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A CROSS-CULTURAL INVESTIGATION OF ORGANIZATIONAL FUNCTIONING.(U)
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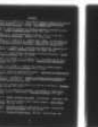
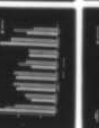
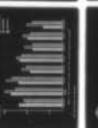
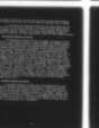
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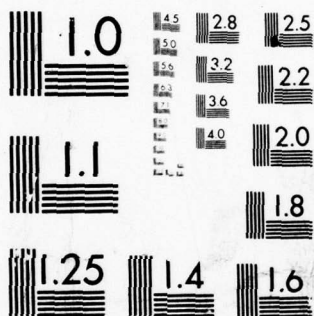


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February 1979

A CROSS-CULTURAL INVESTIGATION OF
ORGANIZATIONAL FUNCTIONING ✓

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force) for differences in value orientations and perceptions of organizational characteristics, (3) determine the degree to which personal and job values influence or are related to evaluations of one's job, and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, and (4) assess the relationship between the perceived compatibility of superordinate-subordinate value orientations and job satisfaction. Results revealed that (1) both personal and job values of the work force at the centers overseas differed from each other as well as from workers in the U.S. centers, (2) centers differed with respect to organizational attributes, but these differences were not systematically related to value profiles, (3) supervisors' and managers' values were homogeneous across center locations, (4) values were not predictive of job satisfaction nor did they moderate the relationship between job attitudes and job satisfaction, and (5) when employees were asked about general value agreement between workers and supervisors, perceived disagreement was associated with lower levels of job satisfaction.

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FOREWORD

This research and development was conducted within Exploratory Development Task Area ZF55.521.034, Evaluation of Civilian Personnel Management. The primary purpose was to determine the relationship between differential variables such as cultural values and various organizational outcome variables. A better understanding of this relationship will assist in providing Navy planners and policy-makers with information required to improve civilian personnel management.

Appreciation is extended to the commanding officers and their staffs at the Public Works Centers for their generous support and cooperation.

DONALD F. PARKER
Commanding Officer

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SUMMARY

Problem

Recent research has pointed to the importance of studying differential aspects of organizations (e.g., the social environment and characteristics of organization members) as well as the integral dimensions such as organization objectives and functions. Attention to differential aspects of organizations is particularly important for the Navy, since the Navy operates shore support facilities in a wide variety of socioenvironmental contexts. An understanding of differential variables and their relationship to outcome variables such as satisfaction may provide clues for enhancing organizational effectiveness.

Purpose

The present investigation of differential variables focused on the dimension of the social environment that deals with values. Recent research has pointed to the relevance of values in human behavior in organizations (e.g., England, Dhingra, and Agarwal, 1974; Mankoff, 1974; Brown, 1976). In view of these findings, the purpose of the present paper was fourfold: (1) to identify the value systems of personnel from centers located in different cultures; (2) to examine individuals at different organizational levels (management, supervision, and labor force) for differences in value orientations and perceptions of organizational characteristics; (3) to determine the degree to which personal and job values influence or are related to evaluations of one's job, and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction; and (4) to assess the relationship between the perceived compatibility of superordinate-subordinate value orientations and job satisfaction.

Approach

The sample consisted of 1,607 employees from all hierarchical levels at six Navy Public Works Centers. Questionnaires designed to assess individual attributes (e.g., cultural values, job attitudes) and areas of organizational functioning were administered to employees in Yokosuka, Japan; Subic Bay, Philippines; Honolulu, Hawaii; and three Public Works Centers within the continental United States.

Results

Results revealed that (1) both the personal and job values of the work force at centers overseas differed from each other as well as from workers in the U.S. centers; (2) supervisors' and managers' values were homogeneous across center locations; (3) organizational attributes such as organizational climate differed across cultures but these differences were not systematically related to value profiles; (4) values were not predictive of job satisfaction nor did they moderate the relationship between job attitudes and job satisfaction; and (5) when employees were asked about overall value agreement between work force and management, perceived disagreement was associated with lower levels of job satisfaction.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Employees at centers located in different cultures were found to differ on both personal and job values but specific values were not found to be related to organizational variables. This finding initially suggests that the impact of values upon organizational phenomena may not be as great as proponents of values believe. The results, however, did indicate that employees who perceived greater overall value discrepancies between management and the work force reported less satisfaction. This suggests that value systems are in fact relevant variables of concern and that problems encountered in value measurement may account for the low correlations obtained. It may be that the ranking technique used was not optimal for value assessment or the specific values measured were not relevant to organizational functioning.

Future research should be directed toward the following objectives:

1. developing effective value-measurement techniques,
2. isolating the specific values related to organizational functioning,
3. investigating the importance of perceived value-system discrepancies to organizational functioning.

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INTRODUCTION

Problem

Recent research in the social and behavioral sciences has pointed to the importance of studying differential aspects of organizations as well as the integral dimensions that have traditionally been the focus of most organizational research. Differential variables include facets of an organization's physical and social environment as well as the characteristics of organization members. Integral aspects of organizations include organization objectives, functions, authority centers, and levels of authority. Attention to differential aspects of organizations is particularly important for the Navy, since the Navy operates shore support facilities in a wide variety of environmental contexts and employs a substantial number of people from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. An understanding of the differential variables and their relationship to outcome variables such as satisfaction may provide clues for enhancing organizational effectiveness.

Purpose

The present investigation of differential variables focused on the dimension of the social environment that deals with values. Recent research has pointed to the relevance of values in human behavior in organizations (e.g., England, Dhingra, & Agarwal, 1974; Mankoff, 1974; Brown, 1976). In view of these findings, the purpose of the present paper was fourfold: (1) to identify the value systems of personnel from centers located in different cultures; (2) to examine individuals at different organizational levels (management, supervision, and labor force) for differences in value orientations and perceptions of organizational characteristics; (3) to determine the degree to which personal and job values influence or are related to evaluations of one's job and intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction; and (4) to assess the relationship between the perceived compatibility of superordinate-subordinate value orientations and job satisfaction.

Background

In light of the rapid growth of multinational corporations and the internationalization of social and behavioral sciences (cf. Evan, 1974), the relationship between culture and organizational systems is growing in theoretical and practical import. The suggestion made by Campbell (1961) that cross-cultural studies be undertaken to reduce the ethnocentric cast of existing theories is apropos. While pressures to conduct cross-cultural organizational research have increased, practical problems associated with research in this area have become evident. One central problem is the difficulty in locating sufficiently comparable organizational systems in different cultures such that variations in organizational behavior and effectiveness can be attributed to cultural factors and not to structural or functional differences among organizations. The organizational systems to be investigated in this study, the U.S. Navy Public Works Centers (PWCs), abroad and in the United States, provide a rare opportunity to compare cultural effects across similar organizational units. PWCs are comparable in structure, function, and technology, yet they are located in different cultures, thus providing an excellent arena in which interrelationships of cultural and work-related values, attitudes, and organizational functioning can be studied.

It is generally accepted that culture, which is defined here as a relatively permanent perceptual framework that prescribes the normative nature of an individual's behavior, plays a central role in the development of abilities, aptitudes, and values of individuals. It is not surprising, therefore, that a major content of cross-cultural organizational research is that cultural values have a pervasive effect on the acceptance of management and supervisory styles, and on the nature of motivation and attitudes concerning work (cf. Barrett & Bass, 1976). Empirical support for this contention, however, has been surprisingly weak (cf. Roberts, 1970).

Several of the criticisms leveled at past cross-cultural research of organizations are particularly relevant to the present study. First, an explicit cross-cultural comparison is absent in many of the studies that purport to examine cross-cultural differences. For example, England and Koike (1970) contrasted the "personal value systems" of Japanese managers with American managers on the basis of data obtained only from Japanese managers. Second, as Evan (1964) has suggested, virtually no attempt has been made to employ both an independent assessment of culture and an independent assessment of organizational behavior. Zurcher, Meadow, and Zurcher (1965) found differences in value orientation between workers from Mexico and the United States, but they did not relate these cultural differences to work-related attitudes. Whitehill and Takezawa (1968), on the other hand, obtained significant attitudinal differences between American and Japanese employees with respect to work and identification with the organization, but cultural values were not directly measured.

The present investigation of cultural effects relied primarily on the dimension of culture that deals with values (cf. Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952). First, with respect to the definition of values, in the present study, Rokeach's definition of values was employed. Rokeach views values as "abstract-ideals, positive or negative, not tied to any specific object or situations, representing a person's beliefs about modes of conduct and ideal terminal modes" (1968, p. 160). Values are global beliefs; they are more basic than attitudes. Accordingly, one's personal value system is a relatively stable, fundamental, and conscious component of a person's psychological makeup that directs behavior and shapes attitudes (Crites, 1961; Rokeach, 1971). It should be evident from these remarks that personal values in this study are conceptualized as constructs that deal with the broader domain of basic human values in contrast to the narrow realm of job attitudes or work values. Relevant to this point, Ronen (1978) argues that "the restriction of values to specific domains of behavior is unnecessarily limiting, making it difficult for us to study the complex interactions between personal values, the organizational environment, and job satisfaction" (p. 81).

Ronen (1978) further states that while some research has been conducted on the relationships between specific values and job attitudes, there has been no investigation (with the exception of Ronen's comparison of Israeli workers on the Kibbutz with those employed by the private sector) of whether basic values are reflected in the evaluation of a person's job or expressed job satisfaction.

Hypotheses

The underlying thesis of this study is that motivation and work satisfaction are dependent upon an individual's system of basic personal values. These values are a function of the person's cultural milieu. The following hypotheses or expectations reflect this proposition.

Hypothesis 1. The personal values of American, Japanese, and Filipino workers will differ from each other.

Hypothesis 2. Differences in organizational climate characteristics will be found for centers located in different cultures.

Hypothesis 3. Both personal values and job values will be related to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 4. The discrepancy in values between work force and management will be monotonically related to expressed job dissatisfaction.

APPROACH

Description of the Organization Studied

The Navy Public Works Centers (PWCs) are service organizations providing engineering, maintenance (including rehabilitation construction), utilities, transportation, and housing for U.S. Navy shore establishments. Worldwide there are nine sites, six of which were included in this study (Japan, Philippines, Hawaii, and three in the continental United States: San Francisco, Great Lakes, and Norfolk). Each organization is responsible for serving customers in its geographical area. The centers' annual operating budgets range from \$25 million to \$100 million per year and average about \$56 million per year. The number of members within each organization ranges from 675 to 3,400 people.

One unique aspect of these centers is that they are almost identical in terms of their tasks, technology, organizational structure, and cultural or ethnic background of management. Since the centers service one large organization, the nature of the services provided and the means for work accomplishment are consistent across sites. Structurally, each organization consists of four major levels: (1) top management, the officers from the Navy's Civil Engineering Corps; (2) middle management, civilian department heads; (3) several civilian supervisory levels; and (4) the civilian labor force. Top and middle management consists of individuals who are U.S. citizens and the large majority of whom are Caucasian and male. The lower levels of the organizations, however, consist of individuals possessing cultural characteristics reflecting the community in which the PWC is located.

Another important characteristic of the centers is that the responsibility for the operation of all sites lies with a division within their parent organization, the Naval Facilities Engineering Command (NAVFAC). Most of the policies that govern the operations of each center are formulated and provided to them by NAVFAC. That is, most policies governing PWCs are standardized. To achieve efficiency with the PWC system, NAVFAC also uses information and control systems so that work activities can be centrally monitored and directed. Thus, the major similarities between the organizations lie in the structure, tasks, technology, and cultural background of management, while most of the differences are based in the surrounding physical and social environments as well as in the ethnic and cultural composition of the work force and supervisors, who are drawn from each local area.

Sample

The sample consisted of 1,607 employees of six PWCs. Respondents were drawn from all hierarchical levels of the organizations; military managers, department managers, supervisors, and a sample of work force personnel. Table 1 presents a breakdown of the number of respondents for each center at each level.

Table 1
Number of Respondents at Each Public
Works Center by Hierarchical Level

	Hierarchical Level				Total
	Workers	Supervisors	Department Heads	Military	
San Francisco	159	42	11	8	220
Great Lakes	166	34	6	10	216
Norfolk	199	127	10	4	340
Pearl Harbor	123	98	6	4	231
Yokosuka	74	74	10 ^a	4	162
Subic Bay	259	163	12	4	438
Total	980	538	55	34	1,607

^aIncludes Japanese Directors.

Research Instrument

General Description

The research instrument consisted of items assessing individual attributes (e.g., cultural values, job attitudes) and areas of organizational functioning. Items were based on two sources: research literature on organizations and information distilled from interviews conducted with PWC personnel. Two forms of the questionnaire were designed. One form was designed for the work force; a second form, for supervisory and managerial personnel. The majority of the items in the two questionnaires were identical. However, items that assessed attitudes toward supervision and control systems were included in the worker form, while items that measured interdepartmental relations and various managerial practices were included in the supervisory form. Both forms of the questionnaire were translated into the Tagalog dialect for use in the Philippines and into Japanese for use in Japan.

The majority of the items in the questionnaire were responded to on a 5-, 6-, or 7-point scale, anchored with a positive response and a negative response. While information focusing on aspects of organizational functioning such as managerial practices, role stress, control systems, and job characteristics was gathered, the present study emphasized personal values, job values, three climate factors, measures of satisfaction, and an estimate of work-center effectiveness.

Components of the Questionnaire

Personal Values. Sixteen values were taken from Rokeach's Instrumental Value Survey (Rokeach, 1973). Respondents were asked to choose the four values they considered most important and the four values they considered least important. This nomination technique was used because asking respondents to rank the values in terms of importance would have been too time-consuming.

Job Values. Respondents were asked to choose from a list of nine job values the three values they considered most important and the three they considered least important. For purposes of analysis, each of the 16 personal and the nine job values were assigned scores of 1, 2, or 3. The values chosen as most important received a score of 3, those chosen as least important received a score of 1, and the remaining values not chosen at all were assigned a score of 2.

Demographic Characteristics. These items surveyed the various demographic characteristics of the individual members: age, work center, U.S. Armed Services history, level of organization, citizenship, sex, and education.

Organizational Climate. The climate dimensions measured with this instrument were adopted from those developed by Campbell and Beaty (1971). Three separate climate factors derived from a factor analysis of the climate items were of interest: (1) Openness, (2) Esprit de Corps, and (3) Organizational Climate Problems. Items comprising these factors and their factor loadings are presented in Table 2. In addition, an item measuring the respondent's immediate work center in terms of how well it does its job was included. A particular work center refers to an individual's immediate work group including his supervisor.

Superordinate-Subordinate Compatibility. Three items measured the extent to which management and the local work force agreed on (1) individual value systems, (2) the way the world is viewed, and (3) the way people are viewed.

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction. Nine items assessed the degree of satisfaction with specific job facets such as pay, security, recognition, and respect. The responses to these items were factor-analyzed yielding two discrete factors, one measuring intrinsic satisfaction and the other measuring extrinsic satisfaction. Items comprising these factors and their factor loadings are presented in Table 3.

Procedure

The data for this study were collected from six PWC sites: San Francisco, Great Lakes, Norfolk, Pearl Harbor, Subic Bay, and Yokosuka. Data concerning organizational functioning and member's individual attributes were obtained from all managers, supervisors, and a sample of the labor force by means of interviews and questionnaires.

Table 2

Organizational Climate Factors and
Associated Questionnaire Items

Factor	Questionnaire Item	Loading
<u>Openness</u>		
	Supervisor willing to hear your problems	.57
	Workers' confidence in management's judgment	.55
	Cooperation exists between departments	.50
	Cooperative atmosphere among workers	.49
	Rating of job security	.46
	Individual judgment trusted	.45
	Effectiveness of work center with unexpected problems	.43
<u>Esprit de Corps</u>		
	Extent of esprit de corps	.55
	Describe efficiency of this PWC	.52
	People don't "goof-off" when not watched	.50
<u>Problems</u>		
	Extent of problems between ethnic backgrounds	.78
	Extent ethnic problems hurt performance of center	.76
	Extent employee theft presents a problem	.50

Table 3

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction Factors
and Associated Questionnaire Items

Factor	Questionnaire Item	Loading
<u>Intrinsic Satisfaction</u>		
	Chance to accomplish something worthwhile	.74
	Opportunity to develop skills and abilities	.63
	Recognition for doing the job	.62
	Seeing results from your work	.53
	Chances for getting ahead	.49
	Respect from people you work with	.42
<u>Extrinsic Satisfaction</u>		
	Amount of pay you get	.54
	Amount of job security you have	.52
	Chances for getting ahead	.49

Questionnaires were administered to small groups of approximately 5 to 25 workers and supervisory personnel. Workers and supervisory personnel met separately to complete the questionnaire. There were two basic reasons for this: (1) workers and supervisors received different forms of the questionnaire with some items tailored specifically to their organizational level; and (2) it was felt that personnel at each level would be more candid in their responses if they were not intimidated by the presence of others from different levels. At the overseas centers, a translator was present at each session to explain the purpose of the study, to give instructions, and to answer questions.

The data were analyzed according to location and organizational level (work force, supervisors, and a combined military management and civilian department head category). These latter two groups were combined because of the small number of military managers and the homogeneity of the responses of military managers and civilian department heads.

RESULTS

Personal and Job Values

Hierarchical Grouping Analysis

The first set of analyses to be discussed deals with the extent to which personal and job value profiles for the six Public Works Centers (PWCs) differ. A Hierarchical Grouping analysis developed by Ward (1963) was employed to determine the clustering of the centers with respect to their value profiles. Ward has described the hierarchical grouping procedure as follows:

A procedure has been described for forming hierarchical groups of mutually exclusive subsets on the basis of their similarity with respect to specified characteristics. Given k subsets, this method permits their reduction to $k - 1$ mutually exclusive subsets by considering the union of all possible $k(k - 1)/2$ pairs that can be formed and accepting the union with which an optimal value of the objective function is associated. The process can be repeated until all subsets are in one group.

In this study, the Hierarchical Grouping method began by defining each object, in this instance value profiles, for each of the six centers, as a "group." These six groups were then reduced in number by a series of step decisions. At each step a pair of profiles was combined, reducing the groups by one until all profiles had been classified into one or the other of the two groups. The pattern of error increments associated with the pairings is used in determining the optimal number of groups. Small error increments associated with the pairings indicate that the groups paired are relatively homogeneous. A large error increment indicates that the optimal number of groups has been exceeded. Optimum grouping is attained when the intergroup distances are maximized and intragroup distances are minimized.

Of primary interest in the analysis was the grouping of the work force value profiles from the six centers, since they possess the cultural characteristics reflecting the community in which each center is located. With respect to the grouping of the profiles for the 16 personal values obtained for each of the six centers, the derived error terms indicate that a three-group stage best represents the natural clustering of profiles. Specifically, the error increase resulting from the first pairing (San Francisco and Great Lakes) was .46. The combining of the Norfolk Center with the first pair yielded an error increase of .78. The addition of Pearl Harbor to the three continental U.S. centers to form one group, with Japan and the Philippines in the other two groups, did not increase the error appreciably (1.05). However, the combining of Japan and the Philippines into one group, with the other four centers in the other group, resulted in an error increase of 4.79. Thus, the three-group clustering obtained in the prior stage was the optimal solution. Namely, the value profiles for Japan and the Philippines differ from one another and are distinctively different from the group formed by the four U.S. centers.

A three-group solution identical to that obtained for personal values was also obtained for the job values, with one group comprised of the U.S. centers, and Japan and the Philippines representing the other two groups. Thus,

the expected differences in personal and job value profiles between Filipino and Japanese workers and those of their American counterparts were confirmed.

In contrast to the clustering observed for the value profiles for the work force, the hierarchical grouping of the personal and job value profiles for managers and for supervisors from each of the six centers did not produce distinctive clusters. Figures 1 and 2 present mean importance ratings for workers' personal and job values respectively, across the three location clusters.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance

The Hierarchical Grouping indicates the natural clustering of overall profiles. A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was computed to determine the degree to which each of the values that made up the profile differed across the three groups derived from the Hierarchical Grouping. In addition, the MANOVA compared the values of respondents from the three organizational levels (workers, supervisors, and managers). It was hypothesized that the respondent groups, location clusters, and organizational levels would differ in terms of their mean scores on personal and job values. Since there were 16 personal values and 9 job values on which it was of interest to compare the respondent groups, the MANOVA was computed separately for both sets of values. The MANOVAs for both personal and job values yielded significant main effects for location and organizational level. For personal values $F(32,3150) = 16.41$ for location and $F(32,3150) = 6.30$ for organizational level $p < .001$. For job values $F(18,3164) = 15.90$ for location and $F(18,3164) = 13.76$ for organizational levels $p < .001$. Significant location X level interactions were obtained for both personal and job values [$F(64,6128) = 2.19$, $p < .001$, and $F(36,5930) = 1.87$, $p < .001$, respectively]. However, since these F ratios are of a much smaller magnitude than the main effects, they will be excluded from further interpretation. Results of these MANOVAs support the hypothesized differences in reported personal and job values between locations as well as between organizational levels.

Univariate Analysis of Variance

A univariate analysis of variance and t tests among several of the means were performed and showed how respondents at the different locations differed in terms of their personal and job values. Table 4 presents the F ratios for the univariate analyses of variance. The posteriori t tests revealed no clear pattern of intergroup variation on the values. Figures 1 and 2 illustrate that in some instances the U.S. is significantly different from both overseas locations (e.g., feeling of accomplishment), while in other instances the U.S. is closer to either Japan (e.g., seeing the results of your work) or the Philippines (e.g., recognition).

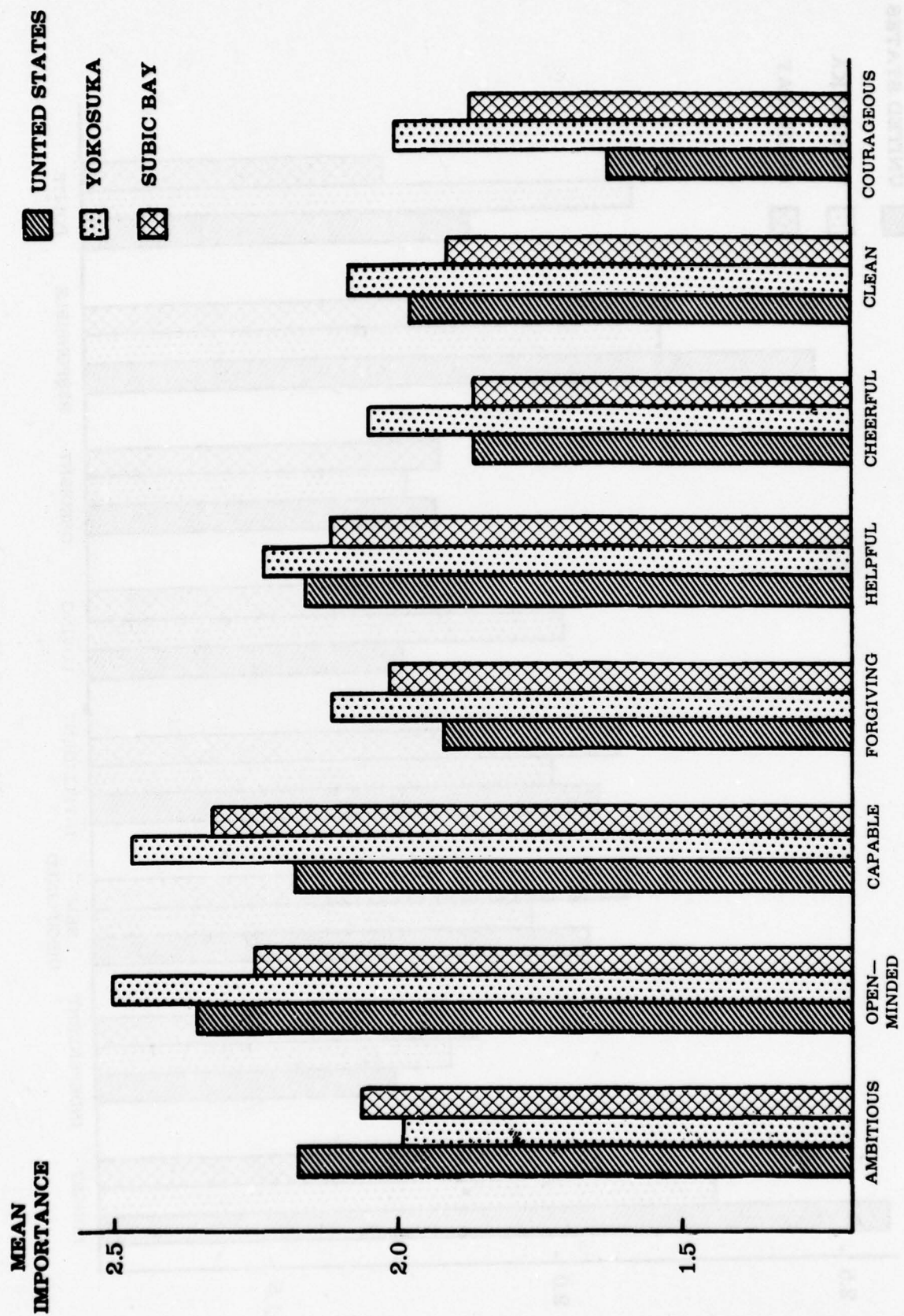


Figure 1. Mean importance ratings of work force personal values across locations.^a

^aLow score indicates low importance.

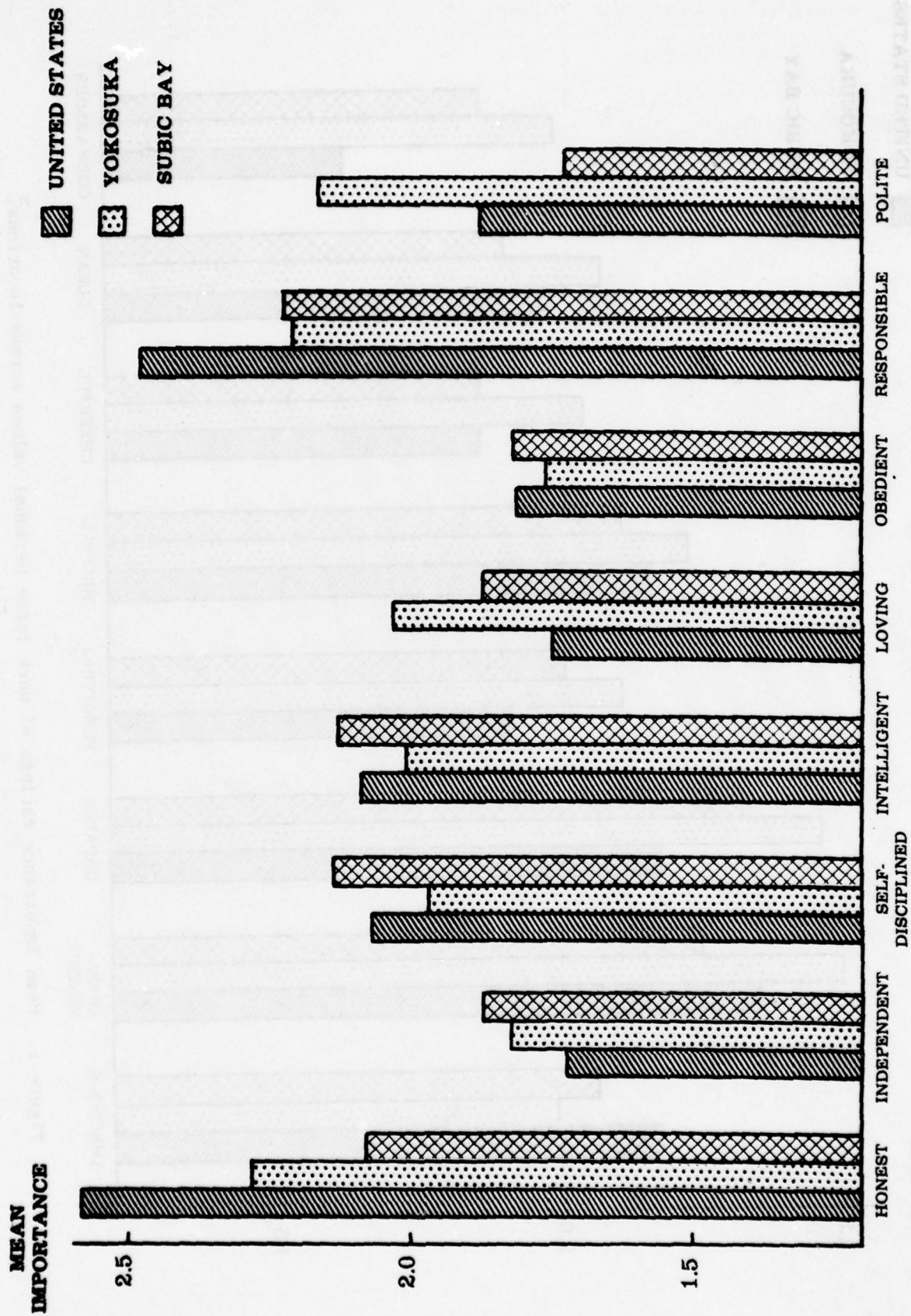


Figure 1. (continued)

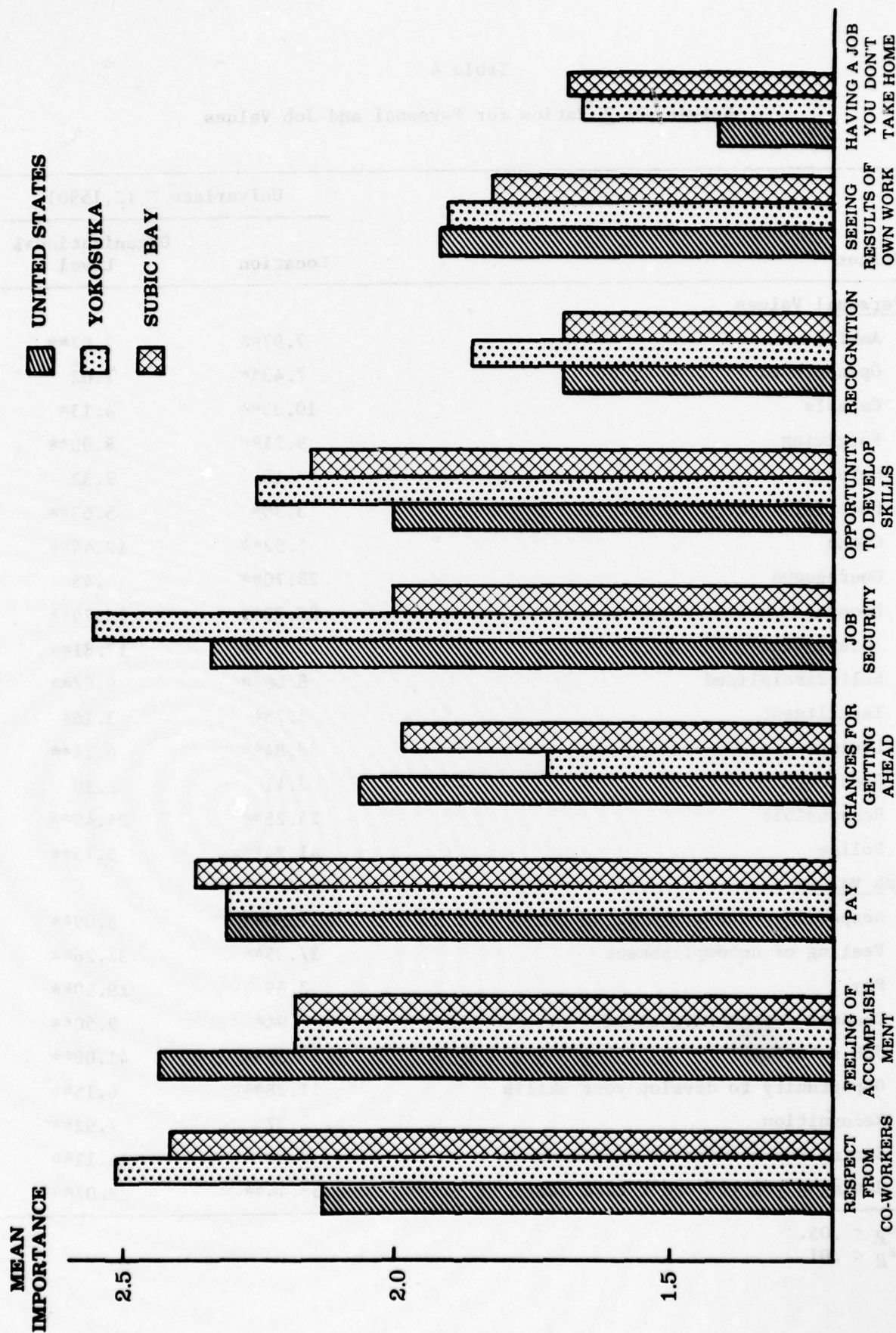


Figure 2. Mean importance ratings of work force job values across locations.^a

^aLow score indicates low importance.

Table 4

Univariate F Ratios for Personal and Job Values

Values	Univariate <u>F</u> (2,1590)	
	Location	Organizational Level
<u>Personal Values</u>		
Ambitious	7.97**	7.07**
Open-minded	7.43**	1.02
Capable	10.33**	4.13*
Forgiving	9.21**	8.05**
Helpful	.18	2.32
Cheerful	3.30*	5.63**
Clean	5.92**	12.44**
Courageous	28.70**	.45
Honest	65.79**	19.79**
Independent	12.07**	17.81**
Self-disciplined	8.00**	9.07**
Intelligent	3.75*	3.16*
Loving	38.84**	6.74**
Obedient	2.41	1.19
Responsible	25.25**	24.45**
Polite	41.24**	5.75**
<u>Job Values</u>		
Respect from co-workers	17.94**	8.09**
Feeling of accomplishment	37.85**	32.26**
Pay	2.89	19.30**
Chances for getting ahead	7.94*	9.50**
Job security	18.35**	41.08**
Opportunity to develop your skills	11.28**	6.15**
Recognition	2.37	7.92**
Seeing the results of your work	2.68	16.11**
Having a job you don't take home	38.44**	23.07**

* $p < .05$.** $p < .01$.

Organizational Climate

Another set of findings that was of interest with respect to the three groups established by the Hierarchical Grouping analysis involved several organizational climate dimensions. Table 5 presents the means and *F* values for estimates of Openness, Esprit de Corps, and the extent of Organizational Climate Problems for the three groups. First, with respect to the perceived Openness, the two main effects and the location X group level interaction were significant. The centers manned by American personnel characterized their centers as significantly more open than did personnel in either Japan or the Philippines. Furthermore, personnel at higher levels in the organization reported more Openness than those at lower levels. The interaction was interesting in that managers at all three locations perceived a high degree of Openness, while worker and supervisory personnel reported more Openness in the U.S. centers than in Japan or the Philippines. Turning to the second attribute, Esprit de Corps, the *F* values for all three effects are statistically significant. Personnel from Japan and the Philippines reported higher levels of Esprit de Corps than did personnel from the U.S. Workers perceived higher levels of Esprit de Corps in comparison to managers. The interaction indicates that perceptions regarding Esprit de Corps were relatively homogeneous across levels for the U.S. and Japan but that workers in the Philippines reported significantly higher levels of morale than did managers at that location. It should be noted from the patterns of means for these two dependent measures that perceptions of workers differ from those of management; however, this is most pronounced in the Philippines. The ANOVA performed on the third dependent measure, extent of Organizational Climate Problems, yielded significant main effects for location and level. People from the Philippines reported significantly more Organizational Climate Problems than did those from either the U.S. or Japan. Furthermore, workers reported more problems than did supervisors or management. In light of these findings, the organization members' ratings of how well their work centers perform jobs suggest an interesting interpretation. The mean ratings for work center performance were 1.94, 1.99, and 2.22 for the U.S., Japan, and Philippines, respectively. The Philippines' performance was rated significantly lower than those of Japan and the U.S., $F(2,1501) = 17.70$ $p < .001$. The Philippines, as evident from Table 5, is marked by the greatest discrepancy between workers and management relative to the other two locations on evaluations of Openness and Esprit de Corps. Personnel of this center also reported the greatest amount of Organizational Climate Problems.

Personal and Job Values as Predictors of Job Satisfaction

A more direct test of the association of personal and job values with feelings about one's job was effected by multiple-regression analysis. The objective of the analysis was to determine what values, if any, were related to the level of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction organization members derived from their jobs. Furthermore, it was of interest to determine whether values that are most prominently related to the satisfaction indices in one culture differ from those in another. Multiple-regression analysis was decided upon because this technique would identify the relative contribution of each of the values to the total relationship. The multiple-regression analyses involving personal values yielded disappointingly small multiple correlations. In fact, the inclusion of values beyond the first one in each analysis did not appreciably affect or increase predictability, and therefore only the correlation of the first value with the satisfaction

Table 5

Means and \bar{F} Values for Climate Factors by Location and Organizational Level

Factor	Location	Mean Factor Scores ^a			\bar{F} Values		
		Worker	Level		Location (2,1598)	Organization Level (2,1598)	Location X Level (4,1598)
			Supervisor	Manager			
Openness	United States	.09	-.45	-.61			
	Japan	.31	.00	-.59	5.59**	65.15**	2.54*
	Philippines	.46	-.05	-.79			
Esprit de Corps	United States	.19	.15	.39			
	Japan	-.52	-.47	-.31	34.24**	7.07**	4.05**
	Philippines	-.38	-.09	.30			
Problems	United States	.08	.24	.33			
	Japan	.60	.63	.78	74.26**	3.44*	< 1
	Philippines	-.64	-.45	-.56			

^aThe lower the score the more Openness, Esprit de Corps, and Problems.* $p < .05$.** $p < .01$.

indices for each of the multiple-regression analyses will be presented here. The first set of correlations shown in Table 6 is based on the relationship of personal values with intrinsic satisfaction. Looking first at the correlations for the workers, it can be seen that Obedient as a value is the best predictor in the U.S., while the value Honest is the best predictor in Japan. The value Responsible was the best predictor in the Philippines, but it was not significantly correlated with intrinsic satisfaction. Workers from the U.S. centers who regarded Obedience as an important value derived more satisfaction from their work than those who placed less importance on this value. For the Japanese workers, those who placed more importance on the value Honest were less satisfied than those who placed less importance on this value. At the supervisory level, no significant correlation was obtained in the U.S. and the Philippines between values and intrinsic satisfaction. For the Japanese supervisors, however, those who placed more importance on the value Obedient were less satisfied than those who placed less importance on this value. Turning now to the correlations obtained for extrinsic satisfaction, a very different pattern than that obtained for intrinsic satisfaction is evident. Without exception, the correlations in Table 6 are small, and caution should be exercised in drawing conclusions. However, these findings suggest, tentatively, that the values most strongly related to satisfaction for U.S. workers differed from those for their counterparts in Japan and in the Philippines. Also, level in the organization had a differential effect. One final point to be made with regard to these findings is that the values that emerged as the best predictors for management appear to be ones that are more directly related to carrying out their mission (e.g., Intelligent and Capable).

It was felt at the outset that job values would be more strongly related to intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction than were personal values. In general, this was not the case. The obtained correlations can be seen in Table 7. The values that emerged as best predictors suggest different concerns of organization members from different cultures. For the U.S. centers, for example, workers who placed less importance on chances for getting ahead reported higher intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction, or conversely, those who placed high value on getting ahead were less satisfied. Job values predicting satisfaction were consistently different for workers and supervisors and, in general, the U.S. differed from both Japan and the Philippines. Again, as was the case with personal values, different job values emerged as important for different cultural contexts and organizational levels.

Personal and Job Values as Moderators Between Job Attitudes and Job Satisfaction

Since the correlations between both personal and job values and satisfaction were weak, it was felt that values might better serve as moderators between job attitudes (e.g., commitment, motivation) and job satisfaction rather than as predictors of job satisfaction. The sample was trichotomized into high, medium, and low subgroups for each value based on the respondents' ratings of importance of each value. The correlations between satisfaction and job attitudes were then computed within each of the subgroups. It was felt that a monotonic relationship of the correlations from the high to the low value subgroups would justify inferring a moderating effect. The analyses were performed separately for the three different locations at the three different levels in the organization hierarchy. The overall correlations did not have monotonic ordering. Therefore, it is unlikely that these values had any systematic, generalizable influence on the relationship between job attitudes and job satisfaction.

Table 6

Correlations of Personal Values with Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction

Level												
Workers							Supervisors					
Location	Intrinsic Satisfaction			Extrinsic Satisfaction			Intrinsic Satisfaction			Extrinsic Satisfaction		
	Value	N	r	Value	N	r	Value	N	r	Value	N	r
United States	Obedient	647	-.18**	Courageous	647	-.12**	Capable	301	.10	Forgiving	301	-.13
Japan	Honest	75	.25*	Obedient	75	.17	Obedient	74	.29**	Helpful	74	-.20
Philippines	Responsible	259	.10	Responsible	259	.17**	Cheerful	163	-.13	Ambitious	163	-.26**
Managers Combined Across Centers												
Value	Intrinsic Satisfaction			Extrinsic Satisfaction								
	N	r	Value	N	r	Value						
Intelligent	81	-.23*		81	-.16	Capable						

* $p < .05$.** $p < .01$.

Table 7

Correlations of Job Values with Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction

		Level					
		Workers			Supervisors		
Location	Value	Intrinsic Satisfaction		Extrinsic Satisfaction		Intrinsic Satisfaction	
		N	r	Value	N	Value	r
United States	Chances for getting ahead	647	.16**	Chances for getting ahead	647	Opportunity to develop skills	301
Japan	Recognition	75	-.15	Respect from co-workers	75	Feeling of accomplishment	74
Philippines	Respect from co-workers	259	-.16**	Respect from co-workers	259	Opportunity to develop skills	163
Managers Combined Across Centers							
		Intrinsic Satisfaction		Extrinsic Satisfaction		Intrinsic Satisfaction	
		Value	r	Value	N	Value	r
Job security		81	-.21	Chances for getting ahead	81		.15

* $p < .05$.** $p < .01$.

Relationship of Personal and Job Values to Work Force/Management Agreement

The next set of findings addresses one aspect of the question of the relationship between personal value systems and reaction to various aspects of one's work. As stated earlier, it was felt that disagreement between work force and management would tend to have a negative effect on factors such as job satisfaction. Three questions assessed perceptions of the extent to which work force and management agreed on (1) values, (2) the way the world is viewed, and (3) the way people are viewed. Means and F values for the three items are presented in Table 8. A significant difference for location was obtained for the second item, the way people view their world. Personnel from the Philippines reported more disagreement between workers and managers than U.S. or Japanese personnel. Respondents' estimates of work force/management agreement were also correlated with their reported levels of intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction. Table 9 presents the separate correlations for workers and supervisors for each location and for managers collapsed over all locations. In general, the correlations supported our contention for both intrinsic and extrinsic satisfaction: that greater perceived disagreement between work force and managers is associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. Intrinsic satisfaction referred to such concerns as a sense of accomplishment, extrinsic referred to more concrete rewards such as pay. The strongest support was obtained for workers and supervisors in U.S. centers and for workers in Japan. For the Philippine sample, significant correlations were obtained for extrinsic satisfaction only. For management, significant correlations were restricted to intrinsic satisfaction. It would seem that for managers extrinsic satisfaction has little relevance to perceived similarity in values, whereas similarity in values is tied to extrinsic satisfaction for work force at all centers.

Table 8

Means and F Values for Extent Management and Local
Work Force Agree on the Way the World is Viewed

Location	Means ^a			F Values		
	Workers	Level Supervisors	Managers	Location (2,1412)	Organizational Level (2,1412)	Location X Level (4,1412)
United States	2.40 N = 586	2.32 N = 279	2.09 N = 58	3.91*	6.44**	1.65
Japan	2.30 N = 39	2.61 N = 59	1.93 N = 14			
Philip- pines	2.55 N = 232	2.59 N = 138	2.40 N = 16			

^a A low score indicates a greater amount of agreement.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

Table 9

Correlations for Management and Work Force Agreement
Items with Intrinsic and Extrinsic Satisfaction

Item	United States		Japan		Philippines		Managers ^a
	Workers	Supervisors	Workers	Supervisors	Workers	Supervisors	
Intrinsic Satisfaction							
1. Extent management and local work force agree on individual value systems	.38** N = 563	.38** N = 280	.40* N = 54	.22 N = 62	.10 N = 240	.11 N = 147	.28* N = 77
2. Extent management and local work force agree on the way the world is viewed	.24** N = 547	.19* N = 272	.38* N = 51	.05 N = 63	.07 N = 232	.17 N = 138	.12 N = 74
3. Extent management and local work force agree on the way people are viewed	.34** N = 567	.24** N = 277	.35* N = 54	.08 N = 64	.12 N = 238	.26* N = 143	.29* N = 76
Extrinsic Satisfaction							
1. Extent management and local work force agree on individual value systems	.25** N = 563	.28** N = 280	.58** N = 54	.25 N = 62	.22** N = 240	.19* N = 147	.01 N = 77
2. Extent management and local work force agree on the way the world is viewed	.15** N = 547	.06 N = 272	.32* N = 51	.02 N = 63	.25** N = 232	.15 N = 138	.03 N = 74
3. Extent management and local work force agree on the way people are viewed	.24** N = 567	.19** N = 277	.48** N = 54	.24 N = 64	.37** N = 238	.24* N = 143	.02 N = 76

^aManagers were combined across centers to form one group.

* $p < .01$.

** $p < .001$.

DISCUSSION

At the outset of this paper it was suggested that the concept of personal values has taken on an increased importance in the study of organizational functioning. Recent reviewers have characterized personal values as the neglected ingredient of job motivation (Brown, 1976; Mankoff, 1974). In this connection, Connor and Becker (1975) make the following assertion:

An important gap exists in organizational theory. This gap concerns the nature of the relationship among values of organizational members and various organizational properties, processes, and activities (p. 558).

It is this statement that underscores the significance of the present study. This investigation compared personal and job values of individuals from organizations similar in structure, function, and technology, but located in different cultures. Furthermore, these values were related to each individual's evaluation of various aspects of his work.

Distinct differences between the United States, Japan, and the Philippines were obtained for workers on both personal and job values. The expectation that distinct clusters based on culture would be evident for the supervisory level was not supported. This may be indicative of a modification in values as a function of the supervisory role, or it may suggest that individuals selected for the supervisory level have similar value systems.

Also discrepant with the hypotheses were the findings that values (personal and job) were not strongly related to job satisfaction, nor did values consistently moderate the relationship between job attitudes and satisfaction. These results conform to those obtained by White and Ruh (1973), who found no support for the hypothesized moderating effects of values on the relationship between participation and job attitudes.

One possible reason for the low correlation between values and satisfaction arises from the nature of the value assessment. It will be recalled that respondents chose a specific number of most important and least important values. This kind of procedure yields partially ipsative scores, where the value scores for an individual are dependent on his own score on different values. Therefore, the value scores of one individual are not strictly comparable with scores of other individuals. The possibility that the partially ipsative nature of the scores may have an effect on the strength of association cannot be ignored.

Another possible explanation for the weak relationship involves the operational use of the concept of value. No universal value instrument has been agreed upon. As Rokeach states, "Given the present state of development . . . it is not yet conceptually meaningful or technologically feasible to assess routinely . . . values" (1969, p. 547). This also raises the related question as to whether the appropriate values were assessed. If values are to be conceptualized as a segregated or limited unit of the person's psychological world, in what way do they differ from attitudes?

There is, of course, the possibility that the impact of values on organizational phenomena is not as great as proponents of values believe. It is interesting that the magnitude of the correlations obtained in this study between values and satisfaction are of the same order as those obtained in a recent study of industrial workers in Israel (Ronen, 1978). Interestingly, the results in that study were viewed as support for the assumption that values constitute part of the motivational set with which workers evaluate job rewards. The author noted in characterizing the results that the relationship between values and job satisfaction is not a simple one and future work may require the discovery of certain moderator variables in order to clarify the relationship.

A more interesting approach may be to consider a value's importance in relation to other competing values rather than focusing on the absolute importance attached to that one value when attempting to determine the relationship between values and organizational variables. While it is possible that these suggested methods may enhance the predictability of values, it must be recognized as a distinct possibility that values account for very little variance in the work setting. This may be due to other factors that may be more salient in that context. It is also possible that while values are important in a general way with respect to modes of conduct and end states, people do not articulate the relationship of these values with their day-to-day behavior unless they are confronted with a serious dilemma.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

To recapitulate, both the personal and job values of employees at U.S. centers differed from those of employees at centers located in Japan and the Philippines. Additionally, differences were found between centers for such organizational attributes as Openness, Esprit de Corps, and work center performance. While no connection could be made between the obtained differences in value profiles and organizational attributes, centers located in different cultures did differ with respect to organizational attributes. The possibility that values would predict satisfaction or serve as a moderator between job attitudes and job satisfaction was not demonstrated. However, when employees were asked about general value agreement between workers and supervisors, perceived disagreement was associated with lower levels of job satisfaction.

This last result suggests a possible avenue for further investigation: to compare the value systems of organization members who perceive a high degree of discrepancy between the values of workers and supervisors with those of members who perceive a low degree of discrepancy. This approach might provide insight into the importance of value system compatibility in organizational functioning. It is hoped that the present findings will provide a stimulus for future conceptual and methodological development of research designed to explore the relationship between values and organizational variables.

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