowest relationship exists between loyalty and involvement (r= .49> .0001).

Table 9 presents item total correlation of the Survey of Work Values (SWV).According to results all the relationships were found to be significant.

Table 9

Item-total correlation of the Survey of Work Values (N = 210)

Items	r	Items	r
1	.31	12	.17*
2	.34	13	.21
3	.15*	14	.17*
4	.21	15	.35
5	.33	16	.42
6	.37	17	.31
7	.22***	18	.21**
8	.19*	19	.40
9	.23	20	.29
10	.14**	21	.24
11	.22***	22	.41
23	.45	39	.29
24	.40	40	.32
25	.27	41	.40
26	.21**	42	.27
27	.19**	43	.34
28	.37	44	.21***
29	.14**	45	.31
30	.22***	46	.17*
31	.18**	47	.28
32	.26	48	.18*
33	.20**	49	.39
34	.22***	50	.31
35	.40	51	.26
36	.35	52	.13**
37	.21***	53	.13**
38	.17*	54	.19*

*p<.01 **p< .05 ***p<.001

Table 10 presents the correlation between different sub-scales of the Survey of Work Values. According to results in table 10, the sub-scale of activity preference has a negative relationship with sub-scale of social status of the job. There is also non significant relationship between sub-scales of activity preference and pride in work. The sub-scale of job involvement has significant negative relationship with sub-scale of attitude toward earning. The results also indicate that the highest relationship exists between sub-scales of Pride in Work and Activity Preference (r= .49 p<.0001). The results also show that lowest relationship is between Pride in Work and Upward Striving scales (r= .05 p< .603).

Table 10

Inter-correlation between sub-scales of Survey of Work Values (N=210)

	Social Status of the Job	Activity Preference	Upward Striving	Attitude Toward Earning	Pridein work
Social Status of the Job	-	-.11	.24	.41	.05
Activity Preference		-	.34	-.27	.49.
Upward Striving			-	.07	.46
Attitude Toward Earning				-	-.09
Pride in work					-
Job Involvement					

Phase II

Phase II of the present study dealt with hypotheses testing. Six hypotheses were formulated regarding work values and organizational commitment of executives in public and private sectors. Following are findings regarding the first three hypotheses.

There is a significant difference in the work values of public and private sector executives.

There is a significant difference in the organizational commitment of public and private sector executives.

Public sector executives are more extrinsically oriented as compared to private sector employees.

Table 11

Differences between public and private sector executives on variables of Work Values

Variables	Public (n=105) M	SD	Private (n=105) M	SD	t	p
Work values	193.03	14..39	188.83	15..33	1.09	.01

To see the difference between work values of public and private sector executives, t-test was applied .The results in table 11 indicate that there is significant difference in the work values of the two sectors. On variable of work values, mean score of public sector executives is more as compared to private sector executives, indicating that public sector executives have higher work values as compared to private sector

executives. In the light of the findings given, the first hypothesis of the present study has been confirmed (t=1.09,df=58 p<.01).

Table 12

Means, standard deviations, and t-values on sub scales of Survey of Work Values between public and private sector

Sub-scales	Public (n=105)		Private (n=105)			
	M	SD	M	SD	t	p
Social Status of the Job	29.23	3.54	26.60	4.78	2.42	.01
Activity Preference	33.43	4.39	35.63	3.77	2.08	.04
Upward Striving	34.33	4.12	35.43	3.87	1.07	.29
Attitude toward Earning	25.83	4.57	25.93	5.65	.08	.94
Pride in Work	34.43	4.43	35.90	4.29	1.30	.19
Job Involvement	31.56	3.92	33.53	3.91	1.94	.05
Intrinsic Work Values	133.76	14.37	140.50	11.16	2.03	.05
Extrinsic Work Values	55.06	6.45	52.53	9.31	2.53	.02

df =58

When t-test was applied on the scores of Survey of Work Values, significant differences were found between public and private sector executives on Social Status of the Job scale which belongs to extrinsic work values. Significant differences were also found on Job Involvement and Activity Preference scales which belong to intrinsic work values. The executives of public sector had high mean scores on Social Status of the Job Scale, whereas, the executives of private sector had high mean scores on Activity

Preference and Job Involvement Scales. On all other scales non significant differences were found between the two sectors.

The mean for intrinsic values have been derived form the variables Activity Preference, Upward Striving, Pride in Work, and Job Involvement, whereas, the mean for extrinsic values consists of variables such as Social Status of the Job and Attitude Toward Earning. The results of t-test in table 12 indicate a significant difference in the intrinsic / extrinsic values of the two sector's executives.

According to results, public sector executives have high mean score on extrinsic work values which indicates their extrinsic orientation toward work. Whereas, the executives of private sector have high mean scores on intrinsic values compared to public sector, indicating that executives in private sector have an intrinsic orientation toward work. However, overall mean scores do indicate that private sector executives are significantly higher on work values as compared to public sector executives. It can be inferred from the findings given in the table12, that third hypothesis has also been confirmed.

Table 13

Differences between public and private sector executives on variable of Organizational

Commitment

Variables	Public (n=105)		Private (n=105)		t	p
	M	SD	M	SD		
Organizational commitment	137.42	13.22	142.97	12.97	2.96	.003

df = 208

The results in table 13 indicate a significant difference in the organizational commitment of the two sector executives. According to results private sector executives have higher mean scores as compared to public sector executives. Mean scores on variable of organizational commitment indicate that private sector executives are more committed to their organizations as compared to public sector executives. In the light of findings given, the second hypothesis has been confirmed (t=2.96, df=208, p<.003).

Table14 presents significance of differences between the two sector executives on three sub-scales of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire, namely, Identification with Organization, Involvement, and Loyalty to Organization.

Table 14

Means, standard deviations, and t-values on sub scales of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire between public and private sector executives

Sub-scales	Public (n=105)		Private (n=105)			
	M	SD	M	SD	t	p
Identification	90.37	8.55	94.24	9.37	3.13	.002
Involvement	21.44	3.74	22.11	2.94	1.43	.05
Loyalty	25.61	4.59	26.49	4.14	1.45	.002
Total OCQ	137.61	13.22	142.97	12.18	2.96	.003

df=208

In order to determine the significance of differences between executives of public and private sectors, t-test was applied on three sub-scales of Organizational Commitment

Questionnaire. According to results in table 14, private sector executives have higher mean scores on all the three sub-scales compared to public sector executives. The results indicate that private sector executives have a greater sense of identification with their organization, are more involved in their work, and they are more attached to their organizations as compared to public sector executives.

To see the relationship between work values and organizational commitment of public and private sector executives, correlation were computed between various sub-scales of work values and organizational commitment for public and private sector executives separately and for the total sample. Following are the findings regarding the last three hypotheses.

There is a positive relationship between work values and organizational commitment of public sector employees.

There is a positive relationship between work values and organizational commitment of private sector employees.

Demographic variables have a positive relationship with work values and organizational commitment.

Table 15 presents the correlation coefficient between work values and organizational commitment of public sector. The fourth hypothesis namely, there is a positive relationship between work values and organizational commitment of public sector executives has been supported by the findings (r= .13, p< .01). However there is a positive relationship between involvement and attitude toward earning (r=.13,p< .01). The results also indicate a positive relationship between Extrinsic Work Values and

Loyalty (r =.16, p<.05). According to results in table 16 , public sector executives have positive relationship with extrinsic work values compared to private sector executives.

Table 15

Correlation coefficient of total and sub scales of Survey of Work Values and Organizational Commitment for public sector (n=105)

SWV Sub scales	OCQ Identification	Involvement	Loyalty	Total
Social Status of the Job	.09	-.02	.10	.10*
Activity Preference	-.06	-.03	.05	-.01
Upward Striving	.02	.08	.03	.04
Attitude toward Earning	-.002	.13*	.002	.01
Pride in Work	-.15	.06	.07	.09
Job Involvement	.01	-.03	.03	.05
Intrinsic values	-.04	.07	-.05	-.04
Extrinsic Values	.06	-.03	.16*	.12*

*p< .05

Table 16

Correlation coefficient of total and sub scales of Survey of Work Values and

Organizational Commitment for private sector (n=105)

SWV	OCQ			
Sub-scales	Identification	Involvement	Loyalty	Total
Social Status of the Job	.05	.04	-.07	.07
Activity Preference	.17*	.02	.05	.15*
Upward Striving	.15*	.05	.02	.12*
Attitude toward Earning	.09	.04	.01	.05
Pride in Work	.16*	.03	.01	.12*
Job Involvement	.10	-.03	.03	.05
Intrinsic values	.19*	.11*	.17*	.16*
Extrinsic Values	.06	-.006	-.05	.03

*p <.05

The hypothesis number five has been conformed as there is significant and positive correlation in the intrinsic work values and organizational commitment of private sector executives compared to public sector (r=.16, p<.05). The results indicate a positive relationship between intrinsic work values and all the three sub-scales of organizational commitment. There is also a positive correlation between Identification, Activity Preference (r= .15, p< .05), Upward Striving (r= .12, p< .05),

and Pride in Work (r= .12, p< .05). The results clearly indicate the intrinsic orientation of the private sector executives toward work.

Table 17

Correlation coefficient between total and subscales of Survey of Work Values and Organizational Commitment for whole sample (N=210)

SWV Sub-scales	Identification	OCQ Involvement	Loyalty	Total
Social Status of the Job	.05	.04	.09	.06
Activity Preference	.02	.02	.10*	.04
Upward Striving	.07	.05	.08	.08
Attitude toward Earning	.03	.06	.05	.02
Pride in Work	.12*	.13*	.04	.14*
Job Involvement	.09	.11*	.08	.12*
Intrinsic values	.13*	.12*	.10*	.19*
Extrinsic Values	.03	.04	.05	.01

*p<.05

Table 17 presents the correlation indices between various dimensions of work values and organizational commitment of the total sample. The results indicate a non significant relationship between organizational commitment and Social Status of the Job scale which belongs to extrinsic work values. However, there is a positive correlation between Pride in Work Scale and organizational commitment (r=.14,p<.05) which belongs to intrinsic work values. The results also show a moderate positive correlation between Loyalty and Activity Preference Scale (r= .10, p< .05) and Involvement and Pride in Work (r=.13, p<.05). There is also a positive

relationship between total Organizational Commitment Questionnaire and intrinsic work values (r=.19, p<.05). All other correlations were found to be non-significant.

Table 18

Age wise correlation between sub-scales of Survey of Work Values and demographic variables (N=210)

Sub scales	r	p
Social Status of the Job	.05	.424
Activity Preference	-.002	.972
Upward Striving	.12	.072*
Attitude Toward Earning	-.04	.558
Pride in Work	.09	.891
Job Involvement	.28	.003*
Intrinsic Work Values	.17	.01*
Extrinsic Work Values	.01	.980

*indicates level of significance

The results in table 18 indicate that age has positive relationship with Upward Striving and Job Involvement scales that belong to intrinsic work values, indicating that intrinsic work values have a positive relationship with age. All other sub-scales have non-significant relationships with age.

Table 19

Education wise correlation between sub-scales of Survey of Work Values and demographic variables (N=210)

Sub-scales	r	p
Social Status of the Job	.02	.694
Activity Preference	-.09	.169
Upward Striving	.13	.05*
Attitude Toward Earning	.04	.556
Pride in Work	.03	.625
Job Involvement	.07	.279
Intrinsic Work Values	.17	.05*
Extrinsic Work Values	.07	.304

*p < .05

Table 19 presents correlation between work values and education of the whole sample. The results indicate a significant positive relationship between intrinsic work values and education, indicating the highly educated executives have intrinsic orientation toward work, that is, they consider work more important than the outcomes of work.

Table 20

Experience wise correlation between sub-scales of Survey of Work Values and demographic variables (N=210)

Sub-scales	r	p
Social Status of the Job	.05	.402
Activity Preference	.05	.424
Upward Striving	.02	.972
Attitude Toward Earning	.12	.07*
Pride in Work	.04	.556
Job Involvement	.09	.891
Intrinsic Work Values	.08	.216
Extrinsic Work Values	.07	.301

* p<.05

The data in table 20 indicate that there is a significant relationship between experience and attitude toward earning scale, indicating that as the length of stay in organization increases, the value that an employee attaches to making money also increases.

Table 21

Income wise correlation between sub-scales of Survey of Work Values and demographic variables (N=210)

Sub-scales	r	p
Social Status of the Job	.11	.05*
Activity Preference	-.47	.198
Upward Striving	.11	.105
Attitude Toward Earning	-.21	.001**
Pride in Work	.16	.01***
Job Involvement	.04	.529
Intrinsic Work Values	-.15	.05*
Extrinsic Work Values	.17	.01***

*p<.05 ** P< .001 *** p<. 01

The results in table 21 indicate a positive relationship between income and social status of the job, attitude toward earning scales that belong to extrinsic work values.

Table 22

Correlation between demographic variables and sub-scales of Organizational Commitment (N=210)

Sub-scales	Age	Education	Experience	Income
Identification	.08	.06	.08	.04
Involvement	.01	-.12	.03	.06
Loyalty	.05	-.10	.08	.02
Total	.06	-.17*	.07	.07

*p<.05

According to the results in table 22 education has significant negative relationship with organizational commitment (r=-.17, p<.05) whereas, age, experience, and income have non significant, negligible relationships with organizational commitment. The data in table 22 indicate that education is the only demographic variable which has a strong and statistically significant relationship with organizational commitment, although this relationship is negative.

DISCUSSION
AND
CONCLUSION

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The present research aimed at exploring the phenomena of work values in relation to organizational commitment. It examined the values and commitment of public and private sector executives and their relationship with demographic variables.

To achieve these objectives, an indigenous instrument was required which could measure the commitment of executives to their organizations. As no appropriate developed instrument for exploring the phenomena of commitment from Pakistani perspective was available, therefore, first of all an instrument namely, Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was developed. The development of the questionnaire was completed in four steps. In the first step, items were generated from different cardinal executives of the public and private sector organizations. Additional items were generated through literature review. After achieving the agreement of judges on the relevance of items, these items were tested empirically for their relevance with the construct they were supposed to measure, i. e., organizational commitment.

As the items were generated empirically, they satisfied the criteria of construct validation, which requires the representative sampling of the items from specific content domain. In the final stage, psychometric properties of the questionnaire were tested and established on target population. The homogeneity of the items was tested with the help of item analysis. The Pearson product moment correlation for each item with the total scores was computed. All the items of the questionnaire correlated with the total score at .0001 level of significance. The range of their correlation was between .36 and .71,

indicating that the items of the questionnaire are measuring the same underlying attribute. The factorial validity of the questionnaire has been demonstrated through factor analysis. Factor analysis has been regarded as one of the important method for the construction of tests, and to see whether or not the items measure the same construct, they are supposed to measure. The principal component analysis was used to find the factor solution of the questionnaire items. The factor analysis yielded three major factors. Most of the items had significant positive loading on factor I. This factor had an eigen value of 14.23 %, indicating a clear distinction from the remaining two factors. So this factor can be regarded as major factor for the measurement of organizational commitment.

In order to enhance the strength of relationship between items and factors, only those items were selected which had a factor loading of more than 0.35. On the basis of this criteria, seventeen items were dropped from the scale. The other two factors had seven and nine items respectively. The eigen values of these were at a larger distance from the eigen values of first factor.

For estimation of reliability of the questionnaire, coefficient alpha, an indicator of internal consistency of the scale was computed. The obtained value of alpha coefficient was .95 for the scale consisting of items 63, and almost the same i.e., .94 for the 46 items after dropping 17 items on the basis of item and factor analysis. Alpha coefficient was also computed for all the three sub scales of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. The high value of the alpha coefficient support the relevant sampling of the content and appropriate phrasing of the items. Reliability analysis of the other instrument used for the present research, namely Survey of Work Values (Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, & Smith, 1971) was also carried out. The results indicated the relevance of instrument and it was

found to be a reliable measure for the variables it was supposed to measure for this sample. It is important to note, however, that the reliability of this instrument has also been established for the similar sample by Shah, Kaur, and Haq (1992). Their study Indicated the psychometric relevance of this instrument for Pakistani population.

To see the significance of differences in the work values of public and private sector executives, t-test was applied on various measures of work values and organizational commitment. The results showed that there were significant differences between the two groups of executives in the above mentioned measures. Public sector executives scored high on the social status of the job scale, which belongs to extrinsic work values. It means that public sector executives value the effects they have on their social standing among friends, coworkers, relatives and in their own eyes. They are more concerned with general goals or the end states of existence, for instance, comfortable life , prestige, and monetary benefits. They give less importance to mode of conduct and they are rather concerned about what they get out of job.

The overall mean scores also show that public sector executives are higher on extrinsic work values as compared to private sector executives. On the basis of this finding it may be said that public sector executives are concerned more with outcomes of job than the work itself. This may be because they are living in a work environment, which is plagued by nepotism and corruption and where monetary benefits are considered more important, and where majority of the people desire to achieve wealth and power in shortest possible period of time with out struggle and hard work. This also means that monetary benefits are considered more important part of any job, public sector executives

are easy- going and they value the goals and outcomes of the job more than the means to the goals.

This finding is also in accord with the earlier findings on work values, for instance, a cross cultural study of values using Rokeach Value Survey of instrumental and terminal values (Rokeach,1973) indicated that three most preferred values of Pakistani students were the terminal ones, suggesting that Pakistani's consider action values that are concerned with making progress toward a fuller attainment of basic needs.

The findings of present study indicate that private sector executives have high mean scores on intrinsic work value scales, namely, Activity Preference and Job involvement. From this, it may be inferred that private sector executives perform their duties with seriousness and interest. This further means that they prefer to keep themselves active and busy on the job, and they enjoy the kind of work they do regardless of what particular organization they work for.

Higher job involvement of private sector executives indicate that they have strong desire to contribute to their job, they take active interest in co workers and company matters, accept any type of job assignment on the part of organization. These findings are also in accordance with earlier studies. For instance, Shah, Kaur, and Haq (1992) concluded that higher job involvement of the private sector executives indicated two major aspects that determine the differences in job involvement of public and private sector executives. They observed that meaning of work in context of organization, and reward and punishment associated with quality and quantity of work were the major factors in determining the degree of job involvement.

It can be observed that public sector organizations are subject to ongoing political interventions by the governments, forcing the management to serve as agents, so the ownership becomes more diffused and ambiguous in the public sector. On the other hand, private sector is free from such interventions. The higher job involvement of private sector executives can be an outcome of flexible, clear, and adaptive goals. The higher job involvement of private sector executives can be associated with incentive system offered by private sector to its executives. Moreover, many private sector organizations have global orientation and they offer captivating packages to their employees in order to enhance the quality and quantity of work. Better Incentives serve as motivating force and help the workers concentrate on their jobs.

If a particular organization is competitive and it gets good returns for its out puts, it not only flourishes but also shares the benefits with the employees, as a result employees have a sense of increased security and become more involved in their job. This suggests that employees are satisfied with the structure of the organization, opportunity for advancement, as well as communication, and decision-making processes within organization and thus have a favorable perception of the organization as compared to public sector organization, where the concept of efficiency, productivity, and competitiveness has a little relevance.

Management in public sector is not concerned with maintaining the competitiveness and profitability of the organization, as if a public sector organization runs in loss, it is overcome or compensated by the government. Public sector organizations generally include bureaucratic model, in which there is a very little participation of employees in decision making and communication processes. Decisions

are generally imposed by the men at top, who consider themselves responsible for maintaining the reliability of behavior of the men below them. This system does not allow individual approach and a distance is maintained between supervisor and subordinates. In this environment employees lack a motivation to concentrate on their job, because their jobs generally depend upon the whim of management, so they feel insecure and uncertain and loss encouragement and inspirations in their job. The comparatively low job involvement of public sector executives can be related to these factors. This observation is consistent with previous findings (see, for example, Khaleque, 1974; Sanghi, 1992; Soloman, 1986).

Moreover, if a private sector organization runs in loss, there is no way to compensate it. These losses can lead to bankruptcy and closure of the organization. So the management in private sector has to be concerned in maintaining the competitiveness and profitability of the organization. The executives in private sector take an active interest in the prosperity of the organization and desire to contribute to the job for the sake of organization.

In the present research, significance of differences in the organizational commitment of public and private sector executives was determined by using t-test on the three sub-scales of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. The results clearly indicated that private sector executives had high scores on all the three sub-scales of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire. It may be because workers in private sector operate in a competitive environment. Incentive structure offered to private sector executives seems to play a role in high commitment of this group of employees, because better incentives serve as motivating force for its workers. They feel more satisfied and

wish to stay with their organization for long periods of time. Moreover, these organizations are also free from political intervention, profitability is the ultimate criteria of success. This competitiveness and maintenance of status in society fosters commitment. Moreover incentive structure in any organization plays a significant role in determining the length of stay of its workers. Well paying organizations suffer less turnovers and raise more committed employees.

The high scores of private sector executives on variable of organizational commitment indicate that they are motivated to exert extra efforts and high levels of energy for their organization. Several factors including salary, way of handling promotions, opportunity for development of skills, opportunity for participating in decision making and freedom of work that is very obvious in private sector seems to play a role in the high commitment of this group of employees.

The high scores of private sector executives on variable of organizational commitment mean that executives in private sector identify themselves with the organization more, in terms of observed and intended behavior, deciding to stay or actually staying with the organization, and in terms of different behavioral manifestations, that is, they have a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization and have willingness to exert extra effort on the behalf of organization.

The comparatively low scores of public sector executives on the variable of commitment may be due to various reasons. For example, the rapid change in government economic policies, especially those concerning the privatization processes may have placed greater strain on the public sector employees which may have resulted in a changed work climate in the public sector organizations. Moreover, the placement

policies in public sector organizations can also contribute in determining the level of commitment of its employees, as misplaced employees are never able to concentrate considerably on their work, and lack the motivation to develop any particular feeling of involvement and loyalty toward their organization.

In the present research relationship between work values and organizational commitment of executives in public and private sector has been analyzed by computing correlation coefficients between various measures of work values and organizational commitment for public and private sectors separately and for the whole sample. This analysis reveals that work values are generally related to organizational commitment but intrinsic work values are related more to commitment compared to the global measure of work values. This finding is also supported by the earlier studies (see, for example, Hall, Schneider, & Nygern, 1970; Putti, Aryee, & Laing, 1989). Mottaz (1985) also found intrinsic rewards to be more important in predicting work commitment than extrinsic rewards.

It may be fair to say that commitment is a function of congruence between work values and organizational commitment. Therefore, organizations that wish to enhance the commitment of their employees should ensure congruence between organizational rewards and work values of employees. The other non-significant relationships may be because of heterogeneity of sample. This is also confirmed to some extent in the separate analysis of public and private sector. Social desirability factor also seems to have played a role in such findings. Common observation also indicates that executives in both sectors have a tendency to respond in a self- defensive manner in order to guard against social disapproval. As regards relationship of work values and organizational commitment of

public sector alone, the results provide evidence for a relationship between extrinsic values and organizational commitment, suggesting that public sector executives consider economic returns, prestige and way of life more important than intellectual stimulation.

It can be observed here that excessive demonstration of wealth and power in society has brought the personal monetary gains in focus of attention of the majority of its people. Moreover, criteria of reward and punishment in public and private sector are not transparent and they are not applied consequently to all. The significance of relationship between work values and organizational commitment of public sector executives also means that public sector executives desire to obtain present and future monetary rewards from their job, indicating that public sector executives are more eager to attain good life because they are financially not secure,as compared to private sector executives.

The high scores of private sector executives on intrinsic work values clearly show that private sector executives value actual performance of the job, intellectual stimulation, achievement and nature of work. Moreover, the organizational rules operative in the private sector allow the executives to participate in decision making and communication processes, to take active part in coworkers and the job, to feel proud in doing their job well, and highly value social recognition and prestige resulting in high commitment with their work.

On the basis of above findings it may be inferred that organizational commitment is the outcome of favorable work environment that helps satisfy high order needs of personal growth and development, and provides ample opportunity for the satisfaction of intrinsic values as well as social recognition and prestige. When an organization provides

ample opportunities for meaningful work activity, in which the employees feel a sense of accomplishment and opportunity for further growth, the employees are more committed.

The present research has also attempted to explore the relationship between certain demographic variables in relation to work values and organizational commitment. The results indicate a positive relationship between age, upward striving, and pride in work. This relationship seems to suggest that with the passage of time, individual's orientation tends to move from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards. This finding has also been supported by earlier studies, for example, Post-Kammar (1987) found that values become intrinsic in nature with the passage of time.

Education exhibited a positive relationship with intrinsic work values scales, i.e., upward striving. This finding suggests that highly educated employees have a desire to continually seek a higher level position in the organization and a better standard of living.

The findings of the present research also reveal that experience has a positive relationship with attitude toward earning scale, which belongs to extrinsic work values. This finding suggests that as the length of job increases, the value an employee attaches to making money on the job also increases. This finding is contrary to the earlier studies (see for example, Putti, Aryee, & Laing 1989; Kaur & Singh 1996). These studies observed a negative significant negative relationship between experience and extrinsic work values. This finding suggests that values which are shown to be related to demographic variables in the west, do not hold true in Pakistani context.

The results also indicate a positive relationship with extrinsic values sub-scales, namely, social status of the job and attitude toward earning. It means that executives in both sectors value the effects that job has on their social standing among friends ,

relatives, coworkers and in their own eyes. It also indicates the value they place in making money on the job. Moreover, education also exhibited a significant negative relationship with intrinsic work values, suggesting that intrinsic values are given less importance in an unfavorable work environment which does not promote spontaneity at work.

As the findings of present study indicate that except for education, non of the demographic variables showed any statistically significant relationship with organizational commitment. Education showed a statistically significant negative relationship with organizational commitment, pointing out that better educated employees have high job expectations, that organizations may not be able to meet. It may also be that highly educated employees have a greater number of job options and are less likely to become fortified in any one position or organization. These findings are in accord with the ones found out in earlier studies (for instance, Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982; Kaur & Singh, (1996). These researchers also found a negative relationship between education and organizational commitment.

Though the results show a non significant relationship between organizational commitment and demographic variables, there is a clear indication in the relevant research literature that age has a positive relationship with organizational commitment. Older workers become attached to organizations for a variety of reasons. For example, employees having greater satisfaction with job, and having received better positions feel cognitively justified with job. Similarly income increases feeling of self esteem and represents a side bet , which results in increased commitment . Over the time, leaving an

organization becomes costly because of fear of losing what has been invested in the organization in terms of number of years and fringe benefits.

To conclude, it can be said that in Pakistan as much as elsewhere, organization is a source for fulfillment of future aspirations and the attainment of social power. Organizational commitment is the outcome of favorable work environment, which provides opportunity for the satisfaction of intrinsic values and the attainment of social status within the organization. However, the relationship between value orientation and commitment is not perhaps global, value orientation may be related only to symbolic characteristics of the organization. For example, when salary prospects and other fringe benefits are considered as source of attraction, value orientation may not be considered important.

The findings of present research suggest that to study the strength of relationship between work values and organizational commitment, additional variables should be introduced in the analysis of commitment. Social desirability syndrome, which seems to have played a role in the findings of present research, should be considered in order to have an idea about how an executive is self-defensive in guarding against social and organizational disapproval. Moreover, a central trend for future research regarding individual's values at work place can focus on the examination of national culture and moderating influences of cultural values. Such studies can show relationship between an individual's country culture and his values. In addition, moderating effects of cross-cultural values can be observed. Such studies can predict whether values, which are shown to contribute to commitment in one culture also hold true in another culture.

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ANNEXURES

INSTRUCTIONS FOR SURVEY OF WORK VALUES

This study has been designed to explore the working conditions and perception of the employees of different organizations. For this purpose we have designed a couple of questionnaires which pertain to various aspects of organizational work environment and the feeling of employees. The instructions to complete each questionnaire have been given separately at the beginning of each questionnaire. This study is purely for research purpose and all the given information will be kept confidential. You are requested to kindly provide complete information as far as possible. Kindly read the instructions first. If you have any problem then please do not hesitate to ask.

SURVEY OF WORK VALUES

(54 Items)

This is a questionnaire concerning the way people feel about work. It is a measure of your opinions. There are no right or wrong answers. Read each statement carefully and indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement. Please be sure to give only one answer to each of the 54 statements in the booklet. Make no other marks on the scoring sheet.

Abbreviations being used

Strongly agree	: SA
Agree	: AG
Neutral	: N
Disagree	: DA
Strongly disagree	: SD

1. My friends would not think much of me if I did not have a good job.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

2. The man who holds a good job is the most respected man in the neighborhood.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

3. As far as my friends are concerned, It could not make a difference if I worked regularly or only once in a while.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

4. One of the reasons that I work is to make my family respect me.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

5. Even though they make the same amount of the money, the person who works in an office has a more impressive job than does the person working as a sales representative.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

6. Having a good job makes a person more worthy of praise from his friends and family.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

7. A person does not deserve respect just because he has a good job.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

8. Prestige should not be a factor in choosing a job.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

9. A job with prestige is not necessarily a better job than one, which does not have prestige.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

10. When he can get away with It, an employee should take it easy.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

11. A job, which requires the employee to be busy during the day,   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

is better than a job, which allows a lot of idling.

12. If a person can get away with it, he should try to work just a little slower than the boss expects him.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
13. If a person is given a choice between jobs, which pay the same money, he should choose the one, which allows him to do as little work as possible.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
14. A person should try to stay busy all day rather than try to find ways to get out of doing work.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
15. A person would soon grow tired of idling on a job and would probably be happier if he worked hard.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
16. If a worker keeps himself busy on his job, the working day passes more quickly than the if he were loafing or idling.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
17. A worker who takes long rest pauses is probably a poor worker.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
18. The best job that a worker can get is one which permits him to do almost nothing during the workday.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
19. Even if a person has good job, he should always be looking for a better job.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
20. A well paying job that offers little opportunity for advancement is not a good job for me.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
21. The trouble with too many people is that when they find a job in which they are interested, they don't try to get another job with more prospects.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
22. One should always be thinking about pulling himself up in the world and should work hard with the hope of being promoted to a higher level job.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
23. In choosing a job, a man ought to consider his chances for advancement as well as other factors.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
24. A worker who turns down a promotion is probably making a mistake.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
25. If a man likes his job, he should be satisfied with it and should not push for a promotion to another job.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
26. One is better off if he is satisfied with his own job and is not concerned about being promoted to another job.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
27. A promotion to higher level job usually means more worries	SA	AG	N	DA	SD

and should be avoided for that reason.

28. A man should hold a second job to bring extra money if he can get it.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

29. The only good part of most jobs is the pay Cheque.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

30. A man should choose one job over another mostly because of the higher wages.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

31. A man should take a job that pays more than some other job even if he cannot stand other workers on the job.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

32. A good job is a well paying job.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

33. When a person is looking for a job money should not be the most important consideration.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

34. A man should take the job which offers the most overtime if the regular pay on the jobs is about the same.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

35. If I were paid by out put, I would probably turn down most offers to make extra money by working overtime.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

36. A man should choose the job which pays the most.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

37. The most important thing a man should feel about his job is that he enjoys working at it.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

38. There is nothing as satisfying as doing the best job possible.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

39. There is nothing wrong with doing a poor job at work if a man can get away with it.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

40. Doing a good job should mean as much to a worker as a good pay Cheque.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

41. A man should feel a sense of pride in his work.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

42. One who does sloppy work should feel ashamed of oneself.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

43. A person who feels no sense of pride in his work is probably unhappy.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

44. Only a fool worries about doing his job well, since it is important only that you do your job well enough not to get tired.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

45. A worker should feel some responsibilities to do a decent job whether or not his supervisor is around.   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

46. If a worker has a choice between going to the company picnic   SA   AG   N   DA   SD

or staying home he would probably be better off at home.

47. A good worker is interested in helping a new worker learn his job.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
48. One who has an idea about how to improve his job should drop a note in the company suggestion box.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
49. A good worker cares about finding ways to improve his job, and when he has an idea, he should pass it to his supervisor.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
50. Once a week, after the workday is over, a company may have their workers get together in groups for the purpose of discussing possible job changes. A good worker should remain after quitting time to participate in these discussions.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
51. If something is wrong with a job, a smart worker will mind his own business and let somebody else complain about it.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
52. One should do his job and forget about such things as company meetings or company activities.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
53. Even if a worker has a very low-level job in a company, it is still possible for him to make suggestions, which will affect company policy.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD
54. Most companies have suggestion boxes for their workers, but I doubt that the companies take these suggestions seriously.	SA	AG	N	DA	SD

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (OCQ)

Following are some statements concerning the organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is defined in terms of three interrelated components namely:

a. Identification with and internalization of organizational goals, pride in organization.

b. Involvement, willingness to invest personal effort as a member of the organization, for the sake of organization.

c. Loyalty, devotion for and attachment to the organization. A desire to remain member of organization.

There are many differences of opinion regarding this subject. We would like to know your judgement, please indicate your degree of agreement / disagreement by marking only those statements which in your opinion are most relevant to the definition given above.

INITIAL ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (68 Items)

Read each statement carefully. Please indicate your degree of agreement/ disagreement to each statement by entering number from 1 to 5 according to the following code.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
5	4	3	2	1

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that expected in order to help this organization to be successful. _____

2. I talk of this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for. _____

3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. _____

4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization. _____

5. I find my values and the organization's values are very similar. _____

6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization. _____

7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work were similar. _____

8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance. _____

9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. _____

10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for others I was considering at the time I was joining. _____

11. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. _____

12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees. _____

13. I really care about the fate of this organization. _____

14. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work. _____

15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. _____

16. This organization has a fine tradition of public service. _____

17. If I had my life to live over again, I would still choose to work for this organization. _____

18. I really feel as if this organization's problmes are my problems. _____

19. I feel a sense of pride in working for this organization. _____

20. The record of this organization is an example of what dedicated people can achieve. _____

21. I would advise a young college graduate to choose a management career in this organization. _____

22. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job. _____

23. I do what my job requires; this organization does not have the right to expect more. _____

24. I don't mind spending a half- hour past quitting time if I can finish a task. _____

25. The most important things that happen to me involve my work. _____

26. I live eat and breathe my job. _____

Read each statement carefully. Please indicate your degree of agreement/ disagreement to each statement by entering a number from 1 to 5 according to the following code.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
5	4	3	2	1

27. Most things in life are more important than my work. ____

28. As long as I am doing the kind of work I enjoy, it doesn't matter what particular organization I work for. ____

29. I feel a strong sense of loyalty toward this organization. ____

30. If another organization offered me more money for the same kind of work, I would almost certainly accept. ____

31. I have always felt that this organization was a cold, unfriendly place to work. ____

32. Over the years I have grown fond of this organization as a place to live and work. ____

33. Generally speaking my career in this organization has been satisfactory. ____

34. I have warm feelings toward this organization as a place to live and work. ____

35. I have no particular feelings or sentiments toward this organization at all. ____

36. My loyalty is to my work, not to any particular organization. ____

37. This organization has a poor way of handling employee complaints. ____

38. The organizational rules operative in this company are made so that everyone gets a fair break on the job. ____

39. Most of the times organization tries to be honest and fair in dealing with its employees. ____

40. I feel that promotions are not handled fairly. ____

41. Many of the rules here are annoying. ____

42. The longer you work here the more you feel you belong. ____

43. I seldom feel I am a part of what goes on around here. ____

44. Management here is interested in the welfare of its people. ____

45. Management fails to take actions on our complaints. ____

46. There are good opportunities here for those who want to get ahead. ____

47. I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get. ____

48. I plane to work here until I retire. ____

49. If I had a chance I would change to some other organization. ____

50. Barring unforeseen circumstances, I would remain in this agency indefinitely. ____

51. It is important that we all pull together for the good of our agency because if our agency is
successful then we will be successful. ____

Read each statement carefully. Please indicate your degree of agreement/ disagreement to each statement by entering a number from1 to 5according to the following code.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
5	4	3	2	1

52. Although there are probably reasons for this, it is too bad salaries at our agency
    are so low. ——
53. I some times feel like leaving this employment for good. ——
54. I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organization. ——
55. Even if the firm were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another employer. ——
56. In my work I like to feel I am making some effort, not just for myself but for the organization as well. ——
57. To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of my organization would please me. ——
58. My work area is a pleasant place to be. ——
59. I very much like the type of work that I am doing. ——
60. My job gives me a chance to do the things that I do best. ——
61. My work is my most rewarding experience. ——
62. Where I work, management asks workers first about changing anything that affects them. ——
63. I am given a lot of freedom to decide how I do my own work ——
64. Few organizations can match this one as a good place to live and work. ——
65. Based on what I know now and what I believe I can expect I would be quite willing to spend
    Rest of my career with this organization. ——
66. I enjoy my job. ——
67. I would not recommend a close friend to join our organization. ——
68. There is happy atmosphere in the place I work. ——

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[1] Identification: Item Nos. 4,5,6,8,11,12,14,15,16,17,18,19,20,21,39,40,41,44,47,49,59,37,38.
Job Involvement: Item Nos. 9,13,22,23,24,25,26,27,28,42,43,45,46,48,50,51,53,56,58,60,61,62,63.
Loyalty Item: Nos. 1,2,3,7,10,29,30,31,32,33,34,35,36,42,52,55,57.

REDUNDANT ITEMS

64. Few organizations can match this one as a good place to live and work.   ———

65. rest of my career with this organization.   ———

66. I enjoy my job.   ———

67. I would not recommend a close friend to join our organization.   ———

68. There is happy atmosphere in the place I work.   ———

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT ITEMS OBTAINED THROUGH FACTOR ANALYSIS

FACTOR I   IDENTIFICATION

1. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that expected in order to help this organization to be successful.   ——

2. I talk of this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for.   ——

5. I find my values and the organization's values are very similar.   ——

6. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization.   ——

8. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance.   ——

10. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for others I was considering at the time I was joining.   ——

11. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely.   ——

12. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important matters relating to its employees.   ——

14. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work.   ——

15. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part.   ——

16. This organization has a fine tradition of public service.   ——

17. If I had my life to live over again, I would still choose to work for this organization.   ——

18. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my problems.   ——

19. I feel a sense of pride in working for this organization.   ——

20. The record of this organization is an example of what dedicated people can achieve.   ——

21. I would advise a young college graduate to choose a management career in this organization.   ——

22. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.   ——

29. I feel a strong sense of loyalty toward this organization.   ——

31. I have always felt that this organization was a cold, unfriendly place to work.   ——

32. Over the years I have grown fond of this organization as a place to live and work.   ——

34. I have warm feelings toward this organization as a place to live and work.   ——

37. This organization has a poor way of handling employee complaints.   ——

38. The organizational rules operative in this company are made so that everyone gets a fair break on the job.   ——

39. Most of the times organization tries to be honest and fair in dealing with its employees.   ——

41. Many of the rules here are annoying.   ——

42. The longer you work here the more you feel you belong.   ——

44. Management here is interested in the welfare of its people.   ——

45. Management fails to take actions on our complaints.   ——

46. There are good opportunities here for those who want to get ahead.   ——

48. I plane to work here until I retire.   ——

FACTOR II   INVOLVEMENT

4. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization. ——

58. My work area is a pleasant place to be. ——

59. I very much like the type of work that I am doing. ——

60. My job gives me a chance to do the things that I do best. ——

61. My work is my most rewarding experience. ——

62. Where I work, management asks workers first about changing anything that affects them. ——

63. I am given a lot of freedom to decide how I do my
    own work. ——

FACTOR III   LOYALTY

3. I feel very little loyalty to this organization. ——

30. If another organization offered me more money for the same kind of work,
    I would almost certainly accept. ——

33. Generally speaking my career in this organization has been satisfactory. ——

35. I have no particular feelings or sentiments toward this organization at all. ——

40. I feel that promotions are not handled fairly. ——

49. If I had a chance I would change to some other organization. ——

52. Although there are probably reasons for this, it is too bad salaries at our agency are so low. ——

53. I some times feel like leaving this employment for good. ——

54. I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organization. ——

ITEMS DISCARDED FROM ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

QUESTIONNAIRE (17 Items)

7. I could just as well be working for a different organization as long as the type of work were similar. _____

9. It would take very little change in my present circumstances to cause me to leave this organization. _____

13. I really care about the fate of this organization. _____

23. I do what my job requires; this organization does not have the right to expect more. _____

24. I don't mind spending a half-hour past quitting time if I can finish a task. _____

25. The most important thing that happen to me involves my work. _____

26. I live eat and breath my life. _____

27. Most things in life are more important than my work. _____

28. As long as I am doing the kind of work I enjoy, it does not matter what particular organization I work for. _____

43. I seldom feel I am a part of what goes on around here. _____

47. I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get. _____

50. Barring unforeseen circumstances, I would remain in this organization indefinitely. _____

51. It is important that we all pull together for the good of our organization because if our organization is successful then we will be successful. _____

54. I am not willing to put myself out just to help the organization. _____

55. Even if the firm were not doing too well financially, I would be reluctant to change to another organization. _____

56. In my work I like to feel I am making some effort, not just for myself but for organization as well. _____

57. To know that my own work had made a contribution to the good of my organization would please me.

_____

INSTRUCTIONS FOR FINAL ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT
QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is part of research work being carried out on behalf of National Institute of Psychology,Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad. The purpose of this research is to know how people feel and think about their organizations and work environment. Please go through the questionnaire and answer all the questions honestly. Please take care that no question is left unanswered. Information provided by you will be kept Confidential and will be used only for research purposes.

You need not mention your name and address.

Organization   _____

Education   _____

Age   _____

Duration of
Service   _____

Pay drawn   _____

FINAL ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

(46 Items)

Read each statement carefully. Please indicate your degree of agreement/ disagreement to each statement by entering a number from 1 to 5 according to the following code.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

1. I find my values and the organization's values are very similar. —————
2. I feel a sense of pride in working for this organization. —————
3. This organization has a fine tradition of public service. —————
4. Deciding to work for this organization was a definite mistake on my part. —————
5. The record of this organization is an example of what dedicated people can achieve. —————
6. I feel a strong sense of loyalty toward this organization. —————
7. The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job. —————
8. This organization has a poor way of handling employee complaints. —————
9. Generally speaking my career in this organization has been satisfactory. —————
10. Where I work, management asks workers first about changing anything that affects them. —————
11. I have no particular feelings or sentiments toward this organization at all. —————
12. I talk of this organization to my friends as a great organization to work for. —————
13. The organizational rules operative in this company are made so that everyone gets a fair break on the job. —————
14. Most of the times organization tries to be honest and fair in dealing with its employees. —————
15. I am given a lot of freedom to decide how I do my own work. —————
16. My job gives me a chance to do the things that I do best. —————
17. Many of the rules here are annoying. —————
18. Over the years I have grown fond of this organization as a place to live and work. —————
19. I would accept almost any type of job assignment in order to keep working for this organization. —————
20. My work area is a pleasant place to be. —————
21. If another organization offered me more money for the same kind of work, I would almost certainly accept. —————
22. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my problems. —————

Read each statement carefully. Please indicate your degree of agreement/ disagreement to each statement by entering a number from 1 to 5 according to the following code.

Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

23. This organization really inspires the very best in me in the way of job performance. ———

24. I have always felt that this organization was a cold, unfriendly place to work. ———

25. There are good opportunities here for those who want to get ahead. ———

26. I have warm feelings toward this organization as a place to live and work. ———

27. I am extremely glad that I chose this organization to work for others
I was considering at the time I was joining. ———

28. Management here is interested in the welfare of its people. ———

29. There is not too much to be gained by sticking with this organization indefinitely. ———

30. I feel very little loyalty to this organization ———

31. I some times feel like leaving this employment for good. ———

32. Although there are probably reasons for this, it is to bad salaries at our agency are so low. ———

33. Often, I find it difficult to agree with this organization's policies on important
matters relating to its employees. ———

34. For me, this is the best of all possible organizations for which to work. ———

35. I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organization. ———

36. I plane to work here until I retire. ———

37. I am willing to put in a great deal of effort beyond that expected in order to help
this organization to be successful. ———

38. Management fails to take actions on our complaints. ———

39. The longer you work here the more you feel you belong. ———

40. I very much like the type of work that I am doing. ———

41. I feel that promotions are not handled fairly. ———

42. If I had my life to live over again, I would still choose to work for this organization. ———

43. I would advise a young college graduate to choose a management
career in this organization. ———

44. I seldom feel I am a part of what goes on around here. ———

45. If I had a chance I would change to some other organization. ———

46. My work is my most rewarding experience. ———

DEMOGRAPHIC DESCRIPTION OF THE WHOLE SAMPLE

Table A

Ages of the sample with frequencies and percentages

Age (in years)	Public (n=105)		Private (n=105)	
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%
25-29	24	34.3	46	65.7
30-35	28	41.8	39	58.2
35& above	53	72.6	20	27.4
Total	105	100.0	105	100.0

Table B

Education of the sample with frequencies and percentages

Education	Public (n=105)		Private (n=105)	
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%
Graduation	42	47.2	47	52.8
Masters	63	52.1	58	47.1
Total	105	100.0	105	100.0

Table C

Experience of the sample with frequencies and percentages

Experience	Public (n=105)		Private (n=105)	
	Frequencies	%	Frequencies	%
5 years	23	34.33	44	65.5
6-9 years	33	44.59	41	55.41
10 years & above	49	71.9	26	28.99
Total	105	100.0	105	100.0