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ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS FOR RETIRED SERVICEMEN
IN THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA.

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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE MOTIVATIONS IN THE
ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS FOR RETIRED SERVICEMEN
IN THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

A DISSERTATION
SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY
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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE MOTIVATIONS IN THE
ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS FOR RETIRED SERVICEMEN
IN THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

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Joseph I-jung Liu

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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE MOTIVATIONS IN THE
ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS FOR RETIRED SERVICEMEN
IN THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As George S. Stevenson states in the foreword of
Soldier to Civilian:

What is done wisely or unwisely for the veteran will be a sign and measure of our times and a forecast of our future. The veteran is humanity of the moment. Tomorrow he will be a part of our rural, town, and city life again and a heavy participant in our government. What we do for him will tell us and him where we stand. . . . It will give him and us the cue for plans ahead. It will set the pace for services and considerations for our whole population. If we act¹ intelligently now, we do so for many years to come.

Either as a political expedient or on humanitarian grounds, it is the government's obligation to assist the retired servicemen who have served their country for many years. This obligation is a challenge to the government and a test of its efficiency. If the government is meeting this challenge adequately, it will not only have a significant positive effect on the morale of retired

¹George K. Gratt, Soldier to Civilian (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1944), p. xi.

servicemen, but also be a motivating force for the present military men and for the civilians who in the future will serve in the military.

In response to this challenge and obligation, in 1952 the government of the Republic of China initiated the "retirement system" for the Chinese military forces.² The objective of this system was to separate those officers and enlisted men who were no longer fit for active military duty and to ensure the continued competence and vitality of the armed forces. More specifically, the assistance programs for retired servicemen were designed to coordinate with the military retirement system and to provide the retired servicemen with proper job placement, health care as needed, to enhance their knowledge and skills, and to assist them in becoming productive citizens.³ In doing this, it was hoped that the assistance programs would contribute to the retired servicemen's well-being and to the nation's economic productivity and social development.

The previous experience and the present situation of retired servicemen in the Republic of China is quite unique in the sense that:

1. They followed the government from the China

²Tsu-yu Chao, An Introduction of the Assistance Systems for Retired Servicemen (Taipei, Taiwan: The Torch of Victory Monthly Publisher, 1963), p. 85.

³Ibid., p. 6.

mainland to Taiwan. Most of them do not have family or relatives in Taiwan to take care of them when they retire from the military service.

2. Since they have been career military men, most of them are ill-equipped for civilian employment.

3. Due to an oversupply of unskilled labor in Taiwan, it is very difficult for the retired servicemen (many of them old and unskilled) to obtain employment by themselves.

4. A number of retired servicemen are partly or permanently disabled as a result of their military careers. Also, some are so weak or sick that they need medical care or home nursing.

5. Past experience has been that the retired servicemen who made a less than satisfactory adjustment to civilian life had been a source of trouble to society and to the government.⁴

It is hoped that proper placement of the retired servicemen will enable them to contribute their abilities and their talents to the country, to society, and also help create a new career for themselves. The assistance programs are intended as an aid to achieving the fullest

⁴At the end of World War II, the Chinese Government did not have a complete military retirement system to place the retired servicemen adequately, and the financial situation of the government was inadequate to take care of the retired servicemen's needs. Consequently, some of the dissatisfied retired military men became criminals and some joined the communists' army to fight against the government. Ibid., p. 2.

possible utilization of the retired servicemen by removing them from the relief rolls and placing them in productive employment.

To carry out the objectives of the assistance programs, an administrative organization--the Vocational Assistance Commission for Retired Servicemen (VACRS), under the direction of the Executive Yuan⁵--was formally established on November 1, 1954, with the responsibility of providing retired servicemen with assistance and placement.⁶

The assistance programs are long-range projects. This system, which had no precedent in China, has been successfully carried out. In the past seventeen years, a total of more than 220,000 retired officers and enlisted men have received various forms of assistance under the programs.⁷ They have been placed in employment and received needed medical care, home care, or schooling. These people, with the assistance rendered by the VACRS, are now living productive lives.

The operation of the assistance programs and the

⁵The Executive Yuan is one of the five branches of the Chinese government under the control of the President. The Executive Yuan, the most powerful branch, is concerned with governmental administration.

⁶Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., p. 148.

⁷The Operations Report of the Vocational Assistance Commission for Retired Servicemen, Executive Yuan, Republic of China (Taipei, Taiwan: The Veterans Printing Shop, January, 1972), p. 67.

military system is illustrated in Figure 1.1. The left half of this figure shows the operation of the military system; the right half shows the operation of the assistance programs. As it is shown the assistance programs are designed to coordinate with the retirement system of the Chinese military forces. Through the administrative organization (VACRS) the assistance programs provide the retired servicemen with assistance in the areas of employment, medical care, home care, or schooling. In doing this, the retired servicemen may continue to develop and can contribute their wisdom and talents to the nation's economic growth and social development by participating in various productive projects.

Definition of Terms

Some terms (words or phrases) are used repeatedly in this study. In order to orient the reader and for consonance of meaning, the following definitions are used throughout this study.

Retired servicemen--The individuals who have retired from professional military duty because of advanced age or physical disability. In this study the term includes both retired officers and enlisted men.

Organizational position--The job position in an organizational hierarchy. In this study it refers to one of the three job positions: supervisors, middle managers, and professionals.

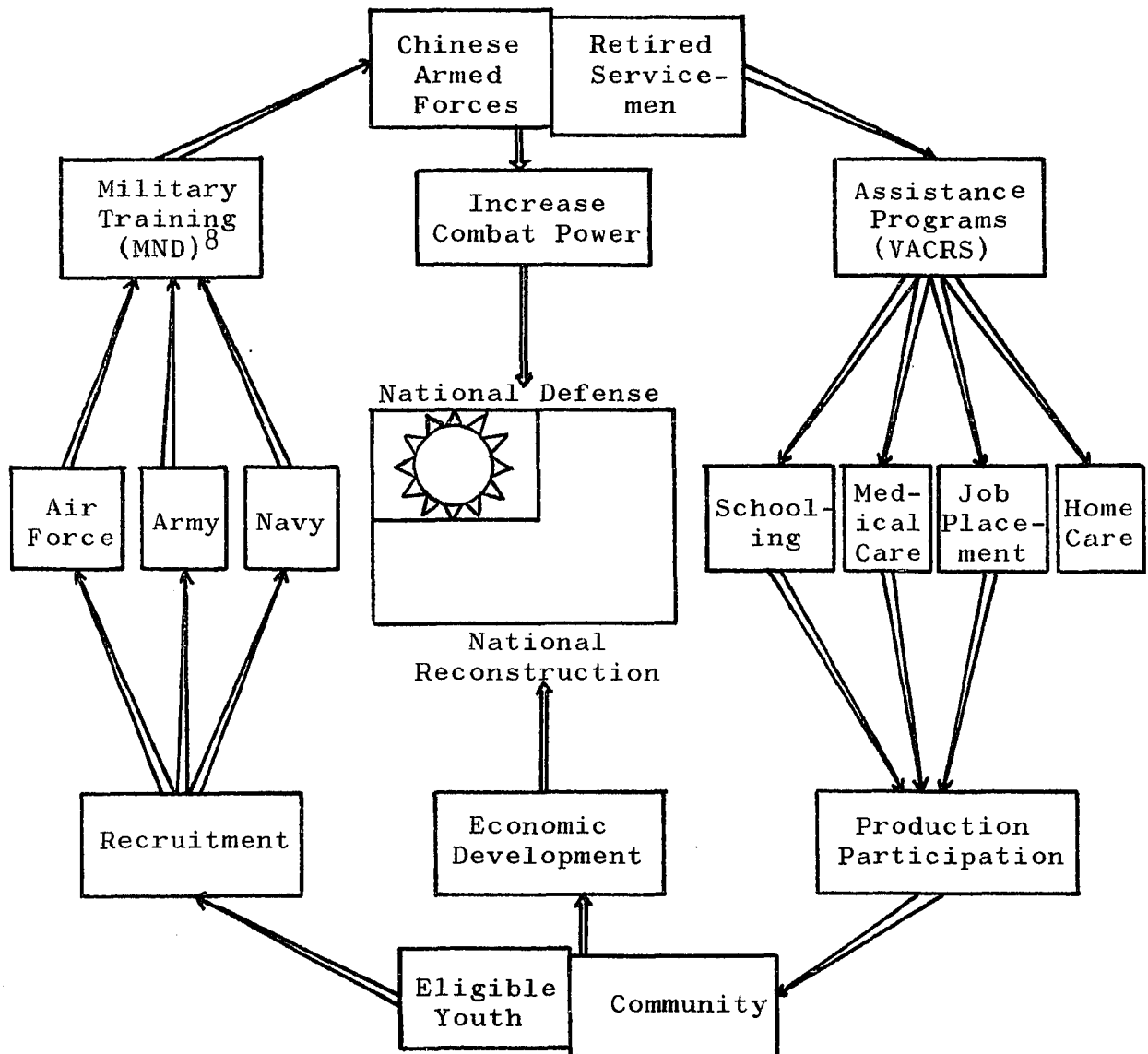


Figure 1.1. The Operation of the Assistance Programs and the Military System

SOURCE: Chinese Veterans, VACRS, Executive Yuan, Republic of China, 1970, p. 16.

⁸MND stands for Ministry of National Defense.

Motivators--Those job factors which are derived from the performance of the job itself, such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, challenging assignments, and the opportunity for growth.⁹ These variables have also been termed intrinsic or work-content factors, or satisfiers.

Hygienes--Those job factors which are derived from the environment surrounding the job, such as job security, working conditions, company policy and administration, and interpersonal relations.¹⁰ These hygiene factors have also been referred to as maintenance or work-context conditions, or dissatisfiers.

Central life interest--The expressed preference for a given locale or situation in carrying out an activity.¹¹ That is, central life interest should be those voluntary behavior areas in which individuals participate.

Job-oriented person--An individual who centers his life on his job. His major satisfactions and rewards, as well as his disappointments and frustrations are in direct connection with his work.¹²

⁹Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1959), p. 114.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 113.

¹¹Robert Dubin, "Industrial Workers' Worlds: A Study of the 'Central Life Interests' of Industrial Workers," Social Problems, 1956, Vol. 3, p. 134.

¹²Robert Dubin, The World of Work: Industrial Society and Human Relations (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958), pp. 255-256.

Non-job-oriented person--An individual who centers his life off the job. He is not emotionally involved in his work to any extent; work represents largely a source of income which is necessary to pursue the activities that are really important to him.¹³

Purpose of This Study

The growth of any empirical doctrine depends upon the systematic accumulation of verified knowledge. A major endeavor in the furthering of an empirical doctrine is to verify the previously observed events. Abraham Maslow, Frederick Herzberg, and Robert Dubin have provided some answers to what motivates human behavior. The purpose of this study is to examine the validity and generality of Herzberg's, Dubin's, and the traditional motivation theories in a different culture. This investigation will concern Chinese retired servicemen's job attitudes and the main sources of their motivation. For achieving this purpose, a survey of the Chinese retired servicemen's personal feelings toward their work was conducted.

The findings of this study will be analyzed and compared with the findings of the major motivation theories. Furthermore, some relevant research and literature concerning the motivational theories will be reviewed. The following section will present some brief summaries for each

¹³Ibid., pp. 256-257.

of the relevant theories. A more detailed discussion will be presented in Chapter III.

Major Motivation Theories

Maslow's Theory of Human Needs and Motivation

Maslow analyzed human motivation in organizational activity and found an orderly priority of human needs.¹⁴ According to his analysis, man is a creature of ever-expanding wants.¹⁵ Once his basic needs have been satisfied, other desires take their place. Thus, man's needs are ordered in a hierarchy, starting with his basic biological requirements and proceeding through a series of levels, each more intangible than the preceding one. In this hierarchy of basic human needs, Maslow has identified five levels: (1) physiological needs, (2) safety needs, (3) belonging and social needs, (4) esteem needs, and (5) self-actualization needs.¹⁶ The framework of need hierarchy and the elements in each level are illustrated in Figure 1.2.

Maslow proposed that in order to satisfy his needs man expends energy; but once a need has been fairly well fulfilled, it no longer acts as a strong motivating

¹⁴ Abraham H. Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," Psychological Review, July, 1943, Vol. 50, pp. 370-396; A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1954), pp. 80-92.

¹⁵ Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," op. cit., p. 370.

¹⁶ Ibid., p. 394.

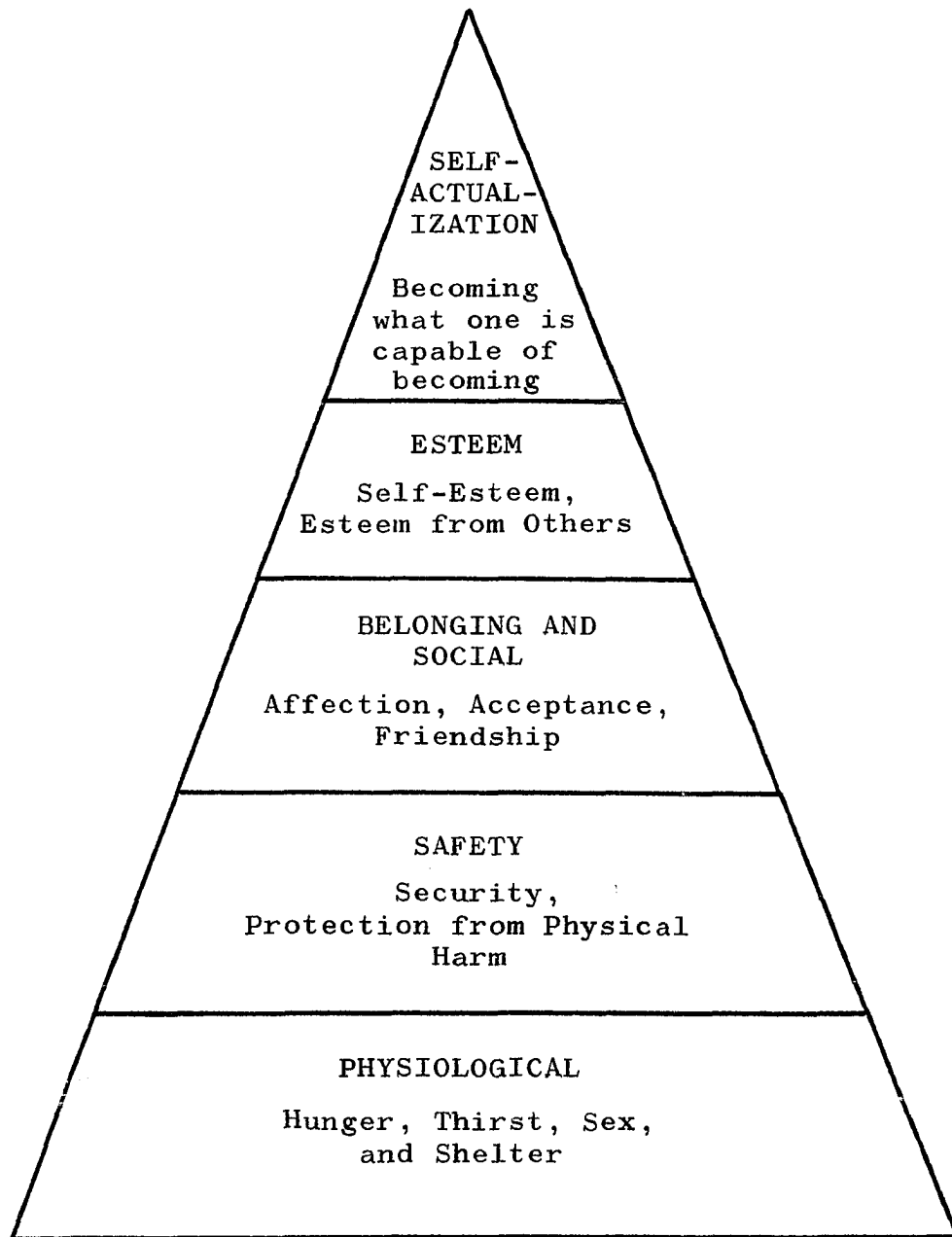


Figure 1.2. Maslow's Hierarchy of Basic Human Needs

SOURCE: James H. Donnelly, Jr., James L. Gibson, and John M. Ivancevich, Fundamentals of Management: Functions, Behavior, Models (Austin, Texas: Business Publications, Inc., 1971), p. 133.

force.¹⁷ Man's efforts are then directed toward satisfying the emerging need of the next level in the hierarchy.¹⁸ Thus, the emerging needs become the dominant motivators which direct the individual's behavior.

Maslow's theory concerning human needs and human behavior is considered a milestone in the behavioral sciences. It has had a significant influence on the thinking of many authors in the field of organizational behavior. It has also provided the impetus for a great deal of motivational research in the past two decades.

Single Continuum Theory of Motivation

The traditional single continuum motivation theory considers that the presence of any job factor may contribute to job satisfaction and its absence may lead to job dissatisfaction. Thus, the traditional theory views job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction as opposite extremes of a single continuum. An employee's job attitudes move along this continuum in response to increases or decreases in any job factor. It assumes that any addition to the job factors increases overall job satisfaction and any diminution of these job factors decreases job satisfaction or induces job dissatisfaction.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 393.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 375.

Herzberg's Dual-Factor Theory of Motivation

Contrary to the traditional single continuum theory, Herzberg and his co-authors found from their research that there is one set of job factors--motivators--which affect job attitudes only in the positive direction, thus leading to increased job satisfaction if present. But the absence of these factors would not necessarily induce job dissatisfaction.¹⁹ On the other hand, there is another set of job factors--hygienes--which lead to job dissatisfaction when absent, but their presence would not increase job satisfaction.²⁰

Thus, Herzberg proposed that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not the obverse of each other; rather they are two separate and parallel continua. The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction; rather it is no job satisfaction. Similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction; rather it is no job dissatisfaction.²¹

Herzberg's dual-factor (motivators and hygienes) theory is largely derived from Maslow's concept. His hygiene factors are akin to Maslow's lower-level needs. The motivators are closely related to Maslow's higher-order

¹⁹ Herzberg, et al., op. cit., pp. 111-114.

²⁰ Ibid., pp. 111-113.

²¹ Frederick Herzberg, "The Motivation-Hygiene Concept and Problems of Manpower," Personnel Administration, 1964, Vol. 27, p. 3.

needs.²² The relationship between Maslow's theory of need hierarchy and Herzberg's dual-factor model is illustrated in Figure 1.3.

As indicated in Figure 1.3, there is a great deal of similarity between Maslow's need hierarchy and Herzberg's dual-factor model. However, Herzberg's model draws a distinction between the two sets of job factors. He points out that motivators are intrinsic to the job and satisfy the individual's need for self-actualization in his work. Hygienes are extrinsic to the job and primarily serve to prevent job dissatisfaction and poor job performance.

Dubin's Theory of Central Life Interest

Usually, work has long been considered a central life interest (CLI) for workers. However, with the coming of industrial organizations, work and the performance of other activities have been separated. Thus, Robert Dubin views work as a necessary behavior for people to earn a living; it is not a central life interest for industrial workers.²³ In his opinion, workers may consider their work as providing the monetary means to pursue some important off-the-job activities.²⁴

²²James H. Donnelly, Jr., James L. Gibson, and John M. Ivancevich, Fundamentals of Management: Functions, Behavior, Models (Austin, Texas: Business Publications, Inc., 1971), p. 143.

²³Dubin, "Industrial Workers' Worlds: . . .," op. cit., p. 156.

²⁴Ibid., p. 135.

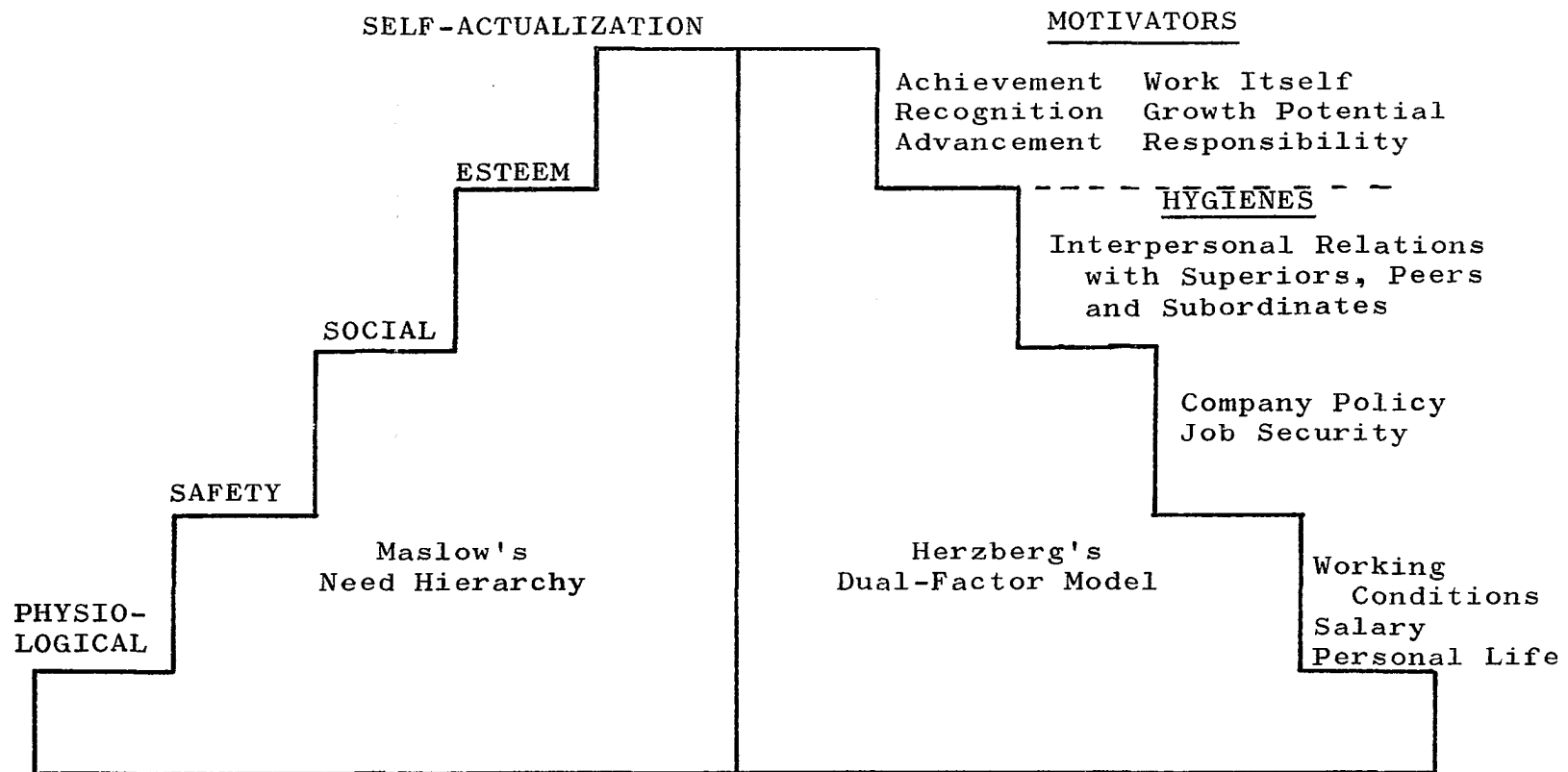


Figure 1.3. A Comparison of Maslow's Need Hierarchy and Herzberg's Dual-Factor Model

SOURCE: James H. Donnelly, Jr., James L. Gibson, and John M. Ivancevich, Fundamentals of Management: Functions, Behavior, Models (Austin, Texas: Business Publications, Inc., 1971), p. 143.

From the results of this study, Dubin concluded:

. . . the industrial workers' world is one in which work and the workplace are not central life interests for a vast majority. . . . Industrial man seems to perceive his life history as having its center outside of work for his intimate human relationship and for his feelings of enjoyment, happiness, and worth.²⁵

On the basis of his findings, concerning industrial workers, Dubin later hypothesized about the work values of managers: "Work, for probably a majority of workers, and even extending into the ranks of management, may represent an institutional setting that is not a central life interest for its participants."²⁶

The findings of Dubin's studies have been widely used as empirical evidence in support of many theoretical positions. His CLI questionnaire has also been used by many researchers to measure the job attitudes of people in various occupations.

Hypotheses to Be Tested

Most of the motivational theories are based upon social background in the United States. Obviously, the culture, social structure, economic situation, technology, ideological orientation, and the availability of job opportunities are quite different in the Republic of China.

²⁵Ibid., p. 140.

²⁶Robert Dubin, "Industrial Research and the Discipline of Sociology," In proceedings of the 11th annual meeting (Madison, Wisconsin: Industrial Relations Research Association, 1958), p. 161.

These differences in environment may significantly affect the employees' attitude toward their jobs and the sources of their job satisfaction.

In order to achieve the objective of this study--to examine the validity and generality of Herzberg's, Dubin's, and the traditional motivation theories by investigating the retired servicemen's job attitudes and the sources of their job satisfaction--the following hypotheses will be tested (the hypotheses that deal with Herzberg's theory²⁷ are stated differently than his original findings because of the afore-mentioned differences inherent in Chinese culture):

1. Motivators will be insignificant in contributing to the feelings of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction among the retired servicemen surveyed, regardless of organization position.
2. Hygienes will be significant in contributing to the feelings of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction among the retired servicemen surveyed, regardless of organization position.

Hypotheses relating to Dubin's theory²⁸ are stated similarly with minor changes to incorporate the retired servicemen sampled in this study:

²⁷Herzberg, et al., op. cit., p. 29.

²⁸Dubin, "Industrial Workers' Worlds: . . .," op. cit., pp. 135-138.

3. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will be classified as non-job-oriented when central life interest is measured with the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.
4. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will be non-job-oriented with respect to informal group experiences, when measured on the relevant portion of the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.
5. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will not respond to work as a valued social experience when tested by the general experience section of the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.
6. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will score job-oriented for their organizational experiences when measured on the organizational section of the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.
7. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will be job-oriented for their experiences with technological aspects of their environments when measured on the technological section of the CLI questionnaire, regardless

of organization position.

Sample Design

A survey was conducted to test the hypotheses for examining the validity and generality of Herzberg's and Dubin's theories and for investigating the retired servicemen's job attitudes and the sources of motivations in the assistance programs for retired servicemen. The data from the questionnaires were obtained from the retired servicemen selected by a random sample.

The sample of respondents for this study consisted of 450 retired servicemen employed by the VACRS affiliated agencies as supervisors, middle managers, and professionals. Typical job titles of these managers and professionals were foremen, general foremen, bureau chiefs, department heads, superintendents, plant managers, and engineers. The following definitions were used to obtain the list of employees for each of these three organizational positions.

"Supervisor" is defined as those who are on the lowest level of management in the organization, such as the first-line foreman.

The "middle manager" is defined as those who direct and control the work of one or more supervisors, i.e., those positions above the first level of supervision, but below the major departmental-head level.

"Professional" is defined as those employees who have specific skills and whose primary contribution is

professional expertise, i.e., whose major job is the performance of activities in the areas of their specific training.

The occupational position of an employee might influence his source of satisfaction. In order to eliminate this influence in statistical analysis of the responses, Friedlander chose an equal number of two hundred employees in each of the three organizational positions.²⁹ For convenience of analysis and comparison, this writer chose an equal sample size in each organizational position: one hundred and fifty management personnel were first-line supervisors or foremen, one hundred and fifty were middle managers, and one hundred and fifty were professionals.

The 450 retired servicemen were selected from 10 different job positions in 20 different VACRS-affiliated agencies dispersed over a geographic area that included 12 cities and counties in the Taiwan Province. The purpose of choosing a large number of agencies in dispersed areas with only a few representatives from each agency is an attempt to reduce the possibly biasing effect of a particular philosophy that may permeate an organization. When a study concentrates on a few units, it becomes increasingly difficult to generalize the findings to other organizations

²⁹For a detailed description see Frank Friedlander, "An Analysis of the Relationship among Sources of Job Satisfaction" (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Department of Psychology, Western Reserve University), 1962, pp. 30-32.

because of the possibility of this biasing effect. Therefore, this writer believes that a sample of a few members drawn from a large number of agencies is more likely to be representative of the retired servicemen employed in VACRS-affiliated agencies.

Procedures of the Survey

The data for this study were obtained by means of a questionnaire (see Appendix A). It contains three separate parts. The first two parts are adopted from Friedlander's study.³⁰ Part I measures the feelings of importance indicated by the respondents to each of the 18 job factors as sources of satisfaction. Part II measures the feelings of importance indicated by the same respondents to the negative aspects of the same 18 job factors as sources of dissatisfaction.

Part III is adopted from Dubin's central life interest questionnaire³¹ which is used to test the respondents'

³⁰For further detail see Frank Friedlander, op. cit., "An Analysis of the Relationship among Sources of Job Satisfaction," pp. 24, 59-60. In 1964, he added another item to the questionnaire in his article--Job Characteristics as Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers. Parts I and II of the questionnaire used in this study are the same 18-item instruments constructed by Friedlander. These two questionnaires are deposited with the American Documentation Institute. Order Document No. 8027 from ADI Auxiliary Publication Project, Photoduplication Service, Library of Congress, Washington, D.C.

³¹The 32-statement CLI questionnaire and the modified scoring procedure were adapted in this study. For a detailed description see Chapter III or see Robert Dubin, op. cit., 'Industrial Workers' Worlds.'

attitudes toward their jobs, i.e., job-oriented or non-job-oriented. The types of questions in Part III were randomly distributed among four subsections: informal group participation, general social experiences, the formal aspects of membership and behavior in organizations, and the technical aspects of work environment. This was done as a precaution against the respondents' reacting to any patterns and, moreover, to randomize the responses if the respondents did not answer honestly.

All of the three parts of the questionnaire were translated into Chinese (see Appendix B). Some of the statements were slightly adjusted in order to make them more meaningful in Chinese.

For the purpose of further analysis and to gain a better understanding of the type of retired serviceman who responds at each organization position, four additional questions were included in the questionnaire: age, education level, job title, and average monthly income. These demographic items are used to describe the characteristics of the retired servicemen. Knowledge of the respondents' job titles is a critical variable for classifying their organizational position.

The one hundred and fifty retired servicemen's names from each of the three organizational positions were selected randomly by Dr. Cheng-yat Tang (a professor of political science at Tunghai University and this writer's

good friend) with the help of several chiefs from the Statistics Department of the VACRS. The questionnaire was distributed personally to the sampled retired servicemen by five chiefs of the Statistics Department. The sampled retired servicemen in each VACRS-affiliated agency were notified one week in advance that a certain chief was going to meet them at a particular time during their working hours. When they met together the chief gave them an orientation concerning the objectives of this research and the techniques to fill out the questionnaire correctly. It was emphasized that this research project was carried out by this writer at a university; it was not a VACRS-sponsored research. Thus, individual anonymity was guaranteed.

In addition, it was explained that the VACRS had agreed to cooperate in this research project and that each sampled individual was to complete the questionnaire, following the orientation, in the presence of the chief. Therefore, the return rate of this survey was one hundred per cent.

Research Methodology

The data obtained from the survey was analyzed by using four statistical techniques: Chi-square test, analysis of variance, t-test, and Pearson product-moment correlation analysis. For conducting these analyses and tests, the job factors in Friedlander's questionnaire were

quantified on a four-point rating scale. Relative scores ranged from one, representing a weak contributor to the situation, to four, representing a strong contributor to the situation.

The responses of the three organizational positions to the satisfying situations were subjected to a variance analysis, separately by each organizational position. This was done to determine whether these responses attributed a significantly different importance to the 18 job factors in contributing to the feelings of satisfaction. If there was a significant difference, the 18 job factors would be ordered by their mean scores to show the sequence of their importance. The responses to the dissatisfying situation were analyzed in the same way.

By subjecting the difference between the mean satisfying score on a job factor and the mean dissatisfying score of the same job factor to a t-test, it can be determined whether that job factor is significantly more important in causing either a satisfying or a dissatisfying situation. This test was made for the mean scores of each job factor. In addition, a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for each separate job factor was computed to determine whether that job factor was significantly related to both the satisfying and dissatisfying situations. This test of significance was also made for each job factor. Then inferences were drawn concerning Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory and the traditional single continuum theory.

Each question in Dubin's questionnaire gave the respondent three alternatives; he was forced to select one and only one answer. The three alternatives were directed toward work-centered area, non-work-centered area, and an indifferent response.

The central life interest data were used as a basis for categorizing each respondent of the three organizational positions as job-oriented or non-job-oriented. Each response to the thirty-two questions from the CLI questionnaire was individually scored as either job-oriented, non-job-oriented, or indifferent. Then each respondent was classified as either job-oriented or non-job-oriented in his total value orientation.

Within these thirty-two statements, four groups of eight statements each were separately scored to obtain a job-oriented or non-job-oriented score for four types of relations: informal, general, formal, and technical.

The central life interest data were analyzed by using the Chi-square technique. Inferences were drawn from the sample tested to determine whether Dubin's conclusions hold true for the total population studied and whether these conclusions are independent of the respondents' organizational position.

Scope and Limitations

The sample of this survey was chosen only from those retired servicemen who work for the VACRS-affiliated

agencies. Those who work for private companies or other government agencies were not included. Moreover, the sample was further limited to those who work at the lower, middle management, and professional levels. Blue-collar workers were not included in this survey.

The use of questionnaires as a data gathering device has some basic limitations. First, a sufficient percentage of the population surveyed must return the completed questionnaires. In order to insure a high percentage of returns the following procedures were used:

1. The format of the questionnaire was designed to require a minimum amount of time and effort to complete.

2. Five chiefs in the Statistics Department of the VACRS were sent to each affiliated agency involved to distribute the questionnaire to the sampled retired servicemen. Following an orientation period, the questionnaires were completed in the presence of the chief.

The second inherent limitation is the possible ambiguity of communication in the questions asked and the replies received. This limitation was overcome by the orientation and personal explanation made by the five chiefs in the Statistics Department of the VACRS and by slightly adjusting the meaning of some of the statements in the questionnaire to make them more meaningful in Chinese.

Third, this study is based upon the assumption that the responses to the questionnaire were a truthful

reflection of their feelings.

Fourth, only a sample of supervisors, middle managers, and professionals were included in the research. Thus, the results of this study cannot be generalized to the total population of retired servicemen or to all workers in China. The conclusions are limited to the sample of retired servicemen working in the VACRS-affiliated agencies.

Organization of This Study

This study is presented in six chapters, including this chapter. Chapter II is a brief discussion of the major accomplishments of the assistance programs under the control of the VACRS. The organizational system of the VACRS, the functions of its major departments, the activities of its affiliated agencies, and some other services and activities for the retired servicemen will be examined. This examination, it is hoped, will provide a better understanding of what has been done for the retired servicemen and how successful the programs have been.

Chapter III concerns itself with a review of some important theoretical and empirical works pertaining to the motivation theories which provide a foundation of this study. The literature concerning Maslow's theory of needs satisfaction were reviewed. The research surrounding Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory and Dubin's central life interest theory were presented.

Chapter IV contains an examination of the sources

of motivations for the retired servicemen by analyzing the data obtained from the questionnaire-type survey. Two proposed hypotheses relating to Herzberg's theory were tested. The findings of this examination were analyzed to test the validity and generality of the traditional single continuum theory of motivation and Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory of job satisfaction.

In Chapter V the Chinese retired servicemen's job attitudes were examined by analyzing the responses to Dubin's CLI questionnaire. Dubin's five hypotheses, adapted in this research, were tested. The findings from this analysis were compared with Dubin's in order to examine the validity and generality of his conclusions concerning the central life interest of employees.

Chapter VI includes the summary and conclusions of the entire study, with special attention to the examinations conducted in Chapters IV and V. Some recommendations to the practitioners and researchers are also presented.

CHAPTER II

MAJOR ACCOMPLISHMENTS OF THE ASSISTANCE PROGRAMS FOR RETIRED SERVICEMEN

Before beginning the investigation of the retired servicemen's job attitudes and the sources of their motivations, we should first have a better understanding of what has been done for the retired servicemen and how successful the assistance programs have been. Therefore, in this chapter we will examine the organizational system of the Vocational Assistance Commission for Retired Servicemen (VACRS--which carries out the programs), the major functions of its departments and offices, the activities of its affiliated agencies, and some other services and activities for these men.

The VACRS Organizational System and the Major Functions of Its Departments and Offices

To accomplish the objectives of the assistance programs for retired servicemen, an administrative organization, the Vocational Assistance Commission for Retired Servicemen, under the direction of the Executive Yuan,¹

¹The Executive Yuan is one of the five branches of the Chinese Government under the control of the President.

was formally established on November 1, 1954.² The VACRS is an agency of the Chinese government and is directed by a chairman who is appointed by the President of the Republic of China. The purpose as well as the responsibility of this agency, as its title implies, is to assist retired servicemen in making the transition from military to civilian life. In doing this, VACRS provides the retired servicemen with assistance in employment, medical care, home care, schooling, or other services where needed.

In order to meet the increased requirements of the expanding military retirement roll (from ten thousand each year before 1965 to twenty-six thousand in 1971),³ the VACRS, with its Organization Act, adopted and amended by the Legislative Yuan,⁴ has been reorganized and expanded three times, first in December, 1955, second in July, 1957, and again in September, 1966.⁵

The Executive Yuan, the most powerful branch, is mainly concerned with governmental administration.

²Tsu-yu Chao, An Introduction of the Assistance Systems for Retired Servicemen (Taipei, Taiwan, Republic of China: The Torch of Victory Monthly Publisher, 1963), p. 148.

³The Operations Report of the Vocational Assistance Commission for Retired Servicemen, Executive Yuan, Republic of China (Taipei, Taiwan: The Veterans Printing Shop, January, 1972), p. 1.

⁴The Legislative Yuan is another branch of the Chinese Government. It is concerned mainly with legislation and control of government budget.

⁵Fifteen-Year Operations, VACRS, Executive Yuan, Republic of China, Nov., 1969, p. 30.

At present, the VACRS consists of twelve departments and five offices.⁶ The organizational system is illustrated in Figure 2.1. The major functions of each of these departments and offices are briefly summarized as follows:

Department I is responsible for matters pertaining to retired servicemen's education, recreation, benefits, privileges, and welfare programs, as well as conducting guidance programs for the retired servicemen.

Department II is concerned with aspects pertaining to retirement, classification, assignment, and data processing of retired servicemen's records.

Department III handles matters relating to retired servicemen's vocational training, job negotiation, and liaison with other governmental agencies and private organizations.

Department IV is in charge of matters pertaining to the placement, supervision, and operational control of retired servicemen placed in the VACRS-affiliated farming, forestry, fishery, and livestock enterprises.

Department V has responsibility for the placement, supervision, and operational control of retired servicemen placed in the VACRS-affiliated engineering, industrial, mining, and pharmaceutical organizations.

⁶The Brief Report of Operations, VACRS, Executive Yuan, Republic of China, January, 1971, p. 5.

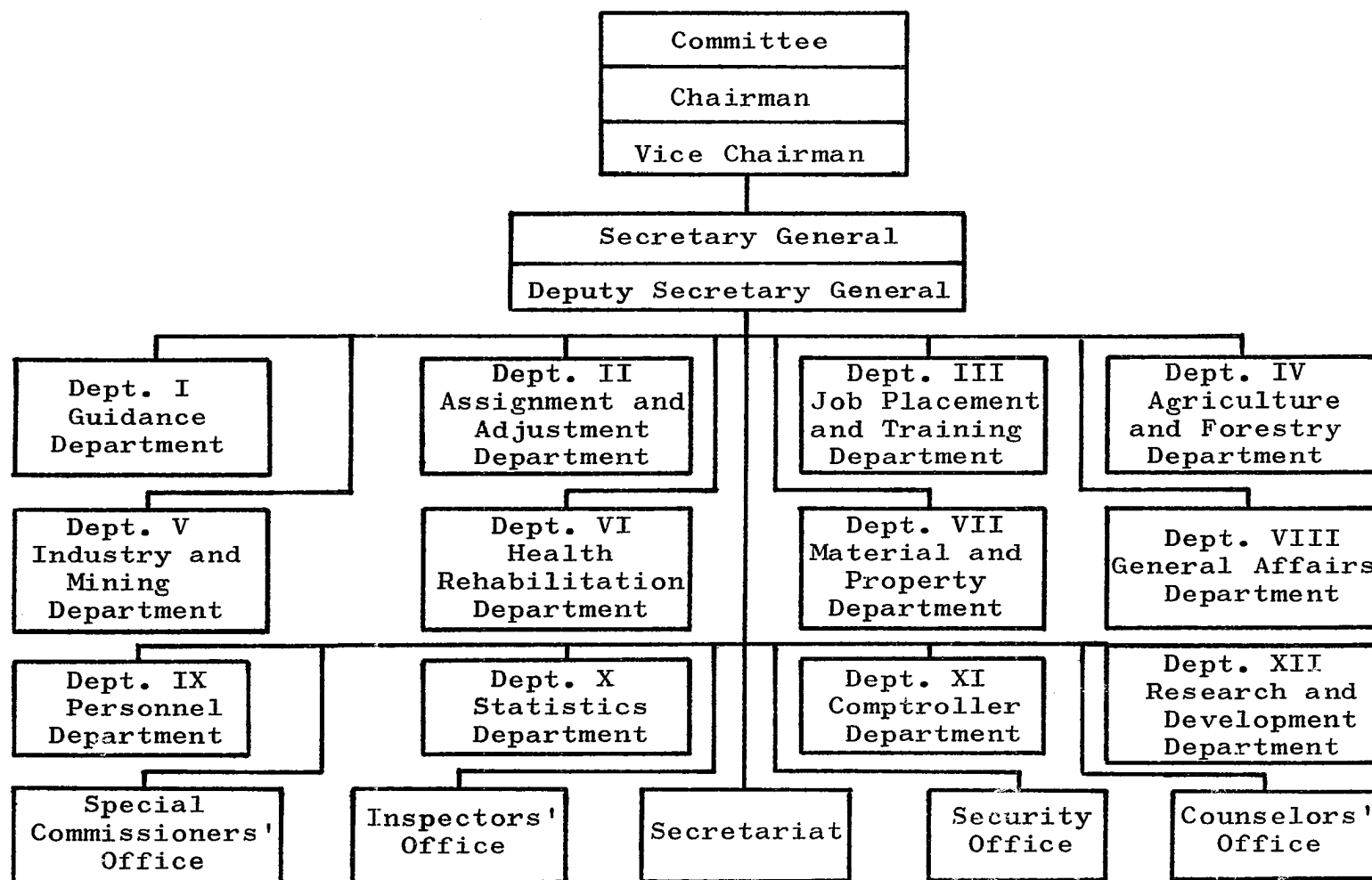


Figure 2.1. VACRS Organizational System.

SOURCE: The Brief Report of Operations, VACRS, Executive Yuan (Republic of China, January, 1971), p. 5.

Department VI is concerned with retired service-men's health rehabilitation, hospitalization, medical material supply, home care, and rehabilitation of the crippled and invalid.

Department VII has charge of registration and management of properties, purchase of supplies, and sale of products.

Department VIII's responsibility is for general administrative affairs such as documents, official seals, expenditures, receipts, and other routine affairs not provided for in other departments.

Department IX is concerned with personnel affairs for the VACRS and its affiliated agencies.

Department X collects and processes statistical data for the VACRS and its affiliated agencies.

Department XI has responsibility for accounting, auditing, and the annual budget of the VACRS and its affiliated agencies.

Department XII is charged with research projects and future development of the assistance programs.

The Special Commissioners' Office deals with the design and evaluation of special technical problems. The Inspectors' Office is responsible for supervision and investigation. The Secretariat reviews and compiles important correspondence and documents of the VACRS. The Security Office concerns itself with aspects pertaining

to the safety of the retired servicemen and the VACRS-affiliated agencies. The Counselors' Office handles matters relating to the investigation and formulation of regulations, the operational plans and orders, and the review of policies.⁷

The VACRS-Affiliated Agencies and Their Activities

In order to meet its objectives and to render better services to retired servicemen, the VACRS creates and activates service organizations and production enterprises. In the past 17 years, the VACRS has created and activated ninety-nine affiliated units, which fall into the following eleven major categories: agriculture, forestry, fishery and livestock, engineering, industry and mining, transportation, commerce, medical installations, homes, job training and cultural activity, and services.⁸ A summary of these affiliated agencies is shown in Table 2.1. With improvements in techniques, facilities, management, and diligence on the part of the employed retired servicemen, the production enterprises have steadily increased the output and diversity of their products. The average income of these retired servicemen employed by the production enterprises has exceeded twice the nation's per

⁷Organization Act of Vocational Assistance Commission for Retired Servicemen, VACRS, Executive Yuan, Republic of China, 1966, pp. 2-5.

⁸The Brief Report of Operations, op. cit., p. 7.

TABLE 2.1

VACRS AFFILIATED AGENCIES, JANUARY, 1971

| Classification | Subdivision | Quantity | |
|-----------------------|--|----------|-------|
| | | Unit | Total |
| Agriculture | Reclamation Administration | 1 | 17 |
| | Farms | 16 | |
| Forestry | Forest Development Administration | 1 | 3 |
| | Forest Work Teams | 2 | |
| Fishery and Livestock | Oceanic Fishing Development Admin. | 1 | 4 |
| | Fish Propagation Administration | 1 | |
| | Aquatic Products Propagation Farm | 1 | |
| | Livestock Farm | 1 | |
| Engineering | Retired Servicemen Engineering Agency (RSEA) | 1 | 1 |
| Industry and Mining | Factories | 12 | 14 |
| | South Sea Resources Development Adm. | 1 | |
| | Kinsan Mine | 1 | |
| Transportation | Retired Servicemen Bus Co. | 1 | 1 |
| Commerce | Retired Servicemen Products Supply Center | 1 | 4 |
| | Retired Servicemen Restaurants | 2 | |
| | Retired Servicemen Hotel | 1 | |
| Medical Installations | Veterans General Hospital | 1 | 13 |
| | Veterans Hospitals | 10 | |
| | Convalescent Hospital | 1 | |
| | Rehabilitation Center | 1 | |

TABLE 2.1 (Continued)

| Classification | Subdivision | Quantity | |
|--|----------------------------------|----------|-------|
| | | Unit | Total |
| Homes | Veterans Homes | 11 | 11 |
| Job Training and Cultural Activity | Vocational Training Centers | 5 | 8 |
| | Veterans Children's Nursery | 1 | |
| | Veterans Weekly | 1 | |
| | Cultural and Recreational Troupe | 1 | |
| Service | Liaison Centers | 23 | 23 |
| Grand Total | | | 99 |

SOURCE: The Brief Report of Operations, VACRS, Executive Yuan, R.O.C., January, 1971, p. 7.

capita income.⁹ This has helped reduce the financial burden on the government, expanded the ability to accommodate more retired servicemen, and contribute considerably to the nation's economic growth.

The various services rendered to the retired servicemen and their dependents are as follows: vocational assistance, medical care, home care, schooling, placement of retired servicemen's dependents, education and care of veterans' children, and land grants to retired servicemen.¹⁰ In the remainder of this chapter, the activities of each of these eleven categories will be briefly discussed.

Agriculture

At present, the VACRS has a reclamation administration and sixteen cooperative farms scattered throughout the Taiwan Province.¹¹ These farms, with a total of 17,500 hectares of land, produce rice, cereals, fruits, vegetables, and raw materials for domestic consumption and export. They also raise animals, silkworms, and plant mulberry trees for sericulture.¹²

The Retired Servicemen Reclamation Administration

⁹Chinese Veterans, VACRS, Executive Yuan, Republic of China, 1970, p. 19.

¹⁰The Codification of Assistance Regulations, VACRS, Executive Yuan, R.O.C., January, 1970, pp. 1-4.

¹¹The Brief Report of Operations, op. cit., p. 7.

¹²Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 45.

of the VACRS is the largest agricultural organization in Taiwan.¹³ It has eight land reclamation and farming teams equipped with heavy equipment and plowing machines, and two work stations for tidal land reclamation. It also has organized three agricultural experimental districts.¹⁴ Apart from its regular work of land reclamation, the Administration conducts land surveys and engages in land development, soil conservation, and irrigation engineering. It has trained the retired servicemen in the use of farming machines and substantially supported the agricultural development of Taiwan.

In the past seventeen years, retired servicemen have developed a total of 12,400 hectares of formerly barren land into arable land.¹⁵ This considerably enlarged the arable land of Taiwan and increased agricultural production. The fields thus developed have served as a means for creating additional job opportunities for retired servicemen.

Forestry

There are abundant forest resources along the East/-West Cross Island Highway built by retired servicemen. In October, 1959, the VACRS established a Forest Development

¹³Ibid., p. 60.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 62.

¹⁵Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., pp. 104-109.

Administration to exploit the virgin forest. The annual production of logs amounts to 100,000 cubic meters.¹⁶ In addition to supplying the local market, the products are used for export sale to earn foreign exchange.¹⁷ Reforestation is made following the logging. The above mentioned Administration has a lumber factory and a sawmill which provides more job opportunities for retired servicemen.

In addition to the Forest Development Administration, VACRS has established two forest work teams for logging, forestation, sapling cultivation, and forest road construction.¹⁸

Fishery and Livestock

In the field of fishery, the VACRS has established a number of agencies (Oceanic Fishing Development Administration, Fish Propagation Administration, and Aquatic Products Propagation Farm) which respectively deal with salt water fishing, the propagation of fresh water fish, and aquatic products.¹⁹

1. The Oceanic Fishing Development Administration is concerned with the tuna fishing fleet. The fishing area has been extended as far as the Atlantic and

¹⁶Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 68.

¹⁷Ibid.

¹⁸Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., pp. 172-173.

¹⁹Ibid., pp. 173-176.

Indian Oceans.²⁰

2. The Fish Propagation Administration at present has 184 ponds which are used to propagate fresh water fish of various kinds to supply the domestic markets. The Administration also raises tropical fish with modern methods for export sale.²¹

3. The Aquatic Products Propagation Farm makes use of the nearby beaches to raise clams and oysters, eels, and salt water fish.²²

The Livestock Farm established by VACRS at Taoyuan is equipped with the latest chicken-raising equipment.²³ This farm constitutes the most modern of the agricultural enterprises of the VACRS. It has a factory of its own to produce chicken feed. In addition, there are other veteran-operated farms producing cattle, hogs, rabbits, and turkeys.

To promote the eastern land development project and to place those retired servicemen who are only able to do light work, the two veterans farms located in East Taiwan have directed their efforts toward the development of sericulture.²⁴ Mulberry trees and silkworms are raised. The quality of the cocoon produced is excellent. This new

²⁰Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 75.

²¹Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., p. 174.

²²Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 74.

²³Ibid., p. 81.

²⁴Ibid., p. 66.

undertaking has enjoyed rapid growth.

Engineering

To place retired servicemen in the construction trades, in 1956 the VACRS established the Retired Servicemen Engineering Agency²⁵ (RSEA) with the responsibility for planning and managing the veterans' construction projects. Manned with 7,000 staff members and equipped with 3,000 sets of heavy equipment and 6,000 pieces of machine tools, the RSEA has become the largest engineering agency of its kind in the Republic of China.²⁶ RSEA undertakes various construction works such as highways, bridges, dams and reservoirs, bays and harbors, dredging, and airfields.²⁷

The most difficult but commendable engineering work accomplished by the retired servicemen is the construction of the East-West Cross Island Highway. This highway is 350 kilometers long and passes through the forested and rocky Central Mountain Range. The project took three years and ten months to complete.²⁸ This highway not only has a great value for transportation but also contributes greatly to the development of the eastern area's resources

²⁵Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., p. 183.

²⁶Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 107.

²⁷Ibid.

²⁸Before the completion of this highway, the Central Mountain Range had isolated the eastern part from the rest of the Island. Chinese Veterans, op. cit., p. 36.

and to the improvement of the living conditions of the aboriginal people. In addition, it helps promote tourism in Taiwan.

The Tsengwen Reservoir, which is under construction by the retired servicemen, is the largest multi-purpose reservoir of its kind in Taiwan.²⁹ After completion, the reservoir will have a gross storage capacity of 9 hundred million cubic meters of water and will supply irrigation water to 85,400 hectares of irrigable land. It will bring about an anticipated increase in crop production of 140,000 metric tons of rice, supply 228,500 metric tons of public water, and generate electricity of 53,900 kilowatts annually.³⁰ It will also contribute to flood control and provide a scenic attraction.

In recent years, the RSEA has even extended its technical service to foreign countries, such as Indonesia, Thailand, and Vietnam. They have done harbor and river dredging in Vietnam and constructed a highway in Thailand. The retired servicemen are now doing dredging work on the Mekong Delta and building highways in Thailand and Indonesia.³¹ This earns valuable foreign exchange for the government and promotes friendly ties with other nations.

²⁹Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 126.

³⁰Ibid.

³¹Central Daily News (Taipei, Taiwan, Republic of China, March 10, 1972), p. 3.

Industry and Mining

To create more job opportunities for the retired servicemen and to help develop the nation's industry, the VACRS has created and/or activated twelve large factories since 1957.³² They are: Taoyuan Wood Complex Factory, Chungli Rug Factory, Changhwa Garment Factory, Kangshan Sisal Products Plant, Taipei Iron Works, Retired Servicemen Pharmaceutical Plant, Retired Servicemen Printing Shop, Taipei Beverage Bottling Plant, Oxygen Manufacturing Plants, Taichung Lumber Factory, Hsinchu Explosive Works, and Machine Tool Shop, respectively producing wood articles, furniture, clothes, rugs, machine tools, sisal products, medicines, medical materials, sandpaper, grinding patches, pulp and paper, printed materials, beverages, vehicles bodies, oxygen, explosives and demolition materials.³³

In addition to supplying the local markets, these products are exported to the United States, Canada, and the Southeast Asian countries.³⁴ Profits earned are used to improve the welfare of the retired servicemen and to establish more factories to accommodate additional retired servicemen.

In the field of mining, VACRS has also established

³²The Brief Reports of Operation, op. cit., p. 7.

³³Fifteen-year Operations, op. cit., p. 83.

³⁴Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., p. 179.

a number of agencies. The Kinshan Mine and the South Sea Resources Development Agency are directly subordinate to VACRS. The Marble Quarry and the Gravel Plant are subordinate to the Retired Servicemen Engineering Agency.³⁵ These agencies mine sand ore, limonite, phosphorus ore, marble gravel, and collect sea-weeds and sea-cucumbers.

In 1959 the RSEA of VACRS set up a marble quarry at Hualien to undertake the mining of the abundant marble resources along the eastern section of the East-West Cross Island Highway. With the improvement in equipment and facilities in recent years, this marble quarry has produced excellent construction materials and handicraft articles for domestic and foreign markets.³⁶

Transportation

In 1969, VACRS established the Retired Servicemen Bus Company, which is operated with private and overseas capital and is staffed by retired servicemen and their dependents. This bus company provides transportation service from the suburban community where the National Chengchi University is located to downtown Taipei City. It charges half fare to teachers, government employees, servicemen, retired servicemen and their dependents; it charges only 10 per cent of the normal fare to the

³⁵Ibid., p. 182.

³⁶Fifteen-year Operations, op. cit., p. 101.

student commuters.³⁷

Commerce

In the field of commerce, the VACRS has set up the following agencies: the Retired Servicemen Products Supply Center, the Taipei and Taichung Retired Servicemen Restaurants, and the Lishan Guest House. The Retired Servicemen Products Supply Center handles the export sales of farm products produced by the veterans' farms, and the sales to Taiwan of sea foods produced on the offshore islands.³⁸ The Taipei and Taichung Retired Servicemen Restaurants are staffed by the retired servicemen and their dependents. The food products produced by the retired servicemen are also used.³⁹ The Lishan Guest House, staffed by retired servicemen, provides lodging to guests visiting the E/W Cross Island Highway.⁴⁰

Medical Installations

Those retired servicemen who are injured, sick, or handicapped are placed in various veterans' hospitals for medical treatment. After recovery they are assisted in employment, schooling, or home care.

To provide medical care to the retired servicemen,

³⁷Chinese Veterans, op. cit., p. 42.

³⁸Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 104.

³⁹Ibid.

⁴⁰Chinese Veterans, op. cit., p. 42.

the VACRS has established thirteen medical organizations with a total capacity of 13,000 beds,⁴¹ including one veterans general hospital and twelve veterans hospitals scattered throughout Taiwan. The Veterans General Hospital, the best and the largest of its kind in the Far East,⁴² is designed to treat the more serious and complicated cases, to provide assistance to the various other veterans hospitals in regard to medical treatment and supplies, to serve as a medical research center, and also to provide for the training of medical personnel.⁴³ The other veterans hospitals are used to accommodate the less serious cases, with the chronic cases being treated at specialized hospitals. With constant improvement in equipment and techniques, these medical installations have gained a widespread praise for their excellent service.

One veterans hospital at Suao is designed as a rehabilitation center receiving those disabled retired servicemen who still can work after recovery. During their recovery period, they are given physical and technical training to prepare them for employment after release from the hospital. Disabled retired servicemen in the rehabilitation center are supplied with artificial limbs, dental

⁴¹The Reports of Assistance Operations, VACRS, Executive Yuan, Republic of China, April 7, 1971, p. 4.

⁴²Chinese Veterans, op. cit., p. 49.

⁴³Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., p. 195.

care, glasses, hearing aids, etc.⁴⁴ They are also trained in the use and maintenance of the equipment.

The Kohlberg Memorial Medical Research Laboratory located in the Veterans General Hospital has made significant achievements in the fields of cardiovascular diseases, pulmonary functions, hematology, biochemistry, medical isotopes, immunology, virology, and pharmaceutical chemistry.⁴⁵ This has contributed greatly not only to the improvement of the medical techniques of the various veterans hospitals but also to the medical research and development of the nation.

To assist the government in carrying out its social welfare program, the veterans hospitals have also made their facilities available for treatment of the local people and provide medical treatment to government employees, teachers, and labor workers under the medical insurance program.⁴⁶

Homes

There are eleven Veterans Convalescent Homes with a total capacity of 14,000 to accommodate the old and disabled retired servicemen at government expense.⁴⁷ These homes are under the direction of the VACRS. The inhabitants are

⁴⁴Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 180.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 169.

⁴⁶The Brief Reports of Operations, op. cit., p. 14.

⁴⁷The Reports of Assistance Operations, op. cit.,
p. 5.

provided with a room, free clothing, meals, transportation, pocket money, entertainment, and medical care.⁴⁸

The very elderly are supplied with the same services as those at the rehabilitation center at Suao. Those who are still able to do some light work are encouraged and trained in the production of handicraft articles.⁴⁹ By doing this they benefit not only from increasing their personal income but receive the important psychological stimulus of productive work.

Job Training

With a view to improving retired servicemen's skills so they can earn a better living, the VACRS conducts various kinds of job training programs. In past years, the training has included vocational and technical training, specialized training, education, and defense training.⁵⁰

Vocational and Technical Training

For the placement of retired servicemen, VACRS conducts the following vocational and technical training:

Professional Training--This training is designed to produce primary school and junior high school teachers, accountants, policemen, chemical technicians, Class II

⁴⁸Chinese Veterans, op. cit., p. 55.

⁴⁹Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., p. 198.

⁵⁰Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 192.

shipmen, drivers, mechanics, and electricians.⁵¹ The training is conducted either by VACRS or by other agencies on a commissioned basis.

Employment Training--The VACRS, through its vocational training centers, provides employment training which enables the retired servicemen to acquire a skill for employment.

Prior Assignment Training--Those retired servicemen who are accepted through an employment examination or selected through a screening examination receive a short period of training or orientation before they are assigned to a job.⁵²

Specialized Training

In order to improve the knowledge of the staff members of the VACRS and its affiliated agencies at all levels, VACRS regularly hold special seminars or courses in the fields of enterprise management, production techniques, property management, administration, personnel management, accounting, etc.⁵³

Education

In order to evaluate their educational level, all

⁵¹The Brief Reports of Operations, op. cit., p. 20.

⁵²The Report of Assistance Operations, op. cit.,
p. 3.

⁵³Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 198.

retired servicemen placed in the VACRS-affiliated organizations are required to participate in a general education program. They receive citizenship education, language training, and supplementary education.⁵⁴

Defense Training

Every affiliated agency of the VACRS organizes a defense group. Except for those who are very old, ill, or disabled, all retired servicemen are included in this organization. Each year they take part in the civil defense, air defense, and anti-airborne exercises conducted by the local military and police forces.⁵⁵ This is designed to enhance their combat power in order to help maintain the social order in peacetime and to support combat operations in wartime.

Cultural and Recreational Activities

To provide entertainment for retired servicemen, the affiliated agencies of VACRS are provided with such recreational facilities as libraries, entertainment rooms, study rooms, television sets, radios, record players, etc. The retired servicemen are encouraged to take part in various activities such as writing, painting, calligraphy, and amateur theater performances.

⁵⁴Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., p. 201.

⁵⁵Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 205.

The VACRS publishes a weekly newspaper, News of Veterans' Tournch, a monthly pictorial magazine, The Route to Success, and a monthly cultural magazine, The Chinese Literature and Arts. It also has organized a cultural and recreational troupe which produces light music programs, Chinese opera, and has movie teams making regular touring shows to entertain the retired servicemen scattered throughout the island.⁵⁶

Service

There are twenty-three service centers in various counties, towns, and cities rendering service to all retired servicemen and their dependents. The items of service include: assistance in employment, medical care, home care, schooling, dispute arbitration, protection of privileges and rights, relief, etc.⁵⁷

To promote their relationship with the local community, the retired servicemen are urged to render services to the community. They assist the community in sanitation improvements, plowing and harvesting, repair of bridges and roads, and catastrophe rescue. In addition, the retired servicemen's medical installations provide the local people

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 208.

⁵⁷The Codification of Assistance Regulations, op. cit., pp. 3-4.

with free treatment.⁵⁸

Other Services and Activities

To achieve the objectives of providing both economic and social assistance to the retired servicemen, VACRS also renders additional services such as vocational assistance, placement of retired servicemen's dependents, assistance and placement of self-supporting retired servicemen, schooling, education and care of veterans' children, and land grants to retired servicemen. These services and activities are briefly presented in the following:

Vocational Assistance

To assist retired servicemen to become employed is the primary mission of the VACRS. Those who are capable of working are given vocational assistance in accordance with their physical fitness, choice, knowledge, ability, and the requirement of the employment unit.

In the field of vocational assistance, the retired servicemen are either placed in newly created or activated government production organizations by VACRS or placed in government agencies, government schools, or privately owned enterprises, or social organizations.⁵⁹ Before they are employed, they are given orientation and/or training so

⁵⁸Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 226.

⁵⁹The Codification of Assistance Regulations, op. cit., p. 2.

that they may be able to better adjust to the new environment. Those who are not equipped with necessary skills are given vocational and technical training before they are placed.⁶⁰

Placement of Retired Servicemen's Dependents

In rendering assistance to the families of those retired servicemen who are too old or unfit for work, VACRS helps secure employment for their dependents who are capable of working. Thus their wives and/or children above the age of fifteen are placed either in government or privately owned organizations or in VACRS-affiliated agencies to serve as assistant accountants, assistant nurses, typists, or apprentices.⁶¹ To those retired servicemen's widows who are unable to earn an adequate living, VACRS assists their children in finding employment or obtaining education and provides medical care to dependents who are sick.⁶²

Assistance and Placement of Self-Supporting Retired Servicemen

For those retired servicemen who have chosen the option of receiving their retirement benefits in one lump-sum but who are at present destitute through no fault of

⁶⁰ Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., pp. 152-153.

⁶¹ Chinese Veterans, op. cit., p. 70.

⁶² The Codification of Assistance Regulations, op. cit., p. 14.

their own, VACRS and the liaison centers in various cities and towns assist them again in job placement.⁶³

Schooling

Retired servicemen who wish to pursue a higher education are assisted in schooling. To carry out the schooling assistance system, the VACRS has prepared a number of regulations in coordination with the Ministry of Education.⁶⁴ Through these regulations, those who wish to attend school but are ineligible due to lack of educational records, certificates, or other relevant documents, can take the academic qualification examination held by the VACRS every other year. Those who pass the examination are given certificates enabling them to take the entrance examination for college or senior high school. Those who take the college or university entrance examination enjoy a certain degree of privilege.⁶⁵

The VACRS provides tuition and living expenses to those who become students as well as awarding scholarships to those who make outstanding records in school. Since 1957, the number of retired servicemen who have received

⁶³Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., p. 205.

⁶⁴The Codification of Assistance Regulations, op. cit., p. 44.

⁶⁵The privilege is a lower acceptable passing score than required of the regular students on the college and university entrance examination. Ibid., p. 45.

high school or university education with VACRS assistance has totaled 7,400 persons.⁶⁶ The VACRS also grants travel expenses to those who are going abroad to study for advanced degrees.⁶⁷

Special Examination

In order to qualify retired servicemen for civil service, the Examination Yuan⁶⁸ at the request of the VACRS, has held several special examinations for retired servicemen.⁶⁹ Since these examinations were initiated in 1958, more than 27,000 retired servicemen have obtained qualification for civil service.⁷⁰

Education and Care of Veterans' Children

Sometimes retired servicemen have large families which present problems of adequate maintenance and support. Also, the death of a retired serviceman may result in undue hardship for his family. When this happens, the VACRS receives the children in a Veterans Children's Home or in

⁶⁶The Reports of Assistance Operations, op. cit., p. 6.

⁶⁷Chinese Veterans, op. cit., p. 61.

⁶⁸The Examination Yuan is one of the five branches of the Chinese Government under the control of the President. It is concerned mainly with the qualification examination for civil service and the control of government personnel.

⁶⁹In these examinations retired servicemen only compete among themselves and the passing score is lower than that required of civilians. Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., pp. 198-199.

⁷⁰Central Daily News (Taipei, Taiwan, Republic of China: March 31, 1972), p. 3.

the nursery schools established by the VACRS subordinate organizations.⁷¹ Government and privately owned nursery schools are occasionally requested to take care of orphans and those children of retired servicemen who are unable to provide for themselves. When the children placed in the home reach school age, they commute to nearby primary schools at VACRS expense, but they can still live in the home.⁷²

Land Grants to Retired Servicemen

In compliance with the government's policy of "land to the tiller" and "granting land to retired servicemen," the VACRS, during the period from 1957 to 1961, granted a total of 3,200 hectares of land to retired servicemen⁷³ who were working on the cooperative farms. They were also provided with homes, furniture, machinery, and livestock.⁷⁴

The granting of land and facilities to formerly landless men has had a significant positive effect on the morale of retired servicemen and those currently serving.

Summary

The accomplishments of the VACRS in the seventeen-year period from 1954 to 1971 can be summarized as follows:

⁷¹Chinese Veterans, op. cit., p. 64.

⁷²Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 209.

⁷³Tsu-yu Chao, op. cit., pp. 161-163.

⁷⁴Fifteen-Year Operations, op. cit., p. 58.

1. In the area of "settling" the retired servicemen, about 220,000 retired servicemen have been placed either in employment, medical care, home care, or schooling.

2. The VACRS has created and/or activated ninety-nine affiliated organizations which engage in numerous new production projects. These organizations have not only accommodated a large number of retired servicemen but have also contributed greatly to the nation's economic and social development, and to the effective utilization of manpower resources.

3. The productive organizations operated by the VACRS fall into such categories as industry, engineering, agriculture, commerce, transportation, mining, forestry, fishery, and animal husbandry. With a sound management system, they have steadily increased the number and improved the quality of their products. As a result, they are able to undertake additional new enterprises. This has contributed considerably to the nation's economic development.

4. The Retired Servicemen Engineering Agency (RSEA), under the control of VACRS, undertakes various national construction projects, such as highways, bridges, harbors and bays, dams and reservoirs, dredging, and airfields. In recent years, the RSEA has even extended its technical and labor service to foreign countries to promote friendly relations with other nations.

5. In past years, retired servicemen have developed a total of 12,400 hectares of land. They have turned barren and tidal land, hillsides, and river beds into productive fields. The land of some farms under VACRS jurisdiction has been given to retired servicemen through a land-grant system.

6. Some 30,000 retired servicemen have received vocational, technical, and civil affairs training. They then take part in various constructive works on the island.

7. Under an educational assistance program, a total of 7,400 retired servicemen have received further education; 2,500 have graduated from colleges and universities, and about 225 have gone abroad for advanced studies.

8. More than 70,000 ailing retired servicemen have been treated at VACRS Veterans General Hospital and other veterans hospitals which, through medical research and development, have helped promote China's position among the nations in the field of medical treatment. To assist the government in carrying out its social welfare program, these hospitals have also made their facilities available for treatment of the local people.

9. About 33,000 aged or disabled retired servicemen have been settled in the eleven convalescent homes under VACRS, where they receive home care and medical treatment. These recipients also take part in handicraft projects.

10. The VACRS has established service centers in most of the cities and counties throughout the island to render assistance to retired servicemen in obtaining employment, medical care, home care, dispute arbitration, protection of privileges and rights, catastrophe rescue, and relief. To promote community relationships, retired servicemen, in turn, are encouraged to render service to the people.

CHAPTER III

REVIEW OF PREVIOUS WORK ON HUMAN MOTIVATION

Motivational theories are generally based on the assumption that individuals have certain needs that they seek to satisfy.¹ Therefore, the motivational theory (sometimes called the need-satisfaction approach) seeks to identify the basic needs and find the causes of human behavior. If the needs of individuals can be identified, then ways of satisfying these needs can be suggested.

In industrial psychology literature there are several theories concerning motivation and need satisfaction. Each theory contributes to the development of understanding of human needs and the sources of job satisfaction. This chapter will be devoted to an examination of Maslow's theory of human motivation. In addition, attention will be focused on the research surrounding Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory and Dubin's theory of Central Life Interest.

¹Herbert G. Hicks and Friedhelm Gorgonzy, "On Methodology in the Study of Management and Organization," Academy of Management Journal, 1967, Vol. 10, p. 375.

Maslow's Theory of Human Needs and Motivation

Studies of motivation at any level of organization must cope with the problem of how to name and classify various motives and needs. Therefore, any approach to understanding motivation should begin with a treatment of human needs. One of the most useful approaches for those who are studying motivation in the organizational situation is the grouping of motives or needs according to a hierarchy of prepotency. Abraham H. Maslow, a psychologist, analyzed human motivation in organizational activity and found that human motives emerge in a sequential pattern according to a hierarchy.²

Maslow's Need Hierarchy

In his theory of motivation, Maslow identified five classifications of needs: (1) physiological needs, (2) safety or security needs, (3) belonging and social needs, (4) psychological esteem and status needs, and (5) self-actualization needs.³

According to Maslow's theory, these basic human needs are arranged in a hierarchy where the lowest, most basic needs are physiological in nature. A person with a subsistence income will focus his motivational drive

²Abraham H. Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," Psychological Review, July, 1943, Vol. 50, pp. 370-396; A. H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper & Row, Publishers, Inc., 1954), pp. 80-92.

³Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," op. cit., p. 394.

toward acquiring adequate food, clothing, sex, and shelter. When physiological needs are reasonably well satisfied, behavior will be motivated by the safety needs. These include job security, stability of income, and absence of threat. The next higher level of needs is concerned with belonging or membership needs. Since man is by nature a social animal, he desires acceptance and association with individuals and groups. Ego needs constitute the fourth level of the hierarchy. Man seeks self-esteem and the feeling of being a unique individual. He further requires public esteem, or recognition by others for his accomplishments. At the top level of the hierarchy is the need for self-fulfillment. Man desires a chance to grow, to be creative, and to do something new in order to realize his full potential.⁴

A Dynamic Process of Needs Satisfaction

Although Maslow is probably best known for his concept of a need hierarchy, this is only a small, though important, portion of his total theory. Unlike most traditional need theories, Maslow advocates the dynamic process of need satisfaction leading toward the ultimate of self-actualization.⁵ His theory is dynamic in the sense

⁴Ibid., pp. 372-383.

⁵Ibid., p. 371. A. H. Maslow, "Deficiency Motivation and Growth Motivation," Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, ed. Jones (Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1955), pp. 1-30.

that man is seen as a wanting being who constantly searches for the fulfillment of needs in an ever-expanding need system.⁶ Maslow advanced the following important propositions about human behavior in seeking need satisfaction:

1. Man is a wanting being. What he wants depends upon what he already has. As soon as one of his needs is satisfied, another appears in its place. This process is unending.

2. Human needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance. As soon as needs on a lower level are fulfilled, those on the next higher level will emerge and demand satisfaction.⁷

3. A satisfied need is not a motivator of behavior. To satisfy his needs, man expends energy; but once a need has been reasonably well fulfilled, it no longer acts as a significant motivating force.⁸

4. Emerging needs become dominant motivators. Those needs that have not been satisfied exert a stronger force on what a person does than those that have been satisfied. Thus, the emerging needs become the dominant motivators which direct a person's behavior.⁹

⁶Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," op. cit., p. 370.

⁷Ibid.

⁸Ibid., p. 393.

⁹Ibid., p. 375.

The Concept of Holism

Humans have basic physiological needs that must be satisfied, but these are supplemented by numerous other biosocial and culturally derived needs.¹⁰ The individual's actual movement to satisfy his needs depends on three factors: The state of readiness within himself; the objective situation in which he moves; and his perception of the situation. The third factor is in turn influenced by his own past experiences, i.e., successes or failures in finding satisfaction.

Moreover, needs are rarely found in isolation, but are usually found in a variety of combinations.¹¹ A certain behavior may satisfy not only one but a set of needs. Conversely, a given behavior pattern may be caused by many needs interacting together, and not by only one need. That is, most behavior is multimotivated.¹² To emphasize the multidimensional characteristics of needs, Maslow proposed the concept of "holism."¹³ This refers to the interrelated wholeness of an organism as one of the basic concepts of motivational theory. The study of a

¹⁰Thomas H. Fitzgerald, "Why Motivation Theory Doesn't Work," Harvard Business Review, July-August, 1971, p. 38.

¹¹Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," op. cit., p. 370.

¹²Ibid., pp. 390-391.

¹³Maslow, Motivation and Personality, op. cit., pp. 27-30.

need system as a whole is particularly important because changes in any part of the system will bring concomitant changes in other parts.

Some Additional Qualifications

The order of needs in the hierarchy varies from one individual to another, especially when one moves from one culture to another.¹⁴ Furthermore, the movement of needs from one level to another is only a tendency, not a certainty. Once a given need is satisfied, the individual may move to satisfy higher level needs, not necessarily the next higher level need, or he may move down the scale to better satisfy lower level needs. Moreover, as an individual's goals are modified, changed, or added to, the need structure may take on a new hierarchical order. This flexibility in the hierarchy underlies the concept of interchangeability among needs. Thus, when direct achievement of a particular need is blocked, a person may develop a substitute goal or seek to gratify alternative needs.

As Maslow has pointed out, this hierarchy of needs is not a rigid, fixed order that is the same for all individuals.¹⁵ Especially in the area of middle-order needs such as various social and esteem needs, the order varies somewhat from person to person.

¹⁴Ibid., pp. 98-101.

¹⁵Maslow, "A Theory of Human Motivation," op. cit., p. 386.

It is obvious from the foregoing that the simple concept of need hierarchy does not do justice to the very involved, complex, and dynamic nature of human needs. Additional qualifications must be added to make the concept more comprehensive. Some of the following qualifications were recognized by Maslow, while some have been added by other authorities.¹⁶

1. The levels in the hierarchy are not rigidly fixed. The boundaries between them are hazy and overlapping.

2. There are exceptions to the general ranking of the hierarchy. Some people never develop needs above the first or second level; others are so absorbed by higher-level needs that those on the lower level may go largely unnoticed.

3. The chain of causation may not always be from stimulus (hunger), to need (food), to behavior (hunting).

4. An act is seldom motivated by a single need but is more likely to be caused by several needs.

5. The same need will not lead to the same response in all individuals. Behavior varies among people.

6. Individuals may develop substitute goals if direct achievement of a need is blocked.

7. Many of the goals which man strives for are remote, long-range goals that can be achieved only in a

¹⁶Herbert G. Hicks, The Management of Organizations (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1967), pp. 242-244.

series of steps.

Related Studies

Maslow's hierarchical theory of motivation has had a major influence on the thinking of many authors and researchers in the field of organizational behavior. The formulation of McGregor's famous Theory X and Theory Y relied heavily on the idea that human motives are arranged in a hierarchy of prepotency.¹⁷ In Argyris' work on the conflict between the individual and the organization, the concept of self-actualization played a central role.¹⁸ Beer also utilized Maslow's concepts for his empirical work on the relationship among employee needs, leadership, and motivation.¹⁹ Maslow's concept has also been used in studies discussing the need satisfactions of individuals working in industrial organizations.²⁰

¹⁷Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1960).

¹⁸Chris Argyris, Integrating the Individual and the Organization (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1964).

¹⁹M. Beer, Leadership, Employee Needs, and Motivation (Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, Division of Research, 1966).

²⁰Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper Brothers, 1957); Mason Haire, "Psychological Problems Relevant to Business and Industry," Psychological Bulletin, 1959, Vol. 56, pp. 194-196; Douglas T. Hall and Khalil E. Nougaim, "An Examination of Maslow's Need Hierarchy in an Organizational Setting," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1968, Vol. 3, pp. 12-35; Clayton P. Alderfer, "Differential Importance

The past 10 years, there has been an increasing emphasis on the differences between the two basic types of needs which may be satisfied in the work situation, and the two contrasting kinds of motivation toward work. The first of these is described as extrinsic motivation or as striving to fulfill maintenance needs; the second is described variously as self-actualizing, ego involving, or intrinsic motivation.²¹

Porter and Lawler found that organizational levels were strongly related to perceived job and need satisfaction.²² Following Maslow's need hierarchy, this has been explained by the fact that the lower level needs are more prepotent for blue-collar workers. Persons in higher occupational groups have more adequately gratified the lower-level needs, which result in the emergence of the higher-order needs.²³ The following sections will first

of Human Needs" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), Yale University, 1966; and Alderfer, "An Empirical Test of a New Theory of Human Needs," Organizational Behavior of Human Performance, 1969, Vol. 4, pp. 142-175.

²¹Maslow, "Deficiency Motivation and Growth Motivation," op. cit.

²²Porter, "Job Attitudes in Management: "I. Perceived Deficiencies in Need Fulfillment as a Function of Job Level," and "II. Perceived Importance of Needs as a Function of Job Level." L. W. Porter and E. E. Lawler, "III. Properties of Organizational Structure in Relation to Job Attitude and Job Behavior," Psychological Bulletin, 1965, Vol. 64, pp. 23-51.

²³Keith Davis, Human Relations at Work: The Dynamics of Organization Behavior (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967), p. 36.

present the traditional single continuum theory of motivation and then examine Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory.

Single Continuum Theory of Motivation

The traditional theory of job satisfaction assumes that any job factor may contribute to both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.²⁴ This is called the one-factor theory or single continuum theory. The single continuum theory hypothesizes that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are the extreme ends of a continuum having a neutral condition at its midpoint in which the individual is neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.²⁵ This concept is illustrated in Figure 3.1.

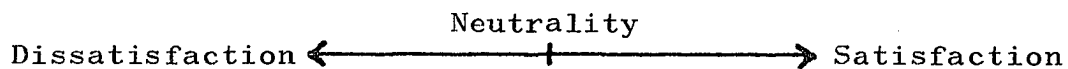


Figure 3.1. Traditional Single Continuum Model.²⁶

This traditional analysis assumes that job dissatisfaction results from the absence of those job factors inducing job satisfaction in the work climate. Individuals shift their degree of job satisfaction and job

²⁴Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara B. Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959), p. 111.

²⁵Orlando Behling, George Labovitz, and Richard Kosmo, "The Herzberg Controversy: A Critical Reappraisal," Academy Management Journal, 1968, Vol. 11, p. 99.

²⁶Valerie M. Bockman, "The Herzberg Controversy," Personnel Psychology, 1971, Vol. 24, p. 156.

dissatisfaction in response to the presence or absence of numerous job factors. The major job factors are salary, job security, working conditions, interpersonal relationships, employee benefits, the nature of the work itself, the challenge it offers, recognition, and the probability of growth.

If one of the job factors is improved or a new one is introduced, the individual is thought to move some distance toward the satisfied end of the scale. If one of them is reduced or removed, the individual will shift toward the dissatisfied end of the continuum. If the absence of some job factors is balanced by the presence of some positive job factors, the job attitude of the individual is in a neutral position. The magnitude of the shift along the scale is usually seen as being positively correlated with the size of the change in the job factor generating it.²⁷ The size of the shift is also seen as being affected by the type of job factor being changed. However, the exact way in which these job factors interact is less clearly expressed in the traditional single continuum theory of motivation.

Herzberg's Research and Main Findings

In order to develop some answers to the questions "What are the sources of job satisfaction?," "What are

²⁷Behling, et al., op. cit., p. 100.

people's attitudes toward their jobs?," and "How do the various job factors affect people's work attitudes?," Professor Frederick Herzberg and his associates reviewed fifty major studies concerning factors relating to job attitudes and the effects of job attitudes on work performance. They found that many people see their work as rather meaningless, so they try to relieve the boredom by idling or devoting most of their energy and creativity to activities off their jobs.²⁸ In 1959, Herzberg and his co-authors conducted additional research on these questions. Their research and findings are discussed in the remainder of this section.

Herzberg's Research on Motivation

In the publication of The Motivation to Work, Herzberg and his co-authors presented the motivator-hygiene theory of job satisfaction.²⁹ They had performed an in-depth analysis of sources of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction among a random sample of 203 engineers and accountants in nine widely varying industrial firms located in the Pittsburgh area. The authors believed that these professional people would best be able to give a clear account of their work experiences.

²⁸Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, Richard O. Peterson and Dora F. Capwell, Job Attitudes: Review of Research and Opinion (Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: Psychological Service of Pittsburgh, 1957).

²⁹Herzberg, et al., The Motivation to Work, op. cit.

In the survey, they chose a "semi-structured" interview approach,³⁰ in which they asked a few general questions and then pursued items as they saw fit. Each subject was asked to recall a period of time in his job tenure when he felt either exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about his job. He was then asked to discuss these events (incidents) and to specify the factors which contributed to his job satisfaction or job dissatisfaction. The investigators sought by further questioning to determine the reasons for the subject's feelings of job satisfaction and whether his feelings of satisfaction had affected his performance, his personal relationships, and his well-being. Finally, the investigators were able to classify the sampled subjects' job attitudes (very positive or very negative), and identify the factors associated with these attitudes.

The various ideas which appeared in the 476 stories obtained were then subjected to a post hoc classification. Sixteen job factors were identified through the content analysis:³¹

(1) Achievement

³⁰The open-ended "critical incidents" approach was developed by Flanagan; for further detail see J. Flanagan, "The Critical Incident Technique," Psychological Bulletin, 1954, Vol. 51, pp. 327-358.

³¹Herzberg, et al., The Motivation to Work, op. cit., p. 72.

- (2) Recognition
- (3) Work itself
- (4) Responsibility
- (5) Advancement
- (6) Salary
- (7) Possibility of growth
- (8) Interpersonal relationships--subordinates
- (9) Status
- (10) Interpersonal relations--superior
- (11) Interpersonal relations--peers
- (12) Supervision--technical
- (13) Company policy and administration
- (14) Working conditions
- (15) Personal life
- (16) Job security

These factors were used as the basis of several analyses of the responses, the most important of which, for the formulation of Herzberg's theory, concerned the relative frequency with which they appeared in incidents leading to job satisfaction and in those leading to job dissatisfaction. Achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement (all intrinsic to the job itself) were mentioned in a large proportion of the satisfying incidents,³² but in only a few of the dissatisfying ones. Company policy and administration, quality of

³²Ibid., pp. 59-60 and 80-81.

supervision, salary, interpersonal relations with superiors, and working conditions (factors extrinsic to the work itself) appeared mostly in dissatisfying incidents.³³

Herzberg's Main Findings

By using a posteriori content analysis, Herzberg and his co-authors found that there are two sets of job factors: motivators and hygienes. These two sets of job factors operate independently. The presence of the motivators induces increased job satisfaction, but their absence plays a relatively small part in producing job dissatisfaction. On the other hand, the absence of the hygienes leads to job dissatisfaction, but their presence does not lead to increased job satisfaction.³⁴

Relationships between motivators, hygienes, and job satisfaction-dissatisfaction were examined, and the frequency with which motivators were associated with job satisfaction and hygienes with job dissatisfaction were tabulated.

They also found that the motivators and the hygienes are not opposite ends of the same continuum, but instead represent two distinct continua. The motivators were generally found to be related to the nature of the work itself, i.e., those job factors satisfying the

³³Ibid., pp. 60, 81.

³⁴Ibid., pp. 7, 111-112.

individual's needs for personal growth and self-actualization in his work. They are achievement, responsibility, and advancement. These indices were termed "satisfiers." Contrary to this, the hygienes tended to be associated with the environmental factors descriptive of job context such as poor working conditions, ineffective company policy and administration, and incompetent technical supervision; these were termed "dissatisfiers."³⁵

In a later theoretical paper, Herzberg suggested:

. . . the factors involved in producing job satisfaction were separate and distinct from the factors that led to job dissatisfaction. Since separate factors needed to be considered depending on whether job satisfaction or dissatisfaction was involved, it follows that the two feelings were not the obverse of each other. The opposite of job satisfaction would not be job dissatisfaction, but rather no job satisfaction; and similarly the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction--not job satisfaction.³⁶

The above dual continuum concept is illustrated in Figure 3.2.

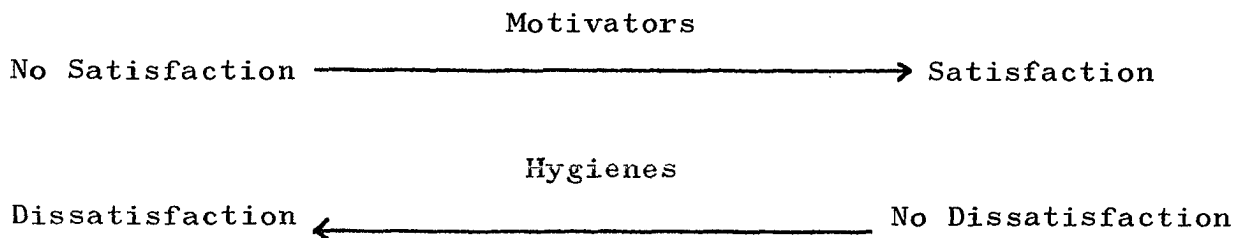


Figure 3.2. Herzberg's Dual-Factor Model.³⁷

³⁵Frederick Herzberg and R. M. Hamlin, "Motivation-Hygiene Concept and Mental Health," Mental Hygiene, 1961, Vol. 45, pp. 394-401.

³⁶Frederick Herzberg, "The Motivation-Hygiene Concept and Problems of Manpower," Personnel Administration, 1964, Vol. 27, p. 3.

³⁷David A. Whitsett and Erik K. Winslow, "An Analysis of Studies Critical of the Motivator-Hygiene Theory," Personnel Psychology, 1967, Vol. 20, p. 394.

We can see that Herzberg's findings are in contrast to the traditional model of job satisfaction in which any job factor may be a source of both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are the poles of a single continuum.

Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene Theory: Pros and Cons

Based upon the findings enumerated in the last section, Herzberg and his co-authors derived the motivator-hygiene theory of motivation. The dual-factor theory was first published in 1959,³⁸ and amplified and extended by Herzberg in 1961,³⁹ 1963,⁴⁰ 1964,⁴¹ 1965,⁴² and 1966.⁴³ The keystones of Herzberg's theory are summarized below:

1. Job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not the obverse of each other, rather they are two separate and parallel continua.

2. The opposite of job satisfaction is not job

³⁸ Herzberg, et al., The Motivation to Work, op. cit.

³⁹ Herzberg and Humlin, "Motivation-Hygiene Concept and Mental Health," op. cit.

⁴⁰ F. Herzberg and R. M. Hamlin, "The Motivation-Hygiene Concept and Psychotherapy," Mental Hygiene, 1963, Vol. 47, pp. 384-397.

⁴¹ Herzberg, "The Motivation-Hygiene Concept and Problems of Manpower," op. cit., pp. 3-7.

⁴² F. Herzberg, "The Motivation to Work among Finnish Supervisors," Personnel Psychology, 1965, Vol. 18, pp. 393-402.

⁴³ F. Herzberg, Work and the Nature of Man (New York: World Publishing Company, 1966).

dissatisfaction, rather it is no job satisfaction. Likewise, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, rather it is no job dissatisfaction.

3. Job satisfaction is determined by the feelings that the individual has toward the content of his job. The job-content factors are: task achievement, recognition for achievement, intrinsic interest in the task, increased task responsibility, advancement or occupational growth. These are termed "motivators."

4. The motivators affect job attitudes only in the positive direction, thus leading to increased job satisfaction; but the absence of these factors would not necessarily induce job dissatisfaction.

5. Job dissatisfaction is determined by the feelings the individual has towards the context or the environment of his job. The job-context factors include: company policy and administration, supervision, working conditions, salary, personal life, status, interpersonal relationships with superiors, peers, and subordinates, and job security. These are termed "hygienes."

6. The hygiene factors, when present, serve to help the individual meet his needs to avoid unpleasant environments or serve to prevent job dissatisfaction; they do not lead to job satisfaction. The absence of these factors would lead to job dissatisfaction.

Acceptance and Support of Herzberg's Theory

Herzberg's dual-factor theory has gained the attention of both practicing managers and psychologists. The theory has attained considerable acceptance because it lends support to the emerging "Theory Y" idea⁴⁴ that factors intrinsic to the job are somehow different and more important than those surrounding the work, in terms of their effects on motivation.

In their article, "An Analysis of Studies Critical of the Motivator-Hygiene Theory," Whitsett and Winslow concluded that the motivation-hygiene approach to understanding employees' job attitudes has a great deal of merit.⁴⁵ Dunnette and Kirchner also stated:

. . . A more fundamental contribution of the study is that job factors so identified were allowed to emerge from descriptions of actual job situations rather than being based exclusively on responses to checklists or sets of statements developed ahead of time by the investigator. The job factors derived by Herzberg's classification are more likely, therefore, to reflect things in the job environment leading to employees' approach and avoidance behavior.⁴⁶

In addition to the general acceptance of the approach, Herzberg's theory has also received some empirical support. The findings of his original study (1959) of engineers and accountants in Pittsburgh constituted the basis of his

⁴⁴McGregor, op. cit., pp. 47-57.

⁴⁵Whitsett and Winslow, op. cit., p. 412.

⁴⁶M. Dunnette and W. Kirchner, Psychology Applied to Industry (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1965), p. 152.

theory. A number of other researchers conducted additional studies sampling a wide variety of populations. About half of these studies provided support for the existence of the motivator-hygiene duality. The studies that are generally supportive or partially supportive of Herzberg's theory are briefly summarized below.

Paul Schwartz, using a questionnaire as his data-gathering instrument, analyzed the responses from 373 supervisors in utility firms. He found that the results were consistent with those of Herzberg's original study. Most of the motivators appeared more frequently in statements related to positive attitudes toward the job than in those related to negative attitudes. Most of the hygienes were associated with dissatisfying situations.⁴⁷

Friedlander analyzed a 39-item questionnaire which measured the importance of the items as a source of employee satisfaction. He found two factors which corresponded in part with Herzberg's concept of motivators and hygienes, while a third factor drew from both the motivation and hygiene factors.⁴⁸

In 1964, Herzberg conducted a cross-cultural study by using a sample of 139 lower level Finnish supervisors.

⁴⁷Paul Schwartz, Attitudes of Middle Management Personnel (Pittsburgh: American Institute for Research, 1959).

⁴⁸Frank Friedlander, "Underlying Sources of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1963, Vol. 47, pp. 246-250.

This study supported his early findings. He found about 90 per cent of the positive feelings at work were brought about by motivators, while less than 10 per cent of the negative attitudes involved the motivators. On the other hand, about 80 per cent of the events describing dissatisfaction stemmed from the hygiene factors as opposed to only 15 per cent for the events describing job satisfaction.⁴⁹

Harrison employed a factor-analysis method to discover the major sources of variation among the individual items on an objective management attitude questionnaire. He found that the results of his analysis were in close agreement with those of Herzberg's.⁵⁰

Gibson analyzed the write-in responses from 1,707 employees of a midwestern manufacturing firm. He found that employees do look to motivators as sources of job satisfaction and the hygiene factors as sources of job dissatisfaction. Thus, he concluded that the findings of his study were consistent with Herzberg's hypothesis.⁵¹

⁴⁹ Herzberg, "The Motivation to Work Among Finnish Supervisors," op. cit., p. 399.

⁵⁰ Roger Harrison, "Sources of Variation in Managers' Job Attitudes," Personnel Psychology, 1960, Vol. 13, pp. 425-434.

⁵¹ J. W. Gibson, "Sources of Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction as Interpreted from Analysis of Write-In Responses." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Western Reserve University, 1961.

Fantz analyzed the responses from rehabilitation patients in three hospitals in terms of the actual event and psychological effect. He found that good events were described in terms of motivators, while bad events were described in terms of hygienes.⁵²

Schwartz, Jenusaitis, and Stark analyzed the responses of 111 male supervisors employed by 21 public utility companies. They found motivators were generally associated with pleasant experiences and hygienes with unpleasant experiences, although one motivator (achievement) acted as dissatisfier.⁵³

Friedlander constructed an 18-item questionnaire (this study adopted the same questionnaire, see Part I and Part II in Appendix A) to investigate the bipolar assumption of job satisfaction. He found both correlation and variance analysis indicated that satisfiers and dissatisfiers were held not to be opposite ends of the same continuum.

Haywood and Dobbs analyzed 100 high school students'

⁵²R. Fantz, "Motivational Factors in Rehabilitation," Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Western Reserve University, 1962.

⁵³Milton M. Schwartz, E. Jenusaitis, and H. Stark, "Motivational Factors among Supervisors in the Utility Industry," Personnel Psychology, 1963, Vol. 16, pp. 45-53.

⁵⁴F. Friedlander, "Job Characteristics as Satisfiers and Dissatisfiers," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1964, Vol. 48, pp. 388-392.

attitudes toward tension-inducing situations. They found there was a significant tendency for the students who were high in motivator orientation to also be high in approach motivation, while those high in hygiene orientation were also high in avoidance motivations.⁵⁵

Yadov analyzed the attitudes of 2,665 workers employed in light and heavy industries in Leningrad. He found the most effective and important attitudinal factor for effective job performance is satisfaction with the kind of job.⁵⁶

Friedlander and Walton interviewed 82 scientists and engineers and found reasons for remaining in an organization (primarily related to motivators) to be different from reasons for which one might leave an organization (more closely related to hygiene factors).⁵⁷

Weissenberg and Gruenfeld studied the responses of 96 civil service supervisors to investigate the relationship between motivators and hygiene factors in job involvement. They found that total motivator satisfaction scores accounted for more variance in overall job satisfaction than

⁵⁵H. C. Haywood and V. Dobbs, "Motivation and Anxiety in High School Boys," Journal of Personality, 1964, Vol. 32, pp. 371-379.

⁵⁶V. A. Yadov, "The Soviet and American Worker: Job Attitudes," Soviet Life, January, 1965.

⁵⁷F. Friedlander and E. Walton, "Positive and Negative Motivation toward Work," Administrative Science Quarterly, 1964, Vol. 9, pp. 194-207.

total hygiene satisfaction scores accounted for, and that satisfaction with motivators correlated with job involvement.⁵⁸

Halpern analyzed the job attitudes of 93 male college graduates and found that both motivators and hygienes were related to job satisfaction, but motivators contributed significantly more to overall job satisfaction than hygienes.⁵⁹

Saleh found from a sample of 85 managers in 12 companies that employees in the preretirement period preferred hygiene factors as sources of present satisfaction. However, considering their past careers, they related motivators to satisfaction and hygienes to dissatisfaction.⁶⁰

Friedlander analyzed the responses of 1,468 civil service workers from different occupational levels. He found that motivators were the prime cause of satisfaction for white-collar workers, while hygiene factors were the prime cause of satisfaction for blue-collar workers.⁶¹

⁵⁸P. Weissenberg and L. W. Gruenfeld, "Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Job Involvement," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1968, Vol. 52, pp. 469-473.

⁵⁹Gerald Halpern, "Relative Contributions of Motivators and Hygiene Factors to Overall Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1966, Vol. 50, pp. 198-200.

⁶⁰S. D. Saleh, "A Study of Attitude Change in the Preretirement Period," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1964, Vol. 48, pp. 310-312.

⁶¹F. Friedlander, "Comparative Work Value Systems," Personnel Psychology, 1965, Vol. 18, pp. 1-20.

Centers and Bugental found essentially the same results as Friedlander from a sample of 692 workers.⁶²

Lahiri and Srivastva's study of Indian middle managers indicated that satisfaction and dissatisfaction represent two distinct and separate feelings, but motivators and hygienes were both related to satisfaction and dissatisfaction. However, motivators more often acted as satisfiers and hygienes acted most frequently as dissatisfiers.⁶³

Hinricks and Mischkind used the framework of Herzberg's dual-factor hypothesis to compare with high- and low-satisfaction responses of 613 technicians. They found that motivators are the primary source of positive satisfaction for the high-satisfaction persons; while for those persons whose overall job satisfaction was low, motivators have equal positive and negative influence. The hygienes were a significant source of negative feelings for those of high overall job satisfaction and a significant source of positive feelings for persons whose overall job satisfaction

⁶²Richard Centers and D. E. Bugental, "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Job Motivations among Different Segments of the Working Population," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1966, Vol. 50, pp. 193-197.

⁶³Dilip K. Lahiri and Suresh Srivastva, "Determinants of Satisfaction in Middle-Management Personnel," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1967, Vol. 51, pp. 254-265.

was low.⁶⁴

Lindsay, Marks, and Gorlow analyzed the responses of 270 professional and nonprofessional employees in an aerospace research and development company. They found that both motivators and hygienes were related to satisfaction, but motivators were a much stronger source of satisfaction than were hygienes.⁶⁵

Criticisms of Herzberg's Theory

Although Herzberg's theory has gained considerable acceptance and some empirical support, he has also suffered widespread opposition concerning his theory. Three major objections are discussed:

1. The theory is methodologically constrained

Vroom feels that "people tend to take the credit when things go well and enhance their own feelings of self-worth, but protect their self-concept when things go poorly by blaming their failure on the environment."⁶⁶ Thus, sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction may be an expression of defensive forces within an individual.⁶⁷

⁶⁴J. R. Hinrichs and L. A. Mischkind, "Empirical and Theoretical Limitations of the Two-Factor Hypothesis of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1967, Vol. 51, pp. 191-200.

⁶⁵Lindsay, Marks, and Gorlow, op. cit.

⁶⁶V. H. Vroom, "Some Observations Regarding Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory." Paper presented at the American Psychological Association Convention, New York, September 1966, pp. 7-8.

⁶⁷Lahiri and Srivastva, op. cit., p. 255.

Lindsay, Marks and Gorlow say:

. . . the evidence points to the possibility that the main conclusions of the Herzberg theory (i.e., satisfaction is determined by motivators; dissatisfaction is determined by hygienes; satisfaction and dissatisfaction are two unipolar continua; . . .) are a function of the methodology evolved by Herzberg.⁶⁸

Hulin and Smith consider Herzberg's results to be an artifact of the method used. They state:

. . . it would be reasonable to point out again that Herzberg's (1959, 1966) results appear to be method bound and the conclusions appear to pivot on method variance rather than true content or scale variance. A construct which can be generated or supported by only one operation would seem to have little relevance to the behavior of workers.⁶⁹

2. The theory is based on a faulty research foundation

In the interview, the subjects were asked to think of a time when they were exceptionally happy or unhappy with their jobs, whether it be present job or any other job they may have had. So Hinrichs and Mischkind say that "as a result, there is no control over the sampling frame for the data and no clear-cut basis for drawing inferences about the relative contribution of various job factors to overall job satisfaction."⁷⁰

House and Wigdor argue that "the coding is not completely determined by the rating system and the data, but

⁶⁸C. A. Lindsay, E. Marks, and L. Gorlow, "The Herzberg Theory: A Critique and Reformulation," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1967, Vol. 51, p. 338.

⁶⁹C. L. Hulin and P. A. Smith, "An Empirical Investigation of Two Implications of the Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1967, Vol. 51, p. 401.

⁷⁰Hinricks and Mischkind, op. cit., p. 192.

requires, in addition, interpretation by the rater."⁷¹

Lindsay, Marks, and Gorlow state, "It reverses the roles of the dependent (satisfaction-dissatisfaction) and independent (motivators and hygienes) variables by setting the dependent variables at one of two levels (high-low) and allowing what are conceptually the independent variables to vary as a function of the subjects responses."⁷²

The theory has also been criticized by Ewen and Hulin for containing no measure of overall satisfaction (no basis for assuming that the factors described as hygienes or motivators contribute to the respondents' overall satisfaction or dissatisfaction), as well as lacking valid and reliable data for the critical-incident method.⁷³ Furthermore, Kahn argues that "the findings are in part the result of relying entirely on the respondent for a description of his job attitudes, the factors which occasioned them, and their behavioral consequences."⁷⁴

⁷¹R. J. House and L. A. Wigdor, "Herzberg's Dual-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction and Motivation--A Review of the Evidence and a Criticism," Personnel Psychology, 1967, Vol. 20, p. 372.

⁷²Lindsay, et al., op. cit., p. 331.

⁷³Robert B. Ewen, "Some Determinants of Job Satisfaction: A Study of the Generality of Herzberg's Theory," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1964, Vol. 48, pp. 161-163; C. L. Hulin, "Review of Herzberg's Work and Nature of Man," Personnel Psychology, 1966, Vol. 19, pp. 434-437.

⁷⁴Robert L. Kahn, "Review of Motivation to Work," Contemporary Psychology, 1961, Vol. 6, p. 10.

3. The theory is inconsistent with previous evidence concerning satisfaction and motivation

If Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory were true, we could expect highly satisfied employees to be highly motivated and to produce more.⁷⁵ However, Kahn argues that "job satisfaction and productivity do not necessarily go together."⁷⁶

Brayfield and Crockett made a rather exhaustive review of the empirical research up to 1955 and found that one's position in a network of relationships need not imply strong motivation for high productivity within the system, and that performance and satisfaction can be expected to occur together only when performance is perceived as a means to important goals toward which the employee is striving.⁷⁷

Obviously, motivation is only one of the conditions necessary for productive work. If the quality of leadership, the abilities of co-workers, the suitability of supplies and equipment, the efficiency of scheduling and coordinating procedures, or working conditions are found deficient,

⁷⁵House and Wigdor, op. cit., p. 373.

⁷⁶Robert L. Kahn, "Productivity and Job Satisfaction," Personnel Psychology, 1960, Vol. 13, p. 275.

⁷⁷A. H. Brayfield and W. H. Crockett, "Employee Attitudes and Employee Performance," Psychological Bulletin, 1955, Vol. 52, pp. 396-424.

highly motivated behavior may have little effect on productivity.⁷⁸

Vroom's criticism makes these arguments very clear:

In discussing the administrative implication of his findings, Herzberg loses sight of the distinction between recall of satisfying events and actual observation of motivated behavior. He appears to be arguing that the satisfiers are also motivators; i.e., that those job content conditions which produce a high level of satisfaction also motivate the person to perform effectively on his job.⁷⁹

Consequently, House and Wigdor reached the conclusion that the two-factor theory basically has no merit.⁸⁰

The following are brief summaries of those studies that are nonsupportive of Herzberg's theory:

Graen and Hulin tested Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory by analyzing the responses of a sample of 301 male and female home-office employees of one corporation. They found that motivators contributed to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and that hygienes contributed to satisfaction and not dissatisfaction. These findings were incompatible with Herzberg's theory.⁸¹

Waters and Waters analyzed the job attitudes of

⁷⁸House and Wigdor, op. cit., pp. 375, 384.

⁷⁹Vroom, op. cit., p. 11.

⁸⁰House and Wigdor, op. cit., p. 387.

⁸¹George B. Graen and Charles L. Hulin, "Addendum to an Empirical Investigation of Two Implications of the Two-Factor Theory of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1968, Vol. 52, pp. 341-342.

160 female clerical workers in a national insurance company. They found motivators performed as both satisfiers and dissatisfiers, and hygienes were related to both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction.⁸²

Armstrong analyzed the responses of 200 engineers and 153 assemblers. He found that motivators made greater contributions to overall job satisfaction, regardless of occupational level. However, ratings of job factor importance were a function of occupational level; motivators were most important to engineers, and hygienes were most important to assemblers. He concluded the dual continuum theory of motivation was not supported.⁸³

In their study of 290 female shop-floor workers and 65 female shop-floor ex-workers of a large electrical engineering company, Wild and his associates found that motivators acted as a determinant of both job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The results did not support Herzberg's principle of duality.⁸⁴

⁸²L. K. Waters and C. W. Waters, "Correlates of Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction among Female Clerical Workers," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1969, Vol. 53, pp. 388-391.

⁸³Thomas B. Armstrong, "Job Content and Context Factors Related to Satisfaction for Different Occupational Levels," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1971, Vol. 55, pp. 57-65.

⁸⁴R. Wild, A. B. Hill, and C. C. Ridgeway, "Job Satisfaction and Labour Turnover amongst Women Workers," Journal of Management Studies, February, 1970, Vol. 7, pp. 78-86.

Soliman studied a sample of 98 respondents. He found that there were two sets of job-related factors, motivators and hygienes, but the duality concept of job satisfaction was not substantiated.⁸⁵

The results of Burke's study on 187 male and female college students indicated that Herzberg's motivators and hygienes are neither unidimensional nor independent constructs. He concluded that the motivator-hygiene theory was an oversimplified representation of job satisfaction.⁸⁶

Ewen, using a factor analysis technique to study the responses of 1,021 life insurance agents to a 58-item attitude scale, found that some of the hygienes actually acted as satisfiers, while one of the motivators (prestige) was both related to satisfaction and dissatisfaction.⁸⁷

Myers found the grouping of job characteristics fell into a motivator-hygiene dichotomy. However, several motivators were related to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, and one motivator was related primarily to dissatisfaction. He also found different job levels had

⁸⁵Hanafi M. Soliman, "Motivation-Hygiene Theory of Job Attitudes: An Empirical Investigation and an Attempt to Reconcile both the One- and the Two-Factor Theories of Job Attitudes," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1970, Vol. 54, pp. 452-461.

⁸⁶Ronald J. Burke, "Are Herzberg's Motivators and Hygienes Unidimensional?" Journal of Applied Psychology, 1966, Vol. 50, p. 321.

⁸⁷Ewen, op. cit.

different job characteristic configurations. Motivators were absent from the hourly technician and hourly female assembler configurations, suggesting a job-level factor.⁸⁸

In the factor analysis of 115 job attitudes, Ott extracted five main factors. Two contributed mostly to satisfaction, both contained items primarily related to competent supervision; two contributed mostly to dissatisfaction, one dealing with supervision, the other with customers; one contributed to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Thus, sources of satisfaction were not independent. For workers of one cultural background, jobs characterized as varied, complex, and demanding were associated with high job satisfaction; for workers of different cultural background, these same jobs tended to be associated with low job satisfaction in contrast to what one would expect from Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory.⁸⁹

Malinovsky and Barry investigated a sample of 117 blue-collar workers and found that, contrary to Herzberg's theory, both motivators and hygienics were positively related to job satisfaction. Moreover, main dimensions of job satisfaction were not distributed along separate continua,

⁸⁸S. M. Myers, "Who Are Your Motivated Workers?" Harvard Business Review, 1964, Vol. 42, pp. 73-88.

⁸⁹D. C. Ott, "The Generality of Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory of Motivation." Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Ohio State University, 1965.

but interacted in a variety of ways.⁹⁰

In 1966 Friedlander analyzed the questionnaire responses from 1,468 civil service workers. He found hygiene factors were of primary importance to all status levels within the blue-collar group, plus the low-status level white collar. Only the medium- and high-status white-collar workers placed primary importance on motivators.⁹¹

Dunnette studied samples of 114 store executives, 74 sales clerks, 43 secretaries, 128 scientists and engineers, 91 army reservists, and 46 supervision students. He found that job satisfaction was multidimensional, and the same factors were able to contribute to both satisfaction and dissatisfaction.⁹²

Wernimont concluded from his study on 82 engineers and 50 accountants that both motivators and hygienes can be sources of both satisfaction and dissatisfaction, but motivators are more potent both as satisfiers and dissatisfiers.

⁹⁰M. R. Malinovsky and J. R. Barry, "Determinants of Work Attitudes," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1965, Vol. 49, pp. 446-451.

⁹¹Frank Friedlander, "Importance of Work Versus Non-work among Socially and Occupationally Stratified Groups," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1966, Vol. 50, pp. 437-441.

⁹²M. D. Dunnette, "Factor Structures of Usually Satisfying and Usually Dissatisfying Job Situations for Six Occupational Groups." Paper presented at the meeting of the Midwest Psychological Association, Chicago, April 1965.

Satisfaction variables are not unidirectional in their effects.⁹³

Using a sample of 793 male employees from various jobs, Ewen and his co-authors have presented data which indicate that the motivators are more strongly related to both overall satisfaction and overall dissatisfaction than hygienes. Hygienes may depend on the level of satisfaction with the intrinsic variables. They concluded that "the concepts of satisfiers and dissatisfiers do not actually represent the manner in which job satisfaction variables operate."⁹⁴

Studying a sample of 670 office employees, supervisors, and executives of a large international corporation, Hulin and Smith found that motivators acted as both satisfiers and dissatisfiers and the hygienes acted as satisfiers as well as dissatisfiers. They interpreted their data as showing "no evidence . . . that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are qualitatively different."⁹⁵

Dunnette, Campbell, and Hakel found four job dimensions--recognition, responsibility, achievement, and

⁹³Paul F. Wernimont, "Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors in Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1966, Vol. 50, pp. 41-50.

⁹⁴Robert B. Ewen, P. C. Smith, C. L. Hulin, and E. A. Locke, "An Empirical Test of the Herzberg Two-Factor Theory," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1966, Vol. 50, p. 544.

⁹⁵Hulin and Smith, op. cit., p. 401.

supervisor human relations--were most important satisfiers and dissatisfiers. For some people, satisfaction resides in the job content dimensions; for others, in the job context; and for still others, in combinations of both. The same holds for job dissatisfaction.⁹⁶

Levine and Weitz factor analyzed a 78-item questionnaire measuring job satisfaction that was administered to graduate students in two universities. They interpreted their results as being nonsupportive both of Herzberg's theory and of the "alternative" that motivators are more important to satisfaction than hygienes.⁹⁷

Graen, using analysis of variance on questionnaire returns, found a linear relationship between satisfaction with various motivators and hygienes and overall job satisfaction. Moreover, he found that motivators are more strongly related to overall satisfaction-dissatisfaction than are hygienes.⁹⁸

Starcevich studied 518 employees in three levels of

⁹⁶M. D. Dunnette, J. P. Campbell, and M. D. Hakel, "Factors Contributing to Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction in Six Occupational Groups," Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 1967, Vol. 2, pp. 143-174.

⁹⁷E. L. Levine and J. Weitz, "Job Satisfaction among Graduate Students: Intrinsic versus Extrinsic Variables," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1968, Vol. 52, pp. 263-271.

⁹⁸G. B. Graen, "Testing Traditional and Two-Factor Hypotheses Concerning Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1968, Vol. 52, pp. 366-371.

organizational positions--first-line managers, middle managers, and professional employees. He found motivators are of prime importance for both the satisfying and the dissatisfying situation, and the hygienes are relatively unimportant for either the satisfying or dissatisfying situation.⁹⁹

Pros and Cons

A close examination of the foregoing studies reveals that those using the Herzberg data-collecting technique (or a modified form of it) support or partially support the motivator-hygiene theory. These are: Schwartz, Jennsaitis, and Stark, 1963; Saleh, 1964; Friedlander and Walton, 1964; Herzberg, 1964; plus the findings of the 10 critical-incident studies summarized by Herzberg in his book--Work and the Nature of Man (1966).

Two studies using the Herzberg technique which did not support the motivator-hygiene theory are: Myers, 1964; and Soliman, 1970.

It was also found that about half of the studies which used a method different from that of Herzberg's do not substantiate the motivator-hygiene theory. These are:

⁹⁹Math M. Starcevich, "An Analysis of the Relationship between the Dual-Factor Theory of Motivation and the Central Life Interests of Employees." Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Oklahoma, 1971, pp. 215-216.

Ewen, 1964; Ott, 1965; Malinovsky and Barry, 1965; Dunnette, 1965; Burke, 1966; Ewen, Smith, Hulin, and Locke, 1966; Friedlander, 1966; Wernimont, 1966; Dunnette, Campbell, and Hakel, 1967; Hulin and Smith, 1967; Graen and Hulin, 1968; Levine and Weitz, 1968; Graen, 1968; Waters and Waters, 1969; Wild, Hill, and Ridgeway, 1970; Starcevich, 1971; and Armstrong, 1971.

The following studies, using a different method from that of Herzberg, support or partially support the motivator-hygiene theory: Schwartz, 1959; Harrison, 1960; Gibson, 1961; Fantz, 1962; Friedlander, 1963, 1964, and 1965; Haywood and Dobbs, 1964; Yadov, 1965; Halpern, 1966; Centers and Bugental, 1966; Hinrichs and Michkind, 1967; Lindsay, Marks, and Gorlow, 1967; and Weissenberg and Gruenfeld, 1968.

In summary, the studies reviewed offer some empirical evidence for doubting the validity of Herzberg's theory.

As Kosmo and Behling pointed out:

On the basis of evidence presently available, the most logical conclusion appears to be that the Herzberg methodology and conventional scalar approaches are not measuring somewhat different aspects of the same construct 'job satisfaction,' but that they rather are tapping fundamentally distinct parts of the individual's view of and relations with the world around him. 100

¹⁰⁰R. Kosmo and O. Behling, "Single Continuum Job Satisfaction vs. Duality: An Empirical Test," Personnel Psychology, 1969, Vol. 22, pp. 333-334.

This conclusion indicates that the authors are making different interpretations about different things from different points of view, measuring them by different rating procedures, and thereby obtaining inconsistent results.

A major portion of the controversy concerning the dual-factor theory is focused on the methodology used, so they ignored the implications of the theory. The motivator-hygiene theory deals with the nature of man. It implies that human beings operate on two equally important sets of needs: the need to grow psychologically and the need to avoid pain. The essence of the theory is that the two are served by independent and different groups of factors, that both sets of needs must be met, and that an overemphasis on either may lead to serious personal problems. This distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic factors has been a major contribution of Herzberg's theory. It represents an approach to an understanding of the motivation to work, and it suggests a nonlinear relationship between the motivators and hygienes.

Dubin's Theory of Central Life Interest

With the coming of industrial organization, as Herzberg and his associates point out, a separation between work and the fulfillment of other activities occurred.¹⁰¹

¹⁰¹Herzberg, et al., The Motivation to Work, op. cit., pp. 121-125.

This separation is integral to Dubin's contention that modern industrial workers have shifted from centering their lives on the job to centering their lives off the job.¹⁰² The following is a review of Dubin's theory concerning employees' attitudes toward their jobs. In addition, Dubin's studies on industrial workers' central life interest (CLI) will be discussed.

Dubin's Theory

According to Dubin, work can have varied meanings to different people. On the one hand, there are those individuals whose work and employment are central to their life interest. Such job-oriented people find their major satisfactions and sorrows in the work environment. On the other hand, there are those individuals whose primary central life interest and orientation are outside their work environment. To these individuals the real center of life is in areas other than work, possibly the family, church, hobby, or recreation. A third type of individual may have no strong ties or centers of interest either to the job or non-job areas of life. For them emotional involvement is relatively slight and they are able to move from one area of life to another maintaining only a superficial

¹⁰²Robert Dubin, "Industrial Workers' Worlds: A Study of the 'Central Life Interests' of Industrial Workers," Social Problem, January, 1956, Vol. 3, p. 132.

attachment.¹⁰³ In order to motivate a person, we need to know what type of person he is (job-oriented, non-job-oriented, or indifferent), and what his relationship is to the specific social setting in which he participates.

Dubin observed that people did not participate in the social institutions with equal intensity because some behavior is voluntary, some is necessary, and some is a combination of the two.¹⁰⁴

As a result of industrialization, the employee's work behavior is prescribed by the technology of his work environment.¹⁰⁵ Where technological consideration is prior to other considerations in determining working behavior, that behavior is considered as a necessary behavior because it is beyond individual choice.¹⁰⁶ In fact, the various kinds of control devices used in all production enterprise are the substitutes for voluntary work behavior.¹⁰⁷

Dubin's theory concerning the meaning of work for

¹⁰³Robert Dubin, The World of Work: Industrial Society and Human Relations (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958), pp. 254-257.

¹⁰⁴Robert Dubin, "Industrial Research and the Discipline of Sociology." In proceedings of the 11th annual meeting (Madison, Wisconsin: Industrial Relations Research Association, 1958), p. 155.

¹⁰⁵Ibid., p. 153.

¹⁰⁶Starcevich, op. cit., p. 35.

¹⁰⁷Dubin, "Industrial Research and the Discipline of Sociology," op. cit., p. 157.

individuals is in terms of their central life interest.¹⁰⁸ The term "central life interest" is defined by Dubin as ". . . the expressed preference for a given locale or situation in carrying out an activity."¹⁰⁹ That is, central life interest should be those voluntary behavior areas in which the industrial workers participate. However, according to Dubin's observation, work is a necessary behavior,¹¹⁰ and not a central life interest for the industrial worker. The motivation in work is built into the social system--to be employed, to be able to earn a living.¹¹¹ Therefore, Dubin inferred that workers may consider their work in a purely instrumental fashion, i.e., as providing the monetary means to pursue some important off-the-job activities.¹¹²

Dubin's Three Propositions

According to Dubin, the world of industrial workers is defined in terms of significant areas of social experience, either on the job or off the job. For each area of

¹⁰⁸Dubin, "Industrial Workers' Worlds: . . .," op. cit., pp. 131-142.

¹⁰⁹Ibid., p. 134.

¹¹⁰Dubin, "Industrial Research and the Discipline of Sociology," op. cit., p. 156.

¹¹¹Dubin, "Industrial Workers' Worlds: . . .," op. cit., pp. 134-135.

¹¹²Ibid., p. 135.

experience, Dubin's basic objective was to determine whether it represents a life interest of importance to the worker.¹¹³

Dubin's approach to the study of industrial workers' commitment to work is derived from the following three propositions:

1. Adequate social behavior may occur in sectors of mandatory participation which is not necessarily important to the individual.

2. Primary human relations¹¹⁴ take place only in situations where social experience is valued by participants.

3. In situations of necessary but unimportant social participation, the individual will attach to the most direct and obvious features of that situation.¹¹⁵

Dubin's Five Hypotheses

Since the above propositions were not directly testable, Dubin formulated five hypotheses to inquire into the presence or absence of job-orientation in the total central life interest and in four sections (informal group

¹¹³Ibid., p. 131.

¹¹⁴"Primary human relations" is defined by Dubin as "the relationships that occur in groups where the interaction is face-to-face, continuous, intimate, and shared over a wide range of subjects." Ibid., p. 133.

¹¹⁵Ibid.

participation, general social experience, formal organization relations, and the technical aspects of work environment).

Concerning his first proposition, Dubin's questionnaire was used to determine to what extent work and the workplace are a central life interest to workers.¹¹⁶ For testing the overall relations of workers to work, the following hypothesis was used:

1. A significant proportion of industrial workers will be classified as non-job-oriented when central life interest is measured with the CLI questionnaire.¹¹⁷

Relating to the second proposition, Dubin formulated the following hypothesis to test the attachment to informal aspects of the work situation:

2. A significant proportion of industrial workers will be non-job-oriented with respect specifically to informal group experiences¹¹⁸ when measured on the relevant portion of CLI questionnaire.¹¹⁹

For making a further test of the second proposition, Dubin focused upon the part concerning the valued social

¹¹⁶Ibid., p. 134.

¹¹⁷Ibid., p. 135.

¹¹⁸"Informal group experiences" is defined by Dubin as "those relations between people that are not directly a product of an official relationship in an organization or related positions in a division of labor." Ibid.

¹¹⁹Ibid.

experience.¹²⁰ He hypothesized that:

3. A significant proportion of industrial workers will not respond to work as a valued social experience when this is tested by the general experience section of the CLI questionnaire.¹²¹

Dubin proposed to test the third proposition in terms of the experiences in formal organizations and the experiences with technology. He formulated the following two hypotheses to test the attachment to the direct and obvious characteristics of the work situation:

4. A significant proportion of industrial workers will score job-oriented for their organizational experience¹²² when measured on the organizational section of the CLI questionnaire.¹²³
5. A significant proportion of industrial workers will be job-oriented for their experiences with technological aspects of their environments when measured on the technological section of the CLI questionnaire.¹²⁴

¹²⁰"Valued social experience" is defined as "those activities which give pleasure, satisfaction, or general rewards, and which may be pursued in varying places and at varying times." Dubin designates those questions dealing with this area as "general experience." Ibid., p. 136.

¹²¹Ibid.

¹²²Organizational experiences (experiences in the formal sector) are described as experiences of the individual with organization, its officials, and its members. Hiring, joining, firing, disciplining, rewarding, directing, and ordering are illustrative of this sort of relationships. Ibid., p. 137.

¹²³Ibid.

¹²⁴The technical sector of experience is defined as "that involving the relationships between an individual and his actual work operations. Tool, equipment, and machine maintenance; concern with minimizing waste; accuracy of operations; . . . are illustrative of this kind of relationships between an individual and technical aspects of his environment." Ibid., p. 138.

In order to test the validity of the above five hypotheses, Dubin conducted the following studies.

Dubin's Studies on Central Life Interest

After observing the work performance and work behavior of 1,200 workers and interviewing a sample of 120 selected employees,¹²⁵ Dubin constructed a 40-statement questionnaire covering four sections: informal group participation (14 statements), general social experiences (9 statements), the formal aspects of membership and behavior in organizations (7 statements), and the technical aspects of work environment (10 statements).¹²⁶ He used this questionnaire as a data-collection technique to test the validity of the proposed five hypotheses. According to Dubin, in the questionnaire "each question represented an activity that had an approximately equal likelihood of occurring in connection with some aspect of the job or workplace, or at some definite point in the community outside of work."¹²⁷ Selection of an activity which is a job or workplace locale is a job-oriented response, while the selection of an off-the-job locale for the activity is called a non-job-oriented response. A third possible choice is added to represent the indifferent or neutral response.

¹²⁵Ibid., pp. 133-134.

¹²⁶Ibid., p. 134.

¹²⁷Ibid.

Example Statements

Examples of statements in each of the four sections of the CLI questionnaire are given below:

Informal Group Relation

The people I can count on most when I need help are:

- ☐ the friends I have at work (JO)¹²⁸
- ☐ the friends I have in the community (NJO)
- ☐ almost any of my friends (I)

General Social Experience

I hope my children can:

- ☐ work in the same kind of occupation as mine (JO)
- ☐ work in any occupation, just so they enjoy their work (I)
- ☐ work in a different kind of occupation from mine (NJO)

Formal Organization Relation

If I were sick and had to stay home, I would most hate:

- ☐ missing almost anything I usually do (I)
- ☐ missing a day's work (JO)
- ☐ missing a meeting of an organization I belong to (NJO)

Technological Relation

I most enjoy keeping:

- ☐ my things around the house in good shape (NJO)
- ☐ my desk and reports in good shape at the office (JO)
- ☐ my mind off such things (I)

Scoring Procedures

The following scoring procedures were used by Dubin to classify the respondents according to their responses to the forty questions. Those workers who selected a job-oriented response on at least fifty per cent of the statements in each section and those who had a total of seventy per cent of their responses in a combination of job-oriented and indifferent responses (with at least half of those responses job-oriented) in each section, were designated

¹²⁸(JO) refers to the job-oriented response, (NJO) refers to non-job-oriented response, while (I) refers to the indifferent response.

by Dubin as job-oriented.¹²⁹ Those workers who failed to meet either criterion were designated as non-job-oriented. A total central life interest classification was obtained by combining the answers to all forty statements. This total classification had to meet the same criteria outlined above for each of the sections. The scoring of the CLI questionnaire provides the means of classifying respondents as either job-oriented or non-job-oriented.

The Results of the Original Study

In Dubin's first study, 491 industrial workers returned the completed CLI questionnaire.¹³⁰ The results of this study confirm all of his five hypotheses and provide empirical bases for his theoretical statements. These results are as follows:

1. Three out of four (seventy-six per cent) of the respondents are non-job-oriented in their total value orientation; they prefer human association and areas of behavior outside of work.¹³¹

2. Nine out of ten (ninety-one per cent) of the respondents are non-job-oriented with respect to informal group experiences centered in the job. They prefer the

¹²⁹Dubin, "Industrial Workers' Worlds: . . .," op. cit., p. 134.

¹³⁰Ibid.

¹³¹Ibid., p. 135.

informal human associations and contacts found in the community, in the family, and among friends.¹³²

3. Nine out of ten (eighty-five per cent) of the respondents are non-job-oriented with respect to their valued social experiences; they prefer off-the-job activities as the center for their general experiences.¹³³

4. Three out of five (sixty-one per cent) of the respondents are job-oriented with respect to their organizational experiences; they prefer formal experiences at work over formal experiences outside of work.¹³⁴

5. Six out of ten (sixty-three per cent) of the respondents are job-oriented with respect to the technical aspects of their work environment. They identify their workplace as the locale of their preferred relationships with the purely technical aspects of their environment.¹³⁵

From this original study, Dubin found that for nine out of ten industrial workers studied, work and the workplace were not central life interests when the informal group experiences and the general social experiences that have some affective value were studied. He argued that, "not only is the workplace relatively unimportant as a place

¹³²Ibid., p. 136.

¹³³Ibid.

¹³⁴Ibid., p. 137.

¹³⁵Ibid., p. 138.

of preferred primary human relationships, but it cannot even evoke significant sentiments and emotions in its occupants."¹³⁶ On the other hand, for the worker's participation in formal organizations and for his experiences with the technological aspects of his life, the results point out that the worker is attached to the workplace in terms of its formal organizational and technological characteristics. He concluded that the worker has "a well developed sense of attachment to his work and workplace, without a corresponding sense of total commitment to it."¹³⁷

These findings support Dubin's hypotheses and enable him to conclude that his three propositions concerning industrial workers' job attitudes are valid.¹³⁸

Dubin's Second Study: German Industrial Workers

Dubin conducted another study in 1963 on the central life interest of German industrial workers. In the second study, he revised his 40-statement questionnaire to 32 statements. In the revised questionnaire each of the four sections consisted of eight statements. This would allow each section to be equally weighted. The scoring procedures were modified for the changes. Under the modified scoring procedure, each of the four sections was scored by summing

¹³⁶Ibid., p. 136.

¹³⁷Ibid., p. 140.

¹³⁸Ibid., p. 137.

the responses to the eight statements in that section. A respondent was classified as a job-oriented worker if he chose at least fifty per cent (4 out of 8) job-oriented responses in each section, or chose at least seventy-five per cent (6 out of 8) combination of job-oriented and neutral responses in each section, with at least three of these responses job-oriented. Otherwise, he would be classified as a non-job-oriented worker.¹³⁹ This scoring procedure was also applied to the total classification.

The results of Dubin's Germany study are:

1. Fifty-six per cent of the respondents were non-job-oriented in their total value orientation.
2. Eighty-nine per cent of the respondents were non-job-oriented with respect to informal group experiences.
3. Fifty per cent of the respondents were non-job-oriented with respect to their general social experiences.
4. Eighty per cent of the respondents were job-oriented with respect to their formal organization experiences.
5. Seventy-two per cent of the respondents were job-oriented with respect to technological aspects of their work environment.¹⁴⁰

¹³⁹Robert Dubin, "Central Life Interests of German Industrial Workers." Paper read at the 60th annual meeting of the American Sociological Association (Chicago, Illinois: 1965).

¹⁴⁰Ibid.

These results also supported the hypotheses made in the original study and tended to validate Dubin's three propositions.

Related Research

In the past two decades, much research has been done by industrial sociologists on the subject of the human relationships that surround the job and task performance in the formal organizations of modern life. The findings of Dubin's study have been widely used as empirical evidence in support of many theoretical positions.¹⁴¹ His CLI questionnaire has also been used by many researchers to measure the job attitudes of individuals in an assortment of occupations such as professional nurses,¹⁴² cooperative extension

¹⁴¹ Examples are Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper, 1957), p. 93; J. M. Pfiffner and F. P. Sherwood, Administrative Organization (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1960), p. 351; A. Etzioni, A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations (New York: Free Press of Glencoe, 1961), pp. 53 and 166; S. Krupp, Pattern in Organizational Analysis (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1961), p. 45; W. R. Dill, "Desegregation or Integration? Comments about Contemporary Research on Organizations," New Perspectives in Organizational Research, ed. W. W. Cooper, H. J. Leavitt, and M. W. Shelly (New York: John Wiley, 1964), p. 48; F. E. Katz, "Explaining Informal Work Groups in Complex Organizations: The Case for Autonomy in Structure," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 10, No. 2 (Sept. 1965), pp. 205-218; R. Presthus, The Organizational Society (New York: Vintage Books, 1965), p. 234.

¹⁴² Louis H. Orzack, "Work as a Central Life Interest of Professionals," Social Problems, 1959, Vol. 7, pp. 125-132.

agents,¹⁴³ over-the-road truck drivers,¹⁴⁴ industrial education teachers,¹⁴⁵ lumber workers,¹⁴⁶ German industrial workers,¹⁴⁷ industrial supervisors,¹⁴⁸ middle managers,¹⁴⁹ the first-line and middle-level managers, and professional employees.¹⁵⁰

The related studies which attempt to test the validity of Dubin's findings can be classified into two groups: those which are supportive and those which are non-supportive. A brief discussion of these studies is

¹⁴³Raymond R. Ranta, "The Professional Status of the Michigan Cooperative Extension Service." (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation), University of Wisconsin, 1960.

¹⁴⁴Lewis M. Latta, "Occupational Attitudes of Over-the-Road Truck Drivers: An Exploratory Survey." (Unpublished Master's thesis), Michigan State University, 1968.

¹⁴⁵Hilding E. Nelson, "Occupational Self-Images of Teachers: A Study of the Occupational Involvements and Work Role Orientations of Michigan Industrial Education Teachers." (Unpublished Ed.D. thesis), Michigan State University, 1962.

¹⁴⁶Kenji Ima, "'Central Life Interests' of Industrial Workers: A Replication among Lumber Workers." (Unpublished Master's thesis) University of Oregon, 1962.

¹⁴⁷Dubin, "Central Life Interests of German Industrial Workers," op. cit.

¹⁴⁸John G. Maurer, "Work as a 'Central Life Interest' of Industrial Supervisors," Academy of Management Journal, 1968, Vol. 11, pp. 329-339.

¹⁴⁹Daniel R. Goldman, "Career Anchorage Points and Central Life Interests of Middle Managers." (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation), University of Oregon, 1968.

¹⁵⁰Starcevich, op. cit.

presented below:

Studies Supportive of Dubin's Findings

Using Dubin's questionnaire, Kenji Ima analyzed the job attitudes of 406 lumber workers from two lumber plants in Lane County, Oregon. His findings were consistent with Dubin's hypotheses. He concluded that lumber workers do not prefer work and the workplace as central life interests. Significant proportions do prefer general and informal experiences away from work rather than at work, but significant proportions do prefer formal and technical experiences in connection with work rather than at other locales.¹⁵¹

Hilding Nelson also reported from his study of 230 Michigan industrial education teachers that work was not a central life interest for them. He found that almost 90 per cent of the industrial education teachers chose situations outside the work situation as being most valued for their primary social interactions. From his findings, Nelson concluded that the nature of industrial education teaching and the environment in which the job is performed are not conducive to either psychological identification with, or social attachment to, work and the workplace.¹⁵²

Lewis M. Latta examined the occupational attitudes

¹⁵¹Ima, op. cit.

¹⁵²Nelson, op. cit.

of a sample of 349 over-the-road truck drivers (those drivers whose routes are of such length that the driver does not return to his home each night), employed in 21 divisions of 16 companies engaged in interstate motor freight. He found that seven of every eight drivers in the sample were non-job-oriented.¹⁵³ This proportion is more significant than the three out of four of Dubin's industrial workers who did not consider their jobs or workplaces as central life interests. The findings of Latta's study provided strong support for Dubin's three propositions and for four of his five hypotheses. The one exception was the hypothesis concerning the sector of formal organization relations.

Daniel R. Goldman used Dubin's modified 32-statement CLI questionnaire to measure the central life interests of 501 middle managers in seven business firms located in the Chicago area and in the north central part of Indiana. His findings support Dubin's conclusions that for a majority of workers and even within the ranks of management, work may represent an institutional setting that holds no central life interest for its participants. Thus, Goldman concluded that work is no longer a central life interest for middle managers when the informal group experiences and general social experiences are examined. However, they recognize

¹⁵³Latta, op. cit.

the primacy of the workplace for their participation in formal organizations and for their experiences with the technical aspects of the work environment.¹⁵⁴

Ely Chinoy's study on automobile worker attachment also shows that work is not of central life interest. He found seventy-seven per cent of the automobile workers studied had considered leaving the factory. Even among the twenty-three per cent who had not thought of leaving, he recorded such comments as, "not now, but someday, I'd like to."¹⁵⁵ Sixty-seven per cent of the most highly skilled workers studied have considered leaving.¹⁵⁶

Among manual workers observed by Morse and Weiss, sixty-six per cent would not continue in the same type of work if given the opportunity.¹⁵⁷

The large proportion of workers desiring to leave is congruent with Dubin's statement that a large proportion of industrial workers do not value their jobs as central life interests.

In Morse and Weiss' study, eighty per cent of manual workers gave responses of satisfaction to their present jobs. The same study also showed eighty per cent

¹⁵⁴Goldman, op. cit.

¹⁵⁵Ely Chinoy, Automobile Workers and the American Dream (Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, 1955), Chapter 6.

¹⁵⁶Ibid.

¹⁵⁷Nancy C. Morse and Robert S. Weiss, "The Function and Meaning of Work and the Job," American Sociological Review, 1955, Vol. 20, p. 197.

of those workers would continue working if given the opportunity not to work.¹⁵⁸

These satisfaction responses do not mean that most manual workers are job-oriented, but rather that they have accommodated to their jobs. Thus Morse and Weiss suggest that most workers do adjust to the job situation,¹⁵⁹ but do not necessarily develop a job central life interest. They would like to change their jobs, if the opportunity were provided. Therefore, it may be inferred that workers are not committed to their jobs but are committed to working.¹⁶⁰

After reviewing a number of studies and examining 300 factory workers' attitudes toward their jobs, LaFitte concluded:

There is no one who sees his work as his important engagement. The worker may be family-centered or self-centered, depending somewhat on his situation; but he is never work-centered. . . . For the factory worker, work can only be the means of earning a living. . . . As with nearly all persons in other occupational grades, his major effort goes into activities outside work.¹⁶¹

Studies Non-Supportive of Dubin's Findings

John Maurer used Dubin's CLI questionnaire to test the job attitudes of 331 industrial supervisors (first

¹⁵⁸Ibid., pp. 191-198.

¹⁵⁹Ibid., pp. 196-197.

¹⁶⁰Ibid., p. 197.

¹⁶¹Paul LaFitte, Social Structure and Personality in the Factory (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, Ltd., 1958), p. 180.

through-third-level) employed by six Michigan firms. Contrary to Dubin's results, he found that the majority of all supervisors (bottom-level and middle-level) were job-oriented, i.e., they viewed work and the workplace as a "central life interest."¹⁶²

Louis Orzack conducted a study of 150 professional nurses employed in the public and private general hospitals and a state mental hospital in a midwestern city. He found that seventy-nine per cent of the professionals studied have work as their central life interest. This contrasts with Dubin's findings on industrial workers, where only twenty-four per cent of those sampled are job-oriented. He concluded that work was really a central life interest for the professional nurses. They are likely to prefer work to non-work or community settings for their technological behavior and for their participation in formal organizations.¹⁶³

In Raymond Ranta's study of 232 cooperative extension agents in Michigan, he also found that work was a central life interest for them. The reversal (85 per cent of the agents were job-oriented) of Dubin's findings was even greater than that found in Orzack's study (79 per cent). The agents studied also scored correspondingly larger

¹⁶²Maurer, op. cit., p. 332.

¹⁶³Orzack, op. cit., p. 127.

percentages job-oriented on the subsectors of the CLI questionnaire.¹⁶⁴

By examining past research, we can see that industrial workers are much less attached to work than professionals. Professionals and upper managerial employees are job-oriented. For them, work approaches an end in itself, while blue-collar workers and some lower white-collar employees are non-job-oriented. For them, work is considered as a means to an end. In general, it can be concluded that manual work involves fewer opportunities and less attraction for work involvement than does non-manual work.¹⁶⁵ The absence of involvement on the part of manual work is reflected in the lower probability of believing their work interesting and of making it a central life interest.

In summary, according to his observation on industrial workers' behavior and their performance, Dubin concludes that the industrial workers' participation in an industrial organization is a necessary behavior because it is necessary to earn a living. On the basis of his findings in the study of industrial workers' central life interest, he further concludes that work and the workplace are no longer central life interests for a majority of industrial

¹⁶⁴Ranta, op. cit.

¹⁶⁵Ima, op. cit., p. 106.

workers. Their life interests have moved out into the community. He contends that industrial workers consider their work as a means to an end, i.e., as providing the monetary means to pursue some off-the-job activities.

Based upon his findings on industrial workers' job attitudes, Dubin inferred in his 1958 paper that industrial managers also did not consider their work as a source of central life interest.¹⁶⁶

Dubin's major concept is that work roles are assigned only segmental importance in the society and that work is only one competing area of socially-patterned personal identification. It is quite clear that the literature reviewed does not substantiate, modify, or refute Dubin's theoretical framework to any large extent.

As Dubin suggests, his study calls for replication with equal groups. It seems more desirable, in addition, to duplicate with other components of the labor force, particularly in a different cultural background. Therefore, the present study is designed to replicate with the retired servicemen who work as professional employees and managers in lower- and middle-level status from different production organizations in the Chinese culture.

¹⁶⁶Robert Dubin, "Industrial Research and the Discipline of Sociology," op. cit., p. 161.

CHAPTER IV

AN EXAMINATION OF THE SOURCES OF MOTIVATION FOR THE RETIRED SERVICEMEN

An examination is now made of the importance placed on each job factor as a contributor to situations of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction by the sampled retired servicemen. The preference data among the eighteen job factors as contributors to the two opposite situations were obtained from their responses to Parts I and II of the questionnaire. Part I relates to a satisfying situation, Part II to a dissatisfying situation (See Appendix A).

Two hypotheses relating to Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory and the traditional single continuum theory are tested. The findings of this examination are analyzed, and a comparison with Herzberg's original findings is made. This is done to examine the sources of motivation for the Chinese retired servicemen studied and also to test the validity and generality of both Herzberg's dual-factor theory and the traditional single continuum theory in a different culture.

A brief review is made of Herzberg's dual-factor motivation theory versus the traditional single-continuum

motivation theory. This review will be helpful in comparing the findings of this examination with that of Herzberg's study. First is presented the findings of Herzberg's original study, followed by a summary of the main points of Herzberg's theory and the single continuum theory.

Herzberg's Dual-Factor Theory vs. Traditional
Single Continuum Theory

In their original study, Herzberg and his co-authors found that the job factors contributing to the feeling of job satisfaction were all motivators. The five most important ones, in sequence, were achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement.¹ They also found that the five most important job factors contributing to the feeling of job dissatisfaction were all hygienes. In order of importance, these were company policy and administration, technical supervision, salary, relations with superiors, and working conditions.² The results of Herzberg's original study on engineers and accountants are presented in Figure 4.1. The right-hand portion of Figure 4.1 shows the percentage frequency of each job factor appearing as related to job satisfaction. The left half shows the

¹Frederick Herzberg, Bernard Mausner, and Barbara B. Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959), pp. 59-60 and 80-81.

²Ibid., pp. 60 and 81-82.

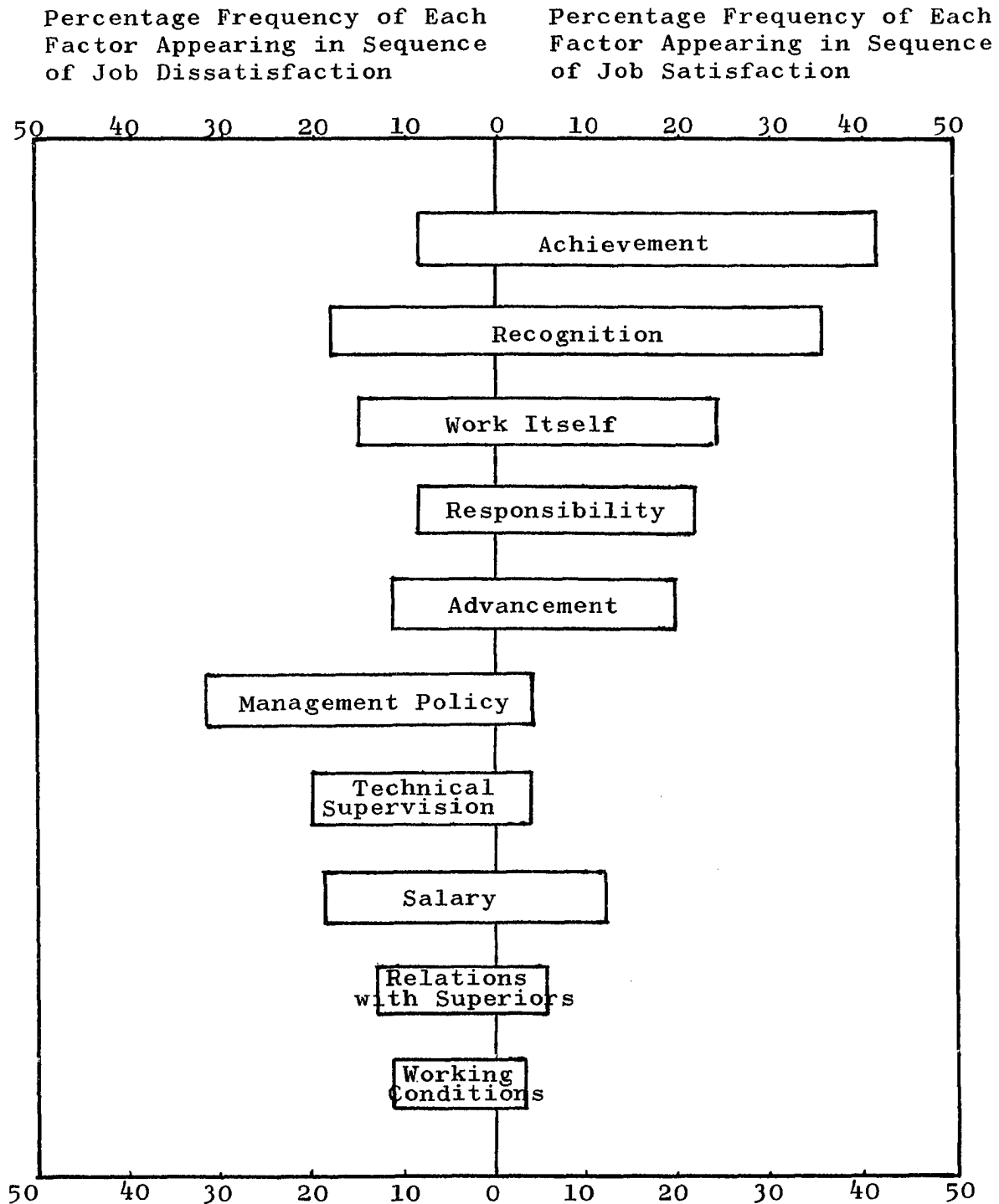


Figure 4.1. Comparison of Motivators and Hygienes Contributing to Job Satisfaction and Job Dissatisfaction in Herzberg's Study

Source: F. Herzberg, B. Mausner, and B. B. Snyderman, The Motivation to Work (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1959), p. 81.

percentage frequency of each job factor appearing as related to job dissatisfaction.

Based upon these findings, Herzberg et al. concluded that there are two sets of independent job factors: motivators and hygienes. Motivators affect job attitudes only in the positive direction. Their presence leads to increased job satisfaction, but the absence of them would not necessarily cause job dissatisfaction. Hence, motivators act mainly as satisfiers. They are generally found to be intrinsic to the job and to be associated with those job-related factors which satisfy the individual's need for self-actualization. Hygienes serve to prevent job dissatisfaction. When present, they do not lead to high levels of job satisfaction, but the absence of these job factors would induce job dissatisfaction. Thus, hygienes act mainly as dissatisfiers. They are extrinsic to the job and tend to be associated with the physical, monetary, or environmental factors of the job context. Therefore, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not two extreme poles of the same continuum. The opposite of job satisfaction is no job satisfaction rather than job dissatisfaction, and the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction rather than job satisfaction.

Herzberg's propositions are obviously contrary to the traditional single continuum theory, which assumes that any job factor may be a source of both job satisfaction and

job dissatisfaction. According to the single continuum theory, job dissatisfaction arises as a result of the absence of those job factors causing job satisfaction. Therefore, a change in any job factor, whether motivator or hygiene, may cause an individual's job attitudes to shift toward either end (satisfaction or dissatisfaction) along a single continuum. Thus, the traditional single continuum theory assumes essentially linear relationships between motivation and overall job satisfaction.

These two different motivation theories have generated much research, controversy, and confusion. The remainder of this chapter is designed to test the validity and the generality of these two theories as they relate to the Chinese retired servicemen's sources of job satisfaction.

Methods of Data Analysis

The eighteen job factors in the questionnaire adopted for this study consisted of both motivators and hygienes. In order to determine the relationships between motivators to satisfying and dissatisfying situations, and the relationships between hygienes to satisfying and dissatisfying situations, the mean scores on each of the eighteen job factors were analyzed for both kinds of situation.

The relative importance of each job factor was rated by the respondents on a 4-point scale. A rating of one represented a weak contributor to the situation, while a

rating of four represented a strong contributor to that situation. The scale points were labeled as follows: This factor was not present; This factor was present but was not important; This factor was fairly important; and This factor was of major importance.

The statistical techniques used for analyzing the data in this chapter were analysis of variance, t-test, and Pearson product-moment correlation. The utilization of these three techniques is explained below:

Analysis of Variance

The responses of the sampled retired servicemen in each of the three organizational positions (supervisors, middle managers, and professionals) were subjected to a separate analysis of variance. This was done to determine whether they attributed a significantly different importance to the eighteen job factors as contributors to a situation of job satisfaction. The responses to the situation of job dissatisfaction were processed in the same way.

The objective of this analysis is to obtain two sequential lists of the eighteen job factors which were most or least important in contributing to the satisfying situation and to the dissatisfying situation. Where significant differences were found among the eighteen job factors in each situation, the job factors were then ordered by their mean scores to show the sequence of their importance. These results were used to test the validity

of the motivator-satisfying-dissatisfying relationships and the hygiene-satisfying-dissatisfying relationships hypothesized by this writer. The lists were also used to analyze the generality of Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory of job satisfaction for the sampled managerial and professional Chinese retired servicemen.

Brief examination of the results from the analysis of variance and the subsequent listing of job factors in terms of the order of importance for the two situations may lead to an unwarranted conclusion about the single continuum motivation theory. Therefore, the data were further analyzed by using a t-test and the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to examine the relationships in more detail. The job factor, promotion is presented below to illustrate the analysis performed on all eighteen job factors for each of the three organizational positions surveyed.

| Job Factors | Satisfying Situation | | Dissatisfying Situation | | Difference between Means ($\bar{X}-\bar{Y}$) | t Value | Pearson Product- Moment Correlation Coefficient |
|----------------|-------------------------|--------|----------------------------|--------|---|------------|---|
| | Mean | Std.D. | Mean | Std.D. | | | |
| | \bar{X} | Sd | \bar{Y} | Sd | | | |
| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) |
| Promo- tion | X | | Y | | | | |

t-Test

In statistical analysis, a t-test is commonly used to test the significance of difference between two sample

means.³ A t-test was conducted on the difference between the two mean scores (on job satisfaction and on job dissatisfaction) of each job factor to determine whether or not the difference in importance was significant. The level of significance was set at .01. The formula used for computing the t value⁴ was:

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{Se}$$

\bar{X} = mean score of each job factor on the satisfying situation.

\bar{Y} = mean score of each job factor on the dissatisfying situation.

Se = standard error of the difference between the two mean scores.

The formula used for computing the standard error of the difference⁵ was:

$$Se = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sum X^2}{N_x + N_y - 2} + \frac{\sum Y^2}{N_x + N_y - 2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{N_x} + \frac{1}{N_y}\right)}$$

N_x = the sample size of each organizational position responding to the satisfying situation.

N_y = the sample size of each organizational position

³Freeman F. Elzey, A Programmed Introduction to Statistics (Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1969), p. 188.

⁴Ibid., p. 335.

⁵Ibid., p. 334.

responding to the dissatisfying situation. In this examination $N_y = N_x = 150$.

The degrees of freedom (df) associated with the t value was determined by the following formula:⁶

$$df = (N_x - 1) + (N_y - 1) = N_x + N_y - 2$$

If the difference in importance was not significant, the job factor was equally important in contributing to both situations, or it was not a greater source of job satisfaction when present than was job dissatisfaction when not present. If the difference in importance was significant, the job factor was more important to one or both of the two situations either by its presence or absence. The positive or negative sign of the difference in column 5 of the above illustration would indicate for which situation that job factor was more important.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (r) is the best statistical technique for testing the degree of relationships between two frequency distributions,⁷ when scores of two variables are normally distributed, so this correlation coefficient was computed for the situations. The level of significance was set at .01. The formula used

⁶Ibid., p. 195.

⁷Ibid., p. 251.

for computing the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient⁸ was:

$$r = \frac{NEXY - (EX)(EY)}{\sqrt{\{NEX^2 - (EX)^2\} \{NEY^2 - (EY)^2\}}}$$

The degrees of freedom used in evaluating r is $df = N - 2$,⁹ where $N = 150$ is the sample size of each organizational position.

If the degree of correlation had significance, it indicated that predictions could be made from knowledge of importance attributed to a job factor, whether as a source of satisfaction or as a source of dissatisfaction. Some support could be noted for the single continuum theory by virtue of the extent to which a certain job factor, by its presence, was important to job satisfaction, or by the extent of importance that the absence of that job factor had to job dissatisfaction. When the degree of correlation was not significant, this indicated that the job factor's importance for dissatisfying situations could not be determined from the respondent's attribution of importance to the factor as a source of satisfaction. In this situation no support would be given to the single continuum theory.

Hypotheses Testing and Findings Analyses

To examine the sources of motivation for the sampled retired servicemen and to test the validity and generality

⁸Ibid., p. 260.

⁹Ibid., p. 261.

of Herzberg's dual-factor theory and the traditional single continuum theory, two hypotheses relating to, but different from, the findings of Herzberg's original study were formulated as follows:

Hypothesis I. Motivators are insignificant in contributing to the feelings of both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction among the retired servicemen surveyed, regardless of organizational position.

Hypothesis II. Hygienes are significant in contributing to the feelings of both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction among the retired servicemen surveyed, regardless of organization position.

The two hypotheses were tested by using the methods of data analysis enumerated in the last section.

If the hygienes were the most important sources of job satisfaction, those job factors should have been referred to more often by those sampled who displayed job satisfaction. If the hygienes were also important as sources of job dissatisfaction, the same job factors should also have been referred to more often by those displaying job dissatisfaction. Therefore, if the two proposed hypotheses are true, the list of the most important job factors contributing to job satisfaction and the list of the most important job factors contributing to job dissatisfaction should all be hygienes.

A separate analysis of variance was performed between the mean scores for each of the eighteen job factors for the situations of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

The two separate analyses of variance were made for each of the three organizational positions to determine whether the importance of job factor was affected by the respondents' organizational position. Based on the differences in importance attributed to the job factors as contributors to the two situations (job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction), a list of the most important contributors to each situation was developed.

Examination of the Satisfying Situation

Table 4.1 presents a list of the eighteen job factors in the mean rank order of importance as contributors to the situation of job satisfaction for the sample studied. All hygiènes have been asterisked.

In Herzberg's original findings, the five most important job factors contributing to the situation of job satisfaction were all motivators. They were achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. In this examination if only the five job factors which were most important in contributing to job satisfaction at the three levels of position are considered, the following results are found:

That the five most important job factors presented in Table 4.1 are not all motivators as was found by Herzberg. Some factors found by Herzberg to be of primary importance in leading to the satisfying situation were

TABLE 4.1

MEAN SCORE ORDER OF IMPORTANCE FOR THE JOB FACTORS SURVEYED AS
CONTRIBUTOR TO THE SATISFYING SITUATION OF THE
RETIRED SERVICEMEN STUDIED

| Order of Importance | Supervisors | Middle Managers | Professionals |
|------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1 | *Relation with Peers 3.37 | Growth 3.40 | *Relation with Peers 3.27 |
| 2 | *Relation with Superiors 3.15 | *Relation with Peers 3.33 | Use of Best Ability 3.09 |
| 3 | Work Itself 3.07 | Use of Best Ability 3.31 | Growth 3.07 |
| 4 | Use of Best Ability 3.03 | *Technical Supervision 3.23 | *Technical Supervision 2.99 |
| 5 | *Technical Supervision 3.01 | *Relation with Superiors 3.18 | Work Itself 2.96 |
| 6 | Achievement 2.99 | *Security 3.06 | Challenging Assignment 2.87 |
| 7 | *Working Conditions 2.96 | Achievement 3.04 | Responsibility 2.85 |
| 8 | Growth 2.90 | Work Itself 3.03 | *Work Group 2.83 |
| 9 | *Work Group 2.88 | *Work Group 3.01 | Achievement 2.77 |
| 10 | Challenging Assignment 2.83 | *Management Policy 2.93 | *Management Policy 2.75 |
| 11 | *Employee Benefits 2.81 | *Employee Benefits 2.87 | *Relation with Superiors 2.73 |
| 12 | Responsibility 2.79 | Responsibility 2.85 | *Employee Benefits 2.71 |
| 13 | *Home Life 2.77 | Challenging Assignments 2.81 | *Security 2.69 |
| 14 | *Management Policy 2.75 | *Working Conditions 2.79 | *Home Life 2.65 |
| 15 | *Security 2.71 | *Home Life 2.77 | *Working Conditions 2.62 |
| 16 | Promotion 2.53 | Promotion 2.58 | Promotion 2.44 |
| 17 | *Merit Increase 2.45 | Recognition 2.46 | Recognition 2.42 |
| 18 | Recognition 2.42 | *Merit Increase 2.44 | *Merit Increase 2.18 |

considered least important by the respondents of this study. For example, recognition was an important motivator in Herzberg's original study, but it was ranked eighteenth in importance by the supervisors, and ranked seventeenth in importance by the middle managers and professionals.

The five most important job factors contributing to the satisfying situation are not the same for all three organizational positions surveyed. For the supervisors, three are hygienes (relation with peers, relation with superiors, and technical supervision), and two are motivators (work itself and use of best ability). For the middle managers also, three are hygienes (relation with peers, technical supervision, and relation with superiors), and two are motivators (growth and use of best ability). For the professionals, three are motivators (use of best ability, growth, and work itself), and two are hygienes (relation with peers and technical supervision).

The importance of job factors in contributing to the satisfying situation can also be measured by examining the five least important job factors in Table 4.1. For the supervisors, these were three hygienes (management policy, security, and merit increase) and two motivators (promotion and recognition). The middle managers and the professionals rated the same three hygienes (working conditions, home life, and merit increase) and two motivators (promotion and recognition) as least important.

Based upon these results, this writer concludes that both motivators and hygienes were sources of job satisfaction for the retired servicemen studied, regardless of organizational position.

Examination of the Dissatisfying Situation

The importance of the job factors contributing to the dissatisfying situation was also examined. Table 4.2 presents a list of all eighteen job factors in the mean rank order of importance for job dissatisfaction by the organizational position of the respondents.

In Herzberg's original study, the five job factors which were the primary determinants of job dissatisfaction were all hygienes: company policy and administration, technical supervision, salary, relations with supervisors, and working conditions. In this examination if only the five job factors which were of most importance as contributors to the dissatisfying situation are considered, the following results are found:

For all three organizational positions studied, the five most important job factors contributing to a dissatisfying situation are not all hygienes, nor are they the same for all three positions. For the supervisors, three are hygienes (employee benefits, management policy, and working conditions), and two are motivators (recognition and growth). For the middle managers, three are also hygienes (management policy, employee benefits, and home life), and two are

TABLE 4.2

MEAN SCORE ORDER OF IMPORTANCE FOR THE JOB FACTORS SURVEYED AS
CONTRIBUTORS TO THE DISSATISFYING SITUATION OF THE
RETIRED SERVICEMEN STUDIED

| Order of Importance | Supervisors | Middle Managers | Professionals |
|------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1 | *Employee Benefits 2.53 | *Management Policy 2.23 | Growth 2.43 |
| 2 | *Management Policy 2.28 | *Employee Benefits 2.21 | Use of Best Ability 2.39 |
| 3 | Recognition 2.19 | Recognition 2.14 | *Management Policy 2.35 |
| 4 | Growth 2.16 | Responsibility 2.12 | *Employee Benefits 2.33 |
| 5 | *Working Conditions 2.14 | *Home Life 2.08 | Recognition 2.26 |
| 6 | *Security 2.12 | *Working Conditions 2.04 | Promotion 2.23 |
| 7 | *Home Life 2.08 | Promotion 2.02 | *Security 2.21 |
| 8 | Promotion 2.01 | *Merit Increase 2.00 | *Working Conditions 2.19 |
| 9 | *Merit Increase 1.97 | Growth 1.97 | Challenging Assignment 2.17 |
| 10 | Use of Best Ability 1.95 | Achievement 1.92 | Responsibility 2.12 |
| 11 | Responsibility 1.93 | *Work Group 1.90 | Achievement 2.09 |
| 12 | Achievement 1.91 | *Technical Supervision 1.81 | *Home Life 2.07 |
| 13 | Work Itself 1.85 | Challenging Assignment 1.76 | Work Itself 2.05 |
| 14 | *Work Group 1.79 | *Relation with Peers 1.71 | *Work Group 1.99 |
| 15 | Challenging Assignment 1.68 | *Security 1.68 | *Merit Increase 1.95 |
| 16 | *Technical Supervision 1.56 | Use of Best Ability 1.66 | *Technical Supervision 1.82 |
| 17 | *Relation with Superiors 1.53 | *Relation with Superiors 1.59 | *Relation with Superiors 1.72 |
| 18 | *Relation with Peers 1.45 | Work Itself 1.54 | *Relation with Peers 1.65 |

motivators (recognition and responsibility). For the professionals, there are three motivators (growth, use of best ability, and recognition) and two hygienes (management policy and employee benefits).

Some factors found by Herzberg to be of major importance in contributing to a dissatisfying situation are least important in the list presented in Table 4.2. For example, relations with superiors was an important hygiene in Herzberg's original findings; but it was ranked seventeenth in importance by all three positions studied.

The five least important job factors contributing to a dissatisfying situation were also examined. The supervisors rated one motivator (challenging assignment) and four hygienes (work group, technical supervision, relation with superiors, and relation with peers). The middle managers rated two motivators (use of best ability and work itself) and three hygienes (relation with peers, security, and relation with superiors). For the professionals, all five were hygienes (work group, merit increase, technical supervision, relation with superiors, and relation with peers).

From the results in Table 4.2, it can be seen that both motivators and hygienes were sources of job dissatisfaction for the retired servicemen studied, regardless of organizational position.

With regard to the hypotheses of this examination, both Hypotheses I and II should be rejected since the results

in Tables 4.1 and 4.2 show that both motivators and hygienes were sources of both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction for the respondents, regardless of their organizational position.

Testing of Herzberg's Theory

According to Herzberg's dual-factor theory, one would predict that the respondents would choose motivators more often than hygienes when describing satisfying situations; and conversely, hygienes would be mentioned more often than motivators as sources of job dissatisfaction.

However, the results of this examination indicate that neither motivators nor hygienes operated singly as satisfiers or dissatisfiers. Instead, both motivators and hygienes exhibited contributions to overall job satisfaction. Hence, both operated as satisfiers. Similarly, the absence of either motivators or hygienes induced job dissatisfaction. Thus, both operated as dissatisfiers.

These findings are completely different from what Herzberg's dual-factor theory would suggest, namely, that there is no interaction between motivators and hygienes. Therefore, the present findings for the satisfying situation and dissatisfying situation do not support Herzberg's dual-factor theory of motivation.

Testing of Single Continuum Theory

Examination of the above conclusions seems to indicate that, in this study, the job factors may operate on a single continuum with the two extremes being satisfaction and dissatisfaction. However, when Tables 4.1 and 4.2 are compared, the importance of the various job factors as contributors to a satisfying situation and to a dissatisfying situation appears to be quite different. These results suggest that most of the job factors did not operate exactly on a single continuum.

In order to interpret the results correctly, the remainder of this section is devoted to a further examination of the relationship between the importance of each job factor in contributing to the situations under discussion.

Tables 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5 present the mean score responses of the supervisors, middle managers, and professionals, respectively, to compare the importance the job factors had in contributing to the satisfying and to the dissatisfying situations. Columns 1 and 2 list the means and standard deviations of the eighteen job factors as sources of job satisfaction. Columns 3 and 4 list the same data for job dissatisfaction. Column 5 shows the difference between a job factor as a source of satisfaction and the absence of that job factor as a source of dissatisfaction. The asterisked numbers indicate the significant differences between the mean scores (Columns 1 and 3) for that job

factor at the .01 level of significance. Column 6 presents the t value computed to test the significance of the difference between the two mean scores of each job factor. Column 7 indicates the degree of relationship between the importance of the job factor to satisfying and dissatisfying situations as measured by Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The asterisk in column 7 indicates a significant relationship between the importance of the job factor to the two situations, at the .01 level of significance.

As indicated in columns 5 and 6 of Table 4.3, for the supervisors studied, ten out of eighteen job factors surveyed were significantly different in degree of importance for the satisfying and dissatisfying situations. The other eight job factors were not significantly different in the importance attached to them as contributors to the two situations. This means that each of these eight job factors was equally important as a contributor to the satisfying situation as was the absence of that job factor for the dissatisfying situation. All of the other ten job factors were more important as a source of job satisfaction, as indicated by the positive sign of the difference in column 5.

For the sampled middle managers, similar results are shown in Table 4.4. Twelve of the eighteen job factors surveyed were significantly different in their importance,

TABLE 4.3

MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, t VALUE, AND CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN
SOURCES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND SOURCES OF JOB
DISSATISFACTION FOR SUPERVISORS

| Job Factors | Satisfying Situation | | Dissatisfying Situation | | Difference between Means | t Value | Correlation Coefficient r |
|------------------------------------|----------------------|---------|-------------------------|---------|--------------------------|---------|---------------------------|
| | Mean | Std. D. | Mean | Std. D. | | | |
| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) |
| Promotion | 2.53 | 1.00 | 2.01 | 0.97 | 0.52 | 1.80 | 0.05 |
| Challenging Assignments | 2.83 | 0.88 | 1.68 | 0.73 | 1.15* | 4.00* | -0.09 |
| Recognition | 2.42 | 0.98 | 2.19 | 1.01 | 0.23 | 0.92 | -0.15 |
| Relation with Superiors | 3.15 | 0.83 | 1.53 | 0.84 | 1.62* | 5.31* | -0.17 |
| Relation with Peers | 3.37 | 0.71 | 1.45 | 0.87 | 1.92* | 6.08* | -0.06 |
| Technical Supervision | 3.01 | 1.00 | 1.56 | 0.84 | 1.45* | 4.86* | -0.26* |
| Merit Increase | 2.45 | 1.09 | 1.97 | 0.96 | 0.48 | 1.69 | -0.07 |
| Achievement | 2.99 | 0.77 | 1.91 | 0.94 | 1.08* | 3.41* | 0.00 |
| Working Conditions | 2.96 | 0.86 | 2.14 | 1.08 | 0.82* | 2.59* | 0.04 |
| Responsibility | 2.77 | 1.04 | 1.93 | 0.98 | 0.84* | 2.74* | -0.10 |
| Security | 2.71 | 1.06 | 2.12 | 1.14 | 0.59 | 1.80 | 0.04 |
| Growth | 2.90 | 1.01 | 2.16 | 1.07 | 0.74 | 2.29 | 0.06 |
| Employee Benefits | 2.81 | 1.07 | 2.53 | 0.96 | 0.28 | 0.84 | 0.00 |
| Work Itself | 3.07 | 0.90 | 1.85 | 1.02 | 1.22* | 3.85* | -0.11 |
| Home Life | 2.77 | 1.10 | 2.08 | 1.04 | 0.69 | 2.23 | 0.38* |
| Work Group | 2.88 | 0.93 | 1.79 | 1.02 | 1.09* | 3.67* | 0.00 |
| Management Policy | 2.75 | 1.02 | 2.28 | 0.95 | 0.47 | 1.52 | 0.03 |
| Use of Best Ability | 3.03 | 0.92 | 1.95 | 1.06 | 1.08* | 3.35* | -0.28* |
| Criteria at Significance Level .01 | | | | | t = 2.58 r = 0.21 | | |

N = 150 *P < .01

TABLE 4.4

MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, t VALUE, AND CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN
SOURCES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND SOURCES OF JOB
DISSATISFACTION FOR MIDDLE MANAGERS

| Job Factors | Satisfying Situation | | Dissatisfying Situation | | Difference between Means | t Value | Correlation Coefficient r |
|-------------------------|----------------------|---------|-------------------------|---------|--------------------------|---------|---------------------------|
| | Mean | Std. D. | Mean | Std. D. | | | |
| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) |
| Promotion | 2.46 | 0.88 | 2.02 | 0.95 | 0.44 | 1.68 | 0.00 |
| Challenging Assignments | 2.81 | 1.01 | 1.76 | 1.00 | 1.05* | 3.90* | 0.05 |
| Recognition | 2.58 | 0.89 | 2.14 | 0.89 | 0.44 | 1.61 | 0.10 |
| Relation with Superiors | 3.18 | 0.84 | 1.59 | 1.00 | 1.59* | 5.26* | -0.20 |
| Relation with Peers | 3.33 | 0.67 | 1.71 | 1.00 | 1.62* | 5.59* | -0.23* |
| Technical Supervision | 3.23 | 0.92 | 1.81 | 1.07 | 1.42* | 4.78* | -0.07 |
| Merit Increase | 2.44 | 0.97 | 2.00 | 1.00 | 0.44 | 1.76 | 0.20 |
| Achievement | 3.04 | 0.82 | 1.92 | 0.92 | 1.02* | 4.03* | 0.02 |
| Working Conditions | 2.79 | 0.82 | 2.04 | 1.06 | 0.78* | 2.59* | -0.05 |
| Responsibility | 2.85 | 0.95 | 2.12 | 1.00 | 0.73 | 2.52 | 0.00 |
| Security | 3.06 | 0.84 | 1.68 | 0.95 | 1.38* | 5.25* | -0.12 |
| Growth | 3.40 | 0.68 | 1.97 | 1.10 | 1.43* | 4.62* | 0.08 |
| Employee Benefits | 2.87 | 0.83 | 2.21 | 0.95 | 0.66 | 2.28 | 0.04 |
| Work Itself | 3.04 | 0.74 | 1.54 | 0.88 | 1.50* | 5.55* | -0.34* |
| Home Life | 2.77 | 0.91 | 2.08 | 0.95 | 0.74* | 2.58* | 0.13 |
| Work Group | 3.01 | 0.80 | 1.90 | 1.13 | 1.11* | 3.94* | -0.02 |
| Management Policy | 2.93 | 0.85 | 2.23 | 1.14 | 0.70 | 2.40 | 0.03 |
| Use of Best Ability | 3.31 | 0.78 | 1.66 | 0.89 | 1.65* | 5.59* | 0.02 |

Criteria at Significance Level .01

t = 2.58 r = 0.21

N = 150

*p < .01

and all twelve job factors were more important as a source of job satisfaction. The other six job factors were equally important as contributors to the satisfying and to the dissatisfying situations.

As shown in Table 4.5, for the sampled professionals, six of the eighteen job factors surveyed were significantly different in their importance for the satisfying and the dissatisfying situations, and all of them were more important as a source of job satisfaction. The other twelve job factors were equally important in contributing to the two situations.

Close examination of these results reveals that, for more than half ($\frac{10}{18}$, $\frac{12}{18}$, and $\frac{6}{18}$) of the job factors surveyed, their importance as a source of job satisfaction is significantly different from that as a source of job dissatisfaction. This tendency is further substantiated by the fact that for all three organizational positions studied, the mean scores of all job factors in a satisfying situation are greater than that in a dissatisfying situation. Thus, to the respondents the presence of the job factors had a stronger effect in leading to job satisfaction than their absence did in creating job dissatisfaction. This relationship implies that the single continuum theory of motivation is less than perfect.

The degree of relationship between the importance of the job factors to the satisfying situation and to the

TABLE 4.5

MEAN, STANDARD DEVIATION, t VALUE, AND CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN
SOURCES OF JOB SATISFACTION AND SOURCES OF JOB
DISSATISFACTION FOR PROFESSIONALS

| Job Factors | Satisfying Situation | | Dissatisfying Situation | | Difference between Means | t Value | Correlation Coefficient r |
|-------------------------|----------------------|---------|-------------------------|---------|--------------------------|---------|---------------------------|
| | Mean | Std. D. | Mean | Std. D. | | | |
| | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) |
| Promotion | 2.44 | 0.84 | 2.23 | 0.90 | 0.21 | 0.79 | 0.07 |
| Challenging Assignments | 2.87 | 0.99 | 2.17 | 1.08 | 0.70 | 2.24 | 0.10 |
| Recognition | 2.42 | 0.94 | 2.26 | 0.85 | 0.16 | 0.65 | -0.03 |
| Relation with Superiors | 2.73 | 0.75 | 1.72 | 0.95 | 1.01* | 3.70* | 0.09 |
| Relation with Peers | 3.27 | 0.59 | 1.65 | 0.93 | 1.62* | 5.40* | -0.05 |
| Technical Supervision | 2.99 | 0.94 | 1.82 | 1.01 | 1.17* | 3.96* | -0.14 |
| Merit Increase | 2.18 | 1.04 | 1.95 | 0.91 | 0.23 | 0.91 | 0.15 |
| Achievement | 2.77 | 0.83 | 2.09 | 1.01 | 0.68 | 2.39 | 0.09 |
| Working Conditions | 2.62 | 1.01 | 2.19 | 0.99 | 0.43 | 1.47 | 0.02 |
| Responsibility | 2.85 | 0.91 | 2.12 | 0.97 | 0.79* | 2.58* | 0.24* |
| Security | 2.69 | 1.04 | 2.21 | 1.08 | 0.48 | 1.67 | 0.06 |
| Growth | 3.07 | 1.00 | 2.43 | 1.15 | 0.64 | 1.99 | 0.10 |
| Employee Benefits | 2.71 | 0.90 | 2.33 | 0.94 | 0.38 | 1.27 | -0.02 |
| Work Itself | 2.96 | 0.97 | 2.05 | 1.09 | 0.91* | 2.95* | 0.01 |
| Home Life | 2.65 | 1.10 | 2.07 | 1.12 | 0.58 | 1.97 | 0.24* |
| Work Group | 2.83 | 0.89 | 1.99 | 1.02 | 0.84* | 2.88* | 0.05 |
| Management Policy | 2.75 | 1.03 | 2.35 | 1.09 | 0.40 | 1.27 | 0.23* |
| Use of Best Ability | 3.09 | 0.93 | 2.39 | 1.11 | 0.70 | 2.13 | 0.10 |

Criteria at Significance Level .01

t = 2.58 r = 0.21

N = 150

*P < .01

dissatisfying situation was further examined by computing a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient for each of the eighteen job factors. These coefficients are presented in Column 7 of Tables 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5. Those which are significant at the .01 level are marked with an asterisk.

For the supervisors and the professionals, fifteen of the eighteen coefficients were not significant. For the middle managers, sixteen of the eighteen coefficients were not significant. When the correlation coefficients are not significant, the importance of the job factors as contributors to the satisfying situation is unrelated to their importance as contributors to the dissatisfying situation. The fact that those job factors had no significant correlation would indicate that the single continuum theory cannot be substantiated.

Based upon the empirical findings and the results of the statistical analyses, this writer concludes that for a large majority of the job factors surveyed, knowledge of importance of contribution to the feeling of job satisfaction cannot be used to infer importance of contribution to the feeling of job dissatisfaction. Therefore, this study does not lend support to the traditional single continuum motivation theory or to Herzberg's dual-factor motivation theory.

Noteworthy, the list in Table 4.1 shows that for the three organizational positions interpersonal relationships with peers and superiors, technical supervision, and use of best ability were the major job factors in contributing to job satisfaction. These results may imply that the competence and behavior of superiors and peers seem to have an important effect on job satisfaction for the retired servicemen studied. It also implies that they desire the opportunity to use their best abilities in their work.

Table 4.1 also shows that for all three organizational positions, the job factors promotion, recognition, and merit increase were rated least important in contributing to satisfying situation. These results may imply that organizational promotion, recognition, and salary increase do not have important impact on job satisfaction of the respondents.

A comparison of Tables 4.1 and 4.2 reveals that, contrary to both the single continuum theory and the dual-factor theory, the hygienes (interpersonal relationships and technical supervision) were of prime importance in contributing to job satisfaction for all three organizational positions studied, but were of least importance in contributing to job dissatisfaction. Similarly, two hygienes (management policy and employee benefits) were of most importance in contributing to a dissatisfying situation for

all three organizational positions studied, but were of relatively minor importance in contributing to the satisfying situation.

The possible explanation for this phenomenon is that the Chinese retired servicemen studied may deem hygienes more relevant than the American engineers and accountants studied by Herzberg.

Hanafi M. Soliman suggested that:

The greater the degree of satisfaction of all kinds of needs (need-satisfying environment), the greater the contribution of motivator needs to overall job satisfaction. Conversely, the lower the degree of satisfaction of all kinds of needs (non-need-satisfying environment), the greater the contribution of hygiene needs to overall job dissatisfaction.¹⁰

If this proposition is true, the results of this study imply that the organizational environment for the retired servicemen studied is at the midpoint of the need-satisfying environment and the non-need-satisfying environment. This could be an explanation for the different findings in this study.

Summary

The purposes of this chapter were to examine the sources of motivation for the Chinese retired servicemen studied, and to test the validity and generality of the

¹⁰Hanafi M. Soliman, "Motivation-Hygiene Theory of Job Attitudes: An Empirical Investigation and an Attempt to Reconcile both the One- and the Two-Factor Theories of Job Attitudes," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1970, Vol. 54, p. 454.

traditional single continuum motivation theory and of Herzberg's dual-factor motivation theory. To accomplish these purposes, two hypotheses relating to the theories were tested, and the results were statistically analyzed. The findings and conclusions of this examination are summarized below:

First, it was found that both motivators and hygienes do contribute to job satisfaction, and that the absence of either motivators or hygienes causes dissatisfaction in their work for the respondents, regardless of their organizational position. Hence, the inference can be made that in this study both motivators and hygienes are sources of both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Based upon these findings, Hypotheses I and II, which predicted that motivators would be insignificant in contributing to both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction and that hygienes would be significant in contributing to both of the situations, were rejected.

Second, it is obvious that the results of this study are at variance with Herzberg's contention that motivators and hygienes operate distinctly on two separate continua. These findings enable us to conclude that Herzberg's dual-factor theory of motivation is not substantiated by this study.

Third, the results of this study reveal that the large majority of the job factors surveyed do not operate

exactly on a single continuum, where the extremes are satisfaction and dissatisfaction. By their presence, the job factors show varying degrees of importance in contributing to the satisfying situation; but the levels of importance were not significantly related to the importance the same job factors had in contributing to the dissatisfying situation. These findings imply that the respondents who perceived certain job factors as sources of job satisfaction may not perceive the absence of the same job factors as sources of job dissatisfaction. Therefore, the single continuum theory is not accepted either.

In conclusion, first, neither the traditional single continuum theory nor Herzberg's dual-factor theory could predict the relative potency of motivators and hygienes. Both theories oversimplified the relationships between motivation and job satisfaction, and the sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The usefulness of any model or theory lies in its ability to enable researchers to make clear and unequivocal predictions. These two motivation theories cannot do this, for they ignore the relevance of cultural and individual difference variables in the job situation.

Second, the results of this study show that the nature of motivators and hygienes (if such variables do in fact exist) is as yet far from clear. It may have different

meanings in different jobs, in different organizational positions, and particularly in different cultures. For example, interpersonal relationships with subordinates, peers, and superiors are hygienes in terms of Herzberg's classification. However, for Chinese in the Republic of China good interpersonal relationships may represent esteem and recognition, which are motivators. Therefore, to adequately test Herzberg's theory in a different culture, a more comprehensive research design is necessary.

CHAPTER V

AN EXAMINATION OF THE RETIRED SERVICEMEN'S JOB ATTITUDES

In this chapter, the sampled retired servicemen's attitudes toward their jobs (job-oriented or non-job-oriented) are examined. The data concerning their interest patterns were obtained from responses to the thirty-two statements in Part III of the questionnaire (See Appendix A).

The five hypotheses to be tested were adapted from Dubin's study with minor change of wording for clarification of language for the sample of Chinese retired servicemen in this study. The findings of this examination were analyzed and comparison was made with Dubin's findings from his original study of American industrial workers. This was done to examine the validity and generality of Dubin's theory concerning the central life interests of employees in a different culture.

For a better understanding of Dubin's theory and for ease of comparison, the following section will first summarize the formulation of Dubin's theory in his approach to the study of industrial workers' attachment to the organization.

Dubin's Propositions, Hypotheses, Measures,
and Findings

Based upon his observation on industrial workers' performance and behavior, Dubin generalized three propositions to predict individuals' job attitudes. For testing his propositions, five hypotheses were formulated. The following outlines the relations of the three propositions Dubin generalized, the five testable hypotheses he formulated, the measure he used for each hypothesis, and the empirical findings of his original study in support of his hypotheses:

Proposition 1. Adequate social behavior may occur in sectors of mandatory participation which is not necessarily important to the individual.

Hypothesis 1. A significant proportion of industrial workers will be classified as non-job-oriented when central life interest is measured with the CLI questionnaire.

Measure: The entire 40 statements of his original CLI questionnaire.

Finding: Only 24 per cent of the industrial workers studied could be labeled job-oriented in their life interests. Thus, three out of four of this group of industrial workers did not see their jobs and workplaces as central life interests for themselves. They found preferred human associations and preferred areas of behavior outside of employment.

Proposition 2. Primary human relations¹ take place

¹"Primary human relations" is defined as "the relationships that occur in groups where the interaction is face-to-face, continuous, intimate, and shared over a wide range

only in situations where social experience is valued by participants.

Hypothesis 2. A significant proportion of industrial workers will be non-job-oriented with respect specifically to informal group experiences when measured on the relevant portion of the CLI questionnaire.

Measure: Fourteen statements in the informal group experience section of the CLI questionnaire.

Finding: Only 9 per cent of the industrial workers in the sample preferred the informal group life that is centered in the job. Nine out of ten indicated that their preferred informal human associations and contacts were found in the community, among friends, and in the family.

Hypothesis 3. A significant proportion of industrial workers will not respond to work as a valued social experience when this is tested by the general experience section of the CLI questionnaire.

Measure: Nine statements in the general life experience section of the CLI questionnaire.

Finding: Only 15 per cent of the industrial workers studied gave job-oriented preferences. The rest saw their experiences as taking place somewhere away from the workplace.

Proposition 3. In situations of necessary but unimportant social participation, individual will attach to the most direct and obvious features of that situation.

of subjects." Robert Dubin, "Industrial Workers' Worlds: A Study of the 'Central Life Interests' of Industrial Workers," Social Problems (January, 1956), Vol. 3, p. 133.

Hypothesis 4. A significant proportion of industrial workers will score job-oriented for their organizational experience when measured on the organizational section of the CLI questionnaire.

Measure: Seven statements in the organizational experience section of the CLI questionnaire.

Finding: More than three out of five (61 per cent) of the industrial workers studied were scored as job-oriented with respect to their experiences in organizations. They chose their companies as the most meaningful context to them when their life experience in organizations were brought into focus.

Hypothesis 5. A significant proportion of industrial workers will be job-oriented for their experiences with technological aspects of their environments when measured on the technological section of the CLI questionnaire.

Measure: Ten statements in the technical experience section of the CLI questionnaire.

Finding: In the technical sector, 63 per cent of the respondents were scored as job-oriented. Almost two out of three of the industrial workers studied identified their workplace as the locale of their preferred relationships with the purely technical aspects of their environment.²

In addition to the findings of this original study, the findings of Dubin's study on German industrial workers also supported his five hypotheses. These empirical

²Ibid., pp. 133-138.

findings enabled him to conclude that his three propositions concerning industrial workers' job-attitudes were valid. Later he extended his hypotheses into the ranks of management. Dubin inferred that work is also not a central life interest for industrial managers. (For a detailed discussion see Chapter III.)

The remainder of this chapter is designed to examine the validity and generality of Dubin's conclusion concerning individuals' job attitudes for managers and professionals in a different culture.

Methods of Data Analysis

According to the respondents' expressed preference for a given situation in carrying out the designated activity, responses to each of the thirty-two statements of the CLI questionnaire were individually scored as job-oriented, non-job-oriented, or indifferent. Within the thirty-two statements, four sections of eight statements each were separately scored by summing the responses to the individual statement in each section. This was done to obtain a job-oriented or non-job-oriented score for four types of relations: informal group participation, general social experiences, the formal aspects of membership and behavior in organizations, and the technical aspects of work environment. Each section was weighted equivalently.

Respondents who selected a job-oriented response to at least 50 per cent of the statements (4 out of 8) in

each section, and those who had at least 75 per cent (6 out of 8) of their answers composed of job-oriented and indifferent responses, with at least three of these responses job-oriented in that section, were designated as job-oriented employees. Those respondents who did not meet either of these criteria were classified as non-job-oriented. The same criteria were used to determine whether a respondent was classified as job-oriented or non-job-oriented in his total pattern of responses to all thirty-two statements. A summary of all thirty-two responses measured total orientation toward the world of work.

For each of the three organizational positions studied, a frequency count was obtained for those scoring job-oriented and those who scored non-job-oriented on the five dimensions (total central life interest, informal group experiences, general life experiences, formal organization relations, and technical relations) of the CLI questionnaire. These frequency counts were used in testing the five hypotheses adapted.

In some cases the preponderance of job-oriented responses to one dimension obviously indicated that a significant difference did exist between the responses. However, a shallow analysis of the data is not conclusive as to whether the proportion of job-oriented responses was significant or not. In this situation, Chi-square analysis provided the information needed to determine if the

frequency observed deviated significantly from some theoretical or expected frequency. Thus, Chi-square analysis was used to test the proposed hypotheses concerning the central life interest of the Chinese retired servicemen.

A significant Chi-square value was interpreted to mean that the samples studied differed significantly in their response to certain dimension of the CLI questionnaire. A Chi-square value that was not significant meant that the samples studied did not differ significantly in their response to that dimension of the CLI questionnaire.

When the data were only classified into two categories (only one degree of freedom) the formula used for computing Chi-square³ was:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(|O-E| - 0.5)^2}{E}$$

O = observed frequency

E = the corresponding expected frequency

The expected frequency for a single sample was based upon a hypothesis of equally distributed frequency; i.e., 50 per cent of the respondents were job-oriented, and 50 per cent were non-job-oriented. By subtracting 0.5 from the absolute difference between O and E, we are reducing the difference. This is called the Yates correction for continuity.⁴

³Freeman F. Elzey, A Programmed Introduction to Statistics (Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, 1969), p. 310.

⁴Ibid., p. 311.

When the data were classified into more than two categories (more than one degree of freedom) the formula for Chi-square⁵ was:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

To determine whether a significant difference existed between the proportions of employees who were job-oriented and non-job-oriented, the following null hypothesis was tested: there is no significant difference between the proportion of job-oriented and non-job-oriented responses of individuals in the groups studied. The following format was used to calculate the Chi-square value for testing the null hypothesis.

| Preference Pattern | Observed Frequency (O) | Expected Frequency (E) | $ O-E - .5$ | $\frac{(O-E - .5)^2}{E}$ |
|-----------------------|------------------------------|------------------------------|--|----------------------------|
| Job-oriented | | $\frac{1}{2}N$ | | |
| Non-job-oriented | | $\frac{1}{2}N$ | | |
| Total (N) | | | $\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E - .5)^2}{E}$ | |

Based upon the Chi-square value obtained, the null hypothesis was either accepted or rejected. These results were then used to provide information whereby inferences were made about Dubin's five hypotheses. If the null hypothesis was rejected, inference was made that the data

⁵Ibid., p. 315.

obtained from this study did support the hypothesis that a significant proportion of the retired servicemen studied would be either job-oriented or non-job-oriented in their responses to one dimension of the CLI questionnaire. If the null hypothesis was accepted, inference was made that the data obtained did not support the hypothesis that a significant proportion of respondents would be either job-oriented or non-job-oriented on that dimension of the CLI questionnaire.

A Chi-square test was also constructed to determine whether the frequencies observed were significantly different among the three organizational positions studied. This was accomplished by analyzing the three groups in two ways: First, only the supervisors' and middle managers' responses were compared. Second, the responses of all three groups were compared. The results of this test allow a comparison to be made between managers and professionals.

The Chi-square computing technique was also applied when there were multiple samples providing data. The supervisor and professional groups are shown below to depict the general format dealing with the computation of Chi-square values for two or more samples (groups of individuals) and each sample has been divided into two or more categories of responses.

| Organizational Position | Preference Pattern | | N row |
|----------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|---------|
| | Job-oriented | Non-job-oriented | |
| Supervisors | Observed frequency | Observed frequency | N_3 |
| Professionals | Observed frequency | Observed frequency | N_4 |
| N column | N_1 | N_2 | N total |

The expected frequency for each category was determined by the following formula⁶:

$$\text{Category expected frequency} = \frac{(\text{marginal row total})(\text{marginal column total})}{\text{Total number}}$$

Thus, the expected frequency for the professionals who are job-oriented were:

$$E = \frac{(N_4)(N_1)}{N \text{ total}}$$

When more than one group of individuals gave more than one category of responses, the degrees of freedom (df) used was determined by the following formula⁷:

$$df = (\text{number of rows} - 1)(\text{number of columns} - 1)$$

These methods of data analysis allowed for a more precise evaluation of the generalizations Dubin made from his studies.

Hypotheses Testing and Findings Analyses

Traditionally, it has been assumed that work and the workplace are the central life interest of workers. Dubin

⁶Ibid., p. 323.

⁷Ibid., p. 326.

formulated the following hypotheses to test whether the industrial workers' attitudes toward work and the workplace had changed to a situation of necessary or mandatory social experience no longer valued by the employees. Hypothesis I, as adapted for this examination, and the results obtained are stated as follows:

Hypothesis I. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will be classified as non-job-oriented when central life interest is measured with the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.

The frequencies obtained from scoring the total CLI questionnaire were used to test this hypothesis. The results derived from the sample surveyed in total and by organizational position, as well as Dubin's findings from his sample of industrial workers, are presented in Table 5.1.

The sampled total responses in Table 5.1 rated job-oriented interests (395) significantly higher than non-job-oriented interests (55). This relationship holds true for all of the three organizational positions--supervisors, middle managers, and professionals. The significance of the difference between the job-oriented and the non-job-oriented responses was tested against the null hypothesis--there is no significant difference between the proportion of job-oriented and non-job-oriented responses of individuals in the groups studied. The resulting Chi-square values for the total respondents and for each of the three organizational positions studied are presented in Table 5.2.

TABLE 5.1

JOB ATTITUDES OF THE SAMPLED RETIRED SERVICEMEN AND DUBIN'S INDUSTRIAL WORKERS

| Preference Pattern | Industrial Workers (Dubin) | | Retired Servicemen's Responses | | | | | | | |
|--------------------|----------------------------|------|--------------------------------|------|-------------|------|-----------------|------|---------------|------|
| | | | Total Respondents | | Supervisors | | Middle Managers | | Professionals | |
| | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % |
| Job-oriented | 118 | 24.0 | 395 | 87.8 | 121 | 80.7 | 139 | 92.7 | 135 | 90.0 |
| Non-job-oriented | 373 | 76.0 | 55 | 12.2 | 29 | 19.3 | 11 | 7.3 | 15 | 10.0 |
| Total (N) | 491 | | 450 | | 150 | | 150 | | 150 | |

TABLE 5.2

CHI-SQUARE VALUES OBTAINED WHEN THE 50-50 FREQUENCIES WERE TESTED AGAINST THE OBSERVED FREQUENCIES FOR THE RETIRED SERVICEMEN'S JOB ATTITUDES

| Group Tested | Chi-Square Value | |
|------------------------------------|------------------|------|
| Total Respondents | 255.38 | |
| Supervisors | 55.20 | |
| Middle Managers | 107.52 | |
| Professionals | 94.40 | |
| Significance Level | .05 | .01 |
| Criteria for One Degree of Freedom | 3.84 | 6.64 |

As shown in Table 5.2, the Chi-square values are much larger than the two required criteria for one degree of freedom. Thus, the null hypothesis should be rejected. On the basis of the rejection of the null hypothesis at the .01 level of significance, this writer concludes that the difference of the frequencies in the two categories (job-oriented and non-job-oriented) is significant.

The responses were further analyzed to determine if there was a significant difference in responses between the organizational positions studied. The resulting Chi-square values for the managerial groups (supervisors and middle managers) and for all three organizational positions studied are shown in Table 5.3.

TABLE 5.3

CHI-SQUARE VALUES FOR THE RESPONSES OF THE
ORGANIZATIONAL POSITIONS

| Groups' Response Analyzed | Chi-Square Value | |
|--|-----------------------------------|------|
| Between Managerial Groups (supervisors and middle managers) | 8.34 (one degree of freedom) | |
| Among All Three Groups (supervisors, middle managers, and professionals) | 13.31 (two degrees of freedom) | |
| Significance Level | .05 | .01 |
| Criteria for: | | |
| one degree of freedom | 3.84 | 6.64 |
| two degrees of freedom | 5.99 | 9.21 |

The Chi-square values in Table 5.3 are larger than the required criteria for both one and two degrees of freedom at the .01 level of significance. This indicates that different organizational positions did make a significant difference in the frequency breakdown of job-oriented and non-job-oriented responses to the total CLI questionnaire. These significant Chi-square values confirm the results in Table 5.1 which show that job orientation increases as one's position in the organizational hierarchy rises, and as the professional status of the individual increases.

The findings concerning the total pattern are provocative. Dubin reported that for more than three out of every four industrial workers studied, work and the workplace were not their central life interests. In contrast, for almost nine out of every ten Chinese retired servicemen studied, work and the workplace were their central life interests. These Chinese retired servicemen found their preferred areas of behavior inside their employment. Thus, we may infer that the sample studied are much more interested in their work than Dubin's industrial workers are in theirs.

Consequently, Hypothesis I should be rejected based upon the results of this examination. Furthermore, Dubin's generalization (work and the workplace are no longer considered valued social experiences) is not true for the

Chinese retired servicemen studied.

Dubin formulated his second and third hypotheses by basing them upon the assumption that work and the work-places were not considered by the industrial workers as the center of their life interests. Hypothesis II, as adapted for this examination, was used to test the assumption.

Hypothesis II. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will be non-job-oriented with respect to informal group experiences, when measured on the relevant portion of the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.

Dubin defined "informal group experiences" as "those relations between people that are not directly a product of an official relationship in an organization or related positions in a division of labor."⁸ The score on the eight statements included in the informal group experience section of the CLI questionnaire were used to test this hypothesis. The results for the sample surveyed in total and by organizational position, as well as Dubin's findings for the industrial workers, are shown in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 reveals that in every case job-oriented responses were significantly greater than the non-job-oriented responses. The large Chi-square values in Table 5.2 indicate that the preponderance of job-oriented responses in Table 5.4 does not necessitate the Chi-square analysis

⁸Dubin, op. cit., p. 135.

TABLE 5.4

THE PREFERENCE FOR INFORMAL GROUP EXPERIENCES OF THE SAMPLED RETIRED
SERVICEMEN AND DUBIN'S INDUSTRIAL WORKERS

| Preference for Informal Group Experience | Industrial Workers (Dubin) | | Retired Servicemen's Response | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------------------|------|-------------------------------|------|-------------|------|--------------------|------|---------------|------|
| | | | Total Respondents | | Supervisors | | Middle Managers | | Professionals | |
| | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % |
| Job- oriented | 44 | 9.0 | 369 | 82.0 | 122 | 81.3 | 129 | 86.0 | 118 | 78.7 |
| Non-job- oriented | 447 | 91.0 | 81 | 18.0 | 28 | 18.7 | 21 | 14.0 | 32 | 21.3 |
| Total (N) | 491 | | 450 | | 150 | | 150 | | 150 | |

TABLE 5.5

CHI-SQUARE VALUES FOR THE RESPONSE TO THE INFORMAL RELATIONS SECTION OF
THE CLI QUESTIONNAIRE BY ORGANIZATIONAL POSITIONS

| Groups' Response Analyzed | Chi-Square Value | |
|---------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|
| Between Managerial Groups | 1.22 | (one degree of freedom) |
| Among All Three Groups | 2.80 | (two degrees of freedom) |
| Significance Level | .05 | .01 |
| Criteria for: | | |
| one degree of freedom | 3.84 | 6.64 |
| two degrees of freedom | 5.99 | 9.21 |

for a test of the null hypothesis.

Table 5.5 presents the Chi-square values for the analysis among groups responding to the informal group experience section of the CLI questionnaire. This was done to determine if their responses differed significantly among the groups studied. Based upon the small Chi-square values, this writer concludes that there was no significant difference between the way the sampled groups responded to the informal section of the CLI questionnaire.

The results in Table 5.4 also indicate that the sampled retired servicemen's response to the informal group section of the CLI questionnaire was diametrically opposite to Dubin's industrial workers' response. More than four out of every five of the retired servicemen respondents selected their work environment as the setting for preferred human associations and contacts. The workplace is the preferred location for informal group relations, such as those involving small-talk, leisure-time behavior, friendship interactions, and affectional attachments. This large percentage of job-oriented responses leads to the rejection of Hypothesis II for the retired servicemen studied.

Noteworthy in Table 5.4 is that the professionals had the lowest proportion of job-oriented responses among the three groups studied. This may imply that the professionals were less involved in the informal group participation than the managerial groups.

A third hypothesis was formulated by Dubin to obtain further information concerning his proposition that work and the workplace were no longer a valued social experience. This hypothesis, as adapted for this examination, is as follows:

Hypothesis III. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will not respond to work as a valued social experience when tested by the general experience section of the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.

Dubin defined general experience as "dealing with activities giving pleasure, satisfaction, or general rewards, and which may be pursued in varying places and at varying times."⁹ The respondents' preference for these activities provided a direct indication of the degree of emotional impact which work and the workplace had for them. The scoring of eight statements in the general experience section of the CLI questionnaire were used to test this hypothesis. The results of the sample studied in total and by organizational position, as well as Dubin's findings for industrial workers, are presented in Table 5.6.

The results in Table 5.6 indicate that in every case job-oriented responses were significantly greater than the non-job-oriented responses. The results were again opposite of Dubin's findings. A brief analysis of the significant

⁹Ibid., p. 136.

TABLE 5.6

THE PREFERENCE FOR GENERAL EXPERIENCES OF THE SAMPLED RETIRED
SERVICEMEN AND DUBIN'S INDUSTRIAL WORKERS

| Preference for General Experience | Industrial Workers (Dubin) | | Retired Servicemen's Response | | | | | | | |
|---|----------------------------------|------|-------------------------------|------|-------------|------|--------------------|------|---------------|------|
| | | | Total Respondents | | Supervisors | | Middle Managers | | Professionals | |
| | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % |
| Job- oriented | 74 | 15.0 | 343 | 76.2 | 119 | 79.3 | 114 | 76.0 | 110 | 73.3 |
| Non-job- oriented | 417 | 85.0 | 107 | 23.8 | 31 | 20.7 | 36 | 24.0 | 40 | 26.7 |
| Total (N) | 491 | | 450 | | 150 | | 150 | | 150 | |

TABLE 5.7

CHI-SQUARE VALUES FOR THE RESPONSE TO THE GENERAL RELATIONS SECTION OF
THE CLI QUESTIONNAIRE BY ORGANIZATIONAL POSITIONS

| Groups' Response Analyzed | Chi-Square Value | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------------|------|
| Between Managerial Groups | 0.47 (one degree of freedom) | |
| Among All Three Groups | 1.49 (two degrees of freedom) | |
| Significance Level | .05 | .01 |
| Criteria for: | | |
| one degree of freedom | 3.84 | 6.64 |
| two degrees of freedom | 5.99 | 9.21 |

difference between the proportion of job-oriented and non-job-oriented responses was sufficient to reject the null hypothesis.

Examination of the proportions in Table 5.6 shows that the job orientation in the preference for general experiences decreases as one's position in the organizational hierarchy rises. This may indicate that the degree of emotional impact which work and the workplace have for the respondent decreases as his organizational position rises. Professionals had the lowest percentage of job-oriented response in the three groups. This may mean that they are less affected emotionally. However, Table 5.7 reveals that the difference is insignificant among the three groups' responses to the general experience section of the CLI questionnaire.

Approximately 76 per cent of the sample studied indicated that their work was a valued social experience. This fact may imply that they are emotionally involved with their jobs. This large proportion of job-oriented responses on the general experience section of the CLI questionnaire leads to the rejection of Hypothesis III for the retired servicemen studied.

Dubin's Proposition Two (primary human relations take place only in situations where social experience is valued by participants) is not supported by the results of this examination. However, from a re-examination of

Tables 5.4 and 5.6 it can be seen that a higher percentage of the retired servicemen studied were job-oriented on the informal relations section of the CLI questionnaire than on the general experience section. This leads to the conclusion that some primary human relations take place in situations that are not valued by the individuals.

Hypotheses IV and V were formulated by Dubin to examine whether there are some sources of organizational attachment or loyalty to a situation that is not a valued social experience for the individual employee. The two sources of attachment tested by Dubin were the experiences in formal organization and the experiences with technical aspects of the employees' work environment.

Hypothesis IV. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will score job-oriented for their organizational experiences when measured on the organizational section of the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.

Experience in the formal organization sector encompasses a variety of relationships among an organization, its officials, and its members, such as hiring, joining, disciplining, rewarding, directing, and ordering.¹⁰ The score on the eight statements concerning formal organization experiences were used to test this hypothesis. The results for the sample studied in total and by organizational

¹⁰Ibid., p. 137.

position, as well as Dubin's findings for the industrial workers, are shown in Table 5.8.

A cursory analysis of the results in Table 5.8 was sufficient to conclude that the difference between the frequencies in the job-oriented and non-job-oriented categories is significant. It is also obvious that the results of this examination differ significantly from Dubin's findings. More than seven out of ten of these retired servicemen identified the organizations they worked for as the most significant formal organization with which they come in contact.

Table 5.9 presents the Chi-square values for the analysis between groups responding to the organizational experience section of the CLI questionnaire. Based upon these results, we conclude that there was no significant difference between the way the sampled groups responded to this dimension.

More than 71 per cent of the retired servicemen's responses were job-oriented. These results allow for Hypothesis IV to be accepted. This means that a significant proportion of those surveyed believed that the organizations in which they worked provided the important or preferred opportunities for organizational experiences.

The attachment of the individual to the organization, based upon the groups studied and the experiences sampled, did increase as a person moved up the managerial hierarchy.

TABLE 5.8

THE PREFERENCE FOR ORGANIZATIONAL EXPERIENCES OF THE SAMPLED RETIRED
SERVICEMEN AND DUBIN'S INDUSTRIAL WORKERS

| Preference for Organizational Experience | Industrial Workers (Dubin) | | Retired Servicemen's Response | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------------------|------|-------------------------------|------|-------------|------|--------------------|------|---------------|------|
| | | | Total Respondents | | Supervisors | | Middle Managers | | Professionals | |
| | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % |
| Job- oriented | 300 | 61.0 | 321 | 71.3 | 98 | 65.3 | 107 | 71.3 | 115 | 76.7 |
| Non-job- oriented | 191 | 39.0 | 129 | 28.7 | 52 | 34.7 | 43 | 28.7 | 35 | 23.3 |
| Total (N) | 491 | | 450 | | 150 | | 150 | | 150 | |

TABLE 5.9

CHI-SQUARE VALUES FOR THE RESPONSE TO THE ORGANIZATIONAL EXPERIENCE SECTION
OF THE CLI QUESTIONNAIRE BY ORGANIZATIONAL POSITION

| Groups' Response Analyzed | Chi-Square Value | |
|---------------------------|------------------|--------------------------|
| Between Managerial Groups | 1.26 | (one degree of freedom) |
| Among All Three Groups | 4.70 | (two degrees of freedom) |
| Significance Level | .05 | .01 |
| Criteria for: | | |
| one degree of freedom | 3.84 | 6.64 |
| two degrees of freedom | 5.99 | 9.21 |

This may be because formal organization structures required an individual to have a high degree of organizational attachment as a condition for being promoted into managerial positions. Formal organizations are also critical features of the work lives of many professionals. It may imply that as managerial and professional status is increased, work and the workplace become more important as a source of emotional involvement. This implication is reinforced from the results presented in Table 5.1.

Dubin also used a sample of experiences involving the technical aspects of the employees' work environment to test their organizational attachment. This hypothesis, as adapted for this examination, is as follows:

Hypothesis V. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will be job-oriented for their experiences with technological aspects of their environment when measured on the technological section of the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.

Examples of the relationships encompassed in the technical sector of experiences are those concerns for economy, efficiency, improvement, and cleanliness of the work itself, as well as the care and maintenance of tools and equipment.¹¹ The responses to the eight statements in the technical relations section of the CLI questionnaire were used to test Hypothesis V. The results for the sample

¹¹Ibid., p. 138.

studied in total and by organizational position, as well as Dubin's findings for the industrial workers, are presented in Table 5.10.

As shown in Table 5.10, almost 89 per cent of the retired servicemen studied were scored as job-oriented in terms of their preferences with respect to the technological sector of experience. These results were sufficient to reject the null hypothesis for the three groups studied. When these results were compared with Dubin's, it is revealed that the retired servicemen were significantly more job-oriented than the industrial workers.

Table 5.11 presents the Chi-square values obtained when the three groups' responses to the technical relations section of the CLI questionnaire were analyzed. The large Chi-square values indicate the significance of the difference among the three groups' responses to this dimension.

Based upon the results obtained in this examination, Hypothesis V is accepted. This fact indicates that work and the workplace were preferred by the sample studied as the locale for the technical aspects of the work environment. Possibly the time involved and the nature of training for a manager or a professional would foster a greater preference for the technical aspects of the work environment than would be the case for industrial workers.

Table 5.10 reveals that the attachment of the individual to the technical aspects of the work environment

TABLE 5.10

THE PREFERENCE FOR TECHNICAL RELATIONS OF THE SAMPLED RETIRED SERVICEMEN
AND DUBIN'S INDUSTRIAL WORKERS

| Preference for Technical Relations | Industrial Workers (Dubin) | | Retired Servicemen's Response | | | | | | | |
|--|----------------------------------|------|-------------------------------|------|-------------|------|--------------------|------|---------------|------|
| | | | Total Respondents | | Supervisors | | Middle Managers | | Professionals | |
| | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % |
| Job- oriented | 309 | 63.0 | 400 | 88.9 | 117 | 78.0 | 139 | 92.7 | 144 | 96.0 |
| Non-job- oriented | 182 | 37.0 | 50 | 11.1 | 33 | 22.0 | 11 | 7.3 | 6 | 4.0 |
| Total (N) | 491 | | 450 | | 150 | | 150 | | 150 | |

TABLE 5.11

CHI-SQUARE VALUES FOR THE RESPONSE TO THE TECHNICAL RELATIONS SECTION
OF THE CLI QUESTIONNAIRE BY ORGANIZATIONAL POSITION

| Groups' Response Analyzed | | Chi-Square Value | |
|---------------------------|--|-----------------------------------|------|
| Between Managerial Groups | | 12.92 (one degree of freedom) | |
| Among All Three Groups | | 27.81 (two degrees of freedom) | |
| Significance Level | | .05 | .01 |
| Criteria for: | | | |
| one degree of freedom | | 3.84 | 6.64 |
| two degrees of freedom | | 5.99 | 9.21 |

does increase as a person moves up the managerial hierarchy. It can be seen that the professionals had the highest job-oriented responses among the three groups. This may be related to the fact that the training which a professional receives is centered upon technical aspects of a defined subject. Consequently, the technical aspects of a job may be in clear focus for the professionals who are practicing in their area of training. This is opposed to a manager who although dealing with technical aspects has other areas to deal with in his total job environment. For professionals, work is a focal center of self-identification, thus it is important and valued. As Orzack states:

Training as a professional may stress technological details as well as the learning of behaviors appropriate to future roles in work settings. Such training also encourages aspirants to professional status to prefer a work setting to other settings for the location of informal social relationships and as sources of personal satisfactions.¹²

From these considerations, it is expected that professionals would prefer the environment of the workplace as the setting for technological and organizational experiences (see Table 5.8). They would to a lesser degree locate informal social relationships (see Table 5.4) and general personal satisfactions (see Table 5.6) within the area of work.

The results on formal and technical experiences are

¹²Louis H. Orzack, "Work as a 'Central Life Interest' of Professionals," Social Problems, 1959-60, Vol. 7, p. 126.

similar to, but more significant than, Dubin's, where significant proportions of the retired servicemen studied did prefer those experiences in connection with work, rather than at other locales. As a result, Dubin's Proposition Three (in a mandatory situation that is not important social participation, the most direct and obvious features become bases for attachment) is supported by the results of this examination.

Summary

All central life interest patterns obtained from the 450 sampled retired servicemen are summarized in Table 5.12. To facilitate comparison, the findings of Dubin's study of the 491 industrial workers are also included therein.

As indicated in Table 5.12, in every case a majority of the retired servicemen surveyed were job-oriented, regardless of their organizational position. It is evident that work and the workplace were viewed as a central life interest, as a setting for preferred informal group relations, as a setting for preferred general social experiences, as a setting for member formal organization relations to take place, and as a setting in which individuals related to the technological features of work environment. The methods and results of the investigation of this evidence have been presented in this chapter.

TABLE 5.12

TOTAL CENTRAL LIFE INTEREST AND SUBORDINATE EXPERIENCE PATTERNS FOR THE
SAMPLED RETIRED SERVICEMEN AND DUBIN'S INDUSTRIAL WORKERS

| Interest Pattern | Industrial Workers (Dubin) | | Retired Servicemen's Response | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|----------------------------|------|-------------------------------|------|-------------|------|-----------------|------|---------------|------|
| | | | Total Respondents | | Supervisors | | Middle Managers | | Professionals | |
| | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % | # | % |
| Total CLI | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job-oriented | 118 | 24.0 | 395 | 87.8 | 121 | 80.7 | 139 | 92.7 | 135 | 90.0 |
| Non-job-oriented | 373 | 76.0 | 55 | 12.2 | 29 | 19.3 | 11 | 7.3 | 15 | 10.0 |
| Informal Relations | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job-oriented | 44 | 9.0 | 369 | 82.0 | 122 | 81.3 | 129 | 86.0 | 118 | 78.7 |
| Non-job-oriented | 447 | 91.0 | 81 | 18.0 | 28 | 18.7 | 21 | 14.0 | 32 | 21.3 |
| General Relations | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job-oriented | 74 | 15.0 | 343 | 76.2 | 119 | 79.3 | 114 | 76.0 | 110 | 73.3 |
| Non-job-oriented | 417 | 85.0 | 107 | 23.8 | 31 | 20.7 | 36 | 24.0 | 40 | 26.7 |
| Formal Relations | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job-oriented | 300 | 61.0 | 321 | 71.3 | 98 | 65.3 | 107 | 71.3 | 115 | 76.7 |
| Non-job-oriented | 191 | 39.0 | 129 | 28.7 | 52 | 34.7 | 43 | 28.7 | 35 | 23.3 |
| Technical Relations | | | | | | | | | | |
| Job-oriented | 309 | 63.0 | 400 | 88.9 | 117 | 78.0 | 139 | 92.7 | 144 | 96.0 |
| Non-job-oriented | 182 | 37.0 | 50 | 11.1 | 33 | 22.0 | 11 | 7.3 | 6 | 4.0 |
| N | 491 | | 450 | | 150 | | 150 | | 150 | |

As measured by the pattern of responses to all of the thirty-two statements of the CLI questionnaire, the larger proportion (approximately 88 per cent) of job-oriented retired servicemen studied provides strong basis to reject Dubin's first hypothesis. In the four component sections of experience included in the CLI questionnaire, the results reported in the informal and general sections also provided evidence to reject the two relevant hypotheses. Only the findings obtained from the formal and technical sections tended to support the two relevant hypotheses.

Based upon these results, a tentative generalization can be made: the Chinese retired servicemen surveyed have a well-developed sense of attachment to their work and workplaces and a corresponding sense of total commitment to it. This is different from Dubin's conclusions concerning the industrial workers he studied.

The related studies discussed in Chapter III revealed that employees' commitment to work and the workplace increased as occupational status ascended. In this examination it was true for most of the cases, except for the general experience section, that the middle managers' and the professionals' responses were more significantly job-oriented than the supervisors' responses to those dimensions.

Previous studies, cited in Chapter III, also suggested that professionals had the highest job-oriented responses. For this examination, only two cases supported

this generalization. They are the formal organization relations section and the technical relations section of the CLI questionnaire. This may be related to two facts: First, formal organization structures may require that an individual have a high degree of organizational attachment. Second, the training which professionals receive is centered upon the technical aspects of a defined subject.

Among the three groups studied the professionals were the least committed to work and the workplace, when measured by the responses to the informal group relations and the general life relations sections of the CLI questionnaire. This may imply that the professionals were less involved in the informal group participation than managerial groups, and that they enjoyed less general social satisfactions within the area of work.

The results in Table 5.12 also indicate that the percentage of the total responses to the experiences of formal organization was least among the four sections of the CLI questionnaire. This reveals the fact that for the sample studied fewer preferred the formal organizations as the center of their life interest when compared with other dimensions. However, the preponderant proportion of job-oriented responses to this section still indicate that a significant proportion of the sampled retired servicemen believed that the organizations in which they worked provided the important opportunities for organizational experiences.

In all cases, there were significant differences in job attitudes between the Chinese retired servicemen surveyed in this study and the American and German industrial workers studied by Dubin. This suggests two things: First, cultural background may have an important effect on individuals' attitudes toward their jobs. Second, commitment to work may increase with movement from the industrial worker classification into the managerial and professional status. In this examination, even within the managerial and professional ranks the commitment to work increased as one's position in the organizational hierarchy rose, except for general life relations.

In conclusion, the purpose of this chapter was to examine the validity and generality of Dubin's conclusions concerning the central life interest of the employees. Based upon the results obtained in this examination, Dubin's theory (a significant proportion of employees have shifted from centering their lives on the job to centering their lives off the job) is not supported.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Inducing employees to expend adequate energy on a productive activity by applying the correct motivations requires an understanding of the employees' needs, their sources of motivation, and their attitudes toward their jobs. This study was conducted to examine the sources of motivation and the job attitudes of the sampled Chinese retired servicemen under the assistance programs carried out by the Vocational Assistance Commission for Retired Servicemen (VACRS).

Two examinations were made to test the validity and generality of three Western-oriented theories in an Oriental setting. In Chapter IV, the traditional single continuum motivation theory and Herzberg's dual-factor motivation theory were tested. Chapter V concerns the test of Dubin's theory of central life interest (CLI). To conduct the examinations, a survey was made. The sample of the survey was composed of 450 retired servicemen employed by the VACRS-affiliated agencies. One hundred and fifty men were chosen from each of the three organizational positions (supervisors, middle managers, and professionals).

A summary and conclusions concerning the examination of the three motivation theories and some recommendations to the VACRS and for further studies are presented in the remainder of this chapter.

Summary and Conclusions Concerning the Examination
of Herzberg's Dual-Factor Motivation Theory and
the Traditional Single Continuum
Motivation Theory

Herzberg's dual-factor theory proposes that the job factors involved in producing job satisfaction are distinct from the job factors that lead to job dissatisfaction. These two independent sets of job factors are called motivators and hygienes, respectively. Motivators affect job attitudes only in the positive direction. Their presence leads to increased job satisfaction, but the absence of them would not necessarily cause job dissatisfaction. Hence, motivators act mainly as satisfiers. They are intrinsic to the job and are associated with those job-related factors which satisfy the individuals' need for self-actualization. Hygienes serve to prevent job dissatisfaction. When present, they do not lead to high levels of job satisfaction, but the absence of these job factors would cause job dissatisfaction. Thus, hygienes act mainly as dissatisfiers. They are extrinsic to the job and are associated with environmental factors of the job context.

Herzberg's dual-factor theory also states that the feelings of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not the obverse of each other. The opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but rather no job satisfaction. Similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but rather no job dissatisfaction. Therefore, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are two separate continua.

The traditional single continuum theory is in contrast to Herzberg's theory. It makes no distinction between motivators and hygienes. This theory assumes that the presence of any job factor produces job satisfaction and its absence induces job dissatisfaction. Thus, job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are two extreme ends of a single continuum.

According to the single continuum theory, if one of the job factors is improved or a new one is introduced, the individual will shift his degree of job satisfaction toward the satisfied end of the continuum. On the other hand, if one of the job factors is reduced or removed, the individual will shift toward the dissatisfied end of the continuum. The magnitude of the shift along the scale is usually seen as being positively correlated with the size of the change in the job factor generating it.

The validity and generality of these two theories in a different culture were tested by examining the sources

of motivation for the sampled Chinese retired servicemen in the three organizational positions mentioned. Friedlander's questionnaire (developed from Herzberg's study) was used as data-collecting instrument to obtain the information needed. Two hypotheses were formulated as follows:

Hypothesis I. Motivators are insignificant in contributing to the feelings of both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction among the retired servicemen surveyed, regardless of organization position.

Hypothesis II. Hygienes are significant in contributing to the feelings of both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction among the retired servicemen surveyed, regardless of organization position.

Testing of Hypotheses

In order to examine the motivator-satisfying-dissatisfying relationships and the hygiene-satisfying-dissatisfying relationships proposed by the two hypotheses, two sequential lists of eighteen job factors were formulated according to their mean scores of importance in contributing to feelings of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction, respectively. The responses of the sampled retired servicemen in each of the three organizational positions were subjected to a separate analysis of variance to determine whether they attributed a significantly different importance to the eighteen job factors as contributors to both situations. For the convenience of the reader, the essential elements of the hypotheses tested as

well as the findings of this examination are shown in Table 6.1.

TABLE 6.1

SUMMARY FINDINGS CONCERNING THE EXAMINATION OF
HERZBERG'S DUAL-FACTOR THEORY AND THE
TRADITIONAL SINGLE CONTINUUM THEORY

| Hypotheses | Subject | Situation | Organization Position | Findings |
|------------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------------|----------|
| I | Motivators | Satisfying | Supervisors | Reject |
| | Are | | Middle Managers | Reject |
| | Insignificant | | Professionals | Reject |
| | Contributing to | Dis-satisfying | Supervisors | Reject |
| | | | Middle Managers | Reject |
| | | | Professionals | Reject |
| II | Hygienes | Satisfying | Supervisors | Reject |
| | Are | | Middle Managers | Reject |
| | Significant | | Professionals | Reject |
| | Contributing to | Dis-satisfying | Supervisors | Reject |
| | | | Middle Managers | Reject |
| | | | Professionals | Reject |

It was found that the five most important job factors contributing to the satisfying situation were both motivators and hygienes. They were not the same for all three organizational positions surveyed. For the supervisors and middle managers, three were hygienes and two were motivators. For the professionals, three were motivators and two were hygienes.

In examining the five most important job factors as contributors to the dissatisfying situation, it was also found that they were both motivators and hygienes, and they were not the same for all three organizational positions surveyed. The supervisors and middle managers

rated three hygienes and two motivators. The professionals rated three motivators and two hygienes.

In conclusion, neither motivators nor hygienes operated alone as satisfiers or dissatisfiers. Instead, both motivators and hygienes contributed to job satisfaction as well as job dissatisfaction. These results held true regardless of organizational position. These findings led to the rejection of both Hypotheses I and II in this study.

Testing of Herzberg's Dual-Factor Theory

The empirical findings of this examination are completely different from Herzberg's proposition that there is no interaction between the two sets of job factors in contributing to the feelings of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. Thus, the data obtained lead to the conclusion that Herzberg's dual-factor motivation theory is not substantiated by this study in the Chinese culture.

Testing of Single Continuum Theory

It was also found from the results that the order of importance the job factors had in contributing to job satisfaction by their presence and to job dissatisfaction by their absence appeared to be quite different. In most cases, the job factors that were important in leading to job satisfaction were not the same as those causing job dissatisfaction. These results suggest that most of the

job factors surveyed did not exactly operate on a single continuum where the extreme ends are job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction.

In order to interpret the results correctly, a further examination was performed by using t-test and Pearson product-moment correlation analysis to test the relationship between the importance of each job factor in contributing to both situations (job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction).

The results of the t-test show that, for more than half of the job factors surveyed, their importance as a source of job satisfaction was significantly different from that as a source of job dissatisfaction. To the respondents the presence of the job factors had a stronger effect in leading to job satisfaction than their absence had in creating job dissatisfaction. These results imply that the single continuum theory is less than perfect for explaining the motivation process in this study.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients revealed that a large majority of the job factors surveyed had no significant correlation in contributing to both job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction. This implies that knowledge of the importance most job factors had in contributing to job satisfaction can not be used to infer the importance these same job factors would have, by their absence, in contributing to job dissatisfaction.

In conclusion, neither Herzberg's dual-factor theory nor the traditional single continuum theory can adequately explain the importance of certain job factors in motivating the Chinese retired servicemen studied. Both of these two theories oversimplified the relationships between the variables to job satisfaction and to job dissatisfaction. As pointed out by Hulin and Smith, job satisfaction is a multidimensional variable; it is composed of a number of factors or distinct areas of satisfaction.¹ In fact, an individual's job satisfaction is not an absolute phenomenon but is relative to the alternatives available to him. A certain job factor can be a satisfier, dissatisfier, or irrelevant, depending on conditions in comparable jobs, conditions of other people of the same qualifications and past experience of the individual, as well as on numerous situational variables of the present job. Therefore, job satisfaction is a function of the perceived characteristics of a job in relation to an individual's frame of reference.

This conclusion indicates that no single motivation theory can be applied in its entirety to the Chinese culture in motivating the retired servicemen studied. However, the decision-makers of the assistance programs should keep

¹Charles L. Hulin and Patricia C. Smith, "A Linear Model of Job Satisfaction," Journal of Applied Psychology, 1965, Vol. 49, pp. 215-216.

in mind the general idea of Maslow's theory, which states that when the lower-level of basic human needs are reasonably well fulfilled, motivation must be provided in terms of opportunity for the satisfaction of higher-level psychological needs. Without this opportunity, lack of fulfillment of these higher-level needs can lead to dissatisfaction and frustration.

Summary and Conclusions Concerning the Examination
of Dubin's Theory of Central Life Interest

According to Robert Dubin's analysis, work can have different meanings to different people. Some people are job-oriented, that is, their job is central to their life interest. Some are non-job-oriented, their primary central life interest (CLI) is in areas outside of work. Some have no strong ties or centers of interest, either to job or non-job areas of life; for them emotional involvement is relatively slight.

In pursuing the study of industrial workers' attachment to work organizations, Dubin generalized three propositions. In attempting to confirm these propositions, five testable hypotheses were formulated. For testing his hypotheses, Dubin developed a CLI questionnaire and conducted two studies (one for American industrial workers and one for German industrial workers). These studies inquired into the presence or absence of industrial workers' job orientation or central life interest--the voluntary

behavior areas in which individuals participate.

Dubin's findings confirmed all his hypotheses and enabled him to conclude that work and the workplace are no longer the central life interest for a vast majority of industrial workers. It is a necessary behavior for them to earn a living or to provide the monetary means to pursue some off-the-job activities. Later on he inferred that even industrial managers were non-job-oriented.

In order to examine the sampled retired servicemen's job attitudes and to test the validity and generality of Dubin's theory in a different culture, his modified CLI questionnaire (32 statements) and five hypotheses were adopted, with minor changes of wording to adapt to the sample studied. The five adapted hypotheses became:

- Hypothesis I. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will be classified as non-job-oriented, when central life interest is measured with the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.
- Hypothesis II. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will be non-job-oriented with respect to informal group experiences, when measured on the relevant portion of the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.
- Hypothesis III. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will not respond to work as a valued social experience, when tested by the general experience section of the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.
- Hypothesis IV. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will score job-oriented for their organizational experiences, when

measured on the organizational section of the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.

Hypothesis V. A significant proportion of the retired servicemen surveyed will be job-oriented for their experiences with technological aspects of their environment, when measured on the technological section of the CLI questionnaire, regardless of organization position.

A Chi-square analysis was used to test whether the frequencies observed in job-oriented and non-job-oriented responses differed significantly in each dimension of the CLI questionnaire. The results of this examination indicate that in all five dimensions (total central life interest, informal group relations, general social experiences, formal organization relations, and the technical aspects of work environment) a large majority of the Chinese retired servicemen studied were job-oriented, regardless of their organizational positions. For the convenience of the reader, the essential elements of the hypotheses tested and the findings are shown in Table 6.2.

Contrary to Dubin's findings, in the test of total central life interest approximately 88 per cent of the sample studied centered their life interests on their work and workplaces. Thus, Hypothesis I was rejected. Consequently, Dubin's generalization that work and the workplace are no longer valued by industrial workers is not true for the Chinese retired servicemen studied.

TABLE 6.2

SUMMARY FINDINGS CONCERNING THE EXAMINATION OF
DUBIN'S THEORY OF CENTRAL LIFE INTEREST

| Hypotheses | Subject | Job Orientation | Organization Position | Findings |
|------------|---|------------------|---|----------------------------|
| I | % Responses to Total CLI | Non-Job-Oriented | Supervisors Middle Managers Professionals | Reject Reject Reject |
| II | % Responses to Informal Group Relations | Non-Job-Oriented | Supervisors Middle Managers Professionals | Reject Reject Reject |
| III | % Responses to General Social Relations | Non-Job-Oriented | Supervisors Middle Managers Professionals | Reject Reject Reject |
| IV | % Responses to Organizational Experiences | Job-Oriented | Supervisors Middle Managers Professionals | Accept Accept Accept |
| V | % Responses to Technological Experiences | Job-Oriented | Supervisors Middle Managers Professionals | Accept Accept Accept |

The sampled retired servicemen's responses to the informal group section of the CLI questionnaire were diametrically opposite to Dubin's industrial workers' responses. About 82 per cent of the sample studied selected their work environment as the setting for preferred human associations and contacts. This large proportion of job-oriented responses on the informal group section of the CLI questionnaire leads to the rejection of Hypothesis II.

The responses on the general experience section of the CLI questionnaire were again opposite to Dubin's

findings. Approximately 76 per cent of the sample studied indicated that their work and workplaces were valued social experiences. This large percentage of job-oriented responses is sufficient to reject Hypothesis III.

Based upon the rejection of Hypotheses II and III, Dubin's Proposition Two (primary human relations take place only in situations where social experience is valued by participants) is not supported by this study.

The results on the dimension of formal organization relations were similar to, but more significant than, Dubin's findings. More than 71 per cent of the sample studied were job-oriented. This large proportion of sampled retired servicemen believed that the organizations in which they worked provided the preferred opportunities for organizational experiences. These results allow for Hypothesis IV to be accepted.

Almost 89 per cent of the sample studied were scored as job-oriented in terms of their preferences with respect to the technological sector of experiences. This fact indicated that work and the workplace were preferred by the retired servicemen surveyed as the locale for the technical aspects of their work environment. Based upon this result, Hypothesis V is accepted.

As a result of the acceptance of Hypotheses IV and V, Dubin's Proposition Three (in a mandatory situation that is not important social participation, the most

direct and obvious features become bases for attachment) is substantiated by this study.

Based upon these findings, a generalization can be made: the sampled Chinese retired servicemen have a well-developed sense of attachment to their work and workplaces with a corresponding sense of total commitment to it.

This is different from Dubin's conclusion concerning the industrial workers he studied.

There are several possible explanations for this difference. First, cultural background did have an important effect on employees' job attitudes. Industrial employees in the Chinese culture had different attitudes toward their jobs. A Chinese employer has more paternalistic attitudes toward his employees than his counterpart in the West. As a result, the employee considers his work position more secure than his counterpart in the West. Second, the people sampled in this study all had prior military training and this undoubtedly affected their job attitudes. This takes the form of a carry-over effect from the military experience of being assigned a task and working until that task is completed satisfactorily. A third explanation is that work commitment may increase with movement from the industrial worker level of Dubin's study into the managerial and professional status of this study. The results of this study reveal that an employee's commitment to his work and workplace increased as

occupational status ascended. This finding is consistent with Maurer's study on industrial supervisors,² Orzack's study on professional nurses,³ and Ranta's study on cooperative extension agents.⁴

It is appropriate to agree with Dubin's speculations that "the sense of attachment to" social organizations is a very important key to the understanding of contemporary industrial relations. For industrial workers, pride in work and in an occupation may be less important than personal identification with other community organizations to which they belong. In contrast to industrial workers, managers and professionals still consider work and the workplace as important and valued centers of their activity. Social relations with work settings are salient for managers and professionals. The training they received to be managers or professionals also encourages and requires them to develop a high degree of commitment to work and to their work environment.

²John G. Maurer, "Work as a 'Central Life Interest' of Industrial Supervisors," Academy of Management Journal, 1968, Vol. 11, pp. 329-339.

³Louis H. Orzack, "Work as a Central Life Interest of Professionals," Social Problems, 1959, Vol. 7, pp. 125-132.

⁴Raymond R. Ranta, "The Professional Status of the Michigan Cooperative Extension Service" (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation), University of Wisconsin, 1960.

The analysis of central life interest is also a measure of value. When it is used to compare the job attitudes of managers and professionals with those of industrial workers, we learn something about the values of these groups. In contrast to Dubin's industrial workers, the managers and the professionals studied do have an overriding preference for work. They are not only concerned with formal organization attachments and technical aspects, but the total value commitment by managers and professionals is shown in a greater tendency to seek informal group relations and even general social experiences within the work environment. Obviously, work is a highly-valued, demanding, and important feature of the many roles played in the Chinese society by managers and professionals.

In conclusion, the study of the retired servicemen's attachment to the work organization is useful in understanding their continued contribution to that organization. It is hoped that the findings of this study make a contribution to understanding the retired servicemen's job attitudes and also aid in improving the assistance programs.

Recommendations to the VACRS and for Further Studies

Recommendations to the VACRS

The respondents for this study were the Chinese retired servicemen who worked as lower- and middle-managers

or professionals for the VACRS-affiliated agencies. The conclusions of this study must be viewed in light of the particular sample which comprised it. Consequently, the following recommendations are directed specifically towards VACRS.

It was found that for the three organizational positions surveyed interpersonal relationships with peers and with superiors, technical supervision, and use of best ability were the most important job factors in contributing to job satisfaction. This implies that the competence and behavior of the superiors and peers have an important effect on job satisfaction for the sample studied. Therefore, the decision-making level of the VACRS should be more cognizant to the development of good interpersonal relationships in the work environment, to the provision of reasonable technical supervision, and to the provision of adequate opportunity to use the employees' best abilities in their work. In doing this, employee motivation would be enhanced.

It was also found that the job factors--management policy, employee benefits, and recognition--were of prime importance in contributing to job dissatisfaction for all three organizational positions surveyed. These results suggest that the VACRS decision makers should be more aware of the fact that ineffective management policy, poor employee benefits, and the lack of adequate recognition for employees'

accomplishments would cause job dissatisfaction or frustration. Possible measures might include such factors as reasonable management policy, fair employee benefits, and departmental recognition for outstanding work achievements.

In the test of central life interest, it was found that in every case a large majority of the sample studied were job-oriented. These retired servicemen selected their work and workplaces as a central life interest, as a setting for preferred informal group participations, as a setting for preferred general social experiences, as a setting for member formal organization relations to take place, and as a setting in which individuals related to the technological features of the work environment. The decision-making level of the VACRS should make best use of this value orientation in their efforts to continually improve the operation of the assistance programs, particularly in the area of job design. Through careful job design to enrich or enlarge their jobs, the retired servicemen's work could be made more interesting. This in turn would help to create achievement satisfaction. As a result, it would further motivate employees to perform better those tasks that are in themselves worth doing.

It should be recognized that individual needs play the central role in motivation. Needs determine whether a stimulus will have sufficient strength to motivate the individual. Thus, the VACRS management should pay more

attention to empirical studies concerning needs satisfaction. Through a better understanding of employees' needs and the way to satisfy these needs, management can function to create a work environment in which the fusion of organizational goal attainment and individual goal satisfaction is enhanced. This is the challenge which lies ahead for both Chinese practitioners and researchers.

Recommendations for Further Studies

Since this study was limited to only a specific segment of the Chinese labor force, additional studies in the area of job satisfaction and motivation are needed to obtain more knowledge concerning the sources of motivation and job attitudes of the people in the Republic of China. Not only replication study, but an extended study of factors affecting the individual's job attitudes would be more valuable. For instance, a study on the nature of the work organization and its impact upon patterns of worker attachment is needed.

In the Republic of China, some further studies would be valuable to test the relevant hypotheses of this study in different managerial and professional groups, or with blue-collar workers, employed by private productive organizations, and to test the generality of the findings reported in this study.

Additional studies also seem to be needed to relate the need satisfaction to job performance and to determine

the influences on sources of job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction by the factors such as age, sex, marital status, and educational level in the Republic of China.

In summary, the growth of any empirical principle depends upon the systematic accumulation of verified knowledge. The findings of this study confirm once again the importance of empirical validation of a developing theory. The divergent findings also suggest that the motivation theories examined should be tested further in carefully designed research, utilizing objective measures for a wide range of occupations at many levels, and for diverse organizations to verify whether the theories should be accepted, refined, or rejected.

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APPENDIX A

The total questionnaire has three parts. Brief instructions are given at the beginning of each part. Please read the instructions carefully before checking your responses.

These four questions ask for some personal information of the people who are participating in this study. Please check the appropriate space as it applies to you.

1. Age

| | |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> under 40 | <input type="checkbox"/> 41-50 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 51-60 | <input type="checkbox"/> above 60 |

2. Education

| | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> primary school | <input type="checkbox"/> junior high school |
| <input type="checkbox"/> senior high school | <input type="checkbox"/> college or university |
| <input type="checkbox"/> graduate college | |

3. Average monthly income (N.T. \$)

| | |
|---|------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> less than 2000 | <input type="checkbox"/> 2001-3000 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 3001-4000 | <input type="checkbox"/> 4001-5000 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> over 5001 | |

4. Job Title

PART I

Instructions:

First of all, you are asked to think of a time when you felt exceptionally satisfied about your job--either your present job or any other job you have had. Below is a

list of some factors which may have contributed to your satisfied feeling at the time. Keep this time in your mind as you read the list of eighteen factors. You are asked to report how important was each of these factors in the particular experience you are recalling. Indicate the importance by placing an X in one and only one of the four columns to the right of each of the eighteen factors.

| | This factor was not present | This factor was present but not important | This factor was fairly important | This factor was of major importance |
|---|-----------------------------|---|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. I felt there was a good chance I'd be promoted. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 2. I received a particularly challenging assignment. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 3. A job I did received recognition as being a particularly good piece of work. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 4. The working relationship I had with my supervisor was very good. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 5. The working relationship I had with co-workers at my level was very good. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 6. I was working under a supervisor who really knew his job. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 7. I was expecting (or received) a merit increase. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 8. I had a real feeling of achievement in the work I was doing. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |

| | This factor was not present | This factor was present but not important | This factor was fairly important | This factor was of major importance |
|---|-----------------------------|---|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 9. I had exceptionally good working conditions and equipment. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 10. I was given increased responsibility in my job. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 11. I felt secure in my job. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 12. I was getting training and experience on the job that were helping my growth. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 13. The company improved an employee benefit program that was of importance to me. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 14. I liked the kind of work I was doing. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 15. My job situation changed in such a way as to improve my home life. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 16. I was working in a group that operated very smoothly and efficiently. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 17. Management policies that affected my work group took into consideration the personal feelings of employees. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 18. The job required the use of my best abilities. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |

PART II

Instructions:

This part of the questionnaire is similar to Part I except that you are asked to think of a time when you felt exceptionally dissatisfied about your job--either your present job or any other job you have had. Below is a list of some factors which may have contributed to your dissatisfied feeling at the time. Keep this time in your mind as you read the list of eighteen factors. You are asked to report how important was each of these factors in the particular experience you are recalling. Indicate the importance by placing an X in one and only one of the four columns to the right of each of the eighteen factors.

| | This factor was not present | This factor was present but not important | This factor was fairly important | This factor was of major importance |
|--|-----------------------------|---|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. I felt there was a poor chance I'd get promoted. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 2. I received few particularly challenging assignments. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 3. A job I did received little recognition as being a particularly good piece of work. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 4. The working relationship I had with my supervisor was very poor. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 5. The working relationship I had with coworkers at my level was very poor. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 6. I was working under a supervisor who really did not know his job. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 7. I was not expecting (or did not receive) a merit increase. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |

| | This factor was not present | This factor was present but not important | This factor was fairly important | This factor was of major importance |
|---|-----------------------------|---|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 8. I had little feeling of achievement in the work I was doing. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 9. I had exceptionally poor working conditions and equipment. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 10. I was not given increased responsibility in my job. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 11. I felt insecure in my job. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 12. I was not getting training and experience on the job that were helping my growth. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 13. The company did not introduce an employee benefit program that was of importance to me. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 14. I disliked the kind of work I was doing. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 15. My job situation changed in such a way as to aggravate my home life. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 16. I was working in a group that operated with discord and inefficiency. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |
| 17. Management policies that affected my work group did not take into consideration the personal feelings of employees. | 1 () | 2 () | 3 () | 4 () |

| | | | |
|-------------|-----------------|-------------|-------------|
| This factor | This factor was | This factor | This factor |
| was | present | was | was of |
| not | but was | fairly | major |
| pres- | not impor- | impor- | impor- |
| ent | tant | tant | tance |

18. The job did not require
the use of my best
abilities.

1 () 2 () 3 () 4 ()

PART III

Instructions:

For each of the following statements, there are three possible answers. Please read each statement and the three answers very carefully.

After you have read the statement and the three answers under it, pick out the answer which comes closest to your own feelings about the matter. Place a check in the space in front of this answer. Sometimes, none of the answers will exactly fit your own ideas, but pick out the one which is closest to the way you feel and check it.

Please be sure to check one answer and only one answer to every statement. Please **DO NOT SKIP ANY STATEMENT!**

1. I enjoy reading technical articles and books to learn more about

☐ only something very special and important
☐ my hobby or other interests
☐ my job

2. Interruptions bother me most

☐ when working at the office
☐ when working at home
☐ hardly ever

3. I do my best work

☐ when I am at the office
☐ when I'm not bothered by people
☐ when I work around the house or on a community project

4. I would rather accept a committee chairmanship

- ☐ anytime, any place
 - ☐ of a company operating or advisory committee
 - ☐ in an organization or club of which I am a member
-

5. When I am doing some work, I usually try not to waste time

- ☐ I seldom worry about wasting time
 - ☐ on a project at home or in the community
 - ☐ on my job
-

6. I believe that

- ☐ helping my fellow men is more important than anything else
 - ☐ my career is more important than anything else
 - ☐ most things are about equally important
-

7. In my free time at work, I would rather

- ☐ talk about whatever comes up
 - ☐ talk about things I am working on in the company
 - ☐ talk about things that are going on in sports or politics
-

8. I am most interested in

- ☐ things about my job
 - ☐ things I usually do around the house or in the community
 - ☐ just about everything I do
-

9. I most enjoy keeping

- ☐ my things around the house in good shape
 - ☐ my mind off such things
 - ☐ my desk and reports in good shape at the office
-

10. I prefer to have as friends

- ☐ people I get to know in my work
 - ☐ people who share my leisure interests
 - ☐ different people according to what they're like
-

11. Moving ahead on my job

- ☐ is not so important to me that I would give up time to make contacts and get information about my work
 - ☐ is so important to me that I'm willing to spend extra time to make contacts and pick up information about my work
 - ☐ is not particularly important to me
-

12. If I received a promotion that meant moving to another city

- ☐ my friendships wouldn't make any difference in my moving
 - ☐ I would most dislike leaving my friends at the office
 - ☐ I would most dislike leaving my other friends
-

13. The people I can count on most when I need help are

- ☐ the friends I have at work
 - ☐ the friends I have in the community
 - ☐ almost any of my friends
-

14. When I am worried, it is usually about

- ☐ how well I am doing in my career
 - ☐ just little things
 - ☐ things that happen at home
-

15. When I am not with them, the people I miss most are

- ☐ just people in general
 - ☐ my friends around town
 - ☐ my friends with whom I work
-

16. I am happier if I am praised for doing a good job of

- ☐ something at work
 - ☐ something in an organization I belong to
 - ☐ anything, it doesn't matter very much what
-

17. If I were sick and had to stay home, I would most hate

- ☐ missing a day's work
 - ☐ missing almost anything I usually do
 - ☐ missing a meeting of an organization I belong to
-

18. The most pleasant things I do are concerned with

- ☐ relaxation
 - ☐ my career
 - ☐ different things at different times
-

19. I hope my children can

- ☐ work in the same kind of occupation as mine
 - ☐ work in any occupation, just so they enjoy their work
 - ☐ work in a different kind of occupation from mine
-

20. In my spare time

- ☐ I just prefer to relax
 - ☐ I often think of better ways of doing my work
 - ☐ I have a thousand things that need doing
-

21. I sometimes hope that

- ☐ I'll get special recognition for doing a good job at work
 - ☐ I'll get to be more important member of my club, church or lodge
 - ☐ such things will not bother me
-

22. If I needed ready cash within a few hours for an emergency on a Sunday and had to borrow it, I would probably turn to

- ☐ people I know in the community
 - ☐ people I know in the company
 - ☐ anyone who would lend it to me
-

23. It is easier for me to take a chewing out

- ☐ from anyone--I listen and forget it
 - ☐ from a policeman
 - ☐ from my boss
-

24. I would donate more money in the case of a collection

- ☐ if the solicitor was a friend of mine
 - ☐ for a charitable organization
 - ☐ for a wedding present or retirement gift for a colleague at the office
-

25. If I have to work with someone else who is a slow worker

- ☐ I am annoyed regardless of where we are working
 - ☐ I am most annoyed on the job at the office
 - ☐ I am most annoyed on a volunteer community project
-

26. In getting a job done, it is most important for me to have adequate freedom to plan it

- ☐ at the office
 - ☐ on a community project
 - ☐ anytime, any place
-

27. I would rather take my vacation with

- ☐ some friends from work
 - ☐ my family
 - ☐ by myself
-

28. I most like

- ☐ talking with friends about things that are happening
 - ☐ talking about whatever my friends want to talk about
 - ☐ talking with my friends about my work and what is happening in the company
-

29. In order to get ahead in the world

- ☐ you have to have a lot of luck
 - ☐ you have to be well liked where you work
 - ☐ you have to be well liked and known in the community
-

30. If a company project I knew about but was not involved in gave everybody trouble, and I heard another company had solved this problem

- ☐ I have too many problems of my own to get involved
 - ☐ I would tell my boss or colleagues about it
 - ☐ I don't worry about such things
-

31. I think that if I were suddenly to get a much better job

- ☐ probably my life would not change much except that I'd live a little better
 - ☐ probably my life would change and be better in many ways
 - ☐ I wouldn't know what would happen to my life
-

32. I would much rather be a leader

- ☐ in any organization, just so it's a good one
 - ☐ in my club or church
 - ☐ in my work
-

PLEASE RE-CHECK THE ENTIRE QUESTIONNAIRE TO MAKE SURE YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL THE QUESTIONS!

THANK YOU.

榮民輔導方案專題研究問卷表

全部問卷共分三節，在您作答之前，請細心閱讀每一節前面的簡單說明。

說明：以下四個問題是有關惠予答卷者的個人資料，請在適合您的答案前面橫線上劃一個對號 (✓)。

1. 年齡：

☐ a 40歲以下。 b 41~50歲。 c 51~60歲。 d 61歲以上。

2. 教育程度：

☐ a 初中以下。 b 初中 (初職)。 c 高中 (高職)。 d 大專。 e 研究所以上。

3. 每月收入 (正常平均所得)：

☐ a 2000元以下。 b 2001~3000元。 c 3001~4000元。 d 4001~5000元。 e 5001元以上。

4. 現在擔任之職務：

第一節

說明：請先想一想您對目前或以往的工作感到滿意的情況。下面列舉18項可能造成您當時對工作感到滿意的因素，請將各該因素造成您對工作滿意的重要程度，表示在每條右面的適當項目下。只在空格內劃個對號 (✓)，請勿多劃，也不要跳過。

| 問 | 卷 | 內 | 容 | 案 | | | 擇 |
|--------------------------|-----|----------------------|---|---------|----------------|-------------|-------------|
| | | | | 此項因素不存在 | 此項因素存在，但對我並不重要 | 我認為此一因素相當重要 | 我認為此一因素非常重要 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 1. | 我感到很有被提升的機會 | | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 2. | 指派給我的工作對我具有考驗性 | | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 3. | 我完成的某項工作因成績特優而受到賞識 | | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 4. | 我與上司之間在工作上關係良好 | | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 5. | 我與相同級職的同事之間在工作上的關係良好 | | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 6. | 我的直屬上司對他自己的職務瞭若指掌 | | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 7. | 得到工作獎金 | | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 8. | 我對所做的某項工作感到很有成就 | | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 9. | 我的工作環境及設備用品非常好 | | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 10. | 我的職責越來越重大 | | a | b | c | d |

| | | | | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------|---|---|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 6.我的直屬上司對他自己的職務瞭若指掌 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 7.得到工作獎金 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 8.我對所做的某項工作感到很有成就 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 9.我的工作環境及設備用品非常好 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 10.我的職責越來越重大 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 11.我感到工作很有保障 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 12.我在工作中所得到的經驗或接受的訓練對我的前途發展很有幫助 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 13.本單位的員工福利計劃對我很重要 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 14.我對所做之工作非常喜歡 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 15.我的工作情況之改變，使我的家庭生活得到改善 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 16.同我一起工作的同仁們很穩健，而且效率很高 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 17.本單位在制訂管理決策時影響同仁情緒的因素都列入考慮 | a | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 18.我所擔任的工作需要我發揮最大的才幹 | a | b | c | d |

第二節

說明：此節與第一節的格式相同，只是內容相反，只是內容相反。請先想一想您對目前或以往的工作感到不滿意的情况。下面列舉18項可能造成您當時對工作感到不滿意的因素，請將各該因素造成您對工作不滿意的程度，用對號（√）表達在各題右邊的適當項目下：

| 問 | 卷 | 內 | 容 | 答 | | | 選 | | 擇 |
|--------------------------|----|---------------------|---|---------|---------------|-------------|-------------|--|---|
| | | | | 此項因素不存在 | 此項因素存在，但對我不重要 | 我認爲此一因素相當重要 | 我認爲此一因素非常重要 | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 1. | 我感到被提升的機會渺茫 | a | b | c | d | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 2. | 指派給我的工作單調乏味 | a | b | c | d | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 3. | 我完成的工作成績優良但未受到應有的重視 | a | b | c | d | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 4. | 我與上司之間在工作上關係很惡劣 | a | b | c | d | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 5. | 我與相同級職的同事之間在工作上關係惡劣 | a | b | c | d | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 6. | 我的直屬上司對他的職掌簡直莫名其妙 | a | b | c | d | | | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | 7. | 我不曾得到工作獎金 | a | b | c | d | | | |

第二節

說明：此節與第一節的格式相同，只是內容相反。請先想一想您對目前或以往的工作感到不滿意的情况。下面列舉18項可能造成您當時對工作感到不滿意的因素，請將各該因素造成您對工作不滿意的程度，用對號（✓）表達在各題右邊的適當項目下：

| 問 | 卷 | 內 容 | 案 | | | 選 | |
|--------------------------|---|--------------------------------|---|---------|-------------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | | | 答 | 此項因素不存在 | 此項因素存在， 但對我不重要 | 我認爲此一因素 相當重要 | 我認爲此一因素 非常重要 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 1.我感到被提升的機會渺茫 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 2.指派給我的工作單調乏味 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 3.我完成的工作成績優良但未受到應有的重視 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 4.我與上司之間在工作上關係很惡劣 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 5.我與相同級職的同事之間在工作上關係惡劣 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 6.我的直屬上司對他的職掌簡直莫名其妙 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 7.我不曾得到工作獎金 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 8.我對所做的工作不覺得有成就 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 9.我的工作環境及設備用品非常差 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 10.我的職責未曾晉升 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 11.我感到工作沒有保障 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 12.我在工作中沒有得到或接受過有助於我事業發展的經驗或訓練 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 13.本單位的員工福利微不足道 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 14.我對所做的工作不感興趣 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 15.我的工作情況之改變，使我的家庭生活每況愈下 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 16.同我一起工作的同仁們傾軋不和，而且效率很差 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 17.本單位在制訂管理決策時從不將影響同仁情緒的因素列入考慮 | a | | b | c | d |
| <input type="checkbox"/> | | 18.我所擔任的工作使我無法發揮才能 | a | | b | c | d |

第三節

說明：以下各題都有三個答案，請仔細閱讀後，在最適合您的答案前之橫線上劃一個對號（✓），只選一個答案。也許其中沒有一個答案恰好適合您，在此種情形下，請選擇一個比較適合的作答；千萬請勿跳過不答。

1. 我最喜歡閱讀下列某種技術性的報章雜誌：

☐ a 與工作職務有關的。 b 與興趣及嗜好有關的。 c 特殊或重大事件。

2. 我最討厭的是：

☐ a 在辦公時有人干擾我。 b 下班回家後有人來打攪我。 c 別人來找我聊天（在辦公室或在家裏）。

3. 我最賣力工作時是當我：

☐ a 在辦公室時。 b 在家裏處理個人事務時。 c 為社會公益盡義務時。

4. 我很想作單位主管在：

☐ a 我所屬的工作單位內。 b 公益社團。 c 任何場所。

5. 在下列情形下，我非常珍惜時間：

☐ a 在我的職務上。 b 在處理家務或社會公益時。 c 我對浪費時間不大關心。

6. 我認為：

☐ a 幫助別人最重要。 b 我自己的事業重於一切。 c 世間許多事情都同樣重要。

7. 在上班時間內空閒時，我喜歡與朋友：

☐ a 隨便聊天。 b 討論與工作有關的事。 c 討論時事、娛樂或新聞。

8. 我最感興趣的是：

☐ a 與自己有關的事。 b 社會公益或自己家的事。 c 我所愛好的任何事物。

9. 我最喜歡保持：

☐ a 我的辦公桌及經手的文件或事物井井有條。 b 家裏乾淨俐落。 c 我對以上兩項都不介意。

10. 我喜歡跟下列某些人做朋友：

☐ a 工作有接觸的人。 b 有相同嗜好的人。 c 任何人都可做朋友。

11. 職位的升遷，對我：

☐ a 關係重大，我寧願為工作付出全部精力與時間。 b 無關緊要，我不想為工作多費心力。 c 無所謂。

12. 假如我因升遷而必須調到另外的工作地點，我：

☐ a 最捨不得離開我的同事。 b 最捨不得離開我的鄰居。 c 對友誼無所謂。

13. 當我需要幫助時，我最可信賴的朋友是：

☐ a 跟我一起工作的同事。 b 我的鄰居。 c 我所有的朋友。

14. 我最關切的是：

☐ a 我家裏所發生的事情。 b 我的事業的進展。 c 瑣碎小事。

15. 當我與朋友分別後，我最懷念的是：

☐ a 住家附近的鄰居。 b 一般的朋友。 c 一起工作的同事。

16. 如因某種原因而被稱贊，我最高興的是因為：

12. 假如我因升遷而必須調到另外的工作地點，我：
☐ a 最捨不得離開我的同事。 b 最捨不得離開我的鄰居。 c 對友誼無所謂。
13. 當我需要幫助時，我最可信賴的朋友是：
☐ a 跟我一起工作的同事。 b 我的鄰居。 c 我所有的朋友。
14. 我最關切的是：
☐ a 我家裏所發生的事情。 b 我的事業的進展。 c 瑣碎小事。
15. 當我與朋友分別後，我最懷念的是：
☐ a 住家附近的鄰居。 b 一般的朋友。 c 一起工作的同事。
16. 如因某種原因而被稱贊，我最高興的是因為：
☐ a 工作成績優良。 b 對社會公益有貢獻。 c 任何良好表現。
17. 如果因病而不能去上班，我最焦急的是：
☐ a 誤了一天的工作。 b 誤了所屬單位的集會。 c 所誤的一切事項。
18. 最令我愉快的事是：
☐ a 休閒活動。 b 創立事業。 c 時常改換行業。
19. 我希望我的子女會：
☐ a 繼續我的行業。 b 從事任何他喜歡的職業。 c 從事其他行業。
20. 當空閒時，我：
☐ a 只想輕鬆一番。 b 時常思考用什麼方法可以把工作做得更好。 c 有許多業餘的事等著去做。
21. 有時候，我希望：
☐ a 被上級賞識，因為我的工作表現良好。 b 在社團活動中做個重要會員。 c 淡泊名利。
22. 假如我因意外事故而急切需款時，我會向：
☐ a 認識的鄰居借。 b 工作同事借。 c 任何有錢的朋友借。
23. 我對某些人加予我的斥責，毫不介意：
☐ a 警察。 b 我的上司。 c 任何人。
24. 我願捐助較多的錢給：
☐ a 慈善機關。 b 同事的婚禮或退休禮品。 c 我的親友。
25. 假如我同某人一起工作，而他的工作遲緩，會影響我的工作進度；則我：
☐ a 對辦公室的事務受到影響最焦急。 b 不論在什麼場合都會焦急。 c 在志願為社團服務時最焦急。
26. 要想把以下某種工作做好，我需要充分的自由和時間去籌劃：
☐ a 辦公室裡的工作。 b 社團活動。 c 任何事項。
27. 我願意邀約下列某些人一同過年節：
☐ a 工作中的同事。 b 家人。 c 親友。
28. 我最喜歡與朋友談論：
☐ a 時事新聞。 b 他感興趣的事。 c 我的工作及我服務單位所發生的事。
29. 要想出人頭地，一定要：
☐ a 有很好的運氣。 b 得到工作單位的賞識。 c 社會聞名。

- ☐ a 誤了一天的工作。 b 誤了所屬單位的集會。 c 所誤的一切事項。
18. 最令我愉快的事是：
☐ a 休閒活動。 b 創立事業。 c 時常改換行業。
19. 我希望我的子女會：
☐ a 繼續我的行業。 b 從事任何他喜歡的職業。 c 從事其他行業。
20. 當空閒時，我：
☐ a 只想輕鬆一番。 b 時常思考用什麼方法可以把工作做得更好。 c 有許多業餘的事等着去做。
21. 有時候，我希望：
☐ a 被上級賞識，因為我的工作表現良好。 b 在社團活動中做個重要會員。 c 淡泊名利。
22. 假如我因意外事故而急切需款時，我會向：
☐ a 認識的鄰居借。 b 工作同事借。 c 任何有錢的朋友借。
23. 我對某些人加予我的斥責，毫不介意：
☐ a 警察。 b 我的上司。 c 任何人。
24. 我願捐助較多的錢給：
☐ a 慈善機關。 b 同事的婚禮或退休禮品。 c 我的親友。
25. 假如我同某人一起工作，而他的工作遲緩，會影響我的工作進度；即我：
☐ a 對辦公室的事務受到影響最焦急。 b 不論在什麼場合都會焦急。 c 在志願為社團服務時最焦急。
26. 要想把以下某種工作做好，我需要充分的自由和時間去籌劃：
☐ a 辦公室裡的工作。 b 社團活動。 c 任何事項。
27. 我願意邀約下列某些人一同過年節：
☐ a 工作中的同事。 b 家人。 c 親友。
28. 我最喜歡與朋友談論：
☐ a 時事新聞。 b 他感興趣的事。 c 我的工作及我服務單位所發生的事。
29. 要想出人頭地，一定要：
☐ a 有很好的運氣。 b 得到工作單位的賞識。 c 社會聞名。
30. 如果本單位中某項與我無關的工作遭遇困難，而我知道怎樣克服此項困難，我會：
☐ a 事不關己不願過問。 b 將所知告訴上司或同仁並幫助他們解除困難。 c 先忙我自己家裡的事要緊。
31. 假如能夠得到一份較好的工作，我希望：
☐ a 生活能夠過得舒服些。 b 能對工作勝任愉快。 c 能夠對社會有點貢獻。
32. 我很願意做領導人物，在：
☐ a 任何較好的機關裡。 b 我參加的社團裡。 c 我的工作單位內。

附語：請再仔細檢查一遍，看看是否每一問題都作了答案。懇請儘量不要漏答任何一題，多謝您的合作。