PERSONAL VALUES AND PERCEIVED JOB CHARACTERISTICS AS PREDICTORS OF JOB INVOLVEMENT AND TURNOVER INTENTION AMONG WORKERS IN ANAMBRA STATE, NIGERIA

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To Almighty God for his love and protection

and

My family for long years of endurance with me

ABSTRACT

Job involvement and employee turnover have been implicated in many studies as serious challenges for organisational management. Although, several factors have been empirically linked with these variables, the role of personal values and perceived job characteristics has not been studied in-depth among workers in Anambra State. This study, therefore, examined the influence of personal values and perceived job characteristics on job involvement and turnover intention among workers in Anambra State.

Crossed-sectional survey was adopted, with 504 participants comprising 359 (71.2%) males and 145 (28.8%) females. Among these, 168 (33.3%) participants were randomly selected from each of three sectors; public, organised private and self-employed, using existing records. Personal values as one of the independent variables has ten sub-scales and job characteristics as another, has seven sub-scales. Job involvement and turnover intention as dependent variables have no sub-scale. These variables were measured using personal values scale, job characteristics scale, job involvement scale and turnover intention scale. Data obtained were subjected to ANOVA, multiple comparison statistics and hierarchical regression significant at $p<0.05$.

Public sector workers were less job-involved $(F(2,501) = 21.09, p<0.05)$ and higher on turnover intention $(F(2.501) = 255.17, p<0.05)$ than organised private sector or self-employed workers. Hierarchical regression analysis revealed that personal value factor jointly accounted for 8.0% variance in job involvement among public sector workers, with only the prediction of self-direction slightly significant $(\beta = 0.09, p<0.05)$. Job characteristics factors increased the variance by 13.0% $(\Delta R^2 = 13, p<0.05)$, in conjunction with others contributed independently $(\beta = 0.24; p<0.05)$. On turnover intention, personal values jointly accounted for 10.0% variance but only stimulation predicted independently $(\beta = 0.19; p<0.05)$. Inclusion of job characteristics resulted in 5.0% change in variance $(\Delta R^2 = 05; p<0.05)$. In organised private sector, personal values jointly account for 11.0% variance in job involvement with benevolence predicting independently $(\beta = -2.12; p<0.05)$; variance increased by 4.0% $(\Delta R^2 = 0.04; p<0.05)$ following inclusion of job characteristics. Personal values jointly accounted for 7.0% variance on turnover intention with only benevolence predicting independently. Inclusion of job characteristics increased the variable by 4.0% $(\Delta R^2 = 0.04; p<0.05)$ but only autonomy predicted. Among the self-employed, personal values jointly accounted for 8.0% variance in job involvement, while inclusion of job characteristics increased the variance by 4.0% $(\Delta R^2 = 0.04; p<0.05)$.

Workers in Anambra State were influenced by personal values and job characteristics. However, workers in the public sector were the least job-involved and had the highest intention to leave.

Keywords: Job characteristics, Job Involvement, Turnover Intention
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CERTIFICATION

I certify that this work was carried out by **BERNARD, CHUKWUKELUO CHINE** *(Matriculation Number-10245)* in the Department of Psychology, University of Ibadan, Ibadan.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Values stand for or represent what is important to human beings, communities, organizations, religious, tribal and cultural groups. People bring along their values where they find themselves including the workplace. On the other hand, the workplace or organisation and our co-workers influence our values and attitudes. Different groups in the organisation of any type, such as professional groups, occupational and age groups, management group, senior and junior workers groups have different values.

Personal values influence our everyday life and behaviour, choice of place of residence, concern for health and even the kind of food we eat (Nweze, 2008). Bardi and Schwartz (2003) describe personal values as motivational, representing broad goals that apply across contexts and time. In other words, an individual's values should motivate his or her behaviour and choice in a variety of situations, including personal and family relationships as well as behaviour at work. Personal values of workers in any work organisation to a reasonable extent help them to identify with the organisation, be job involved if the organisational values are congruent with own personal values; and show turnover intention if the organisational values and their personal values are incongruent. Whatever incentives offered by the organisation to motivate the workers to increase their productivity will be effective if such incentives agree with the workers' personal values.

Schwartz (1992) describes ten personal values relevant to this study that have been extensively validated as distinct values that are common across cultures. They are: Achievement: (Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards), benevolence (preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with

whom one is in frequent personal contact), conformity (restraint of actions, inclinations, and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms), hedonism (pleasure and sensuous gratification for oneself), power (social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources), security (safety, harmony and stability of society, of relationships, and or self), self-direction (independent thought and action-choosing, creating, exploring), stimulation (excitement, novelty, and challenge of life), tradition (respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide the self), universalism (understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and nature).

Personal values as one of the independent variables of this study, stand for the individual value pattern among the workers that could make them differ significantly in terms of job involvement and turnover intention. Unlike general values, personal values may be linked with individual differences notion, which explains why one prefers to behave or choose a particular value, interest or object rather than the other.

Job characteristics are the attributes of jobs that can have motivational functions for employees (Chiu and Chen, 2005). Job characteristics are equally concerned with the nature and requirements of the job which psychologically impact on the employees. Different jobs have different characteristics that hold different attraction and/or repulsion for workers. Some jobs may be characterised by high risk of life, health and lack of social amenities, yet they hold attraction for some employees who perceive such characteristics as motivating to them. It is most likely that employees working in jobs characterised by high job demands, low job control and low social support will experience a higher than average number of health problems such as high blood pressure over time. Job characteristics may create meaningfulness of the job, experienced responsibility for the job results, and awareness of the actual effects of their work which

ultimately may result in internal work motivation and job satisfaction, job performance and lower employee turnover. The attributes of job characteristics are: skill variety (the extent the job requires a range of skills); task identity (the extent the job produces a whole identifiable outcome); task significance (the extent the job has an impact on other people, either inside or outside the organisation); autonomy (the extent the job allows the job holders to exercise choice and discretion in their work); feedback from job (the extent the job itself provides information on how well the job holder is performing); feedback from agents (that is getting clear information about one's performance from supervisors/co-workers); dealing with others (ability to work closely or in a team with other people). Job characteristics as another independent variable of this study, are concerned with nature and requirements of the job which psychologically impinge on the employees that could make them differ significantly in terms of job involvement and turnover intention.

Job characteristics differ among public, organised private and self-employed sectors. In the public sector, it is characterised by dividing activities into departments, divisions, units and sub-units, defining relationships between the heads and members that make up the units (Deegahawatue and China, 2014). Moreover, it is characterised by hierarchical arrangement and delegation of function. The management practices bureaucracy which is likely to rob workers' autonomy. Repetitiveness of functions is very common in this sector with consequent experience of meaninglessness of the job. The organised private sector has similar structural arrangement as the public sector, but differs in terms of absence of bureaucracy and the employees have significant degree of autonomy. It is efficient in discharging its functions to the public or customers and effective in adapting to changes in its environment. It is profit-oriented and therefore ensures effective supervision of its employees.   The self-employed sector is made up of predominantly individuals who engage in a variety of businesses for themselves.

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Sometimes some of them engage the services of apprentices based on the agreement between the masters and parents of those apprentices on the number of years to serve them. They are profit-oriented and often work round the clock in order to make ends meet. The self-employed sector lacks the structural characteristics of either public sector or organised private sector. The workers are masters to themselves and hardworking because the success in the business means to him a great achievement in life and the society.

Job involvement is the degree to which a person identifies psychologically with his/her job or the importance of job in his/her total self-image. Organisations make every effort to ensure that they employ workers who would be job involved in order to make the organisation effective and efficient in the environment. Recruitment, selection, and placement efforts by organised private and public sector organisations are generally meant to secure employees that will be sufficiently involved with their job. Job involvement as one of the dependent variables of this study is measured after the manipulation of the personal values and job characteristics (the independent variables).

Turnover intention is the attitudinal indication of staying or leaving the job or the organisation (Okhakhume, Okurame and Logo, 2000). There are circumstances that can lead to turnover intention. They include poor condition of service, meager wage or salary, frequent conflict between the workers and management, poor patronage by customers. When such workers obtain better conditions of service in another organisation they would most probably indicate turnover intention from their present job. Turnover intention from the job is measured after the manipulation of personal values and job characteristics (the independent variables).

In every society people engage themselves in one kind of work or the other for the purpose of self-survival, growth and development of the society. As a matter of fact, work

appears to be organised along two or more categories in the contemporary society. Perhaps, this is intended to enhance effectiveness and efficiency in the production and distribution of goods and services. Such categories may include public sector, organized private sector and self-employed sector. People probably find themselves in any sector based on their personal values and perceived characteristics of the job associated with the sector. Consequently, this leaves all the sectors with a common option of having to contend with the job which results in negative job attitudes that manifest themselves in low or non-job involvement and turnover intention. The present study compares workers from the public sector, organized private sector and self-employed sector and found how sector of employment affect their personal values and perceived job characteristics.

The organised private sector is concerned with the provision of goods and services for profit (National Council on Industries, 2001). According to the National Council on Industries (2001), the organised private sector comprises four categories, using the criteria of capital outlay and size of the labour force in categorization. It is as follows:

1. **Micro/Cottage Industries:** The total capital is not expected to be more than half a million naira (N 0.5million) excluding cost of land and labour. The labour force or size is not more than ten (10) workers.

2. **Small scale industries:** The capital is not expected to be more than fifty million naira (N 50million) but above one and half million naira (N1.5million) excluding costs of land and labour. The size of the labour force is between eleven (11) and one hundred (100) workers.

3. **Medium Size Industries:** They are expected to have a total of over fifty million naira (N50million) excluding land and labour costs. The size of the labour force ranges between one hundred and one (101) and three hundred (300) workers.

4. **Large Scale Industries:** The expected capital layout is over two hundred million naira (N 200million), excluding land and labour costs. The size of the labour force is over three hundred (300) workers.

Self-employed sector, as the name suggests, is characterized by individuals who engage themselves in commerce, buying and selling commodities, trade and other self-enterprising ventures. Like the organised private sector, it is profit oriented. Their business centre is more or less the open market in rural, urban and metropolitan areas. The capital employed depends on the individual's socio-economic status or family background.

Organisations and structural characteristics vary across public sector, organised private sector and self-employed sector. Public and organised private sectors, for instance, are characterised by division of labour, routinisation of function and hierarchical arrangement of power and authority. On the contrary, self-employed sector is characterised by personal initiative, entrepreneurial risk-taking and personal challenges. Unlike the public sector, the organised private sector deals faster and more effectively with uncertainties or emergencies and provides attractive financial and non-financial incentives to its work-force (Odimegwu, 2006).

1.2   STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Job involvement is an important organisational objective because many researchers consider it to be primary determinant of organisational effectiveness and individual motivation. This stems from the rhetorical notion that being immersed in one's work increases motivational process which in turn influences job performance and other relevant outcomes like turnover and absenteeism (Diefendorff, Brown, Kamin and Lord, 2002). Most explorations of the causes of job turnover or turnover intention tend to have

focused on job satisfaction as primary independent variable (Vandenberghe and Tremblay, 2008). Lower satisfaction has been shown to increase the proportion of the workforce intending to quit (Shields and Ward, 2001), to increase actual quits, to lower participation rates and to increase absenteeism (Clark, 1996; 2001). But little efforts have been made to explore the influence of personal values and job characteristics both independently and jointly on turnover intention.

Many of the researches on values research focus on how individuals, groups, organisations and cultures differ in the values they hold, and how these differences affect attitude to job and behaviour (Abott, White and Charles, 2005). Schwartz and Bardi (2001) investigated similarities among value priorities and concluded that some pan-cultural motivational values such as benevolence, self-direction and universalism were consistently rated across as being powerful than other types of values. This suggests that if there is general tendency in human nature to favour these pan-cultural values, it follows that organisations that adopt them are likely to receive a positive response from their employees in the form of improved motivation and enhanced performance; and by extension job involvement or turnover intention.

Personal values are considered important to the functioning of individuals, organisations and societies. McGuire, Garavan, O'Donnell, Saha and Cseh (2008), observed that fundamental assumption underpinning the conception of values is that values affect the behaviour of individuals that in turn may affect the decisions that individuals take. Such work behaviour and decision may include job involvement and turnover intention. Workers' personal values have not been studied in the context of job involvement and turnover intention from job. Moreover, joint influence of personal values and job characteristics on job involvement and turnover intention of workers have not received adequate attention from researchers.

There is a claim that the area of business reflects interest in values and that personal values affect people's perceptions of the morality of particular behaviours in organisations (Mumford, Helton, Decker, Connelly and Van Doom, 2003). There is the contention that people in independent jobs tend to value self-direction at the expense of conformity. Also rational formal organizations with task specialisation, a chain of command, and a span of control create conditions that conflict with the growth needs of individual employees and result in socialization that places a higher priority on security and rewards than self-direction. With this assertion, it is possible that the inclination towards job involvement and intention to leave will not be the same for public, organised private and self-employed job holders. Such jobs would inspire higher levels of job involvement and reduce turnover intention. But the opposite will be the case for jobs with non-motivational characteristics. However, individual differences exist in the perception of the motivational characteristics of jobs; what is motivational to one might not be to the other. If it is believed that the personal values of individuals will count on their perspective, it becomes imperative to determine how job characteristics and personal values would jointly and independently influence job involvement and turnover intention.

Jobs with motivating job characteristics are better able to inspire a sense of accomplishment in employees and a high level of intrinsic job motivation which will satisfy individual employees' other needs. Moreover, Chen (2005) has observed that the five core job characteristics proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1975) and two additional job characteristics proposed by Mogaji (1997) have not been integrated under the same framework to explore the relationships between various job characteristics and any dependent variable such as job involvement or turnover intention.

Based on this background, this study investigated whether personal values and job characteristics would jointly and independently influence job involvement and turnover

intention among public, organised private and self-employed job holders. Public sector job is often perceived by people as a job for nobody, while the organised private sector or self-employed sector employment are perceived as the job for the people (Nnedum and Egwu, 2004) and are pursued with every bit of vigour and aggressiveness. Public sector workers are generally known for their poor attitude to work, lateness to work, absenteeism, bureaucracy and job security. Unlike the public sector, the organized private and self-employed sectors are characterised by job insecurity, profit making and autonomy which makes for efficiency in discharging their functions to their numerous customers or clients.

Job involvement as one of the dependent variables in this study, has rarely been used as such in investigating joint and independent influence of personal values and job characteristics. In some cases it is used as independent variable to investigate its influence or effect on other variables which serve as dependent variables. When used as a dependent variable, it is rarely with personal values and job characteristics as independent variables. Moreover, investigation of possible difference in job involvement among public, organized private and self-employed job holders might have received little or no attention from researchers, not even with personal values and job characteristics as independent variables.

Turnover intention from the job is another dependent variable in this study that suffers little or no investigation as dependent variable under the joint and independent influence of personal values and job characteristics as independent variables. Like job involvement, research effort has rarely been directed towards determining difference in turnover intention among public, organised private and self-employed workers based on their personal values and perceived characteristics of their job.

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Based on the above, attempt is made therefore to provide answers to these research questions:

1. Would personal values and perceived job characteristics independently and jointly predict job involvement of workers?

2. Would personal values and perceived job characteristics independently and jointly predict turnover intention of workers?

3. Would workers in the organised private sector be more jobs involved than the workers in self-employed or public sector?

4. Would workers in the public sector indicate turnover intention more than workers in the organised private or self-employed sector?

5. Would self-employed workers be higher on the various dimensions of personal values than workers in the organised private or public sector?

6. Would self-employed workers be higher on the various dimensions of perceived job characteristics than workers in the organized private or public sector?

7. Would the job characteristics of the three sectorial organisations be perceived differently by the workers?

1.3   PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study examined the influence of personal values and perceived job characteristics on workers' job involvement and turnover intention from their jobs considering the public, organised private and self-employed sectors respectively.

The study specifically examines:

1. The independent and joint influence of personal values and perceived job characteristics on job involvement of workers.

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2. The independent and joint influence of personal values and perceived job characteristics on turnover intention, of workers.

3. Whether workers in the organised private sector would be more job involved than workers in the self-employed or public sectors.

4. Whether workers in the public sector would indicate turnover intention from their job more than workers in the organised private or self-employed sectors.

5. Whether the personal values of workers in organised private sector, public sector and self-employed were different.

6. Whether workers will perceive the job characteristics of the organised private sector, public sector and self-employed differently.

1.4   RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

The outcome of this study will motivate the public sector, organised private sector employers, and self-employed sector to be sufficiently armed with the knowledge of, and understanding of the critical roles personal values and perceived job characteristics could play in workers job involvement and turnover intention. This will consequently enhance management's effectiveness in dealing with personnel matters in terms of selection and placement of workers to achieve optimum result.   Personal values have long been considered by social scientists to be important determinants of attitudes and behaviours to job. It therefore suggest that identifying and understanding personal values of workers will guide both management and decision makers in the public and organised private sectors in placing employees in jobs that will compliment and enhance their personal values.   In doing so, job involvement and intention to remain would have been encouraged and sustained.

Similarly, the self-employed will be aware of their personal values and consequently use the advantage to improve their job involvement and downplay on

turnover intention but to remain as the case might be. For instance, some of them go into certain kind of business venture because their relatives are there without considering their personal values. With time, they tend to find the business more unstimulating than they least expected. This will lead to low involvement in the business or desire to withdraw from the business or see the entire business climate as threatening.

It has been found that jobs with motivating job characteristics inspire a sense of accomplishment in employees and a high sense of intrinsic job motivation which will satisfy an individual employee's higher order needs such as self-esteem and self-actualisation (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Given this background, this will in practical terms help managers and employers in the public sector and even organised private sector to design jobs with sufficient motivating characteristics to inspire job involvement and minimize labour turnover or turnover intention. It will also help employers in the public sector, organised private sector and self-employed sector to devise sustainable strategies that would reduce related injuries and illnesses in order to promote job involvement and intention to remain.

Furthermore, the study would help policy-makers, educationists and vocational/career counsellors to provide useful information to students at all educational levels. Also it would help job applicants and vocational/ career choice clients based on their understanding of the influence of personal values and perceived job characteristics to guide in their choice of career of any type. This is because many people find themselves in jobs or educational pursuits that neither agree with their personal values nor with the characteristics of their jobs; resulting in poor job performance, frustration, dissatisfaction and labour turnover or dropout from school or turnover intention. Finally, the study would contribute in theoretical and practical terms to existing psychology literature particularly in the field of industrial/organisational psychology.

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2.0   THEORETICAL REVIEW

This chapter is concerned with the review of relevant theories and empirical literatures. It will be approached thus: Definitions and explanations of value, theory of the origin of values (Hofstede, 1980), socialisation theory of value (Super, 1995), cultural theory of value (Hofstede, 1980), Schwartz's personal values theory (1992, 1994), value in occupational environment (Kahle, 1996) and job characteristics model (Hackman and Oldham, 1975, 1976; Mogaji 1997), job involvement (Lodahl and Kejner 1965) and turnover intention.

2.1   THEORIES OF VALUES

Hofstede (1980) contends that values have intensity and a certain relevance that can be regarded as value priority. He argues that value priorities are both intimate and shared or common to a group of people. Furthermore, Hofstede (1980) and Schwartz (1993) observe that values operate at the level of individuals, institutions and entire societies. Again, personality system considered values as adaptations to cultural conditions which are in dynamic relationship to basic tendencies or personality and also to self-concept (McCrae and Costa, 1990). Koivula (2008) believes that values are derived from various sources, and most of them may not be recognized by the person. This is in line with Hechter (1993) view that institutional structures, such as families, have embedded values. Moreover, Feather (1995) and Hechter (1993) observe that values arise from personal experience and their relative importance is dependent upon unique life experiences. However, Kahle (1996) states that values summarise past experience and provide a strategy for dealing with new choices. It suggests that the origin of people's

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values should be given adequate consideration while determining the influence of such values in their job involvement and turnover intention from job.

2.2   PERSONALITY THEORY OF VALUES

McCrae and Costa (1990) in examining value from the perspective of personality, defines personality traits as dimensions of individual differences in tendencies to show consistent patterns of thought, feelings and action. Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz and Knafo (2002) advance the main distinction between traits and values thus: traits are enduring dispositions describing what people consider important. They concluded from their findings that the influence of values on behaviour depends on cognitive control than does the influence of traits. Another distinction credited to Chaplin, John, and Goldberg (1988) is that traits are prototypically very stable, long-lasting, and internally caused; but values are more susceptible to change through socialisation to a new social environment or through self-confrontation (Rokeach, 1973). Meaningful and systematic associations of value priorities with personality variables have been established by Bilsky and Schwartz (1994). Roccas et al. (2002) propose a number of ways, values and trait maybe linked:

1.   Inborn temperament may give rise to parallel traits and values

2.   People seek to behave in ways consistent with their values (Rokeach, 1973), and thus values may influence traits.

3.   Traits may affect values when people justify their trait-produced actions by using value statements.

Dollinger, Leong and Ulicini (1996) with the help of Rokeach's value survey, studied the linkage. Their findings suggest that people value qualities they already possess. Empirical studies generally suggest that traits of openness, agreeables, and conscientiousness relate systematically to values (Luk and Bond, 1993; Yik and Tang,

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1996; Dollinger et al, 1996; Roccas et al, 2002; Oliver and Mooradian, 2003). In all, these studies suggest that traits of openness to change correlate negatively to conservation values. Openness to experience is also positively correlated with the value of universalism. Agreeableness correlates positively with self–transcendence and conservation and negatively with self-enhancement and openness to change. Conscientiousness correlates positively with conservation values of security and conformity (but not tradition) and self –enhancement value, achievement (but not power). This trait correlates negatively with stimulation and universalism (Koivula, 2008). It follows that personality make up of an individual correlates with his personal values and consequently may probably influence his job involvement and turnover intention or remain on the job.

2.2.1   SOCIALISATION THEORY OF VALUE

Super (1995) states that the origin of values is in needs, which are survival–related manifestations of physiological conditions. In an effort to satisfy hunger, for instance, one must pay attention to social circumstances or norms when we choose what we eat and how we eat it in order to avoid conflicts with the norms of the society. Rokeach (1973) appears to share the same view when he describes values as cognitive representations of needs that have been transformed to account for social sanction. The function of human values, according to Rokeach (1973) is to satisfy needs and also to uphold self-esteem. Kluchhohn (1959) examined the intricate relationship between values and needs thus: a value serves several needs partially, inhibits others partially, half meets and half blocks still others. He maintains that values both rise from and create needs.

Bilsky and Schwartz (1994) dialated more conceptual link between values and needs based on Maslow's (1954) analysis of deficiency versus growth needs. Deficiency needs such as safety must be classified before the growth needs, such as self-actualisation

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can be sought. They believed that values and traits are covariant in growth needs. A person characterised by trait of curiosity, for instance, is likely to value self-direction highly. On the contrary, in deficiency needs the values and traits may be compensatory. For instance, one characterised by anxiety is unlikely to value stimulation, but will be concerned with security. However, Kiovula (2008) observes that the relationship between values and other variables depends on whether the personality traits, attitude or behaviour is aimed at satisfying growth or deficiency needs.

Nevertheless, Rokeach (1979) states that on the individual level, the process of transforming needs to values is called socialisation. According to White (1993) adults observe one another with social networks and acquired mutual values patterns. Moreover, Rokeach (1973) states that once values are acquired, they become relatively stable, motivational characteristics of persons and change little during adulthood. It suggests then that organisations which practice socialisation of their workers invariably instill motivational values in them. By so doing, the workers job involvement is encouraged and to less extent turnover intention from their job.

2.2.2 CULTURAL THEORY OF VALUE

Schwartz (1992) holds that common values ensure that members of a society understand each other, and without a great deal of negotiation pursue similar goals in a compatible way. Moreover, that at level of society, values guide the fulfillment of the biological and social needs of individuals. Koivula (2008) states that values are abstract rules of desirable conduct and goals developed to fit the conditions in which the society live. Inglehart (1990) observes that culture represents a people's strategy for adaptation. Moreover, Hechter (1993) and Hofsede (1980) state that the ecological conditions of the

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available modes of food production as well as the international political situation establish both the possibilities and the constraints on this adaptation.

White (1993) suggests that at the societal level, values are stable because each value is surrounded by cumulative changes gradually and reflects changes in the formative experiences of new generations (Inglehart, 1990). Again, Hofstede (1980) claims that change occurs because of shift in ecological conditions. And that cultures change in response to changes in the socio-economic, political and technological environment which in turn shape that environment (Hofstede, 1980; Inglehart, 1990). Koivula (2008) asserts that cross-cultural psychology has seen values as underlying the functioning of cultural unit. And values are used to understand cultural differences when comparing nations, ethnic groups and regions. Again, the individualism-collectivism dimensions have been employed to explain cultural differences. Although there are significant cultural variations in value priorities, there are also cross-cultural similarities (Koivula, 2008). Based on this fact, Sverk and Super (1995) found that in all countries studied, the fulfillment of personnel was clearly and extremely important life goal for the majority of their participants. At the other extreme, the willingness to take risks as well as the desire for authority and prestige were of little importance everywhere.

The ratings and ranks of Schwartz's ten personal values have also been found to be similar in all the cultures or countries studied. Benevolence, self-direction, and universalism have been the most important values internally, while stimulation, achievement, tradition and power have been the least important (Schwartz and Bardi, 2001). Hofstede (1980) was credited with empirically derived four dimensions of cultural variability from a study of a corporation with branches in 40 countries, individualism and masculinity/femininity. Hofstede (1994) explains power distance as the degree of inequality taken as normal. Hofstede (1980) points out that such things as close

supervision, fear of disagreement with a supervisor and lack of trust among co-workers have been found to manifest themselves more in high-power distance cultures than in lower power distance cultures. Hofstede (1994) maintains that the dimension of uncertainty avoidance explains the degree to which people prefer structured situations over and above unstructured ones. As a matter of fact, Hofstede (1980) compared scores on uncertainty avoidance with other large-scale cross-cultural studies. He found that members of high/uncertainty avoidance cultures resist change more than members of low uncertainty avoidance cultures.

Hofstede (1994) defines individualism as the degree or extent to which people prefer to act as individuals rather than as group members. He points out that in individualistic cultures that the bondsorties between individuals are loose and everyone is expected to look after themselves and their immediate family. By contrast, in collectivistic cultures, people are members of strong, cohesive in groups (Hofstede, 1991). According to Hofstede (1980) high masculinity involves placing a high value on things, power, and assertiveness. On the other hand, systems in which people, quality of life and nurturance prevail are high in femininity. To Hofstede, cultural systems high on the masculinity index emphasize differentiated sex roles, performance, ambition and independence. On the contrary, systems high in femininity value emphasize fluid sex roles, quality of life, service and interdependence. Hofstede (1980) found that when compared to the people in feminine cultures, people in masculine cultures have a stronger motivation to achieve and also view work as central to their lives.

According to Koivula (2008), Hofstede's cultural dimensions have frequently been used in organization research. For example, a high level of collectivism has been found to be associated with greater job satisfaction (Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001) and organisation commitment (Dorfman and Howell, 1988; Palich, Hom, Griffeth, 1995;

Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001). The culture-level dimensions of Hofstede (1980) may have corresponding relationship with the organisational type of this study, such as public sector, organised private sector and self-employed sector because they operate within their own peculiar environment or culture. Also these differences in cultural values or orientation may manifest in differences in the workers job involvement and turnover intention across the three sectors. Moreover, the joint influence of these cultural values and perceived job characteristics in predicting job involvement of workers or their turnover intention will offer tremendous outcome. The cultural perspective on value by logical extension of the meaning, suggests that the culture of an organisation underlies its value, and to a reasonable extent influences the workers job involvement or turnover intention from the job or the organisation.

2.2.3   ROKEACH VALUE THEORY

Rokeach (1973) claimed that the total number of values a person has is relatively small and that people everywhere possess the same values to different degrees. To him, the value system is a hierarchical organisation, a rank ordering of ideas or values in terms of importance. Rokeach (1973) operationalised values as modes of conduct and end-states, namely, instrumental and terminal values. He further divided instrumental values into two categories; moral values are concerned with interpersonal modes of conduct such as forgiveness, helpfulness etc, while competence values are concerned with intrapersonal ones (e.g. logical, imaginative). Terminal values are classified as personal and social. The former include self-centered end-states (e.g. equality, a world at peace). Rokeach (1973) identified seven factors in values;

1.   Immediate gratification (a comfortable life, pleasure, cleanliness, exciting life) versus delayed gratification (wisdom, inner harmony, logic, self-control)

2. Competence (logic, imagination intellectuality, independence) versus religious morality (forgiveness, salvation, being helpful, cleanliness)

3. Self-constriction (obedience, politeness, self-control, honesty) versus self-expansion (broadmindedness, capability)

4. Social orientation (a world at peace, national security, equality, freedom) versus personal orientation (true friendship, self-respect)

5. Social security (a world of beauty, being helpful, imagination) versus family security (family security ambition, responsibility, capability)

6. Respect (social recognition, self-respect) versus love (mature love, being loving)

7. Inner-directed (courage, independence) versus other-directed (politeness)

Moreover, Rokeach (1973) found similar clustering with the smallest space analysis. The analysis revealed that the values form a circular structure.

Bond (1988) applied the Rokeach value survey in a nine culture study and found four factors in values.

1. Competence (intellectuality, independence, capability, logic, imagination) versus security (family security, world of peace)

2. Personal morality (forgiveness, being helpful, honesty, courage) versus success (social recognition, power, comfortable life)

3. Social reliability (responsibility, politeness, self-control, obedience) versus beauty (world of beauty)

4. Political harmony (equity, world of peace, social justice) versus personal sociability (being cheerful, cleanliness, being loving)

Rokeach (1973) separation or distinction of values into instrumental and terminal values has had mixed reaction regions occupied almost alone by terminal or instrumental

values in multidimensional space in all seven samples they studied. The finding failed to be replicated in Schwartz's (1992) study. He found on the contrary only five distinct regions for terminal and instrumental values observed among 400 projections of smallest space analyses. Hofstede and Bond (1984) criticized Rokeach Value Survey as being based towards Western values, while Braithwaite and Law (1985) found it limited in the number of dimensions assessed. Because this theory appears to hold promise for motivational forces such as instrumental or terminal values, their probability for influencing workers' job involvement and turnover intention or remain on the job or organization is an open secret.

2.2.4 SCHWARTZ AND BILSKY VALUE THEORY

Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990) proposed seven distinct motivational types of values. They also found empirical evidence for the seven values. The values include:

1. Pro-social: Active protection or enhancement of the welfare of others

2. Restrictive conformity: Restrictive of action and impulses likely to harm others and violate sanctioned norms

3. Enjoyment: Pleasure, sensuous, and emotional gratification

4. Achievement: Personal success through demonstrating competence

5. Maturity: Appreciation, understanding, and acceptance of oneself, others, and the surrounding world

6. Self-direction: Independent thought and action-choosing creating, exploring

7. Security: Safety, harmony and stability, of groups with whom one identifies, relationship or of self

Schwartz and Bilsky (1987, 1990) also identified dynamic relationships among values in the theory in addition to the seven value types. Schwartz and Bilsky (1990)

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came up with a hypothesis using interest facets. They found dynamic conflicts in their samples of seven countries. Compatibility among values that support smooth social relations, among those concerned with-enhancement and among those expressing comfort with self-enhancement and among those expressing comfort with or reliance on one's uniqueness were observed. Furthermore, they observed conflicts between an emphasis on self-direction versus restrictive conformity and between pro-social and achievement values. The influence of these motivational variables will hopefully operate to account for the workers' job involvement and turnover intention in their organizations or job.

2.2.5   SCHWARTZ VALUE THEORY

Schwartz (1992, 1994) proposed a value theory based on the content and organization of the value systems of individuals, specifies ten universal and motivationally distinct types of values coupled with an integrated structure that results from the conflicts and congruities among all the values (Koivula, 2008). Schwartz (1992) perceives values as goals. According to Schwartz (1994), defining values as goals is in line with the contention that values serve the interest of a social entity, an individual, and/or a group (Schwartz, 1994). Schwartz (1994) further contends that values represent responses to three universal requirements: individuals' needs as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction, and requirements for the smooth functioning and survival of groups. Again, he points out that the crucial content aspect that distinguishes values from each other is the type of motivational goals they express. He proposed ten basic human/personal values. The ten basic values are security, conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement and power (Schwartz, 1992, 1994, 2001, 2006).

1. Security

Schwartz (1992) believes that security derives from basic individual and group requirements to have safe surroundings. Some security values serve individual interests, and others serve collective interests. The motivational goals for security include: safety, harmony, and the stability of society, relationships, and self. According to Schwartz (1994) security value serves all the universal requirements with which all individuals and societies must cope. The groups of value items that made up or describe security value are social order, family security, national security, reciprocation of favours, cleanliness, sense of belonging, and good health.

2. Conformity

This derives from requiring individuals to restrain from behaviours that may distort smooth social interaction and group functioning. The motivational goal for conformity includes restraint from actions, inclinations and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms. Conformity values include obedience, self-discipline, politeness and honouring parents and elders.

3. Tradition

The motivational goals for tradition are respect, commitment and acceptance of the customs and ideas that one's culture or religion imposes. According to Schwartz (1994) tradition is derived from the smooth functioning and survival of groups. This value is based on respect of tradition, humility, devoutness, accepting one's proportions of life, and moderation.

4. Benevolence

This is based on the need for positive interaction in order to promote the flourishing of groups as well as need for affiliation. According to Schwartz (1994) it serves all of the universal requirements with which individuals and societies must cope.

Its motivational goals include preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent social contact. Benevolence according to Schwartz and Bilsky (1990) is a more narrowly defined version of the previous pro-social value type. While pro-social values are concerned with the welfare of all people in all settings, benevolence is related to close others in everyday interactions. Benevolence includes valuing true friendship, mature love, helpfulness, loyalty, forgiveness, honesty and responsibility.

5.   Universalism

Its motivational goal is understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and nature. The value emanated from those survival needs of groups and individuals that become apparent when people come into contact with those outside the extended primary group and become aware of the scarcity of natural resources. Schwartz (1992) explained universalism as broad-mindedness, social justice, equality, a world at peace, a world of beauty, unity with nature, wisdom and protection of the environment.

6.   Self-direction

The goal is independent thought, and action. It originates from a need for control and mastery and from international requirements of autonomy and independence (Kohn and Schooler 1983). According to Schwartz (1994) it derives from the needs of an organism and the requisites of coordinated social interaction. Freedom, creativity, independence, choosing one's own goals, curiosity, and self-respect are the set of value items that describe the value.

7.   Stimulation

Schwartz (1992; 1994) claims that this value originates from human need for variety and stimulation in order to maintain an optimal level of activation. Its

motivational goals include excitement, novelty and challenge in life. The set of value items that describes this value are exciting life, a varied life, and a daring life.

8.   Hedonism

Hedonism derives from human organism's needs and pleasures associated with satisfying them (Schwartz 1992, 1994). Its motivational goal is pleasure or sensuous self-gratification. The set of value items that describes this value are pleasure and enjoyment of life.

9.   Achievement

According to Schwartz (1992), competent performance is a requirement if individuals are to obtain resources for survival and if social interaction is to succeed. The value was derived from the requisites of coordinated social interaction and group survival (Schwartz, 1994). Rokeach (1973) also identified achievement as a value. Achievement value include being ambitious, successful, capable, and influential.

10.   Power

This value is grounded in several universal requirements that an individual and a group must meet. The power value may represent transformations of individual needs for dominance and control. Its motivational goals include an attainment of social status and prestige and control or dominance over people and resources. According to Schwartz (1992) both power and achievement values focus on self-esteem, but achievement lay emphasis on the active demonstration of competence in concrete interaction, while power emphasizes the attainment or preservation of a dominant position. The set of value items that describes this value are authority, wealth, social power, preserving one's public image and social recognition.

Schwartz (1994) identified cultural-level value orientations. He pointed out that individual value dimensions reflect the psychological dynamic of conflict and

compatibility that individuals experience in the course of pursuing different values. Furthermore, Schwartz contends that culture-level dimension reflects the different solutions that societies develop to address the problems of regulating human activities and the different ways that institutional emphasizes and investments are patterned and justified. For Schwartz, such culture-level value dimensions are conservatism or embeddedness, intellectual autonomy, affective autonomy, hierarchy, egalitarianism, mastery, and harmony. Conservatism is concerned with maintaining the status quo, propriety, and restraining of actions or inclinations that might disrupt the solidarity of a group or the traditional order in which people are embedded. Intellectual autonomy means the desirability of individuals pursuing their own ideas and intellectual directions independently. Affective autonomy is the desirability of individuals pursuing emotionally positive experiences. Hierarchy reflects the legitimacy of unequal distribution of power, roles and resources. Egalitarianism describes transcendence of selfish interests in favour of voluntary commitment to promoting the welfare of others. Mastery concern getting ahead through active self-assertion and harmony refers to fitting harmoniously into the environment. Schwartz (1994) compared his culture-level value orientations with Hofstede's dimensions. Hofstede's individualism dimension correlated positively with Schwartz's affective and intellectual autonomy and negatively with Schwartz's hierarchy. Uncertainty avoidance also had a negative correlation with hierarchy. Hofstede's power distance correlated negatively with autonomy, but positively with hierarchy and mastery.

Value Structure

Schwartz (1992, 1994) points out that value are related dynamically to one another. That is, it specified which values are compatible and mutually supportive and which are opposed and are likely to conflict with one another. Schwartz (1992) argues that the behaviour connected to each value type has psychological, practical and social consequences that maybe compatible or conflict with the pursuit of another value type. In support of this view point, Ros, Schwartz, and Surkis (1999) point out as an example that

the pursuit of achievement values often conflicts with the pursuit of benevolence values; while pursuit of personal success for oneself is not unlikely to obstruct actions aimed at enhancing the welfare of close others who need help.

Koivula (2008) points out that the circular arrangement of values represents a motivational continuum. The closer the values are on the circle, the more similar are their underlying motivations: The more distant the values, the more antagonistic their underlying motivations. The dimension of self-enhancement versus self-transcendence contains power and achievement at one end. At the opposite end of the dimension are universalism and benevolence. The other dimension in the two-dimensional space is openness to change versus conservation. The value types of stimulation and self-direction are at one end, whereas types of security and tradition are at the conservation end of the dimension. The value type of hedonism relates to both self-enhancement and openness to change dimensions. Furthermore, Schwartz (1992) postulated that individuals' interests are opposed to activities that serve collective interests. According to him such values as power, achievement, hedonism, stimulation, and self-direction serve individual interests. Those that primarily serve collective interests include benevolence, tradition and conformity. Universalism and security serve both individual and collective interests.

Schwartz (1992) identified the compatibilities among the ten value types. For him, power and achievement are concerned with social superiority and esteem. Achievement and hedonism are associated with self-indulgence. Affectively pleasant arousal is sought both by hedonism and stimulation. Stimulation and self-direction are concerned with intrinsic motivation for mastery and openness to change. Confidence in one's own judgment and comfort with the diversity of existence are expressed by self-direction and universalism. Universalism and benevolence are both concerned with enhancement of others and transcendence of self interests. Tradition and conformity are associated with self-restraint and submission. Conformity and security both protect order and harmony.

Security and power both stress avoiding or overcoming the threat of uncertainties by controlling relationships and resources. Schwartz moreover, proposed conflicts among the ten value types. In other words, seeking or operating on a certain value type will generate strong psychological and/or social conflicts. For examples: Self-direction and stimulation conflict with conformity, tradition, and security. Universalism and benevolence values oppose achievement and power values. Similarly, hedonism does not agree with conformity and tradition. Schwartz argued that the value structure is fairly stable because it is derived from the basic human conditions. He pointed out, however, the possibility of the value structures changing over time as social conditions are transferred, or they may change even rapidly in response to major technical, economic, political and security upheavals.

SELF- TRANSCENDENCE

Universalism

Benevolence

Tradition

Self-direction

OPENNESS TO CHANGE

CONSERVATION

Conformity

Stimulation

Hedonism

Security

Power

Achievement
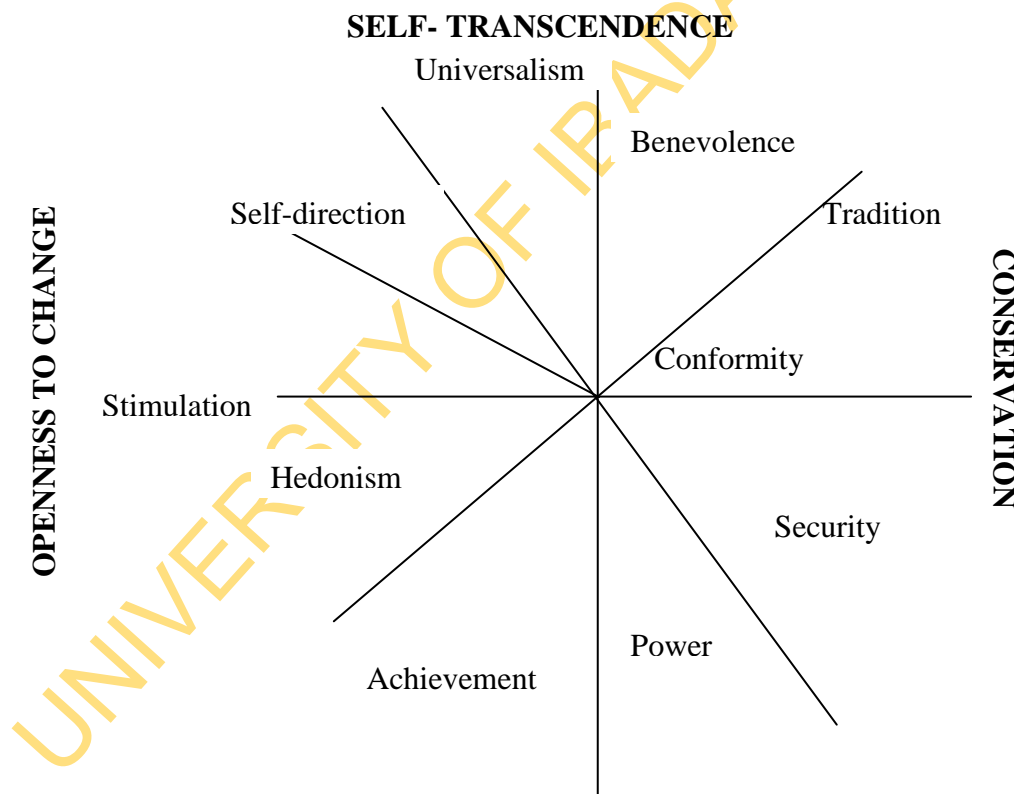
Fig 2.1: Theoretical Location of the Values

**(SELF-ENHANCEMENT
Adopted from Schwartz, 1992, 1994)**

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2.2.6 THEORY OF VALUES IN OCCUPATIONAL ENVIRONMENTS

Based on social adaptation theory, individuals adopt various life roles partly through value and value fulfillment (Kahle, 1996). According to Schwartz (1993), social institutions such as work offer people roles that encourage behaviour displaying certain values, while fostering conditions for the further expressions of those values. Furthermore, Schwartz (2005) rightly observed that some life circumstances provide opportunities to pursue or express some values more easily than others. Schwartz and Bardi (2001) argued that people upgrade the importance of values they can attain easily and downgrade the importance of values whose pursuit is blocked.

Kohn and Schooler (1983) pointed out that people, in independent jobs tend to value self-direction at the expense of conformity. For instance, Rokeach (1973) found that American college professors placed more value on intellectual competence and self-actualisation than did other adult Americans. Argyris (1957) on the other hand, pointed out that rational formal organizations with task specialisation, a chain of command, and a span of control create conditions that conflict with the growth needs of individual employees and result in socialisation that places a higher priority on security and material rewards than on self-direction. Koivula (2008) pointed out that individuals working in different occupations are exposed to formal and informal socialisation to occupational values. He maintained that different occupational groups are given different training even after entering an organization. Holland (1997) described six types of occupational environments namely, conventional, enterprising, social, artistic, investigative and realistic. Koivula (2008) argued that these environments are characterised by different activities and structures and they allow individuals to pursue different goals. Holland appears to support this line of argument when he argues that people search for

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environments that will allow them to exercise their skills and abilities and express their attitudes and values.

Knafo ad Sagiv (2004) studied the values of Israeli workers in 32 occupations classified according to Holland's typology (1997). Their findings were in line with Holland's argument that different occupations have different value priorities. Most of the directions of the correlations were those predicted by the theory. Based on Holland's (1997) list of occupations belonging to different environments, the organisation used by Koivula (2008) as a case study he divided into enterprising, conventional and realistic environment groups. Holland (1997) stated that the enterprising occupational environment is characterised by activities such as selling or leading people. Enterprising occupations include such things as management and sales. This environment rewards people for having goals related to achievements, money, power and status. Knafo and Sagiv (2004) found that this environment correlated positively with achievement and power and negatively with universalism. Rokeach (1973) reported data on service station dealers and salesmen in an American oil company. The dealers and salesmen placed a higher value on hedonism and achievement than did American national sample matched for gender, race, age, and type of employment.

The conventional occupational environment stimulates people to engage in such systematic activities as keeping records, filling and organising data. These occupations are highly structured and allow display of such conventional goals as earning money, being dependable and conforming (Holland, 1997). Knafo and Sagiv (2004) found that the conventional environment correlated positively with security and negatively with power. The realistic occupational environment includes explicit and systematic manipulation of objects, tools and machines (Holland, 1997). Knafo and Sagiv's (2004) study realistic occupations, such as production and maintenance, correlated positively

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with hedonism and tradition and negatively with benevolence, universalism, and self-direction. The finding supports Holland's proposition (1997) that this environment rewards traditional values and concern with goods, money, power and possessions. Holland's theoretical framework (1997) and the previous results obtained by Knafo and Sagiv (2004) suggest that all three occupational environments identified in the case study (enterprising, conventional and realistic) lean towards conservative and self-enhancement values.

The present study, as a matter of fact, attempted to see the extent values in occupational environments influence job involvement and turnover intention of workers in general, public sector, organized private sector and self-employed sector.

2.2.7 JOB CHARACTERISTICS MODEL

Hackman and Oldham (1976) stated that job characteristics are concerned with nature and the requirements of the job, which psychologically impact on the employees. Arnold, Cooper and Robertson (1995) observed that the job characteristics model has dominated the scene in job redesign since the late 1970s. Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1976 & 1980) job characteristics model was intended to motivate employees for optimum performance and job satisfaction through redesign of work. They identified what they referred to as five core job characteristics: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback from the job.However, two additional job characteristics were later added to the five core job characteristics (Mogaji, 1997). They include feedback from agents and dealing with others. The core job characteristics are explained thus:

1. Skill variety: The extent to which the job requires a range of skills

2. Task identity: The extent to which the job produces a whole, identifiable outcome

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3. Task significance: The extent to which the job has an impact on other people, either inside or outside the organisation

4. Autonomy: The extent to which the job allows the job-holders to exercise choice and discretion in their work

5. Feedback from job: The extent to which the job itself provides information on how well the job-holder is performing

6. Feedback from agents: Information received by the employee from the supervisor/co-workers about his performance

7. Dealing with others: This involves working closely with other people

Hackman and Oldham job characteristics model is depicted in the figure below.
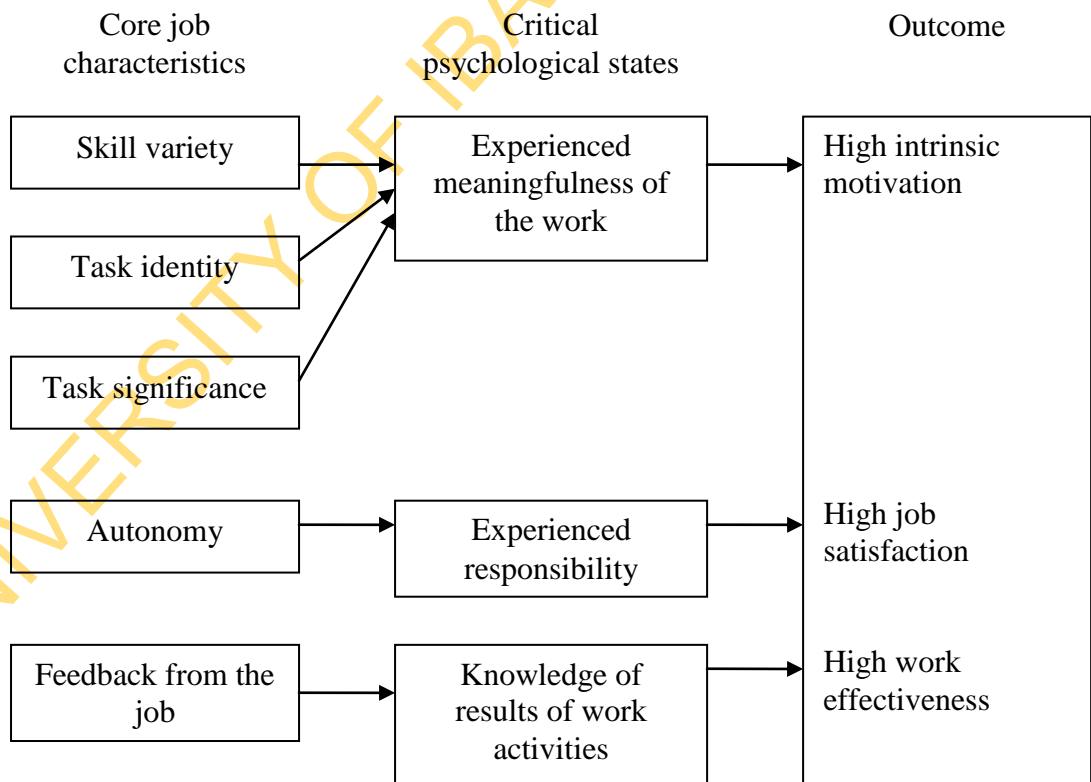
Fig 2.2: Hackman and Oldham Job Characteristic Model (Adapted from Arnold, Cooper, & Robertson, 1995, page 385).

The core job characteristics are believed to lead to critical psychological states: skill variety, task identity and task significance bring about experienced meaningfulness of the work. Autonomy influences experienced responsibility for work outcomes. Feedback from the job affects knowledge of results of work activities. All the constituents of critical psychological states are believed to combine to bring about three outcomes: high intrinsic motivation, high job satisfaction and high work effectiveness or performance. According to Arnold et al (1995), the whole process is moderated by several factors. The most often investigated of these factors are growth-need strength. This according to Arnold and his associates refers to the importance to the individual of Maslow's growth needs.

Hackman and Oldham have designed an instrument called the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), which assesses the construct. The job diagnostic survey is completed by job-holder. They also proposed an overall motivating potential score (MPS), which is computed thus:

$$MPS = \frac{SV + Tl + TS}{3} \times Au \times Fb$$

SV = Skill variety; Tl = Task Identity; TS = task significance: Au = Autonomy; and Fb = Feedback from the job.

There are, however, diversity of views on the ways an employee might be affected over time by the nature of his/her job. Kornhauser (1965), for instance, argues that work normally serves as a stabilizing, integrating and ego-satisfying pattern of influence on the employee. Kornhauser believes that failure of one's job to provide opportunities to express his/her needs will impair the effective functioning or job performance of the individual. Moreover, some researchers concluded that affective responses to work may be more directly related to structural characteristics of jobs or organisation than to

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individual differences (Herman, Dunham & Hulin 1975; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1975; Gagne, Senecal & Koestner, 1997). Evans, Kiggundu and House (1979) pointed out that the initial work by Hackman and Lawler (1971) and Hackman and Oldham (1976) showed some support for the major propositions of the job characteristics model in field settings. For example, Hackman and Oldham (1976) found strong unmoderated relations between job characteristics and psychological states, between psychological states and internal motivation, general satisfaction and growth satisfaction.

The perceived job characteristics of workers in public sector, organised private sector, and self-employed sector may probably differ across the three sectors. For instance, the public sector management practices bureaucracy, which is likely to rob workers autonomy, skill variety, task identity and task significance. The organised private sector, on the contrary, may unlike public sector, encourage autonomy, skill variety, skill identity, and task significance. This is because they are profit-oriented organisations and may like to encourage such job characteristics for good results. In the self-employed sector, some or all of the critical psychological states maybe needed for successful entrepreneurship. Moreover, personal values of the workers and their perceived job characteristics may independently and jointly influence the job involvement and turnover intention.

2.2.8   JOB INVOLVEMENT

This is the degree to which a person is identified psychologically with his work, or the importance of work in his total self-image (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965; Kanungo, 1982) or merging of a person's ego identity with his job (McKelvey and Sekaran, 1977). For Dubin (1961), job involvement is the internalisation of values about the goodness of work

or the importance of work in the worth of the person, and perhaps it thus measures the ease with which the person can be further socialised by the organisation.

Lodahl and Kejner (1965) stated that others have recognised job involvement and called it by other names but defined the concept very similarly. Guion's definition of morale is relevant to job involvement (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). He defines morale thus:

Morale is ego involvement in one's job….There is something to be said for the attitudinal frame of reference in which a man perceives his job to be so important to himself, to his company, and to society that his superiors' "blunders" are not to be tolerated.

Brown (2007) observes that the construct of job involvement is somewhat similar to organisational commitment in that they are both concerned with an employee's identification with the work experiences. However, the constructs differ, in that job involvement is more closely associated with identification with one's immediate work activities whereas organisational commitment refers to one's attachment to the organisation. These definitions have a common core of meaning in that they described the job involved person as one for whom work is a very important part of life and as one who is affected very much personally by his whole job situation: the work itself, his co-workers, the company, etc (Lodahl and Kejner, 1965). Moreover, they asserted that the non-job involved worker does his living off the job; that work is not as important as a part of his psychological life. His interests are elsewhere, and the core of his self-image, the essential part of his identity, is not greatly affected by the kind of job he does or how well he does it. However, results from different studies have shown that a job involved worker has a favourable attitude to his job (Keller, 1997; Kirby and Richard, 2000; Chughtai, 2008).

Following the above viewpoints, the influence of personal values and perceived job characteristics, independently and jointly on job involvement is examined in the present study.

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2.2.9   TURNOVER INTENTION

Somers (1996) stated that turnover intention is the extent a worker is ready to change job showing frequent lateness and absenteeism on the job. For Okhakhume, Okurame and Logo (2000), turnover intention is the attitudinal indication of staying or leaving the job or organisation. Again, turnover intention has been linked to negative attitude to job (Bycio, 1996). Turnover intention according to Bycio (1996) occurs in at least four ways, namely psychological withdrawal, lateness, absenteeism and turnover. He observed further that social scientists who study organisational behaviour have made numerous attempts to identify the causes of employee withdrawal in the form of job turnover. Moreover, most studies of the causes of job turnover were concerned with job satisfaction as primary independent variable. It is also believed that job satisfaction domains have a direct effect on intention to quit or withdraw, in addition to their effects via overall job satisfaction. Sometimes the structural approach is used to provide a richer interpretation of the role and effect of job characteristics on job satisfaction and intention to quit than is found in previous research. This is particularly relevant to some public sector labour markets, where the opportunity to alter wages to compensate for the relative advantages and disadvantages of jobs is limited because of national wage bargaining (Scott, Gravelle, Simoens, Bojke and Sibbald, 2006). The role of adverse working conditions has been proposed as the cause of employees' quit behaviour (Bockerman and Ilmakunnas, 2009). They contended that job dissatisfaction that arises in adverse working conditions is related to job search and this in turn is related to actual job switches. Perceptions of unfairness in the workplace contribute to employee withdrawal, such as absenteeism, turnover intention, work alienation and alcohol self-medication through emotions that operate both mechanisms of inability to work and unwillingness to work

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(Howard & Cordes, 2010). They defined turnover as the degree of individual movement across the membership boundary of a social system and it is often detrimental to effective functioning of an organisation.

2.3 EMPIRICAL REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

In this section, review of relevant studies that provide analytical basis for comprehending the influence of personal values and perceived job characteristics on job involvement and turnover intention are examined.

2.3.1 PERSONAL VALUES

Fogarty and White (1994) examined differences in the personal values held by a group of Aboriginal students and a group of non-Aboriginal students studying at an Australian University. Results indicated that the Aboriginal group placed greater emphasis on values associated with tradition, conformity and security and significantly less emphasis on values associated with achievement, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism and benevolence. They concluded that the findings were consistent with previous research on the world view of traditional Aboriginal people, and they suggested that even among younger more westernized representatives of this culture, collective values are likely to be strong determinant of behaviour. Even though the study reflects more of a laboratory setting than of work environment, it suggests that such personal values will probably predicts job involvement and intention to withdraw if done in real work setting.

Smith, Dugan and Trompenaars (1996) investigated the relationship between national culture and the values of organisational employees. The value of 8,841 managers and organisation employees from 43 countries were surveyed. They found substantial

differences in modal cultural values of organisation employees and concluded that they were consistent with difference reported by others. Smith et al (1996) stated that the result suggests that the dimension defined by Hofstede (1984), as individualism – collectivism and power distance maybe better defined as representing varying orientations towards continuity of group membership (loyal involvement/utilisation involvement) and varying orientation towards the obligation of social relationship (conservatism/egalitarian commitment). The investigation could be extended to whether such relationship between national culture and values of organisational employees could possibly influence their job involvement or turnover intention from job.

Feather (1998) attempted a comparative study of Australian, American and Canadian students' attitudes toward high achievers, self-esteem and value priorities. The result showed that (a) American students have more emphasis to achievement, competence, and conformity values and were more in favour of rewarding high achievers; (b) Australian students gave less emphasis to conformity values, rated prosocial values as higher in importance and reported higher equalitarianism; (c) Canadian students gave less emphasis to affiliate contentment values. Gender differences were also obtained on the value, attitude, and self-esteem.

Causal impacts of socio-economic development and political democratisation on both value importance and value consensus in a society was investigated by Schwartz (2000). Data were collected from matched samples of teachers from 42 nations numbering 7,856 who completed a survey that measures 10 distinct types of values. Both development and democratisation correlated positively with the importance of openness and self-transcendence values, and negatively with the importance of conservation and self-enhancement values. The findings also show that development and democratisation have opposite relations to value consensus, suppressing one another effects. Moreover,

development was found to increase overall value consensus, whereas democratisation decreases it. By extension, such correlation could probably apply either positively or negatively with job involvement and turnover intention.

McGuire, Garavan, O'Donnell, Saha and Cseh (2008) examined the effect of personal values on the importance attached by individuals to training and development in organisations. They argued that personal values play an important role in decision-making process (commitment to training and development) and that such values are the product of socialisation processes operating at an organisational and societal level. They used questionnaire to collect data from 340 Irish and Canadian line managers to test the hypothesis that personal values affect the importance attached by respondents to training and development. The findings emphasise the need for simultaneously examining both personal values and organisational factors as predictors of training and development activity, and possibly of job involvement and turnover intention.

Hobson, Mellon and Stevens (2011) investigated determinants of moral judgments regarding budgetary slack, experimentally, by examination of pay schemes and personal values. They used 104 students enrolled in upper-level accounting course in the Midwestern University in the United States as participants. The results suggest that financial incentives play a role in determining the moral frame of the budgeting setting and that personal values play a role in determining how individuals respond to that moral frame. For example, participants who scored high on traditional values and empathy were more likely to judge significant budgetary slack unethically (They examined personal values from the dimension of traditional values, responsibility and empathy). It follows that personal values are likely to play a role in individuals' job involvement or turnover intention.

Williams and Hall (2006) compared values, priorities and attitudes of chief marketing officers with those of advanced marketing students in personal values, stakeholders' importance, organisational objectives, sources of competitive strengths and advantages, and organisational strategies and tactics. They used 131 participants drawn from among the chief marketing officers in the Fortune 1000 Firms and senior level marketing students in a Western University. They found concurrence between managers and students on personal values, but the ways in which personal values related to organisational priorities were quite different between the groups. Huffman (2005) moreover found that values have a positive or negative impact on the organisation in terms of decisions, priorities, strategies, plans and behaviour. If so, personal values could have the same effect on the individual's decision whether to be job involved or indicate turnover intention.

Lee and Trail (2011) investigated the influence of personal values and goals on cognitive and behavioural involvement in sports. They used 378 college students from sports and fitness classes in large Southern university as participants. They found that personal values and goals explained a small to large amount of variance in general sports fanship, team identification, television sports viewership, game attendance, internet use specific to sports, sports listenership, sports merchandise purchasing and sports readership. Perhaps variance in the extent of people's job involvement or turnover intention may depend on their differences in personal values.

Sapienza, Hichy, Guarnera and Nuovo (2010) investigated effects of basic human values on host community acculturation orientation. They used as participants 264 Italian university students, who completed a questionnaire containing the Portrait Values questionnaire, a measure of personal values, and the host immigrants. Results showed that personal values are related to the adoption of acculturation orientations. In particular, the

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values that mostly impacted on acculturation orientations were self-transcendence and conservation. Values concerning self-transcendence encourage the adoption of integrationism, integration-transformation, and individualism and reduce the adoption of assimilation, segregationism and exclusion. Values concerning conservation encourage the adoption of assimilation, segregation and exclusion orientations and reduce the adoption of both types of integration and individualism. Minor effects were found regarding self-enhancement and openness to change. It is possible that such values could also impact on job involvement and turnover intention.

Giraldi and Ikeda (2008) argue that human values are desirable goals that vary in importance and serve to guide peoples' lives. The study addressed the issue of personal values' dimensions that emerge from a group of Brazilian executives and the one that is the most important. The study was a descriptive and quantitative study, employing an exploratory factor analysis of personal values. The most prominent personal values were identified in a group of Brazilian executives. The personal value dimensions found were civility, self-direction and conformity. The dimension that received the highest scores was civility, whereas the least important values were those related to conformity.

Posner (2010) re-examined the impact of personal and organisational values' congruence on positive work outcomes and investigated the extent to which this relationship is affected by demographic variables. A cross-sectional sample of 711 managers from across the United States was used. Both personal values congruence and organisational values clarity were significantly related to commitment, satisfaction, motivation, anxiety, work stress and ethics. Gender, educational level and functional area did not impact these relationships, although years of experience (expressed by age, managerial experience and hierarchical level) did make a difference. Congruence of

personal and organisational values would also be related to job involvement and/or turnover intention.

Kabanoff and Daly (2000) compared 77 Australian and 55 US organisations matched by industry in terms of their espouse values. They used computer-aided content analysis to count the value reference in their annual reports for the year 1986 – 1990. Frequencies of references to nine values were compared using multiple regression and cluster analysis, which assigned organisations to one of four theoretical specified organisational types, structure or profiles. The value profile or structures include elite, leadership meritocratic, and collegial. Meritocratic type organisations were more prevalent among US than Australian organisations, while the opposite was true for elite type organisations. The finding suggests that understanding workers personal value is probably obvious. It suggests that workers are probably attracted to organisations that offer a reasonable degree of homogeneity or fit between their personal values and that of the organisations. Consequently, such a fit may enhance prediction of job involvement and turnover intention.

Lan, Ma, Cao, and Zhang (2009), examined the personal values and value types of Chinese accounting practitioners and students. A total of 454 accounting practitioners and 126 graduate accounting students participated in the study. The result shows that health, family security, self-respect, and honouring of parents and elders are the top four values for both accounting practitioners and accounting students, although these values are not ranked in the same order. Social power, an exciting life, devout and accepting my portion in life are lowest rated four values for the accounting practitioners whereas devout, an exciting life, detachment and accepting my portion in life form the bottom four values for the accounting students. It showed that both accounting practitioners and students ranked security as the highest value type and tradition as the lowest one, and students rated self-

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direction as significantly more important than the practitioners. Such personal value as security might actually influence people's tendency to be either job involved or indicate turnover intention.

Gandal, Roccas, Sagiv and Wrzesniewski (2005) argued that values influence individuals in their perceptions, interpretations of situations, and hence direct people in their decisions, choices and behaviours. Fu, Tsui, Liu and Li (2010) examined how chief executive officers' (CEOs') transformational leadership behaviours, which motivate followers to do more than expected and act for the good of the collective, influence followers' commitment. They theorise that CEOs' values may either enhance or attenuate the effect of transformational behaviours on followers, depending on followers' reactions to the congruence or incongruence between leaders' internal values and their outward transformational behaviours. Self-enhancement values, that is, focusing on the leader's own happiness, would attenuate the effect; whereas self-transcendent values, that is, focusing on others' happiness, would accentuate the effect of CEOs' transformational behaviours on followers' commitment. Using cross-sectional and longitudinal survey as well as interview data from a sample of Chinese CEOs, top managers and middle managers, the results supported both the attenuation and accentuation effects, by extension, job involvement or turnover intention.

Transformational leadership has been defined as a set of behaviours that motivate followers to do more than they originally expected to do and to subsume their self-interests for the good of the collective (Bass and Avolio, 1995). Implicit in this definition, according to Fu et al. (2010) is that transformational leaders hold values that are oriented towards the common good. Sosik, Jung and Dinger (2009) examined values in altruistic leadership, that is, leadership driven by a sincere care and concern for followers, and found the relationship between leaders' self-transcendent values and their altruistic

behaviour to be mediated by the leader's collective self-concept. The leader's collective self-concept would possibly mediate between the self-transcendent and job involvement or turnover intention.

Schein (1992) identified the personal values of the founder or top executives as the most influential force affecting the formation of a company's value system and its culture. Ling, Zhao and Baron (2007) found founders' personal values to relate to the performance of entrepreneurial firms. A study by Chatterjee and Hambrick (2007) reported that narcissistic CEOs, who hold an extremely positive self-view and are preoccupied with having those self-views continuously reinforced, had a significant influence on their firms' strategic choices. The trait of narcissism reflects a value of self-aggrandisement more than an interest in advancing others' wellbeing. All these studies suggest that CEOs' personal values influence leadership goals, priorities, choices and behaviours.

Suar and Khuntia (2010) examined whether (a) personal and organisational values differ in private and public sectors, and (b) personal values and value congruence, that is, the extent to which matching between personal and organisational values influence unethical practices and work behaviours. Three hundred and forty respondents, all middle-level managers from four manufacturing organisations rated 22 values as guiding principles to them to identify their personal values. In order index organisational values, 56 top-level managers of the same organisations rated how important such values were to the organisations. They found that the important shared values among managers of private and public sectors were product quality and customer service. Congruence between personal and organisational values found to be higher in the private sector compared to the public sector. Middle-level managers in the private sector shared the organisational values more than the managers in the public sector. Irrespective of the type

of organisations and age of managers, personal values more potently and consistently decreased unethical practices and increased work behaviour compared to value congruence. Such difference in congruence of values among managers of private and public sectors could probably lead to differences in job involvement or turnover intention.

Maria and Zopiatis (2011) used Maccoby's instrument which measures 'head' and 'heart' values to examine qualified accountants and trainee accountants in a survey of European Union member country (Cyprus) to ascertain character ethical traits/personal values. They found out that accountants value 'head' more than 'heart' traits and there were no gender differences. For male respondents, age and years of professional experience were significant correlates of the importance attributed to head traits, while having religious beliefs was associated with heart traits more. The instrument may be used to identify employees who might be emotionally tied to their job or job involved (heart trait) and indicate turnover intention (head trait or value).

Jimenez-Lopez, Segura-Sanchez, Pedro, and Lorente-Motina (2012) explored the personal values reported by Nursing, Physiotherapy and social work students in Spain. They predicted that older Spanish generations would mainly show materialist values (also called rational-secular values) having faced difficult and demanding life conditions in a social climate of shortages, in which work, effort and security were highly value. In contrast, the younger generations were brought up in the contexts of prosperity and security; therefore would conform to a personal scale values in which post-materialist or self-expression values would prevail such as those related to personal development and autonomy, to harmony in human relationships, solidarity, tolerance, well-being and search for life's pleasures. The participants stated their values in order of priority in an open-ended questionnaire. The sample was divided into three groups: A Nursing Students' Group, made up of 150 participants; a Physiotherapy Students' Group

comprised 150 participants, and a social Work Students' Group represented by 150 participants. The results showed differences between the groups in the prioritized value categories and in each group resultant profiles. The Physiotherapy and Social Work Students' values fitted the theory of value change predictions better, consequently giving post-materialist group profiles; the nursing students did not show results in line with the predictions, displaying clearly materialist profile.

According to Tuziak, (2010), Hards (2011), and Bernat (2012), people's personal values significantly influence their attitudes towards sustainable development and its underlying aspects. Based on this theoretical perspective, Cirnu and Kuralt (2013), examined the impact of employees' personal values on their attitudes towards economic, environmental and social aspects of sustainable development. They drew their sample from some Slovenian and Romanian's organisation. The samples were made up of 115 and 86 Slovenians and Romanians respectively. The findings showed that personal values play an important role in employees' perception of different aspects of sustainability. Slovenian employees understand sustainability as an entity of three aspects: economic, environmental and societal; while Romanian sample understood sustainability as comprising primarily environmental and societal, dimensions. According to them, the findings suggest that the content of the sustainability concept in countries with different cultural background in understood differently.

2.3.2   JOB CHARACTERISTICS

In their validation study of job characteristics model, Hackman and Oldham (1976) concluded that jobs high on the core job dimensions were associated with high levels of personal and work outcomes. Also that the individuals with high growth need strength (GNS) responded most favourably to these types of jobs. Similarly, Evans,

Kiggundu and House (1979) found mild support for growth need strength as a moderator of the core job dimensions of psychological states relationship. It follows then that a well organised system will moderate between the job characteristics and job involvement or turnover intention.

Morris and Venkatesh, (2010) examined the impact of enterprise resource planning (ERP) system implementation on job satisfaction. Following a 12month study of 2,749 employees in a telecommunication firm, they found that enterprise planning system implementation moderated the relationship between job characteristics (skill variety, autonomy and feedback) and satisfaction. The findings highlight the key role that enterprise resource planning implementation can have in altering well-established relationships in the context of technology-enabled organisational change situations. It follows then that well organisational system would moderate between the job characteristics and job involvement or turnover intention.

Using a sample of 203 Spanish plants in all manufacturing sectors, Alberto and Alejandro (2010) found that integrated manufacturing (IM) has a positive effect on job variety, job autonomy and job interdependence for production workers. They also found that integrated manufacturing is associated with greater job complexity and that this effect is being mainly mediated by the three above mentioned job characteristics. Notelaers, Witte and Einarsen (2010) examined job characteristics as antecedents of workplace bullying. A large and heterogeneous sample of 6175 Belgian workers was used. The results showed that task autonomy is not significantly related to bullying. However, role conflicts and role ambiguity are the most important antecedents. Also lack of participation in decision making, lack of skill utilisation, workload, cognitive demands, changes in the job, job insecurity and lack of task related feedback are found to be directly related to workplace bullying. It follows that integrated manufacturing could have

positive effect on job involvement and turnover intention. Again, job involvement and turnover intention might be significantly related to workplace bullying.

Bayo-Moriones, Bello-Pintado and Merino-Diaz-de-Cerio (2010) used a sample of 203 workers in Spanish plant to study the effects of integrated manufacturing on job characteristics. Results show that integrated manufacturing (IM) has a positive effect on job variety, job autonomy and job interdependence for production workers. It is also found that IM is associated with greater job complexity, this effect being mainly mediated by the three above mentioned job characteristics. Casey and Robbins (2010) tested the Hackman and Oldham's (1975) job characteristic model in a bank in Managua, Nicaragua and evaluated several of the dimensions of the model. The study compared the characteristics of high internal work motivation obtained from the bank in Managua to those obtained from manufacturing, retail, service and sales sector industries to determine if there are any significant differences among these industries. The results indicated there were no relationships across the industries in skill variety and task identity, task significance and autonomy, but found a relationship between feedback and autonomy. However, it remains to be found whether such relationship could be extended to job involvement and turnover intention.

Chu and Lai (2011) examined the effect of leadership style and job characteristics on job performance and mediating effects of organisational commitment on the leadership style, the job characteristics and job performance. They used 546 participants, who are accountants of county/city government in Taiwan, questionnaires were administered on them. The results revealed among other findings, that the more job autonomy, job importance (significance), and job diversity (skill variety) happen, the stronger the ability of problem solving for the accountants. Again, the higher job autonomy for accountants

exists, the higher passion of innovation happens. Also, by extension, the higher passion for job involvement and intention to remain might be the case.

Krishnan, Omar, Ismail, Alias, Hamid, Ghani and Kanchymalay (2010) investigated the direct and indirect relationships between motivational job characteristics and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) in a non-Western context. They proposed that motivational job characteristics will influence OCB of employees through the mediating role of employee job satisfaction. Data were collected from 125 administrative support employees working in a public higher learning institution in Malaysia. Regression results indicated significant relations between three job characteristics dimensions (job autonomy, job variety, and job significance) and job satisfaction, between job satisfaction and OCB, and between job characteristics and OCB. Results also indicated a partial mediation of motivational job characteristics effects on OCB via job satisfaction. In examining the motivational job characteristics and its effects on job satisfaction, Menguc and Bhuian (2004) found that job feedback is a stronger determinant of job satisfaction of guest worker salespersons at the early career stage than at later career stages. It is expected that there will be a similar relationship between job characteristics and job involvement or turnover intention.

Schoenfisch and Lipscomb (2009) conducted a study on job characteristics and work organisation factors associated with patient-handling injury among nursing personnel. The aim of the cross-sectional study was to explore the association of worker characteristics and work organisation factors with prevalence of patient-handling injury among nursing personnel in an acute-care inpatient setting. Self-administered questionnaires (n=585) captured worker characteristics and patient-handling injuries within the previous 6months. Karasek's Job Content Questionnaire measured work organisation factors, including job strain (high psychological demand, low decision

latitude). The researchers created a novel measure (job strain PHYSICAL) reflecting high physical demand and low decision latitude, providing a more direct physiologic link to their outcome. Log-binomial regression was used to calculate prevalence ratios (PR) and 95% confidence intervals (CI). Patient-handling injuries were prevalent (35%), and incident reports were filed infrequently for injuries receiving medical care. Prevalence of injury was higher among aides compared to nurses [adjusted PR 1.4, 95%, CI (1.1-1.8)] as well as among those with high [adjusted PR 1.6, 95%, CI (1.2-2.4)] or mid [adjusted PR 1.9, 95%, CI (1.4-2.7)] levels of job dissatisfaction. The novel definition of job strain (job strain PHYSICAL: high physical demand, low decision latitude) was more strongly associated with patient-handling injury than the traditional definition of job strain (high psychological demand, low decision latitude). It follows then that the nature or type of characteristics of any job determines the extent of job involvement or turnover intention.

In a survey of 802 hospital nurses by Anderson and Williams (1996), they found that job autonomy and job interdependence stimulated help-seeking behaviour in help seekers which, in turn, evoked helping behaviour in the helpers. Su and Hsiao (2005) investigated the relationship between job characteristics and OCB and to clarify the mediating effect of job satisfaction, found that job variety and job significance had significant positive relationships with OCB and by extension with job involvement and turnover intention.

Schjoedt (2009) examined the effect of four core job characteristics on job satisfaction for entrepreneurs and a comparison group of non-founding top managers. The study was carried out using 547 respondents who were top managers (e.g., presidents, CEOs), which was verified by titles provided by the respondents. To verify the respondents' status as entrepreneurs or non-founding top manager, two items asked if the respondent was a founder or an initial partner in the start-up of the firm. Respondents who

were founders or initial partners at the start-up of the venture were considered entrepreneurs, and respondents who did not participate in the founding of the venture were considered non-founding top managers. Of the 547 respondents, 429 were considered entrepreneurs and 118 non-founding top managers. Significant mean differences were found between the entrepreneurs and non-founding top managers on job satisfaction and all four job characteristics were significant predictors of entrepreneurial job satisfaction: autonomy, variety, and feedback and perhaps job involvement and turnover intention.

Gabr and Mohammed (2012) used job characteristics model to examine nursing car delivery system in general surgical units at Mansoura University Hospital, Egypt. They used 51 nurses working in all impatient surgical departments as participants. An observation sheet, Job Diagnostic Survey, and worth of Nursing care activities. Questionnaires were employed as tools for collection of data. The findings indicated that there were no significant relationship between nurses' job characteristics, and their job satisfaction; and most nurses reported moderate or low mean score for perceiving their job characteristics and job satisfaction. Moreover, non-nursing care activities compose the greatest proportion of time spent by nurses especially in messenger activities and only 29.83% of nurses time spent on direct care activities.

A study of both direct and indirect influence of factors of job characteristics, personality characteristics, and job satisfaction with work adjustment of new graduates was carried out by Na-Nan and Pukkeere (2013). They used 310 new graduates as participants. The participants were graduates of Rajamangala University of Technology Thanyabur, Thailand. The research instrument was a questionnaire with 5-level rating scales: the results showed that the personality characteristics and job satisfaction factors

showed that the personality characteristic has indirect effect to work adjustment though job satisfaction was found significant.

Deegahalvature (2014) examined the role of job characteristics in open innovation proclivity. The investigation was based on componential theory of creativity and job characteristics model of work innovation. The study proposed positive causation from job characteristics to open innovation proclivity. The study also addressed the effect of technological turbulent environment on certain job characteristics. The participants were 363 managers. The study was on an individual level, focusing on job level factors in technologically less advanced countries by overcoming present gaps. Findings indicated that skill variety has positive effect while task identity had negative, and no effect from other characteristics. Technology turbulence was found to have negative influence on skill variety and autonomy.

Zakerian, Asghari, Rahmani, Ahmadnezhad, Kangavari, Gholizadeh and Abbassinia (2014) investigated job characteristics model level and quality of work life among workers of automobile parts manufacturing plant in Tehian city, Iran and the association between job characteristics model and quality of work life. Participants were made up of 150 workers chosen by random sampling. Data collection tools were three questionnaires for demographic, quality of work life and job characteristics model information which were filled up by the participants. Results showed that 83.3% of workers had low motivation potential score (MPS) and MPS values for remaining participants were considered moderate. Moreover, 54.6% of the people were dissatisfied with the quality of work life; 22% of the people were satisfied with the quality of work life and 23.3% were with no opinion. Again the result shoed a positive and significant relationship between job characteristics model and quality of work life (p<0.001), also skill variety and task significant had the highest effect on quality of work life. In

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conclusion, there was a positive and significant relation between job characteristics model and quality of work life and higher the potential motivation, the higher the quality of work life.

Ozbag and Ceyhum (2014) examined the relationships among job characteristics (skill variety, task significance, task identity, autonomy and feedback) job satisfaction, work family conflict (WFC) and burn out (exhaustion, personal accomplishment and cynicism). They also investigated various sets of factors including organizational characteristics, job characteristics, and individual characteristics in order to find out the root causes of job burn out. The mediating role of work family conflict and the moderate role of job satisfaction in explaining the relationship between job characteristics and burn out were also examined. The proposed hypothesis were tested by hierarchical regression analysis by means of data from 161 employees. The results indicated that work family conflict partially mediated the relationship between job characteristics and burn out. Furthermore, job satisfaction was found to moderate the relationship between job characteristics and burn out in such a way that the relationship was weaker for employees with high levels of job satisfaction.

2.3.3 PERSONAL VALUES, PERCEIVED JOB CHARACTERISTICS AND JOB INVOLEVMENT

Personal values and perceived job characteristics influencing job involvement either separately or jointly have scarcely received research effort. Moreover, a good number of empirical evidence of relationship and/or influence of certain social-psychological and/or demographic variables and job involvement. For instance, significant correlations were found between success on the job and job involvement (Argyris, 1964; McKelvey & Sekaran, 1977); participative decision-making (Argyris,

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1964); Age (Keller, 1997); and well-being. Job involvement in almost all the reported studies was either used as an independent variable or dependent variable. Unfortunately, both separate and joint influences of personal values and perceived job characteristics on job involvement remain unexplored.

Keller (1997) investigated the relationship between job involvement and job characteristics among workers in a manufacturing industry. He found that job involvement was related to job characteristics. The study also shows that workers who had a greater variety of tasks and who deal with other people at work feel more jobs involved. Furthermore, he found job involvement to be consistently related to various types of job satisfaction, particularly satisfaction with work itself (r=.52). Surprisingly, he found no relationship between job involvement and productivity. It remains to be investigated whether job involvement is also related to personal values; and whether personal values and job characteristics are jointly related to job involvement.

Orpen and Pool (1995) examined the separate and joint effects of individual career planning and organisational career management (OCM) on employee job performance and job involvement. Forty-three part-time management students engaged mainly in supervisory position completed measures of organizational career management, job performance and job involvement. Both individual and organisational efforts at improving career had significant effects on involvement and performance. Their joint effects on both outcomes were also significant with individual career planning making a net contribution beyond that of organizational career management. Results according to Orpen and Pool (1995), support individuals and organisations taking joint responsibility for employee careers. Although, the employment may hold implications for personal values and perceived job characteristics respectively.

Employee's commitment and performance in Nigerian business service organisations were investigated by Okorie (1995). He administered questionnaire to 84 junior employees of two business and two service organisations to determine whether job involvement correlated positively or negatively with performance. His findings suggest that in Nigerian organisations job involvement is non-existent. Similarly, Knoop (1995) investigated influence of participant decision-making on job satisfaction and job involvement. He used 163 school administrators as his subjects. His findings suggest that participative decision making correlated positively with job involvement, overall job satisfaction and with each of five dimensions of job satisfaction such as work, promotions, supervisor and co-workers. He concluded that making decisions jointly with employees could be expected to be increasingly related to positive job outcomes. However, the joint and separate influence of personal values and job characteristics on job involvement could equally lead to positive outcome.

Singh and Pestonjee (1995) examined the effect of job involvement and participation in on-the-job and off-the-job factors of job satisfaction in different groups. Data were collected from 145 officers and 135 clerical personnel of a large banking organization. Significant interactions between job involvement and participation were obtained. High involvement/high participation subjects were more satisfied in the on-the-job area of satisfaction than low involvement/ low participation subjects. Similar interaction between personal values jointly with job characteristics could result in high job involvement.

Chughtai (2008) examines the impact of job involvement on the self report measures of in-role-performance and organisational citizenship behaviour, data was collected from full time faculty members teaching in 53 universities operating in five cities of Pakistan. A total sample size of 208 was used. The results revealed that job

involvement was positively correlated with both in-role-job performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. It was also found that organisational commitment partially mediated the job involvement performance relationship. It is possible that similar mediation between the joint influence of personal values and job characteristics on job involvement may be obtained.

Rabinowitz and Hall (2006) in their review of literature on job involvement found that individual characteristics such as age, education, sex, tenure need strength, level of control and values were linked with job involvement. Moreover, Chughtai (2008) found that certain types of jobs or characteristics of the work situation, influence the degree to which an individual becomes involved in his/her job. For example, it was found that job involvement has been related to such job characteristics as task autonomy, task significance, task identity, skill variety and feedback and supervisory behaviours such as leader consideration participative decision making and amount of communication (Brown 2007; Chughtai, 2008). Again, Brown and Leigh (2008) in their study found that job involvement had both direct and indirect effects via effort performance. That is, they found that the modest but statistically significant relationship between job involvement and performance became non significant when effort was inserted into the model, indicating the mediating effect of effort on the relationship. It remains to be seen how job involvement is related to personal values either jointly or separately with job characteristics.

Becker, Billings, Daniel and Gilbert (1996) examined the structure of employees and 281 supervisors. They administered questionnaire to the subjects. The findings indicated that commitment by employees to supervisors was positively related to performance and was more strongly associated with performance than was commitment to organisations. Moreover, internalisation of supervisors' and organisations' values was

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associated with performance but identification with these foci was not. This holds potential appeal for the use of personal values and perceived job characteristics to predict employee job involvement/commitment.

Keller (1997) studied job involvement and organisational commitment as longitudinal predictors of job performance using 532 scientists and engineers from four industrial research and development organisations. He found that the scientist-engineer distinction had a moderating effect on the relationship between job involvement and 1-year later job performance ratings and on counts of patients and publication. He found too that scientists had stronger relationship between job involvement and each of the performance measures taken one year later than did engineers. Moreover, no moderating effect was shown for an interaction term of job involvement and organisational commitment on the performance measures. Personal values and job characteristics are in this situation used to find their influence on job involvement which to some extent implies job performance.

Kirby and Richard (2000) investigated the impact of marketing work place diversity on employee job involvement and organisational commitment. Data were collected from 269 full-time employees working for 39 organisations throughout the U.S. The role of organisational justice in diversity initiatives was explored. They examined which of the six-diversity argument were most often used by U.S firms and accepted by employees. Also, U.S workers were surveyed about diversity issues at work. The findings indicated that problem solving diversity argument was related to high employees' job involvement and organisational commitment, even though the respondents ranked the resource acquisition argument as the most acceptable. They concluded that many organisational justice issues still need to be resolved, even in those organisations with

diversity-management programmers and by extension, personal values and job characteristics.

Feather, (1995); Sagiv and Schwartz, (1995) found in their studies that in hypothetical situations people want to act according to their values. Feather (1995) found that the attractiveness of alternative courses of action was related to values and that choices among alternatives were systematically related to values and even job characteristics. This can determine their tendency to be job involved.

Verplanken and Holland (2002) and Change and Lai (2004) conducted a series of studies and found that values primed behaviour only when both were activated and central to the individual. He found that activation occurs automatically when values are the primary focus of attention or when they are enhanced by self-focus, which leads to the activation of self-relevant cognitions such as central values. It follows that such values could combine with job characteristics to influence job involvement of such workers.

Bardi and Schwartz (2003) examined values together with common behaviours that express them and found substantive correlations between some values and their corresponding behaviours. The results indicated that tradition and stimulation values have a high correlation with common behaviours that express them, while hedonism, self-direction, universalism and power values show reasonable associations with their behaviour. Security, conformity, benevolence and achievement values tend to relate only weakly to the common behaviours that express them. Bardi and Schwartz (2003) found that most behaviour can express more than one value. Puohiniemi (1995) for instance, found that very different and even conflicting values may lead to pro-environmental actions. He concluded that some people behave in a pro-environmental way because they value universalism; others may behave thus because they have adopted a modest way of living and value tradition or because they have a keen interest in new technology with

environmentally friendly gadgets and value stimulation. It remains to investigate whether such values jointly or separately with job characteristics could influence job involvement.

The observation that values operate through evoking emotions was investigated by Waterman, Schwartz, Goldbacher, Green, Miller and Philip (2003). They found that self-realisation values contribute to the experience of flow and that values have a connection as to how people experience situations. The view that people taking up different occupations and careers may have different value systems guiding their choices has been investigated. For instance, Feather (1982) found that medical students cited benevolent and achievement related reasons for their decisions to undergo medical training, and the reasons given were consistent with their value priorities. However, it may be relevant to investigate the joint and separate influence of such values and job characteristics in non-medical setting.

The belief that values affect the outcomes of organisation was examined by Weeks and Kahle (1990). They found that sales-people who most valued excitement more were more likely to spend time in entrepreneurial selling than those who valued excitement less. They also found that for both sales-people and their managers, placing a high value on the sense of accomplishment related to an increased likelihood of pursuing entrepreneurial selling; and that the values of the sales manager directly influenced how the sales-persons shared their time between entrepreneurial selling and other, less challenging tasks. The claim that the area of business reflects interest in values was empirically studied. The result showed that people who were concerned with their own personal gain, valuing power and hedonism were more likely to make unethical decisions (Feather, 1995; Mumford, Helton, Decker, Connelly and Van Doom, 2003). Moreover, Mumford et al (2003) found that the value people placed on friends and companionships was positively related to the tendency to make ethical decisions in managerial roles.

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Finegan (1994) found that personal values affect people's perceptions of the morality of particular behaviours in organisations and by extension job involvement and joint influence of personal values and job characteristics on job involvement.

Nauta, De Dreu and Van der Vaart (2002) studied 120 manufacturing, planning and sales employees in eleven organisations and found that the pro-social values increased the likelihood that individuals in organisations were concerned about the goals of other departments; this in turn was reflected in co-operational negotiation. According to Motowidlo and Packard (1986), and Bilsky (2008) pro-social behaviours consist of social acts carried out to produce and maintain the well-being and integrity of others. These activities typically include helping, caring, donating, cooperating and volunteering. McNeely and Meglino (1994) found that the value of concerns for others was positively correlated with pro-social behaviour intended to benefit individuals, but not with role-described behaviour and pro-social organisational behaviour. Similar findings have also emerged in laboratory studies. Schwartz (1996) paired participants in a game that included a money allocation task. Sharing a resource (money) with an unidentified partner correlated positively with self-enhancement values, and perhaps with some dimensions of job characteristics to influence job involvement.

The argument that many organisations seek to establish and maintain good cooperation among members was examined by Schwartz (2005). He found that to elicit a high level of cooperation required both high priority for values that promote cooperation (benevolence) and low priority for values that oppose it (power). The findings of the investigation showed that value orientation causes perceptual sensitisation to valued stimuli and leads to perceptual defense against unvalued stimuli. In an empirical study conducted by Senger (1971), he found that when managers rank their subordinates in competence, those rated highest tended to have personal value orientations similar to their

managers. He also found that the pattern was particularly marked in situations in which the manager had general management responsibility. He concluded that when the result is extended to other areas of decision-making, indicating that where data upon which to base a decision are missing or imprecise, a manager may more frequently tend to make choices based on his or her personal values and this ultimately may lead to job involvement jointly with job characteristics.

Aavik and Allik (2002) investigated value-describing words and interrelation of categories in the Estonian languages. They gathered data from 294 Estonians (121 males and 173 females). They adopted a psychological approach in which a set of 560 value-related words was selected from the Estonian Orthological Dictionary and the results were compared with the Schwartz value survey (SVS). They found that the constructs measured by SVS and the categories in the Estonian were only partially interchangeable.

Abbott, White & Charles (2005) carried out two studies aimed at confirming and classifying the relationships between values and components of organisational commitment (OC) in two organizations. The first study extended the work of Finegan (2000) by investigating antecedents of OC in terms of personal and perceived organisational values while controlling for the effect of tenure. The second study involved a field experiment to investigate the consequences of OC in terms of turnover intention, how such intention varies as a function of the values of the alternative employer, and how it is related to the different components of OC. The results of the first study provide support for the argument that perceived organisational values are drives of values based OC, but unlike the related components of affective and normative OC, continuance OC may not be values-based. The second study results indicated that turnover intention was higher in a company supporting vision values, and that affective OC acted as a buffer against interest in alternative employment. Together these findings suggest that

companies adopting psychological values, such as vision, self-direction, and humanity may enhance effective and normative OC, and thus performance and even job involvement jointly or separately with job characteristics.

Bruno and Lay (2008) examined the relationship between personal values, and leadership effectiveness among 400 Brazilian executives. The results showed that the executives among others have an unbalance in their personal values profile, with predominance of economic and theoretical values and high positive relationship between personal values balance and leadership effectiveness. The relationship is likely to hold personal values, job characteristics and job involvement.

Welkenhuysen–Gybels (2004); De Beukelaer (2005); Saris and Gallhoner (2007) and Davidov, (2008), found in their studies of personal values of 300 factory workers and 400 public employees, concluded that factory workers were susceptible to the operations of stimulation, self-direction achievement, security and conformity values. On the other hand, the public sector employees were influenced more by tradition, hedonism, power and benevolence values, while the rest of personal values operate equally on both factor and public sectors employees. This difference could manifest in the extent of their job involvement jointly or separately with job characteristics.

Aavik, Aavik and Korgesaar (2006) examined relationship between personal values, parenting practices and adolescents institutionalisation. They investigated differences between two groups of parents: 235 parents of adolescents attending regular schools and 92 parents of adolescents attending reformatory schools. The results show that benevolence was positively associated with parenting practices. Parents of institutionalised adolescents rated benevolence and conservatism higher and broadmindedness lower than parents of non-institutionalised adolescents. They found further that differences in parenting practices also emerged in connection with social

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norms, setting limits, and physical safety. Moreover, they also established the effect of parents' socio-economic status on adolescents' institutionalization (Bilsky, 2008). Rohan and Zanna (2008) have found similarities between the value profiles of parents and of their adult offspring. The results showed the right-wing authoritarian attitudes of parents most strongly influenced the transfer of values from parents to children. Right –wing authoritarianism was also positively correlated with such values as conformity, tradition, safety, power and benevolence. Such correlation could be extended to the possibility of job involvement perhaps in the presence of job characteristics.

Value as a source of motivation was examined by (Feather, 1995; Schwartz, 2005; 2006; Caprara, Schwartz, Cabana, Vaccine and Barbaranelli, 2008). They found that people's values, like their needs, induce valences on possible actions. That is, actions become more attractive, more valued subjectively, to the extent that they promote attainment of valued goals. Moreover, that people who valued stimulation are attracted to a challenging job offer, whereas those who value security find the same offer threatening and unattractive. Researchers studying the potential link between individuals' personal values and ethical choices have found mixed results. Nonis and Swift (2007) found that students with a non-driven value profile were statistically more likely to make unethical choices than either internally driven or externally driven students. Donoho, Herche and Swenson (2008) reported a link between values and ethical decisions. They found that students who valued achievement more did not view the presented unethical sales' behaviours as disfavourably as students who rated high on relationship values. This situation might apply to the issue of job involvement based on ethical or unethical choices.

Baird, Zelin, and Brennan (2008) examined the relationship of gender and choice of academic major to personal values and to ethical choices, and the relationship of

personal values to ethical choices. The results indicate that both the tax compliance score and tax payment choice differed by gender and academic major. Furthermore, gender differences were found on five (power, self-direction, universalism, benevolence, and conformity) of the ten personal value constructs and academic major differences were found on four (power, stimulation, self-direction and tradition) of the ten personal value constructs. With regard to the relationship of personal values to ethical choices, it was found that three (tradition, conformity, and universalism) of the personal values constructs were correlated with compliance score and the tax payment decision. The correlation might be the same with job involvement.

Chiu and Chen (2005) examined relationship between job characteristics and organisational citizenship behaviour using job satisfaction as a mediator. Two hundred and seventy employees from 24 electronic companies participated in the study. The results showed job variety and job significance had a significant positive relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), whereas job identity, job autonomy, job feedback and job interdependence were not significantly related to OCB. Furthermore, job satisfaction, especially intrinsic satisfaction, was a mediating mechanism of the relationship between job variety, job significance and OCB. However, extrinsic satisfaction did not mediate the relationship between job characteristics and OCB. They concluded that practicing managers should enrich job characteristics and place greater emphasis on enhancing employees' intrinsic satisfaction to promote employees' OCB and to some extent job involvement.

Demerouti (2006) examined whether job characteristics identified by Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980) as having motivating potential are related to work flow. He found that motivating job characteristics where predicative of work flow. Cappelli and Rogovsky (2008) found that job autonomy, job variety and job significance had a

significant positive relationship with job involvement or OCB and that job identity and job feedback had no relationship with job involvement or OCB. Again many studies have demonstrated that job characteristics is an important predictor of job involvement (Organ, 2006; Organ and Ryan, 2008).

Mohr and Zoghi (2008) investigated the relationship between job satisfaction and high-involvement work practices such as quality circles, feedback, suggestion programmes, and task teams. They employed data from 1999 – 2002 Canadian Workplace and Employee Survey. They found that satisfaction was positively associated with high-involvement practices. Conversely, worker outcomes that might signal dissatisfaction, like work-related stress or grievance feeling, appear to have been unrelated to high-involvement jobs.

Biswas (2011) examined psychological climate as an antecedent of job satisfaction and job involvement using 357 participants. One hundred and eighty (180) belonged to manufacturing sector companies while 177 belonged to service sector organisations. Biswas (2009) investigated affective commitment as a mediator between psychological climate and job involvement. The respondents were executives/managerial-cadre employees from different organisations. They were 357 participants and data was obtained through a questionnaire survey. The results established the relationship between psychological climates as antecedent of job involvement mediated by affective commitment.

Chauhan (2009) examined the level of job involvement and extent of burn out among managers. He used a random sample of 200 managers belonging to the government, public and private sectors. The results revealed that the managers scored high on job involvement, low on de-personalisation and emotional exhaustion and moderate on accomplishment. It was also found that job involvement had a negative

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correlation with de-personalization and emotional exhaustion and positive correlation with personal accomplishment. The correlation results indicate that burn out can be minimised/avoided if individuals develop a high level of involvement in their jobs and they are able to identify themselves psychologically with their jobs.

Chen and Chiu (2009) investigated the mediating process of job involvement in the relationship between job characteristics and organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB). They collected data from 323 employees and their supervisors from seven (7) companies in Taiwan. Results show that through the mediating process of job involvement, the three job characteristics (that is, task identity, task significance and autonomy) positively influence the display of an employee's OCB, whereas skill variety had a negative influence on OCB. Researchers have shown that when employees regard their jobs as having stimulating and high motivating characteristics (e.g. skill variety, task significance, task identity, autonomy and feedback), those employees have greater job involvement. Brown (1996) in a meta-analysis study, showed that four of the five job characteristics (excluding autonomy) all had positive relationships with job involvement and concluded that enriched jobs stimulate job involvement. A number of empirical studies support the positive association between the job characteristics model (JCM) and job involvement (Lambert, 1991; Steel and Rentsch, 1997).

Wegge, Schmidt, Parkes and van Dick (2007) examined job satisfaction and job involvement as interactive predictors of absenteeism in a public organization. They used a sample of 436 employees working in a large civil service organisation, and two indexes of absence data (frequency and time lost) were drawn from personnel records covering a 12 month period following the survey. It was predicted that job affects absenteeism more if job satisfaction is low as this indicates a situation with weak constraints. The results

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show that the hypothesised interaction was significant for both job satisfaction and job involvement as indicators of absence behaviour.

Sonnentag and Kruel (2006) examined job stressor, job involvement, and recovery-related self-efficacy as predictors of psychological detachment in a sample of 148 school teachers. Psychological detachment was assessed by self-reports and by ratings provided by family members. Multiple regression analysis showed that workload, job involvement and recovery related self-efficacy were significant predictors of both self-rated and family-rated psychological detachment. Job involvement has been found to be positively related to effort, various facets of job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and low turnover intention (Brown, 1996). Janssen (2003) argues that workers with greater job involvement have psychologically more at stake.

Chiu and Tsai (2006) examined the relationships among burn out, job involvement and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). Data were collected from 296 paired samples of service employees and their supervisors from 12 hotels and restaurants in Taiwan. Findings showed that job involvement mediated the relationships among emotional exhaustion, diminished personal accomplishment and OCB. However, the outstanding problem of these studies was failure to use personal values and job characteristics together as independent variables to measure the joint and independent influence on job involvement after their manipulation.

However, job involvement has been investigated with other variables in recent times rather than personal values and job characteristics as follows: Omoniyi and Adedapo (2012) investigated the relationship among job involvement; organisational resources centre personnel in Oyo State, Nigeria. They used a purposive sample of 78 participants, drawn from the 36 local area of the state. The participants comprised 25 males and 53 females. They developed questionnaire which was employed as a tool for

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collecting data. The results indicated that job involvement and age corrected significantly with job performance (r = .106; r = .147).

Mohammed, Mostafa and Hamid (2013) investigated the relationship between job involvements, organisational commitment, among lower-level employees in Iranian automaker industry. They were 100 participants who were randomly chosen through a questionnaire which consist of four parts. The study gathered biographical and occupational data using a self designed 40-item questionnaire. The survey measures job involvement using Kanungo's 10-item 5-point rating scale and organisational commitment is measured based on Monday's 15-item 5 points scale. Different statistical techniques were used including Pearson product moment correlation techniques and Multiple Regression Analysis. The result showed that job involvement was strongly associated with organisational commitment.

Permarupan, Al-Mamun and Saufi (2013) examined the relationship between the quality of work of life (QWL), employees' job involvement and effective commitment among the employees of the public and private sector organisations in Malaysia. A total of 334 middle management level employees were selected to participate in the study. QWL was measured with five dimensions which were: fair and appropriate salary, working conditions, capacities at work, opportunities at work and organisation climate. The intervening and dependent variable were job involvement and affective commitment respectively. The result indicated that working conditions, opportunities at work and organisation climate had a relatively his/her impact on job involvement and effective commitment.

Tiwari and Singh (2014) investigated the impact that job satisfaction (JS) has on the organisational commitment (OC) level of industrial workers and also find out whether job involvement (JI) moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational

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commitment. Six hundred employees chosen from different departments of Dessel Locomotive works (DLW) served as participants. Dessel locomotive work was one of the public sector giants of India. The results of the study showed that organisational commitment was positively related to job satisfaction. Also, it did moderate the relationship between job satisfaction organisational commitments but in a negative way, and the impact had been found to be weak.

2.3.4 PERSONAL VALUES, PERCEIVED JOB CHARACTERISTICS AND TURNOVER INTENTION

The relationship between job performance and voluntary employees turnover was investigated by Trevor, Gerhart, and Boudreau (1997). They used 5,143 exempt employees in a single firm. They found that low salary growth and high promotions each produce a more pronounced curvilinear performance turnover relationship. Most notable, salary growth effects on turnover were greatest for high performers, with high salary growth predicting rather low turnover for these employees, whereas low salary growth predicted extremely high turnover. They also found that once salary growth was controlled, promotion positively predicted turnover, with poor performance turnover most strongly affected. Salary growth and promotion as a matter of fact, may have implications for certain variables of personal values and perceived job characteristics.

Chen, Hui and Sego (1998) used levels of organisational citizenship behaviour performance as a behavioural predictor of employee's turnover and empirically examined the strength of this relationship. Data were collected from 205 supervisors-subordinates dyads across 11 companies in the People's Republic of China. The result provided considerable support for the hypothesis that supervisor rated organisational citizenship behaviour as a predictor of subordinates' actual turnover. In particular, subordinates who

were rated as exhibiting low level of organisational citizenship behaviour were found to be more likely to leave an organisation than those who were rated as exhibiting high levels of organisational citizenship behaviours. They also found that the self report turnover intentions were a predictor of turnover, but the relationship did hold for two companies. Organisational citizenship behaviour probably has implications for a fit among employees' personal values, perceived job characteristics and identification with organisational goals. Granting this, personal values and perceived job characteristics could be used as a logical substitute for organisational citizenship behaviour in predicting turnover intention.

Yperen, Hagedoorn and Geurts (1996) investigated the role of psychological and social constraints in predicting intent to leave and absenteeism as reactions to perceived inequity. Respondents were 378 blue-collar workers from two virtually identical Dutch metal manufacturing plants. The result of the study showed that:

1) The perception of inequity is related to turnover intention.

2) Deprived employees were less likely to leave the organisation when they felt involved in their jobs.

3) Deprived employees who perceived an intolerant group absence norm were less apt to report sick.

The role of psychological and social constraints may be construed as variables of personal values and to some extent that of perceived job characteristics.

Similarly, George and Jones (1996) examined the impact of interactive effects of values attainment job satisfaction and positive mood on the experience of work and turnover intention. They proposed that the phenomenological experience of work is multifaceted and that simultaneously considering the combined effects of the different aspect of the work experience holds considerable promise for increasing understanding of

turnover intention and other organisational relevant outcomes. They found that the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention is jointly moderated by value attainment and positive mood; also that the nature of the triple interaction was such that the job satisfaction-turnover intention relationship was strongest when worker's job did not help them to attain terminal values and positive mood were experienced. Moreover, the relationship was weakest when jobs help workers to attain terminal values and positive mood were experienced. The common feature among studies of turnover intention is the tendency to approach it from the perspective of turnover and absenteeism. Variables studied were not based on personal values and perceived job characteristics but hold substantial implications for them. Elsewhere, Somers (1996) used survival analysis techniques as a model of turnover to assess employees' withdrawal behaviour. Data were collected from 244 staff nurses. Results of the study suggest that job search behaviour consequent upon turnover intention has strong influence on employee turnover.

Okhakhume, Okurame and Logo (2000) examine the influence of job involvement and organisational commitment on employees' turnover intention among some commercial bank workers in Lagos. They used a sample size of 199, drawn from four commercial banks in Lagos. Results showed that organisational commitment has no influence on turnover intention but job involvement has influence on turnover intension. That is, high job involvement reduces turnover intention. Organisational commitment and job involvement have no combined or joint influence on turnover intention. The influence of personal values and job characteristics on turnover intention was not considered.

Schalk and Van Rijckevorsel (2007) examine factors influencing absenteeism and intention to leave or withdraw in a call centre in Netherlands. Results showed that frequency of absenteeism and intention to leave were found to be mainly influenced by

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contract characteristics (focus, stability, full time/part-time, permanent/temporary) and workplace attitudes, while job characteristics (autonomy, skill variety, identity and feedback) and personal characteristics (age, gender, education, and job tenure) were less important. Vandenberghe and Tremblay (2008) examine the role of pay satisfaction and organisational commitment in turnover intention using 453 respondents. Results showed that the effect of pay satisfaction on intended turnover is fully mediated by affective commitment and perceived sacrifice commitment. Absence of right personal values and job characteristics can influence absenteeism and turnover intention as well.

Scott, Gravell, Simoens, Bojk and Sibbald (2006) used data from a survey of general practitioners in UK to estimate a structural model of job satisfaction and quitting intention. This was used to clarify the relationships between intention to quit, overall job satisfaction, domains of job satisfaction and personal and job characteristics. Results showed that job satisfaction domains have a direct effect on intention to quit, in addition to their effect via overall job satisfaction. Personal values and job characteristics domain could have direct effect on turnover intention.

Grunberg, Moore and Greenberg (2006) investigated several outcome differences among 410 managers who either had or had not implemented lay-offs during one or more years between 2000 and 2003. Using survey data, their findings showed that issuing warning notices significantly predicts increase self-report health problems, seeking treatment for those health problems, sleeping problems, feelings depersonalisation, and intent to quit. Plan to lay-off workers could similarly humiliate their personal values and misperception of the characteristics of their job and thus could influence their turnover intention.

Böckkerman and Ilmakunnas (2009) examined the role of adverse conditions in the determination of employees' quit behaviour. They obtained data on perceived job

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disamenities, job satisfaction and quit intention from a cross-section survey. Information on employees' actual job switches from longitudinal register data was added to the survey. Results show that job dissatisfaction that arises in adverse working conditions is related to job search and this in turn is related to actual job switches or intention to quit/withdraw. Such adverse working conditions could include failure to take cognizance of their personal values and characteristics of their jobs which ultimately lead to their turnover intention.

Scott and Barnes (2011) examined within-individual relationships among emotional labour, negative and positive affective states, and work withdrawal, as well as the moderating role of gender. Fifty-eight bus drivers completed two daily surveys over a two-week period, producing 415 matched surveys. Results of hierarchical linear models revealed that affective states worsened when employees engaged in surface acting but improved when they engaged in deep acting. Surface acting was positively associated with work withdrawal, and state-negative-affect mediated this relationship. The implication could be that the surface acting, neglects their personal values and the way they perceive the characteristics of their job, hence positive association with work withdrawal or turnover intention.

Howard and Cordes (2010) examined emotional mechanisms by which perceived injustice is translated into forms of employee withdrawal. Survey data were provided by 437randomly selected wormers from various occupations and industries. Results show that distributive and procedural justice contributes both directly and indirectly through emotional pathways to influence employee absenteeism, turnover intention, work alienation, and self-medication with alcohol. Such injustice on personal values of the workers and job characteristics could equally lead to turnover intention.

Elovainio, Kivimaki, Vahtera, Vitanen and Keltikangas-Jarvinen (2003) found that perceived unfairness is translated into employee responses, including withdrawal through some form of emotional mediation. Similarly, De Boer, Bakker, Syroit and Schaufeli (2002) found that unfairness in the workplace contribute to employee withdrawal, such as absenteeism, turnover intention, worm alienation, and alcohol self-medication through emotions that operate both mechanisms of inability to work and unwillingness to work. Researchers have reported evidence for relationships between emotional exhaustion and both absenteeism and turnover intent (Cropanzano, Rupp and Byrne, 2003; Lee and Ashforth, 1996). Unfairness to the personal values and characteristics of the workers could lead to similar results.

Way, Lepak, Fay and Thacker (2010) examined the influence of employment stability labour strategy (ESCLS), labour cost contingent strategy (LCCLS) and high investment human resource systems (HIHRS) on standard employee withdrawal behaviours at the firm level. They used a sample of 90 firms that employ a mixed workforce (that is, contingent workers and standard employees). Results support the hypothesized direct positive effect of LCCLS on standard employee withdrawal behaviours. Moreover, hypothesized moderating effects of HIHRS on the negative relationship between ESCLS and standard employee withdrawal behaviours and the positive relationship between LCCLS and standard employee withdrawal behaviours were supported. When substituted with personal values and job characteristics, similar results might be obtained.

Cole, Bernerth, Walter and Holt (2010) examined the relationship between organisational justice and withdrawal outcomes and whether emotional exhaustion was a mediator of these linkages. Data were obtained from 869 military personnel and civil servants. Results showed that distributive and interpersonal justice negatively related to

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emotional exhaustion and negatively related to organisational commitment which in turn, negatively influenced turnover intention. From organization's perspective, two of the more costly withdrawal-related outcomes include lower commitment, defined by Cole and Branch (2006) as individuals' emotional attachment to and involvement in an employing organisation and increased turnover intention (Podsakoff, LePine and LePine, 2007). Research evidence supports the contention that emotional exhaustion will be related to both of these withdrawal outcomes. For example, meta-analytic evidence has shown that emotionally exhausted individuals report lower organisational commitment and higher turnover intention. However, the variables need to be studied at the dimension of personal values and job characteristics.

Pajo, Coetzer and Guenole (2010), in their study explored direct and indirect relationships between involvement in formal training and development events, employee attitudes and withdrawal responses including turnover intention and neglectful behaviour for those employed in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). Questionnaire data were obtained from 185 staff employed in a diverse range of small and medium-sized enterprises. Results suggest that employees that participate in more training and development events are less likely to be considering leaving their employer and less likely to engage in neglectful behaviour. The implication is that personal values and the characteristics of the job would make the employees less likely to withdraw from their job.

Schmidt and Lee (2008) examined the relationships of voluntary retirement and organisational turnover intention to various constructs in work and non-work settings. A sample of 345 employees near retirement age (mean age = 53.71) were used in the study. The results demonstrated that work centrality and commitment to leisure activities were unique predictors of retirement intention, while affective organisational commitment

predicted turnover intention but not retirement. Occupational commitment was a significant predictor of both retirement and turnover. Personal values and characteristics of their job could equally be significant predictors of their turnover intention.

Mulki, Jaramillo and Locander (2006) investigated the integrated effect climate and supervisory trust on sales-persons' job attitude and intention to quit. Responses from 344 sales-people who work for a global pharmaceutical company were to examine the relationships among ethical climate, trust in supervisor, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intention. Results indicate that ethical climate is a significant predictor of trust in supervisor, job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Also, results show that trust in supervisor is an antecedent of job satisfaction and turnover intention. It is possible also that trust in supervisor could be dependent upon the workers' personal values and their job characteristics and therefore an antecedent of their turnover intention.

Turnover intention has been studied separately as shown in the following studies: Mbah and Ikemefuna (2012) job satisfaction and employees turnover intention in total Nigeria Plc in Lagos State. The study considered satisfaction with pay; nature of work and supervision as the facets of job satisfaction that affect employee turnover intention. Three hundred participants were chosen. Questionnaire, interview and review of archival document were employed as tools for data collection. Results indicated that job satisfaction reduced employees turnover intention and that Total Nigeria Plc adopted standard pay structure, conducive nature of work and efficient supervision not only as strategies to reduce employees turnover but also as the company retention strategy.

Cho and Son (2012) examined the effects of job embeddedness and work satisfaction on turnover intentions in small and medium construction IT works. To the end a field survey was performed and 177 survey questionnaires were colleted. Results

showed that three hypotheses were supported: the more sacrifice, the higher career satisfaction and the higher job satisfaction the employees have, the less turnover intention they have. The other two hypotheses were rejected: the higher fit and the higher links the employees have, the less turnover intention they have.

Leip and Stinchcomb (2013) analyzed data from a national survey of 1,924 line-level jail staff of the impact of both worker-related variables and personal characteristics on the intension of employees to resign. The participants were drawn from 46 states. Descriptive results indicate that the majority of jail officers were satisfied with their jobs and had not intention of quitting. Further logistic regression modeling confirmed related literature indicating that the most influential variables were dynamic factors such as job satisfaction and work environment, rather than the static variables associated with individuals employee characteristics, such as gender, age, or race.

Oluwafemi (2013) examined the predictive roles of contextual variable (distributive, procedural and interactional justice) and dispositional variables (conscientiousness, agreeableness and emotional stability) on turnover intention among employees in Nigeria's oil industry. Using cross-sectional survey design and multistage sampling techniques (R=750) employees comprising 534 males and 216 females participated in the study. Twelve out of thirty-two companies were chosen by random sample method. Results showed significant negative relationship between contextual variable and turnover intention, and between dispositional variables and turnover intention respectively. Controlling for age and tenure, contextual variables accounted for higher variance in turnover intention and dispositional variables.

Lehong and Hongguange (2014) examined turnover intention and counter measure of key employees in Xuzhou coal (LISREL) was used for the variable path analysis and a job satisfaction research had been done to reveal which variable was

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affected by the key employee turnover intention significantly. The participants were 1,830 drawn from coal mining groups. Statistics showed that the factors of conversion cost, job satisfaction, compensation, opportunity dull work, the colleagues degree of support, friends degree of support has a significant influence on turnover intention of key employees. The staffs were dissatisfied with salary, welfare, promotion and communication in enterprise. The employee who work in administration department with high educational background and has at most 5-year work experience and lower in administration level, earned not more than 2,000 yuan income, had a stronger turnover intention. It also found that the enterprise made a relevant management measures and achieve good effectiveness on preventing the key employees from turnovering.

2.4   HYPOTHESES

1.   Personal values and perceived job characteristics would independently and jointly predict job involvement of workers.

2.   Personal values and perceived job characteristics would independently and jointly predict turnover intention of workers.

3.   Workers in the self-employed sector would be significantly more job involved than workers in public sector or organized private sector.

4.   Workers in the public sector would significantly indicate more turnover intention than workers in the organised private sector or self-employed sector.

5.   Self-employed sector workers would be significantly higher on the various dimensions of personal values more than workers in organised private sector or public sector.

6. Self-employed sector workers would be significantly higher on the various dimensions of perceived job characteristics more than workers in the organised private-sector or public sector.

2.5   OPERATIONAL DEFINITION OF TERMS

The independent variables are personal values and perceived job characteristics.

Personal values: In the present context, personal values are those things one strives to attain from his/her job. Personal values as defined by Schwartz (1992) and used in this study:

1. Power: Need to have control over others and situations

2. Achievement: Need to be the most successful person in the community or occupation or among the peers in the organisation

3. Hedonism: Interest in having and enjoying good life above other things in the organisation

4. Stimulation: Very strong interest in taking risks or venturing into uncertainty or into the unknown for the sake of the organisation

5. Self-direction: Dislike to be directed and like independent thought or decision without interference by the employer or colleagues

6. Universalism: Caring for other people or selfless service and tolerance of others in the organisation

7. Benevolence: Exhibit love and protection for any member of the organisation, not minding differences in background

8. Tradition: Acceptance and commitment to cultural norms or values of the organisation

9. Conformity: To stand by and accept whatever the group or organisation decides on any issue

10. Security: Need for protection and stability in one's job/organisation and in relationship with others/colleagues

Job Characteristics

This is the attribute associated with a job. As defined by Hackman and Oldham (1975) and used in the study.

1. Skill variety: Job that requires possession of a good number of different skills in order to perform efficiently in the organisation or personal business.

2. Task identity: This is the ability of a job to produce significant result or impact on the customers or business associates of the organisation.

3. Task significance: The ability of a job to exert positive influence beyond the members of the organisation/colleagues

4. Autonomy: Ability of a job to provide opportunity for the incumbent to exercise discretion or initiative in dealing with his job, the organisation and customers.

5. Feedback from the job: Ability of the job to make it possible for the incumbent to obtain results of his/her performance in order to improve or modify his attitudes towards his/her job.

6. Feedback from agents: This involves getting clear information about one's performance from supervisors/co-workers in order to assess his worth to the organisation or colleagues.

7. Dealing with others: Ability to work closely or in a team with co-workers in order to assess their human relationship with others in the organisation/colleagues and even customers

The two dependent variables, job involvement and intention to withdraw, are operationalised thus:

1.   Job involvement: This refers to the extent an employee is committed to his/her job in the organisation.

2.   Turnover intention: This refers to readiness to change job at the slightest opportunity and is characterised by absenteeism or lateness to work.

3.   A worker: This stands for a person who is employed in the public sector, organised private sector or self-employed sector, all aimed at getting one's livelihood.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHOD

3.1   RESEARCH DESIGN

A cross-sectional survey design was used for the study. The design was adopted to investigate the influence of personal values and perceived job characteristics on job involvement and turnover intention of workers, across the public, organised private and self-employed sectors. The independent variables in the design are personal values and job characteristics. The dependent variables are job involvement and turnover intention.

3.2   STUDY SETTING

The study was carried out in Anambra State, located in the Eastern part of Nigeria. Generally, all the workers in Anambra State distributed among the public, organised private and self-employed sectors were considered. In the public sector, four (4) out of the eight (8) ministries in Anambra State government were randomly selected. The eight (8) Ministries were: Ministry of Health, Ministry of education, Ministry of Information, Ministry of Local Government Affairs, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Land and Survey, and Ministry of Trade and Industries. The four ministries randomly selected were: Ministry of Health, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Agriculture. While in the organised private sector fourteen (14) out of the twenty-two (22) firms in Anambra State were randomly selected. The criterion of not having less than fifty (50) employees was used in qualifying the firms for selection. In the self-employed sector, purposive sampling was used to select Awka which is the state capital, Nnewi and Onitsha as the only sufficiently urbanised areas to obtain the appropriate sample for the study. This sector was under the control of the following legitimate market associations: Awka Market Amalgamated Traders Association

(AMATA), Nnewi Market Amalgamated Traders Association (NMATA), and Onitsha Market Amalgamated Traders Association (OMATA).

3.3   PARTICIPANTS

A total of five hundred and four (504) workers drawn equally and randomly from the public, organised private and self-employed sectors participated in the study. That is, one hundred and sixty eight (168) or (33.33%) participants were drawn randomly from the three sectors: public sector, organised private sector and self-employed sector. The participants were made up of three hundred and fifty-nine (359) or (71.43%) males and one hundred and forty five (145) or (28.57%) females. The mean age of the participants as a whole was 37.26years, while that of the males and the females were 36.17years and 34.86years respectively. Similarly, the standard deviation of the whole participants was 8.43; that of male and female participants were 6.44 and 6.62 respectively. The participants' age ranged from twenty six years (26years) to fifty years (50years). The minimum educational qualification of participants in the public and organised private sectors was first degree or Higher National Diploma (HND). A minimum of GCE ordinary level, NECO or WASSC qualification were used as baseline for self-employed sector participants. The public sector participants belonged to the salary grade levels of between GL. 08 and GL. 12 and their equivalent salary grade levels on the organised private sector. Participants from the self-employed sector had capital outlay of at least five hundred thousand naira (N500, 000). The sample comprises businessmen and women with no apprentice or servant serving them in their business.

3.4   INSTRUMENTS

The instruments used to gather data for this study were in the questionnaire form. The instruments are made up of Personal Values Scale (Section A), Job Characteristics

Scale (Section B), Job Involvement Scale (Section C), and Turnover Intention Scale (Section D).

3.4.1   PERSONAL VALUES SCALE (Section A)

This is made up of ten (10) different basic personal values sub-scales proposed and validated by Schwartz (1992), Smith and Schwartz (1997), Schwartz, Melech, Burgess, Harris, and Owens (2001). Schwartz et al (2001) carried out a cross-cultural analysis of more than two hundred thousand (200,000) samples drawn from over sixty (60) nations representing every part of the world including Africa. Their findings support the inclusiveness of the ten (10) basic personal values and the circular structure of relations among them. Schwartz et al (2001) Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ) scale for measuring the ten (10) basic personal values was adopted for the study. The scale comprises 40 items distributed among the sub-scales as follows: (See Appendix I)

Power: three items (3); Achievement: four items (4); Hedonism: three items (3); Stimulation: three items (3); Self-direction: four items (4); Universalism: six items (6); Benevolence: four items (4); Tradition: four items (4); Conformity: four items (4); Security: five items (5)

The items have six (6) response categories and scale weight as follows: Very much like me: (6); Like me: (5); Somewhat like me: (4); A little like me: (3); Not like me: (2); Not like me at all: (1). The scoring is done by awarding the highest score to the first category of the responses and the scores continue to decline as the serial number of the scale responses appreciate or rise. That is, highest score is awarded to very much like me and the rest follow in declining order of the scores.

The construct validity of the ten (10) basic personal values was investigated cross-culturally by Schwartz et al (2001) with the Portrait Values Questionnaire (PVQ). They

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used representative samples in South Africa (N=3,210), Italy (N=5,867), Uganda (N=840) and Israel (N=200). The following construct validities were obtained for the ten (10) basic personal values sub-scales. Power = .50, Achievement =.52; Hedonism =.79; Stimulation =.76; Self-direction=.53; Universalism=.77; Benevolence=.61; Tradition =.37; Conformity=.48; Security=.64. This was adopted for this study.

The result of the pilot study for reliability on the respective dimensions of personal values showed the coefficient alpha and test-retest coefficients respectively of the sub-scales as follows: power value: 0.78 and 0.66; achievement: 0.73 and 0.92; hedonism value: 0.66 and 0.91; stimulation value: 0.65 and 0.73; self-direction value: 0.71 and 0.77; universalism value: 0.61 and 0.89; benevolence value: 0.56 and 0.88; tradition value: 0.76 and 0.62; conformity value: 0.64 and 0.74; security value: 0.72 and 0.87.

3.4.2 JOB CHARACTERISTICS SCALE (Section B)

Job characteristics scale was developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975). However, the Nigeria environment version developed by Peraform Psychometrics Centre (1997) was adopted for this study. The Centre or Agency (2001) restandardised the scale in order to enhance its suitability and relevance to Nigeria. The scale is a 21-item inventory that assesses workers' perceptions of seven principal job characteristics. The items are rated on a 7 – point scale, thus; (see Appendix II)

Very inaccurate = 1; Most inaccurate = 2; Slightly inaccurate = 3;Uncertain = 4; Slightly accurate = 5; Mostly accurate = 6; Very accurate = 7.

There are direct score and reverse score of the items. Direct score items are: 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13, 14, 16, 19 and 20. The rest of the items come under reversed score.

Validity: Hackman and Oldham (1975) inter-correlated the scores of the sub-scales of job characteristics (JCS) with the factor structure of the responses to the individual items of JCS and obtained convergent validity coefficients ranging from .16 to .51. The scale was adopted for the study.

The result of the pilot study for reliability of the respective dimensions of the sub-scales of job characteristics showed their respective coefficient alpha and test-retest coefficients as follows: skill variety: 0.59 and 0.92; task identity: 0.68 and 0.90; task significance: 0.71 and 0.94; autonomy: 0.81 and 0.98; feedback from job: 0.53 and 0.71; feedback from agent: 0.62 and 0.79; dealing with others: 0.74 and 0.81.

3.4.3   JOB INVOLVEMENT SCALE (Section C)

This scale was developed by Lodhal and Kejner (1965) and adapted for use in Nigeria samples by Peraform Psychometrics Centre (1997). (see Appendix III). The 20 – item inventory is designed to measure the extent to which a person is attached and engrossed in his/her general employment circumstances (Peraform Psychometrics Centre 1997). The 5 – point scale is rated thus: strongly agree, = 5; Agree = 4; Undecided = 3; Disagree = 2; strongly disagree =1. The following items are direct score: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 15, and 20. Reverse score items: 10, 13, 14, 16, 17, 18 and 19. Lodahl and Kejner (1965) provided the psychometric properties for American samples while Mogaji (1997) provided validity for Nigerian samples. Concurrent validity was obtained by correlating job involvement (JI) with the scales of job descriptive index (JDI). For American samples: Work = 0.29; Pay = 0.39; Promotion = 0.38; Supervision = 0.38; Co-workers = 0.37. For Nigerian samples Work = 0.23; Pay = -0.09; Promotion = -0.09; Supervision = -0.09; Co-workers = -0.11. The scale was adopted for this study.

The result of the pilot study for reliability of job involvement based on public, organised private and self-employed sectors showed their coefficient alpha and test-retest coefficients respectively as follows: public sector: 0.81 and 0.79; organised private sector: 0.78 and 0.84; self-employed sector: 0.89 and 0.87. For the scale as a whole: the higher the score, the poorer the job involvement of the participants (Psychometric Centre, 1997).

Reliability: A 4-week interval test – retest reliability study with a sample size of one hundred and eighty (180) participants drawn from public sector (60), organised private sector (60) and self-employed sector (60) participated. Test-retest coefficient of .82 and Cronbach alpha of .84 were obtained respectively.

The Nigerian norms or mean scores were obtained as the standard for interpreting the scores of the participants. Scores lower than the norms indicate adequate job involvement. In other words, the higher the score, the poorer the job involvement of the participants (Psychometric Centre, 1997).

3.4.4 TURNOVER INTENTION SCALE (SECTION D)

The scale was constructed for the purpose of this study. It originally had 15 items that described the extent of turnover intention from the job in terms of lateness, absenteeism, and turnover intention. These items were given to four Professors, three Readers or Associate professors and three Senior lecturers as experts for content validation. The experts were requested to indicate whether or not they considered each item as measuring turnover intention from job. They were also requested to respond by giving "Yes" or "No" response. Only 10 items that received 80% support or agreement of the experts were considered as valid. The 10 items were subjected to item – total correlation analysis resulting in the acceptance of the 10 items with a correlation of 0.50

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and above. The 10 items were also subjected to factor analysis with one factor emerging and the 10 items selected through item analysis were found heavily loaded with factor indicating turnover intention and were retained as valid items for measuring turnover intention from job. (see Appendix IV)

The scale was developed for this study. The 10 items described the extent of turnover intention from the job in terms of lateness, absenteeism and turnover intention. The items were subjected to item-total correlation analysis resulting in the acceptance of the 10 items with a correlation of 0.50 and above. The result of the pilot study for reliability of the scale showed coefficient alpha of 0.83 and Spearman-Brown of 0.93.

3.5   PROCEDURE

Pilot study

The pilot study preceded the main study. The pilot study helped in generating items for developing turnover intention scale and to test the psychometric properties of all the instruments used in the study. For use in Nigerian context, three of the four scales used in the study: Portrait Value Questionnaire Scale (PVQ), Job Characteristics Scale (JCS) and Job Involvement Scale (JI) were adopted for the study.

There are eight government ministries in Anambra state. Pieces of paper with names of each of the eight ministries written on them were folded. Four out of the eight ministries were randomly selected without replacement. Similar random method was used to select fourteen (14) out of the twenty two (22) firms in the organized private sector in Anambra state. Purposive sampling was used to select the market traders' associations in the self-employed sector, located in Awka, the state capital, Nnewi and Onitsha. According to Kerlinger (1976), purposive sampling is characterized by the use of judgement and a deliberate effort to obtain representative samples by including

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presumably typical areas or groups in the sample. The participants in each of the groups were selected by sampling with replacement. That is, a piece of paper was folded with some written 'yes' and some written 'no'. Both "yes" and "no" pieces of papers equal in number were mixed and put in the same basket. Individuals who picked "yes" served as participants while those who picked "no" were rejected.

One hundred and eighty employees all from public, organised private and self-employed sectors participated in the pilot study aimed at establishing reliability for Personal Values Scale (PVQ). Also the same numbers of participants drawn from the public, organised private and self-employed sectors were used to establish reliability for the Job Characteristics Scale (JCS) and Job Involvement Scale (JI). Four Professors, three Readers and three Senior lecturers from Department of Psychology, Nnamdi Azikiwe University, Awka, Anambra State, served as experts for validity study of Turnover Intention Scale (TI). The ten items selected through item analysis were found highly loaded with factors indicating turnover intention and were retained as valid items for measuring turnover intention form job. One hundred and eighty workers all from public, organised private and self-employed sectors served in establishing reliability for the scale.

Main Study

The questionnaires were served to the participants at their work places in Awka, Nnewi and Onitsha. An application letter requesting for permission to engage the participants were given to the heads of departments in the public sector and organised private sector. The same request was made to the chairmen of the Awka Market Amalgamated Traders Association (AMATA), Nnewi Market Amalgamated Traders Association (NMATA) and Onitsha Market Amalgamated Traders Association (OMATA). Having obtained their permission, the questionnaires were served them at

their place of work or business on three different days, in this order: Awka, Nnewi and Onitsha. They were given a time frame of one week to fill out the questionnaires. This was meant to give them enough time because of their jobs and other personal contingencies. On the whole 512 questionnaires were administered. One week later, the questionnaires were collected from them. The properly filled questionnaires were 504, and they were retained for the study.

3.6   STATISTICAL DESIGN

The study used hierarchical multiple regression analysis to test hypotheses one and two. One-Way analysis of variance and multiple comparison tests were used to test hypotheses three, four, five and six. The hypotheses are as follows:

1. Personal values and perceived job characteristics will independently and jointly predict job involvement of workers.

2. Personal values and perceived job characteristics will independently and jointly predict turnover intention of workers.

3. Workers in the self-employed sector will be more jobs involved than workers in public sector or organised private sector.

4. Workers in the public sector will indicate more intention to withdraw than workers in the organised private sector or self-employed sector.

5. Self-employed sector workers will be significantly higher on the various dimensions of personal values more than workers in organised private sector or public sector.

6. Self-employed sector workers will be significantly higher on the various dimensions of perceived job characteristics more than workers in the organised private sector or public sector.

RESULTS

Six hypotheses were tested in the present study. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were subjected to multiple regression analysis using hierarchical multiple regression analysis. One-way analysis of variance and multiple comparison analysis were used to test hypotheses 3, 4, 5 and 6.

The first hypothesis states that personal values and perceived job characteristics would independently and jointly influence job involvement of participants. The hypothesis was tested for all the participants, public sector participants, organised private sector participants and self-employed sector participants separately.

Hierarchical regression of job involvement on personal values and perceived job characteristics for all the workers was computed with stepwise inclusion of the independent variables. The demographic variable of gender was entered first. The demographic variable of sex independently and significantly account for variance in job involvement, $F (1/501) = 19.07$, $P<.001$ (Table 4.2). This shows significant independent influence of sex on job involvement ($\beta= -0.11$; $t=2.43$; $p<.01$). The result of the beta weight shows that gender of the participants was important in job involvement. This is demonstrated by the highly significant level of gender at ($p<.01$). The less the negative value of beta weight of gender on job involvement, the more job involved is the participants, irrespective of the nature of the gender.

Table 4.1: Demographic Variable

		Mean Age	Standard Deviation
Total Number of Participation	504	37.26	8.43
Male	359	36.17	6.44
Female	145	34.86	6.62

Table 4.2: Hierarchical Regression of Job Involvement on Personal Values and Job Characteristics for all the Participants

Variables	Model I Beta	t	Model II Beta	t	Model III Beta	t
Step 1:						
Control variable						
Gender	-0.11**	2.43	-0.14**	-2.95	- 0.12**	-2.07
Step 2:						
Personal values						
Conformity			-0.06	-1.35	-0.06	-1.41
Tradition			-0.01	-0.25	-0.00	-0.06
Benevolence			-0.02	-0.34	-0.01	-0.14
Universalism			0.05	1.08	0.05	0.96
Self-direction			-0.09	1.88	-0.10*	-2.05
Stimulation			0.00	-0.07	-0.00	0.04
Hedonism			-0.04	-0.73	-0.04	-0.80
Achievement			-0.04	-0.73	-0.02	-0.42
Power			0.05	1.19	0.52	1.17
Security			-0.07	-1.41	-0.06	-1.22
Step 3:						
Job characteristics						
Skill variety					0.08	1.68
Task identity					-0.04	-0.82
Task significance					0.10*	1.92
Autonomy					-0.03	-0.58
Feedback from the job					-0.07	1.36
Feedback from agent					0.07	-1.36
Dealing with others					0.06	-1.14
F	19.07***		4.32***		3.51***	
R	0.27		0.31		0.35	
R(Square)	0.07		0.10		0.12	
Change in R (square)	0.07		0.03		0.03	
Adjusted R (square)	0.07		0.07		0.09	
DF	1/501		11/491		18/484	
SE	0.59		0.59		0.59	

*P < .05
***P<.001

The second model shows the entry of the second set of the independent variables which are the ten (10) dimensions of personal values: conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power and security. The result of the hierarchical regression (Table 4.2) reveals that personal values together with the demographic factor jointly contributed ten percent (R^2 =.10) variance in job

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involvement, $F(11/491)=4.32$; $p<.001$. The result reveals increase in job involvement from seven per cent ($R^2 = .07$) when only the demographic variable was entered, to ten percent ($R^2 = .10$) when personal values were added resulting to three percent change in variance ($\Delta R^2 = 0.03$; $p>.05$).It suggests that low significant negative correlation between job involvement and these dimensions of personal values mean the higher their personal values, the less they are job involved.

The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the ten dimensions of personal values shows that none of them contributed significantly to job involvement. Furthermore, some of the dimensions of personal values have no significant bivariate correlation coefficient with job involvement (Table 4.2) and they were inversely correlated with job involvement except conformity ($r = -.11$, $P<.05$), self-direction ($r = -.11$, $P <.05$), hedonism ($r = -.10$, $P<.05$) and security ($r = -.11$, $P<.05$), have significant bivariate correlation coefficient. The bivariate correlation coefficients are: tradition ($r = -.07$, $P>.05$), benevolence ($r= -.03$, $P>.05$), universalism ($r = -.03$, $P>.05$), stimulation ($r = -.04$, $P>.05$), achievement ($r = -.05$, $P>.05$), and power dimension ($r = .02$, $P>.05$). It suggests low negative association between job involvement and these dimensions of personal values. These significant dimensions of personal values suggest that they contribute to job involvement of the workers, while the non-significant dimensions do not contribute to job involvement of workers.

Table 4.2: Correlation Matrix of Predictors: Personal Values and Perceived job Characteristics on Job Involvement and Turnover Intention for the General Sample

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	Conformity																	
2	Tradition	.12**																
3	Benevolence	.14**	-.13**															
4	Universalism	.06	.28**	-.05														
5	Self-direction	.11	.08	.25**	.00													
6	Stimulation	.18**	-.06	.27**	.01	.15**												
7	Hedonism	.12**	.26**	-.16**	.20**	.01	-.06											
8	Achievement	.00	.31**	-.19**	.31**	-.04	.10*	.24**										
9	Power	.03	.13**	-.00	.11*	.05	.05	.08	.17**									
10	Security	.11*	.32**	-.07	.31**	.16**	.05	.21**	.29**	.09*								
11	Skill variety	.03	.04	.03	.04	.15**	.01	.07	.01	-.04	.03							
12	Task identity	.05	-.23	-.07	-.03	.08	.05	.01	-.00	-.04	.00	.13**						
13	Task significance	.09	.04	.10**	.14**	.04	.12**	.14**	.03	.12*	-.00	.13**	.15**					
14	Autonomy	.07	.05	.05	-.01	.04	.01	.04	-.01	-.06	.05	.34**	.47**	.09*				
15	Feedback from job	.09	.08	.04	.04	-.01	-.01	.07	-.06	-.03	.04	.02	.10*	.34**	.21**			
16	Feedback from agent	-.17**	.10*	-.03	-.04	-.12**	-.05	-.19**	.02	.03	-.15**	-.28**	-.14**	-.31**	-.31**	-.22**		
17	Dealing with others	.03	.12**	.08	.12**	.01	.04	.16**	.09*	-.01	.13**	.04	.23**	.34**	.22**	.36**	-.23**	
18	Job involvement	-.11*	-.07	-.03	-.03	-.11*	-.04	-.10*	.05	.02	-.11*	.04	-.01	-.01	.01	-.02	.05	-.13**
19	Intention to withdraw	-.55**	.21**	.03	.10*	.09*	.00	.20**	-.06	.09*	.10	.11*	-.03	.17**	.03	.07	-.32**	.08

Job characteristics variables which include skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, feedback from agent and dealing with others, together with demographic variable and personal values jointly and significantly accounted for variance in job involvement, $F(18/484)=3.51$; $P<.001$. The result of the hierarchical regression (Table 4.1) reveals that the inclusion of job characteristics variables led to no significant three percent change in variance ($\Delta R^2 = 0.03$; $p>.05$); as the variance accounted for by all the variables earlier entered which are demographic and personal values rose from ten percent ($R^2 =0.10$) to twelve percent ($R^2 = 0.12$) when job characteristics variables were added.

Analysis of the independent contributions of the independent variables show among the job characteristics variables only task significance ($\beta=0.10$; $t=1.92$; $P<.05$) contributed significantly to job involvement. The beta weight result suggests that participants who see their job or task as important are more job involved than participants who do not see their task or job as important. Among the personal values, only self-direction ($\beta= -0.10$; $t=-2.05$; $p<.05$) of personal values, contributed significantly, though negatively, in job involvement. The result of the beta weight reveals that the higher a worker is in self-direction, the less jobs involved is the worker. The significant bivariate correlation coefficient between self-direction and job involvement ($r = -0.11$, $p<.05$) though negative, means the less a worker is in self-direction, the more job involved is the worker (Table 4.2).

To further test the first hypothesis, hierarchical multiple regression analysis was also run for the public sector participants alone. The result is presented (Table 4.4). Hierarchical regression analysis was computed with stepwise inclusion of the independent variables. The demographic variable, gender, was considered as control variable and was entered first. The demographic variable significantly account for variance in job

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involvement F(1/166)=1.15; P<.05. The analysis of independent contribution of gender shows that it is not significant in job involvement (β = - .08; t= -1.07; P>.05). This suggests that gender of the worker is not important for job involvement in the public sector.

Table 4.4. Hierarchical Regression of Job Involvement on Personal Values and Job Characteristics for the Public Sector Participants.

Variables	Model I Beta	t	Model II Beta	t	Model III Beta	t
Step 1: **Control variable**						
Gender	-0.08	-1.07	-0.16** -1.68		- 0.11**	-1.20
Step 2 **Personal values**						
Conformity			-0.13	-1.37	-0.15	-1.68
Tradition			-0.10	0.94	0.14	1.35
Benevolence			-0.14	1.33	0.17	1.68
Universalism			-0.00	-0.04	0.01	-0.14
Self-direction			-0.19*	-2.22	-0.10*	-2.29
Stimulation			0.00	0.03	0.03	0.28
Hedonism			-0.04	0.41	0.12	1.30
Achievement			0.03	-0.33	0.04	0.45
Power			0.06	-0.71	-0.09	-1.151
Security			-0.14	-1.21	-0.19	-1.65
Step 3: **Job characteristics**						
Skill variety					0.14	1.75
Task identity					-0.15	-1.83
Task significance					0.11	1.37
Autonomy					0.01	0.18
Feedback from the job					0.08	0.98
Feedback from agent					0.05	0.67
Dealing with others					-0.24*	-2.88
F	1.15*		1.24*		2.14**	
R	0.08		0.28		0.45	
R (Square)	0.01		0.08		0.21	
Change in R (Square)	0.01		0.07		0.14	
Adjusted R (Square)	0.00		0.02		0.11	
Df	1/166		11/156		18/149	
SE	0.61		0.61		0.56	

*P<.05
**P<.01

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The entry of the second set of the independent variables which are ten (10) dimensions of personal values: conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power and security. The result of the hierarchical regression (Table 4.4) reveals that personal values, together with the demographic factor jointly contributed eight percent (R^2=0.08) variance in job involvement $F(11/156)$=1.24; P<.05. The result reveals significant increase in job involvement, from one percent (R^2=0.01) when only demographic variable was entered, to eight percent (R^2=0.08) when personal values were introduced or added, resulting in seven percent significant change in variance ($\Delta R^2 = 0.07$, P<.05).

The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the ten (10) dimensions of personal values shows that only self-direction contributed significantly but negatively to job involvement (β=-0.19; t = - 2.22; P<.05). The beta weight result shows that participants with high negative sense of self-direction exhibits job involvement less than those with positive sense of self-direction. Bivariate correlation coefficient between self-direction and job involvement (r= -.11, p<.05) shows significant relationship even though it is negative (Table 4.3). It implies less job involvement of public sector workers.

Thirdly, the job characteristics which are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, feedback from agent, and dealing with others along with demographic variable and personal values jointly and significantly accounted for variance in job involvement, $F(18/149) = 2.14$, P<.01. The result of hierarchical regression (Table 4.3) reveals that the inclusion of the job characteristics variables led to fourteen percent change in variance (ΔR^2 =0.14; P<.01); as the variance accounted for by all the variables earlier entered which are demographic and personal values moved from eight percent ($R^2 = 0.08$) to twenty-one percent ($R^2 = 0.21$) when job characteristics variables were added.

The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the variables shows that only dealing with others (β = - 0.24; t= -2.88; P<.05) contributes negatively and significantly. The beta weight result shows that participants who are low in dealing with others are highly job involved than those who indicate/show high interest in dealing with others. Bivariate correlation coefficient between dealing with others and job involvement (r = -.13, P<.01) was significant (Table 4.3). This suggests that dealing with others even though it has significant negative correlation with job involvement implies that such workers are high in job involvement in public sector.

As a follow-up test of the first hypothesis, hierarchical multiple regression was run amongst the organised private sector participants alone (Table 4.4). Hierarchical regression analysis was computed with stepwise inclusion of the independent variables. The demographic variable, gender, was considered as control variable and was entered first. The demographic variable significantly account for variance in job involvement, F(1/166) =5.89; P<.05 (Table 4.5). The analysis of the independent contribution of the demographic variable shows that gender contributes significantly to job involvement (β = -0.19; t = -2.43; P<.05). The result of the beta weight shows that gender significantly influences job involvement of workers in the organised private sector.

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Table 4.5: Hierarchical Regression of Job Involvement on Personal Values and Job Characteristics for the Organised Private Sector Participants.

Variables	Model I		Model II		Model III	
	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
Step 1:						
Control variable						
Gender	-0.19*	-2.43	-0.17*	2.16	- 0.18* -2.30	
Step 2:						
Personal values						
Conformity			0.03	0.40	0.02	0.22
Tradition			-0.07	-0.90	-0.08	-0.93
Benevolence			-2.12**	-2.63	-0.19*	-2.32
Universalism			0.09	1.10	0.08	1.01
Self-direction			-0.09	-1.11	-0.10	-1.19
Stimulation			0.12	1.56	0.14	1.73
Hedonism			-0.09	-1.12	-0.10	1.25
Achievement			0.06	0.67	-0.03	-0.30
Power			0.00	0.05	0.00	0.02
Security			-0.03	-0.42	-0.04	-0.41
Step 3:						
Job characteristics						
Skill variety					0.02	0.19
Task identity					0.54	0.68
Task significance					0.00	0.03
Autonomy					0.11	1.28
Feedback from the job					0.05	0.67
Feedback from agent					-0.14	-1.71
Dealing with others					-0.12	-1.37
F	5.89*		1.74*		1.44*	
R	0.19		0.33		0.39	
R (Square)	0.03		0.11		0.15	
Change in R (Square)	0.03		0.08		0.07	
Adjusted R (Square)	0.03		0.05		0.05	
Df	1/166		11/156		18/149	
SE	0.49		0.48		0.48	

*P<.05

The second model shows the entry of the second set of the independent variables which are the ten (10) dimensions of personal values: conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, and security. The result of the hierarchical regression analysis (Table 4.5) reveals that personal values along with demographic factor jointly and significantly explained eleven percent (R^2

=0.11) variance in job involvement $F(11/156) = 1.74$; $P<.05$). The result reveals significant increase in job involvement from three percent ($R^2=0.03$) when only the demographic variable was entered to eleven percent ($R^2=0.11$) when personal values were included, resulting in eight percent change in variance ($\Delta R^2 = 0.08$, $P<.05$).

The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the ten dimensions of personal values shows that only benevolence influences significantly job involvement ($\beta=-2.12$; $t = 2.63$; $P<.01$). The beta weight result suggests that participants with low benevolence value were highly job involved among the workers in this sector than participants who were high on benevolence value. There were significant bivariate correlation coefficients of the following dimensions of personal values and job involvement (Table 4.2); conformity ($r= -.11$, $p<.05$), self-direction ($r = -.11$, $p<.05$), hedonism ($r = -.10$, $p<.05$) and security ($r= -.11$, $p<.05$). It suggests that even though these values are negatively associated with job involvement, the participants with such values are more jobs involved than other participants in this sector.

The third model shows job characteristics variables which include: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, feedback from agent, and dealing with others were entered. The result of hierarchical analysis shown on Table 4.5 reveals that job characteristics factors along with other variables earlier entered which are demographic variables, and personal values jointly and significantly account for fifteen percent ($R^2 = 0.15$) variance in job involvement $F(18/149)=1.44$; $P<.05$. The inclusion of job characteristics alone resulted in seven percent change in variance ($\Delta R^2 = 0.07$; $P<.05$) of job involvement. Benevolence dimension of personal values jointly with all the dimensions of job characteristics significantly influenced job involvement in this sector. None of the seven dimensions of job characteristics accounted independently for job involvement. Dealing with others alone has significant bivariate correlation

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coefficient with job involvement (r = -.13, p<.01). This high correlation between dealing with others and job involvement, though negative, implies that such workers are less job involved than other workers in this sector.

As further test of the first hypothesis, hierarchical multiple regression was run among self-employed participants alone. The result is presented (Table 4.5). Hierarchical regression analysis was computed with stepwise inclusion of the independent variables. The demographic variable, gender, was considered as control variable and was entered first. The demographic variable did not significantly account for variance on job involvement $F(1/166)=.59$; $P>.05$ (Table 4.5). The analysis of independent contribution of the demographic variable shows that gender did not contribute significantly to job involvement ($\beta = -0.06$; $t = -0.77$, $P>.05$). The result of the beta weight shows that gender of the participants did not influence job involvement in the self-employed sector.

Table 4.6: Hierarchical Regression of Job Involvement on Personal Values and Job Characteristics for Self-employed Sector Participants.

Variables	Model I		Model II		Model III	
	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
Step I:						
Control variable						
Gender	0.06	-0.77	-0.11	-1.34	- 0.06	-0.48
Step 2:						
Personal values						
Conformity			-0.12	-1.47	-0.13	-1.56
Tradition			-0.05	0.62	-0.09	1.01
Benevolence			-0.03	-0.34	0.01	-0.12
Universalism			0.12		0.12	1.30
Self-direction			1.515		-0.09	-1.05
Stimulation			-0.04	-0.55	-0.08	-0.98
Hedonism			-0.07	0.89	-0.01	-0.11
Achievement			-0.02	-0.20	0.01	0.13
Power			0.01	0.10	0.21*	2.57
Security			0.19*	2.41	-0.09	-1.08
			-0.06	-0.74		
Step 3:						
Job characteristics						
Skill variety					0.15	1.32
Task identity					0.09	0.62
Task significance					-0.01	-0.16
Autonomy					-0.31	-1.79
Feedback from the job					-0.02	-0.25
Feedback from agent					-0.24	-1.58
Dealing with others					-0.03	-0.31
F		0.59	1.16*		1.10*	
R		0.06	0.28		0.34	
R (Square)		0.00	0.08		0.12	
Change in R (Square)		0.00	0.08		0.04	
Adjusted R (Square)		0.00	0.01		0.01	
Df		1/66	11/156		18/149	
SE		0.65	0.65		0.65	

*P<.05

The entry of the second set of the independent variables which are ten (10) dimensions of personal values: conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power and security followed. The result of the hierarchical regression on Table 4.5 reveals that personal values along with the demographic factor jointly accounted for eight percent (R^2=0.08) variance in job

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involvement F(11/156) =1.16; P<.05). The result reveals significant increase in job involvement from zero percent (R^2=0.00) when only the demographic variable was entered, to eight percent (R^2=0.08) when personal values were added, resulting in eight percent change in variance (ΔR^2=0.08; P<.05). The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the ten dimensions of personal values shows that only power contributed significantly to job involvement (β=0.19; t=2.41; P<.05). The beta weight result implies that participants who are high on power dimension of their personal values are job involved more than participants who are low on power dimension of their personal values. Bivariate correlation coefficient of power and job involvement (r = .02, P>.05) shows no significant positive association between the two variables (Table 4.3). This suggests that power, which stands for need for social status and prestige, control or dominance over people and resources makes participants' job involved in the self-employed sector.

Thirdly, the job characteristics variables which include: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, feedback from agent, and dealing with others along with demographic variable, and personal values jointly account for variance in job involvement F(18/149)=1.10; P<.05. The result of the hierarchical regression shown on Table 4.6 reveals that the inclusion of job characteristics variables led to four percent change in variance (ΔR^2=0.04, P<.05); as a matter of fact, the variance accounted for by all the variables earlier entered which are demographic and personal values rose from eight percent (R^2=0.08) to twelve percent (R^2=0.12) when job characteristics variables were added.

The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the variables shows that none of them contributed significantly to job involvement. This implies that the participants are similarly influenced by the characteristics of the job in their job

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involvement or that their job involvement does not depend on the characteristics of the job. There was high significant bivariate correlation coefficient between dealing with others and job involvement ($r = -.13$, $p<.01$) (Table 4.2).This suggests that workers who are high on this dimension of job characteristics are less job involved than those who are low on this dimension of job characteristics.

The second hypothesis states that personal values and perceived job characteristics will independently and jointly predict turnover intention. The hypothesis was tested using hierarchical multiple regression for all the workers, public sector workers, organised private sector workers, and self-employed sector workers separately.

Hierarchical regression analysis was computed for all the workers with stepwise inclusion of the independent variables. The demographic variable of gender was considered as control variable and was entered first. The demographic variable significantly accounted for variance on turnover intention, $F(1/501)=146.6$; $P<.001$; (Table 4.7). The analysis of independent contribution of the demographic variable shows that gender did not significantly account to turnover intention ($\beta=0.01$ $t=0.5$, $P>.05$). The result of the beta weight shows that gender did not contribute significantly to turnover intention.

Table 4.7: Hierarchical Regression of Intention to Withdraw on Personal Values and Job Characteristics for all the Participants.

Variables	Model I		Model II		Model III	
	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
Step I:						
Control variable						
Gender	0.01	0.15	-0.11	-1.34	- 0.06	-0.48
Step 2:						
Personal values						
Conformity			0.02	0.56	-0.00	-0.02
Tradition			0.09*	2.19	0.09*	2.27
Benevolence			0.00	0.07	0.03	0.65
Universalism			-0.04	-1.10	-0.04	-0.04
Self-direction			0.03	0.74	-0.09*	-2.49
Stimulation			-0.08*	-2.21	0.01	0.53
Hedonism			0.02	0.38	0.02	0.53
Achievement			-0.02	-0.42	-0.02	-0.41
Power			0.04	0.96	0.03	0.80
Security			-0.02	-0.46	-0.02	-0.39
Step 3:						
Job characteristics						
Skill variety					-0.02	-0.53
Task identity					0.04	0.99
Task significance					-0.11*	-2.50
Autonomy					0.01	0.28
Feedback from the job					-0.10*	-2.43
Feedback from agent					-0.02	-0.51
Dealing with others					-0.20***	-4.90
F	146.44***		25.76***		20.48***	
R	0.61		0.62		0.67	
R (Square)	0.37		0.39		0.45	
Change in R (Square)	0.37		0.02		0.43	
Adjusted R (Square)	0.37		0.37		0.42	
Df	2/501		12/491		19/484	
SE	0.64		0.64		0.61	

*P<.05

***P<.001

The entry of the second set of independent variables which are the ten (10) dimensions of personal values: conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power and security followed. The result of the hierarchical regression on Table

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4.6 reveals that personal values, along with demographic factor jointly and significantly accounted for thirty-nine percent ($R^2=0.39$) variance in turnover intention $F(11/491)=25.76$; P<.001. The result did not indicate significant increase in turnover intention from thirty-seven percent ($R^2=0.37$) when demographic variable was entered, to thirty-nine percent ($R^2=0.39$) when personal values were added, resulting in two percent non-significant change in variance ($\Delta R^2=0.02$; P>.05).

The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the ten dimensions of personal values shows that tradition ($\beta=-0.09$; t=2.19; P<.05) and stimulation ($\beta=-0.08$; t=-2.21; P<.05) contributed significantly but negatively to turnover intention. The beta weight result suggests that participants who are high on tradition and stimulation dimensions of personal values show turnover intention more than participants whose tradition and stimulation values are otherwise. Bivariate correlation coefficients of tradition and stimulation values are highly significant for tradition (r = .21, p<.01) and not significant for stimulation (r=.00, p >.05) (Table 4.2). That is, participants whose tradition value correlates significantly high are likely to indicate turnover intention. Those whose stimulation value has no correlation with turnover intention are likely not to withdraw from their job.

Finally, job characteristics variables which are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, feedback from agent, dealing with others along with demographic variable and personal values jointly and significantly account for variance in turnover intention $F(18/484)=20.48$; P<.001. The result of the hierarchical regression shown on Table 4.7 reveals that the inclusion of the job characteristics variables led to six percent change in variance ($\Delta R^2=0.43$; P<.05). The variance

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accounted for by all the variables earlier entered which are demographic and personal values moved from thirty-nine percent (R^2=0.39) to forty-five percent (R^2=0.45) when job characteristics variables were added.

The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the variables shows that task significance (β=-0.11; t=-2.50; P<.05), feedback from the job (β=0.10; t=-2.43; P<.05) and dealing with others (β=-0.20; t=-4.90; P<.001) contribute significantly and negatively to turnover intention. It shows that participants whose beta weight results are significant on these job characteristics dimensions will indicate turnover intention more than participants whose own are not significant. Bivariate correlation coefficients between task significance and turnover intention is highly significant (r = .17, p <.01), feedback from the job is not significant (r = .07, p >.05) and dealing with others is not significant (r = .08, p>.05) (Table 4.2). It indicates that in the former, the participants are likely to indicate turnover intention, while participants in the latter two are not likely to indicate turnover intention.

For further test of the second hypothesis, hierarchical regression analysis was run for the public sector participants alone with stepwise inclusion of the independent variable. The demographic variable of gender was considered as control variable and was entered first. The demographic variable did not significantly account for variance on turnover intention F(1/166) =0.84; P>.05) (Table 4.8). The analysis of the independent contribution of the demographic variable, shows that gender does not contribute significantly to turnover intention (β=-0.07; t=-0.92; P>.05).

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Table 4.8: Hierarchical Regression of Turnover Intention on Personal Values and Job Characteristics for Public Sector Participants.

Variables	Model I		Model II		Model III	
	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
Step I:						
Control variable						
Gender	-0.07	-0.92	-0.03	-0.31	- 0.02	-0.23
Step 2:						
Personal values						
Conformity			0.09	0.94	0.08	0.90
Tradition			0.07	0.67	0.09	0.83
Benevolence			0.11	1.09	0.11	1.05
Universalism			0.05	0.47	0.08	0.75
Self-direction			0.08	0.92	0.07	0.81
Stimulation			-0.19*	-2.01	-0.19*	-1.97
Hedonism			0.19*	2.10	0.17*	1.88
Achievement			-0.11	-1.15	-0.09	-0.92
Power			0.13	1.58	0.13	1.61
Security			-0.08	-0.68	-0.13	-1.08
Step 3:						
Job characteristics						
Skill variety					-0.09	-0.10
Task identity					0.12	1.40
Task significance					-0.09	-1.07
Autonomy					-0.05	-0.60
Feedback from the job					0.03	0.32
Feedback from agent					-0.08	-1.92
Dealing with others					-0.14	-1.65
F	0.84		1.57*		1.43*	
R	0.07		0.32		0.38	
R (Square)	0.01		0.10		0.15	
Change in R (Square)	0.01		0.09		0.06	
Adjusted R (Square)	-0.00		0.04		0.05	
Df	1/166		11/156		18/149	
SE	0.47		0.46		0.46	

*P<.05

The entry of the second set of the independent variables which are the ten (10) dimensions of personal values: conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power and security followed. The result

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of the hierarchical regression shown on Table 4.8 reveals that personal values, along with the demographic variable jointly contributed ten percent (R^2=0.10) variance in turnover intention, $F(11/156)$=1.57; $P<.05$. The result reveals significant increase in turnover intention from one percent (R^2=0.01) when only the demographic variables was entered, to ten percent (R^2=0.10) when personal values were included, resulting in nine percent significant change in variance (ΔR^2=0.09; $P<.05$).

The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the ten dimensions of personal values shows that stimulation (β=-0.19; t=-2.01; $P<.05$) and hedonism (β=0.19; t=2.10; $P<.05$) account significantly but negatively and positively respectively to turnover intention. The beta weights of participants whose personal values dimensions of stimulation and hedonism are significant are likely to indicate turnover intention more than participants whose own are otherwise. Bivariate correlation coefficient between stimulation and turnover intention shows no correlation (r =.00, p >.05) and between hedonism and turnover intention is highly significant (r = .20, p <.01) (Table 4.2). The former indicates that the participants are not likely to withdraw, while the later shows that the participants will indicate turnover intention.

Thirdly, job characteristics variables which are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, feedback from agent, and dealing with others along with demographic variable and personal values jointly accounted for variance in turnover intention $F(18/149)$ = 1.43; $P<.05$. The result of the hierarchical regression shown on Table 4.7 reveals that the inclusion of the job characteristics variables led to six percent change in variance (ΔR^2=0.06). Nevertheless, the variance accounted for by all the variables earlier entered; demographic and personal values

moved from ten percent ($R^2 = 0.10$) to fifteen percent ($R^2 = 0.15$) when job characteristics variables were included. The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the variables shows that none of them contributes significantly to turnover intention. This implies that all the dimensions of job characteristics have influence on the participants from public sector on intention not to withdraw from their job. The result of bivariate correlation coefficients of the various dimensions of job characteristics and turnover intention, (Table 4.2) shows that skill variety (r=.11, P<.05), task significance (r = .17, P<.01), and feedback from agent (r= -.32, P<.01) are significantly correlated with turnover intention and could make such participants to show turnover intention from their job. Moreover, job characteristic variables accounted jointly with such dimensions of personal values as stimulation and hedonism in turnover intention.

Further test of the second hypothesis was carried out in the organised private sector. Hierarchical regression analysis was run for the sector with stepwise inclusion of the independent variable. The demographic variable was considered as control variable and was entered first. The demographic variable shows significant account for variance on turnover intention, $F(1/166)=1.84$; P<.05 (Table 4.8). The analysis of the independent contribution of demographic variable shows that gender contributes significantly to turnover intention (β=-0.19; t=-2.43; P<.05).

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Table 4.9: Hierarchical Regression of Turnover Intention on Personal Values and Job Characteristics for Organised Private Sector Participants.

Variables	Model I Beta	t	Model II Beta	t	Model III Beta	t
Step I:						
Control variable						
Gender	-0.19*	-2.43	-0.17*	-2.16	-0.18*	-2.30
Step 2:						
Personal values						
Conformity			0.03	0.40	0.02	0.22
Tradition			0.07	-0.90	0.08	-0.93
Benevolence			-0.21**		0.19*	-2.33
Universalism			-2.63		0.08	1.01
Self-direction			0.09	1.10	0.10	-1.19
Stimulation			0.09	-1.11	0.14	1.73
Hedonism			0.12	1.56	-0.10	-1.23
Achievement			-0.09	-1.12	-0.03	-0.30
Power			-0.06	-0.67	0.00	0.02
Security			0.00	0.05	-0.04	-0.41
			-0.03	-0.42		
Step 3:						
Job characteristics						
Skill variety					0.02	0.19
Task identity					0.05	0.68
Task significance					0.00	0.03
Autonomy					0.17*	2.05
Feedback from the job					0.05	0.67
Feedback from agent					-0.14	-1.71
Dealing with others					-0.12	-1.37
F	1.84*		1.06*		1.05*	
R	0.11		0.26		0.34	
R (Square)	0.01		0.07		0.11	
Change in R (Square)	0.01		0.06		0.05	
Adjusted R (Square)	0.01		0.00		0.01	
Df	1/166		11/156		18/149	
SE	0.27		0.27		0.27	

*P<.05

**P<.01

The entry of the second set of the independent variable which are ten (10) dimensions of personal values: conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism, self-

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direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power and security followed. The result of the hierarchical regression shown on Table 4.8 reveals that personal values along with the demographic variable jointly contributed seven percent (R^2=0.07) variance in turnover intention F(11/156)=1.06; P<.05. The result reveals significant increase in turnover intention from one percent (R^2=0.01) when only the demographic variable was entered, to seven percent (R^2=0.07) when personal values were added, resulting in significant six percent change in variance (ΔR^2=0.06; P<.05)

The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the ten dimensions of personal values shows that only benevolence contributed significantly to turnover intention (β=-0.21, t=-2.63; P<.01). The beta weight result implies that participants whose benevolence value is significant will show turnover intention, while the participants whose own is not significant will indicate intention to remain in organised private sector. Bivariate correlation coefficient of conformity (r = -.15, P<.01), tradition (r=.21, P<.01), universalism (r=.10, P<.05), self-direction (r=.09, P<.05), hedonism (r=.20, P<.01), power (r=.09, P<.05) and security (r=.10, P<.05) showed significant correlation with turnover intention (Table 4.2). It suggests that these participants are likely to withdraw from their job, while participants whose own are not significant are likely to remain in their job.

Furthermore, job characteristics variables which are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, feedback from agent, and dealing with others along with demographic variable and personal values jointly accounted for variance in turnover intention, F(18/149)=1.05; P<.05. The result of the hierarchical regression shown on Table 4.8 reveals that the inclusion of job characteristics variables

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led to eleven percent significant increase in variance ($R^2=0.11$; P<.05); as the variance accounted for by all the variables earlier entered which are demographic variable and personal values moved from seven percent ($R^2=0.07$) to eleven percent ($R^2=0.11$) when job characteristics variables were added. This led to five percent change in variance ($\Delta R^2=0.05$) which is not significant.

The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the variables shows that only autonomy ($\beta = 0.17$, t = 2.05, P <.05) contributes significantly to turnover intention. The beta weight result implies that participants, whose autonomy value is significant, are likely to indicate turnover intention, while those participants whose autonomy value is otherwise may not indicate turnover intention. Bivariate correlation coefficients between skill variety and turnover intention (r = .11, p<.05), task significance and turnover intention (r= .17, p<.01), and feedback from agent (r= -.32, p<.01) are significant (Table 4.2). This indicates that these participants are likely to show turnover intention, while participants whose correlation coefficient of these dimensions of job characteristics are low will not indicate turnover intention.

As further test of the second hypothesis, hierarchical regression was again run amongst the self-employed sector workers alone as presented on Table 4.9. Hierarchical regression analysis was computed with stepwise inclusion of the independent variables. The demographic variable as the control variable was entered first. The demographic variable significantly account for variance in turnover intention $F(1/166)=1.71$; P<.05 (Table 4.9). The analysis of the independent contribution of demographic variable, gender, shows that it does not contribute significantly to turnover intention (β =-0.01; t=-

1.31; P>.05). The result of beta weight shows that gender of the participants has no significant contribution to their turnover intention.

Table 4.10: Hierarchical Regression of Turnover Intention on Personal Values and Perceived Job Characteristics for Self-Employed Sector Participants.

Variables	Model I		Model II		Model III	
	Beta	t	Beta	t	Beta	t
Step I:						
Control variable						
Gender	-0.01	-1.31	-0.10	-1.16	-0.13	-0.97
Step 2:						
Personal values						
Conformity			0.00	0.03	0.01	0.16
Tradition			0.07	0.85	0.09	1.01
Benevolence			0.02	0.18	0.02	0.19
Universalism			-0.06	-0.68	-0.07	-0.84
Self-direction			0.02	0.24	0.04	0.41
Stimulation			-0.11	-1.36	-0.13	-1.57
Hedonism			-0.03	-0.33	-0.02	-0.21
Achievement			0.00	0.03	0.02	0.24
Power			0.09	1.11	0.10	1.14
Security			-0.01	-0.14	-0.04	-0.42
Step 3:						
Job characteristics						
Skill variety					-0.09	-0.76
Task identity					0.09	-0.61
Task significance					0.01	0.13
Autonomy					-0.11	-0.64
Feedback from the job					-0.08	-0.84
Feedback from agent					-0.31*	-2.04
Dealing with others					-0.06	-0.55
F	1.71*		0.65		0.71	
R	0.10		0.21		0.28	
R (Square)	0.01		0.04		0.08	
Change in R (Square)	0.01		0.03		0.05	
Adjusted R (Square)	0.00		-0.02		-0.03	
Df	1/166		11/156		18/149	
SE	0.81		0.83		0.83	

*P<.05

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The entry of the second set of the independent variables which are ten (10) dimensions of personal values: conformity, tradition, benevolence, universalism, self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power and security followed. The result of the hierarchical regression shown on Table 4.10 reveals that personal values, along with demographic factor jointly contributed four percent (R^2=0.04) variance in turnover intention $F(11/156)$=0.65; P>.05. The result indicated increase in turnover intention, from one percent (R^2=0.01) when only demographic variable was entered, to four percent (R^2=0.04) when personal values were added, resulting in three percent significant change in variance (ΔR^2=0.03; P<.05). The analysis of the independent contribution of each of the ten dimensions of personal values shows that none of them contributed significantly to turnover intention. This implies that the personal values of the participants in this sector similarly influence them in deciding to remain in their job. Bivariate correlation coefficients of these dimensions of personal values correlate significantly with turnover intention: conformity (r= -.15, P<.01), tradition (r= .21, P<.01), universalism (r= .10, P<.05), self-direction (r= .09, P<.05), hedonism (r= .20, P<.01), power (r= .09, P<.05) and security (r= .10, P<.05) (Table 4.2). It implies that these participants are likely to show turnover intention.

Thirdly, job characteristics which are skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from the job, feedback from agent, and dealing with others along with demographic variable and personal values jointly but not significantly account for variance in turnover intention $F(18/149)$=0.71; P>.05. The result of the hierarchical regression shown on Table 4.9 reveals that the inclusion of the job characteristics variables led to five percent change in variance (ΔR^2=0.05; P<.05). The variance

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accounted for by all the variables earlier entered which are demographic and personal values moved from four percent ($R^2=0.04$) to significant eight percent ($R^2=0.08$; $P<.05$) when job characteristics were added. The analysis of the independent contribution of the various dimensions of job characteristics shows that feedback from agent ($\beta = -0.31$, $t = -2.04$, $P<.05$) significantly contributed to turnover intention. The beta weight result implies that participants who get unfavorable information about their performance from agent are likely to exhibit turnover intention, while those who receive favourable information from agent about their performance are likely not to indicate turnover intention. Bivariate correlation coefficients of these dimensions of job characteristics correlate significantly with turnover intention (Table 4.2): skill variety ($r= .11$, $P<.05$), task significance ($r= .17$, $P<.01$) and feedback from agent ($r= -.32$, $P<.01$). It suggests that these participants are likely to indicate turnover intention, while participants whose correlations are otherwise are likely to indicate intention to remain.

The third hypothesis predicts that participants from self-employed sector will be more jobs involved than participants from public sector or organised private sector. The result of the one-way ANOVA on Table 4.10 shows that sectors of employment significantly influence participants' job involvement. Consequently, result showed that self-employed sector participants were significantly more job involved than public sector and organised private sector participants $F(2/502)=21.09$, $P<.001$. It follows that job involvement is influenced by the sector in which the worker operates.

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Table 4.11: One –Way ANOVA Showing Job Involvement on Sectorial Type

Variable	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	P
Job involvement:	Between group	14.677	2	7.336	21.086	<.001
	Within group	174.361	502	0.347		
	Total	189.038	504			

Furthermore, the result of multiple comparison analysis on Table 4.11 reveals that self-employed sector participants ($\overline{X}$ = 2.32) were slightly more job involved than public sector participants ($\overline{X}$ = 2.33) but highly more job involved than organised private sector participants ($\overline{X}$ = 2.68). The hypothesis is supported.

Table 4.12: Multiple Comparison Analysis (LSD) of Job Involvement and Sectorial Type

	Public sector	Organised private sector	Self-employed sector	N	$\overline{X}$	SD
Public sector				168	2.33	0.62
Organised private sector	0.36*			168	2.68	0.49
Self-employed sector	0.01	0.37*		168	2.32	0.65

*P<.05

The fourth hypothesis stated that participants from public sector will indicate turnover intention more than participants from organised private sector or self-employed sector. The result of one-way ANOVA on Table 4.13 reveals a significant influence of sector on turnover intention, F(2/502, P<.001).

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Table 4.13: One-way ANOVA Showing Turnover Intention and Sectorial Type

Variable	Source	Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	P
Turnover Intention:	Between group	162.798	2	81.399	255	<.001
	Within group	159.929	502	0.319		
	Total	322.722	504			

The multiple comparison analysis of means of participants of the three sectors on Table 4.14 shows that public sector participants ($\overline{X}$ = 2.99) were significantly higher in turnover intention more than organised private sector participants ($\overline{X}$=1.77), and self-employed sector participants ($\overline{X}$=2.96).

Table 4.14: Multiple Comparisons Analysis (LSD) of turnover intention and Sectorial Type

	Public sector	Organised private Sector	Self-employed Sector	N	$\overline{X}$	SD
Public sector				168	2.99	0.47
Organised Private Sector	1.22**			168	1.77	0.27
Self-employed sector	1.10*	1.19*		168	2.96	0.82

P<.05*

P<.01**

The fifth hypothesis predicts that participants from the self-employed sector will be higher on the various dimensions of personal values than participants from the organised private sector or public sector. The result of the One-Way ANOVA on Table 4.15 confirmed the hypothesis for all the dimensions of personal values: Conformity, $F_{(2/502)}=12.41$, P<.001; Tradition, $F_{(2/502)}=13.10$, P<.001; Benevolence, $F_{(2/502)}=3.35$, P<.05; Universalism, $F_{(2/502)}=11.88$, P<.001; Self-direction, $F_{(2/502)}=2.49$, P<.05; Stimulation $F_{(2/502)}=4.67$, P<.05; Hedonism, $F_{(2/502)}=21.85$, P<.001; Achievement, $F_{(2/502)}=1.75$, P<.05; Power, $F_{(2/502)}=2.87$, P<.05; Security, $F_{(2/502)}=6.81$, P<.001.

Table 4.15: One –way ANOVA of Personal Values Dimensions and Sectorial Type

Variables		Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
Conformity	Between group Within group Total	15.913 321.176 337.089	2 502 504	7.956 0.641	12.411	<.001
Tradition	Between group Within group Total	20.581 393.542 414.123	2 502 504	10.290 0.786	13.100	<.001
Benevolence	Between group Within group Total	11.437 854.308 865.746	2 502 504	5.719 1.705	3.354	<.05
Universalism	Between group Within group Total	24.331 512.880 537.211	2 502 504	12.166 1.024	11.884	<.001
Self-direction	Between group Within group Total	6.395 545.468 551.862	2 502 504	3.197 1.089	2.937	<.05
Stimulation	Between group Within group Total	15.132 810.725 825.857	2 502 504	7.566 1.618	4.676	<.05
Hedonism	Between group Within group Total	64.566 740.409 804.976	2 502 504	32.283 1.478	21.845	<.001
Achievement	Between group Within group Total	5.382 770.365 775.738	2 502 504	2.691 1.538	1.750	<.05
Power	Between group Within group Total	7.694 671.615 679.309	2 502 504	3.847 1.341	2.870	<.05
Security	Between group Within group Total	10.333 379.952 390.285	2 502 504	5.166 0.758	6.812	<.001

Multiple comparison analysis of personal values dimensions on Table 4.15 reveal that self-employed sector participants' mean value on all the dimensions of personal values were significantly higher than that of participants from organised private sector. Self-employed ($\overline{X}$ = 3.48), Organised private sector ($\overline{X}$= 3.04), t=0.43, P<.05 (conformity); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$= 3.48), organised private sector ($\overline{X}$=2.99), t=0.48,

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P<.05 (tradition); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=3.62), organised private sector ($\overline{X}$=3.10), t=0.53, P<.05, (universalism); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=3.54), organised private sector ($\overline{X}$=3.26), t=0.28, P<.05, (self-direction); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=3.46), organised private sector ($\overline{X}$ = 3.15), t=0.42, P<.05, (stimulation); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$= 3.70), organised private sector ($\overline{X}$=2.82), t =0.88, P<.05 (hedonism); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=3.47) organised private sector ($\overline{X}$=3.22), t =0.26. P<.05 (power); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=3.45), organised private sector ($\overline{X}$=3.11), t = 0.34, P<.05, (security). It suggests that people go into self-employed venture because their personal values are such that they may not be comfortable or put in their best in the organised private sector. Moreover, they have the opportunity to operate their businesses according to the detect of their personal values.

Self-employed sector participants were significantly higher than public sector participants on these dimensions of personal values: self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=3.48), public sector ($\overline{X}$=3.30), t=0.18, P<.05, (conformity); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=3.54), public sector ($\overline{X}$=3.18) t=0.36, P<.05, (benevolence); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=3.62), public sector ($\overline{X}$=3.27), t=0.36, P<.05 (universalism); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=3.70), public sector ($\overline{X}$=3.21), t=0.49, P<.05 (hedonism); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=3.47), public sector ($\overline{X}$=3.21), t=0.27, P<.05 (power); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=3.45), public sector ($\overline{X}$=3.32), t=0.23, P<.05 (security). This suggests that people go into self-employed sector because these dimensions of their personal values may not offer them the opportunity they needed for success or high achievement in life in the public sector. Moreover public sector is known for redtapism, delay and nonchalant attitude to job which is not the case with the self-employed. The hypothesis is therefore partially confirmed.

Table 4.16: Multiple Comparison Analysis (LSD) of Personal Values Dimensions on Sectorial Type

Dependent Variables		Public sector	Organised private sector	Self-employed sector	N	$\overline{X}$	SD
Conformity	Public sector				168	3.30	0.83
	Organised private sector	0.26*			168	3.04	0.78
	Self-employed sector	0.18*	0.43*		168	3.48	0.76
Tradition	Public sector				168	3.34	1.05
	Organised private sector	0.35*			168	2.99	0.81
	Self-employed sector	0.13	0.48*		168	3.48	0.78
Benevolence	Public sector				168	3.18	1.55
	Organised private sector	0.10			168	3.28	1.21
	Self-employed sector	0.36*	0.26*		168	3.54	1.12
Universalism	Public sector				168	3.27	1.21
	Organised private sector	0.17			168	3.10	0.89
	Self-employed sector	0.36*	0.53*		168	3.62	0.89
Self-direction	Public sector				168	3.41	1.14
	Organised private sector	0.15			168	3.26	1.00
	Self-employed sector	0.13	0.28*		168	3.54	0.98
Stimulation	Public sector				168	3.20	1.41
	Organised private sector	0.16			168	3.15	1.25
	Self-employed sector	0.27*	0.42*		168	3.46	1.14
Hedonism	Public sector				168	3.21	0.41
	Organised private sector	0.39*			168	2.82	1.19
	Self-employed sector	0.49*	0.88*		168	3.70	1.02
Achievement	Public sector				168	3.27	1.43
	Organised private sector	0.12			168	3.15	1.56
	Self-employed sector	0.13	0.25*		168	3.40	1.11
Power	Public sector				168	3.21	1.27
	Organised private sector	0.01			168	3.22	1.89
	Self-employed sector	0.27*	0.26*		168	3.47	1.06
Security	Public sector				168	3.22	0.98
	Organised private sector	0.11			168	3.11	0.89
	Self-employed sector	0.23*	0.34*		168	3.45	0.72

*P<.05

The sixth hypothesis predicted that participants from the self-employed sector will be higher on the various dimensions of job characteristics than participants in the organised private sector or public sector. The result of the One-Way ANOVA on Table 4.16 reveals a significant difference among self-employed sector participants, organised private sector participants and public sector participants, on all the dimensions of job characteristics: Skill variety, $F(2/502)=9.13$, $P<.001$; task identity, $F(2/502)=5.72$, $P<.01$; task significance, $F(2/502)=133.64$, $P<.001$; autonomy, $F(2/502)=13.05$, $P<.01$; feedback from the job, $F(2/502)=132.53$, $P<.001$; feedback from agent $F(2/502)=87.46$, $P<.001$; dealing with others, $F(2/502)=302.10$, $P<.001$.

Table 4:16: One – Way ANOVA Job Characteristics Dimensions on Sectorial Type

Variables		Sum of squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P
Skill variety	Between group Within group Total	34.580 983.973 983,554	2 502 504	7.956 0.641	12.411	<.001
Task identity	Between group Within group Total	25.574 1121.051 1146.625	2 502 504	10.290 0.786	13.100	<.001
Task significance	Between group Within group Total	381.049 714.272 1095.321	2 502 504	5.719 1.705	3.354	<.05
Autonomy	Between group Within group Total	26.102 1116.479 1142.582	2 502 504	12.166 1.024	11.884	<.001
Feedback from the job	Between group Within group Total	265.063 874.603 1139.666	2 502 504	3.197 1.089	2.937	<.05
Feedback from agent	Between group Within group Total	338.739 970.260 1309.000	2 502 504	7.566 1.618	4.676	<.05
Dealing with others	Between group Within group Total	604.190 879.810 1484.000	2 502 504	32.283 1.478	21.845	<.001

The result of multiple comparison analysis on Table 4.17 indicates that self-employed sector participants were significantly higher on some dimensions of job characteristics than organised private sector or public sector participants. Self-employed sector participants were significantly higher on the following dimensions of job characteristics variable than organised private sector participants: skill variety: self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=4.35), organised private sector ($\overline{X}$ = 3.75), t = 0.60, P<.05; task significance: self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$ = 5.99), organised private sector ($\overline{X}$ = 4.25), t = 1.75, P<.05; feedback from job: self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$ = 5.69), organised private sector ($\overline{X}$ = 4.47), t =1.23, P< .05; dealing with others: self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$ = 6.06), organised private sector ($\overline{X}$ = 4.25), t = 1.81, P<.05. This suggests that self-employed are

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very much attached to their jobs because the job possesses these dimensions of job characteristics they needed for success. While organised private sector workers are often controlled by management who may influence the workers to some extent, regardless of these important dimensions of job characteristics.

Table 4:18: Multiple Comparisons Analysis (LSD) of Job Characteristics Dimensions on Sectorial Types

Variables		Public sector	Organized private sector	Self-employed sector	N	$\overline{X}$	SD
Skill variety	Public sector				168	4.25	1.36
	Organised private sector	0.50*			168	3.75	1..31
	Self-employed sector	0.10	0.60*		168	4.35	1.45
Task identity	Public sector				168	3.89	1.48
	Organised private sector	0.49*			168	4.38	1.28
	Self-employed sector	0.47*	0.15		168	4.36	1.70
Task significance	Public sector				168	4.07	1.45
	Organised private sector	0.18			168	4.25	1.28
	Self-employed sector	1.93*	1.75*		168	5.99	0.74
Autonomy	Public sector				168	3.93	0.96
	Organised private sector	0.24*			168	4.17	1.06
	Self-employed sector	0.56*	0.32*		168	4.49	2.15
Feedback from job	Public sector				168	3.97	1.72
	Organised private sector	1.73*			168	4.47	1.23
	Self-employed sector	0.50*	1.23*		168	5.69	0.89
Feedback from agent	Public sector				168	3.91	1.65
	Organised private sector	0.67*			168	4.57	1.29
	Self-employed sector	1.31*	1.97*		168	2.60	1.19
Dealing with others	Public sector				168	3.44	1.70
	Organised private sector	0.81*			168	4.25	7.40
	Self-employed sector	2.62*	1.81*		168	6.06	0.64

*P<.05

Self-employed sector participants were significantly higher on the following dimensions of job characteristics than public sector participants: self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=4.36), public sector ($\overline{X}$=3.89), t=1.93, p<.05 (task identity); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=4.49), public sector ($\overline{X}$=3.39), t=0.56, p<.05 (autonomy); self-employed sector ($\overline{X}$=6.06), public sector ($\overline{X}$=3.44), t=2.62, p<.05. It suggests that people in the self-employed sector need these dimensions of job characteristics for success in their job than people from the public sector. Public sector workers are often guided by the laid down rules and regulations which may not have regard for those dimensions of job characteristics.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

1. Self-direction dimension of personal values and task significance dimension of job characteristics significantly predict job involvement for all the participants; self-direction dimension of personal values and dealing with others dimension of job characteristics significantly predict job involvement for all the participants in the public sector; finally, benevolence and achievement dimensions of personal values significantly predict job involvement for all the participants in the organised private and self-employed sectors respectively.

2. Tradition, stimulation and self-direction dimensions of personal values, task significance, feedback from job and dealing with others dimensions of job characteristics significantly predict turnover intention for all the participants; stimulation and hedonism dimensions of personal values significantly predict turnover intention for all the participants in the public sector; benevolence

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dimension of personal values, autonomy and feedback from agent dimensions of job characteristics significantly predict turnover intention for all the participants in the organised private and self-employed sectors respectively.

3. Self-employed sector participants were significantly job involved more than the public sector or organised private sector participants.

4. Public sector participants significantly indicated higher level of turnover intention from job more than organised private sector or self-employed sector participants.

5. Self-employed sector participants were significantly higher than the organised private sector or public sector participants on the dimensions of personal values.

6. Self-employed sector participants were significantly higher on the dimensions of job characteristics more than organised private sector or public sector participants.

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1   DISCUSSION

The findings and implications of this research are discussed in this chapter in respect of the hypotheses tested, and conclusions drawn and recommendations made. Personal values influence people's way of life and behaviour, choice of career, profession, place of residence and even concern for health. Personal values of workers in any work organisation to a reasonable extent help them to identify with the organisation and be job involved if the organisational values are congruent with their personal values; and may show turnover intention if the organisation's values and their personal values are incongruent. Job characteristics on the other hand, are concerned with the nature and requirements of the job which psychologically impact on the employees. Different jobs have different attraction and/or repulsion for workers sometimes based on the sector of the employment. This study is directed on statistically testing six stated hypotheses.

Hypothesis one states that personal values and perceived job characteristics will independently and jointly influence job involvement of participants. The result obtained in hypothesis one revealed that for all the participants, self-direction dimension of personal values and task significance of job characteristics contributed significantly to job involvement. Self-direction in the present context is needed for independent thought and action, creative and action. The result supports Chughtiai (2008), Kirby and Richard (2000) assertion that a job involved worker derives his living on the job and that the job is an important part of his psychological life. The result also supports the findings of De Beuchkelaer (2005), Davidov (2008), Saris and Gallhoner (2007), Welkenhuysen-Gybels

(2004) who found out that factory workers and public employees were susceptible to operations of stimulation, self-direction and achievement. Task significance, which stands for the ability of a job to exert positive influence beyond the members of the organisation, is of great importance to the workers. It supports Chu and Lai's (2011) findings that the more workers find their task significant, the stronger their ability for problem solving. Cappelli and Rogovsky (2008) confirmed that task significance had a significant relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). OCB according to Organ, Podsakoff and Mackenzie (2006) refers to individual behaviour that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal system and that in aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organisation.

The result in hypothesis one revealed that in public sector participants, self-direction dimension of personal values and dealing with others dimension of job characteristics significantly contributed in job involvement. Self-direction in the present context is needed for independent thought and action, creative and exploring. This result supports Chughtai (2008), Kirby and Richard (2000) when they asserted that a job involved worker does his living on the job; and that the job is an important part of his psychological life. They observed further that the interest of such a worker is that organisation, and the core of his self-image, the essential part of his identity is greatly affected by the kind of job he does or how well he does it. The result is also confirmed by the findings of De Beuckelaer (2005), Davidov (2008), Saris and Gallhoner (2007), Welkenhuysen-Gybels (2004), who found that factory workers and public employees were susceptible to operations of stimulation, self-direction and achievement. It follows that since self-direction or the need for independent thought and action, creative and

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exploring was given the opportunity to be expressed, the workers had to do so by being job involved.

The result in hypothesis one revealed that in organised private sector, benevolence and achievement dimensions of personal values significantly contributed to job involvement. Benevolence value in the present context stands for preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact, helpful, honest, forgiving, loyal and responsible. This value may be difficult to exhibit by the participants in organized private sector because the sector is profit-oriented. Knafo and Sagiv (2004) confirmed that realistic occupations, such as production and maintenance correlated significantly with hedonism and tradition, and with benevolence, universalism and self-direction in job involvement. As a matter of fact, this may suggest why there is correlation between benevolence and job involvement. Moreover, the findings appear to agree with Sapienza et al (2010) findings that the values that mostly impacted on acculturation orientations were self-transcendence and conservation; benevolence being one of the component values of self-transcendence, was given adequate opportunity to be exercised in this sector.

The result in hypothesis one revealed that in self-employed sector, power dimension of personal values contributed significantly to job involvement. Power in the present context stands for attainment of social status, prestige and control or dominance over people and resources. This result is correlated by Schwartz (1992) theory that individual interests are opposed to activities that serve collective interests. Schwartz (1992) further observed that such values as power, achievement, hedonism and self-direction serve individual interest. Mumford, Helton, Decker, Connelly and Van Doom

(2003) observed that people who were concerned with their own personal gain and valuing power were more likely to make unethical decision and logically become job involved. Perhaps this is so in self-employed sector because it is characterised by survival of the fittest environment.

Hypothesis two stated that personal values and perceived job characteristics will independently and jointly influence turnover intention from job. The result obtained in hypothesis two, revealed that for participants in general, tradition, stimulation and self-direction dimensions of personal values and task significance, feedback from job and dealing with others of job characteristics dimensions jointly contributed significantly to turnover intention from job by the participants. The significant contribution of tradition to turnover intention is confirmed by Schwartz (1994; 2006) postulation that tradition value is derived from the smooth functioning and survival of groups which is based on respect of tradition, humble, devotion, accepting one's proportions of life and being moderated. Bardi and Schwartz (2003) observed that tradition and stimulation values have a high correlation with common behaviours such as turnover intention when it is not favourable. Stimulation also contributed significantly to turnover intention. This suggests that the job offers no opportunity for adventure, challenges and risk taking and the workers are not perturbed either. Roberts and Robin (2000) confirmed that values are motivated forces that exert fairly permanent influence on our attitudes to life and enable us to approach or avoid situations or events. Koivula (2008) observed that personality trait of conscientiousness correlates negatively with stimulation and universalism values, hence the turnover intention from the job.

Task significance, feedback from job and dealing with others dimensions of job characteristics contributed significantly to turnover intention. Task significance, feedback from job and dealing with others were found important to participants in general; they will not want to withdraw from job since their operations are not seriously felt by the organisation. Curral, Towler, Judge and Kohn (2005); Motowidlo (2009); Tekleab, Bartol, and Liu (2005); and Trevor, Gerhart and Boudreau (1997) observed that the link between actual pay and both performance and employee retention is too weak at best. Vandenberghe and Tremblay (2008) did agree with this result because they observed that the effect of pay satisfaction on intended turnover is fully mediated by effective commitment and perceived sacrifice commitment.

The result in hypothesis two showed that in public sector participants, stimulation and hedonism dimensions of personal values contributed significantly in turnover intention from job. It suggests that the sector did not offer the participants opportunity for adventure, challenge and risk-taking, hence they exhibit turnover intention from job. Schwartz (2005) observed that rational formal organisations with task specialisation, a chain of command and a span of control create conditions that conflict with the growth needs of individual employees and result in socialisation that places a higher priority on security and material rewards than on self-direction or stimulation. This suggests why correlation between stimulation and turnover intention is negative. Hedonism contributed significantly in turnover intention indicating that this sector does not satisfy employees' leisure and good time value hence their decision to remain. This result is further confirmed by postulation of Schwartz (1992; 1994) that such values as power,

achievement, hedonism, stimulation and self-direction serve individual interest, hence hedonism and stimulation predict turnover intention.

The result in hypothesis two showed in organised private sector, benevolence dimension of personal values and autonomy dimension of job characteristics jointly and significantly contributed to turnover intention. It suggests that participants whose benevolence value, that is, need for preservation and enhancement of welfare of people with whom they are in contact or working in the sector are low or negative in this sector will indicate intention to stay. Schwartz (1992; 1994) observed that benevolence value is based on the need for positive interaction in order to promote the flourishing of groups as well as need for affiliation. It follows logically that such benevolence value is not recognised in this sector, hence the participants exhibit their turnover intention. Knafo and Sagiv (2004) also observed that realistic occupations such as production and maintenance correlated with benevolence. The correlation between benevolence and turnover intention is negative. Autonomy contributed significantly to turnover intention. The contribution of autonomy suggests that their job allows the participants to exercise choice and discretion, hence their intention to remain. Anderson and Williams (1996) support this result when they observed that job autonomy and job interdependence stimulate organisational citizenship behaviour. The result appears to lend support to Sapienza et al (2010) findings that the more job autonomy and task significance, the stronger ability of problem solving and the higher passion for innovation occurs.

The result in hypothesis two revealed that self-employed sector participants' feedback from agent's dimension of job characteristics contributed significantly to turnover intention. Feedback from agent means getting clear information about one's

performance from supervisors or co-workers. It suggests that participants whose feedback from the co-workers or supervisor is negative are likely to indicate turnover intention. De Lange, Taris, Kompier, Houtman and Bongers (2002; 2003) confirmed that negative feedback from agents lead to absenteeism and ultimately to employee turnover. Moreover, Chiu and Chen (2005) observed that feedback from agents, job identity and autonomy were not significantly related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis three stated that participants from self-employed sector will be significantly more job involved than participants from public sector or organised private sector. The hypothesis was confirmed as self-employed sector participants were more job involved than participants from public sector or organised private sector. Schwartz (2005) supports this result when he observed that rational formal organisations with task specialisation, a chain of command and span of control create conditions that conflict with growth needs of individual employees and result in socialisation that places a higher priority on material rewards than on self-direction. Moreover, Brown (2007), Chughtai (2008) corroborates this result as their findings revealed that job involvement is related to such job characteristics as task autonomy, task significance, task identity, skill variety and feedback from job. Moreover, Steel and Rentsch (1997) found a positive association between job characteristics and job involvement among private or self-employed workers. Brown (1996) found that the five job characteristics excluding autonomy have positive relationship with job involvement among private or self-employed workers. These are job characteristics that are necessary for successful career in the self-employed sector. Eze's (1995) observation that Nigeria public sector workers have poor job attitude

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and therefore less job involved than their self-employed and organised private sector counterparts supports this result.

Hypothesis four stated that the participants from public sector will significantly indicate turnover intention more than participants from organised private or self-employed sector. The hypothesis was confirmed as public sector participants significantly indicated turnover intention more than participants from organised private or self-employed sector. Nnedum and Egwu (2004) confirms this result when he found that Nigeria public sector workers have poor job attitude and therefore less job involved than their organised private sector counterparts. It suggests that public sector participants should therefore show turnover intention from their job more than private or self-employed sector participants. It suggests also that none of the dimensions of their personal values is motivating enough to make them remain on their job. This may equally be explained by cultural theory of value by Schwartz (1994; 2006) that common values ensure that members of a society understood each other, and without a great deal of negotiation pursue similar goals in a compatible way; and at level of society, values guide the fulfillment of the biological and social needs of individuals. This explains to some extent why public sector workers often embark on strike to compel the government of the day to grant their request.

Based on perceived job characteristics, the public sector participants' turnover intention could not be unconnected with their job characteristics. This is corroborated by the findings of Schalk and Van Rijekeversel (2007) that frequency of absenteeism and intention to leave were mainly influenced by the characteristics of the job. Many of the dimensions of job characteristics are lacking in the public sector. The result of this

hypothesis is supported by Bruno and Lay (2008); Hulst, Van Oler & Geuts (2001); Trevor, Guerhart and Boudreau (1997) findings that highly paid workers have less turnover intention or low turnover rate than lowly paid workers; and there are general understanding and belief that organised private and self-employed sector workers enjoy attractive pay packets or income and a lot of fringe benefits or incentives more than public sector workers.

Hypothesis five stated that self-employed sector participants will be significantly higher than public sector or organised private sector participants on the various dimensions of personal values. The hypothesis was not confirmed as self-employed sector participants were not significantly higher than public sector participants or organised private sector participants in all the dimensions of personal values. Self-employed sector participants were significantly higher than both public sector and organised private sector participants on conformity, benevolence, universalism, stimulation, hedonism and security values. Conformity and security values are in the conservation sphere; benevolence and universalism values are in the self-transcendence sphere; stimulation value is in the openness to change sphere; while hedonism value is in both self-enhancement and openness to change spheres, all of structured value systems postulated by Schwartz (1992). According to Schwartz (1992; 1994), conservative values emphasize protection and stability, transcendence values are concerned with enhancement of others and transcendence of self-interest; openness to change value is concerned with intrinsic motivation for mastery and self-enhancement value is associated with self-indulgence. This postulation by Schwartz is in line with the result of this hypothesis.

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Self-employed sector participants compared with organised private sector participants alone, were higher than the latter on self-direction and achievement of personal values. It suggests that self-employed sector participants are more concerned with those values for success in the sector than organised private sector participants and more likely to be job involved than organised private sector workers who are likely to exhibit tendency to withdraw. Schwartz (1994) observed that they provide the motivational goals of self-direction (dislike to be directed and like independent thought of decision without interference by the employer or colleagues) and achievement (need to be the most successful person in the community or occupation or among the peers in the organisation). There were no significant difference between self-employed sector participants and public sector participants on some few dimensions of personal values: tradition, self-direction and achievement. It suggests that these values matter equally for success in self-employed and the public sector.

Hypothesis six stated that self-employed sector participants will be significantly higher than organised private sector participants or public sector participants on the various dimensions of job characteristics. The hypothesis was rejected/refuted as the self-employed sector participants were not higher than the organised private sector participants or public sector participants on only one of the dimensions of job characteristics. However, self-employed sector participants were significantly higher than the organised private sector participants on these dimensions of job characteristics: skill variety, task significance, autonomy, feedback from agent and dealing with others. It suggests that these dimensions of job characteristics are more important for job success in self-employed sector than in organised private sector. Chughtai (2008), Rabinowitz and

Hall (2006) observed that job involvement is related to such job characteristics as autonomy, task significance, task identity, skill variety, feedback from agent and dealing with others. This suggests that self-employed sector participants are more jobs involved than organised private sector participants. The job characteristics model by Hackman and Oldham (1980) postulates that the core job characteristics lead to critical psychological states such as experienced meaningfulness of work and an outcome which is intrinsic motivation is confirmed. Task identity, task significance, autonomy and skill variety are elements of core job characteristics, critical psychological state and an outcome which contributed significantly to intrinsic motivation, and ultimately job involvement more than organised private sector participants. It equally suggests that tendency to withdraw will be more in the organised private sector.

Self-employed sector participants were significantly higher than public sector participants in these dimensions of job characteristics: task identity, task significance, autonomy, feedback from job, feedback from agent and dealing with others. It suggests that self-employed sector participants will be more jobs involved than public sector participants because of the presence of these dimensions of job characteristics and face tendency to withdraw than the public sector participants. Moreover, task identity, autonomy and feedback from job belong to core job characteristics, critical psychological states and an outcome. Under critical psychological states, task identity is subsumed in experienced meaningfulness of the work and its outcome is high intrinsic motivation. Autonomy under critical psychological states is subsumed in experienced responsibility for work outcome and its outcome is high job satisfaction. Feedback from job under critical psychological states is subsumed in knowledge of results of work outcome and its

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outcome is high work effectiveness. These are some of the important characteristics of job characteristics that make participants from self-employed sector to be more jobs involved than participants from the public sector. Chughtai (2008); Robinowitz and Hall (2006) observed that certain job characteristics influence the degree to which an individual becomes involved in his or her job.

5.2   CONCLUSION

The study has been able to identify the personal values and perceived job characteristics dimensions that influence job involvement and turnover intention of participants in general, public sector participants, organised private sector participants and self-employed sector participants. Moreover, the study was able to identify that the sectors of employment of the participants have influence on their personal values or job characteristics and consequently on their job involvement or turnover intention. Self-direction and task significance dimension of personal values and job characteristics respectively significantly contributed in job involvement for all the participants. Self-direction dimension of personal values and dealing with others dimension of job characteristics significantly contributed to job involvement for all the participants in the public sector. Benevolence and achievement dimensions of personal values significantly contributed in job involvement for all the participants in the organised private and self-employed sectors respectively.

In turnover intention, for participants in general, tradition, stimulation and self-direction dimensions of personal values, task significance, feedback from job and dealing with others dimensions of job characteristics significantly contributed to turnover

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intention. For public sector participants, stimulation and hedonism significantly contributed to turnover intention. For organised private sector participants, benevolence dimension of personal values, autonomy and feedback from agent dimensions of job characteristics significantly contributed to turnover intention. Participants from self-employed sector were more jobs involved than participants from either public or organised private sectors. Participants from public sector indicate turnover intention more than participants from either organised private or self-employed sectors.

Participants from self-employed sector, public and organised private sectors did not differ significantly on the dimensions of personal values. Self-employed sector participants, organized private sector participants and public sector participants did not differ significantly on dimensions of job characteristics.

5.3   IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

For effective and complete departure from the traditional practice of viewing job involvement or turnover intention of workers through such motivational design as provision of material or monetary incentives, the present research was designed to examine the influence of personal values and perceived job characteristics on job involvement and turnover intention of workers.

Given the result obtained from the research, the following shall be considered as implications of the present finding.

1.   Employers of labour and Ministry of Labour should encourage adoption of personal values and job characteristics as alternative models to the traditional practice of motivating workers through monetary or financial incentives.

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2. Employers of labour in general should focus and improve the extent to which the job of the employees has an impact on other people, either inside or outside the organisation, that is, task significance, as it is a dimension of job characteristics that encourages and ensures job involvement. Moreover, tradition and stimulation dimensions of personal values, task significance, feedback from job and dealing with other dimensions of job characteristics of employees should be improved if they must be discouraged from indicating turnover intention.

3. Public sector employers should encourage self-direction dimension of personal values of their employees; organised private sector employers should encourage benevolence dimension of personal values of their employees and self-employed sector employers should encourage power dimension of personal values of their employees all in an effort to encourage and enhance job involvement. Moreover, to discourage the employees from exhibiting turnover intention, public sector employers should encourage stimulation and hedonism dimensions of personal values of their employees; organized private sector employers should encourage benevolence dimension of personal values and autonomy dimension of job characteristics of their employees, while self-employed sector employers should encourage feedback from agent dimension of job characteristics of their employees.

4. Employers in the public and organised private sectors should improve and enhance the personal values and job characteristics of their employees in order to make them as job involved as their self-employed sector counterparts; otherwise their intention to withdraw will be encouraged. Again, since public, organised

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private and self-employed sectors have similar attractions for employees based on their personal values and job characteristics, the employers should be aware of this and maintain it so that no employee will indicate interest in one sector over other sectors.

5.   It is necessary that psychological perspective of job involvement and turnover intention is pursued seriously. It is recommended that employers of labour in all sectors of our economy including the government agents concerned should engage the services of psychology experts, particularly industrial/organisational psychologists, if they really want to encourage job involvement and discourage job turnover or turnover intention.

5.4   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The present study is a cross-section survey, and could not include all the workers in the public sector, organised private sector and self-employed sector. This is not unique to the present study alone but is common to all survey studies. Further studies should cover all Igbo speaking states in order to make the findings more generalisable. Moreover, other states of Nigeria should be covered also. Military and paramilitary institutions should as well be included in future studies.

Psychological effects of personal values and job characteristics were used in the present study; future research should include organisational citizenship behaviour, total quality management and organisational culture. Experimental perspective of similar studies should be encouraged in future work.

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APPENDIX I
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am carrying out research on how people's personal values and the way they see their job or business influence their attitudes to their job or business. All information provided will be treated confidentially and will be used strictly for academic purposes.

The information sought from you are provided in Section A through F.

SECTION A

Check the statement that applied to you by ticking the appropriate box to the right of the statement.

1.   Sex: Male ☐   Female ☐

2.   Age: 18yrs – 25yrs ☐   26yrs – 32yrs ☐   33yrs – 39yrs ☐
              40yrs – 46yrs ☐   47yrs and above ☐

3.   Job experience: How long have you been in the present job or business?

4.   Educational qualification.
      1.   First school leaving certificate (FSLC) ☐
      2.   West African School Certificate/G.C.E or the equivalent ☐
      3.   N.C.E; O.N.D ☐
      4.   First degree/H.N.D ☐
      5.   Above first degree ☐

5.   Income per annum ☐

6.   Rank ☐

7.   Employer: Government ☐   Company ☐   Self-employed ☐

8.   Place of work: Awka ☐   Onitsha ☐   Nnewi ☐

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APPENDIX II (SECTION A)
PERSONAL VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE (PVQ)

Here we briefly describe some people. Please read each description and think about how much each person is or is not like you. Thick in the box to the right that shows how much the person in the description is like you.

The numbers stand for: 1 = very much like me, 2 = like me, 3 = somewhat like me, 4 = a little like me, 5 = not like me, 6 = not like me at all.

1	Thinking up new ideas and being creative is important to him. He likes to do things in his own original way.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	It is important to him to be rich. He wants to have a lot of money and expensive things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	He thinks it is important that every person in the world be treated equally. He believes everyone should have equal opportunities in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	It's very important to him to show his abilities. He wants people to admire what he does.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	It is important to him to live in secure surroundings. He avoids anything that might endanger his safety.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	He thinks it is important to do lots of different things in life. He always looks for new things to try.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	He believes that people should do what they're told. He thinks people should follow rules at all times, even when no-one is watching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	It is important to him to listen to people who are different from him. Even when he disagrees with them, he still wants to understand them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	He thinks it's important **not** to ask for more than what you have. He believes that people should be satisfied with what they have.	1	2	3	4	5	6

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10	He seeks every chance he can to have fun. It is important to him to do things that give him pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	It is important to him to make his own decisions about what he does. He likes to be free to plan and choose his activities for himself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	It's very important to him to help people around him. He wants to care for their well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Being very successful is important to him. He likes to impress other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	It is very important to him that his country be safe. He thinks that the state must be on watch against threats from within and without.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	He likes to take risks. He is always looking for adventures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	It is important to him always to behave properly. He wants to avoid doing anything people should say is wrong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	It is important to him to be in charge and tell others what to do. He wants people to do what he says.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	It is important to him to be loyal to his friends. He wants to devote himself to people close to him.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	He strongly believes that people should care for nature. Looking after the environment is important to him.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Religious belief is important to him. He tries hard to do what his religion requires.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	It is important to him that things be organised and clean. He really does **not** like things to be a mess.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	He thinks it's important to be interested in things. He likes to be curious and try to understand all sorts of things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	He believes all the worlds' people should live in harmony. Promoting peace among all groups in the world is important to him.	1	2	3	4	5	6

24	He thinks it is important to be ambitious. He wants to show how capable he is.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	He thinks it is important to do things in traditional ways. It is important to him to keep up the customs he has learned.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Enjoying life's pleasures is important to him. He likes to spoil himself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	It is important to him to respond to the needs of others. He tries to support those he knows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	He believes he should always show respect to his parents and to older people. It is important to him to be obedient.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	He wants everyone to be treated justly, even people he doesn't know. It is important to him to protect the weak in society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	He likes surprises. It is important to him to have an exciting life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	He tries hard to avoid getting sick. Staying healthy is very important to him.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Getting ahead in life is important to him. He strives to do better than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	Forgiving people who have hurt him is important to him. He tries to see what is good in them and not to hold a grudge.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	It is important to him to be independent. He likes to rely on himself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	Having a stable government is important to him. He is concerned that the social order be protected.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	It is important to him to be polite to other people all the time. He tries never to disturb or irritate others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	He really wants to enjoy life. Having a good time is very important to him.	1	2	3	4	5	6

38	It is important to him to be humble and modest. He tries to draw attention to himself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	He always wants to be the one who makes the decisions. He likes to be the leader.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	It is important to him to adapt to nature and to fit into it. He believes that people should not change nature.	1	2	3	4	5	6

This scale is for male participants only.

PERSONAL VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE (PVQ)

Here we briefly describe some people. Please read each description and think about how much each person is or is not like you. Thick in the box to the right that shows how much the person in the description is like you.

The numbers stand for: 1 = very much like me, 2 = like me, 3 = somewhat like me, 4 = a little like me, 5 = not like me, 6 = not like me at all.

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3	She thinks it is important that every person in the world be treated equally. She believes everyone should have equal opportunities in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	It's very important to her to show her abilities. She wants people to admire what she does.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	It is important to her to live in secure surroundings. She avoids anything that might endanger her safety.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	She thinks it is important to do lots of different things in life. She always looks for new things to try.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	She believes that people should do what they're told. She thinks people should follow rules at all times, even when no-one is watching.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	It is important to her to listen to people who are different from her. Even when she disagrees with them, she still wants to understand them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	She thinks it's important **not** to ask for more than what you have. She believes that people should be satisfied with what they have.	1	2	3	4	5	6

10	She seeks every chance she can to have fun. It is important to her to do things that give her pleasure.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	It is important to her to make her own decisions about what she does. She likes to be free to plan and choose her activities for herself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	It's very important to her to help people around her. She wants to care for their well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Being very successful is important to her. She likes to impress other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	It is very important to her that her country be safe. She thinks that the state must be on watch against threats from within and without.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	She likes to take risks. She is always looking for adventures.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	It is important to her always to behave properly. She wants to avoid doing anything people should say is wrong.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	It is important to her to be in charge and tell others what to do. She wants people to do what she says.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	It is important to her to be loyal to her friends. She wants to devote herself to people close to her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	She strongly believes that people should care for nature. Looking after the environment is important to her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	Religious belief is important to her. She tries hard to do what her religion requires.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	It is important to her that things be organised and clean. She really does **not** like things to be a mess.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	She thinks it's important to be interested in things. She likes to be curious and try to understand all sorts of things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	She believes all the worlds' people should live in harmony. Promoting peace among all groups in the world is	1	2	3	4	5	6

	important to her.						
24	She thinks it is important to be ambitious. She wants to show how capable she is.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	She thinks it is important to do things in traditional ways. It is important to her to keep up the customs she has learned.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	Enjoying life's pleasures is important to her. She likes to spoil herself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	It is important to her to respond to the needs of others. She tries to support those she knows.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	She believes she should always show respect to her parents and to older people. It is important to her to be obedient.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	She wants everyone to be treated justly, even people she doesn't know. It is important to her to protect the weak in society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	She likes surprises. It is important to her to have an exciting life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	She tries hard to avoid getting sick. Staying healthy is very important to her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Getting ahead in life is important to her. She strives to do better than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	Forgiving people who have hurt her is important to her. She tries to see what is good in them and not to hold a grudge.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	It is important to her to be independent. She likes to rely on herself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	Having a stable government is important to her. She is concerned that the social order be protected.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	It is important to her to be polite to other people all the time. She tries never to disturb or irritate others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	She really wants to enjoy life. Having a good time is very	1	2	3	4	5	6

	important to her.						
38	It is important to her to be humble and modest. She tries to draw attention to herself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	She always wants to be the one who makes the decisions. She likes to be the leader.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	It is important to her to adapt to nature and to fit into it. She believes that people should not change nature.	1	2	3	4	5	6

This scale is for female participants only.

APPENDIX III (SECTION A)
JOB CHARACTERISTICS SCALE (JCS)

INSTRUCTION: The following are statements which describe the characteristics of jobs in many organisations. Please indicate how accurately each statement describes your present job by shading one of the numbers in front of the statements. This is not a test, so there is no right or wrong answers.

The numbers stand for: 1 = very inaccurate; 2 = mostly inaccurate; 3 = slightly inaccurate; 4 = uncertain; 5 = slightly accurate; 6 = mostly accurate; 7 = very accurate.

PLEASE RESPOND TO ALL THE ITEMS

A.	1.	The job requires me to do many different things, using a number of different skills and talents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	2.	The job requires me to use a number of complex or high level skill.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	3.	The job is simple and repetitive.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B.	4.	My job involves doing the whole piece of work from start to finish, the results of my activities are easily seen in the final products or service.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	5.	The job is arranged in such a way that I do not have to do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	6.	The job provides me the chance to completely finish the piece of work I begin.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C.	7.	The outcomes of my work can affect other people in very important ways.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	8.	The job is done where a lot of other people can be affected by how well the work gets done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	9.	The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader scheme of things.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D.	10.	The job gives me almost complete responsibility for deciding how and when the job is done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	11.	The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment in carrying out the work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	12.	The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E.	13.	The job is set up so that I get almost constant "feedback" as work, about how well I am doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	14.	Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	15.	The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F.	16.	People almost always let me know how well I am doing on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	17.	The supervisors and coworkers on this almost never give me any "feedback" about how well I am doing in my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	18.	Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
G.	19.	Dealing with other people is an absolute essential and crucial part of doing the job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	20.	The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	21.	The job can be done adequately by a person working alone without talking or checking with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Developed by J. R. Hackman & G. R. Oldham (1975)

For public sector and organised private sectors participants.

JOB CHARACTERISTICS SCALE (JCS)

INSTRUCTION: The following are statements which describe the characteristics of jobs in many businesses. Please indicate how accurately each statement describes your present business by shading one of the numbers in front of the statements. This is not a test, so there is no right or wrong answers.

The numbers stand for: 1 = very inaccurate; 2 = mostly inaccurate; 3 = slightly inaccurate; 4 = uncertain; 5 = slightly accurate; 6 = mostly accurate; 7 = very accurate.

PLEASE RESPOND TO ALL THE ITEMS

A.	1.	My business requires me to do many different things, using a number of different skills and talents.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	2.	My business requires me to use a number of complex or high level skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	3.	My business is simple and is always carried out the same way.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
B.	4.	My business involves doing the whole piece of work from start to finish, the result of my activities are easily seen in the amount of goods sell.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	5.	My business is arranged in such a way that I do an entire piece of work from beginning to end.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	6.	The nature of my business is such that some traders sell similar commodities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
C.	7.	The outcomes of my business can affect other people in very important ways.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	8.	This business is done where a lot of people can be affected by how well the business gets done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	9.	This business itself is not very significant or important when compared with other human endeavours or business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
D.	10.	My business gives me almost complete responsibilities for deciding how and when the business is done.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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			1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	11.	My business denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgement in carrying out the business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	12.	My business gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom on how I do the business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
E.	13.	My business is such that I get almost constant feedback about how well I am doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	14.	Just doing the work required by the business provides many chances for me to know how well I am doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	15.	My business itself provides very few indicators about whether or not I am performing well.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
F.	16.	People almost always let me know how well I am doing on the business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	17.	My business associates almost never give any feedback about how well I am doing in my business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	18.	My business associates often let me know how well they think I am performing the business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
G.	19.	Dealing with other people is an absolute essential and crucial part of doing business.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	20.	My business requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	21.	My business can be done adequately by a person working alone without talking or checking with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

For self-employed sector participants.

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JOB INVOLVEMENT SCALE (JIS)

INSTRUCTION: The following are statements designed to find out your attitude to your present job. It is not a test, so there is no right or wrong answers. Please read each statement carefully and shade the appropriate number to the right of the statement to indicate your feelings to your job.

The numbers stand for: 1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Disagree;

4 = Strongly disagree.

1.	I'll stay overtime to finish a job, even if I'm not paid for it.	1	2	3	4
2.	You can measure a person pretty well by how good a job he/she does.	1	2	3	4
3.	The major satisfaction in my life comes from my job.	1	2	3	4
4.	For me, mornings at work really fly by.	1	2	3	4
5.	I usually show up for work a little early, to get things ready.	1	2	3	4
6.	The most important things that happen to me involve my work.	1	2	3	4
7.	Sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day's work	1	2	3	4
8.	I'm really a perfectionist about my work.	1	2	3	4
9.	I feel depressed when I fail at something connected with my job.	1	2	3	4
10.	I have other activities more important than my work.	1	2	3	4
11.	I live, eat and breathe my job.	1	2	3	4
12.	I would probably keep working even if I didn't need the money.	1	2	3	4
13.	Quite often I feel like working even if I didn't need the money.	1	2	3	4
14.	To me, my work is only a small part of who I am.	1	2	3	4
15.	I am very much involved personally in my work.	1	2	3	4
16.	I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work.	1	2	3	4
17.	I used to be more ambitious about my work than I am now.	1	2	3	4
18.	Most things in life are more important than work.	1	2	3	4
19.	I used to care more about my work, but now other things are more important to me.	1	2	3	4
20.	Sometimes I'd like to kick myself for the mistakes I make in my work.	1	2	3	4

Developed by Lodahl & Kejner (1965).

For public sector and organised private sector participants.

JOB INVOLVEMENT SCALE (JIS)

INSTRUCTION: The following are statements designed to find out your attitude to your present job. It is not a test, so there is no right or wrong answers. Please read each statement carefully and shade the appropriate number to the right of the statement to indicate your feelings to your job.

The numbers stand for: 1 = Strongly agree; 2 = Agree; 3 = Disagree; 4 = Strongly disagree.

		1	2	3	4
1.	I'll stay overtime to finish the business of the day even if there are no customers.	1	2	3	4
2.	You can measure a person pretty well by how hardworking he/she is on his/her business.	1	2	3	4
3.	The major satisfaction in my life comes from my business.	1	2	3	4
4.	For me, mornings at work really fly by.	1	2	3	4
5.	I usually show up for business/work a little early, to get things ready.	1	2	3	4
6.	The most important things that happen to me involve my work/business.	1	2	3	4
7.	Sometimes I lie awake at night thinking ahead to the next day's work/business.	1	2	3	4
8.	I really believe in doing my work/business very well.	1	2	3	4
9.	I feel very unhappy when I fail at something connected with my business.	1	2	3	4
10.	I have other things more important than my business.	1	2	3	4
11.	I live, eat and breathe my business; that is, all I care is very much about my business.	1	2	3	4
12.	I would probably keep my business moving even if I didn't need the money.	1	2	3	4
13.	Quite often I feel like keeping my business moving even if I didn't	1	2	3	4

	need the money.				
14.	To me, my business is only a small part of who I am.	1	2	3	4
15.	I am very much involved personally in my business.	1	2	3	4
16.	I avoid taking on extra duties and responsibilities in my work.	1	2	3	4
17.	I used to be more ambitious about my business than I am now.	1	2	3	4
18.	Most things in life are more important than work/business.	1	2	3	4
19.	I used to care more about my work/business, but now other things are more important to me.	1	2	3	4
20.	Sometimes I would like to blame myself for the mistakes I make in my work/business.	1	2	3	4

For self-employed sector participants.

TURNOVER INTENTION (TI)

INSTRUCTION: The following statements are meant to find out whether you would like to change your present job if there are opportunities for better ones elsewhere. There is no right or wrong answers because it is not a test. Read each statement carefully and encircle any of the numbers in front of each statement that describes accurately your view.

The numbers stand for:
1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Not sure
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly agree

1.	If I may choose again, I will choose to work for this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	For some time, I have been considering changing my employers.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	It is very possible that I will look for a new job next year.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I can always do without this job.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	This organisation means everything to me.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	It is only fear for the unknown that keeps me in this job.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I think I need more challenging job than the present one.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	My effort in this job will be better rewarded in another organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I sometimes absent myself from job to enable me look for job opportunities elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	If opportunity calls I will leave rather than continuing with this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5

For public sector and organised private sector participants.

INTENTION TO WITHDRAW (IWS)

INSTRUCTION: The following statements are meant to find out whether you would like to change your present job if there are opportunities for better ones elsewhere. There is no right or wrong answers because it is not a test. Read each statement carefully and encircle any of the numbers in front of each statement that describes accurately your view.

The numbers stand for: 1 = Strongly disagree

                                  2 = Disagree

                                  3 = Not sure

                                  4 = Agree

                                  5 = Strongly agree

1.	If I may choose again, I will choose my kind of business.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	For some time, I have been considering changing my kind of business.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	It is very possible that I will look for a new kind of business next year.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I can always do without this business.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	This business means everything to me.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	It is only fear for the unknown that keeps me in this business.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I think I need more challenging business than the present one.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	My effort in this business will be better rewarded in another one.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I sometimes absent myself from business to enable me look for different business opportunities elsewhere.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	If opportunity calls for employment with government or company, I will take it up rather than continuing with this business.	1	2	3	4	5

For self-employed sector participants.