VALUE ANALYSIS

IN

ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT

Carlos A. Alves Marques

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CARLOS A. ALVES MARQUES

To the memory of my father

TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPENDICES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

1. - INTRODUCTION

1.1 - WHY FOCUSSING ON VALUES IN AN ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT

In the literature about organizations of the last couple of decades a new major topic has appeared on the front, namely that of organizational culture, and within that topic the term value has become more and more prominent. This term value is used, either as a dimension or a variable with which different cultures are distinguished from one another, or as a hypothetical determinant of or a latent construct behind other cultural terms such as symbols, myths, rituals, stories, ideologies, language, legends, etc. (Pettigrew, 1979; Smircich, 1983; Schein, 1985).

The appearance of organizational culture models on the front of organizational analysis was stimulated by the failure of the classic and strictly rational or economic models to explain the different success levels of different organizations. As a result, more attention was drawn to subjective models, in which the interpretative and meaning-attribution features of organizational life are considered to be essential. Some authors (e.g. Ouchi, 1981; Peters and Waterman, 1982) do indeed clearly connect organizational culture, seen as an intersubjective entity, with the organizational results, and they advocate that it should be influenced, even 'managed' by organizations.

If we look through the organizational culture analysis literature, then it seems possible to distinguish two major lines of approaches. On the one hand, there are some models in which culture is 'a root metaphor for conceptualizing organizations' (Smircick, 1983, 1985; Frost et al., 1985). Culture in that case, is not an organizational variable, but a way of understanding organizations, culture is not something an organization has, but something the organization is.

On the other hand, there are models in which culture is treated as an organizational variable, either independent or dependent. For example, in the so called Cross Cultural or Comparative Management Model approach, culture is treated as an independent variable. Culture then is the broad framework or background factor (e.g., region or country) which penetrates in the organization and influences the values inside the organization. But in the Corporate Culture approach, culture is more a dependent variable. The organizations are treated as determinants or producers of culture (e.g., Schein, 1985; Huse and Cumming, 1985) or as "culture-bearing milieus" (Louis, 1985).

In our own work, we will follow the perspective of culture as organizational variable. Thus, we will treat organizations as places which are both 'influenced by' the surrounding culture (culture as independent variable) and as entities which themselves 'produce' (thus, culture as dependent variable) cultural artifacts, such as myths, rituals, symbols, etc., which, in turn, affect the balance of the system, its functioning and, eventually, even its success (e.g., Peters and Waterman, 1982).

In essence it is a meaning making process in which the underlying structure of meaning of the cultural artifacts exercise their observed effects.

People's perceptions and behaviors related to the organization or to their work are the result of an interpretative process, which is subjective by its very nature, involving the active participation of each individual, either at an organizational global level (unique organizational culture) as is the case for small enterprises, or at functional or professional levels inside an organization (sub-cultures) (e.g. Wilkins and Ouchi, 1983; Frost et al. 1985; Van Maanen and Barley, 1985; Louis, 1985; Schein, 1985).

Thus, the organizational culture may fulfil several functions. Smircich (1983) mentions, among others, the following functions:
a) "Convey a sense of identity for organizational members
b) Facilitate the generation of commitment to something larger than the self

c) Serve as sense-making device that can guide and shape behavior".
We will see that these culture characteristics and functions show great similarities with the role given to values, at an individual level.

The importance of the study of values is illustrated by the fact that researchers, when analysing cultural "objects", such as myths, stories, etc., attend to identify the underlying structure of meaning of those objects in terms of the beliefs, the assumptions and the values of the people involved.

Thus we find that in general culture is defined as the system of collectively accepted meanings operating for a given group at a given time (Pettigrew, 1979) or, in organizational group context, as the social or normative glue that holds an organization together and expresses the values or social ideals and beliefs that the organization members come to share (Smircich, 1983).
Very often, however, we find that the term culture is used by way of a synthetic concept in the sense of shared key values and beliefs (e.g. Jones, 1983; Smircich, 1983; Broms and Gahmberg, 1983). For Schein (1985), the essence of culture consists in the basic assumptions underlying the group's values and artifacts. Thompson and Strickland (1987), when describing the McKinsey 7 S framework of strategic analysis, consider that "shared values are the central core of the framework because they are the heart-and-soul themes around which an organization relies (...) they drive the corporate culture". For William (1979), the main cultural controls of action consist of: 1 - systems of knowledge and cognitive beliefs and 2 - systems of values and norms.

In conclusion we can say that values are attributed a central role in the literature on organization and management. Furthermore, the importance of the study of values is underscored by a number of generally accepted assumptions regarding values.

For instance, values are generally taken to be determinant of other entities such as attitudes, judgements, attributions and actions.

They are generally thought to represent central entities in the system of cognitive representations, to the extend that changes can have an important impact on other people's cognitions and on social behavior.

Values are considered to play a motivational role as action patterns or criteria in those situations where intentional and volitional behavior is involved. This role of values can be directly connected with the function of organizational culture mentioned above and it provides us with a possible heuristic tool to a deeper understanding of management styles and of organizational efficiency.

1.2 - GOALS AND OBJECT OF THE BOOK

When deciding to study values, a first problem comes up immediately: What concept of value to use? As we will see in Chapter Two, for a long time and in different branches of knowledge, the concept of value has been defined in diverse ways with consequently diverse approaches.

We use the concept of value in accordance with the traditional approach in Social Psychology, in which the departure point was based on previous anthropological perspectives. This option has several advantages, such as:
- We deal with a well developed theoretical framework.
- The theory has been operationalized into practice.
- Several times the theory was object of empirical validation.
- We can compare some of our results with previous studies.

In this theoretical framework of values, we consider two levels of values, according to their degree of abstraction: general values and work related values.

Taking Social and Management/Organizational Psychology as theoretical frameworks, we phrase and test a number of hypotheses about several antecedents and consequences of values, at both levels.

As for the antecedents, we analyze the relationships between values and personal characteristics (well studied since the seventies), individual organizational history (more foreseen theoretically than empirically confirmed), the enterprise (as value-producing phenomena) and the region.
As for the consequents, we establish some relationships between values and job and organizational perceptions, such as job characteristics or supervision, and individual organizational outputs, such as job satisfaction and extra-time at work.

1.3 - OUTLINE OF THE BOOK

In Chapter Two, we introduce the theoretical frameworks and our heuristic research model. We try to give as complete a perspective on values, general and work related, as we can and a more brief and synthetic sketch of the model and concepts used in job and organizational perceptions and individual organizational outputs. Since our interest focusses on values, individual perceptions and outputs are not exhaustively analyzed. In this chapter we review the theoretical hypotheses and empirical data already formulated or found by previous authors on antecedents and "effects" of values and job/organizational perceptions.

Chapter Three is a methodological one. Here we describe how we conducted the study, pointing out its advantages and limitations. We provide a detailed description of the methods and procedures followed in the pilot study, where we were looking for specific values in Portugal, in the construction of the survey and, finally, in the determination of the final scales used in the data analysis. We also pay attention to the evaluation of our measures by comparing our results with those of other researchers, in the case of values, and, in the case of the perception and output measures, by analysing the internal consistency through calculating the reliabilities.

In Chapter Four we present our empirical results and step by step we go through the detailed discussion of the data. Finally, Chapter Five gives a general discussion of the results, pointing out the main conclusions to be drawn from our investigation and discussing the implications of this study for the theoretical framework of corporate culture.

1.4 - IMPLICATIONS

One of the implications for Social Psychology that came out of our study is that values do have a more modest role that generally is foreseen in theory. This is true for the influence on both the perceptions and the individual outputs.

A more interesting implication, however, is that the concept of value, which is very commonly used in organization and management science, is not clearly defined. When people use it in those contexts they completely ignore the concept as it is used in Social Psychology and Anthropology. From our data it appears that an organization is not able to influence and change people's general values but it is clearly able to influence and change their work related values.

2. - THEORY

2.1 - THE CONCEPT OF VALUE

Values have attracted the attention of thinkers and researchers since a long time. Valette-Florence (1989), in his historical analysis of the evolution of approaches to values, cites grec thinkers like Socrates, Plato and Aristotle. In the approaches to the concept of value it is possible to distinguish six main strains: the philosophical, the economic, the anthropological, the sociological, the psychological and the psychosociological approaches.

According to Valette-Florence (1989), an approach within the framework of philosophy, which is still useful today, is based on the Aristotelian thought that values are essentially "conceptual", but can nevertheless be operationalized in different "real referents". For instance, peace, a general value, can be measured at different levels, such as war, social conflicts or interpersonal relationships (Valette-Florence, 1989).

It was as late as the 19th century that the first systematic and specific aproach to values was built under the name of Axiology. Here the main discussion concerned the "objective" or "subjective" character of values. Authors, who, like Russel, supporting the subjectivist position, argue that values only exist because individuals give them that existence, while the majority of philosophers support an objectivist position, like Nietsche (1844-1900), for whom values are independent of individuals and are given a subjective character by the evaluation attributed to them by the individuals. More recently the interest of philosophers has been focussed on social values which regulate and condition societies. Valette-Florence states about this approach that "les valeurs doivent être considerées comme des préferences collectives (authors' underlining) qui apparaissent dans un context institutionnel, et qui par la manière dont elles se forment contribuent à sa regulation"(1989, p.36).

The economic approach conceives values according to the "principle of utility", in which the value of an object is a function of its capacity to satisfy individuals (Bentham - 1748-1832; Buridam 1300-1358; cited by Valette-Florence, 1989). More specifically this approach studies "how the evaluation (i.e. reward value, cost and benefits) of events and cognitions (i.e. expectancies, subjective probabilities) - one may say weighted costs and benefits - influence behavior" (Opp, 1981, p.18).

The anthropological approach has been one of the most determinant among the recent conceptions of values. Cultural analysis requires a systematic approach to values, beliefs and norms institutionalized in the different societies. It is in this context that Kluckhohn (1951) proposed his definition of value, as a conception of the desirable that influences the ways people select action and evaluate events, which definition is, up to date, the one most cited and most broadly accepted.

It is in this framework, and in particular in the work of Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961), that Schein (1986) built his model of basic underlying assumptions around which cultural paradigms form. Nevertheless, while Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck consider that the dominant value orientations reflect the preferences among several alternatives visible in the culture, Schein considers that once an hypothesis or value is confirmed by reality and works repeatedly, it comes to be taken for granted and becomes unconscious, producing very little variation in a cultural social unit. Thus we observe that Schein's approach evolves from the anthropological perspective of preference to a perspective of normative beliefs in terms of "ought" or "should".

The sociological approach is historically dominated by two perspectives: a theoretical one, in which Parsons (1957) supports, in a functionalist orientation, that values are the condition sine qua non of society, systematically structured and mainly invariant; and an empirical one, with less implications. A reconciliation of these two perspectives, by way of a theoretical conceptualization

and an empirical validation, has been realised more recently with the psychological works of Kohn and Schooler (1969) and Rokeach (1973).

Early studies in psychology gave minor attention to values, the most significant works being those developed by Allport (vide Allport and Vernon, 1931, and Allport, Vernon and Lindzay, 1960). Generally, the concept of value was treated as similar to interest or need (Murray and Maslow). In the vocational field, several scales were developed by several authors, such as Thurstone, Scott and, more recently, Super (1970). For the latter, values result from needs and they are mainly action goals, looked for in activities (interests) to satisfy the needs. Other approaches to values can be seen in studies on moral judgement, such as those developed by the Piaget School.

The psycho-sociological approach to values shows a systematic attempt to reconcile theoretical work with empirical validation, offering a practical and operational orientation to the study of values. Milton Rokeach is the most representative researcher here. In this approach, values are mainly related to the concepts of preference and desirability and to their implications on attitudes and behaviors, in a similar sense and perspective as in the anthropological approach, but in a more instrumental and operational manner.

Recently, in the field of organizational psychology, and not exclusively (see, for instance, Perron (1981) in the educational field), the concept of value has increasingly been associated with the concept of "ought", "shall" or "must" (e.g. Schein, 1986 and Quinn, 1988), apart from not infrequent instances in management literature where it is used and abused without any definition at all (e.g. Pettigrew, 1979, Jones, 1983). This means that values are reduced to the social belief/norm of what "has to be done" or "has to be", ignoring the psychological need to do it or to be it. The psycological view on people in organizations, pointing out the capital importance of the active role and constructive properties of the individuals, as proposed by Handy (1985 - pp. 32-33), is abandonned, denying to the individuals the possibility of choice and personal appropriation of the environment.

In short, we can state that at the present, in the literature on social sciences and management, the word value is very often used, but not always with the same meanings. As an illustration we list some typical conceptions actually in use in social and organizational psychology:
For Opp (1981), "values are expectations about what should or must be the case", conceived as standards and not preferences.
For Perron (1981), values are conceived as what "ought" to be.
For Super (1970), values are objectives that one seeks to attain to satisfy a need.
For Trommsdorff (1983), values are subjective generalized orientations, which - under certain conditions - can determine social behavior.
For Schein too(1986), they are what "ought" or "should" be, as distinct from what "is". In his case values are relatively superficial, being the first cognitive reaction to a new situation or task, that can be object of a cognitive transformation into beliefs and later assumptions, according to confirmatory experience. As we will see, this conception corresponds more to a social norm than to a value.

Moreover, not only the concept of value is conceived in different ways, but one may observe even varied operationalizations even where the same concept is used. Furthermore, the concept of value is rarely evaluated psychometrically (examples of exceptions: Rokeach, 1973, Howard et al., 1983, Super and Nevill, 1986).

In contrast with the forgoing definitions, we will adopt the most cited and broad conceptual definition of Kluckhohn (1951), for whom VALUE is a conception of the desirable that influences the ways people select action and evaluate events.

This definition corresponds also to two of the features found by Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) as common to the most of definitions of values in their review of literature on human values.

Following these authors, we will add two other characteristics to the concept of value: they transcend specific situations and are ordered by relative importance.

About this latter characteristic "ordered by relative importance", other authors have different opinions. Super (1986) does not see any need for ordered values and Rice et al. (1991), dealing with job facet importance, conclude that ranking and rating measurements perform equally well. Given the social desirability field in which values move, however, the use of Likert scales risks to produce hardly any variance (MOW, 1987). Therefore we prefer to maintain the characterisation proposed by Schwartz and Bilsky (1987).

Within the scope of the value definition adopted, it is possible to distinguish levels of abstraction, or "real referents" in the Aristotelian perspective, which we categorize in two large groups:

1. General and abstract values: what is desirable and important in people's life in a general way. Values are viewed as general criteria of life, which corresponds with Rokeach's concept of value.

2. Domain specific values: what is desirable and important for people in a large field or domain, a domain being an "area of behavior that is aimed at the same goal", (Vinson et al., 1977, and Verhallen et al. 1989), such as vacation, work, interpersonal relationships, etc. In our study, we will be concerned with work related values.

This dichotomy is contested by other authors, as Opp (1981), who prefers to speak about "more or less general values" because of the impossibility to use a specific criterion. Nevertheless, it seems theoretically possible and empirically useful to use the existence of specific domains as criteria, as demonstrated by Verhallen et al. (1989).
In any case, regardless of the dichotomy based on domain specificities, we agree with the idea of degrees of generality/abstraction inside each category (vide work related values - MOW, 1987, and Terminal/Instrumental values in Rokeach, 1973).

2.2 - RESEARCH STRATEGY

In this research, we have two main goals:

1. To analyze the <u>culture producing effect of organizations on values</u>. We will analyze if the organizations can produce internal specific value systems, discriminating between organizations. We will verify whether value systems existing inside organizations are more influenced by them than by the regions where they operate or, at minimum, whether they can be conditioned by regions.

2. To analyze the possible <u>effects of values on organizational perception and individual outputs</u>. This second goal follows the frequently made assumption that values have a considerable effect on organizational attitudes and behaviors (Rokeach, 1973, 1979; James and Jones, 1989). This second goal frames in this perspective.

In relation to the first goal, to determine the effects of enterprises and regions on value systems, we will be concerned with some personal characteristics - sex, age and education - which in the past have been proved to influence value systems (Rokeach, 1973, 1979, Feather, 1975).

Beyond the hypothetical specific effects of each enterprise on values, as a result of specific cultures, it is possible to discriminate general processes of socialization common to all organizations (e.g. Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). Career evolution, training programs and formal status are examples of these processes. In our study, we will analyze the possible relationships of values with the individual organizational history and supervision.

The impact of these different antecedents will be analyzed at both levels of values that we previously discriminated: general values and work related values (specific domain).

Theoretically, general values are considered to be more central and abstract psychological constructs. We will also analyze the relationships between general values and work related values, hypothesizing a causal effect of the former on the latter. However, in a dynamic perspective of changes of values, the reciprocal causality model seems more plausible. That is, if it seems logical that general values influence and delimit values in specific domains, it is also possible to imagine, in a cognitive consistency perspective, that changes in domain specific values, in our case work related values, can progressively induce adaptations in the former ones.

As regards the second goal, we will be concerned with the effects of general and work related values on job and organizational perceptions. We will analyze these possible effects on the perceptions of several levels which can be distinguished in organizational analysis: job, group, reward systems and organizational levels.

Moreover, following the hypotheses of Locke (1976) and Connor and Becker (1979) and the MOW-study (1987), we will analyze the impact of general and work related values on individual organizational outputs, such as job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment and hours of work declared.

Schematically we can represent our research model as follows:

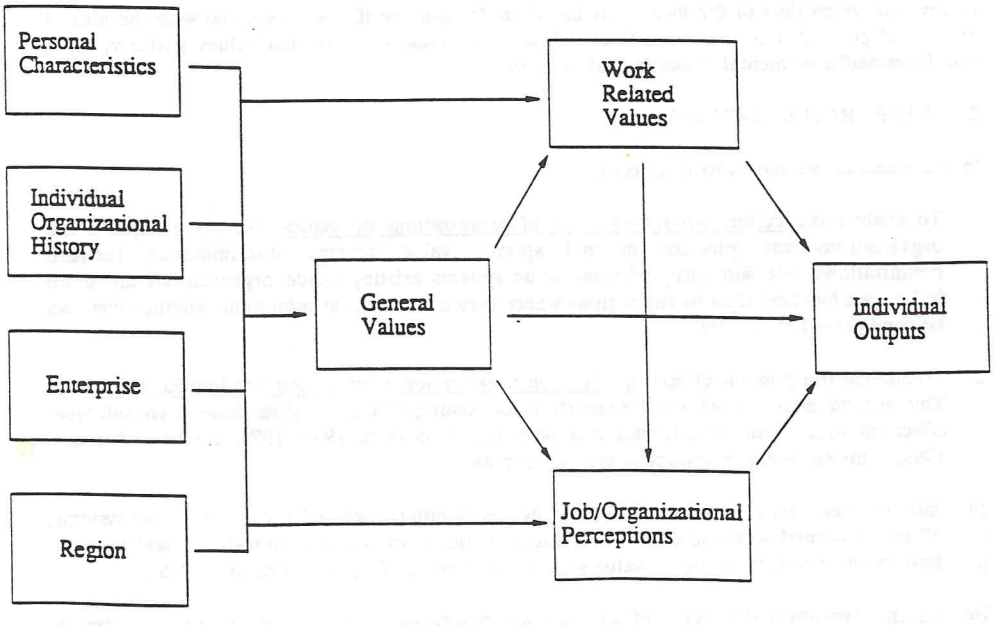

Figure 1 - The heuristic model of the study

2.3 - GENERAL VALUES

As we have mentioned in 2.1 we have decided to approach values in this work at two levels of abstraction, maintaining the condition that both levels are considered as conceptions of the desirable, transcending specific situations, ordered by relative importance and underlying and influencing attitudes and behaviors.

2.3.1 - THE ROKEACH VALUE SYSTEM

2.3.1.1 - ROKEACH'S DEFINITION OF A GENERAL VALUE

The general basic personal values are often seen as the central cultural and individual goals people hold and aspire to achieve (Kluckhohn, 1951; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987), the most well known conception and the operationalization which is most frequently used, being the ones conceived by Rokeach (1973).

For some, this choice may imply some limitations in the intracultural interpretation of data, even if we take into account the particular characteristics of the country where we conducted our research and bear in mind that it is a western country, for which the Rokeach values apparently provide qualified support for the comprehensiveness of the field of values (Braithwaite and Law, 1985; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987).

Furthermore, the use of the Rokeach value system has the advantage of employing a conception and an operationalization, which are well known and which enable us to make comparisons and draw possible conclusions.

For Rokeach (1973) a value is a belief about a "desirable mode of conduct or end state of existence that is personally or socially preferable to an opposite or converse mode of conduct or end-state of existence". We also have to assume that it includes what the person knows about each mode of conduct or end-state of existence so that he can order them.

2.3.1.2 - CHARACTERISTICS OF GENERAL VALUES

Values are characterized by the following properties (Rokeach, 1973, 1979):

1. They are a particular case of <u>beliefs</u>, prescriptive or proscriptive, "in which some means or ends of actions are judged to be desirable or undesirable" in the sense of Kluckhohn (1951) and Allport (1961). They include three components:
   a) cognitive - conception of a desirable;
   b) affective - emotional reaction to the value;
   c) behavioral - disposition to act.

2. They are a special kind of preference (Allport, 1961), related with modes of conduct and end-states, structured in hierarchical systems of values according to the <u>degree of relative importance</u> and susceptible of different structural compositions.

3. They refer to modes of conduct and end-states of existence, that Rokeach calls <u>instrumental and terminal values</u>, which are postulated to be functionally related.

   In an a priori classification, which has recently been empirically confirmed (e.g. Triandis, 1985; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987), Rokeach classifies the terminal values in:
   - <u>Individual</u>/personal values - self-centered (for instance: pleasure and salvation);
   - <u>Social</u> values - society or interpersonally centered (for instance: equality and world of peace).

   And he hypothesizes that an increase in the importance of a social value leads to increases in other social values and decreases in personal values and vice-versa.

He classifies the instrumental values in:
- Moral values, with interpersonal accent (for instance: honest, responsible, loving);
- Competence or self-actualization values, with an intrapersonal accent (for instance: logical, intelligent).

It should be noted, however, that preference for competence instrumental values does not imply preference for personal terminal values, all four combinations being equally possible.

4. They exist in a small number, in particular terminal values, and they are relatively similar in all the world as a result of, at least, similar biological and psychological needs.

   This universal characteristic, that Rokeach attributes to his value system, is recognized by some authors as Ng et al. (1982), who, nevertheless, added four terminal values relevant for Asiatic societies, and Schwartz and Bilsky (1987), who confirm the universal factors repeatedly found with the use of the Rokeach Survey in different cultural contexts, as a result of three universal requirements: biological needs, requirements for interpersonal interaction and societal demands for group welfare and survival (also Kluckhohn, 1951, Parsons, 1957, and Rokeach, 1973).

   However, this characteristic is contested by other authors such as Triandis, cited by Hofstede and Bond, (1984). They contend that, since the Rokeach Value Survey was conceived and tested in the USA, it was not originally developed as an instrument for cross-cultural research. The use of this kind of instrument in other cultural contexts is called by Triandis "pseudoetic" research, in a framework where Triandis distinguishes between emic research, understanding a culture from the inside, and etic research, using universal categories.

   In our opinion, all the studies so far done with the Rokeach Survey (Rokeach, 1973, 1979, Feather, 1975, Ng et al., 1982, Schwartz and Bilsky 1987,) are sufficiently convincing of the universal character of the Rokeach Value System. However, in our study we will take into consideration Triandis' criticism throughout our pilot study.

5 They are cognitive representations of physiological and psychological needs and demands of social institutions for group welfare and survival, being learned and determined by culture, social institutions and personal experience (Kluckhohn, 1951; Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987). Thinking in this way, it is possible to conceive values as common needs in different cultures, inducing similar cognitive representations translated into the factors found across different societies.

2.3.1.3 - FUNCTIONS OF GENERAL VALUES

In this framework, values have the following main functions:

1. To be used as standards/criteria for day-to-day activities, serving as evaluative conception patterns of self and others and serving as reference patterns in the rationalization of one's own acts, thus serving to maintain and, possibly, enhance one's self-esteem.

2. They function as motives in inducing valencies (Feather, 1982), in the framework of motivational expectancy-valency models. Values are idealized forms of behavior types and life goals, according to which the individual adopts an action goal.

Thus, values correspond to large general criteria of conscious thinking. They are usually activated when an action is felt as a source of intra-psychical conflict, such as incompatibility of personal criteria, obstacles to winning, expectations not confirmed, unpredictable personal consequences, etc., and when there is the possibility to plan that action.

That is the values, while inducing valencies, are mainly used in those behaviors which are under intentional or volitional control, losing their importance in the behaviors related to physiological needs, in usual and highly automatized behaviors in which conscious thinking is reduced, or where the environment is so structured that it does not allow any choice to the individual, or, again, in highly emotional situations where cognitive control is reduced. As psychological entities and as opposed to biological needs, values are goals of deferred realization, never completely satisfied but continually sought.

2.3.1.4 - THE CONCEPT OF GENERAL VALUE COMPARED WITH RELATED CONCEPTS

In the following paragraphs we will attempt to outline the more prominent similarities and differences between the concept of general value and the concepts of needs, attitudes, social norms and interests.

1. Values and Needs

For Rokeach (1973) the concept of need, which is often used in organizational psychology (e.g. Maslow, Murray), is essentially linked with biological needs present in animals in general and in men in particular. He asserts that these physiological needs will be represented and transformed in cognitive terms in values. He adds that, since the latter are beyond the cognitive representation of physiological needs, they represent institutional and social expectations (desirable internalizations by socialization). At this point we would like to add that values are also the result of ontogenetic development of cognitive representations.

For Rokeach, this process of transformation of needs into values always occurs with a view to the social desirability and the maintenance and, if possible, the enhancement of self-esteem. In our view, the concept of value implies a cognitive perspective, in which meaning attributions are the core subject, whereas the concept of need or drive is very often associated with hydraulic models of charge-discharge, as can be seen in the works of Lorenz, in Freud's primary topic, or, even, in Maslow's works.

In conclusion we can say that values are not essentially the beliefs of "ought" or "should" but the individual and social expressions of underlying needs.

2. Values and Attitudes

The distinction between the two constructs are very clearly drawn in Rokeach's model (1973). If we define attitude as a tendency or predisposition to evaluate a person, event or situation in a certain way (Ajzen and Fishbein, 1977; Zanden, 1987), Rokeach underlines that an attitude is "an organization of several beliefs around a specific object or situation", while a value "refers to a single belief about a desirable mode of behavior or end-state of existence, guiding actions, attitudes, judgements and comparisons across specific objects and situations and beyond immediate goals".

In this perspective, values, being smaller in number, underlie and condition a multiplicity of attitudes, whereas an attitude can combine a small number of values. Values occupy a more central place and are more closely connected with the self in cognitive and personality structures. Consequently, "if an attitude also has a motivational role, this is so only because the valence (valued) attitude object or situation is perceived to be positively or negatively instrumental to value attainment" (p. 19). Therefore, values can be seen as criteria or standards of attitudes.

For some authors, such as Valette-Florence (1989), attitudes fulfil an expressive function for values.

3. Values and Social Norms

Although Opp (1981) does not feel the need to distinguish values from norms, considering that both are standards, it seems clear in social psychology (e.g. De Ridder and Tripathi, 1991) that a norm is generally related to a mode of behavior prescribed or proscribed by a group, to what should or ought to be done in a specific situation, with an obligatory character implying sanctions, while values are more associated with desirability and can be used as criteria for the acceptance or rejection of a social norm (Rokeach, 1973).

Values are more personal and internal to individuals, while norms are more a result of external processes of consensus (Valette-Florence, 1989).

Besides, in contrast to norms, which are a relative concept, related to behavior or action, values are also considered an end-state of existence or ideal in a specific domain.

4. Values and Interests

Although both constructs have several aspects in common, in that they can assume a form of mental representation of needs and in that they can guide actions and evaluations, in Rokeach's perspective (1973), interests can be distinguished from the value concept because they are not idealizations of modes of conduct and end-states of life, neither are they life standards nor generalized plans for conflict resolution or decision-making. The concept of interest is that of a manifestation of a value and a more restricted concept closer to the concept of attitude, "representing a favorable or unfavorable attitude toward certain objects (e.g. art, people, money) or activities (e.g. occupations)" (Rokeach, 1973).

For other authors, as Super (1986), both are objectives to attain but values are formulated in general terms while interests are formulated in specific terms (objects or activities). Values are goals to attain, while interests are the activities through which the values are reached.

2.3.1.5 - VALUE SYSTEMS CONCEPTS

In real life situations, there are very few situations where the individuals have only one value as a reference. In most of them, the individuals use several values simultaneously, sometimes even competitive ones. However, this fact, on which the various authors agree, leads to two broad models of organizing values, i.e. to two broad types of value systems and, consequently, to two distinct operationalizations:

1. Value systems without a hierarchy, in which each value is considered in itself and evaluated in an absolute way (e.g. Super, 1973, 1986).
2. Hierarchical value systems, in which each value is considered in comparison with others and evaluated in a relative way (Rokeach, 1973).

In the first conception it is assumed that in a given situation an individual can appeal to several values simultaneously with a similar level of desirability; in the second conception it is assumed that in every day situations behavior is determined by preference, since decisions on priorities are required.

We decide to follow Rokeach's model on the basis of our definition and characterization of the value concept (2.1; 2.3.1.2) and because of the fact that values reflect social desirability.

2.3.2 - ANTECEDENTS

2.3.2.1 - VALUE CHANGES

Although conceived by Rokeach (1973) as having an enduring character, values and their systemic organization were never thought to be unchangeable. He states that if values were completely stable, individual and social change would be impossible.

This problem of the stability and change of values is especially analyzed in the collective work of Rokeach (1979). Rokeach assumes that they are "capable of undergoing change of a result of changes in society, situation, self-conception and self-awareness".

At an individual level, values "are a result of all the cultural, institutional and personal forces that can act upon a person throughout his lifetime" (Rokeach 1973, p. 23), depending on sexual or attributed occupational roles, on individual position in society and respective reference groups as well as on life stage (for instance: single-married). At this level, value changes would be primarily determined by the occurrence of other changes:

a) Changes in self-conceptions or definitons of self (Rokeach, 1979), as a result of changes in individual necessities or perceptions of social demands and expectations.
b) Or by increases in self-awareness of contradictions between self-conceptions and values-attitudes-behaviors, which have been demonstrated by several experimental studies which show persisting changes of values as a consequence of attitude and behavior changes (for instance, smokers).

Assuming that these changes result from incongruences or inconsistencies among values, the Rokeach model is in line with the conceptions of consistent rationality: the individuals are supposed to have a tendency to organize their mental representations in a coherent way, logically and with no conflict. Within this framework of human rationality we can place such attitude theories as Heider's Balance Theory, Osgood's Congruity Theory and Festinger's Cognitive Dissonance Theory (vide for instance Zanden, 1987).

When will such incongruences come about? According to Rokeach (1973, 1979) incongruences among values appear mainly if people are confronted with incoherences among their own values. However they also occur if:

a) Individuals are induced to behavior in a way incompatible with their values;
b) Individuals are confronted with different (i.e. mutually conflicting) informations/evaluations form other people or groups, in particular if they are significant for them.

These contradictions result in dissatisfaction, to which is attributed a capital role in the processes of cognitive and behavioral change, inducing the individual to re-structure the previous degree of relative importance given to values, so that he enhances or, at least, maintains his self-esteem.

However, the stability and change of value systems do not depend exclusively on the experiences of inconsistencies, but also on intrinsic characteristics of values (chap. 15 - Rokeach 1979) and on the degree of consensus existing in a relevant social group.

A comprehensive analysis of value changes resulting from changes in self-conceptions is only possible in longitudinal studies. As this is not the character of our work, we run the risk that, like Rokeach, we only can describe value differences between groups with certain characteristics, even if we try to measure some individual and organizational factors of value change by indirect processes, connected with the variable time (age, seniority, career). In particular, following organizational socialization models, we will try to test some of the statements that suggest value change in an organizational context.

The cross-sectional nature of our work will limit us in the interpretative phase to the broad framework of person-environment consistency theories. Here we can phrase two basic hypotheses: the one describing predominant influence of the environment on the individual, the other emphasising the indidvidual's choice of social environment. Even if we choose to privilege the organizational/occupational socialization hypothesis on values, in the perspective of Mortimer and Lorence (1979) and Lindzey and Knox (1984) with work related values, in oppositon to the Feather's Individual Choice of Social Environments Hypothesis, which has been reconceptualized and operationalized by Holland (1976) for selection/orientation contexts, we have to recognize the correlational, non-causal, character of the relationships between our

variables and to consider the theoretical plausibility of both hypotheses about the processes of the person-environment fit.

In choosing this standpoint we presuppose a conception of man as an open system, susceptible of interaction with the environment, capable of choosing and influencing it when possessing the necessary means, but also being influenced by that environment, mainly in situations where the freedom of individual decision-making is limited.

Recapitulating, values "are learned and determined by culture, society, society's institutions, personal experience" (Rokeach 1979, p. 2). Thus, a certain culture will induce a reduction in the variation of value systems, that are conceivable if we take into consideration several cultures. In the same way, "further reductions in possible variations can moreover be expected within a given culture as a result of socialization by similar social institutions"(idem). Thus, the different social institutions assume the role of transmission and socialization agents, even if they may compete with each other (family, political party, religion).

Our work is going to be concerned mainly with the last two forces postulated by Rokeach as influencing values: the institutional and personal factors. We also consider the variable region, as a possible source of specific culture. More specifically, our attention will focus on the organization-enterprise and on individual organizational history, as socialization elements. To determine the effects of these variables, we also control other variables that have been proved to influence self-conceptions and values: sex, age and educational level.

2.3.2.2 - PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Rokeach (1973) and Feather (1975) have demonstrated the effects of sex, education and age on general value systems. To analyze the specific consequences of enterprises and regions on values, we have to control the effects of these three personal characteristics, although these variables can be influenced by the organizations.

At least, enterprise and personal characteristics seem related in two ways:

a) The members of an enterprise are always a result of organizational history (for instance: how old is the enterprise, turnover indexes along the years, technological changes) and management decisions (for instance: selection policy, such as education levels chosen by preference; retirement policy; career policy, such as non-confessed sex discrimination);

b) Sex, age and education are considered indices of general processes of life, developed in the family, school, religious institutions, political activities, but also inside enterprises. However, they will be considered here as indices of general processes of life.

AGE

Age is systematically presented as a variable, indicating changes in the individuals resulting from two complementary processes, which are dialectically related: maturation and socialization. The number of socio-economic and circumstantial events that have a determining influence on socialization is very large and it would be difficult to conceive all the possible contingencies in individual lives: life cycle (single-married, growing children, retirement), personal accidents (disasters, diseases...), social mobility (movement through region and country). However, several authors like Yates, cited by Super (1986), look for hypothetical life stages during adulthood, creating categories based on age criteria.

Almost all the authors recognize the influence of both maturation and socialization processes in the development and change of value systems (Rokeach, 1973; Trommsdorff, 1983; Stoetzel, 1983; Super, 1986; MOW Team, 1987). But the lack of longitudinal studies implies that almost

all the conclusions in studies about age have to pay attention to possible cohorts/generation effects (see Stoetzel, 1983).

Data found by Rokeach (1973) show that value changes take place during the whole of a person's life. But in the U-shaped distributions drawn up using age as a criterion, the peaks were located in 'adolescence' and 'university students' (and here the determinant does not seem to be related to age), while the adult period (decades after 20s) was characterized by lower evolutions with linear characteristics.

Stoetzel (1983) found that rigidity and dogmatism as regards moral increase with age.

SEX

Sex is a variable that is almost always controlled in the framework of value analysis. Since Rokeach (1973) until Super (1986) or Schwartz (1987), sex has been demonstrated to discriminate between different value systems, even if there are some similarities of importance between several values.

As a result of social modelling processes, changing with time and varying with geographical place, constantly interacting with physiological invariable factors, this variable reflects the different sex-roles present in society.

In the beginning of the 70s, American men appeared to be more materialistic and oriented towards achievement, intellectualism and pleasure, while women were more religious and oriented towards happiness, self-respect and non-conflict (inner and intergroup).

EDUCATION

Education, in the sense of school and university learning, is considered by all authors (e.g. William, 1979; Kohn and Schooler, 1983; Rokeach, 1973; Stoetzel, 1983; MOW, 1987) and confirmed empirically to be one of the most important determinant factors of differences in value systems.

For instance, Rokeach (1973) found significant differences between 20 of the 36 values according to education in the USA.

The impact of this variable is not difficult to explain. Learning is an opportunity and a privileged process of systematic reflexion and development of cognitive processes and mental representations, in which values are analyzed and evaluated, which by its very nature leads to substantial changes in value systems.

Kohn and Schooler (1983) found that these processes lead to an increase in orientation towards self-direction and a corresponding appreciation of self.

According to Rokeach's data (1973) people with low education tend to be more religious, other-oriented, more conforming to traditional values, more affiliated with members of the same sex and less concerned with responsibility, family security, competence, intellectual activities and self-actualization than highly educated people. The values that were found to discriminate more between the levels of education were a clean and comfortable life, which was found more important by the less educated, and a sense of accomplishment and logical thinking, which was found more important by the higher educated.

2.3.2.3 - INDIVIDUAL ORGANIZATIONAL HISTORY

In the field of organizational socialization theories (for instance: Schein, 1971; Van Maanen and Schein, 1979) several aspects of a worker's history have been defined as indices and/or factors of socialization and value changes.

By socialization process we mean not only the formal or informal processes existing in the organization for receiving newcomers, but the entire career of individuals inside the organization. We base this view on the assumption that learning itself is a continuous life process (Rokeach, 1973; Van Maanen and Schein, 1979; Mortimer, 1986). In this continuous process of acquiring "social knowledge and skills necessary to assume an organization role" (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979), the workers observe their activities and can observe those of others, they make their evaluations and they can change their way of thinking and feeling as a result of these processes. Thus, we include in the socialization process both that which Katz (1978) calls 'socialization', related to a newcomer in the organization, and 'resocialization', related to promotion or internal transference.

Apart from specific organizational processes and contents, several variables are generally recognized as indices or determinant factors of socialization processes. Here we discuss seniority, training and career evolution under the term promotion.

ORGANIZATIONAL SENIORITY

When we speak about seniority inside an organization we should distinguish among three kinds of seniority (also called longevity or tenure): a) job longevity; b) unity seniority; c) organizational seniority.

Job longevity is defined by Katz (1978) "as the length of time employed in the current job", Unit seniority can be defined as the length of service in the organizational unit and, finally, organizational seniority as the length of service in the organization.

For the purpose of our study, we decide to work with organizational seniority as an index of the life time spent in the organization and, consequently, a life time index of choices and/or learning roles in an organization, in their three dimensions (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979): functional (different tasks), hierarchical and interpersonal domain.

As in this work we are only concerned with bureaucratic organizations, with several common structures and processes that distinguish them from other organizations, we may assume that working in a bureaucracy exposes people to similar characteristics and induces a certain type of socialization, even if during their lives inside the bureaucracy people can try to move toward tasks according to their characteristics and values. Thus we assume that similarities in personal experience and in the expression of individual needs will further reduce the total number of possible variations in values (Rokeach, 1973).

However, if we consider the temporal nature of this variable, and if we do not overestimate the organization's role in the adult life span, we can expect that this variable behaves like age. As a matter of fact it appears generally associated with it (in our sample $r = .88$).

TRAINING

Training, received after school and university and generally given by the organization, is considered by most authors as a privileged place of socialization, in which are learned "savoir", "savoir-faire"and "savoir-être" desired by the organization.

Considered independently from specific organizations, training in general can be understood as a continuation of education and, consequently, as a way of learning cognitive processes and contents, leading to new structurations and frames of reference or, in Kohn and Schooler's (1983) terminology, to more "intellectual flexibility".

Connor and Becker (1979) clearly formulate the hypothesis that "value orientations vary in accordance with variations in education and training of organizational members".

In this work, we only consider the training inside the organization, so that we do not get a too large number of variables and because we expect that this kind of training can have a more powerful socialization effect than outside training. In training situations all participants are from the same organization and the goals are specific and demanded by that organization. We also know (Schein, 1988) that changing attitudes acquired during training outside the organization, for instance in the university, reverse considerably within a one year period, which seems less probable in in-company training programs.

PROMOTION

Promotion in an organization can be considered as a formal parameter of vertical socialization (Schein, 1971). A promotion is simultaneously a result (e.g. Penning (1970) found promotion rates to be directly related to values of subordinates) and a cause of learning and adoption of rules, norms and behaviors expected by superiors in the organization. It seems fair to assume that this dynamic process is stronger when promotions are a consequence of decisional processes independent from conventional automatic mechanisms, like seniority. But even in the latter case, career evolution in general corresponds to a change in role and formal status inside the group and the organization, and according to Schein (1988) it is possible to assess "that attitudes and values change several times during the managerial career".

Work careers marked by progress seem to relate positively to an appreciation of intrinsic outcomes and work centrality levels and negatively to an appreciation of comfort (MOW, 1987).

One may wonder whether career changes have more impact on value changes than a steady pattern of progress. According to Whitely (1981), the continuous change in occupational activities over lengthy time periods has a more significant effect (than career passages) on value dimensions, decreasing internalization of egoistic values and increasing internalization of empathic values.

We can also assume, with Williams (1979), that the communication of common appraisals eventually builds value standards: if positive they would reinforce self-conceptions and value systems, if negative they would be a dissonant cognitive element.

2.3.2.4 - SUPERVISION

In all literature on organization and values, the variable supervision is considered an important determinant of value systems. To be a supervisor implies different roles, goals and status, different structural position and reference groups within the social system, and, with Rokeach (1979), we can assume that, by this process of selection and occupational socialization, supervisors should possess distinct value systems. Hodgkinson, cited by Connor and Becker (1979), found that value orientations differ with hierarchical levels but not with age, sex and seniority.

2.3.2.5 - ENTERPRISE

From the antecedent factors theoretically formulated by Rokeach (1973, 1979) and Feather (1975), and formulated in a more specific way by Connor and Becker (1979), we can assume that

the enterprise, as Schein (1971, 1986, 1988) and Whitely (1981) state, is one of the institutions which influences self conceptions and value systems, and then perhaps not all values, but mainly those significant to work, enterprise and work group.

It is inside the organizations that, in modern societies, most individuals spend 7 out of 24 hours, 5 out of every 7 days, 11 out of every 12 months, and 35 out of 70 years of their lives. Being an important section of the society, the organizations delimit an important field of social interaction, a "stable social unit" (Schein, 1986), which can produce the development of a specific culture and, consequently, shared specific value systems.

Following the sociological perspective of Parsons, Rokeach (1979) states that if an institution can be understood as a "complex of values", one of its functions is value transmission and value implementation.

The role of the organization or enterprise in the change of value systems has not been a frequent subject in organizational behavior research, in opposition to what happened with school and religion. Despite the numberless references and assumptions about values in corporate culture literature, as Connor and Becker (1979) underline "little is understood about the ways in which values affect, are affected by, and interact with the multitude of organizational properties, processes and managerial actions". Even if it is often assumed (e.g. Schein, 1988) that organizational "socialization determine employee loyalty, commitment, productivity and turnover" and that "the basic stability and effectiveness of organizations therefore depends upon their ability to socialize new members", there is a lack of empirical confirmation whether this socialization has something to do with values - general, work related or other - or if it is mainly a matter of learning procedures and norms with an insignificant impact on values and even on behaviors.

However, several authors have established several empirical relationships between values and organizational characteristics. Woodward (1965) concluded that top executive values were different according to the organizational technology. Connor and Becker (1979), in their review of works on this subject, cite results found by Drake that the perceived usefulness of group decisions was positively related to similarity of values between the decision makers, and those found by Coughlan, Gies and Leonard and, again, those found by Hohgkinson about the strong relationships between the members' values and the character of the organizational climate.

Several suggestions were made by Connor and Becker (1979) about a hypothesis relating organizational structures and processes with value systems. For instance, relationships with formalization, technology and reward systems.

Even if we recognize the role that the value systems can have in structuring organizational activities and procedures, especially values of those who have the power to decide and influence those processes, we tend to side with Hofstede (1980) and Williams (1979) when they consider that, in general, values, which legitimize and guarantee the general orientation of an organization, only change after the organizational structure or functioning are changed. Even in the absence of tests of this hypothesis in concrete situations, Williams (1979) claims the existence of historical cases which would point to some frequency in this sequence.

In our view an enterprise by itself imposes a social differentiation that distinguishes it from other organizations or institutions, determined by providing a product or a service for a certain environment.

Thus, it seems logical that the members of an enterprise, in particular those involved in their objectives, take as its last goal the survival of the organization. In doing so, they will privilege certain values relevant for the organizational goals and develop formal and informal mechanisms for the implementation and transmission of those values.

These mechanisms comprise the organizational structure, several kinds of procedures, informal norms, job designs, management and supervision styles, career control mechanisms, training programs, as well as preventive selection systems of candidates with value patterns potentially compatible. Schein (1986) classifies these mechanisms in primary - related to leadership processes and selection and career procedures - and secondary or reinforcing mechanisms - organizational design and systems, stories, legends and myths, and formal organizational statements.

This perspective does not exclude that within the limits defined by the nature of the product or service supplied and by the environment, the mechanisms just mentioned may be influenced by the values of all members of the organization.

Considering the enterprise as a factor influencing values raises also ethical questions regarding the possibility of manipulation of individual values. According to Rokeach's research (1979), individual values do not seem susceptible of arbitrary manipulation and it seems that their change follows the unidirectionality hypothesis following social desirability criteria, which would limit the extent of the concept of corporate culture.

Elements of organizational socialization

If there is a specific culture in each organization, and to that culture corresponds a specific value system, these should result from selection and socialization processes used by the organization.

In this perspective we will test, in a socialization perspective, if the seniority, training and promotion specific to each organization are related with value systems patterns.

2.3.2.6 - REGION

Several empirical studies (Hofstede, 1980; Howard et al., 1983) showed significant differences in the structure of value systems among countries, suggesting specific management styles in each country - the Cross Culture Management Model.

On the basis of the same assumptions, it is very often assumed both in theory (Hofstede, 1983) and in management practice, that in regions with different historical and socio-economic conditions there are different cultures and, consequently, different value systems. It is the case of the Walloon and Flamish regions in Belgium; and of the Porto, Lisboa and Alentejo regions in Portugal.

In this study region is assumed as a cultural background factor explaining different value systems.

2.3.2.7 - OTHER ANTECEDENTS

Professional Groups

From Rokeach's works (1973) until those of the MOW Team (1987), professional groups or occupational groups have been considered a discriminating parameter of different value systems, as a result of occupational selection (Holland, 1976) and occupational socialization (Mortimer and Lorence, 1979).

In our case, the analysis of this variable is not pertinent, it is a control variable of other determinant factors of value systems, to the extent that we try to make our sample homogeneous for clerical workers, making the occupational role stable, so that we have mainly vertical/hierarchical differences. This sample characteristic, enabling a clearer determination of other antecedents, implies a reduction in the value systems variance, if compared with samples with heterogeneous professional groups.

2.3.3 - EFFECTS

As described previously, values are generally considered as central structures "that influence the ways people select action and evaluate events".

For Rokeach (1973) "values (...) as psychological structures (...) are determinants of virtually all kinds of behavior that could be called social behavior - of social action, attitudes and ideology, evaluations, moral judgements and justifications of self and others (...), values are guides and determinants of social attitudes and ideologies on the one hand and social behavior on the other" (p. 24).

Knowing a person's terminal and instrumental values should make it possible, to some extent, to predict how that person would behave. This does not mean that there exists a one-to-one or isomorphic relationship between a certain value and a certain attitude or behavior, but it can be expected that the more a value is logically related with an attitude or behavior, the better it can predict them.

In Rokeach (1973) and in his collective work in 1979, several empirical findings are shown proving the relationship between values and attitudes and behaviors in experimental and real-life situations.

As examples, we can cite in the field of attitudes, civil rights, poverty and religion, and in the field of behavior, voting, occupational roles and choices, smoking, weight loss, church attendance and participation in civil rights demonstrations (Rokeach 1973, 1979; Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987).

2.3.3.1 - EFFECTS ON WORK RELATED VALUES

As we distinguished two abstraction levels for values: general and abstract values and domain specific values, we expect, according to the Cognitive Consonance Theory, that both levels are logically related. Rokeach (1979) states that general value hierarchies enable people to decide about occupational goals and interests and we would like to add that this can be said of work related values with all the more reason. Foregoing studies in the field of consumer psychology, such as Verhallen, Van Onzenoort and Barzilay (1989), have shown, in the field of consumer psychology, that general values correspond significantly with domain specific values but not with product evaluations.

In our work, we expect a significant and consistent relationship between general values and work related values.

2.3.3.2 - EFFECTS ON THE PERCEPTION OF JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

If from a socialization point of view, job and organizational characteristics can be assumed to be antecedents and socialization elements of values (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979 and Connor and Becker, 1979), it has been assumed in the past, that values, being central psychological structures, will influence job and organization perception.

Connor and Becker (1979) suggest several hypotheses, relating values with processes of organizational conflict, communication, supervision effectiveness, perceived decision, administrative coordination and group behavior.

James and James (1989) maintain that "stable individual values" are responsible for the valuations underlying interpretations of environments.

At another level, previous research suggests that frames of reference and individual attitudes (Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1982) can influence perceptions, even if this influence does not seem to explain a large amount of variance in perception (Griffin, 1987).

2.3.3.3 - EFFECTS ON INDIVIDUAL JOB AND ORGANIZATIONAL OUTPUTS

It is assumed by nearly all writers on organizational culture, that values have an important role in organizational performance and individual outputs, such as satisfaction and organizational commitment, although the concept of value is not very often defined or operationalized. For Locke (1976), values, more particularly work related values, serve as standards for assessing organizational well-being, i.e. satisfaction. They are what people desire or seek to attain and the more people get, the more they are satisfied. Strong relationships between the character of an organization's climate and its members' values have been shown in the works of Coughlan, Gies and Leonard, and that of Hodgkinson, a study done in teaching institutions (cited by Connor and Becker, 1979).

2.4. - WORK RELATED VALUES

In addition to the analysis of general values proposed by Rokeach, within the large definition of value proposed by Kluckhohn (1951), as a conception of a desirable that influences the ways people select action and evaluate events, we propose to perform a second level of value analysis in an organizational context. It is a less abstract level, related with organizational activity, that we call work related values.

2.4.1 - CONCEPTS

In this case, the value concept is defined in terms of a domain: the **work**. Work related values are domain specific. In previous studies domain specific values (Vilson et al. 1977), are conceived of as less central than general values and they reflect the belief that people acquire values through experiences in domain activities.

Given the organizational context of our study, our interest in work, being the object of the study, is concerned with the kinds of job which the individuals perform during their lives and what they look for in their present jobs. We have tried to fit the decisions taken in the definition and characterization of the concept of value in the previous chapters, with the possible choices in the definition of work related values. Therefore, the concept of work related value has to be defined by a number of evaluations of importance and preferences, using a set of decision-making elements, resulting in hierarchies of degrees of relative importance, regardless of specific situations.

Which taxonomy of work related values, described in literature, is the one most suitable for our study? From several possible taxonomies of work related values, e.g. Vroom (1964) and Hulin and Triandis (1981), we have selected the one of work goals by the Meaning of Work International Research Team (1987)(in our study abbreviated as MOW), since it follows those criteria, and it seems to us more exhaustive, less abstract and closer to the terminology employed by the interviewers in Portugal.

For these authors (MOW Team) the concept of **value**, in the work domain, is defined as "importance evaluations which are defined to include what the person knows about each of the outcomes and the preference relationship among outcomes or goals" (p. 24). In this definition "outcomes" and "goals" are placed at the same level. However, in their heuristic model (p. 16, MOW) 'valued working outcomes' and 'work goals' are theoretically autonomous concepts, the former being 'general outcomes' and/or 'opportunities one is seeking from working', and the latter being 'aspects of working important to individuals'. This conception of valued working outcome "identifies a dominant rationale for working or the basic reasons why individuals are working", which is a more general level of abstraction in contrast with the less general

abstraction level analyzed under the term 'work goals', which would consist of what a person wants from working, i.e. "which important work goal dimensions people prefer to find or obtain in their work".

Which level of abstraction should we use in our study, regarding this difference between outcomes and goals? Like the MOW Team, we acknowledge that we move in a large and "open-ended" conceptual area, where there are multiple constructs (e.g. outcome, preference, need, goal, value) and several operationalizations, not always in accordance with the respective constructs. So, we decide to place ourselves in an intermediate abstraction level, for several reasons:

- We agree with the acknowledgement of the MOW Team (p. 130) that the basic rationales of the first level of abstraction, valued working outcomes, "may have limited utility for understanding individual behavior that takes place within the work place".
- We also agree with their statement that the work goals level "seems closer to the day-to-day reality of working lives.
- Our work is focussed on the organizational context in opposition to the international/national scope of the MOW study, in which it seemed more important to know the why of working among groups so different as the self-employed, unemployed and part-time employed.

Hence, we have decided to favour the level of analysis of the 'work goals'.

Beside these reasons, there were others which have affected our decision in this matter:

- In studies with different theoretical frameworks, such as Kaplan and Tausky regarding valued working outcomes, cited by the MOW Team, and Herzberg regarding work goals, the operationalization of the constructs is very often similar, as when dealing with income and with interpersonal relations.
- Furthermore, the factorial analysis the MOW Team applied to the results of the valued working outcomes and work goals, did not validate the theoretical distinction, grouping outcomes and goals in the same empirical factor. Thus, it seems plausible that the theoretical distinction between valued working outcomes and general work goals is not very pertinent for people and that they mainly perceive the relative importance and preferences among the possible dimensions of working, corresponding to the definition of value in the domain of work given above.

Moreover, even though analyzed separately, valued working outcomes and work goal preferences are grouped together in a major content subset in the final and larger model of analysis of working by the MOW Team and, therefore, become a privileged subject of analysis in its relations with other major content subsets, antecedents and consequences. The other three major content subsets are: importance of work in one's life, societal norms about working, and work role identification, grouping the 13 dimensions empirically found about the study of working in general (Chap. 7, MOW, 1987).

2.4.2. - ANTECEDENTS

2.4.2.1 - PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

In almost all literature about work related values or standards towards work (e.g. Buchholz, 1978 and Jurgensen, 1978) the three variables, which we called personal characteristics - age, sex and education - earlier, are usually mentioned as discriminating antecedents of work related values, and as such they are considered by the MOW Team as the "... most powerful biographical discriminants of meaning of working patterns".

AGE

Buchholz (1978) verified that age shows a relation with what he called Marxist-related beliefs, but not with commitment to work ethic and humanistic belief systems. Jurgensen (1978), among others, established a positive relationship between age and the importance of pay and type of work and a decrease of importance of advancement and security. Taking into consideration only three groups of age, the MOW Team (1987) found a similarity among the work goal ranking by the 3 groups as well as systematic age effects.
As regards the latter, they found that the importance of autonomy increased with age, while the opposite happened with the interpersonal relations, opportunity to learn, variety and good match between job requirements and individual abilities. As regards the age evolution of the latter characteristics, they put forward the idea that a possibly greater liking of younger people to try out new functions and roles does not occur with older workers, who tend to be more settled in their professional roles. It also appears from their data that people with a low entitlement pattern, high work centrality and obligation norms tend to be older. Younger people prefer an instrumental pattern, connected with pay.

SEX

Centers and Bugental (1966), among others, verified that women are more interpersonally oriented in their jobs than men. Buchholz (1978) found a relation between sex and Marxist beliefs but not with humanistic beliefs. Authors such as Jurgensen (1978) and Stake (1978) discovered data indicating that women are more intrinsically oriented than men.

The MOW Team (1987) discovered that interpersonal relations and convenient work hours were more important for women and autonomy and job security for men. In addition to Jurgensen and Stake's finding, they found that in accordance to the preference for intrinsic work, the variable sex seems to have a lesser influence than education or autonomy experience. Women showed a more entitlement and contact orientation pattern, while men are more instrumental and low entitlement oriented. The variable sex did not show a relation with work centrality or intrinsic values. But using categorical data, the authors could discriminate some differences between countries: while in Belgium and in the USA there were no differences between the sexes, in Japan many men had a high work centrality and place importance on expressive aspects of work, while women had low work centrality and place importance on economic and material conditions. Not so strong as in Japan this same pattern appeared also in Western Germany, Britain, the Netherlands and Israel.

EDUCATION

Buchholz (1978) did not find any relation between education level and commitment to work ethic and humanistic beliefs, but found a negative relation with what he called the organizational belief system and a positive relation with Marxist beliefs.

In preference to intrinsic work, education appears in the MOW study (1987) as the most important source of variability, after autonomy experience. People with less education showed a more instrumental orientation, i.e., for them pay was more important than intrinsic work. Most of the time educational achievement appeared negatively related to values connected with pay.

2.4.2.2 - INDIVIDUAL ORGANIZATIONAL HISTORY

Far more than family and school organization, from which some stability of work values seems to result (Sewell, Haller and Ohlendorf, 1970; MOW, 1987), it is a general assumption that values and cognitions about work are modified as a result of work and organizational experiences (e.g. Samuel and Lewin-Epstein, 1979, Van Maanen and Schein, 1979, MOW, 1987). In the symbolic

interactionist perspective, the individual would adjust himself to the different social situations in a continuous learning process (White, 1977).

SENIORITY

The MOW Team (1987) found that people who are entitlement and contact oriented seemed to stay for a shorter time in their jobs, in contrast to those who are expressive/centrality oriented, who appear to show longer job tenure.
Similar to the latter, however, the same seems to occur with age, and in view of the strong correlation between age and seniority, it is difficult to distinguish each effect. Despite all this, the relationship between seniority and expressive/centrality orientation seems consistent with the models of work socialization (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979) and opportunities for individual self-expression.

TRAINING

As said before about general values, we consider training inside the organization as an extension of education, even if it is more oriented to organizational goals.

We do not find any empirical research controlling its effect on work related values but, similarly to education, we can hypothesize that training possibly reinforces the preference for intrinsic work values.

PROMOTION

In accordance with the data found by the MOW Team (1987), individuals with "substantial career progress" embrace an expressive work centrality pattern more frequently and the instrumental MOW pattern less often. On the other hand, individuals with little career progress seem to embrace an instrumental pattern. Moreover, instrumentally oriented individuals tend to be less satisfied with their careers than people in the other patterns.

2.4.2.3 - SUPERVISION

Samuel and Lewin-Epstein (1979) state that the concept of occupational status is a good predictor of a worker's values. For Kohn and Schooler (1983), the occupational status affects the values and orientations because, while affecting the opportunity and need for exercising self-direction (autonomy, variety, etc.), it reinforces the importance of intrinsic work values.

The MOW Team (1987) found that in each of the 7 countries in which the study took place, people who adhere to the instrumental pattern usually do not have a supervisory job. Those who have it tend to show an expressive work centrality pattern.

2.4.2.4 - ENTERPRISE

Andrisani and Miljus (1977 - cited by MOW, 1987) found that "public sector employees are less likely than average to cite intrinsic factors as the most satisfying aspects of work". Smith, M. and Nock, S. (1980) found that white-collar government employees were less positive about the social relations and intrinsic aspects of their work than were private white collar workers, but perceive the material dimension of their job more positively. Blue-collar government employees were more satisfied with intrinsic aspects (opportunities for personal development through work; lack of interesting work; lack of freedom to do their work).

The MOW Team (1987) found that respondents in large organizations tend to be oriented instrumentally, while a large percentage of individuals who work in small organizations tend to have an entitlement and contact orientation pattern. In their findings, public sector employees tend to have either entitlement and contact orientation or expressive work centrality patterns, while in the private sector they tend to show instrumental or low entitlement patterns. And they add:
"Regardless of the sector, the instrumental pattern includes relatively high percentages of individuals with low work quality.
However, nearly twice as many people in the private sector with high quality jobs have an instrumental pattern when compared to those in the public sector with high-quality jobs.
Among the private workers with high quality of work, the low entitlement pattern is dominant, while the expressive work centrality pattern is dominant among public sector jobs with high quality. Public sector employees with low quality work tend to have an entitlement and contact orientation pattern to a much greater extent than employees in the private sector with low quality of work".

ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATIONAL SOCIALIZATION

In the same way as we stated about general values and with the same socialization perspective in mind, we want to study the interaction between enterprise and seniority, training and promotion, searching for cultural socialization processes specific to each organization.

2.4.2.5 - REGION

At country level, several studies in the past (Hofstede, 1980; Bollinger and Hofstede, 1987) have shown specific structures of work related values, influencing the Cross Culture Management Model. Similarly, we hypothesize that different regions with specific historical and socio-economic conditions can influence work related values. In our case, they are the regions of Porto, Lisboa and Alentejo in Portugal.

2.4.2.6 - GENERAL VALUES AS ANTECEDENTS

They have already been analyzed in point 2.3.3.1 - Effects of general values on work related values.

2.4.2.7 - OTHER ANTECEDENTS

Professional groups
Another background that has already been proved to be connected with work related values is the professional group, which sociologists, like Samuel and Lewin-Epstein (1979), call occupational situs. In this sense, work value systems are not only connected with professional status, considered as a hierarchy, but also with the contents of the work itself: "Work related processes such as occupational choice, vocational training, interpersonal relations with colleagues and on-job experiences generate a cumulative influence on the formation of work values in the individual's mind".

In accordance with data from the MOW Team (1987), the professional group, related with autonomy experience, appears to be the main source of variation in the preference for intrinsic work, being even greater than the country effect. And Samuel and Lewin-Epstein (1979) came to the conclusion that: "...the finding clearly reveals that the concept of occupational situs is apparently the best predictor of a worker's value preferences, as compared with other variables".

In the MOW study white-collar employees, whose work was described as low quality and low on cognitive demanding, with few supervision jobs, showed mainly an instrumental MOW pattern, in contrast to people with a better quality of work and high average hours working (chemical

engineers, teachers and self-employed) who showed an expressive work centrality pattern. Israel was an exception, here clerical workers showed the latter pattern.

In our study, the analysis of this variable is not pertinent. It is a control variable of other variables for the variability of work related values, since we intend to homogenize our sample as far as the clerical profession is concerned, which mainly consists of vertical/hierarchical variations with a clear dichotomy supervisor-subordinate.

The data which the MOW Team found must be taken into consideration on reading the intrinsic and pay values regarding the characteristics of our sample, in so far as it is to be expected that individuals from our population with supervision jobs act as the people with a better quality of work from the MOW sample.
This characteristic of our sample, which makes a clearer determination of other antecedents possible, however, implies a lesser variation of work related values, if compared to other samples of heterogeneous groups.

2.4.3 - RELATIONSHIPS WITH JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

As said before about general values, the relationship between work related values and job/organizational perceptions can be established in two directions: the former influencing the latter and vice versa.

In the Organizational Socialization Models (Schein, 1971; Van Maanen and Schein, 1979; Mortimer and Lorence, 1976), job and organizational characteristics are assumed as antecedents and socialization factors of values. Although work related values seem stable and resulting from past socialization, it is a general assumption that they will be influenced in the adaptation process. This influence was foreseen by symbolic interactionists in particular.

Mortimer and Lorence (1976), in a longitudinal study over a 10-year time span, demonstrated that work autonomy and income can influence people's orientation towards intrinsic and extrinsic values, giving support to the "occupational socialization hypothesis".

In our study we will deal with this point of view indirectly, through the variable enterprise in interaction with seniority, promotion and training, as already mentioned (2.4.2.4).

Based on the idea of reciprocal causation, which we support, Kohn and Schooler (1983) provide a demonstration of the relationship between characteristics of jobs or occupations and work related values: jobs without occupational self-direction (autonomy, variety, acquisition of new skills or knowledge) render higher levels of identification and commitment with work difficult and those with that quality increase the appreciation of expressive tasks and decrease the appreciation of pay and comfort.

On the same basis of reciprocal causation, the MOW Team (1987), describing job characteristics around the concept of quality of work, understood as depending on the levels of variety, autonomy, responsibility, learning possibilities and skill utilization, established a positive relationship between quality of work and intrinsic work goals and a negative one with pay values. Also, a large percentage of those with entitlement and contact orientation have the most favorable physical working conditions and a supervisory job. Income did not differentiate significantly between working patterns.

On the other hand, several authors support that work related values can influence perceptions, namely those of job and organizational characteristics. James and Jones (1989) defend that the perceptions, mainly valuations, of those characteristics "are constructs that provide cognitive

appraisals of work environment attributes in terms of schemas engendered by work relevant values". But they claim that "future research is needed to assess if indeed values, and perhaps other components of belief systems (e.g. self-concepts, self-regulatory systems, and so on) engender the cognitive constructs used to impute meaning to work environments".

Although we support a reciprocal causation perspective, according to our hypothetical model we will test the possible influence of work related values on job and organizational perceptions.

2.4.4. - EFFECTS

It is usually assumed that work related values should be associated with "behavioral intentions and actual behavior which are logically consistent with the preference" (MOW, 1987).

In particular, regarding valued working outcomes and work goals, the authors of this investigation assume that, to some extent, they should provide evidence, why people exert more or less effort and may be more or less effective at work. It should also be possible to explain why individuals may be satisfied with some jobs and why some work situations are attractive.

Although considering the results as modest, the authors found out that regarding occupational satisfaction "...higher preferability of intrinsic work is associated with higher predicted occupational satisfaction, given that respondents assessed have at least some latitude to make decisions about their work. If, however, the respondents assessed have hardly any latitude to make decisions about their work, higher preferability of intrinsic work is associated with lower predicted occupational satisfaction".

They also found that people with low entitlement and expressive work centrality patterns work more hours per week than those who adhere to the instrumental and entitlement and contact orientation patterns. In all seven countries, people with increasing higher centrality and higher expressive work values work longer hours. But while those who are higher pay oriented worked longer hours only in Israel, West Germany, Netherlands and USA, people with higher interpersonal contact work values tend to work fewer hours only in Belgium, Netherlands and West Germany. Both situations cannot be generalized to all countries.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) cite seven studies which, when submitted to meta-analysis, showed a significant impact of protestant work ethic (importance of working hard, work as an objective) on organizational commitment.

2.5 - JOB AND ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTION

2.5.1. - CONCEPTS

2.5.1.1 - GENERAL CONCEPTS

According to our model we are interested in analysing the possible influences of values on job and organizational perceptions and both influences on individual job/organizational outputs. In an empirical perspective, we are also interested in developing a global standardized instrument for organizational diagnosis, in the long term.

From a theoretical point of view, we start from the concept of "job perceptions" (Jones and James, 1979, and James and Tetrick, 1986) defined as "cognitive representations of job attributes that reflect the psychological meaning and significance of these attributes to individuals". In our study, we will apply this concept not only to jobs but to the whole work environment, i.e. to the whole organization.

Following James and Jones (1989), we assume that these cognitive representations of job and organizational environments can present two forms:

- Describing meaning: more descriptive cognitions based on the presence or absence of features of job/organizational attributes (e.g.: performance-reward contingency);
- Appreciation of job/organizational attributes: appraisal cognitions based on "schemas derived from values" or beliefs (e.g.: job autonomy).

In our research, the organizational diagnosis employs both forms of job/organizational perceptions.

From a construct validity point of view, there is some evidence that, particularly at a job description level, these perceptions are conceptually distinguishable from individual emotional outputs, like job satisfaction.
Whereas Locke (1976) notes that job satisfaction is an emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job, Pierce, Mctavish and Knudsen (1986) showed that some common operationalizations, like JDS and JDI, possess discriminant validity corresponding to different constructs, job characteristics perception (pragmatic oriented) versus job satisfaction (emotional oriented).

For our analysis of job and organizational perceptions, we follow both principles that guide applied psychologists when measuring those perceptions (James and James, 1989):
a) "Individuals respond to environments in terms of how they perceive them";
b) "The most important component of perception is the meaning or meanings imputed to the environments by individuals".

In the latter case we will analyse the influence of general values and work related values on job/organizational perceptions. In the former, we will analyse the effects of organizational perceptions on individual emotional outputs, according to the cognitive causal model of emotion (Lazarus, 1982, 1984), which considers individual emotional outputs as related to cognitive appraisals of the significance of those attributes for the individual, in opposition to the primacy and independence of affects in relation to cognitions (e.g. Zajonc, 1984).

As recognized by several authors, there is no operationalized global model for diagnosing organizations (Harrison, 1987, and Handy, 1988). The Open System theory of organizations is too general to specify organizational attributes and Contingency theory assumes that there are so many attributes that some are still not known and some are useful in some organizations but not in others. For instance, Handy (1988), writing about organizational effectiveness, mentions more than fifty possible determinant variables.

In the absence of a global operationalized model of organizations, we have in some way to establish criteria for inclusion or exclusion of domains in an instrument of research.

Cammann et al. (1983) propose three main guidelines for a "strategic choice in selecting topical domains for an assessment questionnaire":
1. We can create a theoretical framework and try to create measures for each of the concepts previously elaborated, independent of their utility and scope.
2. We can "adopt the prevailing language, operative constructs and implicit theories of organizational members".
3. We can look in literature for constructs and measures that have been proven to be useful and empirically valid and reliable, independent of their place in a global, coherent theoretical framework.

Following the advice given by Cammann et al., and joining the viewpoint taken in the construction of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ), we adopt all the three possible guidelines.

In the elaboration of the questionnaire about Job and Organizational Perception and Emotional Individual Outputs our larger theoretical framework is largely based on the revision of the

Hackman and Oldham Model (1980) about job design and on its developments by Cammann et al. (1983). While we follow the majority of the descriptors of work environment and some of the individual outputs of these models, the big change concerns the psychological states that are foreseen as moderator variables between job characteristics and individual outputs in both theoretical models and that we suppress in our framework. The suggested moderator variables in the Hackman and Oldham Model did not receive empirical confirmation as moderators (see for instance Algera, 1984) and the same happens with the Cammann et al. model, although the latter found a light moderator effect of job challenge, that according to their data seems to be a common construct to the three moderator variables proposed by Hackman and Oldham. "Job involvement", used by Cammann et al. as a moderator variable, is conceived in our work as an individual output.

Following the second guideline, we adopt several concepts and the language used in the organizations from which we collect data. For instance, we elaborate a scale of organizational goals according to the interest of both enterprises and, for naming the structures, we use the terms formally established in each one. We also use several concepts and measures that do not belong to the theoretical or measurement frameworks of Hackman and Oldham (1980) or Cammann et al. (1983). It is the case for the majority of the concepts and measures at an organizational level.

In this context and in a systemic perspective, we decide to distinguish in organizational perception four general levels of analysis:

A - JOB AND ROLE CHARACTERISTICS
B - GROUP PERCEPTION
C - REWARDS PERCEPTION
D - ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTION

These levels, which can be found in several works of organizational psychology, have gained empirical support with "psychological climate" factors found by several authors like Jones and James (1979).
And James and James (1989) add: "At a more psychological level of explanation the results also suggest that individuals tend to separate emotional cognitions (evaluations) pertaining to job, leaders, work groups and individual/organizational interfaces into separate internal compartments" (p. 740).

This agrees with some areas that we distinguish in some of these four levels of analysis, such as: in group perception: work group functioning and supervision; and, in organizational perception: structures and means, procedures, norms and perception of the organization as a whole.

In each area, we try to use constructs and measures already elaborated and tested empirically by others. Anyway, in all cases, we attempt to keep our scales as short as possible given the large number of organizational descriptors used.

2.5.1.2 - JOB AND ROLE CHARACTERISTICS

At this organizational level, we are interested in knowing how people perceive their work, the work they have to do, and how they perceive their relationship with the tasks that the organization gives them.

We distinguish five parameters: JOB CHARACTERISTICS
ROLE CHARACTERISTICS
TRAINING ADEQUACY
JOB CHALLENGE
EXPECTATIONS ABOUT THE FUNCTION

In recent years in organizational psychology, the study of **job characteristics** is one of the most researched. How to improve the quality of working life and how to increase work motivation are

the goals generally pursued by empirical and theoretical work. Several theoretical models resulted from these studies: Hackman and Oldham (1980), Sims, Szilagyi and Keller (1976), Griffin (1987), Algera (1984), Salancik and Pfeffer (1978), Campion and Theyer (1985), Fried and Ferris (1987).

Despite some criticism, the pertinence of which is not always empirically confirmed, the model that seems prevalent, producing more research and receiving more empirical support, is the one of Hackman and Oldham (1980), which is operationalized in their instrument, - JDS -, the Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman and Oldham, 1975).

To describe job qualities and deficiencies, we decide to adopt, without any modification, the five main task characteristics outlined by this model: variety, identity, significance, autonomy and task performance feedback.
This decision does not mean that we consider these five dimensions as the only ones capable of discriminating in work or that they are always present in all kinds of job. As recognized by Kulik, Oldham and Langner (1988), the empirical research showed very often (e.g. Pierce and Dunham, 1978 and Fried and Ferris, 1986, 1987) that, in general, the factorial structure of the job characteristics does not confirm a five factor structure, but it is also true that the structures found vary too much from sample to sample, which makes it advisable to follow the theoretical model as the one providing a firmer basis. Even the criticism related to the reverse items of the JDS, producing sometimes a parasite factor, does not seem sufficiently strong to change the instrument (Idasgak and Drasgow, 1987, and Kulik, Oldham and Langner, 1988).

Anyway, the Job Characteristics Model by Hackman and Oldham does not seem to exhaust the study of tasks to be performed in organizations.

Another traditional model for dealing with the job, views it not in its intrinsical characteristics but as an **organizational role.**
The role theories from the past have produced lots of theoretical and empirical research (e.g.: Rosseau, 1977, and Cammann et al., 1983) that at present is very contested and the usefulness of which seems to be dubious (see MOW, 1987). However, this approach induces some constructs, whose practical usefulness may be interesting. Furthermore, the empirical analysis by Cammann et al. (1983) of the relationships among task characteristics, role characteristics and outcome variables, such as job satisfaction, showed construct validity with weak correlations between task and role characteristics and some impact of the latter on job satisfaction (see also Rosseau, 1977). Therefore, we decide to introduce three dimensions of role characteristics in our analysis: role conflict, role clarity and role overload.

Following the work of Cammann et al. (1983), in their study of the MOAQ, we also introduce two other parameters of job analysis at this level: training adequacy and job challenge.

Training adequacy concerns how well the job is suited to the employee's abilities, namely knowledge and training. Theoretically this parameter is generally related with job challenge and from a practical point of view, its utility is evident. In Cammann et al. (1983), the factor analysis with job characteristics showed a clear training adequacy factor.

The introduction of **job challenge** in the perception of the job was felt as a result of the need to have a global index of the motivating power or quality of the tasks. It is generally conceived as a psychological state, moderating the relationship between job characteristics and individual outputs, which is partially confirmed by MOAQ applications (Cammann et al. 1983). The same study showed, that it can be seen as a construct incorporating the three psychological states proposed by Hackman and Oldham (1976). Nevertheless, the moderator effect of this construct was not completely confirmed empirically (Fried and Ferris, 1987), which leads us to consider job challenge with a status similar to a job characteristic.

In an expectancy-theory perspective, we add an additional item about the **expected importance evolution of the job**, i.e., to what extent does the employee perceive his job in connotation with an image generating a successful future in the organizational context.

2.5.1.3 - GROUP PERCEPTION

At this organizational level, we decide to establish the scope of the group concept from an organizational point of view, i.e. from the formal work groups built according to the way pyramidal organizations are structured, which, in general, corresponds to a particular organizational unit with one, and only one, supervisor. We are aware that, even though this option helps to identify the various groups, it does not mean that we are dealing with the significant group for each individual.

In group perception, we distinguish two main dimensions: work group functioning and supervision. It is well recognized that these dimensions are interconnected but they concern specific contents and frameworks. To analyze them further, we will deal with them separately.

2.5.1.3.1 - WORK GROUP FUNCTIONING

To analyze this dimension we follow the work of Cammann et al. (1983), for whom "work groups commonly comprise a set of people who share the same or adjoining work places, report to the same supervisor, and engage in tasks that are similar or related" (p. 99).
Previous research has shown that group functioning has an important impact on job outputs (e.g. Likert, 1961 and Hackman and Morris, 1975).

Cammann et al. (1983), in their Organizational Questionnaire, provide measures to assess five aspects of work group functioning:
Homogeneity - Degree of similarity of backgrounds and competences of group members;
Group goal clarity - Goal orientation of the work unit;
Cohesiveness - Perception of belonging to the group;
Open group process - Degree of open communication and influence inside the work group;
Internal fragmentation - Conflicts inside the group.

The authors claim that the scales are satisfactorily reliable and the data published show a good statistical validity. Although the factor analysis of the scales provides only three factors, clustering group goal clarity, cohesiveness and open group process in factor 1, open group process and fragmentation in factor 2 and a 3rd factor composed of group homogeneity, the correlations of the five scales with job satisfaction, involvement, social reward satisfaction, job challenge, role conflict and intention of turnover confirm the theoretical expectations about the relationships among group measures and the individual outputs. From this the utility of the five dimensions can be inferred.

In order to know the degree of identification with the group, we also ask for the perceived **image of the group inside the organization** and the perception of **group efficiency**. In an expectancy theory perspective, we are also interested in the **importance expectations about the group**.

2.5.1.3.2 - SUPERVISION

The impact of supervision on attitudinal and behavioral outputs in work has been largely demonstrated in the past.

As before, we follow the work of Cammann et al. (1983) to analyze this dimension. The descriptive scales about supervisor's style, constructed by these authors, seem very adequate to assess the perception of subordinates about their supervisors, focussing on the activities bearing on the relation supervisor-subordinate, whereas other tasks of the supervisor's job, such as decision making and planning, are approached at other points.

On the whole, the supervision model of Cammann et al. is perfectly suited to our sample and goals: it is applicable to all levels of the organizations, including the middle level supervisors, who are at the same time subordinates, and it may be used only in pyramidal organizational structures with a single supervisor in each organizational unit, which happens to be the case in our study.

When applied in the USA, the scales of the MOAQ provided a reliability between .76 and .93. Also, the intercorrelations and factor analysis accounted for a significant amount of shared variance among items and scales, which allows a reduction of scales without loss of information. So, we decide to suppress two scales from the original questionnaire: Consideration and Participation. According to Cammann's analysis these scales are very interconnected and show a strong correlation (.84 and .81) with the dimension 'work facilitation' - 'subordinate relations'. Both scales share the same factors on which 'work facilitation - subordinate relations' loaded. The analysis also provides some evidence on construct validity of the MOAQ scales.

We kept the following scales (definitions following Cammann et al., 1983):
Production orientation - The extent to which the supervisor stresses performance outcomes in dealing with subordinates.
Control of work - The extent to which the supervisor maintains control of work that is being done by knowing the state of projects, planning work flows, and making sure the work is done correctly.
Work facilitation - Goal setting - The extent to which the supervisor helps the subordinates to have clear and integrated goals so that they can know what they should be doing.
Work facilitation - Problem solving - The extent the supervisor helps the subordinates solve work related problems.
Work facilitation - Subordinate relations - The extent to which the supervisor maintains good communication and helpful, equitable relations with subordinates.
Bias - The extent to which the supervisor is biased by sex in dealing with subordinates (one item).
Decision centralization - The extent to which the supervisor makes important decisions without involving subordinates.
Competence - Overall supervisory competence (a single item).

2.5.1.4 - REWARDS PERCEPTION

Given the specific features of financial rewards in the Portuguese organizations where we collected data, which, in some way, are representative of pay systems in Portugal in 1989, we have to distinguish two main forms of increasing the basic salary:
- Pay connected with merit (individual appraisal without consequences in category level);
- Promotion (change of category level connected with individual appraisal or not).

In one of the enterprises where we collected data both pay systems are present, with promotion mainly connected with individual appraisal, while in the other there is no merit evaluation and promotion is mainly connected with automatisms. In the latter, the salary is only related with job level and, consequently, we can expect significant differences in this field. This means that in Portugal, at this time, in some big enterprises, promotion is the only way to get more money. Consequently, we can also expect that promotion is psychologically associated with money and, secondarily, with status. Following Lawler (1971) and Cammann et al. (1983), both dimensions are conceptualized on the basis of performance-reward contingency and on equity concepts.

PAY features measured:
- **Performance - Pay contingency**: Perceived relationship between pay and individual performance.
- **Internal equity of pay**: Degree of perceived equitable payment in comparison with others inside the enterprise.
- **External equity of pay**: Degree of perceived equitable payment in comparison with people in other organizations in the region.

Promotion features measured:
- **Performance - Promotion contingency**: Perceived relationship between promotion and individual performance.
- **Internal equity of promotion**: Degree of perceived equity in promotions inside the enterprise.
- **External equity of promotion**: Degree of perceived equity in promotions in comparison with people in other organizations in the region.
- **Promotion expectancies**: Estimated possibilities of evolution in the career.

2.5.1.5 - ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTION

In order to describe the characteristics of an organization as a work environment condition, we looked for a theoretical model that could suggest to us the dimensions to measure in the perception of the employees.

All conceptual models of organizational assessment (e.g.: James and Jones, 1974, Van de Ven and Ferry, 1980, Seashore, 1983, Veen, 1984, Harrison, 1987) show several weaknesses. As exposed by Veen (1984), even the basic concepts of the theories, like structure, technology, dimension or environment, are not clear or well defined, and, consequently, the reliability and validity of the majority of the measures are weak and unsatisfactory.

Thus, whereas James and Jones (1974) classify the organizational characteristics in five groups: context, structure, processes, physical environment and values and norms, Veen (1984) suggests as characteristics of organizations: goals, effectiveness, technology, structure, size and environment. Each of the global characterizations of organizations is clearly distinct with different dimensions. But even when there is a common dimension its content is often different. For instance, where size is included by James and Jones in structure, for Veen it is an autonomous characteristic, even determinant of the structure. In classical studies, centralization (authority delegation and decision making) is a structural dimension but decision making is very often considered to be a process of the organization, where it is not certainly strange to distinguish between formal versus informal processes (e.g.: Survey Item Bank, 1984, and James and Jones, 1974).

On this subject, the authors of the Survey Item Bank conclude: "Unfortunately, the definitions are not watertight and some organizational characteristics can be placed under more than one heading".

It is not our purpose to build a new theory of organizations or even to systematize a clear and undisputable system of organizational characteristics. Our main goal is to analyze the effects of values on the perception of organizational characteristics and the effects of both on individual outputs.

Hence, following the example of Seashore (1983), we will not be committed to any particular theoretical model of organizational characteristics, choosing our indices (concepts and measures) of organizational perception according to the following criteria:
- Proven impact of the organizational concepts and their operationalization on individual outputs.
- Potential impact on individual outputs according to the opinions of organizational members (also users of the data).
- Measures that in the past showed good reliability and validity.
- "Concepts and operational variables thought to allow comparisons among organizations studied and within each organization over time" (Seashore, 1983).
- Concepts and measures not included in previous organizational levels.

In choosing these options, we are aware of the possible criticism of lack of theory testing or theory building in organizational theories but, as Seashore (1983) puts it, "the choice is to work

with a large number of causal systems (...), the hope and expectation is that small theories, empirically validated, will in time become additive and connected".

At this more general level of the work environment, we group our indices of organizational perception in four groups:
- Structure
- Procedures
- Norms
- Perception of the organization as a whole.

We consider **structure** as the more stable relationship among the various elements of the organization (people, tasks, machines,etc.), which are translated in the Organizational Design (Schein, 1986), i.e. how product lines, market areas and functional responsibilities are divided. We include in this dimension: size, composition, vertical structure, transversal structure and technology, although some of them are classically viewed as contextual variables.

Other classical structure variables, like decentralization and functional dependence, which have been proven in the past to have a significant effect on individual outputs, e.g.: Morris and Steers (1980), are not included since their contents, in an individual employee perspective, are very similar to those of job characteristics.

- **Size** - Generally conceived as the number of employees of the organization. As we are dealing with one of the bigger enterprises and one of the bigger insurance companies in Portugal, we decide only to inquire how big employees perceive their organizations to be.
- **Composition** - Concerns the human composition of the organization. Our interest focusses on the need of new managers and technicians.
- **Transversal structure** - Related with differentiation and integration among departments.
- **Vertical structure** - Since we are dealing with pyramidal organizations, this dimension tries to evaluate the adequacy of the number of hierarchical levels and their functioning, in a classical management perspective.
- **Technology** - Concerns an evaluation of the level of technology used by the enterprise.

Considering **procedure** as the activities and less regular relationships developed in a certain organizational design (for instance, decision making and communication processes not established in the formal vertical and transversal structures), we include in this dimension: planning, rules (formalization), communication, decision and risks.

- **Planning** - This is a classical dimension of organizational processes in management theories. The concept used concerns mainly "thinking ahead versus short term thinking".
- **Rules (Formalization)** - It is concerned with the degree of formalization, regulations and formal rules, and its impact inside the enterprise.
- **Communication** - It concerns the quality, quantity, direction and speed of communication inside the organization.
- **Decision** - Considering the pyramidal organizations we are dealing with, we conceive the decision making process mainly in the way it centers on time and on the receptiveness of the managers involved.
- **Risks** - In general this dimension is considered in the norms group. However, since we are dealing with an insurance company where the risks are a main characteristic of the business, we decide to include this characteristic in procedures. It focusses on the organizational willingness to take chances in business.

Considering **norms** as ideas, attitudes or behaviors desired and valued by the organization, we include in this group: conventionalism, leader psychological distance, sociability, attitudes towards conflict, attitudes towards innovation and scientific and technical orientation.

- **Conventionalism** - It concerns conventionalism in the way of dressing.
- **Leader psychological distance** - One of the cultural parameters proposed by Hofstede (1980) in cross-cultural studies. In our research we define the concept as the degree of formality in the relationships with managers.
- **Sociability** - Perception of the importance given by the organization to social events.
- **Attitudes towards conflict** - We define this dimension as tolerance to conflict and criticism. In the cross-cultural study of Hofstede (see Bollinger and Hofstede, 1987), among 53 countries, Portugal appears as a country with a higher rank in the dimension control of uncertainty (2nd position), although the sample is small, since data were collected in one of the enterprises known in Portugal as openminded and facilitating criticism.
- **Attitudes towards innovation** - It concerns new ways of doing things.
- **Scientific and technical orientation** - It deals with the degree of organizational interest in scientific and technological developments.

In the perception of the **organization as a whole**, we include: perception of the relationship enterprise-employee, image of top managers and image of the organization.
- **Relationship employee-enterprise** - It deals with the perception of the match between employees and enterprise.
- **Image of top managers** - Perception of and trust in top managers.
- **Image of the organization** - Global perception of the enterprise.

2.5.2 - ANTECEDENTS

Since the data which became available from our investigation lend themselves for such further analysis, we decided, in an exploratory sense, to analyze the relationships between the antecedents taken in consideration for values analysis and job/organizational perceptions. Such an analysis lies outside the scope of our main goal and, consequently, of our hypotheses, therefore it is a data analysis which will not be fully interpreted in this study.

2.5.2.1 - PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

It is well known that some demographic characteristics, as well as the individual background, have an important effect upon employee perceptions and, even, behavioral outputs (e.g. Cammann et al. 1983). As with values, we study the possible relationships of personal characteristics - **sex**, **age** and **education** - with job/organizational perception.

O'Reilly, Parlette and Bloom (1980) showed that personal characteristics, such as age and education, have a significant impact on the way employees perceive their task characteristics, which leads them to conclude that perceptions of those characteristics vary with the worker's frames of reference. We are also interested in analysing the effects of our three personal characteristics on the perceptions of group functioning, supervision, rewards and organization.

2.5.2.2 - INDIVIDUAL ORGANIZATIONAL HISTORY

It has been assumed that job longevity, unit seniority and **organizational seniority** are important situational factors that can shape individual outputs (Katz, 1978, Schein, 1971, and Van Maanen and Schein, 1979). But whereas the relationships between job longevity, job characteristics and job satisfaction have been studied empirically, although with contraditory results (see: Katz, 1978, Kamp and Cook, 1983, and Fried and Ferris, 1987), the relationship between organizational seniority and job/organizational perception have not been empirically analyzed in a systematic way. O'Reilly, Parlette and Bloom (1980) indicate that unit seniority can influence tasks perception.

Anyway, following the three-dimensional socialization model of Van Maanen and Schein (1979) organizational seniority is an index of the employee movement across the intra-organizational boundaries.

It seems fair to assume that **training** inside the organization, where goals are totally specified and established by the organization, can have an impact on job and organizational perception, namely on the perception of global organizational processes.

Several authors, as Schein (1971), Van Maanen and Schein (1979) and Katz (1978), recognize that the relationship of the employee to the workplace depends upon one's career stage, which is connected with **promotion**. It is also clear that career evolution corresponds to a change in tasks, roles and status inside the organization, which can influence job and organizational perception significantly at all levels.

2.5.2.3 - SUPERVISION

There is a consensus that being a supervisor or not has important consequences on the kinds of tasks, roles, goals and status to be performed inside an organization, which implies different descriptive perceptions of job and organizational characteristics. On top of that, the different structural positions and reference groups within the organization and in the global social system can also influence job and organizational perceptions.

For instance, Whitely (1981) showed that the hierarchical rank tends to perceive more autonomy and less bureaucracy in the organizations.

2.5.2.4 - ENTERPRISE

In a descriptive meaning of job and organizational perception (James and James, 1989), it seems natural that different enterprises, with different goals, structures, procedures, reward systems, groups and jobs, should imply perceptions which vary accordingly, on the basis of the presence or absence of some features.

In our case, since we have two enterprises with the same kinds of job, we are not expecting differences at this level. But several differences seem important at a structural level, for instance size and technology, and at the reward system level, because the rewards may be based on individual appraisal or not, as the case may be. For both levels, organizational perceptions should be discriminating.

2.5.2.5 - REGION

Since there are regions with different political and socio-economic realities and different kinds of enterprises, we assume that these regional peculiarities provide different frames of reference to the employees, which can influence job and organizational perceptions.

2.5.2.6 - VALUES

Their relationships we have already analysed when we discussed the effects of general values and of work related values on job/organizational perceptions.

2.5.3 - EFFECTS ON INDIVIDUAL OUTPUTS

There is a large number of works concerning the relationships between perceptions of work environment attributes and satisfaction (Locke, 1976, Francès 1983, Hackman and Oldham, 1980, Fried and Ferris, 1987).

Today it is well recognized that these relationships are not recursive or unidirectional: job perception --▸ job satisfaction or job satisfaction --▸ job perception, but non-recursive or bidirectional. Several authors (e.g.: Lazarus, 1982, 1984, Caldwell and O'Reilly, 1982, James and Tetrick, 1986, James and James, 1989) hold that they are processes interacting reciprocally, that they are interdependent and, consequently, highly correlated.

In the case of job perception --▸ job satisfaction, the cognitive appraisal of work/organizational environment influences the emotion (Lazarus, 1982, 1984). In the opposite case, the level of general satisfaction will induce the individual to restructure perceptions according to the level of the emotion. An argument supporting this hypothesis assumes that the level of job satisfaction is also a function of an individual's predisposition to a certain level of satisfaction (Pulakos and Schmitt, 1983).

Using confirmatory analytical techniques, James and Tetrick (1986) tested three models of causal relations between job perceptions and job satisfaction:

1. Postcognitive - nonrecursive model: Even if reciprocally related, job perceptions are the first cause of job satisfaction.
2. Precognitive - recursive model: Job satisfaction is the first cause of job perceptions and it is not influenced by them.
3. Precognitive - nonrecursive model: Even if reciprocally related, job satisfaction is the first cause of job perception.

Although the methodology can not "prove" any hypothesis, the results invalidate all the hypotheses except the postcognitive nonrecursive model.

In our research, we follow this postcognitive model and, although our statistical strategy assumes a recursive/unidirectional relationship, our interpretation will be nonrecursive.

We use this postcognitive model not only with job satisfaction but also with the other two individual psychological reactions to work environment: job involvement and organizational commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

As said before, there is a large number of works showing the relationships between job/organizational characteristics and **job satisfaction** (e.g.: Locke, 1976, Hackman and Oldham, 1980, Cammann et al., 1983, Fried and Ferris, 1987).

In a meta-analysis based on correlational data from 76 studies, Fried and Ferris (1987) showed that job characteristics tend to have moderate to strong relationships with psychological outcomes, like job satisfaction.

Kohn and Schooler (1983) and Lorence and Mortimer (1985) verified a consistent influence of intrinsic characteristics of work on **job involvement**. Kanungo (1982) also states the influence of extrinsic characteristics, leading to the effects of job/organizational situations on job involvement.

Several authors, e.g. Morris and Steers (1980), Fried and Ferris (1987) and Mathieu and Zajac (1990) found that job characteristics, roles, supervision and organizational characteristics have a significant impact on **organizational commitment**.

On the whole, we can expect, according to the concept of psychological proximity from Lewin's Field Theory, that work environment characteristics more proximal to the day-to-day life of the worker are likely to have a more significant influence on individual outputs.

2.6 - INDIVIDUAL JOB AND ORGANIZATIONAL OUTPUTS

According to our model, we also intend to analyze the impact of values and perceptions of job/organizational environment on some individual outputs.

We consider three individual psychological reactions:
- Job satisfaction
- Job involvement
- Organizational commitment

And a declared behavioral output:
- Hours of work declared

2.6.1 - JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction was defined by Locke (1976), as an affective response to job and task events. It corresponds to some feeling states and emotions connected with the job. Given the large number of variables we control, we decide to consider overall job satisfaction instead of a more analytical approach, based on the several determinants of job satisfaction. The consequences of job satisfaction on absenteeism and turnover are well recognized.

2.6.2 - JOB INVOLVEMENT

The most cited definition of job involvement is the one by Kanungo (1982). According to him, it is "a belief descriptive of the present job" that "tends to be a function of how much a job can satisfy one's present needs" (p. 342).

In general, job and work involvement are defined as the degree of identification of individuals with their job or work (e.g. Cammann et al. 1983). In our context, we will deal with the concept of job involvement, with a more specific object than the concept behind the construct of work involvement, (Kanungo, 1982 and Lorence and Mortimer, 1985), since our interest is not focussed on occupational involvement or centrality of work in general life but on present life inside certain organizations.

Whereas Kanungo (1982), according to his definition, claims a cognitive status for job involvement, most of the other authors include it among the affective reactions to the work environment, see for instance: Campion and Thayer, 1985, and Mathieu and Zajac, 1990.

Job Involvement is often associated with work effort and performance effectiveness (Wiener and Vardi, 1980).

2.6.3 - ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

In a broader perspective, "organizational commitment is considered to be a bond or linking of the individual to the organization" (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). In a more specific way which is very common, organizational commitment was defined by Porter et al. (1974), as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in an organization.

According to the same authors, it can be divided in three main components:
- A person's strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals.
- A person's willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization.
- A person's definitive desire to maintain membership.

Adopting this definition, we decide to place the analysis of organizational commitment in an attitudinal perspective, and not in a calculated one, which is more congruent with the other two psychological reactions considered - all of them can be considered as affective reactions to the organizational environment and their relationships are quite known - and it appears to have a higher predictive validity (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

Summarizing longitudinal studies, Mowday et al. (1979) indicate that organizational commitment predicts leaving behavior significantly, but in general it predicts behavioral intentions better than withdrawal behaviors (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

2.6.4 - RELATING THESE THREE INDIVIDUAL PSYCHOLOGICAL REACTIONS

In the analysis of Cammann et al. (1983), these **three individual psychological reactions** appear relatively intercorrelated (between .32 and .44). However, in a factor analysis of the items of these scales and from other attitude scales, job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment load on different factors, reinforcing the validity of the constructs.
In their large review on Organizational Commitment, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) also verify quite strong correlations between organizational commitment and job satisfaction and job involvement. However, there is a general consensus that the three constructs are "conceptually and empirically distinct", so that they are treated at the same level as correlates by these authors. They also advance the hypothesis that the correlations between job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment may be partly attributable to a "generalized affective response" to environment or to a "halo impression".

2.6.5 - EXTRA - HOURS IN WORK

Considered as a behavioral element, time spent on work and organizational activities, is seen in some contexts as a direct measure of involvement with working (e.g.: MOW, 1987).

Because the time spent on work is mainly determined by the legal or conventional rules, we focus our attention on the time spent inside the organization beyond normal schedule, by decision of the employee: because he accepts extra-hours or he wants to finish some task or he wants to discuss work and organizational themes with others. Whereas in the last two situations mentioned the individual decision seems to be the most determinant, in the first one it depends for a great deal on the demands made by the department and/or organization, although he can accept or refuse extra-work time. Given the impossibility of collecting behavioral data on the basis of personal identification in the survey, we use a self-report measure for this behavior.

We assume that the decision to spend more time at work is influenced by values and by the perception of work/organizational environment characteristics.

2.7 - HYPOTHESES

According to our research strategy, we establish the following hypotheses:

ANTECEDENTS

As a consequence of the theoretical approach, it is possible to hypothesize that to live for a long time in an organization implies changes in value systems, as a result of formal and informal socialization mechanisms of organizations, even if the values of the organization can compete with those of other institutions (for instance: family or religion).

Given the cross-sectional character of our research it is difficult to establish causal relationships among variables in a socialization context, which is only possible in a longitudinal study.

This difficulty has consequences for the possibility of discriminating between occupational selection and occupational socialization processes. Nevertheless, from a theoretical point of view (e.g. Rokeach, 1973, Van Maanen and Schein, 1979, Connor and Becker, 1979), variables as seniority, training and career/promotion have been considered as analysis parameters of organizational socialization processes, and they can assess the probable socializing impact of organizations, without excluding the possible effects of occupational selection.

Since personal characteristics effects are also controlled, which have repeatedly shown strong relationships with value systems patterns (general and work related values), we can formulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1 - To live for a long time (seniority) in bureaucratic organizations is related with changes in value systems.

Hypothesis 2 - The quantity of training in bureaucratic organizations is related with changes in value systems.
Hypothesis 3 - Career evolution in bureaucratic organizations is related with changes in value systems.

Hypothesis 4 - To perform a supervisor job or a subordinate one is related with differences in value systems.
We will also test if the interactions of supervision with seniority, training and career evolution, which are socialization indices, have a significant autonomous impact on value systems.

Hypothesis 5 - Among bureaucratic organizations it is possible to differentiate types of organizations, according to their contextual features (size, technology, goals...), structures and managerial procedures and norms, which are related with different cultures and, consequently, different value systems (general and domain specific).

In order to control this hypothesis, we choose two different organizations (see Organizational Characteristics) both working in three different regions of Portugal (see Region Characteristics). Each enterprise has the same job and organizational formal structure and procedures in the three regions. With this apparatus we try to verify if the value structures of employees are more related with the enterprise or with the environmental region.

Hypothesis 6 - The relationship between each organization and its value system results from a socialization process specific to the organization, which can be detected by seniority, training, career and supervision inside the organization.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN GENERAL VALUES AND WORK RELATED VALUES, JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS AND INDIVIDUAL OUTPUTS

From a cognitive point of view, we saw that general values are conceived as central constructs in cognitive structures, influencing specific domain values, attitudes, judgements and behaviors. Supporting a reciprocal causal model between cognitive elements, we can hypothesize:

Hypothesis 8 - General values are related and influence logically consistent work related values, for specific domain values (Vinson et al., 1977, Verhallen et al., 1989).

Hypothesis 9 - General values are related with job/organizational characteristics perceptions.

This hypothesis has been formulated by Connor and Becker (1979). According to James and Jones (1989), the relationships between values and perceptions should be stronger for evaluative perceptions than for descriptive perceptions, because they require more complex informational processes to judge how much a value is represented in or by a perceived environmental attribute, while in the second case the judgement is mainly based on the presence or absence of a certain feature.

Hypothesis 10 - The general values are related with individual job/organizational outputs.
According to Locke (1976), values can serve as standards for assessing welfare.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN WORK RELATED VALUES AND JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Following the reciprocal causation model, used by Kohn and Schooler (1983) and MOW (1987), which states the most plausible relationship between work related values and job/organizational characteristics perceptions, we hypothesize:

Hypothesis 11 - Work related values are related with the perceptions of job and organizational characteristics.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN WORK RELATED VALUES AND INDIVIDUAL JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL OUTPUTS

Although previous results have been modest (MOW 1987), work related values are in general (Locke, 1976) associated with individual job/organizational outputs.

Hypothesis 12 - Work related values are related with and have influence on individual job/organizational outputs.

From theory we should expect that work related values are more related with individual outputs than general values are. Because they are less abstract than the latter, they are more closely related at a content level. Hence, the next hypothesis seems interesting to test.

Hypothesis 13 - Work related values are more related with individual job/organizational outputs, than general values.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS PERCEPTIONS AND INDIVIDUAL OUTPUTS

Job/organizational characteristics have shown a strong relationship with individual job/organizational outputs (e.g. Locke, 1976 and Hackman and Oldham, 1980). This leads us to hypothesize:

Hypothesis 14 - Job and organizational characteristics perceptions are more related with individual job/organizational outputs than general values and work related values.

3. - METHODOLOGY

3.1 - NATURE OF THE STUDY

Our study can be characterized as an empirical research mainly supported by a survey procedure.

The advantages and disadvantages of this kind of study are well known. As a major disadvantage, we underline the loss of qualitative information about subjective/personal themes. On the other hand, a survey provides us with more information gathered by standardized instruments allowing comparisons and replication studies.

For our purposes an interview study including all the matters we intended to analyze would be rather time consuming and it would be extremely costly for the enterprises (generally translated inside organizations by price/hour multiplied by the number of hours used by its members). A survey with closed questions allows us to cover a broader range of topics, measuring more variables for statistical control.

Inside organizations, a survey methodology also makes it possible to deal with confidential data in a more adequate manner. From our experience in organizations, we were aware of the apprehension of unions and employees to be interviewed about personal or organizational themes: their past experience told them that personalized information can have negative effects on their careers. In our case, both enterprises fully accepted the anonymous character of the research, and unions, employee representatives and individual employees were informed about the nature of the study. Nevertheless, after the pre-test stage, we discovered that it was impossible to use a code number which would make longitudinal studies possible. Towards the end, during the first collective applications we even had to drop the identification of professional category, in order to make employees feel secure while answering the survey.

Using a survey methodology allows us, in the value analysis, to make comparisons with other countries and to have a comparison standard for future studies in Portugal, and in the organizational analysis, to measure a considerable diversity of variables allowing a broad perspective on the complex field of organizations.

The cross-sectional nature of this work puts limits upon a causal interpretation of the assumed relationships. But as described in the theoretical introduction, the relationships between values, perceptions and psychological outputs are assumed to be of a reciprocal nature (see e.g. MOW, 1987) which corresponds to the analysis of these data.

We also have tried to study the process of value socialization. In this respect, of course, the cross sectional nature of the study poses more serious limitations, which we are fully aware of. To attain this goal, we built the design described in hypothesis 5 and to gain some insight in the socialization processes we explore the relationships between values and variables indicative of those processes, such as seniority, career and training. A longitudinal study would be more appropriate but "technical" problems made this impossible.

3.2 - PILOT STUDY: GENERAL AND WORK RELATED VALUES IN PORTUGAL

Before we decided about any specific value scale and considering that value measurement instruments should be created in the country itself, in the perspective termed by Triandis "emic" research, we tried to know what would be the values that a sample of Portuguese, chosen by chance, would cite in a spontaneous way. This approach allows contrasting the values found with the possible scales used in previous research, helping to choose or adapt one of them or, possibly, advising to create a new one.

Beyond this goal, we also intended to know the subjective impression of the sample individuals towards a possible evolution of their value systems, particularly related to organizational contexts.

Thus, we decided to accomplish several focussed semi-directive interviews. We interviewed 20 individuals, chosen by chance, in 3 Portuguese regions: Lisboa, Abrantes and Setubal. In Lisboa, 5 interviews were done in the enterprise coded as E2 in this work, in a department not included in the survey.

After some introductory questions like: "On your admission to this organization, could you choose among other organizations?", "And among other jobs?", we focussed on the following topics:

Goal 1. - To detect specific values in Portugal

This goal was accomplished in the interview guide by the points:

1.1. - 'Before your admission to this enterprise, what was important for you?'

1.2. - 'And now, what is important for you?'

In both questions, after the first free answer, we suggested two main areas of values: in general life and in work.

Goal 2. - Subjective experience of value change

1.3. - 'Since your admission to the organization, do you think that you changed in what you considered and you consider now to be important to you?'

In this question, we suggested 2 main areas of values: general values and work related values.

1.4. - 'What was more determinant in those changes?'
Yourself? Your colleagues? Your supervisors? The enterprise?
Your friends? Family? Neighbours?
Your family? (husband, wife, children, parents)
Society evolution? (newspapers, radio, television)

With the same goal and considering that there could be different or even more valid measurements based on descriptions of other people's values and changes than those based on self-descriptions, as is supported by several authors like Bollinger and Hofstede (1987), we also formulated question 1.5:

1.5. - 'And about your colleagues, do you think that they changed in what was important to them? ...What were their values then?... And how about now?'.

Data analysis revealed the same kind of answer given in question 1.3.

The interviews were taped and made the object of content analysis.

Sample Characteristics

Region -	Abrantes: 05
	Lisboa: 12
	Setubal: 03
Sex -	Male: 11
	Female: 09

Education -	Elementary School or less (≤6 years): 02
	Secondary School (9 or 12 years): 10
	Superior Studies : 08
Age -	20/30 : 07
	30/40 : 04
	40/50 : 06
	50/60 : 02
	>60 : 01
Professions -	Technicians/Supervisors: 07
	Clerical : 10
	Blue-collars : 03
Seniority -	1 and < : 00
	2-5 : 07
	>5-10 : 07
	>10-25 : 06
	>25 : 02

Some considerations about the interviews

During the interviews, in the same way as happened with other authors (v.g. Braithwaite and Law, 1985), some individuals showed an initial difficulty to approach the concept of value, mainly in its more general form - general values. They started to talk about some more concrete features of their lives, like "to get a job" or "to listen to music", later clarifying the more general signification of these "goals".

Content Analysis

The content analysis was done by three judges, who, in a first step, codified the interviews in value categories, following as main criteria for general values: Rokeach Value Systems, and for work related values: MOW (1987), Valued Working Outcomes and Work Goals, and Gomes-Mejia (1985), Work related Values. In a second phase, these categories were made uniform by general consensus.

For each subject several citations of the same value towards the same area of importance attribution, for instance in work at the present moment, were always considered as only one unit. In the whole analysis, we only mention values declared by more than one subject.

Data Analysis

In the introductory questions, we obtained the following results:

12 subjects against 8 state to have chosen the enterprise where they work now.
And 11 subjects against 5 (4 of them were not clear in this option) state to have chosen their jobs.

These data may imply that a significant part of people can choose a job and an organization and that their value systems may guide their choices, in the theoretical perspective of Individual Choice of Social Environments by Feather (1975).

Goal 1. Specific values in Portugal

GENERAL VALUES

Question 1.1. - Before your admission to this enterprise, what was important for you?

to get a job	05	
to get money	05	
freedom	04	(To feel free to do what I want)
independent	03	(Go out from parents' home and be autonomous)
family security	03	(The most important in my life was my family)
friendship	02	(To be with friends/Sincerity among friends)
job security	02	(To have a good and stable job)
pleasure	02	(To enjoy everyday life)
advancement	02	(To get good results in my studies)

Question 1.2. - And now, what is important for you?

Helpful	05	(To practise in real life social solidarity)
Comfortable life	04	(To have a good life without financial concerns)
A world of beauty	04	(To have the possibility to enjoy music, art,...)
True friendship	04	(To have nice friends who can help you)
Independent	03	(To profit from my retirement and be self-sufficient)
Freedom	03	(To say what we want)
Self-controlled	03	(To be self-disciplined, to have principles)
Job Security	03	(To keep my job)
Ambitious	03	(The important is my career)
Openminded	03	(To know other countries and other cultures)
Equality	03	(Duties and opportunities similar to everyone)
Family Security	02	(The future of my sons)
Responsibility	02	(Sense of responsibility)
Wisdom	02	(To have a life more meditated)
Sense Accomplish	02	(Personal Accomplishment)
Social Recognition	02	(To have a better status)

Analysis

From the content analysis, we conclude that the majority of the inferred values can be placed in the Rokeach Terminal and Instrumental Value Systems, even if sometimes using a different word to express the same or equivalent concept.

Some matters declared to be important before the admission in the organization, such as "to get a job" and "to get money", correspond to situations of looking for a first job with, essentially, an instrumental character towards the basic needs of life in society.

An important general value for Portuguese seems to be "Job Security", not foreseen in the Rokeach value systems, clearly distinct from national security and, apparently, different from family security. Several authors, like Wilpert (MOW, 1987), consider it a work related value, which is theoretically consistent, even if it does not seem absurd to take it as a general value (e.g. Nevill and Super, 1986, under the name of "Economic Security"). Anyway, in this research it will be treated as a work related value.

Another concept absent in the Rokeach value systems and cited twice by the subjects of our sample, is "Advancement", i.e. to improve knowledge and skills, a concept different from ambitious and generally considered as a work related value. In this work, it will be considered as that, even if, as in the previous case, it seems conceivable as a general value: advancement can be sought in work but also in other life roles.

Given that all general values significantly cited (more than twice) could be located in the Rokeach value systems and that "Job Security" and "Advancement" are considered at the level of work related values, we decided to maintain the Rokeach value systems without change, allowing for possible comparisons within Portugal and between countries.

Differences between before and now

Apart from the naturally larger number of citations gathered from the present study, it seems significant that two instrumental goals have vanished: "to get a job" and "to get money", which according to the qualitative analysis seemed to be transformed in values like "a comfortable life", "sense of accomplishment", "social recognition", "family security" and "independence".

Other significant changes:
- The disappearance of "Pleasure" and "Advancement".
- The appearance of Social Oriented Values (Rokeach, 1973), such as "Helpful" and "Equality".
- The appearance of Enlarger Values (Howard et al., 1983) such as "Ambitious", "Sense of Accomplishment", "A Comfortable Life" and "Social Recognition".
- The appearance of Self-Constriction Values (Rokeach, 1973), such as "Self-Controlled" and "Responsibility".
- The appearance of the Terminal Value "A World of Beauty".

WORK RELATED VALUES

Question 1.1. - 'Before your admission to this organization, what was important in work?'

To use my knowledge and skills	03
Interesting work	02

Question 1.2. - 'And now, what is important in work?'

To reach goals/results	07
Personal advancement/new things	06
Autonomy	05
Responsibility	05
Variety	04
Innovation	04
Economic rewards	04
Technology	02
Relations with clients	02
Task clarity	02
Interesting work	02
Related with art/culture	02
Promotion	02
To feel useful	02

Analysing these results, we were able to establish a fair relationship with the work related value system proposed by the MOW Team (1987). Several values were common, such as: 'Opportunity to learn new things', 'Autonomy', 'Variety', 'Economic rewards', 'Interesting work' and 'Promotion', which reinforced our decision to adopt this work related value system.

However, a surprising result that we could not find in any work related value systems (MOW, 1987, Vroom, 1964, Hulin and Triandis, 1981, Gomez-Mejia, 1985) was the importance given to 'To Reach Goals/Results', cited by 7 individuals. It seems that Portuguese people are strongly intrinsically motivated and centered on the results of their work, a conclusion which is later going to be confirmed in our study. It was impossible to ignore this result and we decided to adopt this work related value in the scale of the adopted system. Anyway, in the international survey conducted by the MOW Team (1987) to the open question: "(...) what is most important to you about work", 13% of the respondents answered 'accomplishment' or 'creativeness' which is possibly related with this specific work related value.

Another value well cited, by 5 individuals, was 'Responsibility'. Theoretically, it is very often associated with autonomous work, being considered a psychological state (see for instance Hackman and Oldham, 1980). We decided not to take it.

Another value cited in the interviews 4 times was 'Innovation', which can be related with 'Learn new things', 'Interesting work' and 'Autonomy'. Given the dimension of our sample (20) and the lack of clarity of 'Innovation', we decided not to take it in our scale.

Differences between before and now

Before the admission in the organization, the individuals only remembered self-centered values, such as 'To use my knowledge and skills and 'Interesting work'. In the present, they also give importance to the intrinsic characteristics of the work, such as 'Autonomy', 'Variety' and 'To Reach goals/results', and to extrinsic characteristics, like 'Economic rewards' or 'Promotion'.

Goal 2. - Subjective experience of value change

To question 1.3. - "Since your admission to this organization, do you think that you changed in what you considered and you consider now to be important to you?", we obtained the following global scores:

'Yes, I changed a lot...'	02
'Yes, I changed...'	14
'Perhaps...'	03
Does not answer	01

Thus, in our sample 80% of the subjects estimate to have changed in what is important for them.

GENERAL VALUES

Values declared to have become more important:

Wisdom	04
Responsibility	03

Values declared to have become less important:

Family	03
Ambition	02

Analysis

The most salient data seem to imply a paradox: the majority of the subjects estimate that they changed in their values but they show some difficulty to say what values gained or lost importance.

WORK RELATED VALUES

Values that individuals declared to have become more important:

Good relationships	07
Job Involvement	03
Responsibility	02
Relationships with clients	02
Calmness	02

Values declared to have become less important:

Authority	02

Analysis

It seems clear that 'Good relationships' is estimated as a work related value that becomes more important with time.

Given that the majority of the members of our sample estimate to have changed in their values, Question 1.4. - "What was more determinant in those changes?", became very interesting:

Friends	08
Colleagues	07
Myself	05
Society Evolution	05
My Family	05
Status Change (Stud/Profession)	04
Mass Media	04
Parents	03
Studies	03
Supervisors	03
Organization/Enterprise	02
Contacts with Foreigner Countries	02

Analysis

Even if people show to have some difficulty in stating clearly what values became more or less important, they nearly all agree on the estimation of changes in their values. They ascribe those changes mainly to their peers: friends and colleagues.

3.3 - THE SURVEY

For references to the questionnaire, consult the original Portuguese version which is reprinted in Appendix 1.

3.3.1 - VALUES

3.3.1.1 - GENERAL VALUES: THE ROKEACH VALUE SURVEY

As said before, the Rokeach Value Survey seems to be a rather comprehensive list of values, consisting of two lists of values, a terminal one and an instrumental one. Each list has to be ranked in order of importance, which is consistent with the theoretical model.

The values included in the survey result from a broad review of literature on values in several societies and values reported by American subjects, which were selected by Rokeach's judgement and empirical evidence. All values included are virtually positive ones, trying to avoid possible influences of social desirability.

The test-retest reliability of the Rokeach Survey (Rokeach, 1973; Feather, 1975), for periods between three and seven weeks, for individual values, has a median for terminal values around .65 and for instrumental values around .60 and for value systems a median reliability of .74 for terminal values and .70 for instrumental values. It has also been proved that the Rokeach Survey is free of presentation order effects, either between terminal and instrumental lists or among the 18 values of each list (Rokeach, 1973; Greenstein and Bennett, 1974).

From a methodological point of view, using ranking scales, like the Rokeach Survey, implies dealing with "ipsative" measures, where, in this case, each value is not independent of the others, but in relation to the importance of other values on each list. Nevertheless, as is underlined by the MOW Team (1987), these scales, in comparison with Likert-type scales, have advantages in assessing sensitive issues like values, given that Likert Scales "run a serious risk of producing highly socially desirable responses with hardly any variance".

Two forms of the Rokeach Survey are available: Form D, a gummed label one, and Form E, where the respondents write numbers on the lines beside each set of values. Although Form D is generally considered the most adequate for research purposes, in our case, the survey character of our research suggested the use of Form E as more practical. Anyway, the final orders of both forms do not differ in a substantial way (Feather, 1975).

For the specific instructions for the section of the general value scales we adopt Rokeach's instructions.

3.3.1.2 - WORK RELATED VALUES

To analyze our second level of values, we adopt all the work goals, which after the empirical findings have been conceived as work related values (see Chapter Two, in our theoretical introduction), and as described in the item 32A-K of the survey conceived by the MOW Team (1987), keeping its ranking/rating form. These work values were based on the Minnesota Importance Questionnaire by Weiss, Davis, England and Lofquist, in the review of Job Satisfaction by Locke (1976) and in Quinn's works.

With the same theoretical and empirical status of work related value we added to these work goals item 12, focussed on the social service function of working, generally conceived as a valued working outcome. Among the six general functions of working developed by Kaplan and Tausky and adopted by the MOW Team (1987) - status and prestige, income-production, time-occupying, interpersonal contact, intrinsic function and societal service - this last one was the only one to appear empirically autonomous with regard to the work goals, in the generality of each seven countries analyzed and also present in the whole sample. In 1964, Vroom has already suggested societal service as a work goal with moral purpose. For these reasons, we decided to add it to our work related values scale.

To this scale, and as a result of the interviews, we also added a work related value that seems very significant in Portugal: 'To attain goals/results'.

Although initially we aimed for comparison purposes when we chose the value scales, the introduction of this apparently Portuguese specific work value and of societal service in the scale, changes, by a non-equivalent sampling of values, the number of values in comparison with the results found by the MOW Team (1987). Nevertheless, given the ranking/rating character of the scale, the consequences are not so serious as if we were working with ipsative data.

For the specific instructions for the section of the work related values scale we adopted those of the MOW Team.

3.3.2 - JOB AND ORGANIZATONAL PERCEPTION

As said before, we distinguish four main levels of job and organizational perception: job/role perception, group perception, rewards perception and organizational perception.

In each of these levels we discriminate several parameters according to theory and previous empirical works. For each parameter, we tried to choose a scale that had already been tested, i.e. which fitted in with theory and of which the metric qualities had been demonstrated to be valid and reliable, at least in some countries. When this was not possible we built the items or we picked them from several scales, trying to have different contents but also not inflating the number of items.

All the items employed use a Likert-type scale with seven points.

JOB/ROLE PERCEPTION

Job characteristics (point 2. of the survey - Appendix 1):
We use all the items from section 1 and 2 of the JOB DESCRIPTIVE SURVEY (Hackman and Oldham, 1980), included in the 5 job characteristics of the model: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback from the job itself.

Role characteristics
We follow the main parameters of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire - MOAQ (Cammannet al., 1983): role conflict, role clarity and role overload.

However, we changed the composition of the items of these parameters.

Role conflict: Item 3.1 of the survey is the only one that belongs to the MOAQ and it is related with conflicting expectations.
Items 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 were picked from the Role Conflict Scale by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman in the Survey Item Bank (1984). Items 3.2 and 3.4 are related with person-role misfit or as a criticism to the role; and item 3.3 involves inadequate resources.
Role clarity: Items 3.5 and 3.6 belong to the MOAQ and Item 3.7 was introduced to get the degree of job goals clarity.
Role overload: Items 3.8 and 3.9 were taken from the three items of MOAQ Role Overload.
Training adequacy: Items 3.10 and 3.11 were collected in Training Adequacy of MOAQ.
Challenge: Items 3.12 and 3.13 are new items.
Importance expectations about the job: Item 3.14.

GROUP PERCEPTION

Work group functioning (point 5 of the survey)
We use items from module 4 - work group functioning of the MOAQ - Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al., 83). It includes the following 5 scales: Group Homogeneity (items 5.3 and 5.7), Group Goal Clarity (items 5.2 and 5.5), Cohesiveness (items 5.1 and 5.10), Open Group Process (items 5.4, 5.6, 5.8 and 5.12) and Group Fragmentation (items 5.9, 5.11 and 5.13). They correspond to the 13 first items of point 5 of the survey.
We added four more items, items 14 and 15 about the Group Image inside the Organization; item 16 related with the perception of Group Efficiency; and item 17 related with Importance Expectation about the Group.
The language used was adapted to both enterprises and we limited the scope of the items to the perception of the minimal organic structure of the organization, i.e. with the same supervisor to which the employee belongs.

Supervision (point 6 of the survey)
We use parts of module 5 - Supervision of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (Cammann et al. 1983). We adopt the following scales: Production Orientation (items 6.5, 6.9 and 6.20), Control of Work (items 6.1, 6.6, 6.7, 6.19 and 6.21), Work Facilitation - Goal Setting (items 6.4, 6.8 and 6.11), Work Facilitation - Problem Solving (items 6.10 and 6.12), Work Facilitation - Subordinate Relations (items 6.2, 6.3, 6.13, 6.14, 6.16 and 6.18, we rejected the last item, the reverse one of the original scale, on the basis that it was loading the least on the factors produced by Cammann et al., 1983), Decision Centralization (items 6.15 and 6.17), Sex Bias (item 6.23) and Competence (item 6.22).

REWARDS PERCEPTION (point 7 of the Survey)

Pay
We use some of the items included in module 6 - Pay of the MOAQ (Cammann et al. 83). We adopt two items from the Performance-Pay Contingence scale (items 7.1 and 7.4), two items from Internal Equity (items 7.2 and 7.6) and two others from the External Equity scale (items 7.3 and 7.5).

Promotion
Although we were inspired by Pritchard and Karasick (1973), we had to build our own scales of Performance-Promotion Contingency (items 7.7 to 7.14), Internal Equity (items 7.15 and 7.18), External Equity (item 7.16) and Promotion Expectancies (items 7.17 and 7.18).

ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTION

Structure (point 8 of the survey)
One item to measure Size (8.1).
Composition: two items (8.2 and 8.3).
For practical reasons, we introduced 13 items about specific goals to the enterprises, that we drop out in our research (8.4 to 8.16).
Transversal Structure: we use 6 items (8.17 to 8.22) to measure the degree of differentiation and integration in the enterprises.
Vertical Structure: we took inspiration from the House and Rizzo scale (1972) (items 8.25 to 8.30) and we introduced a new item, 8.24.
Technology: new items, 8.23 and 8.31.

Procedure (point 9 of the survey)

For practical reasons, we used 3 items (9.1 to 9.3) about goal-setting, that we do not consider in this research.
Planning: we adopted the "Planning Future Orientation scale" from the Business Organization Climate Index by Payne and Pheysey (1971), as it is described in the Survey Item Bank (1984): items 9.4 to 9.11.
Rules (Formalization): items 9.14 to 9.19 are adopted from the "Rules Orientation scale" by Payne and Pheysey (1971), as described in the Survey Item Bank (1984). We also introduce items 9.12 and 9.13 about rules evaluation.
Communication: we adopted the "General Communication Adequacy scale" by House and Rizzo (1972), as described in the Survey Item Bank (items 9.20 to 9.28).
Decision: we took inspiration from the "Decision Delay scale" by House and Rizzo (1972, in Survey Item Bank), items 9.29 to 9.31, and we introduced item 9.32.
Risk: items 9.33 to 9.35 were adopted from the Organizational Climate Questionnaire by Litwin and Stringer (1968).

Norms (point 10 of the survey)

One item (10.1) about appearance - way of dressing - Conventionalism.
Leader Psychological Distance: items 10.2 to 10.4 inspired by the Business Organizational Climate Questionnaire by Payne and Pheysey (1971) as described in the Survey Item Bank (1984).
Sociability: items 10.5 to 10.8 were adopted from the "sociability scale" from the BOCQ by Payne and Pheysey (idem).
Attitudes towards Conflict: to create this scale from item 10.9 to 10.16, we took inspiration from the "Interpersonal Agression scale" from the BOCQ by Payne and Pheysey (idem) and in the Organizational Climate Questionnaire by Litwin and Stringer (1968).
Attitudes towards Innovation: items 10.17 to 10.20 inspired by the "Readiness to Innovate scale", from the BOCQ (idem).
Scientific and Technical Orientation: we adopted two items (10.21 and 10.22) from the "Scientific and Technical Orientation" by Payne and Pheysey (idem).

ORGANIZATION AS A WHOLE (point 11 of the survey):

Relationship Employee-Enterprise: to build this scale (items 11.1 to 11.3) we were inspired by the "Identity scale" by Litwin and Stringer (1968).
Image of Top Managers: we took inspiration from the "Interpersonal Trust scale" by Cook and Wall (1980), items 11.4 to 11.6.
Image of the Organization: this scale consists of the items 11.7 to 11.11.

3.3.3 - INDIVIDUAL JOB AND ORGANIZATIONAL OUTPUTS (points 12 and 13 of the survey - Appendix 1)

On the basis of the criteria previously described we maintained the 7 points form of the scales in this part of the survey and we tried to keep them as short as possible.

JOB SATISFACTION: we use 3 items (12.1, 12.4 and 12.7) from the "Global Job Satisfaction scale" by Hackman and Oldham (80) (items 3, 9 and 13 from the section 3 of the JDS).

JOB INVOLVEMENT: we use the "Job Involvement scale" by Cammann et al. (1983) - items 12.2, 12.5 and 12.8.

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT: we use four items (12.3, 12.6, 12.9 and 12.10) from the "Organizational Commitment scale" by Porter (Mowday, Steers and Porter,1979).

EXTRA-HOURS IN WORK: we ask the employees how much time (1/2 hour interval) they spend at work beyond the normal schedule.
In one Enterprise the base of the scale is 7 hours, while in the other is 8 hours.

3.3.4 - THE FINAL SURVEY AND ITS PRE-TEST

Once the scales were chosen, we elaborated the survey as follows.

General Instructions
(See Appendix 1)
The first page of the survey consists of the general instructions, which comprise the goals, a global description of the questionnaire, a global indication of the answers, an instruction trying to evoke sincerity and an offer of help in case of difficulty or doubts when answering.

Presentation and goal: "This questionnaire is an instrument of support to a research work about organizational socialization, conducted in Portugal by the Superior Institute of Applied Psychology, with the scientific support of Tilburg University in The Netherlands."

Global description: "In the first part, we ask for some features about what is important for you in life and in work and, in the second part, the questions are formulated to assess your perceptions and reaction towards the work and organization where you develop your main activity".

The following instruction tried to get spontaneous answers: "- There are no good or bad answers, therefore you do not have to think a lot about each item".

Assuring confidentiality, we formulated the instruction: "- All the answers are completely confidential and nobody in the organization where you work will know your individual answers".

Trying to persuade the subjects to be honest in their answers and to avoid social desirability bias, we introduced a fake instruction saying that untruthful answers could be detected: "- The questionnaire includes insincerity scales, therefore we ask you to answer honestly and truthfully". In personality assessment in selection setting contexts, Birenbaum and Montag (1989) showed that this kind of feedback instruction induces a more cooperative test attitude, "so that "self-presentation" comes as close as possible to the subject's real self-concept".

Finally, because the collection of the data was done by a team, we asked the subjects that "If you do not understand any of the instructions, please call for help".

And the general instructions finish with a word of thanks for their collaboration and the name of the researcher responsible.

Translations

After the scales were chosen, a team of three translators proceeded to translate them into Portuguese and later two other translators translated them again to English, until a consensus was accomplished.

Organizational language adaptation

Together with technicians and managers of each enterprise, we proceeded to the adaptation of the terminology used in the job and organizational perception scales for each specific organizational reality.

For instance, while in E1 we adopted the term enterprise, in E2 we chose the term organization. While in E1, to refer to a structural unit, we adopted the Portuguese term "serviço", in E2 we adopted "sector". In item 8.4, while in E2 we speak about organization centered on clients, in E1 we do it in terms of enterprise concerned with clients. In item 8.14 about goals, (which is not used for analysis in this dissertation), we speak about commercial activities in E1, while in E2 we speak about marketing policies.

Differences between the two surveys

- Point 13. of the survey: "Indicate the average number of hours that you spend in work, each day": since the two enterprises have schedules with different length - E1: 8 hours/day, E2: 7 hours/day - while for E1 we use a scale from 8 hours to 11 hours or more, for E2 the scale varies from 7 hours to 10 hours or more, both scales having a half hour interval.

- As the two organizations have different career plans with different management mechanisms, in the last page of the questionnaire - Identification data, we had to adapt the questions:

a) In E1, we suppressed question 1.13 from the survey of E2 about individual appraisal - merit, since there was no merit evaluation in E1.

b) While in E1 the main mechanism of promotion consists of automatisms formally established with the Unions; in E2, promotions are mainly based on individual appraisals. Thus, while in survey E2 Question 1.12 has the wording: "- Number of not-automatic promotions since you are in the enterprise"; in E1, it says: "- Number of anticipations of automatic promotions since you are in the enterprise".

This means that when we are speaking about promotion in this work, in E1 it is equivalent to anticipation of automatic promotions, the only mechanism that can be used by supervisors to give a financial reward to subordinates as a positive feedback to their performance; while in E2, it means a real promotion based on individual appraisal and without a time imposition.

Pre-test

Once the survey was constructed, we asked 18 people, students and clerical workers, to respond to it.

We had two main goals in mind:

1. Collect doubts and criticisms to the survey.

2. Evaluate the average time of answering.

To attain the first goal, we asked the respondents to signal all the instructions or items difficult to understand and to report them after the questionnaire was answered. There was no significant and uniform criticism on the survey. The only one concerned its length.

The average time for answering the questionnaire obtained in the pre-test was 55 minutes.

3.4 - REGION CHARACTERISTICS

It is general opinion in Portugal to say that different regions have a specific culture and, consequently, that inside organizations we have to adopt different styles of management. From our own experience, working "in" regional enterprises and during several training programs for middle managers, we got the same feeling.

In order to test these cultural differences on the level of general and work related values, we chose the three regions in the country, which, a priori, are the most discriminating: Lisboa (center), Porto (North) and Evora (Alentejo - South), see map (Appendix 2). For the non-Portuguese reader it may not be superfluous to add that although the Evora region is not situated in the deep South of Portugal, it is generally treated as a southern region.

REGION OF LISBOA: It is the region of the capital of Portugal, with the biggest city (807.937 hab. in 1981, (INE, 1984) - last census published in Portugal), where the government and the headquarters of the main enterprises and organizations in Portugal are located. For instance, in 1989, according to the criterion of sales volume, the 10 biggest Portuguese enterprises had their "siege" in Lisboa, and among the 100 biggest the same was true for 72 of them (data published in "The 1.000 biggest enterprises in Portugal in 1989", Expresso, according to "Dun's Pep" published by Dun and Bradstreet).

Population of the Lisboa Region in 1981 (INE, 1984): 2.069.467

Age "Structure":	< 15 years:	473.009	
	Working:	952.005	
	Not Working:	1.098.361	(INE, 1984)

Education: Consulting table 1, it can be seen that, although according to European standards the level of education in the Lisboa region is low (81.6% only have the elementary school), in comparison with the two other regions considered there is, in general, a double percentage of people with secondary and superior studies. Lisboa then appears the best educated region among the three.

Professions: Consulting table 2, it can be assessed that, whereas the biggest group of professions is connected with industry and transports (38%), in comparison with the other two regions the group of professions more contrasting and prevailing in Lisboa is the clerical profession (20% against 13.7% in Porto and 9.2% in Evora).

Politically: When the data were collected the City Hall of Lisboa was controlled by the Social-Democrats Party in association with the Christian-Democrats, while at the time of writing, since the last local elections in 1989, it is now controlled by the Socialist Party in league with the Communists. In the region, 3 parties have a significant role: Social-Democratic Party, Socialist Party and Communist Party (see Table 3).

TABLE 1 - DISTRIBUTION OF EDUCATION LEVELS PER REGION IN 1981

		LISBOA	%		PORTO	%		EVORA	%	
ELEMETARY SCHOOL	Not read/write	406.110	19.6	81.6	353.629	22.6	89.9	60.293	33.4	91.9
	Read/write without Dip.	343.321	16.6		328.914	21.1		36.989	20.5	
	Elem. school (4 years)	692.082	33.4		573.067	36.6		53.150	29.5	
	6 years	248.307	12.0		149.646	9.6		15.404	8.5	
SECOND. SCHOOL	9 years	162.871	7.9	12.9	70.448	4.5	7.2	7.409	4.1	6.2
	11 years	70.448	3.4		27.808	1.8		2.613	1.6	
	12 years	33.468	1.6		13.472	0.9		936	0.5	
SUP. STUD.	Middle Sup. studies	38.669	1.9	5.5	18.474	1.2	2.9	1.631	0.9	1.9
	Superior studies	74.104	3.5		26.829	1.7		1.852	1.0	
		2.069.467	100		1.562.287	100		180.277	100	

SOURCE: INE (1984) - XII Recenseamento Geral da População - Table 6.08

PORTO REGION: It is the region where the second Portuguese town (327.368 hab., in 1981) is located, known as "the capital of work". The majority of the organizations are small and middle enterprises (only 15 enterprises among the 100 biggest - criterion: sales volume). However, 51.3% of the population is connected with professions related with industry and transports.

Population of the Porto region, in 1981 (INE, 1984): 1.562.287

Age "structure":	< 15 years:	438.257
	Working:	691.444
	Not working:	862.889 (INE, 1984)

Comparing the distribution graphs in Appendix 3, which show the age distribution in each region, it can be seen that it is the youngest region among the three.

Education: Consulting Table 1, it is possible to establish that 89.9% of the population has only an elementary level of schooling or less, 7.2% a secondary level or less (almost half that of Lisboa) and 2.9% superior studies (less than half that of Lisboa).

Professions: In Table 2, we see that 51.3% are related with industry and transports and, as said before, working in middle or small enterprises.

Politically: In recent years, the Porto City Hall had an evolution similar to Lisboa's - first it was controlled by Social-Democrats and now it is controlled by Socialists. These two parties are clearly the significant ones in the region (see Table 3).

TABLE 2 - DISTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENT PROFESSIONS PER REGION IN 1981

	LISBOA	%	PORTO	%	EVORA	%
Scientific/Liberals	54.432	10.7	20.537	6.9	1.652	3.9
Top Managers/Managers	15.136	3.0	8.320	2.8	328	0.8
Clerical/Similar	100.938	20.0	41.166	13.7	3.924	9.2
Selling/Commerce	53.668	10.5	32.448	10.8	3.497	8.2
Protection serv./ Domestic serv./ Similar	57.712	11.4	20.159	6.7	2.751	6.5
Agricult./Fishing/ Similar	24.346	4.8	21.921	7.3	14.369	33.9
Industry/Transports	92.330	38.8	153.785	51.3	15.427	36.4
Army	7.168	1.4	794	0.3	373	0.9
Other active persons	1.042	0.2	600	0.2	77	0.2
	506.760	100.0	299.730	100.0	42.398	100.0

SOURCE: INE (1984) - XII Recenseamento Geral da Populaçao - Table 4.13

EVORA REGION (Alentejo): It is mainly a rural region. In 1989, there were no enterprises with their headquarters in the region of Evora among the 100 biggest in Portugal and among the 1.000 biggest there were only 4, all related with agriculture.

Population of Evora region, in 1981: 180.277

Age "structure":	< 15 years:	37.441	
	Working:	78.546	
	Not working:	100.556	(INE, 1984)

Comparing the graphs of Appendix 3, it can be seen that it is the oldest region among the three.

Education: As can be seen in Table 1, it is a very underdeveloped region with almost 92% of the people with elementary school or less (and this "less" is very significant: 33.4% do not know how to read or write and 20.5% only know how to read and write but they do not have 4 years of studies).

Professions: Consulting Table 2 it is possible to assess that 70.3% of the population work in agriculture and industry and transports, but as this industry is mainly connected with agricultural activities, we can establish that the number of people related with agriculture is much greater than the 33.9% declaring to work directly and exclusively in agriculture.

Politically: Since the Portuguese revolution of 1974, it has always been a region controlled by the Communist Party, on all election levels.

TABLE 3 - POLITICAL CHARACTERIZATION OF THE THREE REGIONS

Comparative analysis in General Elections (85-87) and Local Elections - City Halls (89) between the three main Parties in the three Regions.

	LISBOA			PORTO			EVORA		
	General Elections 85 (1)	General Elections 87 (1)	Local Elections 89 (2)	General Elections 87 (1)	General Elections 87 (1)	Local Elections 89 (2)	General Elections 87 (1)	General Elections 87 (1)	Local Elections 89 (2)
Social-Democrata Party	25.6	45.8	33.7	29.3	50.9	33.7	19.1	32.1	22.9
Socialist Party	19.8	21.2	18.7	23.5	26.7	42.3	14.3	15.5	25.6
Communist Party	20.1	16.5	17.6	12.0	9.4	8.1	41.2	36.1	47.7
S.P. + C.P.			19.0						
S.D.P. + C.D.S. + P.P.M.			19.6						

Sources: (1) Ministério da Administração Interna - STAPE
Eleicao da Assembleia da Republica 1987 (Appendix .....)

(2) Ministério da Administração Interna - STAPE
Eleicões para os Orgaos das Autarquias Locais 1989

3.5 - ORGANIZATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

One of the main goals in this dissertation is to test, if different enterprises, with distinct structures, activities and, apparently, cultures, can have a significant impact on the general and work related values of their employees.

To reach this goal, we chose two different organizations, each working in the three regions previously described. To guarantee that each organization and the work had the same characteristics in the three regions, we chose the same structure units in each organization in all regions.

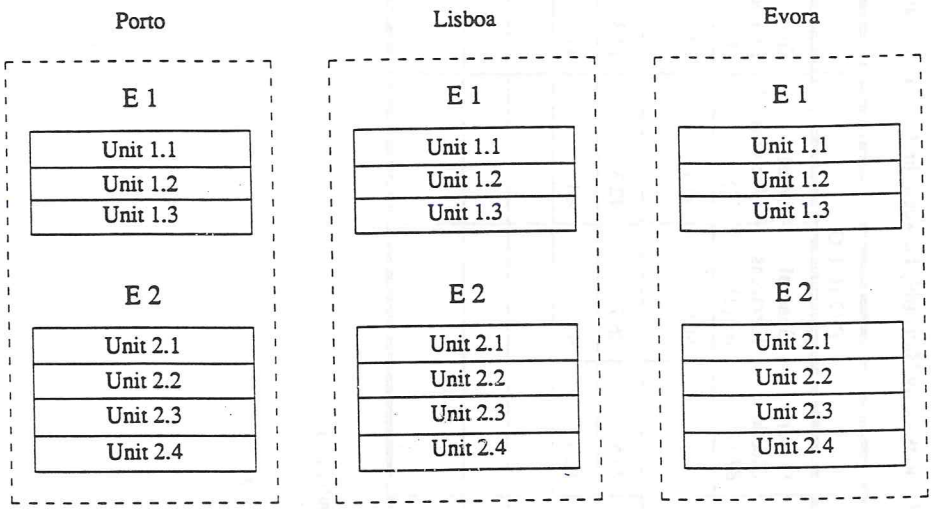

Figure 2 - Representation of the enterprises by region

In this way, we have the guarantee that in each organization there is the same proportion of people doing the same job, inside the same formal structure and with the same procedures, in all three regions, even if in Evora region both enterprises have less employees.

Of course, the two organizations have different characteristics, but all the people in our sample have clerical or technical functions.

3.5.1 - DESCRIPTION OF THE ENTERPRISES

All data refer to the year 1989, when our survey was done.

ENTERPRISE 1

It is a communication enterprise and one of the biggest Portuguese enterprises, according to the criteria: sales volume and number of workers.

It is a public enterprise with a stable and monopolized market. The most significant turbulence coming from the environment are the new communication technologies and consequent products. This implies a strong policy of investments in technologies.

The headquarters are in Lisboa but the enterprise is spread all over the country.

The enterprise is characterized by high technology and even in offices it possesses a good level of office automation and information technologies. It is possible to distinguish a productive sector from a clerical/commercial sector.

In 1989, the average number of employees was 30.377, 95.3% of them had long term contracts.
In structural terms, it is organized in two main sectors, in function of two main products. Inside each big sector, the enterprise is structured in functional terms, such as finance, engineering, information technology and so on, on the central level and on the regional level. Given our goals, data were collected in the regional executive units.
Number of hierarchical levels: 8.
Average span of control: 11.

In general, it is characterized by a centralized high level decision making and the communication processes are mainly formal and top-down (there is no formal procedure of bottom-up communication).

Percentage of strike hours: 0.3%.

In the big enterprise sector, where we collected data, there was no clear slogan and the organization's logo changed in 1990. We did not notice any special organizational hero, although we could feel a certain identification with the organization.

In the regional units we contacted, the interpersonal behavior and the way of dressing seemed quite informal and relaxed. However, we could feel some lack of trust in top management.

In these units, only few managers and technicians work overtime on their own initiative.

Enterprise 1 offers extra support to its employees in the fields of health, children, meals and studies (workers and children).

The Unions related with the organization are mainly connotated with the Communist and Socialist Parties.

Employee characteristics

Sex composition: M - 65.8% (higher percentage in the production sector)
F - 34.2%

Education: Elementary school or less (≤ 6 years of school): 53.1%
Secondary school (>6 years and ≤12 years) : 39.0%
Higher Studies: 07.9%

Average age of the employees: 41,7

Average seniority of the employees: 17,5

Other quantitative data from Human Resources Management

$$A.\ \underline{Turnover}\ Index = \frac{Final\ Number\ of\ Employees}{Initial\ Number\ of\ Employees + Admissions + Departures} = 0{,}8$$

$$B.\ \underline{Absenteism}\ Index = \frac{Absence\ Hours}{Annual\ Maximum\ Potential\ Hours} \times 100 = 6{,}6$$

$$C.\ Payed\ \underline{Extra\text{-}Hours}\ Index = \frac{Extra\text{-}Hours\ Worked}{Annual\ Maximum\ Potential} = 2{,}6$$

D. Promotions: 10.270
Conventional/Automatic Promotions: 88.6%
Not Automatic Promotions: 11.4%

$$E.\ \underline{Training}\ Participation\ Index = \frac{Number\ of\ Workers\ by\ Training\ Programs}{Average\ Number\ of\ Employees} = 49{,}9$$

F. Pay

$$Net\ Salary\ Disparity = \frac{Maximum\ Base\ Salary}{Minimum\ Base\ Salary} = 5{,}0$$

$$Global\ Financial\ Rewards\ Disparity = \frac{Maximum\ Annual\ Rewards}{Minimum\ Annual\ Rewards} = 7{,}4$$

$$Average\ Remuneration = \frac{Basic\ Salary + Complements + Other\ Social\ Charges}{Average\ Number\ of\ Employees} = 1.461.700\$$$

$$Salary\ Loading = \frac{Personnel\ Costs}{Business\ Volume} = 0{,}55$$

$$G.\ \underline{Productivity} = \frac{Business\ Volume}{Average\ Number\ of\ Employees} = 3.202$$

$$H.\ Labour\ \cup\ Membership\ Index = \frac{Number\ of\ workers\ belonging\ Unions}{Number\ of\ Employees} \times 100 = 76{,}4$$

ENTERPRISE 2

It is an insurance company, among the three most important insurance companies in Portugal, according to several criteria: sales volume, number of workers, profits, etc. Financially, in 1989 it was considered one of the most well managed in its activity branch.

It is also a public enterprise, dealing with a competitive open market with other public and private enterprises, both Portuguese and multinational. In recent years in Portugal, for the insurance companies the environment has been quite turbulent with new companies appearing, mainly foreign, and with new insurance and parafinancial products. Among other measures, bigger and older companies, like enterprise 2, had to change investment and marketing policies and their way of management, they had to introduce new technologies and to reduce and train their personnel. The headquarters are in Lisboa but the organization has offices all over the country.

In recent years, beyond the development of its specific insurance technology, enterprise 2 introduced general data automation as well as office automation. Anyway, it is still far away from an automatic office system without paper.

In 1989, the annual average number of employees was 1.580, 99% of them with long term contracts.

In structural terms, it is organized in functional terms with central units, such as engineering, finance, marketing, information, planning and organization, studies, reinsurance and human resources, and regional executive units, such as technical, production, hospital, accounting and commercial. There is also an autonomous product organized structure with regional representation: life-insurances.

Given our goals, data were collected in the regional executive units.

Number of hierarchical levels: 4

Average span of control: 10

In general, it is characterized by a centralized, even participative, high-level decision-making and the communication processes are mainly formal and top-down (also here, there is no formal procedure of bottom-up communication).

Percentage of strike hours: 0.00%.

There are a clear logo and slogan, that all employees know well. In 1989, it was clear that the Chairman of the Board was the hero of the company (several times he has been named by the press as the best insurance manager in Portugal).
There are no systematic formal social and sport events inside the company, but, in 1989, it was possible to perceive a strong feeling of identification with the company: "our company", "we have the best results", "we are leading the market" and so on.

Although employees are supposed to dress conventionally in all the three regions analyzed, the relationships seem to be quite informal mainly in Lisboa and Evora.

To work over time and take work home are normal informal procedures for almost all middle managers and technicians and quite a few subordinates/operators.

In the same way as enterprise 1, this organization offers extra support to their employees in the fields of health, meals, children and retirement.

The Unions related with the company are mainly connotated with the Socialist Party.

Employee characteristics

Sex composition:	M - 73.5%	
	F - 26.5%	
Education:	Elementary school or less (≤ 6 years of school):	34.8%
	Secondary school (> 6 years and ≤ 12 years):	55.3%
	Higher studies:	9.9%

Average age of the employees: 41,4

Average employees seniority: 13,7

Other quantitative data from Human Resources Management

$$A.\ \underline{Turnover}\ Index = \frac{Number\ of\ Employees}{Initial\ number\ of\ Employees + Admissions + Departures} = 0{,}79$$

$$B.\ \underline{Absenteism}\ Index = \frac{Absence\ Hours}{Annual\ Maximum\ Potential\ Hours} \times 100 = 3{,}31$$

$$C.\ Payed\ \underline{Extra\text{-}Hours}\ Index = \frac{Extra\text{-}Hours\ Worked}{Annual\ Maximum\ Potential} = 0{,}9$$

D. Promotion: 130
Conventional/Automatic Promotions: 13%
Not Automatic Promotions: 87%

$$E.\ \underline{Training}\ Participation\ Index = \frac{Number\ of\ Workers\ by\ Training\ Programs}{Average\ Number\ of\ Employees} = 36{,}71$$

F. Pay

$$Net\ Salary\ Disparity = \frac{Maximum\ Base\ Salary}{Minimum\ Base\ Salary} = 5{,}9$$

$$Global\ Financial\ Rewards\ Disparity = \frac{Maximum\ Annual\ Rewards}{Minimum\ Annual\ Rewards} = 11{,}1$$

$$\textit{Average Remuneration} = \frac{\textit{Basic Salary + Complements +/Other Social Charges}}{\textit{Average Number of Employees}} = 2.236.000\$$$

$$\textit{Salary Loading} = \frac{\textit{Personnel Costs}}{\textit{Business Volume}} = 0{,}18$$

$$\text{G. } \underline{\textit{Productivity}} = \frac{\textit{Business Volume}}{\textit{Average Number of Employees}} = 5{,}014$$

$$\textit{H. Labour } \cup \textit{ Membership Index} = \frac{\textit{Number of workers belonging Unions}}{\textit{Number of Employees}} \times 100 = 88{,}5$$

3.5.2 - COMPARISON BETWEEN THE TWO ENTERPRISES

TABLE 4 - COMPARISON OF THE TWO ENTERPRISES

	ENTERPRISE 1	ENTERPRISE 2
ACTIVITY	Communications	Insurance
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES	30.372	1.580
" OF HIERARQ LEVELS "	8	4
AVER. SPAN OF CONTROL	11	10
% OF STRIKE HOURS	0.30	0.00
POLITICAL CON. UNIONS	Communists/Socialists	Socialists
SEXUAL PERCENTAGES	M - 65.8% F - 32.2%	M - 73.5% F - 26.5%
% OF EDUCATION LEVELS (Element/Second/Superior)	53.1% / 39.0% / 7.9%	34.8% / 55.3% / 9.9%
AVER. AGE OF EMPLOYEE	41.7	41.4
" SENIORITY "	17.5	13.7
TURNOVER INDEX	0.80	0.79
ABSENTEISM INDEX	6.6	3.31
PAYED EXTRA-HOURS IND	2.6	0.9
PROMOTIONS (Number of automatic -vs- non automatic)	10.270 A. - 88.6% N.A. - 11.4%	130 A. - 13.0% N.A. - 87.0%
TRAINING PARTICIP. IND	49.9	36.71
NET SALARY DISPARITY	5.0	5.9
GL.FINANC. REWARDS DISP	7.4	11.1
AVERAGE REMUNERATION	1.461.700$	2.236.000$
SALARY LOADING	0.55	0.18
PRODUCTIVITY	3.202	5.014
LABOUR MEMBERSHIP IND	76.4	88.5

Comparing the two enterprises we can say that E1 is a big enterprise, with a relatively stable environment, using high technologies and employing blue and white collar workers. E2 is smaller, with a competitive environment and employing only white collar workers.

The size of E1 implies a more complex structure, translated, for instance, into the number of hierarchical levels. Its culture seems less strong than E2 and closely resembling that of a Public Service organization. E2, however, seems to work like a private company.

Although the productive sector of E1 mainly comprises men, the female percentage is higher than in E2 which reflects the dominance of women in clerical functions and consequently in our sample. The educational level is lower in E1.

The quantitative data from Human Resources also give some discriminating indices between the two enterprises:
- The absenteeism in E1 is almost twice that of E2.
- Paid extra-hours are almost three times higher in E1, where it is unusual to stay extra time on the employee's own initiative.
- In E1, 88.6% of the promotions are based on automatisms, while in E2 87% are based on individual appraisals.
- The average global remuneration is much higher in E2.
- The productivity in E2 is higher.

3.6 - SAMPLE DESCRIPTION

Our sample consists of 452 clerical and technicians employees, with executive and supervision jobs, in the two enterprises.

From the 452 employees, 195 belong to enterprise E1 and 257 to the enterprise E2, with the following distribution by region:

TABLE 5 - THE NUMBER OF EMPLOYERS BY ENTERPRISE AND BY REGION

TABLE 5		REGION			
		PORTO	LISBOA	EVORA	TOTAL
ENTERPRISE	1	70	70	55	195 (43%)
	2	93	124	40	257 (56.9%)
TOTAL		163 (36.1%)	194 (42.9%)	95 (21%)	452 (100%)

Among those employees that accepted to identify their position in the relation supervisor-subordinate (427), 21.5% have a supervision job in contrast with 78.5% subordinates. Distribution according to enterprise and region:

TABLE 6 - SUPERVISORS BY ENTERPRISE

TABLE 6		ENTERPRISE		TOTAL
		1	2	
SUPERVISION	SUPERVISORS	41	51	92 (21.5%)
	NOT SUPERVISORS	147	188	335 (78.5%)
TOTAL		188 (44%)	239 (56%)	427 (100%)

TABLE 7 - SUPERVISORS BY REGION

TABLE 7		REGION			TOTAL
		PORTO	LISBOA	EVORA	
SUPER VISION	SUPERVISORS	32	40	20	92 (21.5%)
	NOT SUPERVISORS	119	143	73	335 (78.5%)
TOTAL		151 (35.4%)	183 (42.9%)	93 (21.8%)	427 (100%)

There are no significant differences for both criteria in the relationship supervisor-subordinate (near 1 to 4).

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Age distribution by enterprise and region:

TABLE 8 - AGE BY ENTERPRISE

TABLE 8		ENTERPRISE		TOTAL
		1	2	
AGE	≤ 29	11	38	49 (10.8%)
	30-39	71	119	190 (42.0%)
	40-49	67	77	144 (31.9%)
	50-59	37	21	58 (12.8%)
	≥ 60	9	2	11 (2.4%)
TOTAL		195 (43.1%)	257 (56.9%)	452 (100%)

TABLE 9 - AGE BY REGION

TABLE 9		REGION			TOTAL
		PORTO	LISBOA	EVORA	
AGE	< 29	16	21	12	49 (10.8%)
	30-39	63	88	39	190 (42.0%)
	40-49	53	60	31	144 (31.9%)
	50-59	25	20	13	58 (12.8%)
	> 60	6	5		11 (2.4%)
TOTAL		163 (36.1%)	194 (42.9%)	95 (21.0%)	452 (100%)

We can observe that 73.9% of the sample is between 30 and 49 years of age.
There are no significant differences by region. Our sample from Enterprise 1 is significantly older than Enterprise 2, in the latter 61% of the employees are younger than 39 years.

Sex distribution by enterprise and region:

TABLE 10 - SEX BY ENTERPRISE

TABLE 10		ENTERPRISE		TOTAL
		1	2	
SEX	M	81	187	268 (59.3%)
	F	114	70	184 (40.7%)
TOTAL		195 (43.1%)	257 (56.9%)	452 (100%)

TABLE 11 - SEX BY REGION

TABLE 11		REGION			
		PORTO	LISBOA	EVORA	
SEX	M	93	111	64	268 (59.3%)
	F	70	83	31	184 (40.7%)
TOTAL		163 (36.1%)	194 (42.9%)	95 (21.0%)	425 (100%)

The majority of the sample is male: 59.3% against 40.7%.
There is no significant difference regarding sex with the criterion region. But the 2 enterprises have a completely different sexual composition in the professional groups analyzed: Enterprise 1 mainly consists of women, while Enterprise 2 mainly consists of men.

Education distribution by enterprise and region:

TABLE 12 - EDUCATION BY ENTERPRISE

TABLE 12		ENTERPRISE		TOTAL
		1	2	
EDUCATION	≤ 6 years	24	17	41 (9.1%)
	≤ 9 years	98	109	207 (45.9%)
	≤ 12 years	37	76	113 (25.1%)
	≤ diplome	14	44	58 (12.9%)
	S. diplome	21	11	32 (7.1%)
TOTAL		194 (43.0%)	257 (57.0%)	451 (100%)

TABLE 13 - EDUCATION BY REGION

TABLE 13		REGION			TOTAL
		PORTO	LISBOA	EVORA	
EDUCATION	≤ 6 years	16	14	11	41 (9.1%)
	≤ 9 years	72	94	41	207 (45.9%)
	≤ 12 year	34	53	26	113 (25.1%)
	≤ diplome	28	21	9	58 (12.9%)
	diplome	12	12	8	32 (7.1%)
TOTAL		162 (35.9%)	194 (43.0%)	95 (21.1%)	451 (100%)

The majority of the sample (45.9%) completed nine years of education, which in Portugal corresponds to the normal secondary level.
There is no significant difference by region. The Enterprise 2 sample has a significantly higher level of education, consisting of people who have been at university (but without any diploma) or, at least, have had two more years of high school, which in Portugal corresponds to the complementary secondary level.

WORK HISTORY

Seniority distribution by enterprise and region:

TABLE 14 - SENIORITY BY ENTERPRISE

TABLE 14		ENTERPRISE		TOTAL
		1	2	
SENIORITY	≤ 1 year	4	26	30 (6.6%)
	2-5 years	11	18	29 (6.4%)
	6-10 "	25	54	79 (17.5%)
	11-24 "	100	131	231 (51.1%)
	≥ 25 "	55	28	83 (18.4%)
TOTAL		195 (43.1%)	257 (56.9%)	452 (100%)

TABLE 15 - SENIORITY BY REGION

TABLE 15		REGION			TOTAL
		PORTO	LISBOA	EVORA	
SENIORITY	≤ 1 year	12	13	5	30 (6.6%
	2-5 years	5	11	13	29 (6.4%)
	6-10 "	33	25	21	79 (17.5%)
	11-24 "	78	113	40	231 (51.1%)
	≥ 25 "	35	32	16	83 (18.4%)
TOTAL		163 (36.1%)	194 (42.9%)	95 (21.0%)	452 (100%)

The majority of the employees belonging to our sample (51.1%) has been in their enterprise for more than 11 years and less than 24.
There are significant differences by region: Evora (South) is the region with more recent employees. And by enterprise: in comparison with Enterprise 1, there are more than twice the number of workers with a seniority less than 10 years in Enterprise 2.

Training distribution by enterprise and region:

TABLE 16 - TRAINING BY ENTERPRISE

TABLE 16		ENTERPRISE		TOTAL
		1	2	
TRAINING	0	32	55	87 (19.2%)
	1	44	72	116 (25.5%)
	2/3	60	88	148 (32.7%)
	4/5	31	26	57 (12.6%)
	≥ 6	28	16	44 (9.7%)
TOTAL		195 (43.1%)	257 (56.9%)	452 (100%)

TABLE 17 - TRANING BY REGION

TABLE 17		REGION			TOTAL
		PORTO	LISBOA	EVORA	
TRAINING	0	28	39	20	87 (19.2%)
	1	44	50	22	116 (25.7%)
	2/3	51	66	31	148 (32.7%)
	4/5	21	23	13	57 (12.6%)
	≥ 6	19	16	9	44 (9.7%)
TOTAL		163 (36.1%)	194 (42.9%)	95 (21.0%)	452 (100%)

There is no significant difference by region. Enterprise 1 gave significantly more in-training courses to its employees than did Enterprise 2.

Promotion distribution by enterprise and region:

TABLE 18 - PROMOTION BY ENTERPRISE

TABLE 18		ENTERPRISE		TOTAL
		1	2	
PROMOTION	0	67	114	181 (40.0%)
	1	50	79	129 (28.5%)
	2	38	24	62 (13.7%)
	3/4	34	32	66 (14.6%)
	≥ 5	6	8	14 (3.1%)
TOTAL		195 (43.1%)	257 (56.9%)	452 (100%)

TABLE 19 - PROMOTION BY REGION

TABLE 19		REGION			TOTAL
		PORTO	LISBOA	EVORA	
PROMOTION	0	57	77	47	181 (40.0%)
	1	51	55	23	129 (28.5%)
	2	26	24	12	62 (13.7%)
	3/4	22	32	12	66 (14.6%)
	≥ 5	7	6	1	14 (3.1%)
TOTAL		163 (36.1%)	194 (42.9%)	95 (21%)	452 (100%)

40% of the all sample never had a promotion until the moment of collecting data. This percentage is certainly influenced by the number of newcomers. Anyway, while there is no significant difference between regions, Enterprise 1 gave significantly more promotions to its employees than Enterprise 2. These data have to be interpreted according to the promotion systems existing in each enterprise.

It is interesting to note, that, in spite of these data, the promotion expectancy shows a tendency ($p < .05$) to be higher in Enterprise 2, which is probably related with age.

TABLE 20 - PROMOTION EXPECTATIONS

TABLE 20		ENTERPRISE 1	ENTERPRISE 2	TOTAL
PROMOTION EXPECT.	0	93	102	195 (43.1%)
	1	33	48	81 (17.9%)
	2	30	57	87 (19.2%)
	3/4	24	42	66 (14.6%)
	≥ 5	15	8	23 (5.1%)
TOTAL		195 (43.1%)	257 (56.9%)	452 (100%)

(There are no significant differences by region)

In SUMMARY, we can say that Enterprise 1, in contrast with Enterprise 2, is characterized by: female, older, lower education, offering more training inside the organization and more promotions, yet, the promotion expectancy tends to be weaker. In general, all these differences exist between the Enterprises in each region, which seems to be the result of history and policy of each organization and not a result of chance.

3.7 - COLLECTING DATA

Data were collected in both enterprises between May and June 1989, in the towns of Lisboa, Porto and Evora.

According to the characteristics of the department or style of the local managers, people answered the survey in their work place or in a room previously prepared, but always during the normal schedule of work. To each local manager was delivered a formal document from ISPA, presenting the members of the team who were going to collect the data, and the goals of the survey (Appendix 4).

In work places or in the room there was always at least one member of the collecting data team, which consisted of the author and five students of psychology in their last year of study. These students were familarized with the survey and its goals beforehand. The team had as mission to give orally: the general instructions, specific instructions about rating and ranking data, offer support in case of doubt, collect the surveys and acknowledge people's cooperation.

All the people, clerical and managers, of the departments selected for the sample were invited to participate, while the voluntary and confidential character of their participation was stressed.

The average time of filling out the survey was about one hour and a half, with several exceptions at lower levels of education who needed more time.

3.8 - CONSTRUCTION OF THE INDICES

Given the large number of variables in our survey and in order to avoid patterns too complex or difficult to interpret and to interact, we had to reduce the number of general values, work related values and organizational perceptions to a small number of indices, suppressing also duplicated or parallel scales.

These indices have also the advantage of being more reliable and more comprehensive for theoretical interpretations.

For this we used Principal Component Analysis on all logical groups of variables. Choosing this type of summary, we tried to account for as much variance as possible, without hypothesizing about explicative latent variables (Cliff, 1987).

As a general procedure for choosing the number of factors, we used the "scree test", in which we plotted a graph of the eigenvalues as a function of their ordinal position, then analyzed the meaning of factors found and finally carried out a new principal component analysis with only the salient factors with a varimax rotation looking for a simpler structure.

3.8.1 - GENERAL VALUES

As we have seen the Rokeach Values Survey consists of 18 terminal and 18 instrumental values, which must be ordered separately. Although a priori Rokeach (1973) was not concerned with the independence of each terminal value with each instrumental one (for instance, salvation and forgiving), he found that the "average correlation between terminal and instrumental values, which is not dependent of ipsative measures, is only .01". Thus, all studies searching the structure of values with factor analytic approaches treat the two series of values as a whole (for instance: Rokeach, 1973; Feather, 1975; Howard, Shudo and Umeshima, 1983). Using Guttman's nonmetric technique - the Smallest Space Analysis, Rokeach (1973) and, later, Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) found that the 36 values form a "circular structure (...) suggesting that the 36 values are at the same level of generality".

The ipsative nature of the rank-ordered procedure in each list of 18 values implies the absence of complete independence of data but Rokeach, without denying this fact, argues that "with 18 values, the extent to which this independence assumption is violated is relatively small, the average intercorrelation being only -.06". With a sample of 1409 adult Americans over twenty-one, in 630 intercorrelations he found +.35 as the highest correlation (between "a comfortable life" and "pleasure") and -.32 as the lowest (between a "comfortable life" and "wisdom"), which tends to demonstrate the relative independence of values inside each list, even when dealing with ipsative data.

With our data, the highest intercorrelation was +.35 (between "a world of peace" and "national security" and "responsible" and "self-controlled") and the lowest was -.37 (between "openminded" and "obedient") and the general matrix of intercorrelations showed similar amplitudes to the one by Rokeach. Very few were substantial.

In his statistical treatments Feather (1975) transformed the two ranks of 18 values in standard scores (Z scores) assuming the normality of the ranking and, consequently, that differences between ranks at the extremes would be easier to discriminate than differences between ranks in the middle of the scale. He also supports his choice in the large N's of the Flinders program (his own study in Australia) and in the robust character of the analysis of variance, which results were "highly consistent" with Rokeach's. Nevertheless, this assumption of normality is not confirmed empirically as Feather (1975) recognizes himself.

Considering the fact that we also have a large sample, we think that the assumptions that all intervals between adjacent values are equal produces less distortion in the data.

Of course, the most correct way would be the procedure used by Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) of introducing a seven point scale between each pair of adjacent values (34 pairs), but given the goals and dimension of our study the overload for the respondents would be unbearable.

Applying a principal component analysis to our data and using the "scree test" procedure, we considered that 5 factors was the number that seemed to be better adapted to our data, explaining 35 percent of the variance. By common factor analysis, Rokeach (1973), with 1409 Americans, found seven factors, explaining 41 percent of the variance and Howard et al. (1983), with 226 American and Japanese managers, found 6 factors explaining 34 percent of the variance.

As it happened with Rokeach (1973), the factors we found account for a small percentage of variance: in our case, factor 1 accounts for 11%, while in Rokeach's case 8% and in Howard's case 6.9%.

Proceeding to a new principal component analysis with only the 5 factors, and rotating them by varimax procedure, we obtained the following results with bipolar factors, as expected with ipsative data (in the definition of a factor we only consider values with a loading superior to .30 , -- a similar procedure to Rokeach, 1973):

TABLE 21A - PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS ON GENERAL VALUES

GENERAL VALUES	h2	FACTORS				
		I	II	III	IV	V
TERMINAL						
1. A Comfortable Life	.54	-.38				-.57
2. An Exciting Life	.23	-.36				
3. A Sense of Accomplishment	.32	-.50				
4. A World of Peace	.55	.53			-.41	
5. A World Beauty	.25	.47				
6. Equality	.46				-.55	
7. Family Security	.20			.35		
8. Freedom	.37		.33	-.41		
9. Happiness	.36				.51	
10. Inner Harmony	.24					.47
11. Mature Love	.41				.62	
12. Natio. Security	.35				-.40	
13. Pleasure	.34				.52	
14. Salvation	.31	.33	.32			
15. Self-Respect	.36					.54
16. Social Recognit.	.37	-.54				
17. True Friendship	.34					.54
18. Wisdom	.30					.46
INSTRUMENTAL						
1. Ambitious	.49	-.68				
2. Broadminded	.30			-.53		
3. Capable	.13					
4. Cheerful	.41		-.51			
5. Clean	.39		-.55			
6. Courageous	.26			-.49		
7. Forgiving	.39	.35	-.50			
8. Helpful	.22		-.45			

GENERAL VALUES	h2	FACTORS				
		I	II	III	IV	V
9. Honest	.14					
10. Imaginative	.30		.37			
11. Independent	.24			-.35		
12. Intellectual	.42		.62			
13. Logical	.43		.63			
14. Loving	.40	.42			.40	
15. Obedient	.51			.68		
16. Polite	.41			.59		
17. Responsible	.34		.33	.37		
18. Self-Controlled	.46		.39	.53		
Eigenvalue		4.16	2.58	2.17	1.93	1.78
% Explained Variance		11.4	7.2	6.0	5.4	4.9

TABLE 21 B

This table shows the same list of general values with the same factor loadings as Table 21 A. However, in it we have clustered those values that belong to the same factor. In this way it can be seen at a glance which values belong together.

Factor	Highest Positive Loadings		Highest Negative Loadings	
1. Non Conflict Oriented -vs- Enlarger	A world of Peace	(.53)	Ambitious	(-.68)
	A world of Beauty	(.47)	Social Recognition	(-.54)
	Loving	(.42)	A sense of accomplishment	(-.50)
	Forgiving	(.35)	A comfortable life	(-.38)
	Salvation	(.33)	An Exciting Life	(-.36)
2. Competence -vs- Morality	Logical	(.63)	Clean	(-.55)
	Intellectual	(.62)	Cheerful	(-.51)
	Self-Controlled	(.39)	Forgiving	(-.50)
	Imaginative	(.37)	Helpful	(-.45)
	Freedom	(.33)	Salvation	(-.32)
	Responsible	(.33)		
3. Self- -Constriction -vs- Self- -Expansion	Obedient	(.68)	Broadminded	(-.53)
	Polite	(.59)	Courageous	(-.49)
	Self-Controlled	(.53)	Freedom	(-.41)
	Responsible	(.37)	Independent	(-.35)
	Family Security	(.35)		
4. Personal/ Emotional -vs- Social Orient.	Mature Love	(.62)	Equality	(-.55)
	Pleasure	(.52)	A World of Peace	(-.41)
	Happiness	(.51)	National Security	(-.40)
	Loving	(.40)		
5. Delayed -vs- Immediate Gratification	Self-Respect	(.54)	A Comfortable Life	(-.57)
	True Friendship	(.54)		
	Inner Harmony	(.47)		
	Wisdom	(.46)		

Analysing these factors, we tried also to compare them with those found by Rokeach (1973) and Howard et al. (1983), even if these authors used a different statistical procedure - common factor analysis.

In a first observation, we can see a certain degree of similarity of these factors with those of previous studies, though they are not identical:

FACTOR 1 - NON CONFLICT ORIENTED VERSUS ENLARGER

It is the most specific to our study, with fewer similarities with the findings of Rokeach (1973) and Howard et al. (1983).

Anyway, three values (social recognition, a sense of accomplishment and an exciting life) of our pole Enlarger are by themselves the pole Enlarger found by Howard et al. with American and Japanese managers. The opposite pole that we call Non Conflict Oriented has no equivalent in the other two studies.

The similarity found with the study by Howard et al., but not with Rokeach, is possibly due to the specific composition of our samples, which both consist of people working in productive organizations, although our sample contains clerical and middle managers, while Howard et al. have only managers, which does not happen in the case of Rokeach, whose sample is much broader, without organizational specification (N = 1409).

In an organizational context, this factor can have interesting interpretations and consequences: it seems that in our population there is a group believing in effort (ambitious and an exciting life - "stimulating, active life"), looking for status (social recognition) and results, at a general level (a sense of accomplishment - "lasting contribution") and at a personal/immediate level (a comfortable life) and another group, less action oriented, but more human relation oriented: a world of peace (no conflicts), a world of beauty, loving, forgiving and salvation. In organizational jargon, we could almost speak of task oriented versus human relation oriented people, which in our sample, as we will see, is mainly related with sex.

FACTOR 2 - COMPETENCE VERSUS MORALITY

This factor 2 is almost identical to Rokeach (1973) factor 2. It contains all instrumental values also found by Rokeach (with the exception of independent). Although we have two terminal values: freedom and salvation (this one also present in Rokeach), their loads are relatively small (.33 and -.32, respectively), which tends to confirm the a priori Rokeach classification of Instrumental Values in Competence versus Morality.

Our factor 2 contains all values belonging to factor 3 of Howard et al. (Competence versus Morality), with the exception of 'capable'.

FACTOR 3 - SELF-CONSTRICTION VERSUS SELF-EXPRESSION

The three most loading values of the pole 'self-constriction' and the first of the pole 'self-expansion' are the same as those of Rokeach factor 3: Self-Constriction-vs-Self-Expansion. Nevertheless, this factor also contains the three values of Rokeach factor 7 - Inner-vs-Other Oriented (Polite-vs-Courgeous and Independent).

Four (Obedient, Polite -vs- Freedom, Independent) of the seven values belonging to factor 4: Inner -vs- Other Oriented, of Howard et al., are included in this factor 3.

FACTOR 4 - PERSONAL/EMOTIONAL VERSUS SOCIAL ORIENTED

It has the same social pole as Rokeach factor 4: Personal versus Social Oriented, but the personal pole has a different content: in our case, we are also dealing mainly with terminal values - mature love, pleasure and happiness (the three more loading ones), though they have an emotional connotation not present in the Personal Rokeach pole (True Friendship and Self-Respect).

As in factor 2, the a priori Rokeach classification of Terminal Values in Personal and Social values tends to be confirmed, although the Personal pole has a different content.

Comparing with Howard et al. factor 2, we get the same conclusions.

FACTOR 5 - DELAYED VERSUS IMMEDIATE GRATIFICATION

Three of its values (A Comfortable Life -versus- Inner Harmony, Wisdom) are precisely the most loading in the respective poles of Rokeach Immediate versus Delayed Gratification factor 1.

A Comfortable Life versus Wisdom are also present in Howard et al. factor 5. - Delayed -vs-Immediate Gratification.

CONCLUSION

In summary, there seems to exist a strong convergence between Factors 2, 3, 4 and 5 found by us and the results of previous studies, even using different factor analysis procedures.

Factor 3 - Personal/Emotional -vs- Social Oriented shows an emotional specificity in Personal Oriented people.

Factor 1 - Non Conflict Oriented -vs- Enlarger, having a similar pole, Enlarger, to that found by Howard et al. (1983) in American and Japanese managers, is specific to this study in the pole Non-Conflict Oriented, which could also be called "Concerned with Others - versus - Concerned with Self" or, as said before, in organizational jargon: "Human Relations -versus- Task Oriented".

3.8.2 - WORK RELATED VALUES

As we mentioned in 3.3.1.2., we adopted the whole scale used by the MOW Team for establishing work goals to measure work related values. In doing so, we also adopted its ranking/rating scale. Nevertheless, we introduced two other work related values: "societal service" and "to attain goals/results", which to a certain extent changes the comparison conditions with the MOW study.

Applying a principal component analysis to our data and using the "scree test" procedure, we identified 5 factors as the better combination for our data.

Nevertheless, the plotting of our data showed a distribution which, from a statistical point of view, could be influenced by a chance factor. Considering that during the collection of the data this scale was the only one where some respondents presented some doubts in answering, by asking for support, which had not happened during the pre-test, we decided to verify the logical relationships between each work related value with general values total scores (significance of correlations >.01).

TABLE 22 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN EACH WORK RELATED VALUE AND THE GENERAL VALUE TOTAL SCORES

Factor 1 - ENLARGER (+) -VS- NON-CONFLICT ORIENTED (-)

Significant positive correlations with: Promotion
Goals/Results

Significant negative correlations with: Convenient Hours
Serve Society

Factor 2 - MORALITY (+) -VS- COMPETENCE (-)

Significant positive correlations with: Interpersonal Relations
Convenient Hours
Physical Conditions

Significant negative correlations with: Good match Skills-Exigences
Autonomy
Goals/Results

Factor 3 - SELF-EXPANSION (+) -VS- SELF-CONSTRICTION (-)

Significant positive correlations with: Variety
Autonomy

Significant negative correlations with: Interpersonal Relations
Security
Physical Conditions

Factor 4 - SOCIAL ORIENTED (+) -VS- PERSONAL/EMOTIONAL ORIENTED (-)

Significant positive correlations with: Interpersonal Relations
Security
Serve Society

Significant negative correlation with: Salary

Factor 5 - IMMEDIATE (+) -VS- DELAYED GRATIFICATION (-)

Significant positive correlation with: Salary

Significant negative correlation with: Goals/Results

The logical convergence of these results is so obvious that we do not feel the need to consider that the factor chance had a significant influence on the way people answered the scale.

The 5 factors found explain 54% of the variance of the 13 items considered, which is similar to the MOW results: the 4 factors found by the same statistical procedure, explained 56% of the variance of the 11 work goals items.

Proceeding to a new principal component analysis with only these 5 factors and rotating them by varimax procedure, we obtained the following results (in defining the factors, we only considered values loading more than .40, - a similar procedure to MOW, 1987).

TABLE 23 A - PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF WORK RELATED VALUES

WORK RELATED VALUES	h2	FACTORS				
		I	II	III	IV	V
1. LEARN New Things	.44				.43	.47
2. INTERPERSONAL Relations	.41	.57				
3. PROMOTIONS	.56		.73			
4. CONVENIENT Hours	.60					.64
5. VARIETY	.62					.69
6. INTERESTING Work	.59			.72		
7. SECURITY	.45	.58				
8. MATCH Job/Abilities	.57			.68		
9. PAY	.70		.81			
10. Physical CONDITIONS	.53	.69				
11. AUTONOMY	.40					
12. SERVE SOCIETY	.61				.72	
13. GOALS/OBJECTIVES	.55				.67	
EIGENVALUE		1.68	1.55	1.40	1.26	1.14
% EXPL. VARIANCE		12.9	12.0	10.7	9.7	8.8

TABLE 23 B - PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF WORK RELATED VALUES

This table shows the same list of work related values with the same factor loadings as Table 23 A. However, in it we have clustered those values that belong to the same factor. In this way it can be seen at a glance which values belong together.

Factor	Highest Loadings	
1. Comfort I (Environmental)	Physical Working Conditions	(.69)
	Job Security	(.58)
	Interpersonal Relations	(.57)
2. Economic Rewards	Promotion	(.81)
	Pay	(.73)

Factor	Highest Loadings

3.	Expressive Characteristics	Interesting Work	(.72)
		Good Match Skills-Exigences	(.68)
4.	Utility/ /Development	Serve Society	(.72)
		Attain Goals/Results	(.67)
		Learning Opportunity	(.43)
5.	Comfort II (Pleasant Work)	Variety	(.69)
		Convenient Hours	(.64)
		Learning Opportunity	(.47)

Logical confirmation of these factors with total scores of general values (significant correlations >.01):

TABLE 24 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN GENERAL AND WORK RELATED VALUES TOTAL SCORES

Factor 1 - COMFORT I

Positive correlations with: Morality (+) -vs- Competence (-)
Social Oriented (+) -vs- Personal/Emotional Orient.(-)

Negative correlations with: Enlarger (+) -vs- Non-Conflict Oriented (-)
Self-Expansion (+) -vs- Self-Constriction (-)

Factor 2 - ECONOMIC REWARDS

Negative correlations with: Morality (+) -vs- Competence (-)
Social Oriented (+) -vs- Personal/Emotional Orient.(-)

Factor 3 - EXPRESSIVE CHARACTERISTICS

Positive correlation with: Enlarger (+) -vs- Non-Conflict Oriented (-)

Negative correlation with: Morality (+) -vs- Competence (-)

Factor 4 - UTILITY/DEVELOPMENT

Positive correlation with: Social Oriented (+) -vs- Personal/Emotional Oriented (-)

Negative correlations with: Morality (+) -vs- Competence (-)
Immediate (+) -vs- Delayed Gratification (-)

Factor 5 - COMFORT II

Positive correlation with: Self-Expansion (+) -vs- Self-Constriction (-)

Negative correlation with: Enlarger (+) -vs- Non-Conflict Oriented (-)

The relationships between the total scores of general values factors and those of work related values seem very logical and full of psychological meaning. These relationships will be analyzed in detail when we proceed to the study of the hypothetical causal model between general values and work related values.

Returning to the work related value factors that we found and comparing them with those found by the MOW Team (1987), we can see similarities, differences and some peculiarities resulting from the work related values we use.
Our factor 2 - ECONOMIC REWARDS and factor 3 - EXPRESSIVE CHARACTERISTICS correspond, respectively, to factor 2 and factor 1 of the MOW study. Our factor 2 does not only include job security, the lowest loading on the economic dimension of the MOW study, which appeared in a comfort dimension as happened in The Netherlands and Yugoslavia with the MOW study. Our two work related values composing the expressive characteristics are also the two most loading in the same dimension of the MOW study. The other two work related values of this dimension in the MOW study, variety and autonomy, also appear in our factor but loading .31 and .32, respectively.

The comfort dimension of the MOW study appears here in two factors: factor 1 and factor 5. Factor 1, where good physical conditions is the most loading value, includes also job security and good interpersonal relations and, with loading .37, convenient hours. It seems mainly a dimension related with environmental comfort: physical environment, human environment and stable job and payment. Factor 5 loaded mainly by variety and convenient hours, and with a lesser load by learning opportunities, seems more related with pleasure in work itself: variety, an expressive value in the MOW study and generally considered in job design theories as a motivating factor, appearing here associated with convenient hours, typically a comfort dimension, can also have a pleasant parameter, more related with satisfaction than motivation. Learning opportunity can also be seen as a pleasant dimension of breaking routine and of personal development.

Factor 4 includes the 2 work related values not considered in the work goals scale of the MOW study: Serve Society and Attain Goals/Results. Associated with these appears learning opportunity, loading .43 and autonomy, loading .32. It seems mainly a dimension related with the feeling of being useful to society and the organization by developing oneself. While the expressive dimension is more personal and present centered, this utility/development dimension seems more influenced by social norms and by the development of the individual in the long run. This interpretation seems very plausible if we analyze the relations of this factor 4 with factor 3 - expressive characteristics with the general value dimensions.

The work related value 'autonomy' deserves a special reference: being the lowest goal (.48) in the MOW expressive dimension, it does not appear clearly in any of our factors. It has a load of .33 in our expressive dimension and .32 in the utility/development dimension, which could be interpreted as a present and personal interest of the individual but also interesting, for him, in the long run. But autonomy also loads negatively (-.37) on factor 1. - Comfort I (environmental), which means that those who consider environmental conditions important tend to depreciate the importance of autonomy and vice-versa.

3.8.3 - JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS (RELIABILITIES)

To reduce the number of variables in job/organizational perceptions, we classified them according to the four levels of analysis, previously defined: job/role perceptions, group perceptions, rewards perceptions and organizational perceptions. Besides, for theoretical and logical reasons we divided group perceptions in: work group functioning and supervision; and organizational perception in: structure, procedures, norms and perception of the organization as a whole.

To each of these 8 groups of perceptions, we applied the same statistical procedures previously used with values: first a principal component analysis, where we used the "scree test", which combined with a factor content analysis, helped us to choose the best number of factors; and a second principal component analysis only with the salient factors, with a varimax rotation.

Once the new scales were built, in which we only considered items loading more than .50, we calculated their reliabilities.

JOB/ROLE CHARACTERISTICS

Applying a principal component analysis to all items of this level, we found 3 factors which explain 37,6 percent of the total variance.

TABLE 25 - PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS

I T E M S	h2	F A C T O R S		
		I	II	III
JOB CARACTERISTICS				
Variety				
How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does the job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents ?	.60	.77		
The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.	.41	.63		
The job is quite simple and repetitive.	.45	.65		
Identity				
To what extent does your job involve doing a "whole" and identifiable piece of work? That is, is a job complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by automatic machines?	.45	.58		
Task Significance				
In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?	.42	.61		
Autonomy				
How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own how to go about doing the work?	.35	.53		
The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.	.31	.50		
The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgement in carrying out the work.	.34	.54		

I T E M S	h2	F A C T O R S		
		I	II	III
Feedback				
To what extent does doing the job itself provides you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide clues about how well you are doing - aside from any "feedback" co-workers or supervisors may provide?	.41	.58		
ROLE CARACTERISTICS				
Role Conflict				
In my job, I can't satisfy everybody at the same time.	.31			.55
I have to do things that should be done differently	.40			.62
I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	.49			.64
Role Clarity				
On my job, I know exactly what is expected of me.	.43		.58	
On my job, most of the tasks are clearly defined.	.36		.59	
I have clear objectives for my job.	.46		.63	
Role Overload				
I never seem to have enough time to get everything done.	.40			.58
I have too much work to do everything well.	.44			.66
TRAINING ADEQUACY				
I have all the skills I need in order to do my job.	.52		.70	
I have more than enough training and skills to do my job well.			.66	
CHALLENGE				
In this job we are always learning something new.	.38	.61		
My job is very challenging.	.52	.72		
EXPECTANCIES toward the JOB:				
My job has a tendency to become more important for the organization.	.30	.55		
EIGENVALUE		5.18	2.99	2.09
% of Explained Variance		20.1	10.3	7.2

The 1st factor (12 items), that we call intrinsic characteristics, explains 20.1 % of the variance and contains all items of variety, autonomy and challenge from the original scales, and one item of identity, one item of significance, one item of feedback and the item on expectations about the job.
Reliability of intrinsical characteristics scale: alpha = .86

The 2nd factor (5 items), that we call role clarity and training adequacy, explains 10.3% of the variance and contains all items of the two original scales.
Reliability of the new scale: alpha = .70

The 3rd factor (5 items), called overload and role conflict, explains 7.2% of the variance and contains all the items of the two original scales.
Reliability of the new scale: alpha = .66

WORK GROUP FUNCTIONING

Using the same statistical procedure, we found 2 factors explaining 38.5% of the total variance.

SEE TABLE ON THE NEXT PAGE

TABLE 26 - PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF WORK GROUP FUNCTIONING

I T E M S	h2	F A C T O R S	
		I	II
GROUP COHESIVENESS			
I feel I'm really a part of my work group.	.49	.70	
I look forward to being with the members of my work group each day.	.33	.54	
GROUP GOAL CLARITY			
My work group knows exactly what things it has to get done.	.50	.71	
Each member of my work group has a clear idea of the group goals.	.49	.66	
OPEN GROUP PROCESS			
We tell each other the way we are feeling	.43	.56	
If we have a decision to make, everyone is involved in making it.	.56	.67	
In my work group everyone's opinions get listened to.	.57	.67	
INTERNAL FRAGMENTATION			
Some of the people I work with have no respect for others.	.59		.72
There are feelings among members of my work group which tend to pull the group apart.	.57		.70
There is constant bickering in my work group.	.43		.62
Our group has a good image inside the enterprise.	.30	.53	
My unit is an efficient one.	.27	.52	
EIGENVALUE		4.95	1.61
% OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE		29.1	9.4

The 1st factor (9 items), that we call cohesive and openminded group, explains 29.1% of the variance and contains the items of cohesiveness and group goal clarity scales, 3 from open group process, one item of image and the item of group efficiency.
Reliability of the new scale: alpha = .83

The 2nd factor (3 items), called fragmentation, explains 9.4% of the variance and contains the items of internal fragmentation scale.
Reliability: alpha = .75

SUPERVISION

From a statistical point of view, the scree test advised a 2 factors solution as the more adapted to the data, however, a content analysis of the 3rd factor, which is clear and can provide interesting analysis, made us decide to keep it.

SEE TABLE ON THE NEXT PAGE

TABLE 27 - PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF SUPERVISION

I T E M S	h2	F A C T O R S		
		I	II	III
MY SUPERVISIOR:				
Production Orientation:				
... demands that people give their best effort.	.67		.82	
... demands that subordinates do high quality work	.65		.73	
... insists that subordinates work hard.	.64		.77	
Control of work:				
... keeps informed about work which is being done.	.55	.69		
... plans out work in advance.	.59	.68		
... handles the administrative parts of his or her job extremely well.	.52	.69		
... maintaining high standards of performance.	.56	.70		
... knows the technical parts of his or her job extremely well.	.57	.69		
Work Facilitation - Goal Setting				
... makes sure subordinates have clear goals to achieve.	.58	.69		
... makes it clear how I should do my job.	.64	.76		
... makes sure subordinates know what has to be done.	.68	.79		
Work-Facilitation - Problem solving:				
... helps me solve work-related problems.	.66	.81		
... helps me to discover problems before they get too bad.	.66	.80		
Work-Facilitation - Subordinate Relations:				
... keeps subordinates informed.	.71	.79		
... is always fair with subordinates.	.71	.78		
... keeps informed about the way subordinates think and feel about things.	.56	.62		

I T E M S	h2	F A C T O R S		
		I	II	III
... helps subordinates develop their skills.	.72	.83		
... deals with subordinates well.	.64	.79		
... has the respect of subordinates.	.54	.72		
Gobal Competence				
... is competent	.67	.77		
Decision Centralization				
... makes most decisions without asking subordinates their opinion.	.63			.77
... makes important decisions without involving subordinates.	.69			.83
EIGENVALUE		10.7	2.19	1.23
% OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE		46.5	9.5	5.4

The 3 factors explain 61.4% of the total variance.

The 1st factor (17 items), that we call supportive orientation, explains 46.5% of the variance and contains all the items of control of work, competence and work facilitation scales.
Reliability of the supportive orientation scale: alpha = .96

The 2nd factor (3 items), called production orientation, explains 9.5% of the variance and contains all the items of the original production orientation scale.
Reliability: alpha = .73

The 3rd factor (2 items), called participation, explains 5.4% of the variance and contains the items of the original decision decentralization.
Reliability: alpha = .67

PAY/PROMOTION

Applying a principal component analysis to all items of this level of analysis, we found 3 factors explaining 42.1% of the total variance.

TABLE 28 - PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF PAY/PROMOTION

I T E M S	h2	FACTORS		
		I	II	III
Performance - Pay Contingency				
In the enterprise, how much pay I receive depends almost entirely on how well I perform	.28	.51		
Pay raises around here depend on how well you perform	.50	.62		
Internal Equity of Pay				
My pay level is fair given what my coworkers make	.45	.66		
My pay is fair compared to the pay of others in this company	.57	.74		
External Equity of Pay				
My pay is fair considering what others placed in these area pay	.65	.62		.50
Other companies in this area pay better than this one does	.61			.77
Performance - Promotion Contingency				
In this organization employees are promoted in proportion to their work	.59	.59	.59	
In general, good performance is always rewarded in this organization	.51			
Internal Equity of Promotions				
We have a promotion system here that helps the best man to rise to the top	.51		.64	
The most deserving employees are the ones who get promoted	.58		.68	
External Equity of Promotions				
In other organizations in this area people can advance more quickly in their career	.55			.60
Promotion Expectancies				
Here, I have large possibilities to do a career over the average	.42	.51		
EIGENVALUE		4.56	1.94	1.49
% OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE		24.0	10.2	7.9

The 1st factor (7 items), that we call rewards contingency, explains 24% of the variance and contains the items of performance-pay contingency and internal equity of pay scales, one item from the external equity of pay, one from performance-promotion contingency and another from promotion expectancies.
Reliability of the rewards contingency scale: alpha = .76

The 2nd factor (3 items), called internal equity of promotions, explains 10.2% of the variance and contains the items of internal equity of promotion scale and an item from performance-promotion contingency.
Reliability of the new scale: .74

The 3rd factor (3 items), called external equity, explains 7.9% of the variance and contains the items of external equity of pay and promotion.
Reliability of the external equity scale: alpha = .52

STRUCTURE

Following the same statistical procedure, we found 3 factors explaining 43.2% of the variance.

TABLE 29 - PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF STRUCTURE

I T E M S	h2	FACTORS		
		I	II	III
Composition				
This enterprise needs some fresh people on the top	.49	.65		
This enterprise needs new technical staff	.53	.72		
Transversal Structure				
There is insufficient coordination between departments	.44	.52		
There are too many departments in this organization	.71		.78	
Here, there are too many central departments	.65		.75	
There is a strong sense of community, a feeling of shared interests and purposes among the managers in the organization	.34	.51		
Meaningful cooperation in this organization is stifled because of too many vested interests	.28	.51		
There is considerably more competition than cooperation among the managers	.47	.59		

ITEMS	h2	FACTORS		
		I	II	III
Vertical Structure				
Here, there are too many hierarchical levels	.61			
Someone in addition to my immediate supervisor gives me direct orders	.44			.63
I receive assignments from outside the chain of command	.41			.58
My immediate superior is the only person who can require that I reverse my priorities	.47			.67
Technology				
This enterprise has an old fashioned technology	.38	.59		
EIGENVALUE		4.33	1.89	1.56
% OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE		24.0	10.5	8.7

The 1st Factor, after reliability improvements, contains 7 items and we call it coordination systems and means. It explains 24% of the variance and its items come from: 4 - Transversal Structure, 2 - Composition and 1 - Technology.
Reliability of the new scale: alpha = .74

The 2nd factor (3 items), that we call organic structure, explains 10.5% of the variance and contains items related with departmental and hierarchical adequacies.
Reliability of the scale: alpha = .84

The 3rd Factor, that after reliabilities improvements contains 3 items, we call vertical structure functioning and it is related with single command.
Reliability of the scale: alpha = .55

PROCEDURES

The principal component analysis results suggested a 2 factors solution, but the significance of the 3rd factor in the context of the two enterprises studied suggested to keep this factor. The 3 factors explain 36.7% of the total variance.

TABLE 30 - PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF PROCEDURES

ITEMS	h2	FACTORS		
		I	II	III
Planning				
The ability to plan ahead is highly valued here	.37	.55		
People here are encouraged to take a long term view	.38	.58		
People here often start projects without trying to decide in advance how they will develop or when they may end	.33	.55		
Rules Evaluation				
There is inconsistency or contradictions among the guidelines and ground rules	.46	.59		
Regulations are interpreted and enforced in an understanding manner	.41	.63		
Formalization				
People ask permission before deviating from common policies or practices	.52		.70	
Formal rules and regulations have an important place here	.60		.73	
It is expected that there will be no deviation from established practices, no matter what the circumstances	.38		.60	

ITEMS	h2	FACTORS		
		I	II	III
Communication				
Information is available as needed	.57	.75		
Communications are accurate	.60	.76		
People at my level are "kept in the know" about enterprises activities	.53	.72		
Communications flow both up and down	.52	.71		
Communications flow easily with other departments	.59	.76		
Communications are prompt and timely	.61	.78		
Communications are complete	.53	.68		
The channels of communication are well understood	.59	.73		
Decision				
Decisions are made with a minimum delay	.46	.66		
It is difficult to get problems resolved because those in authority do not respond to or make prompt decisions or recommendations	.39	.52		
After a recommendation upward has been made, I might as well stop worrying about it, because it is likely to be a long time before a decision is made on it	.39	.54		
Too many people have to be consulted before you can do anything around here	.44	.52		
Risk				
Our business has been built up by taking calculated risk at the right time	.45			.63
We have to take some pretty big risks occasionally to keep ahead of the competition in the business we're in	.37			.60
EIGENVALUE		8.41	2.79	1.65
% OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE		24.0	8.0	4.7

The 1st factor (17 items), we call adequate procedures (communication and decision), explains 24% of the variance and contains the items of rules evaluation, decision and communication scales, and another 3 items from planning.
Reliability of the new scale: alpha = .92

The 2nd factor (3 items), that we call formalization (rigid application of rules), explains 8% of the variance and contains 3 items from the original rules (formalization) scale.
Reliability of the formalization: alpha = .65

The 3rd factor (2 items, after reliability improvements) we call risk and explains 4.7% of the variance, containing two items from original scale with the same name.
Reliability: alpha = .57

NORMS

With the same statistical procedure, we found 3 factors explaining 37.2% of the variance.

TABLE 31 - PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYSIS OF NORMS

ITEMS	h2	FACTORS		
		I	II	III
Conventionalism				
Here, people are always carefully dressed and neatly groomed	.35			.44
Leader Psychological Distance				
It's necessary to be polite under all circumstances to stay out of trouble here	.36			.54
Sociability				
Social events get a lot of enthusiasm and support	.41		.61	
There are many opportunities for people to get together in planned social activities after hours	.50		.67	
Special events are given a great deal of publicity	.48		.68	

ITEMS	h2	FACTORS		
		I	II	III
Attitudes towards Conflicts				
We are encouraged to speak our minds, even if it means disagreeing with our superiors	.46	.66		
Criticism of policies and practices is taken as a personal affront in this organization	.48	.67		
One of the values most stressed here is open-mindedness	.61	.75		
Errors and failures are talked about freely so that others may learn from them	.48	.67		
Attitudes towards Innovation				
Unusual or exciting plans are encouraged here	.52	.68		
Programs here are quickly changed to meet new conditions	.41	.59		
Scientific and Technical Orientation				
Magazines about new developments in science and management techniques are read by many people who work here	.39	.56		
EIGENVALUE		4.90	1.87	1.42
% OF EXPLAINED VARIANCE		22.3	8.5	6.4

The 1st factor (7 items), that we call openminded, explains 22.3% of the variance and contains 4 items from attitudes towards conflict, 2 from attitudes towards innovation and an item from scientific and technical orientation.
Reliability of the new scale: alpha = .83

The 2nd factor (3 items), called social events (importance), explains 8.5% of the variance and contains 3 items from the original scale sociability.
Reliability: alpha = .57

The 3rd factor (2 items), called conventionalism, explains 6.4% of the variance and contains the item conventionalism and one item from the leader psychological distance scale.
Reliability of the new scale: alpha = .51

PERCEPTION OF THE ORGANIZATION AS A WHOLE

Following the same statistical procedure, we found a clear factor explaining 45.9% of the total variance. It includes 2 items from the image of top managers and 3 from the image of the organization.

TABLE 32 - PRINCIPAL COMPONENT ANALYISIS OF THE PERCEPTION OF THE ORGANIZATION

I T E M S	h2	F A C T O R I
Image of Top Managers		
Management is sincere in its attempts to meet the worker's point of view	.50	
Management can be trusted to make sensible decisions for the enterprise's future	.58	
Image of the Organization		
This organization is going ahead	.59	
This organization has a good reputation	.54	
This enterprise is efficient	.60	
E I G E N V A L U E		5.05
% OF E X P L A I N E D V A R I A N C E		45.9

Reliability: alpha = .88.

3.8.4 - RELIABILITIES OF INDIVIDUAL JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL OUTPUTS SCALES

Job Satisfaction: alpha = .80

Job Involvement: alpha = .65

Organizational Commitment: alpha = .65

4. - DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 - DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENTERPRISES AND BETWEEN REGIONS

GENERAL VALUES

To establish differences on general values between enterprises and regions, we decide to do an analysis of variance of all general values total scores by enterprise and by region and a Median test on the level of each value.

PCSCOR1 - ENLARGER (+) - VERSUS - NON-CONFLICT ORIENTED (-) (Table 33)

Enterprise
There are significant differences in this total score ($p < .001$):

Mean Enterprise 1 = -.35
Mean Enterprise 2 = .27

I.e., Enterprise 1 is mainly non-conflict oriented, while Enterprise 2 is mainly enlarger oriented.

General values, in this total score, which are significantly more important in ENTERPRISE 1 in comparison with Enterprise:

A WORLD OF PEACE
A WORLD OF BEAUTY
LOVING
FORGIVING

General values significantly more important in ENTERPRISE 2 are:

AMBITIOUS
SOCIAL RECOGNITION
A SENSE OF ACCOMPLISHMENT
AN EXCITING LIFE

Region:
PCSCOR1 is not significantly different in this criterion.

PCSCOR2 - MORALITY (+) - VERSUS - COMPETENCE (-) (Table 33)

Enterprise:
There are significant differences in this total score ($p < .001$):

Mean Enterprise 1 = .19
Mean Enterprise 2 = -.14

I.e., Enterprise 1 is mainly morality oriented, while Enterprise 2 is mainly competence oriented.

General values, in this total score, which are significantly more important in ENTERPRISE 1 in comparison with Enterprise 2:

FORGIVING

General value significantly more important in ENTERPRISE 2 are:

IMAGINATIVE

Region:
PCSCOR2 is not significantly different in this criterion.

PCSCOR3 - SELF-EXPANSION (+) -VERSUS- SELF-CONSTRICTION (-) (Table 33)

There are no significant differences in both criteria: enterprise and region.

PCSCOR4 -SOCIAL ORIENTED (+) -VERSUS- PERSONAL/EMOTIONAL ORIENTED (-) (Table 33)

There is no significant difference in both criteria: enterprise and region.

Nevertheless, the interaction between the two criteria produces differences statistically significant ($p < .01$), with the following results:

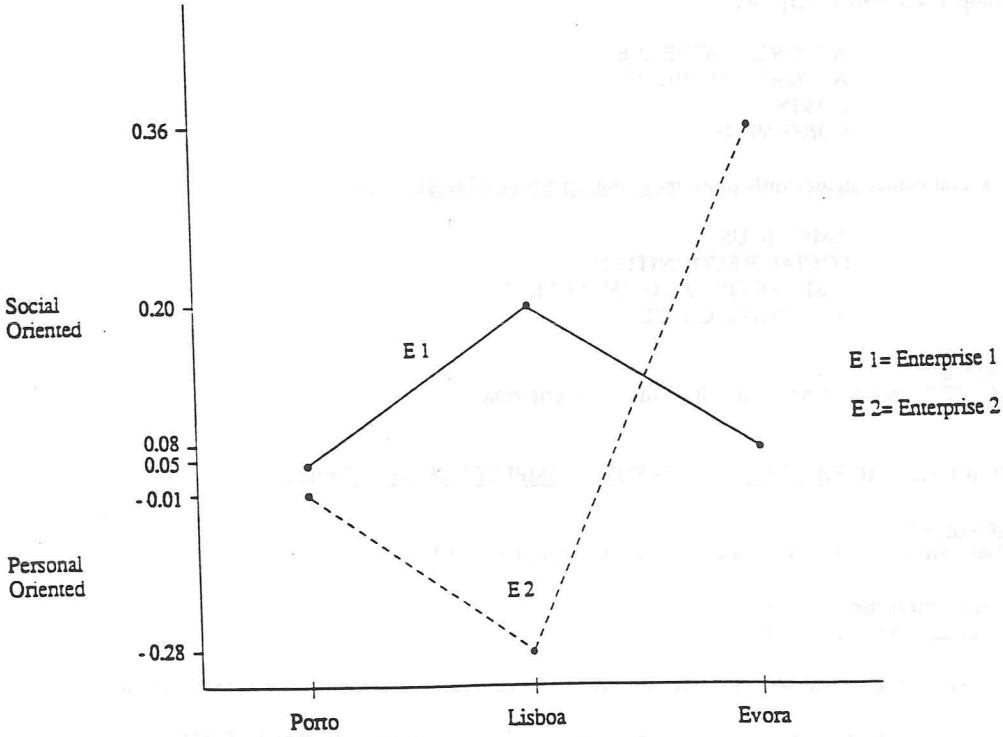

Figure 3 - Social -versus- Personal Oriented by Region and by Enterprise

While in the Porto region there is almost no difference between the two enterprises, with average results in the total score, in the other two regions the differences exist and with distinct meanings:
In Lisboa region: Enterprise 1 is clearly social oriented, while Enterprise 2 is clearly personal oriented.
In Evora region: Enterprise 1 tends to be social oriented, while Enterprise 2 is clearly social oriented.

General values, in this total score, which are significantly more important in ENTERPRISE 1 than in Enterprise 2:

EQUALITY
A WORLD OF PEACE
NATIONAL SECURITY
LOVING

General values more important in ENTERPRISE 2 are:

None

PCSCOR5 - IMMEDIATE ORIENTED (+) -VERSUS- DELAYED ORIENTED (-) (Table 33)

There is no significant difference of this total score in both criteria.

No general value included in this factor is significantly different for either of the two enterprises.

TABLE 33 - SUMMARY OF ANOVA'S ON GENERAL VALUES TOTAL SCORES AND MEAN SCORES OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES

GENERAL VALUES TOTAL SCORES	ENTERPRISE			
	ANOVA DF = 1		MEANS	
	F	p	1	2
PCSCOR1 - Non-Conflict (+) -vs- Enlarger (-)	51.17	.001	-.35	.27
PCSCOR2 - Competence (+) -vs- Morality (-)	11.61	.001	.19	-.14
PCSCOR3 - Self-Constriction (+) -vs- Self-Expans (-)				
PCSCOR4 - Personal /Emot.(+) -vs- Social Orient (-)				
PCSCOR5 - Delayed (+) -vs- Immediate Gratification (-)				

NOTE: The interactions enterprise x region produce only a significant difference in the total score PCSCOR4, as described above.

WORK RELATED VALUES

PCVTA1 - COMFORT I (Environmental)

Enterprise:
There are significant differences in this total score ($p < .01$):

Mean Enterprise 1 = .17
Mean Enterprise 2 = -.13

Enterprise 1 is mainly comfort (environmental) oriented, which does not happen with Enterprise 2.

Work related values, in this total score, which are significantly more important in Enterprise 1 in contrast with Enterprise 2:

INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS

Region:
There is no statistical difference in this criterion.

PCVTA2 - ECONOMIC REWARDS

There is no significant difference in both criteria: enterprise and region.

PCVTA3 - EXPRESSIVE CHARACTERISTICS

Enterprise:
There are significant differences in this total score ($p < .001$):

Mean enterprise 1 = -.23
Mean enterprise 2 = .17

Enterprise 2 is more expressive oriented. Nevertheless, none of the work related values in itself (good match job requirements/ individual skills and interesting work), is discriminated by enterprise.

Region:
There is no significant difference in this criterion.

PCVTA4 - UTILITY/DEVELOPMENT

There is no significant difference in the total score for both criteria.

Nevertheless, the work related value - "To attain goals/results" is significantly more important in Enterprise 2 than in Enterprise 1.

PCVTA5 - COMFORT II (pleasant work)

There is no significant difference in the total score for both criteria.

Nevertheless, the work related value - "convenient hours" is significantly more important in Enterprise 1 than in Enterprise 2.

TABLE 34 - SUMMARY OF ANOVA'S ON WORK RELATED VALUES TOTAL SCORES AND MEAN SCORES OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES

WORK RELATED VALUES	ENTERPRISE			
	ANOVA	DF = 1	MEANS	
	F	p	1	2
PCVTA1 - COMFORT I (Environm)	10.00	.01	.17	-.13
PCVTA2 - ECONOMIC REWARDS				
PCVTA3 - EXPRESSIVE CHARACTER	17.38	.001	-.23	.17
PCVTA4 - UTILITY/ DEVELOPMEN				
PCVTA5 - COMFORT II (Pleasant)				

CONCLUSIONS ON THESE DIFFERENCES

From this analysis, we can say that the two enterprises are dominated by rather different general value and work related value systems, while the three regions of Portugal have almost no influence on value systems. Considering values as a basic concept of culture, we could generalize and infer that the three regions are culturally similar, at least on a value level, and the two enterprises possess two distinct corporate cultures.

If we only took into consideration these variables as determinants of general values and work related values, we could attribute to the enterprise the capacity of "creating" its own value systems, independent of the employees who work in it.

In our concrete case, ENTERPRISE 1 is oriented to (in comparison to E2):

General values: Non-conflict
Morality
Social values

Work related values: Comfort (mainly interpersonal relationships and convenient hours).

While ENTERPRISE 2 is oriented to (in comparison to E1):

General values: Enlarger
Competence values

Work related values: Expressive characteristics and "to attain goals/results".

From these results, it is even possible to induce different organizational outputs for each enterprise. The cause of these differences could be ascribed to some form of cultural management, by way of socialization processes. However, this causal link may not exist. Therefore, in the following analysis, we will try to find the causes of these differences and, more specifically, we will be concerned with the effects of personal characteristics, individual organizational history, supervision, enterprise and region, considered on the same level of causality.

4.2 - EFFECTS OF ANTECEDENTS

The analysis of the relationships between antecedents and the job/organizational perceptions total scores, and later between values, job/organizational perceptions and individual outputs, has to be understood in the context of the statistical instrument used: the multiple regression analysis with all antecedents as independent variables.

First, regression analysis implies that we hypothesize a cause-effect relationship between the variables, which, in our study, we do not fully support from a theoretical point of view. As said previously, there is some evidence that between the cognitive variables reciprocal causal models are the most adequate for interpreting data, and therefore we prefer to apply them in our study.

Second, the slopes found cannot be interpreted as correlational coefficients but as partial regression coefficients, corresponding to the average change associated with the unit change in the independent variable, when the other independent variables are held constant. This also means that their value depends on the presence of other independent variables and, consequently, the interpretation is specific to this context.

In non-experimental research in social sciences, the variables are virtually always intercorrelated. Although it is not the better method to assess multicollinearity, we can consider, like Lewis-Beck (1980), that coefficients about .80 or larger in the intercorrelations of the independent variables necessarily induce multicollinearity. In our case, only the antecedents age and seniority have a correlation of this order (.88), as could be expected, all the others are > -.50 and < .50.

In the whole following analysis, we use an empirical process of variable-selection multiple regression (Achen, 1982), considering only the independent variables significantly related with the dependent one.

In the whole following analysis the variable region was transformed into two dummy variables (dumreg), considering Lisboa as pattern (center of the country and more developed region). Dumreg1 expresses the contrast between Porto (coded 1) and the other two regions (coded 0) and Dumreg2 the contrast between Evora (coded 1) and the other two (coded 0).

Other codes used in the multiple regression analysis:
Sex: M - 1, F - 0.
Enterprise: E1 - 1, E2 - 0.
Supervision: Supervisor - 1, Not Supervisor - 0

In all the regression equations in this chapter the Beta values are given in brackets, - "()" - , in the line below the corresponding independent variables.

4.2.1 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ANTECEDENTS AND GENERAL VALUES

According to our hypothesis we tried to verify in what measure variables as enterprise, region and individual variables related to enterprise (work history) may influence general value systems, as well as the already known effects of personal characteristics.

To this end we performed the multiple regression of all the antecedents considered (sex, age, education, seniority, promotion, training, supervision, region and enterprise) with each one of the principal component total scores of general values, paying also attention to the interactions of enterprise with seniority, promotion, training and supervision, and of this last one with seniority, promotion and training.

RESULTS

PCSCOR1 - ENLARGER (+):	Ambitious, Social recognition, A sense of accomplishment, A comfortable life, An exciting life
VERSUS	
NON-CONFLICT ORIENTED (-):	A world of peace, A world of beauty, Loving, forgiving, salvation

Using multiple regression with all variables, we found an explained variance of R2 = .21, signif F, $p < .0000$, and two antecedents statistically significant (sig. T <.05): sex and seniority.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these two variables we got a R2 = .16, $p < .001$, according to the following regression equation:

$$PCSCOR1 = .26 + .42\ SEX - .03\ SENIORITY$$
$$\beta(.21) \quad (-.30)$$

One of the main effects on 'enlarger' is produced by sex: men tend to privilege enlarger-values, while women are more non-conflict oriented.

Seniority, in our case how long you stay inside a bureaucratic organization, is related with an increase of the importance of non-conflict oriented values. We shall not forget that seniority is strongly associated with age, inducing probably less demanding attitudes.

The relationship of sex with this total score is coherent with data found by Rokeach with an American population, in the beginnings of the 70s.

In summary: For this general value total score, our hypotheses on antecedents, related with individual organizational history, supervision, region and enterprise are only partially confirmed: Only seniority shows a positive relationship with the importance of non-conflict values, but its strong correlation with age does not allow us to state any strong conclusions about possible enterprises effects.

To be more enlarger or non-conflict oriented seems also influenced by sex, which is more a reflexion of roles in society than inside enterprises.

PCSCOR2 - MORALITY (+):	clean, cheerful, forgiving, helpful, salvation
VERSUS	
COMPETENCE (-):	logical, intellectual, self-controlled, imaginative, freedom, independent.

Using multiple regression with all variables we found four antecedents statistically significant (sig. T, $p < .05$): age, education, supervision and supervision*training; and a border line variable (sig. T, $p < .08$), sex, with the contribution of all these variables producing a R2 = .19, signif F, $p < .0000$.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with the significant variables, with and without sex, we saw that supervision produced a suppressor effect, not being significant any more, on the other hand, the absence of the variable sex led to a reduction of the explained variance from .16 to .15. In consequence, we kept as independent variables sex, age, education and supervision training, which produce a R2 = .16, p < .001, and the following regression equation:

PCSCOR2 = .17 - .21 SEX +.01 AGE - .21 EDUCATION -
β (- .10) (.13) (- .22)

- .10 SUPERVISION*TRAINING
β (- .16)

Men tend to consider the competence values included in this total score as more important. With age there also exists a tendency to place more value on morality values. In the context of the variables taken into consideration, education shows the stronger positive impact on the importance attributed to competence values.

The variable supervision by itself does not produce a discriminating effect on morality-competence values, but in interaction with training it is related with competence values. It seems theoretically plausible to assume that training programs tend to induce an increase of importance of competence values. However, we cannot exclude that supervisors who privilege these kinds of value may ask for more training and be sent to it more frequently.

These data on sex confirm Rokeach's (1973) data. The relation of education with morality-competence confirms Kohn and Schooler (1983). Their "self-direction" increases with education which can be translated here by an increase of importance of freedom and independence values. It also confirms Rokeach's data (1973): for less educated people "clean" is one of the more discriminating values while for the higher educated "logical" is more important and discriminating.

In summary: Our hypotheses on individual organizatonal history, region and enterprise are not confirmed for this general value total score. Nevertheless, apart from sex and education, our hypothesis on supervison is partially confirmed: i.e. supervisors with more training privilege competence values. We can assume that this privilege of competence values is a result of training processes, in a similar way as it results from education, leading to new mental elaborations; but we also have to admit that supervisors who privilege competence values may ask for more training and get it.

PCSCOR3 -	SELF-EXPANSION (+):	broadminded, courageous, freedom, independent
	VERSUS	
	SELF-CONSTRICTION (-):	obedient, polite, self-controlled, responsable, family security.

Our independent variables did not show significant explanatory capacity in relation to this total value.

PCSCOR4 -	SOCIAL ORIENTED (+):	equality, world of peace, national security
	VERSUS	
	PERSONAL/	
	EMOTIONAL ORIENTED (-):	mature love, pleasure, happiness, loving

Using multiple regression with all variables we found two variables statistically significant, age and Dumreg2 (comparison Evora - South with Lisboa), a border line variable (sig. T, p < .08) seniority and a R2 = .09 with a signif F, p < .001.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with the significant variables, with and without seniority, we verified that this last variable was not significant and we got a R2 = .07, p < .001. Consequently, the regression equation with a better explanatory capacity is the following one:

PCSCOR4 = -1.10 + .03 AGE + .27 DUMREG2
β (.24) (.11)

I.e., age influences the increase of social orientation, as well as that living in Evora (South of Portugal) induces a stronger social orientation. If we remember (see region characteristics) that this is one of Portugal's less developed regions and that the majority of people vote for the Communist Party, it seems a very consistent result.

In summary: Our hypotheses on individual organizational history, supervision and enterprise are not confirmed in relation to this total score. Nevertheless, it is influenced by the variable region: to live in the region of Evora is related with social orientation.

PCSCOR5 - IMMEDIATE ORIENTED (+): Comfortable life
VERSUS
DELAYED ORIENTED (-): Self-respect, True friendship, inner harmony, wisdom

Using multiple regression with all variables we found two variables statistically significant, education and sex, and two border line variables (sig. T > .05 and <.10): Dumreg2 and age, with a R2 = .08, signif F, p < .0036.
Proceeding to the multiple regression with the significant variables, with and without the border line variables, we verified that, out of all possible combinations, these latter were no more significant (i.e., sig. T > .05) and their absence did not reduce the total explained variance (R2 difference = .01) significantly. The regression equation with better explanatory capacity, although rather weak (R2 = .04, p < .001), was the following:

PCSCOR5 = .28 + .29 Sex - .17 Education
β (.14) (- .18)

According to this expression, men seem to be more comfort oriented and higher levels of education tend to prefer delayed oriented values.

These sex and educational data confirm Rokeach's findings (1973).

In summary: Our hypotheses on antecedents are not confirmed in relation to this total score general values, there are no enterprise related variables connected with immediate - delayed values.

TABLE 35 - ANTECEDENTS OF GENERAL VALUES

DEPENDENTS	R^2	SIGNIF. F P<0.05 P<0.01 P<0.001	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES																																	
			PERSONAL CHARACT.						INDIV. ORGAN. HISTORY						SUPER-VISION		SUPERVISION INTERACT.						ENTER-PRISE		ENTERPRISE INTERACT.								REGION			
			AGE		SEX		EDUC.		ORG.SENIO		TRAINING		PROMOT.				SUP*SEN		SUP*TRAI		SUP*PROM				ENT*SEN		ENT*TRAI		ENT*PROM		ENT*SUP		PORTG		EVORA	
			b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β
PCSCOR1 ENLARGER (+) - vs - NON-CONFLICT (-)	.16	.001			.42	.21			-.03	-.30																										
PCSCOR2 MORALITY (+) - vs - COMPETENCE (-)	.16	.001	.01	.13	-.21	-.10	-.21	-.22											-.10	-.16																
PCSCOR3 SELF-EXPANSION (+) - vs - SELF-CONSTRICT. (-)		n.s.																																		
PCSCOR4 SOCIAL ORIENTED (+) - vs - PERSON./EMOTION. (-)	.07	.001	.03	.24																															.27	.11
PCSCOR5 IMMEDIATE (+) - vs - DELAYED GRATIFICAT. ORIENTED (-)	.04	.001			.29	.14	-.17	-.16																												

CONCLUSION:

Our hypotheses on antecedents of general values are in general infirmed. They do not seem influenced by the individual organizational history or enterprise, only seniority, strongly correlated with age, has a relationship with non-conflict oriented values. General values seem mainly influenced by, what we call, personal characteristics:

Sex: Enlarger - versus - Non-conflict oriented
Morality - versus - Competence
Immediate - versus - Delayed gratification

Education: Morality - versus - Competence
Immediate - versus - Delayed gratification

Age: Morality - versus - Competence
Social oriented - versus - Personal/emotional oriented

We can also notice that Self-Expansion - vs - Self-Constriction total Score is not related with any of the considered antecedents.

In Portugal, the variable region relates significantly to social orientation: our population living in Evora (Alentejo - South of Portugal) is more social oriented than Lisboa and Porto people, which seems consistent with the social and political characteristics of this region.

To be a supervisor does not seem a sufficient condition to prefer competence values, but supervision associated with training is related with more importance attributed to these values. From a practical point of view, this statement, independently of the sense of the relationship, can have a significant impact on human resources management.

Seniority shows a positive relationship with non-conflict oriented values but, given the correlation with age, it is difficult to impute this relationship to enterprise effects.

4.2.2 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ANTECEDENTS AND WORK RELATED VALUES

Similarly to the procedures used with general values, we also analyzed the relationships between antecedents and work related values. We considered the same antecedents and used the same statistical treatments.

PCVTA1 - COMFORT I (Environmental): Interpersonal relations, Job security, Physical working conditions

Using Multiple Regression with all antecedent variables we found a $R2 = .12$, signif F, $p < .0000$. Education is the only variable statistically significant (sig T $<.05$) as well as two border line variables (sig T $> .05$ and $<.10$), enterprise and age.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with education and with all the possible combinations with the border line variables, we ascertained that the equation which could explain more variance of COMFORT I ($R2 = .09$, $p < .001$), was the following:

$$PCVTA1 = .56 \quad \underset{\beta\ (-.27)}{-.26\ EDUCATION} \quad \underset{(.13)}{+.25\ ENTERPRISE}$$

I.e., this total score comfort I (environmental) tends to be more important for people with lower levels of education and the variable enterprise seems to influence the importance of these work related values.

In this case, E1 employees give more importance to the work related values: interpersonal relations, job security and physical working conditions. Since enterprise is not in interaction with the socialization variables (seniority, promotion or training), we can say that the general socialization processes in each organization, while indicated by these indices, are not relevant for the importance attribution of Comfort I work related values.

In summary: Education has a negative load in the evaluation of Comfort I work related values and our hypothesis that enterprise would influence work related values is confirmed for this total score Comfort I. All the other hypotheses on antecedents (work history, supervision and region) are invalidated.

PCVTA2 - ECONOMIC REWARDS: Pay and promotion

Using multiple regression with all antecedent variables we found a R2 = .07, signif F, $p < .015$, and 3 independent variables statistically significant: Enterprise, education and sex.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with the 3 significant variables, these can explain .04 of the variance of PCVTA2, which is significant ($p < .001$), according to the equation:

PCVTA2 = -.56 + .30 SEX + .10 EDUCATION+ .26 ENTERPRISE
β (.15) (.11) (.13)

Thus, the economic rewards seem to be more important to men, to individuals with higher levels of education and susceptible of being differently privileged according to the entreprises. In our case, economic rewards are more important in E1, where, as described before, the income is lower.

This relationship of sex with economic rewards has the same sense as that found by Jurgensen (1978), Stake (1978) and MOW (1987).
In opposition to the results found by MOW (1987), in our sample higher levels of education tend to attribute more importance to economic rewards than lower levels. This result has to be interpreted according to the enterprises and the country where we collected data: both enterprises of this study are public companies and, consequently, the salary levels have always to be checked by the government; it is well known that the salaries of clerical and "blue-collar" workers tend to be higher in public enterprises than in private ones, while higher educated workers (technicians) are very often, but not always, better paid in private enterprises, which are completely free to improve their reward systems.

In summary: Our hypothesis that enterprise would influence work related values is confirmed in this factor economic rewards, the kind of enterprise is related with the importance attributed to pay and promotion. The other hypotheses on antecedents (work history, supervision and region) are not confirmed.

PCVTA3 - EXPRESSIVE CHARACTERISTICS: Good match of requirements/individual skills and interesting work

Using multiple regression with all variables we found an explained variance of .15, with a signif F, $p < .0000$, and two variables statistically significant: Education and Enterprise*Seniority.

Proceeding to the multiple regression of PCVTA3 with these 2 variables, we found a R2 = .08, which is significant ($p < .001$), according the following expression:

PCVTA3 = -.47 + .21 EDUCATION - .01 ENTERP*SENIORITY
β (.23) (- .13)

I.e., the expressive characteristics of work seem to be valued more by higher levels of education. In some bureaucratic enterprises, seniority can produce a reduction of the importance of these work characteristics. In our case, this effect of seniority is produced in E1 where, as we will see, the performance-rewards contingency is very weak. Can this fact induce a loss of interest in expressive characteristics of work?

Our data confirm the MOW (1987) results, considering that education is one of the most important sources of variability in the preference for intrinsic work. Nevertheless, the effect of autonomy experience identified by the MOW Team as an important determinant of these values does not appear in our study, where this autonomy experience could be translated, for instance, in our variable supervision.

In summary: Our hypotheses on antecedents of work related values are invalidated. Only, seniority in some enterprises, may possibly influence the loss of importance of the expressive characteristics of work (probably associated with age).

PCVTA4 - DEVELOPMENT/UTILITY: Learn new things, serve society, attain goals/results

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a $R2 = .07$, with signif F, $p < .014$, and four variables statistically significant: enterprise, promotion, supervision*promotion and enterprise*training.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these 4 variables, we found a $R2 = .06$ ($p < .001$), according to the following equation:

$$PCVTA4 = .21 \underset{\beta\ (-.31)}{-.62\ ENTERPRISE} \underset{(-.15)}{-.13\ PROMOTION} + \underset{\beta\ (.17)}{+.13\ SUPERVISION*PROMOTION} + \underset{(.33)}{.20\ ENTERPRISE*TRAINING}$$

The attributed importance to serve society, to attain goals/results and learn new things, seems to be influenced a great deal by enterprise. In this study, it is Enterprise 2 which gives more importance to development/utility work related values.
This total score is influenced negatively by promotions, probably as a result of a larger number of promotions in Enterprise 1 mainly based on automatisms, which tends to be confirmed by the effect of promotions on supervisors (for whom there are no automatisms). In this case they have an opposite effect, but we can also hypothesize that promotions are given more frequently to supervisors who value this kind of value.
In some enterprises, in this study E1, training seems also to influence this kind of value, but again in this case we can hypothesize that people who find these values important are those who go more often, because they are sent to training programs, or because they ask for it. We underline, as seen before, that Enterprise 1 offers more training programs to its employees than E2.
Anyway, even considering alternative explanations, this total score development/utility seems susceptible of being socialized in addition to selection processes.

In summary: For this total score development/utility, our hypotheses on antecedents are partially confirmed: the four variables in the regression equation belong to work history, enterprise and supervision and none to personal characteristics.

PCVTA5 - COMFORT II (Pleasant work): Variety, convenient hours and learning opportunity

The independent variables used in our study did not show significant explanatory capacity in relation to this total score.

TABLE 36 - ANTECEDENTS OF WORK RELATED VALUES

DEPENDENTS	R^2	SIGNIF. F P<0.05 P<0.01 P<0.001	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES																															
			PERSONAL CHARACT.						INDIV. ORGAN. HISTORY						SUPER-VISION		SUPERVISION INTERACT.						ENTER-PRISE		ENTERPRISE INTERACT.								REGION	
			AGE		SEX		EDUC.		ORG.SENIO		TRAINING		PROMOT.				SUP*SEN		SUP*TRAI		SUP*PROM				ENT*SEN		ENT*TRAI		ENT*PROM		ENT*SUF		FORTO	EVO
			b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β
PCVTA1 COMFORT I (Environmental)	.09	.001					-.26	-.27															.25	.13										
PCVTA2 ECONOMIC REWARDS	.04	.001			.30	.15	.10	.11															.26	.13										
PCVTA3 EXPRESSIVE CHARACT.	.08	.001					.21	.23																	-.01	-.13								
PCVTA4 UTILITY/DEVELOPMENT	.06	.001											-.13	-.15							.13	.17	-.62	-.31			.20	.33						
PCVTA5 COMFORT II (Pleasant Work)		n.s.																																

4.2.3 - COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE EFFECTS OF ANTECEDENTS ON GENERAL VALUES AND WORK RELATED VALUES

In a comparative analysis of the effects of antecedents on general values and on work related values it is possible to draw a general conclusion on our hypotheses:

The enterprise and variables related to it (work history - seniority, promotion, training - and supervision) do not have a significant relationship with general values but, on the other hand, they have a constant presence in the relationships with work related values.

The following specific examples demonstrate this statement:

Among 5 total scores of general values, only twice a variable related with life inside enterprises appears in regression equations. It happens with Morality-vs-Competence, where training given to supervisors tends to be related with competence values (β = -.16), and with Enlarger-vs-Non-conflict oriented, where seniority shows a certain load (β = -.30).

The 4 regression equations of general values are mainly composed of personal characteristics variables (sex, age and education), with 7 presences in a total of 10 presences of independent variables (1 presence of region).

Among the 5 total scores of work related values, also in 4 regression equations, the variable enterprise and those related with it are always present. Enterprise, by itself, has 3 presences. Other variables present: promotion, supervision * promotion, enterprise * seniority and enterprise * training.
In comparison, personal characteristics only have 4 presences in a total of 11 presences of independent variables.

Nevertheless, we cannot assume that this relationship between enterprise and work related values results mainly from a socializing process. The variables used as indices of socialization processes appear mainly in relation with PCVTA4 - development/ /utility. Even if the most plausible model seems to be the mutual causality of selection and socialization processes, promotions, supervision and training can have a socializing role in the importance attributed to these values (serve society, to attain goals/results and learning new things). Longitudinal studies are needed to discriminate socializing effects from selective ones.

The importance attributed to comfort I (environmental) and to economic rewards does not appear associated to our enterprise indices of socialization (seniority, promotion, training) but related to the variable enterprise itself (beta slopes: .13 in both cases). Both types of work related value are preferred in Enterprise 1, while, comparatively, in Enterprise 2 development/utility values are preferred (beta slope = -.31).

When one reads the results and interpretations of the variable enterprise one should always take into account that we only studied two productive enterprises, although quite different: Enterprise 1 is bigger, is managed like a public service and has a lower average salary, while Enterprise 2 has a more private management system.

People working in the two enterprises have different value systems, general and work related, as seen in 4.1. These differences are in general reproduced in the 3 regions, which could mean that the enterprises would have powerful means to select and socialize the value systems of their employees. If, in general, this statement seems true for work related values, it cannot, however, be applied to general values. In relation to the latter, enterprises can only manage personal characteristics, mainly by selection/retirement procedures.

The enterprise, while being a socializing organization of general value systems, does not seem to have, by itself, the influence foreseen by Rokeach (1973) or Connor and Becker (1979). From our data, general values seem mainly the result of socially attributed sex roles, age (possibly including generation effects) and education levels, which we call personal characteristics, as symptoms of processes in general life. Apart from personal characteristics effects, social -vs- personal orientations seem influenced by regions, which are socially and politically discriminating, non-conflict values seem influenced by seniority in bureaucratic organizations and competence orientations seem influenced by supervision interacting with training.

Our data tend to confirm the enduring character of general values foreseen by Rokeach (1973) and, in relation to what is important and desirable in life, individuals tend to keep their own cognitive contents independent of the type of productive enterprise where they work. Anyway, this statement should be confirmed with non-bureaucratic enterprises and with a larger sample of organizations.

Following these considerations, it does not seem fair to include general values in the conception of corporate culture, because they do not seem produced or determined by the organizations. In our opinion, this implies that the term value, as it is generally conceived in social sciences (Kluckholm, 1951), should not be used so liberally in organizational culture: It is quite necessary to specify its definiton or its level of abstraction.

If we choose the first option, specifying its definition, in the way that Schein (1986) does - Values are what "ought" to be - , then perhaps we are working with a concept useful to corporate culture perspectives, but this concept of value does not correspond to the more traditional meaning in social sciences. If we choose the second option, however, we get a broader and more commonly acceptable concept of value, but we have to specify its level of abstraction and domain of application, which does not occur so often in organizational culture literature. What we call work related values follows this second option and it is possible to imagine other fields of application: interpersonal relationships, supervision, management, etc.

As we saw, general values do not seem influenced and produced by different kinds of bureaucratic productive enterprises, they are mainly influenced by education, age and sex, and, thus, by the evolution of society in general (for instance, sex role distribution).
This does not mean that they are useless for management: if there are relationships, as is theoretically assumed, between general values and specific domain values, perceptions, attitudes and actions inside organizations, - which by the way have to be proved, - then it may be important to know them in an organizational context as conditioning influences on corporate culture. On the other hand, by direct selection processes of individual profiles an organization or enterprise can also influence the kind of general value systems dominant in it. Indeed, it does not seem arbitrary to select men or women, low or high levels of education, younger or older people, or to introduce different selection/retirement procedures, to produce a certain type of value system in an organization. This may be true, even if the explained variance of values by those independent variables is not very large (in our study between .16 and .04 for general values total scores). Nevertheless, an important question remains to be answered:
- To what extent do general values and work related values influence organizational attitudes and behaviors?

4.2.4 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ANTECEDENTS AND ORGANIZATION PERCEPTION

In this paragraph we present the relationships between antecedents and job/organizational perceptions, although this was not one of the main goals we formulated, but we wish to investigate this question in a similar way to our treatment of values. This presentation has mainly an exploratory character, profiting from the fact that data are available, and, consequently, the relationships are not fully discussed.

4.2.4.1 - WORK PERCEPTION

INTCH - INTRINSIC CHARACTERISTICS

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .17, with a signif F, $p < .0000$, and five variables statistically significant: supervision, seniority, age, training and supervision*training.

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these 5 significant independent variables, age and seniority are no more significant, explaining the 3 other R2 = .15 ($p < .001$) according to the following regression equation:

INTCH = 42.21 + 3.87 TRAINING + 12.57 SUPERVISION
β (.36) (.41)

- 2.47 SUPERVISION*TRAINING
(- .29)

This means that supervisors perceive their jobs as having more variety, autonomy and challenge, which is a generally accepted statement, corresponding to a formal attribution of broader tasks, with higher responsibilities and decision making levels.

There is also a positive relationship between the number of training programs and the perception of job intrinsic characteristics. But to establish causal relationships between these variables seems a difficult task:

a) Do I perceive my job as having more variety, autonomy and challenge because I followed more training programs?
b) Or, because I perceive my job as intrinsically more demanding, I follow more training programs? And the presence in these training programs can still have a multiple causality: the employee can be present because he feels a need for more training and ask for it; the supervisor thinks the job more complex and sends the employee to training; or still, because the job is perceived by the employee as more challenging, he establishes a more positive relationship with job and supervisor, and, consequently, the latter rewards his subordinate with more training.

The 3rd independent variable is also interesting: the training given to supervisors is related with less positive perceptions of job intrinsic characteristics. Does the supervisor tend to become more demanding towards his job because he receives more training? Or, since his job is less challenging, he is more available to be sent or to go to training programs?

CLATRA - ROLE CLARITY AND TRAINING ADEQUACY

Using multiple regression with all antecedent variables we found a R2 = .07, signif F, $p < .0155$, and two statistically significant variables, age and training, and a border line variable (sig. T, $p < .09$) seniority.

Proceeding to the multiple regression of this total score with the 3 independent variables, training and seniority were no more significant in all possible combinations of these variables. Thus, the only plausible regression equation, with only a R2 = .02 but still significant (.01), is the following one:

CLATRA = 22.5 + .08 AGE
β (.13)

This total score does not show a relationship with most of the variables taken as antecedents, only indicating that the older the employee, the more he tends to perceive role clarity and to consider himself as possessing adequate training.

CFLOVE - ROLE CONFLICT AND ROLE OVERLOAD

Using multiple regression with all variables we did not find a significant R2. The antecedent variables do not seem related with role conflict and role overload.

4.2.4.2 - GROUP PERCEPTION

COHEOP - COHESIVE AND OPENMINDED GROUP

Using multiple regression with all variables we found an R2 = .08, with a signif F, p < .0046, and six variables statistically significant: Dumreg1 (Porto - Lisboa contrast), education, training, age, seniority and enterprise*seniority.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with the significant variables, Dumreg1 and enterprise*seniority were mo more significant. The resulting regression equation, which explains .08 of the variance of COHEOP (p < .001), contains the other 4 independent variables:

COHEOP = 37.97 + .23 AGE - 1.24 EDUCATION - .22 SENIORITY
β (.22) (- .14) (- .22)

+ 1.26 TRAINING
β (.16)

I.e., the educational level and seniority have a negative effect on the perception of the group functioning, while age and training produce an opposite effect.

FRAGM - FRAGMENTATION

Using multiple regression with all variables, there were not found any variables with explanatory capacity towards total score FRAGM.

4.2.4.3 - SUPERVISION PERCEPTION

SUPORT - SUPPORTIVE ORIENTATION

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .11, with signif F, p < .0001, and six variables statistically significant: Dumreg1, education, sex, age, seniority and enterprise*seniority.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with the significant variables, we found that enterprise*seniority was no more significant, and the following equation produced the best predictive capacity of SUPORT (R2 = .08, p < .001):

SUPORT = 87.41 + .52 AGE - 4.96 SEX - 4.57 EDUCATION -
β (.21) (- .11) (- .22)

- .59 SENIORITY - 4.88 DUMREG1
β (- .25) (- .11)

In contrast with seniority and educational level, which have a negative effect, the older an employee gets, the more he tends to perceive the supportive tasks of his supervisor positively.
Men perceive the supportive tasks of their supervisors more negatively than women.
In the Porto region, supervisors are depreciated in this dimension.

PRODUT - PRODUCTION ORIENTATION

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .08, signif F, p < .0023, and six significant variables: Dumreg1, training, age, seniority, supervisior*training and enterprise*promotion, and a border line variable (sig. T, p < .09): Promotion.

Proceeding to the multiple regression with the significant independent variables, in all possible combinations, only Dumreg1 (Porto - Lisboa contrast) kept a significant predictive capacity, R2 = .02 (p < .01), according to the following regression equation:

PRODUT = 16.48 - 1.07 DUMREG1
β (- .15)

I.e., from all the independent variables considered, only the Porto region influences the distribution of production orientation significantly. It appears that the employees of this region think that their supervisors are less production oriented, which is an interesting data, if we take into consideration that in Portugal the general opinion is that "Porto is the capital of work in Portugal". Are the employees more demanding in this dimension or are the supervisors really less production oriented?

PARTIC - PARTICIPATION

Using multiple regression with all antecedent variables, there were not found any variables with significant explanatory capacity of the variance of these total score PARTIC.

4.2.4.4 - REWARD SYSTEMS PERCEPTION

REWCONT - REWARDS CONTINGENCY

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .18. signif F, p < .0000, and five variables statistically significant, enterprise, education, age, seniority, and enterprise*seniority, and a border line variable, promotion (sig. T, p < .06).

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables we found that enterprise*seniority was no more significant, with the remaining variables explaining .16 of the variance of REWCONT, which is significant to p < .001, according to the following equation:

REWCONT = 18.86 + .27 AGE - 1.35 EDUCATION - .28 SENIORITY +
(.32) (- .18) (- .34)

+ .95 PROMOTION - 4.95 ENTERPRISE
β (.14) (- .31)

Thus, the number of promotions affects the perception of the relationship between effort and reward in an expected positive sense.
On the other hand, the intercorrelated seniority and age, when both are present, have an opposite effect: the longer one stays in the enterprise, the weaker one perceives the performance-rewards contingency; and the older one is, the stronger that contingency is perceived.
The level of education affects the perception of the relationship negatively, which may be a consequence of the more demanding character of higher educated people. It is also possible to admit that higher educated people, in their evaluation of personal performance, use as criteria not only the work/organizational results they reach but also their positive difference in educational level.

As described previously, the reward systems in the two enterprises are rather distinct which affects performance-rewards perception significantly. As expected, this perception is more positive in E2, where financial rewards are mainly given according to individual appraisal, than in E1, where pay and promotion are mainly determined by automatisms.

INEQPRO - INTERNAL EQUITY OF PROMOTIONS

Using multiple regression with all antecedent variables we found a R2 = .11, signif F, $p < .0000$, and six variables statistically significant, education, training, age, seniority, enterprise*supervision, enterprise*seniority, and two border line variables, promotion (sig. T, $p < .05$) and Dumreg2 (sig. T, $p < .07$).

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these variables, we found that the variable enterprise*seniority was no more significant, with the other variables explaining .07 of the variance INEQPRO ($p < .001$), according to the following expression:

INEQPRO = 7.09	+ .09 AGE	- .54 EDUCATION	- .13 SENIORITY	+ .49 TRAINING
	β (.20)	(- .14)	(- .31)	(.15)

+ .42 PROMOTION	- 1.22 EMPCHE	+ 1.00 DUMREG2
β (.12)	(- .10)	(.10)

Once again, seniority and age show opposite effects on reward systems perceptions. Like in rewards contingency, age tends to influence internal equity of promotions positively, while seniority has negative effects. Will age induce tolerance and less demanding attitudes towards reward systems, while seniority will induce less tolerance and more demanding attitudes as a result of previous organizational experience?

Also here, the educational level has a negative effect on the perception of INEQPRO, which can be explained by the same reasons given for rewards contingency.

The region of Evora (South) perceives a more positive internal equity of promotions than the other regions. In these regions, both enterprises have much less employees and, in each enterprise, all the employees work in the same building, and, besides, in the town everybody knows everybody. Consequently, it is possible that their evaluation is more realistic than in regions where the enterprises work in different buildings and, even, where it is almost impossible to know everybody working in the same enterprise, inside the same region, personally.

Promotion has an expected positive effect on INEQPRO and the same happens with training. In our sample, training is significantly correlated with promotion: .25.

The Enterprise 1 supervisors perceive internal inequity in promotions, probably as a result of the system of automatisms.

EXTEQ - EXTERNAL EQUITY

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .16, signif F, $p < .0000$, and six variables statistically significant, Dumreg1, Dumreg2, education, age, seniority, enterprise*supervisor, and one border line variable (sig. T, $p < .06$), supervisor*promotion.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, enterprise*supervisor and supervisor*promotion were no more significant, obtaining a R2 = .09 ($p < .001$), according to the equation:

EXTEQ = 7.33	+ .11 AGE	- .63 EDUCATION	- .11 SENIORITY	+
	β (.30)	(- .20)	(- .30)	

+ .97 DUMREG1	+ 1.35 DUMREG2
β (.14)	(.16)

Once again, age and seniority produce the same kind of effects as in the two previous total scores of reward systems perception.
The same happens with education.
And, as expected, in Porto and in Evora employees perceive more external equity than those working in Lisboa. Each enterprise offers the same salaries in the 3 regions but the average income of families in the 3 regions is different and so are the standards for comparison. Logically, Evora employees perceive the stronger external equity.

4.2.4.5 - ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE PERCEPTION

MEANCOO - COORDINATION SYSTEMS AND MEANS

Using multiple regression with all variables we found R2 = .06, signif F, $p < .038$, and only one significant variable - education. Another independent variable significant to .08, supervision, was useless. Regression equation:

MEANCOO = 26.73 - .77 EDUCATION
β (- .12)

explaining only .02 of the variance ($p < .01$).

I.e., among the independent variables only higher educated people show a correspondence with a more negative perception of the cooperation between departments and of the means used by the organizations.

ESTORG - ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .21, signif F, $p < .0000$, four antecedent variables statistically significant, enterprise, Dumreg2, seniority and enterprise*seniority, and one variable with a border line statistical significance (sig. T, $p < .08$), supervisor.

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these variables, we found that only enterprise and Dumreg2 were still significant, explaining .17 of the variance of ESTORG, which is significant to $p < .001$, according to the following regression equation:

ESTORG = 11.12 - 3.30 ENTERPRISE+ 1.40 DUMREG2
β (- .41) (.14)

I.e., the perceptions of the organizational structures are determined by the distinct formal organizational structures of the two enterprises, which is in line with the fact that E1, the biggest enterprise, has the more critical perception of hierarchical levels and of the adequacy of departments.
Irrespective of the enterprises, it is interesting to note that, in the Evora region, there is a more favorable perception of the organizational structures, which corresponds to smaller structures.

ESTVER - VERTICAL STRUCTURE FUNCTIONING

The independent variables used in this study do not have a significant explanatory capacity on this total score ESTVER.

4.2.4.6 - PROCEDURES

COMDEC - ADEQUATE PROCEDURES (Communication and decision)

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .07, signif F, p < .013, two significant variables, education and Dumreg2, and one variable with a border line statistical significance (sig. T, p < .08): Seniority.

Only the first two were confirmed when we proceeded to the multiple regression, with the three variables explaining .04 of the variance (p < .001), according to the regression equation:

COMDEC =69.54 - 2.43 EDUCATION + 4.73 DUMREG2
β (- .15) (.12)

As happened with coordination and means, the education level has a negative effect on the perception of planning, rules evaluation, communication and decision making. More educated people can be more demanding and/or, in their jobs, more information and autonomy are required.
As verified with organizational structure, in the Evora region there is a more positive perception of this dimension, which can have the same reasons.

FORMAL - FORMALIZATION (Rigid application of rules)

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .10, signif F, p < .0003, and five variables statistically significant - Dumreg2, sex, supervisor, supervisor*seniority and enterprise*seniority.

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these variables, we found that the best combination, corresponding to the best explanatory capacity with significant variables, excluded enterprise*seniority, with a R2 = .07 (p < .001), according to the expression:

FORMAL =15.83 - 1.39 SEX - 1.44 SUPERVISOR
β (- .22) (- .20)
+ .06 SUPERVISOR*SENIORITY - .72 DUMREG1
β (.18) (- .11)

Women perceive a stronger degree of rigidity in the application of rules, in opposition to what happens in Porto.

To be a supervisor improves the perception of the application of rules, which confirms the data reported by Whitely (1981), although with seniority that perception is less positive.

RISK - RISK

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .25, signif F, p < .0000, two variables statistically significant, enterprise and supervisor*seniority and a variable with border line significance - supervisor*promotion.

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these independent variables, we found a R2 = .22 p < .001, according to the following expression:

RISK = 10.33 - 2.14 ENTERPRISE - .31 SUPERVISOR*PROMOTION +
β (- .47) (- .18)

+ .05 SUPERVISOR*SENIORITY
β (.19)

In this dimension, the variable enterprise appears with a quite significant loading in the determination of risk perception, which is a logical consequence of the activity of E2 (insurances).
For supervisors, promotions and seniority seem to have an opposite effect: while the promotions induce an underestimation of risk in management, seniority induces the opposite effect.

4.2.4.7 - NORMS

OPENMI - OPENMINDED

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .13, signif F, p < .0000, seven variables statistically significant - education, sex, age, seniority, supervisor*seniority, supervisor*training - and one variable that could be significant Dumreg2 (sig. T, p < .06).

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these variables, Dumreg2 was no more significant and we found a R2 = .09 (p < .001), according to the following equation:

OPENMI = 21.83 + .21 AGE - 1.66 SEX - 1.60 EDUCATION+ 1.41 TRAINING
β (.26) (- .11) (.23) (.23)

- .29 SENIORITY - 1.34 SUPERVISOR*TRAINING +
β (- .37) (- .28)

+ .19 SUPERVISOR*SENIORITY
β (.23)

Once again, we find the same contrast between age and seniority: while age has a positive effect on the perception of OPENMI, seniority has a negative effect. Is it true that age will induce tolerance, while seniority, as a result of organizational experience, will induce more demanding open attitudes towards conflict and innovation? Anyway, seniority has an opposite effect on supervisors, they become more optimistic about openminded norms.
Men and higher level educated people perceive less openness in organizational norms related to innovation and conflicts.
Training has an opposite effect. However, when supervisors have more training, they tend to perceive this dimension negatively.

SOCIA - SOCIAL EVENTS (Importance)

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .07, signif F, p < .023, and five variables statistically significant - Dumreg1, Dumreg2, seniority, supervisor*seniority and age.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, we found that the first two were still significant, with a R2 = .02 (p < .05), according to the expression:

SOCIA = 9.40 + .80 DUMREG1 + .91 DUMREG2
β (.12) (.11)

In spite of the low explained variance, social events are perceived as more important in the South (Evora) and less in Lisboa (center). This perception seems to decrease with the economic development and the cosmopolitan character of the region.

CONVE - CONVENTIONALISM

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .09. signif F, $p < .0006$, three variables statistically significant: education, enterprise, Dumreg1 - and one border line significant variable, supervisor*seniority (sig. T, $p < .06$).

Proceeding to all combinations of these independent variables, we found that only education and Dumreg1 maintained a statistical meaning, explaining .05 of the variance of CONVE ($p < .001$), according to the following expression:

CONVE = 9.44 - .42 EDUCATION + .68 DUMREG1
β (- .19) (.14)

I.e., the higher the education level, the lesser conventionalism is perceived, which probably has a relation with the status inside the enterprise.
The Porto region perceives also more conventionalism (way of dressing and leader psychological distance), which is probably related with the more formal style of management, hypothesized above.

4.2.4.8 - ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTION

PORG - PERCEPTION OF THE ORGANIZATION AS A WHOLE

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .17, signif F, $p < .0000$, six variables statistically significant, education, age, seniority, training, Dumreg1 and supervisor, and two variables with a border line statistical significance: supervisor*seniority and supervisor*promotion.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, we verified that the training was no more significant. The remaining variables produce a R2 = .10 ($p < .001$), according to the following regression equation:

PORG = 35.93 + .41 AGE - 1.01 EDUCATION - .47 SENIORITY
β (.40) (- .11) (- .48)

- 11.65 SUPERVISOR + .26 SUPERVISOR*SENIORITY
β (- .53) (.27)

+ 2.45 SUPERVISOR*PROMOTION - 2.46 DUMREG1
β (.35) (- .13)

Once again, age and seniority have opposite effects: age positive, while seniority is negative.
As usual when present, education affects the perception of the enterprise as a whole negatively.
The Porto region tends to perceive both organizations more negatively: Will more demanding employees and/or the supervision style influence the perception of the enterprises as a whole?
Supervisors perceive their organizations in a more negative way than subordinates, which is a surprising result, possibly explained by a higher level of expectancies. Nevertheless, seniority and promotions induce supervisors to a more positive perception of the enterprises.

DEPENDENTS		R^2	SIGNIF. F P<0.05 P<0.01 P<0.001	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES: PERSONAL CHARACT. AGE b	AGE β	SEX b	SEX β	EDUC. b	EDUC. β	INDIV. ORGAN. HISTORY GRO.SENIO b	GRO.SENIO β	TRAINING b	TRAINING β	PROMOT. b	PROMOT. β	SUPERVISION b	SUPERVISION β	SUPERVISION INTERACT. SUP*SEN b	SUP*SEN β	SUP*TRAI b	SUP*TRAI β	SUP*PRGM b	SUP*PRGM β	ENTERPRISE b	ENTERPRISE β	ENTERPRISE INTERACT. ENT*SEN b	ENT*SEN β	ENT*TRAI b	ENT*TRAI β	ENT*PRGM b	ENT*PRGM β	ENT*SUP b	ENT*SUP β	REGION FGRTO b	FGRTO β	EVORA b	EVORA β
WORK PERCEP.	INTRINSIC CH.	.15	.001									3.87	.36			12.57	.41			-2.47	-.29																
	ROLE CLARITY AND TRAINING	.02	.01	.08	.13																																
	ROLE CONFLICT AND OVERLOAD		n.s.																																		
GROUP PERCEP.	COHESIVE AND OPENMIND GR.	.04	.001	.23	.22			-1.24	-.14	-.22	-.22	1.26	.16																								
	FRAGMENTAT.		n.s.																																		
SUPER-VISION	SUPPORTIVE	.06	.001	.52	.21	-4.97	-.11	-4.57	-.22	-.59	-.25																							-4.68	-.11		
	PRODUCTION O.	.02	.01																															-1.07	-.15		
	PARTICIPATION		n.s.																																		
REWARDS PERCEP.	REW. CONTING.	.16	.001	.27	.32			-1.35	-.16	-.28	-.34			.95	.14									-4.95	-.31												
	INT. EG. PRGM.	.07	.001	.09	.20			-.54	-.14	-.13	-.31	.49	.15	.42	.12																	-1.22	-.10			1.00	.10
	EXTERNAL EQ.	.09	.001	.11	.30			-.63	-.20	-.11	-.30																							.97	.14	1.35	.16
ORGAN. STRUCT.	COORDINATION AND MEANS	.02	.01					-.77	-.12																												
	ORGANIC STRUCT.	.17	.001																					-3.30	-.41											1.40	.14
	VERTICAL STRUCT.		n.s.																																		
PROCE-DURES	ADEQUATE PROCED.	.04	.001					-2.43	-.15																											4.73	.12
	FORMALIZATION	.07	.001			-1.39	-.22									-1.44	-.20	.06	.16															-.72	-.11		
	RISK	.22	.001															.05	.19			-.31	-.18	-2.14	-.47												
NORMS	OPENMINDED	.09	.001	.21	.26	-1.66	-.11	-1.60	-.23	-.29	-.37	1.41	.23					.19	.23	-1.34	-.28																
	SOCIAL EVENTS	.02	.05																															.60	.12	.91	.10
	CONVENCION.	.05	.001					-.42	-.19																									.66	.14		
PERCEPTION OF THE ORGANIZATION		.10	.001	.41	.40			-1.01	-.11	-.47	-.48					(-) 11.65	-.93	.26	.27			2.45	.35											-2.46	-.13		

SUMMARY of point 4.2.4:

In an exploratory context, our data indicate that the five groups of antecedents - personal characteristics, individual organizational history, supervision, enterprise and region - have different explanatory capacities of the various dimensions of the job/organizational perceptions (from R2 = .00 to R2 = .22).

IMPACT OF THESE ANTECEDENTS ON THE TOTAL SCORES OF THE JOB/ORGANIZATION PERCEPTIONS

As said before, the relationships between each antecedent and the job/organizational perceptions total scores has to be understood in the context of the statistical instrument used: the multiple regression analysis with all antecedents as independent variables. The slopes identified (and their Beta equivalents) cannot be interpreted as correlational coefficients but as partial regression coefficients, corresponding to the average change in the dependent variable associated with a unit change in the independent variable, when the other independent variables are held constant.

Effects of personal characteristics:

AGE

Relationships with work perception:
In the regression equation, a positive relationship (Beta = .13) with "Role clarity and training adequacy" total score: With age, people tend to perceive more role clarity and training adequacy.

Relationships with group perception:
Age has a positive relationship (Beta = .22) in the regression equation of "Cohesive and openminded group": Older employees perceive their working groups as more cohesive, open and efficient, with clearer goals and a better image.

Relationships with supervision perception:
In the regression equation, there is a positive relationship (Beta = .21) with "Supportive orientation" total score: With age, the employees perceive their supervisors as more supportive.

Relationships with reward systems perception:
Age is present in all regression equations of the 3 total scores of reward systems perception, always with a positive relationship (Beta = .32, .20 and .30, respectively): With age people tend to perceive more contingency, internal equity and external equity in reward systems.

Relationships with organizational structure perception:
Age does not enter into any regression equation.

Relationships with procedures perception:
Idem.

Relationships with norms perception:
Age is present in the "Openminded" regression equation. Older people tend to perceive (Beta = .26) attitudes towards innovation, conflict and technical/scientific orientation more positively.

Relationships with the perception of the organization as a whole:
Age has a positive effect (Beta = .40) on the regression equation of this perception.

Conclusion on AGE
When age is present in the regression equations of the job/organizational perceptions total scores it always has a positive effect on the perceptions, which seems to confirm our former interpretations that, with age, people become less demanding.
We emphasize that age is negatively and significantly correlated with education (- .42).

SEX

Relationships with work perceptions:
No relationships.

Relationships with group perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with supervision perception:
Sex enters into the regression equation of the total score of "supportive orientation" with a moderate effect (Beta = -.11): Women perceive their supervisors as offering more support.

Relationships with rewards systems perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with organizational structure perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with procedures perception:
Sex only enters into the regression equation of the total score "formalization" (rigid application of rules): Women perceive the application of rules as more rigid (Beta = -.22).

Relationships with norms perception:
The only established relationship: Women perceive (Beta = -.11) the attitudes towards conflict, innovation and scientific orientation more positively.

Relationships with the perception of the organization as a whole:
No relationships.

Conclusions on SEX
Sex does not seem an important variable as determinant of job/organizational perceptions. Anyway, in our sample, women perceive more supportive behaviors from their supervisors, more formalization and more openminded norms towards conflict and innovation.

EDUCATION

Relationships with work perception:
No relationships, which is quite surprising. We would expect a positive association between education and perception of intrinsic characteristics, because in general higher educated people perform more qualified jobs. Nevertheless, it is plausible that their expectations are higher, suppressing the expected positive relationship.

Relationships with group perception:
Education is present in the regression equation of "cohesive and openminded group" total score with a negative effect (Beta= -.14). Higher levels of education perceive groups as less cohesive, open and efficient.

Relationships with supervision perception:
Education has a negative effect on the regression equation of "supportive orientation" (Beta = -.22): Higher educated employees perceive less supportive behaviors in their supervisors.

Relationships with rewards systems perception:
Education has a systematic negative effect in the regression equations of the 3 total scores of rewards systems: Beta = -.18 in performance-reward contingency, -.14 in internal equity and -.20 in external equity.

Relationships with organizational structure perceptions:
It only enters into the equation of the total score - "coordination systems and means", again with a negative effect (Beta = -.12): Higher educated people perceive less adequate coordination and human and technological means.

Relationships with procedures perceptions:
Once again, education has a negative effect (Beta = -.15) on the perception of "adequate procedures", the only case where it is present.

Relationships with norms perception:
Education is present in the equation of the total score - "openminded" (Beta = -.23): The higher employees are educated, the less positively they perceive the attitudes towards innovation, conflict and technical/scientific orientation.
It is also present in the total score equation of conventionality (Beta = -.19): More educated employees tend to perceive less conventionality in the way of dressing and less leader psychological distance.

Relationships with the perception of the organization as a whole:
Once again, education is present in the regression equation with a negative effect (Beta = -.11) on the total score.

Conclusion on EDUCATION
In a total of 17 regression equations, education is present in 10 of them, demonstrating an important impact on organizational perceptions. Surprisingly, the only organizational level where it is absent is the job perception one, in which we would expect a positive effect resulting from the organizational attribution of more complex jobs.
When present, education always has a negative effect on the perceptions of organizational characteristics, probably as a result of more critical knowledge and attitudes.

Individual organizational history:

SENIORITY

Relationships with work perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with group perception:
Seniority is present in the regression equation of the total score "cohesive and openminded group" with a negative effect (Beta = -.22). The longer the employee has been in the organization, the less positive is the perception of the group.

Relationships with supervision perception:
Seniority appears in the equation of "supportive orientation" with a negative loading (Beta = -.25).

Relationships with rewards systems perception:
Seniority is present in all regression equations of the 3 total scores of reward systems. In all them, it has a negative effect: Beta = -.34 in the contingency perception, -.31 in internal equity and -.30 in external equity.

Relationships with organizational structure perception:
No relationship.

Relationships with procedures perceptions:
No relationships.

Relationships with norms perception:
Seniority is present in the regression equation of the total score "openminded", with a negative effect (Beta = -.37): The longer the tenure in the enterprise, the less positively the attitudes towards conflict, innovation and scientific/technical orientation are perceived.

Relationships with the perception of the organization as a whole:
Once again, seniority has a negative effect (Beta = -.48) on this total score.

Conclusion on SENIORITY
In the context of the independent variables considered as antecedents in this study, when seniority shows a relationship with the job/organizational dimensions, it always has a negative effect on the perceptions.
We have to underline that when seniority is present in a regression equation, age, too, is always present. Considering the strong positive correlation between these two antecedents (.88), we have to estimate that this negative effect is associated with the systematic positive effect of age on the same total scores. Anyway, while age seems to induce a positive perception of organizational characteristics, the tenure inside an enterprise seems to induce an opposite effect as a result of organizational experience.

TRAINING

Relationships with work perception:
Training is present in the regression equation of "intrinsic characteristics" total score, with a positive relationship (Beta = .36). Several interpretations seem possible for this relationship: For instance, more training can induce a richer perception of the job, or because the job is more challenging the employee is sent to more training programs, or again, because the job is perceived as more challenging the employee asks for more training.

Relationships with group perception:
Training has a positive effect (Beta = .16) on the total score "cohesive and openminded group".

Relationships with supervision perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with reward systems perception:
Training appears only related with "internal equity of promotions", with a positive effect on the perception of this dimension. There is a significant correlation of .25 between training and promotion.

Relationships with organizational structure perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with procedures perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with norms perception:
Training is present in the regression equation of the total score "openminded", with a positive relationship (Beta = .23).

Relationships with the perception of the organization as a whole:
No relationship.

Conclusion on TRAINING
Training does not appear very often as an explanatory variable of job/organizational perceptions: 4 presences in 17 possible ones. When it is present it always has a positive relationship with the perceptions, in contrast to education, although training and education are positively and significantly correlated (.21). Although it is conceivable to admit that training given inside the enterprise can have a positive effect on job/organizational perceptions, we cannot exclude the hypothesis that employees with more positive perceptions are sent more often to training programs, an indication of this possible sense of the relationship is the correlation between training and promotion (.25).

PROMOTION

Relationships with work perceptions:
No relationships.

Relationships with group perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with supervision perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with reward systems:
Promotion is present in two of the regression equations of the three total scores of reward systems. As was to be expected, it has a positive effect on the perceptions of performance-reward contingency (Beta = .14) and internal equity promotion (.12).

Relationships with organizational structure perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with procedures perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with norms perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with the perception of the organization as a whole:
No relationships.

Conclusions on PROMOTION
The number of promotions has an expected effect on the perception of performance-reward contingency and internal equity of promotions. Nevertheless, this positive relationship does not produce a generalized effect on other perceptions, like supervision or perception of the organization as a whole, as could be expected.

SUPERVISION

Relationships with work perception:
Supervision has quite a strong relationship (Beta = .41) with "intrinsic characteristics" total score. As expected, supervisors perceive their jobs as more complex and challenging.

Relationships with group perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with supervision perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with reward systems perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with organizational structure perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with procedures perceptions:
Supervision is only present in the regression equation of the total score "formalization" (rigid application of rules) with a negative effect (Beta = -.20): Supervisors perceive less formalization inside organizations. This effect is reduced by seniority (Beta = .18).

Relationships with norms perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with the perception of the organization as a whole:
To be a supervisor has a significant effect (Beta = -.53) on the negative perception of the image of the organization and of top managers. This can be interpreted as the result of higher expectations and/or unaccomplished expected relations with top managers. This effect is reduced by seniority and promotion.

Conclusions on SUPERVISION
Quite surprisingly the antecedent supervision, considered in itself, shows only relationships with the perceptions of intrinsic characteristics (rather expected), less perceived formalization and a quite surprising negative relationship with the perception of the enterprise as a whole.
Nevertheless, when we study its associations with individual organizational history, we get more information:

Supervision*Seniority:
- In opposition to what happens when we consider supervision in itself, seniority in supervisors produces a positive effect (Beta = .18) on the perception of the total score "formalization".
- Seniority also induces a stronger perception of risk in management with supervisors (Beta = .19).
- Seniority has a positive effect (Beta = .23) on the supervisor's perception of openminded norms.
- Seniority has a compensatory positive effect (Beta = .27) on the negative perception of the organization as a whole, previously detected in supervisors.

Supervision*Training:
- Training induces supervisors to be more critical towards openminded norms: with training they perceive fewer positive attitudes towards conflict, innovation and technical/scientific orientation inside the enterprise.

Supervision*Promotion:
- With promotions, supervisors tend to perceive fewer risks in management.
- Promotions also have a compensatory positive effect (Beta = .35) on the negative perception of the enterprise as a whole, previously detected in supervisors.

ENTERPRISE

Considering the characteristics of the two enterprises of this study and the design chosen for collecting data, we would expect that the variable enterprise, as an antecedent, would not discriminate the following levels of organizational perceptions:
- Job perception
- Group perception
- Supervision perception.

And that it would discriminate:
- Rewards systems perception
- Organizational structure
- Procedures perception
- Norms
- Organization as a whole.

Results:

Relationships with work perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with group perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with supervision perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with reward systems perception:
As expected, enterprise is related with the total score rewards contingency (Beta = -.31): Employees in Enterprise 1 perceive less performance-rewards contingency than in Enterprise 2 (coded 0), which seems a natural consequence of individual appraisals and promotions based on merit in E2 in contrast with automatisms in E1. The same explanation can justify the more negative perception that E1 supervisors have of internal equity of promotions.
Since people in Enterprise 2 have higher average salaries than in E1, we would expect that enterprise might influence external equity, which, however, does not happen. Probably, E2 employees tend to compare their organization not with all kinds of enterprise but mainly with other insurance companies, where the salaries are more or less the same.

Relationships with organizational structure perception:
As expected, enterprise has a significant impact (Beta = -.41) on the total score "organizational structure": In the bigger and more pyramidal enterprise, E1, employees perceive less hierarchical and department adequacy than in E2.

Relationships with procedures perception:
As expected, enterprise is related with risk perception: Given the characteristics of the activity of both enterprises (telecommunication monopoly - versus - insurance in open market), employees in E2 (coded 0) perceive more risks in management and business than employees in E1.

Relationships with norms perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with the perception of the organization as a whole:
Our expectations of the relationships between enterprise and this dimension were not confirmed.

Interactions between enterprise and individual organizational history - supervision:
The associations between enterprise and seniority, training and promotion do not influence the perceptions of the organizational characteristics considered in this study.
The only association appearing in the regression equations of the total scores of the perceptions of organizational characteristics is enterprise*supervisor in "internal equity of promotions": Supervisors in Enterprise1 perceive more inequity in promotions (Beta = -.10).

Conclusion on ENTERPRISE
Our expectations on the impact of enterprise on the perception of job/organizatinal characteristics were in general confirmed: No relationships with work perception, group perception and supervision perception and relationships with the perceptions of reward systems, organizational structure and procedures. Nevertheless, in opposition to our expectations, enterprise has no impact on norms perception and the perception of the organization as a whole, in the context of all the independent variables considered.

REGION

Code: Dumreg1 - Porto: 1, Lisboa: 0; Dumreg2 - Lisboa: 0, Evora: 1.

Relationships with work perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with group perception:
No relationships.

Relationships with supervision perception:
In the Porto region (Dumreg1), employees have a different perception of their supervisors: they perceive them as less supportive and competent (Beta = -.11).
Also "production orientation" total score appears influenced by region: The Porto region is the only independent variable related to this perception, employees in this region perceive their supervisors as less production oriented. Are employees more demanding, are supervisors really less production oriented or is this perception influenced by the previous one, i.e. by the perception of "less competent"?

Relationships with reward systems perception:
The Evora region (Dumreg2) influences the perception of the total score "internal equity of promotions" (Beta = .10): in Evora, employees perceive more internal equity. Perhaps, as explained before, this is the result of the smaller size of the organizational structures in the region and the dimension of the town itself - "everybody knows everybody".
As expected, considering the average family incomes in the 3 regions and the equal pay treatment in each enterprise, in the Porto region employees perceive a better external equity of pay (Beta = .14) than Lisboa employees, and Evora employees perceive even a better external equity (Beta = .16) than those in Porto.

Relationships with organizational structure perception:
The Evora region has a significant relationship with the total score "organizational structure": Evora employees perceive a more adequate organizational structure (Beta = .14), probably as a result of the smaller dimensions of both enterprises in this region.

Relationships with procedures perception:
The Evora region influences positively (Beta = .12) the perception of the total score "adequate procedures": Again the size of organizational structures seems to be the most plausible explanation, facilitating communication and decision.
Region is also present in the regression equation of "formalization" (rigid application of rules): In Porto (Dumreg1) employees perceive less rigidity (Beta = -.11) in the application of organizational rules.

Relationships with norms perception:
Region is the only independent variable influencing the total score "social events" (importance): Porto (Beta = .12) and Evora (Beta = .11) perceive social events as more important than Lisboa, which is probably related with the cosmopolitan character of the regions.
In the Porto region, employees also perceive more conventionality (Beta = .14) inside both enterprises.

Relationships with the perception of the organization as a whole:
In the Porto region employees perceive (Beta = .13) top managers and enterprises less positively.

Conclusions on REGION:
Region is an antecedent that has quite some influence on organizational perceptions (9 presences in a total of 17 regression equations).

Whereas there is a group of effects which could be foreseen, given the characteristics of each region and the characteristics of the enterprise in each region, such as the effects on the perception of reward systems, organizational structure and adequate procedures, there is another group of effects which cannot be inferred from the previous regional and organizational characterizations.
In the latter case, we find the effects of region on the perception of supervision, formalization (procedure), norms and organization as a whole. These effects cannot be fully explained by economic, social, demographic or, even, political regional reasons or by structural dimensions of the enterprises.

Analysing the contrasting effects with the Lisboa region in more detail, we can identify the following factors.

In the Porto region employees perceive:
- Less supportive behaviors from their supervisors.
- Less production orientation in their supervisors.
- Less rigidity in the application of organizational rules.
- More importance attributed to social events by the enterprises.
- More conventionality in the way of dressing and personal treatment with supervisors.
- Less positive image of the enterprises and top managers.

Public opinion in Portugal, connotates the Porto region as "the capital of work and effort". From the data we have gathered, we can say that, when we compare the Porto employees with those in Lisboa, they are more centered and demanding towards production orientation, they judge the application of rules as less rigid but they perceive their supervisors as less supportive and as attributing more importance to social events.

We can also detect a probably more conventional and formal orientation of the supervisors who, in doing so, probably do not respond to the production and supportive needs of their subordinates.

These specific organizational perceptions of the Porto region fit well with what public opinion calls the Porto Regional Culture, with the peculiar characteristics of management in the North of Portugal. Both are top down controlled by managers in Lisboa, who probably do not take into consideration these peculiarities.

This also fits well with our own experience in consulting and training processes. We have the feeling that ignoring some of the peculiarities just mentioned would imply the failure of a training program: you are supposed to be pragmatic and results oriented, follow a strict schedule, dress formally, use a formal personal treatment even in "close" relationships full of contacts with all the trainees during breaks, lunch and, even, dinner.

But what is relevant for this study, is that the Porto region has no impact on values, general or work related, for the employees of both enterprises, while it has an important impact on organizational perceptions, of which some can only be interpreted in a cultural framework related with norms. From these data, and also from the theory and factor analysis of MOW (1987) on Societal Norms about Working (entitlement -vs- obligation) and work related values, it may be assumed that there are several norms which have a cognitive impact on perceptions relatively independent of the value systems.

In the Evora region employees perceive:
- The most importance attributed to social events in both enterprises.
This perception fits well with the stronger social orientation (general values total score) detected in employees of this region and with the political characterization.

4.3 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN GENERAL VALUES, WORK RELATED VALUES AND JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS

4.3.1 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN GENERAL VALUES AND WORK RELATED VALUES

4.3.1.1 - GENERAL VALUES AND PCVTA1 - COMFORT I (Environmental)

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a $R2 = .17$, $p < .001$, and four significant total score values. Proceeding to the multiple regression with these 4 variables, we found a similar R2 with the same level of significance, according to the following regression equation:

PCVTA1 = - .15 PCSCOR1 + .27 PCSCOR2 - .24 PCSCOR3 + .12 PCSCOR4

The attributed importance to Comfort I in work (interpersonal relations, job security, physical working conditions) seems to relate with the importance of the following values related to life in general: Non-conflict oriented, morality, self-constriction and social general values.

In summary: people considering environment, (human and physical) comfort in work as relatively more important are those who seem in their lives more "other oriented": They prefer values as a world of peace, a world of beauty, loving, forgiving, salvation, clean, cheerful, helpful, obedient, polite, self-controlled, responsable, family security, equality and national security.

4.3.1.2 - GENERAL VALUES AND PCVTA2 - ECONOMIC REWARDS

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a $R2 = .07$, signif F, $p < .0000$, three variables statistically significant, PCSCOR1, PCSCOR2 and PCSCOR4 and one variable with a border line significant (sig. T, $p < .06$) - PCSCOR5.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables we verified that the last one was not significant, the three first explaining .06 of PCVTA2 variance ($p < .001$, according to the following equation:

PCVTA2 = .09 PCSCOR1 - .16 PCSCOR2 - .15 PCSCOR4

I.e., the importance of economic rewards in working (pay and promotion) seems related with the importance given to general values included in total scores such as: enlarger (PCSCOR1), competence (PCSCOR2) and personal/emotional oriented (PCSOR4).

In summary: people considering economic rewards in work as very important are those who are more "self-oriented" in their lives: they prefer general values as ambitious, social recognition, a sense of accomplishment, a comfortable life, an exciting life, logical, intellectual, self-controlled, imaginative, freedom, independent, mature love, pleasure, happiness, loving.

4.3.1.3 - GENERAL VALUES AND PCVTA3 - EXPRESSIVE CHARACTERISTICS

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .08, signif F, p < .0000, and three variables statistically significant - PCSCOR1, PCSCOR2 and PCSCOR5.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, we found a R2 = .07 (p < .001), according to the regression equation:

PCVTA3 = .12 PCSCOR1 - .22 PCSCOR2 - .10 PCSCOR5

This means that the importance of expressive characteristics of work (interesting work and good match job requirements - own skills) seems to be related with general values included in the following total scores: enlarger (PCSCOR1), competence (PCSCOR2) and delayed oriented (PCSCOR5).

In summary: people considering expressive characteristics of work as relatively more important are also those who are more "self-oriented", as is the case with those preferring economic rewards (in their lives they are both enlarger and competence oriented). But while the latter attribute more importance to an emotional field (mature love, pleasure, happiness and loving), those who prefer expressive characteristics in work attribute more importance to a "cognitive" field, translated in the total score delayed oriented: self-respect, true friendship, inner harmony and wisdom.

4.3.1.4 - GENERAL VALUES AND PCVTA4 - DEVELOPMENT/UTILITY

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .06, signif F, p < .0000, and three significant variables: PCSCOR2, PCSCOR4 and PCSCOR5.

The regression with only these variables produced a R2 = .06 (p < .001), according to the expression:

PCVTA4 = - .16 PCSCOR2 + .15 PCSCOR4 - .12 PCSCOR5

Thus, the importance of development/utility (serve society, to attain goals/results and learning new things) seems to be related with the importance given to general values connected with competence (PCSCOR2), social orientation (PCSCOR4) and delayed gratifications (PCSCOR5).

In summary: the relevance attributed to development/utility in work, analyzed from a cognitive-emotional dichotomy, seems dominated by general values mainly consisting of "cognitive" elements: logical, intellectual, self-controlled, imaginative, freedom, independent, equality, a world of peace, national security, self-respect, true friendship, inner harmony and wisdom.

4.3.1.5 - GENERAL VALUES AND PCVTA5 - COMFORT II (Pleasant work)

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .03, signif F, p < .0091, and two significant variables - PCSCOR1 and PCSCOR3.

From the multiple regression only with these two variables we obtained a R2=.03 (p <.01), according to the following expression:

PCVTA5 = -.12 PCSCOR1 + .12PCSCOR3

Thus, the importance attributed to convenient hours and variety seems to be related with general values included in total scores non-conflict oriented (PCSCOR1) and self-expansion (PCSCOR3).

In summary: although Comfort II is influenced by two total scores of general values that are related with Comfort I, PCSCOR1 - non-conflict oriented and PCSCOR3, this one has an opposite meaning: self-expansion people are those who prefer Comfort II. However, the low explained variance (.03) may put some limits on the consequences of the established relationships.

TABLE 38 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN GENERAL VALUES AND WORK RELATED VALUES

DEPENDENTS	R^2	SIGNIF. F P<0.05 P<0.01 P<0.001	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES									
			FCSCOR 1 ENLARGER (+) - vs - NON-CONFLICT (-)		FCSCOR 2 MORALITY (+) - vs - COMPETENCE (-)		FCSCOR 3 SELF-EXPRESSION (+) - vs - SELF-CONSTRICTION (-)		FCSCOR 4 SOCIAL ORIENTED (+) - vs - PERSONAL/EMOTIONAL(-)		FCSCOR 5 IMMEDIATE GRATIF.(+) - vs - DELAYED GRATIF. (-)	
			b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β
FCVTA1 COMFORT I (Environmental)	.17	.001	-.15		.27		-.24		.12			
FCVTA2 ECONOMIC REWARDS	.06	.001	.09		-.16				-.15			
FCVTA3 EXPRESSIVE CHARACT.	.07	.001	.12		-.22						-.10	
FCVTA4 UTILITY/DEVELOPMENT	.06	.001			-.16				.15		-.12	
FCVTA5 COMFORT II (Pleasant Work)	.03	.01	-.12				.12					

4.3.1.6 - CONCLUSION

In general, our hypothesis 8 is confirmed: there is a logical and intimate relationship between general values and work related values, as was also found by Stoetzel (1983). This conclusion confirms the relations foreseen by Vinson et al. (1977) and Verhallen et al (1989) between general values and domain specific values, already found in the field of consumer psychology.

All Rokeach values total scores appear at least twice in the regression equations of the five work related values. As foreseen by Rokeach (1973), it is not possible to identify a one-to-one correspondence between a general value, or total score, and a work related value, or total score. Work related values seem always determined by more than one general values total score. As we have seen, the latter in their turn form a kind of matrix of logical relationships conditioning the orientations of the work related values, although not to a large extent (with the exception of PCVTA1 - R2 = .17 - the explained variance of the total scores of work related values is always inferior to .10 and the slopes, or partial regression coefficients, are always inferior to .27).

PCSCOR3 and PCSCOR5, self-expansion -vs- self-constriction and immediate -vs- delayed oriented respectively, seem to have the least influence in the importance attributed to work related values, since they each appear only twice in the regression equations.

On the other hand, PCSCOR1 and PCSCOR2, enlarger -vs- non-conflict oriented and morality -vs- competence respectively, are both present, in four of the five regression equations of work related values total scores. They seem to be the general values that are most related with work values.

Listing the specific relations of general values with work related values which we have found in our study, we get the following:

People who prefer <u>enlarger values</u> tend to prefer:	Economic rewards Expressive characteristics
People who prefer <u>non-conflict values</u> prefer:	Comfort I Comfort II
People who prefer <u>morality values</u> prefer:	Comfort I
People who prefer <u>competence values</u> prefer:	Economic rewards Expressive characteristics Development/utility
People who prefer <u>self-expansion values</u> prefer:	Comfort II
People who prefer <u>self-constriction val.</u> prefer:	Comfort I
People who prefer <u>social oriented values</u> prefer:	Comfort I Development/utility
People who prefer <u>personal/emotional val.</u> prefer:	Economic rewards
people who prefer <u>delayed oriented</u> prefer:	Expressive characteristics Development/utility

In general, we can say that people who are more "other-oriented" (non-conflict and morality oriented) tend to give more importance to comfort in work, while "self-oriented" people (enlarger and competence oriented) tend to attribute more importance to expressive characteristics and economic rewards in work. In a dichotomy of cognition-emotion orientation, more cognitive oriented people (competence and delayed gratification oriented) tend to prefer expressive characteristics and development/utility of work.

4.3.2 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN GENERAL VALUES AND JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS

According to our hypothesis, we tried to analyze the possible effects of general values on the perception of job/organizational dimensions.

4.3.2.1 - WORK PERCEPTION

We did not find statistically significant relationships between general values and two of the dimensions of work perception: CLATRA (Role Clarity and Training Adequacy) and CFLOVE (Role Conflict and Role Overload).

Only the total score INTCH (Intrinsic Characteristics) seems to be influenced by general value systems: proceeding to the multiple regression with all general values total scores we found a $R2 = .03$, signif F, $p < .0271$, and two significant total score values - PCSCOR1 and PCSCOR3.

The multiple regression with only these two variables produced a $R2 = .02$ ($p < .01$), according to the equation:

$$\text{INTCH} = 53.24 + \underset{\beta\ (.10)}{1.32\ \text{PCSCOR1}} - \underset{(-.10)}{1.36\ \text{PCSCOR3}}$$

Thus, the perception of intrinsic characteristics of the job seems to be influenced by the importance attributed to values as enlarger (PCSCOR1) and self-constriction (PCSCOR3). It is possible that enlarger oriented people tend to perceive their job intrinsically richer, as an opportunity for self-achievement for getting an improved self-image, but, on the other hand, it is also possible that they are able to get work with more intrinsic characteristics. We can also admit that self-constriction oriented employees are less demanding regarding their jobs and consequently they perceive it with more intrinsic attributes.

4.3.2.2 - GROUP PERCEPTION

According to our data, the total scores of group perception do not seem influenced by general values.

4.3.2.3 - SUPERVISION PERCEPTION

Among the three dimensions for describing supervisor behaviour found only the total score SUPORT seems to have a relationship with general value systems.

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a $R2 = .04$, signif F, $p < .0020$, two significant variables, PCSCOR2 and PCSCOR3, and one variable significant at .053, PCSCOR5. Proceeding to the multiple regression with these variables we ascertained that PCSCOR5 was still not significant, with the two other total scores explaining .03 of the variance of the dependent variable ($p < .001$), according to the expression:

$$\text{SUPORT} = 81.81 + \underset{\beta\ (.14)}{3.21\ \text{PCSCOR2}} - \underset{(-.11)}{2.43\ \text{PCSCOR3}}$$

In consequence, we can say that employees who are more morality and self-constriction oriented seem to perceive their supervisors as more supportive. It is possible that self-constriction oriented employees are equally demanding towards their supervisors as those who are morality oriented, but it is also plausible that supervisors are more supportive for employees who prefer general values such as cheerful, forgiving, helpful, obedient, polite, self-controlled and responsible.

4.3.2.4 - REWARD SYSTEMS PERCEPTION

Among the three dimensions considered only internal equity of promotions is not affected by general value systems.

REWCONT - REWARDS CONTINGENCY

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = 04, signif F, $p < .0065$, one significant variable, PCSCOR3, and one variable, PCSCOR4, with a border line significance (sig. T, $p < .09$). Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables we saw that PCSCOR4 was still not significant, with PCSCOR3 explaining .02 of REWCONT variance ($p < .001$), according to the equation:

REWCONT = 21.64 - 1.20 PCSCOR3
β (- .15)

I.e., the perception of the relationship between performance and rewards seems only affected by general values related to self-constriction, which seem to improve the perception of this relationship. As hypothesized before, self-constriction oriented people are probably less demanding and/or they are more rewarded.

EXTEQ - EXTERNAL EQUITY

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .04, signif F, $p < .0050$, two significant variables, PCSCOR2 and PCSCOR3, and one variable with a border line significance (sig. T, $p < .08$), PCSCOR4.

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these variables, PCSCOR4 was still not significant, the two significant ones explaining .02 of the variance of EXTEQ ($p < .01$), according to the following regression equation:

EXTEQ = 9.07 + .36 PCSCOR2 - .40 PCSCOR3
β (.10) (- .12)

Thus, employees who prefer general values aggregated to morality and self-constriction tend to perceive more external equity in the rewards received from the organization where they work. They are probably less demanding.

4.3.2.5 - ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE PERCEPTION

Among the three dimensions considered in this topic, only ESTVER (Vertical Structure Functioning) shows a result not influenced by general values.

MEANCOO - COORDINATION SYSTEMS AND MEANS

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .04, signif F, $p < .0013$, and one significant variable PCSCOR3.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with this variable we found a R2 = .04 ($p < .001$), and the expression:

MEANCOO = 24.71 - 1.29 PCSCOR3
β (- .20)

Once more, only the total score PCSCOR3 seems to influence the perception of coordination systems and means, being more positive for the employees who give more importance to self-constriction values. For this we can hypothesize the same reasons as mentioned before.

ESTORG - ORGANIC STRUCTURE

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .07, signif F, $p < .0000$, one variable statistically significant, PCSCOR1, and two variables with a border line significance, PCSCOR3 (sig. T, $p < .08$) and PCSCOR4 (sig. T, $p < .09$).

As a result from the multiple regression only with these variables, in all the possible combinations, only PCSCOR1 was significant explaining .06 of ESTORG variance ($p < .001$), according to the equation:

ESTORG = 9.99 + .93 PCSCOR1
β (.23)

The organic structure perception of enterprises seems to increase for employees who prefer enlarger values. These employees tend to perceive the structure of the enterprise more positively, probably as a way of seeing opportunities for accomplishing their enlarger needs.

4.3.2.6 - PROCEDURES

The perception of formalization (FORMAL) and risk is not influenced by general value systems. Only the perception of adequate procedures (COMDEC) is related with general values.

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .07, signif F, p , .0000, and three significant variables - PCSCOR2, PCSCOR3 and PCSCOR5.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, we found a R2 = .07 ($p < .001$), according to the following equation:

COMDEC =64.16 + 1.54 PCSCOR2 - 3.89 PCSCOR3 + 1.59 PCSCOR5
β (.09) (- .23) (.10)

Thus, the perception of the planning, internal rules, communication and decision making seems to increase when the employees prefer general values related to morality, self-constriction and immediate gratifications. Probably, people with these general value orientations are less demanding in these fields.

4.3.2.7. - NORMS

Among the three dimensions considered in norms, only social events (importance) does not seem related to general value systems.

OPENMI - OPENMINDED

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .08 , signif F, $p < .0000$, and three variables statistically significant - PCSCOR2, PCSCOR3 and PCSCOR5.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, we found a R2 = .08 ($p < .001$), and the regression equation:

OPENMI = 24.01 + 1.24 PCSCOR2 - 1.53 PCSCOR3 + .76 PCSCOR5
β (.17) (- .21) (.10)

The perception of attitudes toward conflict and innovation inside the organization tends to be more positive for employees who consider general values connected with the total scores more important: morality, self-constriction and immediate gratifications. As hypothesized before, they are probably less demanding.

CONVE - CONVENTIONALISMS

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .07, signif F, p < .0000, three variables with statistical significance, PCSCOR2, PCSCOR4 and PCSCOR5, and one variable with border line significance (sig. T, p < .09), PCSCOR3.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, PCSCOR3 was still not significant, the other independent variables explaining .07 of CONVE variance (p < .001), according to the following expression:

CONVE =	8.59	+ .51 PCSCOR2	+ .24 PCSCOR4	+ .26 PCSCOR5
		β (.22)	(.10)	(.11)

Employees preferring general values related to morality, social orientation and immediate gratification tend to perceive more conventionalism in the enterprise.

4.3.2.8. ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTION

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .06, signif F, p < .0000, and three significant variables - PCSCOR1, PCSCOR2 and PCSCOR3.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, we found a R2 = .06 (p < .001) and the following equation:

PORG =	41.11	+ 1.00 PCSCOR1	+ .85 PCSCOR2	- 1.84 PCSCOR3
		β (.11)	(.09)	(- .20)

Consequently, the perception of the organization as a whole is more favorable for employees who consider general values aggregated to enlarger, morality and self-constriction total scores more important. Probably, morality and self-constriction oriented people are less demanding but those who are enlarger oriented may perceive a better organization as an opportunity for accomplishing these general values.

TABLE 39 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN GENERAL VALUES AND JOB/ORGANIZATION PERCEPTIONS

DEPENDENTS		R^2	SIGNIF. F P<0.05 P<0.01 P<0.001	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES: FCSCOR 1 ENLARGER (+) - vs - NON-CONFLICT (-)		FCSCOR 2 MORALITY (+) - vs - COMPETENCE (-)		FCSCOR 3 SELF-EXPRESSION (+) - vs - SELF-CONSTRICTION (-)		FCSCOR 4 SOCIAL ORIENTED (+) - vs - PERSONAL/EMOTIONAL (-)		FCSCOR 5 IMMEDIATE GRATIF. (+) - vs - DELAYED GRATIF. (-)	
				b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β
WORK PERCEP.	INTRINSIC CH.	.02	.01	1.32	.10			-1.35	-.10				
	ROLE CLARITY AND TRAINING		n.s.										
	ROLE CONFLICT AND OVERLOAD		n.s.										
GROUP PERCEP.	COHESIVE AND SUPORTIVE GR.		n.s.										
	PARTICIPAT.		n.s.										
SUPER-VISION	SUPPORTIVE	.03	.001			3.21	.14	-2.43	-.11				
	PRODUCTION O.		n.s.										
	PARTICIPATION		n.s.										
REWARDS PERCEP.	REW. CONTING.	.02	.001					-1.20	-.15				
	INT. EL. PROM.		n.s.										
	EXTERNAL EQ.	.02	.01			.36	.10	-.40	-.12				
ORGAN. STRUCT.	COORDINATION AND REWARD	.04	.001					-1.29	-.20				
	ORGANIC STRUCT.	.06	.001	.93	.23								
	POSITION STRUCT.		n.s.										
PROCE-DURES	MEDIATE PROCED.	.07	.001			1.54	.09	-3.89	-.23			1.59	.10
	FORMALIZATION		n.s.										
	RIGIDITY		n.s.										
NORMS	STANDARDS	.08	.001			1.24	.17	-1.53	-.21			.78	.10
	SOCIAL EVENTS		n.s.										
	CONVICTION.	.07	.001			.51	.22			.24	.10	.26	.11
PERCEPTION OF THE ORGANIZATION		.06	.001	1.00	.11	.85	.09	-1.84	-.20				

4.3.2.9 - CONCLUSION

In general, our hypothesis 9 is only partially confirmed: the organizational and work perceptions do not seem to be very much influenced by general value systems. In 21 organizational perception dimensions, eleven have no statistically significant relationship with the total scores of general values.

On the other hand, when there is a statistically significant relationship the explained variance of organizational perception total scores with general values is never superior to .09 and even the standardized partial regression coefficients are in general quite small.

Nevertheless, we can observe, as expected (James and Jones, 1989), that the influence of general values total scores tends to increase according to the level of generality and abstraction of the organizational dimensions. Thus, in relation to work perception, group perception, supervision perception and reward systems perception, when the general values produce a regression equation explaining some variance of these dimensions, the statistically significant explained variances are never superior to .03, while, in relation to organizational structure, procedures, norms and organizational perceptions as a whole the explained variances found are always between .04 and .08.

Thus, these broader dimensions, being more general and abstract, are less determined by "objective" situations in the context of evaluative perceptions (James and Jones, 1989) and more influenced by general values. On the other hand, in the context of descriptive perceptions, the perceptions of work characteristics, group functioning, supervision and rewards seem more determined by the specific situation and relatively less influenced by the general value systems of the employees. However, the perception of supportive behavior of the supervisor is to some extent related with self-constriction (β = -.11) and morality (β = .14) and rewards contingency is to some extent related to self-constriction (β = -.15).

If we study the overall influence of the total score values we can summarize the following findings.

TOTAL SCORE VALUES WITH <u>MODERATE</u> INFLUENCE

PCSCOR3 - SELF-EXPANSION (+) SELF-CONSTRICTION (-)

It is the total score that seems to have the strongest influence in the perception of organizational dimensions. In ten regression equations, it is present in eight, always with a negative slope. This means that employees preferring self-constriction general values perceive some organizational dimensions as more positive.

The dependent organizational dimensions are:

	Slopes (β):
INTCH - Intrinsic Characteristics	- .10
SUPPORT - Supportive Orientation	- .11
REWCONT - Rewards Contingency	- .15
EXTEQ - External Equity	- .12
MEANCOO - Coordination systems and Means	- .20
COMDEC - Adequate Procedures	- .23
OPENMI - Openminded	- .21
PORG - Perception of the Organization as a Whole	- .20

It is possible that in perceiving these dimensions as more positive, self-constriction oriented people (general values more important: obedient, polite, self-controlled, responsible and family security) are less demanding.

In a general way, these findings fit well with what Rokeach (1973) found with business executives: in comparison with scientists, writers and artists, these prefer family security, comfortable life, being capable, obedient and responsible, instead of being helpful, imaginative or loving. This kind of self-constriction value seems to fit in with the logic of the enterprises. Rokeach (1973) underlines that these values tend to be more related with attitudes than with behaviors.

PCSCOR2 - MORALITY (+) COMPETENCE (-)

A second total score appears significant, six times in the ten regression equations: PCSCOR2 - MORALITY. Also here, employees preferring morality values tend to perceive organizational dimensions, where this total score is relevant, in a more positive way.

Dependent organizational dimensions:

	Slopes (β):
SUPPORT - Supportive Orientation	.14
EXTEQ - External Equity	.10
COMDEC - Adequate Procedures	.09
OPENMI - Openminded	.17
CONVE - Conventionality	.22
PORG - Perception of the Organization as a Whole	.09

It is possible that people, who consider morality values (clean, cheerful, forgiving, helpful, and salvation) more important than competence ones, tend to be less critical in relation to those organizational dimensions.

TOTAL SCORE VALUES WITH <u>WEAK</u> INFLUENCE

PCSCOR1 - ENLARGER (+) NON-CONFLICT ORIENTED (-)

This general values total score only appears to influence the following organizational dimensions, in all cases with a positive slope:

	Slopes (β):
INTCH - Intrinsic Characteristics	.10
ESTORG - Organic Structure	.23
PORG - Perception of the Organization as a Whole	.11

The employees preferring enlarger values (ambitious, social recognition, a sense of accomplishment, a comfortable life and an exciting life) tend to perceive these organizational dimensions as more positive.

As said before, it is possible that enlarger oriented people tend to value their work, organizational structure and enterprise image as a way to achieve their values and improve their self-image: "- The work I do is interesting... My enterprise is well organized and it is a good one...", even if the person can criticize, as others do, payment and the way others work (groups, supervisors, communication and decision making processes).

PCSCOR5 - IMMEDIATE (+) DELAYED GRATIFICATION ORIENTED (-)

This aggregation of general values only appears to influence the following organizational dimensions, in all cases with a positive slope:

	Slopes (β):
COMDEC - Adequate Procedures	.10
OPENMI - Openminded	.10
CONVE - Conventionality	.10

Immediate gratification oriented individuals tend to perceive the enterprise with more adequate procedures, more openminded and conventional. This relationship can be a result of the lower level of education of immediate oriented people, apart from the fact that education is one of the significant antecedents of the three organizational dimensions in question.

TOTAL SCORE WITH VERY WEAK INFLUENCE

PCSCOR4 - SOCIAL ORIENTED (+) PERSONAL/EMOTIONAL ORIENTED (-)

This general values total score only seems to influence the organizational dimension convencionalism. Social oriented employees perceive more conventionalism ($\beta = .10$) inside the organization.

4.3.3 - WORK RELATED VALUES AND JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS

As done with general values, we also analyzed the possible relationships that work related values can have with the perception of job/organizational dimensions.

4.3.3.1 - WORK PERCEPTION

As it happened with general values, we did not find significant relationships between work related values and two of the dimensions of work perception: Clatra - role clarity and training adequacy and cflove - role conflict and overload.

Only the total score Intch - intrinsic characteristics of the work seems to be related with work related values: proceeding to the multiple regression with all total scores of work related values we got a R2 = .03, signif F, $p < .0294$, and one significant work values total score - PCVTA5.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with this variable we found a R2 = .01 ($p < .05$), according to the expression:

$$\text{INTCH} = 53.37 - 1.44\ \text{PCVTA5}$$
$$\beta\ (-.11)$$

Thus, the perception of intrinsic characteristics seems to be negatively influenced by PCVTA5 - COMFORT II (pleasant work). In spite of the little explained variance, it seems that employees considering COMFORT II (variety, convenient hours and learning new things) as important tend to perceive their work as less rich intrinsically, or, as they prefer this kind of work related value, the tasks given to them are less intrinsically rich, or, yet, in the framework of a mutual causal model, people who perceive their work as intrinsically poor will tend to value pleasant work.

This relationship is in line with the data found by Kohn and Schooler (1983) between intrinsic characteristics and comfort. But we did not find any relationship between intrinsic characteristics and the importance attributed to expressive characteristics and economic rewards, as found by MOW (1987).

4.3.3.2 - GROUP PERCEPTION

As with general values, the total scores of group perception do not seem influenced by work related values, which we would expect if we consider that the relationships between group processes and values have been mainly studied on the basis of value congruence among group members (e.g. Williams, 1979).

4.3.3.3 - SUPERVISION PERCEPTION

Among the dimensions of supervision perception only the total SUPORT seems related with work related values.

The multiple regression of support with all variables produced a R2 = .03, signif F, $p < .0239$, and two significant variables: PCVTA1 AND PCVTA2.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these two variables, we found a R2 = .03 ($p < .01$), according to the expression:

SUPORT = 81.99	+ 2.36 PCVTA1	- 2.90 PCVTA2
	β (.11)	(- .13)

The support function of supervision tends to be more positively perceived by the employees that prefer Comfort I work related values (physical working conditions, job security and interpersonal relationships) and negativelly perceived by those preferring economic rewards (pay and promotion).

The relationship between Comfort I (Pcvta1) and support can be interpreted in two ways: it is possible that people considering interpersonal relations, job security and working conditions as important tend to perceive their supervisors as more supportive (which is reinforced by the relationship between Comfort I and non-conflict, morality and self-constriction oriented people - they will be more "other-oriented" and less demanding toward their supervisors), but it is also acceptable that someone who perceives his supervisor as supportive tends to prefer interpersonal relationships progressively.

The same kind of mutual relationship can be conceived between support and economic rewards (Pcvta2):

- It is possible that employees concerned with pay and promotion tend to perceive their supervisors as less supportive, which seems plausible since economic rewards are more important for enlarger and competence oriented employees who tend to be more demanding in order to reinforce their Self, (we also saw that morality oriented people tend to perceive their supervisor in a more positive way), expecting more pay (for instance, as a result of job appraisal managed by supervisors) and more promotions than they get, which can bring them to disliking their supervisors.
- But it is also possible that the perception of the supportive function of supervision influences the importance attributed to economic rewards: those perceiving their supervisor as more supportive do not value economic rewards so much, because they get them from their supervisor or because they receive other compensating rewards.

4.3.3.4 - REWARD SYSTEMS PERCEPTION

In a similar way as with general values, only the dimension internal equity of promotions does not seem affected by work related values.

REWCONT - REWARDS CONTINGENCY

Using multiple regression with all work related values total scores, we found a R2 = .03, signif F, $p < .0165$, and two significant variables: PCVTA1 AND PCVT2.

The multiple regression only with these two variables produced a R2 = .03 ($p < .01$), according to the following equation:

REWCONT =	21.70	+ .73 PCVTA1	- 1.11 PCVTA2
		β (.09)	(- .14)

The relationship between performance and rewards seems to be positively related with the importance attributed to Pcvta1 - Comfort I (physical working conditions, job security and interpersonal relationships) and negatively related with the importance of Pcvta2 - economic rewards (pay and promotion).

It is possible that the positive relation between rewards contingency and Comfort I results from the less demanding character of Comfort I oriented people, as previously interpreted. But it is also possible to admit that if the employee perceives an adequate relation between performance and rewards, he can prefer other features of the work.

In a certain way, this last interpretation is partially confirmed by the relation between this reward dimension and the importance attributed to economic rewards (Pcvta2). In fact, it is possible to conceive that if for someone pay and promotion is very important he will tend to underevaluate the relation between his performance and the rewards received since these needs are more relevant than for other people. It is also possible to admit that once someone perceives an adequate reward contingency, and his basic needs are satisfied, he will tend to underestimate economic rewards and he will be more interested in other features of his work.

EXTEQ - EXTERNAL EQUITY

The multiple regression of this dimension with all work related values total scores produced a $R2 = .06$, signif F, $p < .0001$, two significant variables, PCVTA1 and PCVTA2, and one almost significant variable (sig. T, $p < .08$), PCVTA5.

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these variables, PCVTA5 was still not significant, the other two variables yielding a $R2 = .05$ ($p < .001$), according to the following regression equation:

$$\text{EXTEQ} = 9.09 + \underset{\beta\,(.09)}{.32\ \text{PCVTA1}} - \underset{(-.21)}{.70\ \text{PCVTA2}}$$

I.e., the perception of external equity is related positively with the importance of Pcvta1 - Comfort I and it is negatively related with Pcvta2 - economic rewards.

It seems that the interpretations done on the relationships between rewards contingency and work related values can be generalized to external equity.

4.3.3.5 - ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE PERCEPTION

Among the three dimensions considered on this level, and as it happened with general values, only the total score ESTVER (Vertical Structure Functioning) is not related with work related values.

MEANCOO - COORDINATION SYSTEMS AND MEANS

The multiple regression with all work related values total scores, produced a $R2 = .05$, signif F, $p < .0008$, one significant variable PCVTA1 and two variables, PCVTA2 and PCVTA5, with a border line significance, .09 and .07 respectively.

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these three variables, in all possible combinations, we ascertained that only PCVTA1 was really significant, explaining .03 of the variance of the dependent variable ($p < .001$), according to the expression:

$$\text{MEANCOO} = 24.71 + \underset{\beta\,(.18)}{1.18\ \text{PCVTA1}}$$

Only PCVTA1 - COMFORT I (working physical conditions, job security and interpersonal relationships) seems to influence the perception of the coordination systems and means. The most plausible interpretation seems related with the less demanding character of comfort oriented employees cited previously. For them everything is more adequate: human composition, cooperation and technologies. An explanation based on the importance of interpersonal relations resulting in a better cooperation with others does not explain, for instance, why these employees do not feel the need for new technologies.

ESTORG - ORGANIC STRUCTURE

Using multiple regression with all variables, we found a R2 = .04, signif F, $p < .0023$, two significant variables, PCVTA2 and PCVTA5, and one variable, PCVTA3, with a border line significance (.06).

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these variables, PCVTA3 was still not significant and the two significant ones produced a R2 = .03 ($p < .01$), with the following regression equation:

ESTORG = 10.02 - .55 PCVTA2 - .40 PCVTA5
β (- .14) (- .10)

I.e., the more importance is attributed to economic rewards (Pcvta2) and to Comfort II (pcvta5 - pleasant work) the more critical the employees are toward the organic structure of the organization. This criticism can have different sources: while with economic oriented people the criticism seems a result of a bigger concern with competence and personal values but also with enlarger values related with economic rewards orientation and influencing organic structure perception positively, with Comfort II (pleasant work) oriented people it seems a result of attributing more importance to self-expansion and non-conflict orientations (not-enlarger oriented people).

4.3.3.6 - PROCEDURES

Similarly to what happened with general values, the perceptions of formalization (rigid application of rules) and risk do not seem influenced by work related values. Only the perception of adequate procedures (Comdec) appears related to work related values.

Using multiple regression analysis of COMDEC with all work related values total scores, we found a R2 = .05, signif F, $p < .0008$, and three significant variables: PCVTA1, PCVTA2 and PCVTA5.

The multiple regression only with these three independent variables produced a R2 = .04 ($p < .001$), according to the equation:

COMDEC =64.25 + 2.26 PCVTA1 - 1.66 PCVTA2 - 1.92 PCVTA5
β (.13) (- .10) (- .11)

Thus, the perception of the planning, the evaluation of rules, communication and decision making, seems to improve when employees prefer Comfort I - environmental (Pcvta1) and are not economic rewards (Pcvta2) and Comfort II - pleasant work (Pcvta5) oriented. Comfort I oriented people seem to be less demanding and the possible interpretation of economic rewards and Comfort II oriented people was given in the previous point.

4.3.3.7 - NORMS

Among the three dimensions found on this subject, only openminded (Openmi) appears related with work related values.

OPENMI - OPENMINDED

Using multiple regression with all work related values total scores, we found a R2 = .05, signif F, p < .0005, and two significant variables: PCVTA1 and PCVTA2.

The multiple regression with these two variables produced a R2 = 04 (p < .001), according to the following expression:

OPENMI = 24.02	+ 1.26 PCVTA1	- .75 PCVTA2
	β (.17)	(- .10)

The perception of attitudes toward conflict and innovation tends to improve when employees give more importance to Comfort I and less importance to economic rewards.

4.3.3.8 - ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTION

The multiple regression with all total scores of work related values produced a R2 = .04, signif F, p < .0012, and three significant variables: PCVTA1, PCVTA2 and PCVTA5.

Using only these three variables we got a R2 = .04 (p < .001), according to the following regression equation:

PORG =	41.17	+ .91 PCVTA1	- 1.27 PCVTA2	- .99 PCVTA5
		β (.10)	(- .14)	(- .11)

I.e., the perception of the enterprise as a whole is more favorable when employees prefer Comfort I (Pcvta1) and less positive when they prefer economic rewards and Comfort II. The possible interpretations of these influences were given before.

TABLE 40 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN WORK RELATED VALUES AND JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS

DEPENDENTS		R^2	SIGNIF. F P<0.05 P<0.01 P<0.001	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES: PCVTA 1 COMFORT I (Environmental)		PCVTA 2 ECONOMIC REWARDS		PCVTA 3 EXPRESSIVE CHARACTERISTICS		PCVTA 4 UTILITY DEVELOPMENT		PCVTA 5 COMFORT II (Pleasant Work)	
				b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β
WORK PERCEP.	INTRINSIC CH.	.01	.05									-1.44	-.11
	ROLE CLARITY AND TRAINING		n.s.										
	ROLE CONFLICT AND OVERLOAD		n.s.										
GROUP PERCEP.	COHESIVE AND SPECIAL GR.		n.s.										
	FRAGMENTAT.		n.s.										
SUPER-VISION	SUPPORTIVE	.03	.01	2.36	.11	-2.90	-.13						
	PRODUCTION O.		n.s.										
	PARTICIPATION		n.s.										
REWARDS PERCEP.	REN. CONTING.	.03	.01	.73	.09	-1.11	-.14						
	INT. EN. PROM.		n.s.										
	EXTERNAL EN.	.05	.001	.32	.09	-.70	-.21						
ORGAN. STRUCT.	COORDINATION AND MEANS	.03	.001	1.18	.18								
	ORGANIC STRUCT.	.03	.01			-.55	-.14					-.40	-.10
	VERTICAL STRUCT.		n.s.										
PROCE-DURES	INTERMEDIATE PROCED.	.04	.001	2.26	.13	-1.66	-.10					-1.91	-.11
	FORMALIZATION		n.s.										
	RISK		n.s.										
NORMS	OPTIMIZED	.04	.001	1.26	.17	-.75	-.10						
	SOCIAL EVENTS		n.s.										
	CONVENTION.		n.s.										
PERCEPTION OF THE ORGANIZATION		.04	.001	.91	.10	-1.28	-.14					-.99	-.11

4.3.3.9 - CONCLUSION

In general, our hypothesis 11 is very partially confirmed: work related values have a smaller influence on organization perceptions than general values. Nevertheless, this fact can be a consequence of the ranking/rating nature of the measure used. The results, when submitted to a Principal Component Analysis, did not show a clear distribution in the plotting, as described in the Chapter on Methodology.

In twenty one job and organizational dimensions, the work related values total scores only appear statistically related with nine dimensions, while the general values are related with ten. Nevertheless, all these nine job and organizational perception dimensions are influenced by general values and by work related values at the same time. This means that twelve job/organizational perceptions total scores found in our study are not influenced by this kind of value.

We should also underline that the explained variance of organizational dimensions with work related values is never superior to .05. Nevertheless, as it happened with general values its explanatory capacity shows a slight tendency to improve with the degree of generality of organizational dimensions: the explained variance is always superior or equal to .03 in relation to organizational structure, procedures, norms and perception of the enterprise as a whole.

In comparison with general values, work related values seem to predict the perceptions of reward systems better, perhaps as a result of more similar content or by reciprocal influence.

Nevertheless, the near absence of relationship with the job characteristics perception is surprising: in opposition to what was found by Mortimer and Lorence (1976), Kohn and Schooler (1983) and MOW (1987), we did not find any relationship between this work dimension and economic and expressive work related values. The fact that the work related value autonomy does not appear clearly included in any of the five dimensions found in work related values is probably the reason why we did not find that relationship. Work autonomy perception is, generally, positively related to the importance of expressive characteristics and, negatively to economic rewards values. In Portugal, enlarger oriented (Pcscor1) people perceive more intrinsic/expressive characteristics and prefer these characteristics but they also tend to be economic oriented.

As with general values, there is no relation between work values and group perception.

Surprisingly, two of the total scores of work related values never appear related to the perceptions of any organizational dimension, namely with work perceptions, they are: PCVTA3 - expressive characteristics and PCVTA4 - utility/development.

To prefer comfort I work values (physical working conditions, job security and interpersonal relations) has, in our study, always a positive effect on the perception of the following organizational dimensions: supervisor supportive orientation, rewards contingency, external equity, coordination systems and means, adequate procedures, openminded and perception of the organization as a whole, probably by their less demanding character. This tends to be confirmed if we consider that this work related values total score is related with non-conflict, morality, self-constriction and social orientation general values and all these organizational perceptions are also related with self-constriction and most of them with morality general values.

The preference for economic rewards (pcvta2) and comfort II (Pcvta5) work values are always related to a more negative perception of the following organizational dimensions:

- ECONOMIC REWARDS

Supervisor supportive orientation, rewards contingency, external equity, organic structure, adequate procedures, openminded and perception of the organization as a whole.

- COMFORT II

Intrinsic characteristics, organic structure, and perception of the organization as a whole.

The convergence between the total scores of comfort II work related values and non- conflict general values is complete: both influence the same three organizational dimensions - Intrinsic characteristics of job, organic structure and organizational perception. comfort II (pleasant work) is related with non-conflict oriented, as we saw when we analyzed the relationships between general values and work related values, and people preferring this kind of value tend to dislike these "hardware" dimensions (space where all the other work and organizational processes have to move): "-The work is not so interesting... The organization is not so well conceived... The organization is not so efficient...". Their perception is the opposite of enlarger oriented people.

By criticizing these three dimensions, comfort II oriented people are not criticizing any one in particular as is the case with the majority of organizational dimensions: Adequate procedures, group functioning, openminded, etc., which processes generally take place through a person acting as intermediary. These three dimensions are very often seen in the organization as a responsibility of the organizational department or of the top managers in general, whereas direct supervisors or colleagues are not seen as directly responsible. Being comfort II oriented allows one to be critical and keep good relationships with those persons that are near (Note: as we saw comfort II is related with non-conflict and self-expansion general values).

The criticism of economic rewards oriented employees, as seen before, seems to have different motivations. Apart from the fact that economic rewards as work related values are very much related with reward systems perceptions, it seems that their criticisms result from their "self-orientation", i.e., as we saw before, from their preference for competence and personal general values. Economic rewards orientation is also influenced by enlarger general values, but more enlarger oriented people tend to perceive the organization as more positive (organic structure and perception of the organization as a whole).

4.4 - EFFECTS OF VALUES AND ORGANIZATION PERCEPTION ON SATISFACTION/ INVOLVEMENT/COMMITMENT/DECLARED EXTRA HOURS AFTER NORMAL SCHEDULE

4.4.1 - EFFECTS OF GENERAL VALUES

4.4.1.1 - ON SATISFACTION

Using multiple regression with all total scores general values we found a $R2 = .07$, signif F, $p < .0000$, and three variables statistically significant, PCSCOR2, PCSCOR3 and PCSCOR4.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these 3 variables, we found a $R2 = .07$ ($p < .001$), according to the following equation:

SATIS =	14.76	+ .73 PCSCOR2	- .66 PCSCOR3	+ .53 PCSCOR4
		β (.17)	(- .15)	(.12)

I.e., employees preferring values included in morality (PCSCOR2), as in Stoetzel (1983), self-constriction (PCSCOR3) and social orientation (PCSCOR4) show higher levels of job satisfaction than those oriented towards general values like competence, self-expansion and personal-emotional oriented, which can be interpreted as a result of the more demanding character of these general values.

Non-conflict oriented -vs- enlarger and immediate gratification -vs- delayed oriented values do not influence the degree of declared satisfaction.

4.4.1.2 - ON JOB INVOLVEMENT

Using multiple regression with all total scores of general values, we found a R2 = .14, signif F, p < .0000, and the same three variables statistically significant as for job satisfaction.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these 3 variables, we found a R2 = .14, (p < .001), according to the regression equation:

INV =	13.12	+ .74 PCSCOR2	- .56 PCSCOR3	+ .96 PCSCOR4
		β (.20)	(- .15)	(.26)

Job involvement and job satisfaction seem to be influenced by the same general values total scores. Nevertheless, their explanatory capacity of the variance of job involvement is much larger (R2 = .13 versus R2 = .07).

4.4.1.3 - ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .09, signif F, p < .0000, and four significant variables, PCSCOR1, PCSCOR2, PCSCOR3 and PCSCOR4.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, we found a R2 = .09, (p < .001), according to the following equation:

COMMI =	14.98	+ .34 PCSCOR1	+ .38 PCSCOR2	- .59 PCSCOR3
		β (.11)	(.12)	(- .19)
		+ .50PCSCOR4		
		β (.16)		

Consequently, organizational commitment seems to be stronger for employees preferring general values included in the factors enlarger (PCSCOR1), morality (PCSCOR2), self-constriction (PCSCOR3) and social orientation (PCSCOR4). Thus, organizational commitment is influenced by the same three general values total scores which influence job satisfaction and job involvement, but is also related with enlarger values. As seen before, enlarger values induce more positive perceptions of the job, organic structure and of the organization as a whole, so that, in a cognitive consistency perspective, we could also expect a positive relationship with organizational commitment.

4.4.1.4 - ON DECLARED EXTRA HOURS AFTER NORMAL SCHEDULE

Using multiple regression with all total scores general values we found a R2 = .03, signif F, p < .0161, and one significant variable, PCSCOR1.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, we found a R2 = .03, (p < .001), according to the following equation:

HT13R =	.33	+ .10 PCSCOR1
		β (.16)

The declared number of extra hours beyond the normal schedule is only influenced by general values included in the PCSCOR1 - enlarger. Employees preferring this kind of general value tend to "give" more extra time to the enterprise, probably as a way of accomplishing general values like ambitious, sense of accomplishment and social recognition.
This confirms Levy-Leboyer's (1986) view that achievement, success and self-accomplishment are powerful values in motivation and it is in line with what Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) call the Achievement Domain (ambitious and social recognition).

Comparing Japanese with American managers, Howards et al. (1983) also found that Japanese place more value on sense of accomplishment, which was hypothesized to be related with Japanese productivity. But in both cultures, career level attained in 20 years was correlated with "enlarging" values, such as ambitious, sense of accomplishment, social recognition and an exciting life (also found by England, 1978).

TABLE 41 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN GENERAL VALUES AND INDIVIDUAL OUTPUTS

DEPENDENTS	R^2	SIGNIF. F P<0.05 P<0.01 P<0.001	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES									
			FCSCOR 1 ENLARGER (+) - vs - NON-CONFLICT (-)		FCSCOR 2 MORALITY (+) - vs - COMPETENCE (-)		FCSCOR 3 SELF-EXPRESSION (+) - vs - SELF-CONSTRICTION (-)		FCSCOR 4 SOCIAL ORIENTED (+) - vs - PERSONAL/EMOTIONAL (-)		FCSCOR 5 IMMEDIATE GRATIF. (+) - vs - DELAYED GRATIF. (-)	
			b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β
JOB SATISFACTION	.07	.001			.73	.17	-.66	-.15	.53	.12		
JOB INVOL.	.13	.001			.74	.20	-.56	-.15	.96	.26		
ORGANIZ.COMMITM.	.09	.001	.34	.11	.38	.12	-.59	-.19	.50	.16		
EXTRA-TIME	.03	.001	.10	.16								

4.4.1.5 - CONCLUSION

In general, our hypothesis 10 is confirmed: general values total scores show a certain relationship with individual outputs. As foreseen theoretically, they have a stronger relationship with the affective outputs (R2 >.07 and <.13), than with the declared behavioral output (R2 = .03).

The general values total scores morality, self-constriction and social orientation have a systematic effect on the three affective reactions considered. Preference for this kind of value induces higher levels of job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment. Their impact is stronger on job involvement (R2 = .13).

Enlarger values also influence organizational commitment positively. They are the only kind of general values related with extra time in work.

Immediate gratification -vs- delayed orientation total score is not related with the individual outputs considered.

4.4.2 - EFFECTS OF WORK RELATED VALUES

4.4.2.1 - ON SATISFACTION

Using multiple regression with all total scores work related values, we found a R2 = .06, signif F, p < .0001, one significant variable, PCVTA1, and two variables with border line significance (.07 and .09), PCVTA2 and PCVTA4.

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these variables, in all possible conbinations, we found that only PCVTA1 was significant, explaining .04 of the variance of job satisfaction (p < .001), according to the following regression equation:

$$\text{SATIS} = 14.76 + \underset{\beta\ (.20)}{.89\ \text{PCVTA1}}$$

Employees giving more importance to Comfort I (interpersonal relationships, job security and physical working conditions) tend to show higher levels of job satisfaction. Also Stoetzel (1983) found a relationship between moral in work and importance given to interpersonal features. Thus, it is possible that employees valuing this kind of contextual work related values are easier satisfied than those more centered on expressive/intrinsic characteristics, economic rewards or development values, but, given the character of the enterprises where we collected data, it is also possible that they are better able to satisfy Comfort I than the other work related values mentioned.

4.4.2.2 - ON JOB INVOLVEMENT

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .07 (p < .001), where all total scores of work related values are significant:

$$\text{INV} = 13.10 + \underset{\beta\ (.12)}{.44\ \text{PCVTA1}} - \underset{(-.12)}{.43\ \text{PCVTA2}} - \underset{(.11)}{.39\ \text{PCVTA3}} + \underset{(.15)}{.53\ \text{PCVTA4}} - \underset{\beta\ (-.11)}{.41\ \text{PCVTA5}}$$

Thus, job involvement is related with a valuing of Comfort I (PCVTA1), development/utility (PCVTA4) and an undervaluing of the work related values included in economic rewards (PCVTA2), expressive characteristics (PCVTA3) and Comfort II (PCVTA5).

It seems consistent that he who prefers development/utility - PCVTA4 (serve society, to attain goals/results and learning new things) tends to be more job involved.

But the positive relationship with Comfort I - PCVTA1 (physical conditions, job security and interpersonal relationships) seems less clear: Can, under certain circumstances, physical conditions and job security induce more job involvement? Or is this relationship mainly a result of the impact of the importance attributed to interpersonal relationships? This last hypothesis seems plausible because, as we will see, a positive perception of cohesiveness and openminded group has also a positive effect on job involvement.

The negative relationship between job involvement and economic rewards - PCVTA2 can probably result from the following statement: if I am more concerned with pay and promotion, I am more extrinsically oriented than concerned with the job itself. The same thinking can be applied to Comfort II - PCVTA5.

The negative relationship with expressive characteristics seems more difficult to interpret: previous researches (Mortimer and Lorence, 1976, Kohn and Schooler, 1983 and MOW, 1987) found a positive relation between the importance of expressive characteristics and autonomy. Similarly we could expect a relation with intrinsic characteristics, which we did not find (see point 4.3). Given the positive relationship between the intrinsic characteristics perception and job involvement, we would expect the same kind of relationship between job involvement and importance of expressive characteristics but it is the opposite which we find. Thus, at least in these two enterprises, the less importance is attributed to "interesting work" and "good match skills/job requirements", the more employees are involved in the job. We also saw that only enlarger oriented employees perceive more intrinsic characteristics and, simultaneously, give more importance to expressive characteristics; for the rest of the employees this is not found, and they become more involved by other values and job/organizational perceptions than by the importance attributed to expressive characteristics.

4.4.2.3 - ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a $R2 = .08$, signif F, $p < .0000$, and three significant variables - PCSCOR2, PCSCOR4 and PCSCOR5.

Proceeding to the multiple regression with these variables, we found a $R2 = .07$ ($p < .001$), according to the following regression equation:

COMMI =	14.98	- .52 PCVTA2	+ .56 PCVTA4	- .33 PCVTA5
		β (- .17)	(.18)	(- .10)

I.e., the organizational commitment is positively related with the work related values included in the total scores development/utility (PCVTA4) and negatively with those included in economic rewards (PCVTA2) and Comfort II (PCVTA5). Previously, we saw that the importance attributed to economic rewards and Comfort II has a negative impact on the perception of the organization as a whole, so these negative effects on organizational commitment seem logically consistent.

4.4.2.4. ON DECLARED EXTRA HOURS AFTER NORMAL SCHEDULE

Using multiple regression with all total scores work related values we found a $R2 = .05$, signif F, $p < .0003$, two significant variables, PCVTA1 and PCVTA4, and one variable, PCVTA2, with a border line significance.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, PCVTA2 was still not significant, the first two explaining .04 of the variance of HT13R, which is significant to $p < .001$, according the equation:

$$HT13R = .33 \quad \underset{\beta\ (-.15)}{-.09\ PCVTA1} \quad \underset{(.13)}{+.08\ PCVTA4}$$

Thus, employees valuing work related values like development/utility - PCVTA4 (serve society, to attain goals/results and learning new things) and undervaluing the importance of Comfort I - PCVTA1 show a logical tendency to work more time beyond normal schedule.
Surprisingly, the total scores PCVTA5 - Comfort II, including convenient hours, and PCVTA3 - expressive characteristics have no relationship with extra - time (HT13R).

TABLE 42 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN WORK RELATED VALUES AND INDIVIDUAL OUTPUTS

DEPENDENTS	R^2	SIGNIF. F P<0.05 P<0.01 P<0.001	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES									
			PCVTA 1 COMFORT I (Environmental)		PCVTA 2 ECONOMIC REWARDS		PCVTA 3 EXPRESSIVE CHARACTERISTICS		PCVTA 4 UTILITY DEVELOPMENT		PCVTA 5 COMFORT II (Pleasant Work)	
			b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β
JOB SATISFACTION	.04	.001	.69	.20								
JOB INVOL.	.07	.001	.44	.12	-.43	-.12	-.39	-.11	.53	.15	-.41	-.11
ORGANIZ.COMMITM.	.07	.001			-.52	-.17			.56	.18	-.33	-.10
EXTRA-TIME	.04	.001	-.09	-.15					.06	.13		

4.4.2.5 - CONCLUSIONS

In general, our hypothesis 12 is partially confirmed: Work related values are related with individual outputs but not to a very large extent: R2 <.07.

The work related values included in development/utility - PCVTA4 and in Comfort I are the most related with the individual outputs considered:
Development/utility total scores have positive effects on job involvement, organizational commitment and extra time in work.
Comfort I has positive effects on job satisfaction and job involvement, possibly resulting from the conditions offered by both enterprises, and a negative relationship with extra time in work.
Economic rewards and Comfort II work related values have negative relationships with job involvement and organizational commitment.

Finally, and surprisingly, the importance of expressive characteristics is only related negatively with job involvement.

Besides these conclusions, we can hypothesize that the importance of development/utility is related with performance/action, while Comfort I is mainly related with an affective state of well-being.

Our hypothesis 13 is invalidated: in this study work related values are less related (R2 > .04 and <.07) with individual outputs than general values (R2 > .03 and < .14). As mentioned before, this result is probably a consequence of the scale used.

4.4.3 - EFFECTS OF JOB/ORGANIZATION PERCEPTION

4.4.3.1 - ON SATISFACTION

Using multiple regression with all organizational perception total scores we found a R2 = .41, signif F, p < .0000, four significant variables, INTCH, COHEOP, EXTEQ and MEANCOO, and two variables, ESTORG and OPENMI, with a border line significance.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, we found a R2 = .38 (p < 001), according to the following equation:

SATIS =	-.73	+ .13 INTCH	+ .09 COHEOP	+ .17 EXTEQ
		β (.38)	(.20)	(.13)

+ .11 MEANCOO	- .09 ESTORG	+ .06 OPENMI
β (.16)	(- .08)	(.10)

Together, these independent variables are able to explain quite a large part of the variance of job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction levels tend to increase with more positive perceptions mainly of job intrinsic characteristics (Beta = .38) and cohesive and openminded group (Beta = .20), but also with external equity, coordination systems and means and openminded norms. There is a slight negative relationship with organic structure perception.

4.4.3.2 - ON JOB INVOLVEMENT

Using multiple regression with all organizational perception total scores, we found a R2 = .28, signif F, p < .0000, and four significant variables - INTCH, COHEOP, ESTORG and FORMAL.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, we found a R2 = .22, (p < .001), according to the following equation:

INV = 2.11 + .09 INTCH + .08 COHEOP + .19 FORMAL
β (.33) (.20) (.16)

Thus, job involvement levels are influenced by the positive perceptions of job intrinsic characteristics, cohesive and openminded group and formalization (rigid application of rules).

4.4.3.3 - ON ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

Using multiple regression with all organizational perception total scores, we found a R2 = .37, signif F, p < .0000, five significant variables, INTCH, SUPORT, INEQPRO, CONVE and PORG, and two variables with a border line significance (.08 e .09), FRAGM and CLATRA.

Proceeding to the multiple regression with only these variables, which all are significant, we found a R2 = .35, (p < .001), according to the regression equation:

COMMI = 2.27 + .04 INTCH + .05 CLATRA + .06 FRAGM + .02 SUPORT
β (.18) (.09) (.10) (.15)

+ .08 INEPRO + .16 CONVE + .11 PORG
β (.11) (.12) (.34)

As could be expected, the strongest relationship with organizational commitment is established by the perception of the organization as a whole (Beta = .34).
Job intrinsic characteristics has again quite an influence (Beta = .18), followed by supportive orientation of supervisor (Beta = .15). This last relationship tends to confirm Schein's (1986) model about the role of leadership on the development of corporate cultures.
Other variables with positive relationships with organizational commitment are: role clarity and training adequacy, internal equity of promotions and conventionalism.
The relationship between perceived fragmentation of the group and organizational commitment seems more logical if we postulate a causal relation from organizational commitment to the perception of fragmentation.

4.4.3.4 - ON DECLARED EXTRA HOURS AFTER NORMAL SCHEDULE

Using multiple regression with all variables we found a R2 = .18, signif F, p < .0000, five significant variables, INTCH, CLATRA, SUPORT, INEQPRO AND EXTEQ, and one variable with a border line significance (.06), PORG.

Proceeding to the multiple regression only with these variables, we verified that PORG was no more significant, the remaining 5 variables explaining .15 of HT13R variance (p < .001), according to the following regression equation:

HT13R = .13 + .01 INTCH - .01 CLATRA -.003 SUPORT + .02 INEQPRO - .03 EXTEQ
β (.32) (- .10) (- .11) (.14) (- .15)

Thus, there is a tendency to stay extra time in the enterprise when the employee perceives more job intrinsic characteristics and more internal equity of promotions.
The interpretation of the relation between extra hours and external equity seems more logical in the sense that working more can lead to a certain external inequity, considering the extra effort done inside the enterprise.
The negative relationship with supportive orientation of the supervisors seems difficult to interpret: "If I work more, do I become more demanding towards my supervisor?". Anyway, this negative relationship tends to deny what was said before about organizational commitment on the appropriateness of Schein's model and corporate culture. The same difficulty arises with role clarity and training adequacy.

TABLE 43 - JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL EFFECTS ON INDIVIDUAL OUTPUTS

DEPENDENTS	R^2	SIGNIF. F P<0.05 P<0.01 P<0.001	INDEPENDENT VARIABLES																																									
			JOB/ROLE PERCEPTION						GROUP PERCEPTION				SUPERVISION PERCEPTION						REWARDS PERCEPTION						STRUCTURE PERCEPTION						PROCEDURES PERCEPTION						NORMS PERCEPTION						C
			INTRINSIC CHARACT.		ROLE CLAR AND TRAINING		ROLE CONF AND OVERLOAD		COHESIVE OFENMIND. GROUP		FRAGMENT.		SUPPORTIV ORIENTAT.		PRODUCTIO ORIENTAT.		PARTICI-TION		REWARDS CONTING.		INTERNAL EQUITY OF PROMOTION		EXTERNAL EQUITY		COORDINAT SYST. AND MEANS		ORGANIC STRUCTURE		VERTICAL STRUCTURE FUNCT.		ADEQUATE PROCEDUR.		FORMALIZ.		RISK		OPEN-MINDED		SOCIAL EVENTS		CONVEN-TIONALISM		F
			b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b	β	b
JOB SATISFACTION	.36	.001	.13	.36					.09	.20													.17	.13	.11	.16	-.09	-.06									.06	.10						
JOB INVOLVMENT	.22	.001	.09	.33					.06	.20																							.19	.16										
ORGANIZ. COMMITM.	.35	.001	.04	.16	.05	.09					.06	.10	.02	.15							.06	.11																			.16	.12	.
EXTRA-TIME	.15	.001	.01	.32	-.01	-.10							(-) .003	-.11							.02	.14	-.03	-.15																				

4.4.3.5 - CONCLUSIONS

Some of the job/organizational perceptions are able to explain a considerable amount of variance of individual outputs, with an R2 between .22 and .38 for affective reactions and .15 for a declared behavioral index.

Among the organizational levels, the perceptions connected with levels which are closer to the everyday life of the employees seem to have the more constant impact on individual outputs: job characteristics, group functioning and rewards systems perceptions.

Job perception: Agreeing with the large number of researches in the whole world, "intrinsic characteristics" are present in all the four regression equations of individual outputs. Also "role clarity and training adequacy" is related with organizational commitment and extra time in work.
Group functioning perception: "Cohesiveness and openminded group" perception is positively related with job satisfaction and involvement. "Fragmentation" of the group is also related with organizational commitment but it seems more logical to consider it as a consequence of the latter.
Reward systems perception: Surprisingly "rewards contingency" is not related with any output (perhaps as a result of its absence in Enterprise 1), but "internal equity of promotions" has a positive influence on organizational commitment and extra time in work and "external equity" is positively related with job satisfaction and negatively with extra time in work (in the latter case employees prefer enlarger general values, and, since they spend more effort, they are probably also more demanding).

Relationships with other organizational dimensions:
Supervision: Positive relation of "supportive" behavior perception with organizational commitment. Negative relationship of "supportive" behavior with extra time in work.
Organizational structure: The perception of "coordination systems and means" is positively related with job satisfaction. "Organic structure" has an unexpected negative relationship with satisfaction.
Procedures: Only "formalization" (rigid application of rules) shows a positive relationship with job involvement.
Norms: The perception of "openminded" norms is related with job satisfaction and "conventionalism" is related with organizational commitment.
Perception of the organization as a whole: As could be expected it is positively related with organizational commitment.

4.4.4 - GENERAL CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE EFFECTS OF VALUES AND JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS ON INDIVIDUAL OUTPUTS

From the previous analysis, our Hypothesis 14 is fully confirmed: values, general and work related, have a noticeably smaller impact on job satisfaction and involvement, organizational commitment and extra time in work (R2 >.03 and <.13) than job/organizational perceptions (R2 >15 and <.37).

In spite of the little explained variance, values show rather significant partial regression coefficients with the individual outputs, which can have some practical interest.

Job involvement seems to be relatively more influenced by general values (R2 = .13), in comparison with the other individual affective outputs (R2 = .07 and .09), and relatively less influenced by job/organizational perceptions (R2 = .22 against .37 and .35 of the other 2 affective outputs).

As foreseen theoretically, individual reactions like job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment are better predicted by values and job/organizational perceptions than a behavioral index, even if declared, like extra time in work.

Of the general values, morality, self-constriction and social oriented values are those which systematically induce higher levels of satisfaction, involvement and commitment. Enlarger values have a positive impact on organizational commitment and extra time in work, confirming their potential motivating power as found by Howard et al. (1983) and England (1978).

The first remark about work related values concerns the low levels of explained variance of the individual outputs, lower than general values. As mentioned before, this can be the result of the measure used.
Anyway, development/utility appears to be the total score with more influence: positive relationships with job involvement, organizational commitment and extra time in work, and we hypothesize a relationship with performance/action; we should emphasize that this total score is not related with the perceptions of job/organizational characteristics.
On the other hand, comfort I seems more related with an affective connection with job and well-being: positive relationships with job satisfaction and job involvement and a negative one with extra time in work.
Economic rewards and comfort II preferences have logical negative relations with job involvement and organizational commitment. And, finally, expressive characteristics show only a negative relationship with job involvement.

In another perspective:
Job satisfaction is related with -

General values:	Morality
	Self-constriction
	Social oriented
Work R. values:	Comfort I
J/Org. Percep.:	Intrinsic characteristics
	Cohesiveness and openminded group
	External equity
	Coordination systems and means
	Organic structure (negative)
	Openminded norms

Job involvement is related with -

General values:	Morality
	Self-constriction
	Social oriented
Work R. values:	Comfort I
	Economic rewards (negative)
	Expressive characteristics (negative)
	Development/utility
	Comfort II
J/Org. Percep.:	Intrinsic characteristics
	Cohesiveness and openminded group
	Formalization

Organizational commitment is related with -

General values:	Enlarger
	Morality
	Self-constriction
	Social oriented
Work R. values:	Economic rewards (negative)
	Development/utility
	Comfort II (negative)
J/Org. Percep.:	Intrinsic characteristics
	Role clarity and training adequacy
	Group fragmentation
	Supervisor support
	Internal equity promotion
	Conventionalism
	Perception of the organization as a whole

Extra-time in work is related with -

General values:	Enlarger
Work R. values:	Comfort I (negative)
	Development/utility
J/Org. Percep.:	Intrinsic characteristics
	Role clarity and training adequacy (negative)
	Supervisor support (negative)
	Internal equity of promotions
	External equity (negative)

Regarding the impact of job/organizational perceptions on the individual outputs considered, the main conclusion concerns the more constant effects of job characteristics, group functioning and reward systems perceptions in comparison with the other organizational dimensions.
Thus, job/organizational dimensions with which the employees have to deal directly in everyday work life and those affecting their rewards have an important relationship with their individual outputs.

5. - FINAL DISCUSSION

The theoretical models of corporate culture (Schein, 1986, Frost et al. 1985,...) postulate organizations as culture-producing phenomena. In corporate cultures generated by organizations, researchers are looking for cultural "objects", such as myths or symbols, for underlying meanings in which shared values are often conceived as the "central core (...) around which an organization relies (...), they drive the corporate culture" (Thompson and Strickland (1987). Nevertheless, we also saw in the theoretical chapter of this study, that there is no consensus at all about the concept of value.

Deciding to work with values in their traditional meaning in social sciences: "as a conception of the desirable that influences the ways people select and evaluate events" (Kluckholm, 1951, and Rokeach, 1973), we analyzed the impact of two distinct bureaucratic enterprises on these values, defining two levels of values: in general life and in work, the latter being defined as a specific domain.

We also took into consideration possible Portuguese regional cultures, translated in different value systems, presumed by Portuguese public opinion, and theoretically, on a national level, assumed as conditioning values inside the enterprise and management style.

First, when we adopted a comparative perspective between values in the two enterprises, we found clearly distinct general and work related value systems in each enterprise.
In comparison with Enterprise 2, in Enterprise 1, managed like a public service, employees are mainly oriented to non-conflict, morality and social general values and to comfort work related values (interpersonal relationships and convenient hours); while, in comparison with Enterprise 1, in Enterprise 2, managed like a private enterprise, employees are mainly oriented to enlarger and competence general values and to expressive characteristics and to the work related value "to attain goals/results".
From these data we can assume that the two enterprises have different cultures and we could hypothesize that different value systems are a result of "culture-bearing organizational milieus" (Louis, 1985).

Unexpectedly, and in contrast to what is commonly thought in Portugal and among managers, regions did not discriminate significantly between general and work related value systems.

Thus, the two enterprises possess different value systems. Are these differences the result of the enterprise's management, when it conceives job and organizational structures, procedures, norms, performances and behavior standards, or the result of the enterprise's history (longevity) and, mainly, human composition?

Looking for the determinants of these differences, in particular for the effects of enterprise and region, we took into consideration three personal characteristics, age, sex and education, which in past research appeared to have important relationships with value systems (e.g. Rokeach, 1973 and Feather, 1975) and which are generally related with general processes of life. Controlling these variables, we could compare their relative impact with individual organizational history variables, in bureaucratic organizational contexts, such as seniority, training and career evolution (promotions) and supervision, and with the impact of specific enterprises and regions. Moreover, trying to discriminate between socialization and selection processes by indirect means, which is the only way in cross-sectional studies like this, we studied the correlations of the indices of socialization, seniority, training and promotions with enterprise and with supervision.

5.1 - ANTECEDENTS AND VALUES

Our hypothesis about the effects of individual organizational history and of enterprise on general values were invalidated: our total scores general values are mainly related with personal characteristics, sex, age and education, confirming their "enduring" character (Rokeach, 1973) and an evolution depending on general processes of life. In our pilot study, although 80% of the subjects estimated a change in their values from the time they started working in their organizations subjectively, they were rather unable to express what values had changed.

Different bureaucratic enterprises seem unable to influence general value systems significantly by management measures, except by selection/retirement processes using as criteria sex, age and education. We only found that training inside one of the enterprises is related with a preference for competence values and seniority with non-conflict general values.

Thus, the significant differences in general value systems between the two enterprises described in point 4.1, are essentially the result of different demographic characteristics of their employees. In comparison with Enterprise 2, Enterprise 1, in the departments where we collected data, mainly consists of older women with a lower level of education (see "Sample Description"), probably as a result of the enterprise history: many of the actual clerical workers were previously telephone attendants, who were later transferred to administrative services as a result of the introduction of more automated technologies.

In opposition to what is commonly believed in Portugal and by managers, there are very few differences in general value systems between the Porto, Lisboa and Evora regions. Lisboa and Porto show no significant differences and only in Evora, a rural and communist region, people are more socially oriented than in the other two more industrialized regions. These results are convergent with Hofstede's (1980) findings relating individualism and economic development on a national level.

Our hypotheses about the effects of enterprise on work related values are confirmed as a tendency: Enterprise, as independent variable, appears in all four antecedent regression equations explaining the variance of work related values total scores. It shows quite fair relationships with comfort I (physical conditions, job security and interpersonal relationships), economic rewards (pay and promotion) and development/utility (serve society and to attain goals/results). While in Enterprise 1, with its public service management, bigger size and lower average salary, employees prefer comfort I and economic rewards, in Enterprise 2 development/utility values are preferred more.

Enterprise, supervision and individual organizational history variables show seven presences in regression equations explaining the variance of work related values total scores against four presences of personal characteristics. Among these last, age shows no relationships with work related values, for men economic rewards are relatively more important than for women (sex) and education is the personal characteristic showing more influence in work related values: positively related with the importance attributed to expressive characteristics, also found by MOW (1987), and economic rewards, in opposition to the MOW results and negatively related with comfort I.

These results tend to show that general values are not influenced by enterprise by way of a determinant, while work related values, being more concrete and with a specific domain connected with enterprise activities, are influenced a great deal by job/organizational activities and management. It is possible to imagine that there are other specific domain values, such as interpersonal relationships and supervision, which might also be influenced.

Consequently, it is not possible to state that the concept of general values can be included in the framework of corporate culture: general values are not a result of "culture producing phenomena" of organizations, at least bureaucratic ones, because they are not significantly related with them.

On the other hand, the more concrete concept of work related values might be included in that framework. Nevertheless, the variable enterprise in its relationships with work related values total scores appears mainly isolated and not associated with our socialization indices, leaving the question unanswered whether those relationships are a result of selection processes or socialization processes not detected by our indirect indices.

These indirect indices of socialization deserve some remarks: if promotion/career and training inside the organization seem rather reliable socialization indices, seniority is rather unclear: "If I work for a long time in this organization and I do not perceive the rewards I expected, why shall I adopt the values and norms supported by the organization?" (the negative relationship between job/organizational perceptions and seniority tends to support this interpretation).

Although inconclusive, our data fall in line with the general sense of Feather's Theory (1975) about person-environment consistencies, which states a tendency of the individual to minimize value discrepancies. Also in our pilot study, 60% of the subjects said that they were able to choose their actual job and enterprise.

An interesting result concerns the work related values total score development/utility (serve society and to attain goals/results): these work related values appear to be only influenced by enterprises and their socialization processes (enterprise, promotions (-), supervision*promotion (+), enterprise*training (+). Whereas "serve society" is foreseen in other work related value systems (e.g. MOW, 1987), "to attain goals/results", detected in our pilot study, emerges as an important Portuguese work value.
"To attain goals/results" is preferred in Enterprise 2, nevertheless in Enterprise 2 the increase of its importance is associated with training. Unexpectedly, the total score is negatively related with promotions, which can be the result of the higher number of promotions in Enterprise 1, based on automatisms. The positive effect of supervisors' promotions, for whom there are no more automatisms, reinforces this interpretation.

In a speculative perspective, we wonder if it would be possible to discriminate between universal values, in this case work related ones, common to all societies and more dependent on general processes of life and work, and other values more culture specific and determined by specific situations and institutions, and their socialization processes. It would be the case with "to attain goals/results" in this study.

The Portuguese regions are not related with work related values.

5.2 - ANTECEDENTS AND JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS

As said before, the analysis of the relationships between antecedents and job/organizational perceptions profits from data availability and has an exploratory character. Anyway, as we will see, some of the results are interesting for the analysis of the interfaces between regional-organizational cultures.

Among the relationships found by multiple regression, we notice that whereas some have a simple, unique interpretation (e.g. enterprise and perception of organic structure: The perception is mainly determined by clearly discriminating structures of enterprises), most of them allow for several interpretations in the context of a cross-sectional study (e.g. training and job intrinsic characteristics perception).

In general, there are four dimensions of job/organizational perceptions where the variance is rather well explained by the antecedents used ($R2 > .10$): job intrinsic characteristics ($R2 = .15$), rewards contingency ($R2 = .16$), organic structure ($R2 = .17$) and risk ($R2 = .22$).

Job intrinsic characteristics is mainly related with supervision ($\beta = .41$ - expected positive relationship) and with training ($\beta = .36$) and supervision*training ($\beta = -.29$).

In the other three dimensions, the enterprise plays an important role: rewards contingency (β = -.31), organic structure (β = -.41) and risk (β = -.47). These results were expected, because when we chose the two enterprises we tried to have the same kinds of jobs and professions but in different organizational contexts. As described in "organizational characteristics", the two enterprises have different economic reward systems, different structures and different procedures. We have to recognize that we also expected to find differences in norms and internal organizational images, which was however invalidated.

Personal characteristics effects:
Age: When present in regression equations, it always has a positive effect on job/organizational perceptions. It seems plausible that older people are less demanding than younger people.

Sex: It is rarely associated with job/organizational perceptions.

Education: It is often present in regression equations (10 out of 17) showing a systematic negative relationship with the organizational perceptions: cohesive and openminded group, supportive behavior of supervisors, rewards contingency, internal equity of promotions, external equity, coordination systems and means, adequate procedures, openminded norms, conventionalism and perception of the organization as a whole. In each case, there are several specific interpretations. However, in general, we tend to attribute this global negative role to more critical and demanding knowledge and attitudes.

Individual organizational history relationships:
Seniority: Always appears associated with age (correlation .88) but with an opposite effect. The high collinearity points to a prudent interpretation of the constant negative effect of seniority. Anyway, it seems that, when age is held constant, seniority induces a more demanding perspective towards the organization, probably as a result of frustrating organizational experiences.

Training: In spite of its four presences, and in opposition to the negative effect of education, training has a positive relationship with perceptions, confirming its socializing character.

Promotion: Only relates with reward systems perceptions without any other connection with job/organizational perceptions.

Supervision:
By itself, shows only relationships with intrinsic characteristics (positive), formalization and perception of the organization as a whole (both negative). In the perceptions of supervisors, seniority, when present, plays a systematic positive role. The same role is played by promotion in their perceptions of the organization as a whole.

Region:
In contrast to what happens with values, region has a strong influence on organizational perceptions (present in 9 of the 17 regression equations).

As said before, some of these relationships could be inferred in advance given the regional and organizational characteristics, as is the case with the perceptions of reward systems, organizational structure and adequate procedures.

But other relationships cannot be explained by those characteristics. This is what happens with the significant impact of the Porto region on six total score perceptions of organizational dimensions, unforeseen in a value context.

As seen before, in the Porto region we found value systems, general and work related, very similar to the Lisboa region, translated in the absence of the contrast Porto-Lisboa in all the 10 total scores of values. Nevertheless, the Porto region is significantly related with the perceptions of supportive behavior of supervisors (β = -.11), production orientation of supervisors (β = -.15), formalization (β = -.11), social events (β = .12), conventionalism (β = .14) and of the organization as a whole (β = -.13).

These discriminating perceptions, in relation to Lisboa, can only be understood in a cultural perspective, with the proviso that the latter is not conceived on a value level but on a norms level.

Conventionalism and social events are included in our organizational norms dimension, which deals with informal norms not formalized in the structure or in procedures; formalization (rigid application of rules), included in procedures, also deals with norms applied to rules and practices, and supportive and production orientations of supervisors are also evaluated in the light of leadership norms. If we think about the distinction between the concept of value and social norm made in the theoretical introduction, we will remember that values are conceived as more personal and internal to individuals while norms are rather a result of external processes leading to consensus (Valette-Florence, 1989).

Enterprise - Region

It is also interesting to note that none of these dimensions is significantly influenced by the two bureaucratic enterprises, where we collected data.

While the two enterprises are perceived, in a descriptive meaning, as clearly distinct in their discriminating characteristics: reward systems (automatisms -versus- individual appraisals), organic structure (Enterprise 1 is bigger with consequently more hierarchical levels and departments) and risk (Enterprise 2 is an insurance company dealing with risks evaluation as its main activity in a very competitive and turbulent environment, while Enterprise 2 is a monopoly), the two enterprises are not perceived as different in supervisors' behavior, formalization, social events, conventionalism and as a whole, in opposition to what happens between the Porto and Lisboa regions.

It is true that neither of the enterprises has an intentional culture management, but we expected that different activities, structures and reward systems could induce some specific norms and behaviors with the possibility of making generalizations to other dimensions, for instance in supervision or formalization.

But in this subject, as in all the levels and dimensions of job/organizational perceptions, there does not seem to exist a determinant general perceptive or emotional factor, in the sense of a factor G, influencing all the perceptions. Individuals are cognitively able to discriminate and evaluate several job/organizational features, according to specific and independent descriptive or interpretative perceptions, which offers some support to the cognitive model of emotions (Lazarus, 1982, 1984).

It is also possible that the norms of the two enterprises are different and adapted to the organizational procedures and behaviors. For instance, if to a higher performance norm corresponds a higher performance, the perception of the latter can be similar to another perception of lower performances evaluated by lower performance norms. Whereas a comparison of the employee's perceptions does not allow for discriminating between the two enterprises, i.e. although the norms are different, the perceptions of each group of employees can have a similar quantitative output. Besides, we do not know to what extent different norms/standards of behavior, even with the same quantitative perceptive output, can have different impacts on attitudes and behaviors regarding performance and well-being.

5.3 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN GENERAL AND WORK RELATED VALUES

Even if the amount of explained variance of work related values by general values is never very large ($R2 > .03$ and $< .17$), they establish logical content relationships in a multiple effect of each general values total scores on several work related values, according to the theoretical expectancies of Rokeach (1973) and our hypothesis 8.

Enlarger -versus- non-conflict and morality -versus- competence general values appear to influence almost all work related values, where the general values appear more connected with work related values.

In summary, what we called more "other-oriented" people (non-conflict and morality oriented) tend to attribute more importance to comfort in work (physical conditions, job security, interpersonal relationships, variety and convenient work hours), while "self-oriented" people (enlarger and competence oriented) tend to attribute more importance to expressive characteristics (interesting work and good match skills/job requirements) and economic rewards (pay and promotion).

Expressive characteristics and development/utility work related values (serve society, to attain goals/results and learning new things), generally considered as motivational job dimensions, are influenced by competence and delayed gratification oriented people.

5.4 - RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN GENERAL VALUES AND JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS

The general values do not seem to have a large influence on job/organizational perceptions. In 21 job/organizational perceptions total scores, general values only appear related with 10 perceptions dimensions and with an explained variance always <.10. Our hypothesis 9 is only partially confirmed.

The general values total scores more often related with the organizational perceptions are self-expansion (+) - self-constriction (-), present in 8 regression equations, and morality (+) - competence (-), with 6 presences. Self-constriction and morality oriented people always perceive several job/organizational dimensions in a more positive way. This type of value seems to induce less demanding and critical evaluative perceptions.

Social oriented -vs- personal/emotional oriented total score has almost no influence on these perceptions, while immediate -vs- delayed gratification is present in three organizational dimensions and seems conditioned by levels of education.

Finally, enlarger (+) - non-conflict orientated (-) values are related with what we could call the "hardware" dimensions of job and organization. Enlarger oriented people perceive their job characteristics, the organizational structure and the organization as a whole more positively, which may be a way of accomplishing their values and improve their self-image.

We also noticed that the relationships of general values with job/organizational perceptions tend to improve with the degree of generality of the latter. As theoretically expected, the more the perception is evaluative (James and Jones, 1989), and the less it is descriptive, the more it is influenced by the general values.

5.5 - COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN WORK RELATED VALUES, JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS AND GENERAL VALUES

The ranking/rating nature of our measure seems to condition the potential relationships of work related values. Perhaps for this reason, in our study, work related values have less influence on organizational perceptions than general values: the explained variances are always < .05 and they only generate 9 regression equations. Our hypothesis 12 is only very partially confirmed.

As verified with general values, also work related values tend to improve their relationships with the degree of generality of job/organizational perceptions.

Surprisingly, we did not find any relations of expressive characteristics and development/utility total scores with job/organizational perceptions, namely with job perception, in opposition to what was found by Mortimer and Lorence (1976), Kohn and Schooler (1983) and MOW (1987). In our Portuguese sample, only enlarger oriented people perceive more intrinsic/expressive characteristics and prefer them at the same time, but, in contrast with the MOW (1987) data, they also tend to prefer economic rewards work related values.

When present in regression equations, comfort I (phyical conditions, job security and interpersonal relationships) work related values induce a more positive perception of job/organizational perceptions. The relationships of comfort I and of job/organizational perceptions with self-constriction and morality general values seem to show that comfort I oriented people are less demanding towards the organization. They are more "other-oriented" and less critical towards organizational characteristics.

In contrast, economic rewards (pay and promotion) and comfort II (variety, convenient schedule and learning new things), when present, are always related with a negative perception of organizational dimensions. Confort II is related with the same organizational dimensions as non-conflict oriented people (in opposition to enlarger people). The negative perceptions related to economic rewards work related values seem to result from a stronger "self-orientation", centered on extrinsic features, of the employees who mainly prefer competence and personal/emotional general values.

5.6 - RELATIONSHIPS OF VALUES AND JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS WITH INDIVIDUAL OUTPUTS

Job and organizational perceptions are better able to explain the variance of job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment and extra-time in work ($R2 > .15$ and $< .37$) than values ($R2 > .03$ and $< .14$), although the latter also show a fair relationship.

This tends to support the situationist perspectives in psychology (Bowers, 1973), according to which attitudes and behaviors are largely elicited by situational characteristics, although much of the variance in responses is due to interactions of values/motives structures and situational variables and, as William (1979) argues, it is absurd to claim that all behavior is an expression of values and has no other determinants.

Comparatively, job involvement is the output most influenced by values. As expected, the declared behavioral output, extra-time in work, is the output less predicted by values and job/organizational perceptions.

As found with perceptions, morality and self-constriction (also social oriented) general values always show a positive relationship with the three affective outputs, confirming the less demanding and critical character of these values.
Enlarger values have a positive relationship with organizational commitment and extra-time in work. Thus, our hypothesis 10 is confirmed.

The work related values total score development/utility, related with social oriented general values, shows the biggest number of relationships with individual outputs, being positively related with job involvement, organizational commitment and extra-time in work. As criterion of evaluation it is not related with any job/organizational perception, but it seems to be a criterion of affective reactions to job and organization and of performance/action (extra-time).

Comfort I is positively related with job satisfaction and job involvement and negatively with extra-time in work. Economic rewards and Comfort II have negative relations with job involvement and organizational commitment. Expressive characteristics is negatively related with job involvement. Given the low explained variance with the work related values, we consider that our hypothesis 12 is partially confirmed.

Job characteristics, group functioning and reward systems perceptions are the job/organizational perceptions most related with the individual outputs, confirming Lewin's concept of Psychological Proximity, according to which work environment characteristics more proximal to every day life are more related with employees' outputs.

5.7 - RELATIONSHIPS OF VALUES WITH JOB/ORGANIZATIONAL PERCEPTIONS AND INDIVIDUAL OUTPUTS: LAST REMARK

As has been mentioned in the theoretical chapter, values have two main functions: 1) to serve as standards/criteria for day-to-day activities and 2) to function as motives in inducing valencies (Rokeach, 1973, Feather, 1982).

As standards/criteria of job/organizational perceptions and affective outputs, in general our data confirm this role of values, both general and work related, but not with a large impact. Although weak, the relationships between values and perceptions improve with the degree of generality, from more descriptive perceptions to more evaluative ones, as foreseen by James and Jones (1989).

The motivating role of values is shown by the only behavioral index used in this study: extra-time in work. In spite of the little explained variance, enlarger and development/utility oriented people tend to stay in the organization extra-time, in opposition to what happens with comfort oriented ones. Surprisingly, the expressive characteristics work related values have no relationships with extra-time.

In our model, we analyze the relationships between values and job/organizational perceptions and individual outputs in a reciprocal cause-effect context. But as Locke (1976) does for satisfaction, it is possible to conceive a moderator effect of values between perceptions and outputs. Nevertheless, the empirical results of this model are quite contradictory (e.g.: Stone (1976) -versus- Rice et al. (1991).

5.8 - THE CONCEPT OF VALUE AND CORPORATE CULTURE

Researchers in culture analysis, in particular in organizational contexts, look for the underlying meanings of stories, behaviors, slogans and other culture "objects". These meanings are very often seen as the key values and beliefs of a given culture (e.g. Jones 1983, Smircich, 1983, Broms and Gahmberg, 1983, Schein, 1985).

Nevertheless, as said before, whereas we find almost everybody speaking about values in cultural contexts, its concept is often not clear or it is defined in different ways.

In our study we define value in the most traditional way in social sciences, following Kluckhohn (1951), Rokeach (1973), Feather (1975), Schwartz and Bilsky (1987), as "a conception of the desirable" and we analyzed the relationships between values and several antecedents.

Some of these antecedents have a well known impact on value systems, such as sex, age and education. One of our goals was to verify if the enterprises have a significant relationship with value systems, beyond the classical demographic variables. Given the bureaucratic characteristics of both enterprises, even if with different managements (private -versus- public service), we also searched for possible effects of socializing variables like seniority, training, promotion and supervision.

From our data, the enterprises with this type of characteristic do not seem able to influence general value systems directly: although in our sample, the two enterprises have rather different general value systems, this is a result of significant differences in age, sex and education, and the variable enterprise, by itself or associated with others, does not play a significant role.

On this basis, the use of the concept of value, as it is defined in the traditional perspective of social psychology, should be discussed and defined precisely in the context of corporate culture.

From our data, it does not seem fair to include the concept of general value in the framework, or as a dimension, of corporate culture, considering this as a product of the organization. General values are not significantly influenced by the organizations, at least by bureaucratic enterprises (this statement should be verified with a larger sample containing different kinds of organizations in different social contexts).

Anyway, corporate culture cannot ignore the concept of general value. From our data, it is also clear that the enterprises have a significant relationship with work related values, sothat it seems fair to include them in the framework of corporate culture. But, as foreseen theoretically by Rokeach (1973), being more specific, work related values have consistent and logical relationships with general values. The latter, as theoretically expected, seem to function as a central cognitive matrix within which work related values are situated.

This means that if the enterprises, by selection or socialization processes, are able to influence work related values, this influence is conditioned by the broad matrix of general values. In a consistency perspective, it seems hard to admit that an employee can accept a work related value contradictory with his general values systems. Consequently, the scope of a corporate culture framework seems conditioned by the general value systems of the individuals.

These limits of the impact of corporate culture are reinforced by what Rokeach (1973) called "unidirectionality of values change", and which he demonstrated in two studies together with Grub (1979). They state that the majority of the subjects, who have definitive opinions about wanting either to increase or to decrease a particular general value, would resist efforts by others to change that value in the opposite direction.

As explained in the theoretical chapter, we deal with work related values as a specific domain of values. Generalizing, it is possible to imagine other value specific domains related with the activity inside enterprise, such as interpersonal relationships, leadership behavior, management style and so on, which can also be influenced by the organizations in the context of corporate culture, and, we can theoretically expect, always conditioned by the general value systems of the employees. Thus, it seems plausible that the organizations can influence cognitive contents related with work but the employees preserve the autonomy over their values, which are important in their lives, thus conditioning the possible influence of the organizations.

From this cross-sectional study it is not possible to conclude if this influence of the organization on work related values is done by selection or socialization processes. The only work related values related with our socialization indices are those included in the development/utility total score, but even here the causal-effect relationships are impossible to establish (for instance: Do employees receive more training because they prefer these work related values or do they prefer them because they get more training?).

Thus, the concept of value as "a conception of the desirable" can be included in the framework of corporate culture, if there is a definition of values on a specific domain level related with work and organizational activities.

This means that Schein's definition (1986) of values as something which "ought" to be, or the one by Opp (1981) as "expectations about what should or must be", puts the concept of value on the level of norms, excluding from the framework of corporate culture the traditional concept of value, and ignores the active role of the individual (Handy, 1985) and his psychological needs and consistencies. The notion of corporate culture also creates in managers a high level of expectations about value change, which can be frustrated in practice by the conditioning role of general values.

This does not mean, as said before, that we support the idea that general values put limits on all attitudes, norms and behaviors inside the organizations or in life in general. Our data from the Porto region on the perception of some organizational dimensions, as well as the factor analysis of MOW (1987) on work related values and societal norms (entitlement-obligation), suggest that there are norms which are independent from values, since they do not contradict them.

Besides, beyond the corporate culture framework, in our study general values show several direct relationships, - and not only a passive role as was found in Consumer Psychology (Verhallen et al., 1989) -, with job and organizational perceptions and affective and behavioral outputs, which underlines their theoretical and pragmatic usefulness in the organizational field.

SUMMARY

In the last two decades there has been a significant development of organizational culture theories inside organizational psychology, which have been largely divulged among managers who have adopted them in their everyday language. Inside those theories one concept occupies a "central role": the concept of value (v.g. Jones, 1983; Smircish, 1983; Schein, 1985). In this book we present a study looking for the role of values inside the organization empirically.

Two main goals have guided this research:

1 - The culture producing effect of organizations on values. Corporate culture models state that each organization and its management can induce its own specific organizational culture and consequently its own specific value systems. In this research, it is empirically tested if different enterprises are related with different value systems and if this relationship is stronger than the one established between value systems and Portuguese regions.

2 - The effects of values on perceptions and emotional and behavioral outputs. Several theoretical frameworks state that values influence the perceptions and the emotional and behavioral outputs of individuals. This statement is empirically tested in an organizational context.

Reviewing the literature on values, from philosophy to economics, one can easily observe that different concepts are used in the different fields, which may lead to some difficulties in their study and several misunderstandings. Anyway, the anthropological conception of value (Kluckhohn, 1951) seems dominant in most of the works: its influence is capital in the whole of social and organizational psychology (e.g. Rokeach, 1973 and Schein, 1986).

But although the anthropological conception is the broader framework and the common departure point for most psychologists, the latter, when building their theories and operationalizations, arrive at completely different conceptions and instruments. Among these conceptions, two typical ones are very often used: the one of Schein (1986), - "Values are what 'ought' or 'should' be" - , which is more connected with the concept of social norm generally used in social psychology; and the one of Kluckhohn (1951), - "Value is a conception of the desirable that influences the ways people select action and evaluate events" -, which is the conception generally adopted in social psychology (v.g. Rokeach, 1973, Howard et al. 1983, Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987). In this study we adopt the latter definition.

Within the scope of this definition it is possible to distinguish various levels of abstraction. Given our organizational interests, we look at two levels of values: a) General and abstract values, - what is desirable and important in people's life in a general way - ; and b) Work related values, - what is desirable and important for people in work, these latter being conceived as a specific domain, i.e. an "area of behavior that is aimed at the same goal" (Vinson et al. 1977 and Verhallen et al. 1989). On the first level we adopt the Rokeach Model (Rokeach, 1973) and, on the second level, we have as reference the MOW Model (MOW, 1987).

In order to accomplish the first goal of this study, we identified several possible antecedents of values on both levels. Matching the corporate culture models with the comparative management models, our main interest is centered on the possible influences of enterprises and Portuguese regions on value systems. Beyond these possible effects, we also control personal characteristics, such as education, sex and age, which have been shown to influence values in previous studies (v.g. Rokeach, 1973, 1979; Feather, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MOW, 1987) and the individual history inside the organizations, in regard to which we adopt several indices imported from socialization models (v.g. Van Maanen and Schein, 1979), such as career evolution, seniority, training and supervision. All the antecedents are treated on the same level of causality.

As we intended to analyse the relationships between values and job/organizational perceptions and emotional and behavioral outputs (second goal), we constructed a heuristic model, where general values play a central cognitive role influencing work related values, job/organizational perceptions and individual outputs. These last ones are conceived as being also influenced by work values and organizational perceptions. Nevertheless, the model is conceived as a reciprocal causality one.

In the absence of a global operationalized model of organizations, in this study the concepts and operationalizations used in the job/organizational perceptions and individual outputs are largely based on a revision of the Hackman and Oldham Model (1980) about job design and on its further developments by Cammmann et al. (1983). In this context, we decided to distinguish between four general levels of analysis within job/organizational perception: job and role characteristics, group perception, rewards perception and organizational perception. As individual outputs, we consider job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment and extra-hours at work. The relationships between job/organizational perceptions and individual outputs are conceived according to the postcognitive-nonrecursive model (v.g. Lazarus, 1982, 1984, James and Tetrick, 1986), i.e. even if reciprocally related job perceptions are the first cause of emotional answers, e.g. satisfaction.

To attain our goals we decided to use a large survey. But before building it we conducted a pilot-study, based on 20 semi-directive interviews looking for specific values in Portugal and possible subjective impressions of change in value systems during the individual's organizational life. Data analysis showed that the general values brought up by the interviewees can be located in Rokeach's terminal and instrumental value systems, showing once again (see Rokeach 1973, 1979, Feather, 1975, Ng et al., 1982, Schwartz and Bilsky, 1987) the rather universal character of these systems. The analysis of the work related values, suggested by the Portuguese sample, showed that the majority of them can be placed in the work related value system proposed by the MOW Team (1987). However a new work related value appeared in a very significant way: "To attain goals/results", suggesting a strong intrinsic work motivation in the Portuguese population, sothat we included it in our scale. About value changes, there was a near consensus about their evolution during the period after the admission to the organization, while this evolution was attributed to friends and colleagues. Nevertheless, the individuals had some difficulties in indicating which values had become more or less important in that period.

Once constructed, the survey was applied to two Portuguese enterprises (N = 452) with different activities and characteristics but each one with identical structures, procedures and jobs in the three Portuguese regions considered. With this design, we intended to control the effects of the enterprises on the values in contrast with the effects of the regions.

Comparing the two enterprises, enterprise 1 (N = 195) is big,
with a stable environment, consisting of blue and white collar workers and managed like a public service, while enterprise 2 (N = 257) is smaller, with a strong competitive environment, comprising only white collar workers and managed like a private company. In the latter there is less absenteeism, a higher productivity, a higher average remuneration and promotions based on individual appraisals (in E1 promotions are mainly based on automatisms).

The three Portuguese regions include the most developed (Lisboa) and one of the most underdeveloped of Portugal (Évora).

Given the large number of variables in our survey and to avoid too complex patterns difficult to interpret, we use principal component analysis on all logical groups of variables.
Thus, with the general values we got five factors explaining 35 percent of the variance. The last four factors found show a strong convergence with the factors found in previous researches (Rokeach, 1973 and Howard et al. 1983), which induced us to name them in the same way: competence -versus- morality, self-constriction -versus- self-expression, personal/emotional -versus- social oriented and delayed -versus- immediate gratification. Only factor 1: non-conflict -versus- enlarger seems more specific to our sample, although the enlarger pole is quite similar to the one found by Howard et al.(1983) with American and Japanese managers.

In regard to work related values, 5 factors were identified, explaining 54 percent of the variance, with some similarities with the MOW Team findings (1987), but also with some specific differences. Nevertheless, we discovered that adopting the same kind of ranking/rating scale used by the MOW Team had not been a good choice: during collecting data some respondents showed some doubts about how to answer (which had not happened during the pre-test) and once the data plotting was done we got a distribution that could have been influenced by chance. After analysing the logical relationships between general and work related values the factor chance was excluded, but we are careful with the interpretations related to work related values.
For principal component analysis, the job/organizational perceptions were grouped into 8 categories: job/role perceptions, work group functioning, supervision, reward systems, structure perception, procedures, norms and perception of the organization as a whole. For each new scale, reliabilities are offered. The same is done in regard to the scales of the individual outputs.

In a first approach, we tested the differences in values between enterprises and between regions. From this analysis, it is possible to conclude that each enterprise is dominated by rather different general and work related values, while the three Portuguese regions have a small effect on values systems. While one of the enterprises is oriented to values such as: non-conflict, morality, social values and comfort; the other is oriented to: enlarger, competence, expressive characteristics of work and "To attain goals/results". Apparently, each enterprise had generated its value systems, its own corporate culture.

However, after we analysed all considered antecedents of value systems, we found that, at a general values level, the differences are mainly influenced by the personal characteristics (age, sex and education). Enterprise, region and individual organizational history have a weak influence on general values.

On the other hand, at a work related values level, enterprise shows a constant and significant impact, by itself or associated with individual organizational history (e.g. seniority and training). Nevertheless, it is not possible to assume that this relationship results from a socializing process. The variables used as indices of socialization (promotion, training and seniority) appear mainly related with development/utility work related values (serve society, to attain goals/results and learn new things). In the enterprise managed like a public service, comfort and economic rewards are preferred, while, in comparison, development/utility are preferred in the enterprise managed like a private company.

Thus, our data tend to confirm the enduring character of general values foreseen by Rokeach (1973), i.e. the individuals tend to keep their own values towards life, independently of the type of organization where they work (further research is needed with more and different kinds of organization). However, work related values, being more concrete and a specific domain connected with organizational activities, are influenced a great deal by different enterprises.

Because the data happened to be available, we also analysed in an exploratory sense the antecedents on job/organizational perceptions mentioned before.
Among the personal characteristics: education confirms the strong impact on those perceptions, inducing, when present, a systematic negative effect; while age shows a positive effect and sex shows weak or absent relationships.
Among individual organizational history: seniority is only present in the regression equations when age is also present, which is certainly related with the strong correlation between them (.88), nevertheless, while age produces a positive effect, seniority shows a systematic negative effect; training does not appear very related with organizational perception, however when present it shows a positive relationship, in opposition to education; promotion has only expected relationships with rewards perception.
When considered on its own, supervision has quite a reduced relationship with organizational perception, nevertheless when in interaction with individual organizational history the number of relationships increase significantly.

The effects of enterprise on job/organizational perceptions were rather expected according to enterprise characteristics. But the same did not happen with region. It shows quite an influence on perceptions,

where some of these influences produced by the Porto region are unexpected according to region and enterprise characteristics. Employees from both enterprises in Porto, which in public opinion is regarded as the "capital of work", are, for instance, more demanding towards the supportive and production orientation of their supervisors. As the Porto region is not related with specific values, the effects on perceptions seem to have to be interpreted in a cultural framework related with social norms. More research is needed to explain these specificities of Porto culture.

The relationships found between general and work related values confirm theoretical expectations (Rokeach, 1973 and Vinson et al. 1977) and empirical data from the field of consumer psychology (Verhallen et al., 1989): general and specific domain values are logically and consistently related but not in a one-to-one correspondance. For instance, while morality general values are related with comfort work related values, competence general values are connected with expressive characteristics, economic rewards and development/utility work related values.

General and work related values do not establish strong relationships with job/organizational perceptions. Nevertheless, the latter are not independent from values. As theoretically expected (James and Jones, 1989), these relationships tend to improve from descriptive perceptions to evaluative ones. General values found more related with organizational perceptions are: self-expansion -vs- self-constriction and morality -vs- competence. Work related values found more related with organizational perceptions are: comfort I (environmental) and economic rewards.

General and work related values show moderate relationships with individual organizational outputs, where those that are established with affective outputs are stronger than those established with the declared behavioral output. Morality, self-constriction and social oriented employees systematically show a more positive reaction towards the job and the organization. Enlarger oriented employees are more organizational committed and give more extra-time to the enterprise. Among work related values, development/utility values have a positive relationshihp with job involvement, organizational commitment and extra-time; while economic rewards and comfort II show negative relationships with job involvement and organizational commitment. Probably, as a result of the scale used work related values are less related with individual outputs than general values.

As theoretically expected, job and organizational perceptions are better able to explain the variance of job satisfaction, job involvement, organizational commitment and extra-time at work than values. And also as expected organizational levels nearer everyday life of the employees have more impact on individual outputs: job perception, group functioning perceptions and reward systems.

Our results about the effects of enterprise on general and work rekated values indicate that to use the concept of value, in its more traditional sense in Social Sciences - as "a conception of the desirable" -, can not be done so arbitrarily and simply as is generally done. General values do not seem quite influence by enterprise (at least bureaucratic ones) and, thus, they can not be included in the framework of corporate culture. On the other hand, work related values are influenced by enterprise, i.e. they can be considered a dimension of corporate culture, but they are conditioned by the "enduring" general values which, in this way, put limits to some developments of corporate culture. I.e. the enterprise seems to be able to influence employees values related to its activities if they fit in general values but it cannot manipulate their values towards general life. Managers ignoring this statement can be very disappointed with their cultural management.

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APPENDIX 1

INSTRUÇÕES GERAIS

Este questionário é um dos instrumentos de suporte a um trabalho de investigação sobre Socialização Organizacional, conduzido em Portugal pelo Instituto Superior de Psicologia Aplicada, com o apoio científico da Universidade de Tilburg da Holanda.

Na primeira parte são-lhe pedidos alguns aspectos do que é importante para si na vida e no trabalho e na segunda as perguntas são formuladas de forma a obter as suas percepções e reacção ao trabalho e à organização onde desenvolve a sua actividade principal.

--- Não existem boas ou más respostas, pelo que não será necessário pensar muito para responder a cada item.

--- Todas as respostas são totalmente confidenciais e ninguém da organização onde trabalha terá acesso às suas respostas individuais.

--- O questionário engloba escalas de insinceridade pelo que lhe pedimos que responda honesta e francamente.

--- SE NÃO COMPREENDEU AS INSTRUÇÕES, POR FAVOR PEÇA AJUDA.

MUITO OBRIGADO PELA SUA COLABORAÇÃO

O Investigador Responsável

(Dr. Carlos Alves Marques)

Em baixo é apresentada uma listagem de 18 valores. Ordene-os por ordem de importância para SI, enquanto princípios orientadores da sua vida.

Leia cuidadosamente a lista. Coloque um 1 (1º) ao lado do valor que é mais importante para si, um 2 ao lado do que é logo a seguir mais importante, e assim sucessivamente até ao menos importante que será o 18º (18).

Se a certa altura quiser alterar a ordem, sinta-se à vontade para o fazer: risque o número que quer alterar e escreva ao lado a nova ordenação.

--- UMA VIDA CONFORTÁVEL (uma vida próspera)

--- UMA VIDA EXCITANTE (vida estimulante, activa)

--- UM SENTIMENTO DE REALIZAÇÃO (contribuições duradouras)

--- UM MUNDO EM PAZ (livre de guerras e conflitos)

--- UM MUNDO DE BELEZA (beleza da natureza e artes)

--- IGUALDADE (fraternidade, oportunidades iguais para todos)

--- SEGURANÇA FAMILIAR (cuidar das pessoas queridas)

--- LIBERDADE (independência, livre escolha)

--- FELICIDADE (contentamento)

--- HARMONIA INTERIOR (sem conflitos internos)

--- MATURIDADE AMOROSA (intimidade sexual e espiritual)

--- SEGURANÇA NACIONAL (protecção contra agressões)

--- PRAZER (uma vida agradável e de lazer)

--- SALVAÇÃO (vida eterna, sem pecado)

--- AUTO-RESPEITO (auto-estima)

--- RECONHECIMENTO SOCIAL (respeito, admiração)

--- AMIZADE VERDADEIRA (companheirismo sincero)

--- SABEDORIA (compreensão amadurecida da vida)

Apresentam-se em seguida outros 18 valores. Ordene-os por ordem de importância para si, como no caso anterior.

--- AMBICIOSO (trabalhador esforçado, com aspirações)

--- ESPÍRITO ABERTO (com vistas largas)

--- CAPAZ (competente, efectivo)

--- ALEGRE (bem disposto, caloroso)

--- LIMPO (asseado, decente)

--- CORAJOSO (defendendo aquilo em que acredita)

--- CLEMENTE (perdoando aos outros)

--- PRESTÁVEL (trabalhando para ajudar os outros)

--- HONESTO (sincero, verdadeiro)

--- IMAGINATIVO (ousado, criativo)

--- INDEPENDENTE (auto-confiante, auto-suficiente)

--- INTELECTUAL (inteligente, que reflecte)

--- LÓGICO (consistente, racional)

--- AMOROSO (carinhoso, terno)

--- OBEDIENTE (com sentido do dever, respeitador)

--- POLIDO (côrtes, com boas maneiras)

--- RESPONSÁVEL (com quem se pode contar, digno de confiança)

--- AUTO-CONTROLADO (auto-disciplinado, moderado)

Nesta parte, gostaríamos que pensasse sobre, o que no momento presente, trabalhar significa para si. Mas não nos referimos só à sua situação presente. Estamos interessados em saber as convicções e valores que tem pessoalmente em relação a trabalhar enquanto resultado da sua vida total de trabalho.

A. Sobre a natureza da sua vida de trabalho: que importância tem para si que a sua vida de trabalho contenha os seguintes aspectos:

A.01. Muitas oportunidades para APRENDER coisas novas.
A.02. Boas Relações INTERPESSOAIS (chefias, colegas).
A.03. Boas oportunidades para subir ou de PROMOÇÃO.
A.04. Horário de trabalho CÓMODO.
A.05. Bastante VARIEDADE.
A.06. Trabalho INTERESSANTE (trabalho de que realmente goste).
A.07. SEGURANÇA de emprego.
A.08. Boa ADEQUAÇÃO entre as exigências da função e as suas capacidades e experiência.
A.09. Boa REMUNERAÇÃO.
A.10. Boas CONDIÇÕES físicas de trabalho (tais como iluminação, temperatura, limpeza, baixo nível de ruído).
A.11. Bastante AUTONOMIA (poder decidir como poder fazer o trabalho).
A.12. Boas oportunidades de SERVIR A SOCIEDADE duma forma útil.
A.13. Atingir OBJECTIVOS de trabalho / RESULTADOS do trabalho.

1º Releia os items para ficar com uma ideia de conjunto.

2º Escolha o item mais importante na sua vida de trabalho. Desse item, escreva a palavra escrita em maiúsculas na linha da ordenação que representa a importância desse item na sua vida de trabalho (na página seguinte).

3º Risque da lista o primeiro item que escolheu.

4º Escolha o item menos importante na sua vida de trabalho. decida sobre o grau de importância que ele tem na sua vida de trabalho e escreva a palavra em maiúsculas do item na linha de ordenação (página seguinte) que representa a importância desse item na sua vida de trabalho.

5º Agora para o resto da listagem, escolha o item que é mais importante para a sua vida de trabalho e repita o processo. Depois escolha o item que é menos importante e repita o processo para esse item. Repita o procedimento até que todos os items estejam escritos na ordenação da página seguinte e todos riscados da listagem supra.

NOTA: pode escolher mais de um item em cada linha, se achar que têm igual importância na sua vida de trabalho.

Extremamente Importante	15	----------
	14	----------
	13	----------
Muito Importante	12	----------
	11	----------
	10	----------
Importante	09	----------
	08	----------
	07	----------
De Alguma Importância	06	----------
	05	----------
	04	----------
De Pouca Importância	03	----------
	02	----------
	01	----------

B. Quando pensa na sua vida de trabalho, que aspectos lhe parecem mais significativos e importantes?
Ordene estes items de 6 = mais significante a 1 = menos significante.

B1 --- A tarefa que faço quando trabalho
B2 --- A minha empresa ou organização
B3 --- O produto ou serviço que forneço
B4 --- O tipo de pessoas com quem trabalho
B5 --- O tipo de ocupação ou profissão em que estou inserido
B6 --- O dinheiro que recebo pelo meu trabalho

2. Características da Função

2.1. Seguidamente é-lhe pedida a descrição da sua função de forma o mais objectiva possível.
Por favor, não expresse neste momento se gosta ou não da sua função. Tente descrevê-la de forma tão precisa e objectiva quanto possível.
Marque com um círculo o número que esteja mais de acordo com a descrição da função.

2.1.1. Que grau de autonomia dispõe na sua função?
Isto é, em que medida a sua função lhe permite decidir por si próprio como fazer o seu trabalho?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Muito pouco: a função quase não me permite "opiniões" pessoais sobre como e quando o trabalho é feito			Autonomia Moderada: muitas coisas estão estandardizadas e fora do meu controlo mas posso tomar algumas decisões sobre o trabalho			Muito: a função dá-me quase total responsabilidade para decidir como e quando trabalhar

2.1.2. Em que medida envolve a sua função um segmento de trabalho "global" e identificável? Isto é, a função é um segmento de trabalho completo que tem um óbvio princípio e fim? Ou, é só uma pequena parte do segmento de trabalho que é acabado por outras pessoas ou por máquinas automatizadas?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
A minha função é apenas uma pequena parte dum segmento de trabalho; os resultados da minha actividade não podem ser vistos no produto/serviço final			A minha função é uma parte razoável do segmento global de trabalho; o meu contributo pode ver-se no resultado final			A minha função envolve a realização dum segmento total de trabalho, desde o princípio ao fim; os resultados das minhas actividades são facilmente visíveis no produto/serviço final

2.1.3. Qual o grau de variedade da sua função? Isto é, em que medida requer a sua função a realização de grande diversidade de coisas no trabalho, em que utilize várias das suas qualificações e capacidades?

1 ------ 2 ------ 3	4	5 ------ 6 ------ 7
Muito pouco: a função requer a realização das mesmas tarefas rotineiras; é sempre a mesma coisa.	Moderadamente variada	Muito:a função requer a realização de muitas coisas diferentes,implicando o uso de diversas qualificações e capacidades.

2.1.4. De uma forma geral, qual o grau de significado ou importância da sua função? Ou seja, é possível que os resultados do seu trabalho afectem significativamente a vida ou o bem estar de outras pessoas?

1 ------ 2 ------ 3	4	5 ------ 6 ------ 7
Sem muito significado; os resultados do meu trabalho não parecem ter efeitos importantes noutras pessoas	Moderadamente significativo	Altamente significativo: os resultados do meu trabalho podem afectar outras pessoas de formas muito importantes

2.1.5. Em que medida a execução da própria função lhe fornece informação sobre o seu desempenho? Isto é, o trabalho em si mesmo dá-lhe indicações sobre a qualidade do desempenho -- para além de qualquer "feedback" que lhe possam fornecer colegas ou chefias?

1 ------ 2 ------ 3	4	5 ------ 6 ------ 7
Muito pouca; a função em si mesma está concebida de tal maneira que podia trabalhar eternamente sem saber como a desempenho	Moderadamente; às vezes a execução da função dá-me "feedback"; outras vezes não	Muito; a função está concebida de tal forma que tenho quase constantemente "feedback" sobre se estou a trabalhar bem ou não

2.2. Seguidamente são listadas uma série de frases que podiam ser usadas para descrever uma função.
Deve indicar em que medida cada frase é uma descrição adequada ou inadequada da sua função.
Uma vez mais, procure descrever a sua função tão objectivamente quanto possível -- independentemente de gostar ou não da sua função.

Escreva um número no espaço em branco, colocado para o efeito antes de cada frase, com base na seguinte escala:

Qual o grau de adequação da frase ao descrever a sua função?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Completamente Inadequada	Muito Inadequ.	Ligeiram Inadequ.	Incerta	Ligeiram. Adequada	Muito Adequada	Comple Adeq.

---1. A função requer que eu use uma série de capacidades complexas ou de alto nível.
---2. A função está estruturada de tal modo que não tenho possibilidades de fazer um segmento de trabalho completo, do princípio ao fim.
---3. Basta fazer o trabalho exigido pela minha função para ter muitas possibilidades de saber quão bem o estou a desempenhar.
---4. A função é bastante simples e repetitiva.
---5. A minha função é uma daquelas em que muitas pessoas podem ser afectadas pela qualidade com que o trabalho foi feito.
---6. A função recusa-me qualquer possibilidade de tomar decisões ou iniciativas pessoais quando executo o trabalho.
---7. A função dá-me a possibilidade de acabar completamente as tarefas que começo.
---8. A função dá-me muito poucas pistas sobre se estou a desempenhar bem ou não.
---9. A função dá-me bastantes oportunidades de independência e liberdade na forma de fazer o trabalho.
--10. A função em si mesma não é muito significativa ou importante no esquema mais geral de coisas.

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3. Sinalize com uma cruz (X) por cima do número respectivo, em que medida concorda ou não com a adequação de cada uma das frases às suas actuais funções, de acordo com a seguinte escala:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total/ em desacordo	Discordo	Ligeira/ em desacor.	Não conc. Nem disc.	Ligeira/ de acordo	Concordo	Total/ de acordo

3.1. Na minha função não consigo satisfazer toda a gente ao mesmo tempo 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.2. Tenho de fazer coisas que deveriam ser feitas doutra maneira. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3.3. Recebo tarefas para as quais não possuo adequados recursos e materiais para as executar. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.4. Trabalho em coisas desnecessárias. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.5. Na minha função sei exactamente o que esperam de mim. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.6. Na minha função, a maioria das tarefas está claramente definida. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.7. Para mim, os objectivos da minha função são claros. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.8. Parece nunca ter tempo suficiente para ter tudo feito. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.9. Tenho demasiado trabalho para fazer tudo bem. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.10 Tenho todos os conhecimentos necessários ao desempenho da minha função. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.11 Tenho treino e conhecimentos mais que suficientes para realizar bem a minha função. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.12 Na minha função estamos sempre a aprender coisas novas. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.13 A minha função desafia-me muito. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3.14 A minha função tem tendência a tornar-se mais importante para a empresa. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. Esta parte do questionário incide nas atitudes que as pessoas da sua organização têm sobre o trabalho. Em relação a cada frase, decida se é Totalmente Verdadeira, Mais Verdadeira que Falsa, Mais Falsa que Verdadeira, Totalmente Falsa, marcando com uma cruz (X) a alternativa escolhida. Durante o seu preenchimento não troque impressões, é a sua opinião que nos interessa.

1	2	3	4
Totalmente Verdadeiro	Mais Verdadeiro que Falso	Mais Falso que Verdadeiro	Totalmente Falso

4.1. Aqui as pessoas trabalham aplicadamente mesmo se pensam que outros podem ficar com os louros. 1 2 3 4
4.2. Aqui as pessoas podem ficar tão absorvidas pelo seu trabalho que, frequentemente, perdem a noção de tempo ou do conforto pessoal. 1 2 3 4
4.3. A pressão do trabalho não é aceite como desculpa por um desempenho inferior. 1 2 3 4
4.4. Aqui as pessoas estabelecem para si próprias altos padrões de realização. 1 2 3 4
4.5. No seu trabalho é exigida às pessoas muita perfeição. 1 2 3 4
4.6. Aqui as pessoas seguem a máxima do "dever antes do prazer". 1 2 3 4
4.7. As pessoas são sempre muito sinceras e intencionais sobre o seu trabalho. 1 2 3 4

4.8. Aqui as pessoas sentem que devem realmente trabalhar de forma aplicada devido à importância do seu trabalho. 1 2 3 4

4.9. Aqui é relativamente fácil uma pessoa manter-se sem trabalhar demasiado. 1 2 3 4

4.10 Aqui as pessoas põem muita energia em tudo o que fazem. 1 2 3 4

4.11 Há tanto que fazer que as pessoas estão sempre ocupadas. 1 2 3 4

4.12 As pessoas estão sempre prontas para parar o trabalho e fazer um intervalo. 1 2 3 4

4.13 As actividades do dia a dia não requerem um esforço intenso e ininterrupto. 1 2 3 4

4.14 O desempenho com sucesso das obrigações diárias é rotineiro e não exigente. 1 2 3 4

5. As questões seguintes relacionam-se com grupos nas organizações. Nesta parte, pense no seu -grupo de trabalho- como o conjunto de pessoas com quem trabalha diariamente mais de perto.
Se é membro de dois ou mais grupos de trabalho, decida sobre o que lhe parece estar mais próximo e só pense nele quando responder.
Assinale com uma cruz (X) o seu grau de acordo sobre cada uma das frases, utilizando a seguinte escala:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total/ em desacordo	Discordo	Ligeira/ em desacor.	Não conc. Nem disc.	Ligeira/ de acordo	Concordo	Total/ de acordo

5.1. Sinto que faço realmente parte do meu grupo de trabalho. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.2. O meu grupo de trabalho sabe exactamente o que tem de ser feito. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.3. Os membros do meu grupo de trabalho variam bastante quanto a aptidões e capacidades. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.4. Os meus colegas têm medo de expressar os seus verdadeiros pontos de vista. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.5. Cada membro do meu grupo de trabalho tem uma ideia clara dos objectivos do grupo. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.6. Se temos de tomar uma decisão, todos nos envolvemos a tomá-la. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.7. O meu grupo engloba membros com formações e experiências bastante variadas. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.8. Contamos uns aos outros a forma como sentimos as coisas. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.9. Algumas das pessoas com quem trabalho não têm respeito pelos outros. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.10 Todos os dias espero ansiosamente por estar com os membros do meu grupo de trabalho. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.11 Existem sentimentos entre os membros do meu grupo de trabalho que tendem a dividir o grupo. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.12 No meu grupo de trabalho a opinião de cada um é sempre ouvida. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.13 Há constantes questiúnculas no meu grupo de trabalho. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.14 O meu grupo tem uma boa imagem na organização. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.15 O nosso grupo é muito criticado. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.16 O meu sector é um dos eficientes. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5.17 Este sector tem tendência a tornar-se mais importante. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. Esta parte é sobre a sua chefia directa. As frases que se seguem descrevem a forma como uma chefia pode desempenhar a sua função. Assinale com uma cruz (X) o seu grau de acordo sobre cada uma das frases, enquanto descrições da sua chefia.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total/ em desacordo	Discordo	Ligeira/ em desacor.	Não conc. Nem disc.	Ligeira/ de acordo	Concordo	Total/ de acordo

A MINHA CHEFIA

6.1. ...planifica o trabalho antecipadamente. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6.2. ...mantêm os seus subordinados informados. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6.3. ...é sempre justa com os subordinados. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6.4. ...assegura-se que os subordinados tenham objectivos claros a atingir. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6.5. ...exige que as pessoas dêem o melhor do seu esforço. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6.6. ...lida extremamente bem com as partes administrativas da sua função. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6.7. ...mantém-se informada sobre o trabalho que está a ser feito. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6.8. ...esclarece-me sobre como devo fazer a minha função. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6.9. ...exige que os subordinados façam trabalho de alta qualidade. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6.10 ...ajuda-me a resolver problemas relacionados com o trabalho. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6.11 ...assegura-se que os subordinados saibam o que tem de ser feito. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6.12 ...ajuda-me a detectar problemas antes de se tornarem demasiado graves. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

A MINHA CHEFIA

6.13	...mantém-se informada sobre a forma como os subordinados pensam e sentem.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6.14	...ajuda os subordinados a desenvolver as suas competências.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6.15	...toma a maioria das decisões sem pedir opinião aos subordinados.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6.16	...tem o respeito dos subordinados.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6.17	...toma decisões importantes sem envolver os subordinados.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6.18	...relaciona-se bem com os subordinados.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6.19	...mantém altos padrões de desempenho.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6.20	...insiste em que os subordinados trabalhem aplicadamente.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6.21	...conhece extremamente bem as partes técnicas da sua função.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6.22	...é competente.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6.23	...é influenciada em função do subordinado ser homem ou mulher.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. Em relação à organização onde desenvolve a sua actividade principal, assinale com uma cruz (X) o seu grau de acordo sobre cada frase que se segue, segundo a escala:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total/ em desacordo	Discordo	Ligeira/ em desacor.	Não conc. Nem disc.	Ligeira/ de acordo	Concordo	Total/ de acordo

7.1.	Nesta organização, o que ganho depende quase totalmente da forma como desempenho a minha função.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7.2.	O que ganho é justo tendo em conta o que os meus colegas fazem.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7.3.	Nesta região existem outras organizações que pagam melhor que esta.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7.4.	Nesta organização para se ganhar mais tem de se melhorar o desempenho.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7.5.	O que ganho é justo, tendo em conta o que outras organizações desta região pagam.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7.6.	O que ganho é justo comparado ao que os outros ganham nesta organização.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7.7.	Nesta organização as pessoas são promovidas em proporção ao seu trabalho.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7.8.	Nesta organização as promoções são dadas mais na base da amizade pessoal que no mérito.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7.9.	Na generalidade o bom desempenho é sempre recompensado nesta organização.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7.10 Nesta organização, as promoções são mais dadas com base nas diferentes oportunidades de cada departamento que no mérito individual. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7.11 Aqui, as promoções são dadas mais na base das habilitações escolares e académicas que na excelência do desempenho. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7.12 Aqui, estatuto familiar, social ou financeiro são elementos necessários para progredir ou ter sucesso. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7.13 Nesta organização para se ser promovido temos de nos esforçar. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7.14 Aqui, a "antiguidade é um posto". 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7.15 Temos um sistema de promoções que ajuda os melhores a chegarem ao topo. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7.16 Noutras organizações desta região, as pessoas podem progredir mais rapidamente na sua carreira. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7.17 Aqui, tenho possibilidades de fazer uma carreira acima da média. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7.18 As pessoas que mais merecem, são os que conseguem ser promovidos. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7.19 A probabilidade de ser promovido várias vezes na minha carreira é muito limitada. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. Em relação à organização onde desenvolve a sua actividade principal, assinale com uma cruz (X) o seu grau de concordância sobre cada uma das frases que se segue, segundo a escala:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total/ em desacordo	Discordo	Ligeira/ em desacor.	Não conc. Nem disc.	Ligeira/ de acordo	Concordo	Total/ de acordo

8.1. Esta organização é demasiado grande. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8.2. Esta organização precisa de novas pessoas no topo. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8.3. Esta organização necessita de renovar os quadros técnicos. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8.4. Esta organização está centrada no cliente (respostas adaptadas às necessidades dos clientes). 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8.5. Um dos principais objectivos desta organização é reduzir todo o tipo de custos. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8.6. Um dos principais objectivos é desenvolver os empregados. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8.7. A política de investimentos é um dos principais objectivos desta organização. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8.8.	Um dos principais objectivos desta organização é aumentar a produtividade.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.9.	Um dos principais objectivos da organização é inovar os produtos e criar novos produtos.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.10	Um dos principais objectivos é reduzir os efectivos.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.11	Um dos principais objectivos é garantir um bom serviço público.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.12	Um dos principais objectivos é melhorar e automatizar os processos de trabalho.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.13	Um dos principais objectivos desta organização é o bem estar dos empregados.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.14	Um dos principais objectivos desta organização é a política de marketing.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.15	Os objectivos desta organização são ambiciosos.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.16	O nível dos objectivos a atingir, estabelecidos pela hierarquia são demasiado altos.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.17	Existe uma coordenação insuficiente entre os Serviços.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.18	Existem demasiados Serviços/Órgãos nesta organização.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.19	Existem demasiados Órgãos Centrais (Staff) nesta organização.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.20	Entre as hierarquias desta organização há um forte sentido de equipa, um sentimento de objectivos e interesses partilhados.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.21	Nesta organização a boa cooperação entre sectores é asfixiada pelos demasiados direitos adquiridos.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.22	Há consideravelmente mais competição que cooperação entre as hierarquias da organização.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.23	Estamos a trabalhar com tecnologias e níveis de automação elevados.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.24	Nesta organização há demasiados níveis hierárquicos.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.25	Para além do meu chefe imediato há outras pessoas a darem-me ordens.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.26	A cadeia hierárquica é clara para toda a gente.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.27	Recebo instruções fora da cadeia hierárquica.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.28	Na distribuição do trabalho algumas chefias ultrapassam outras que lhe estão subordinadas	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.29	A minha chefia directa é a única pessoa que pode exigir a alteração das minhas prioridades.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.30	A cadeia de comando é dificilmente ultrapassada na distribuição de tarefas.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8.31	Esta organização utiliza uma tecnologia antiquada.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. Em relação à organização onde desenvolve a sua actividade principal, assinale com uma cruz (X) o seu grau de concordância sobre cada uma das frases que se seguem, segundo a escala:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total/ em desacordo	Discordo	Ligeira/ em desacor.	Não conc. Nem disc.	Ligeira/ de acordo	Concordo	Total/ de acordo

9.1.	Os objectivos são estabelecidos após discussão com os gestores sobre os problemas e a acção planeada.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.2.	Os objectivos indicados pela Administração são frequentemente objecto de resistências dissimuladas pela cadeia hierárquica.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.3.	As hierarquias directas e intermédias pressionam por objectivos mais altos que os níveis de topo.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.4.	A capacidade de planear antecipadamente é altamente valorizada nesta organização.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.5.	Aqui, poucas pessoas têm tempo para pensar antes de agir.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.6.	A maioria das pessoas está mais preocupada com o presente que com o futuro.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.7.	Aqui as pessoas são encorajadas a ter uma visão a longo prazo.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.8.	Nesta organização é frequente as pessoas começarem projectos sem tentarem decidir antecipadamente como os vão desenvolver, ou quando os podem terminar.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.9.	Os directores estão bastantes vezes ocupados com a reflexão das metas e objectivos básicos.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.10	Esta organização satisfaz-se em realizar metas e objectivos de curto prazo.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.11	Aqui, falhar no planeamento antecipado é visto como um erro grave.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.12	Existem inconsistências ou contradições entre linhas directrizes e regulamentos internos.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.13	Os regulamentos são interpretados e cumpridos duma forma compreensível.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.14	Espera-se que as pessoas relatem violações a regras e regulamentos.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9.15	A assiduidade é verificada cuidadosamente.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.16	A maioria das pessoas dá pouca atenção a regras e regulamentos.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.17	As pessoas têm de pedir autorização antes de modificarem os procedimentos habituais.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.18	Os regulamentos e as regras formais têm aqui um papel muito importante.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.19	Espera-se que não haja nenhum desvio das práticas estabelecidas, quaisquer que sejam as circunstâncias.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.20	Existe informação disponível consoante as necessidades.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.21	As comunicações são correctas.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.22	As pessoas ao meu nível são informadas sobre as actividades da organização.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.23	A comunicação circula tanto de cima para baixo como de baixo para cima.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.24	A comunicação circula facilmente entre sectores.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.25	As comunicações são rápidas e atempadas.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.26	A comunicação para baixo consiste em directivas e ordens de serviço.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.27	As comunicações são completas.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.28	Os canais de comunicação estão bem compreendidos.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.29	As decisões são tomadas sem atraso.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.30	É difícil resolver os problemas porque os responsáveis pela decisão ou não respondem ou não despacham rapidamente as propostas.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.31	Após enviar para cima uma proposta, posso deixar de me preocupar com ela, porque é muito provável que se passe longo tempo antes de ser tomada uma decisão.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.32	Por aqui, têm de ser consultadas demasiadas pessoas antes que se possa fazer qualquer coisa.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.33	A filosofia da gestão é de que a longo prazo seremos mais bem sucedidos se jogarmos devagar, pelo seguro e pela certa.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.34	O nosso negócio foi construído correndo riscos calculados no momento certo.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9.35	Neste tipo de negócio temos ocasionalmente de correr alguns riscos bastante grandes para estar à frente da concorrência.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. Em relação à organização onde desenvolve a sua actividade principal, assinale com uma cruz (X) o seu grau de concordância sobre cada uma das frases que se segue, segundo a escala:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total/ em desacordo	Discordo	Ligeira/ em desacor.	Não conc. Nem disc.	Ligeira/ de acordo	Concordo	Total/ de acordo

10.1.	Nesta organização as pessoas andam sempre cuidadosa e elegantemente vestidas.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.2.	É necessário ser educado em todas as circunstâncias para não ter problemas aqui.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.3.	O pessoal mais antigo raramente se refere mutuamente pelo primeiro nome.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.4.	Aqui há muito "dar graxa".	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.5.	Nesta organização, recepções ou acontecimentos sociais formais raramente se verificam.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.6.	Os acontecimentos sociais obtêm muito apoio e entusiasmo.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.7.	Há muitas oportunidades para as pessoas se juntarem em actividades sociais planeadas para depois do trabalho.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.8.	É dada uma grande publicidade a acontecimentos especiais.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.9.	A atitude da gestão em relação ao conflito entre sectores concorrentes e entre indivíduos é a de que pode ser muito saudável.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.10	Somos encorajados a dizer o que pensamos, mesmo que isso implique discordar com os nossos superiores.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.11	Nesta organização, criticar políticas e procedimentos é considerado uma afronta pessoal.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.12	Quando as pessoas discordam com uma decisão, esforçam-se para a alterar.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.13	Aqui, não é provável que as pessoas aceitem a incapacidade de gestão sem se queixarem ou protestarem.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.14	As pessoas evitam a todo o custo choques directos com outras de categoria mais elevada.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10.15	Nesta organização, fala-se abertamente dos erros e omissões de forma a que outros aprendam com eles.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10.16 Um dos valores mais realçados é a abertura de espírito. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10.17 Aqui, pensar em formas alternativas de resolver problemas, ou fazer as coisas de outra maneira, é dispensável. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10.18 Os planos inabituais e estimulantes são encorajados. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10.19 Aqui, os programas são rapidamente mudados de forma a responder às novas condições. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10.20 Existem formas convencionais de fazer as coisas que raramente são mudadas mesmo se parece existir uma maneira melhor de as fazer. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10.21 Aqui, uma discussão sobre os últimos desenvolvimentos técnicos seria invulgar. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10.22 Revistas sobre novos desenvolvimentos científicos e técnicas de gestão são lidas por muitas pessoas que aqui trabalham. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. Em relação à organização onde desenvolve a sua actividade principal, assinale com uma cruz (X) o seu grau de concordância sobre cada uma das frases que se segue, segundo a escala:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total/ em desacordo	Discordo	Ligeira/ em desacor.	Não conc. Nem disc.	Ligeira/ de acordo	Concordo	Total/ de acordo

11.1. Tanto quanto me parece, não há muita lealdade do pessoal em relação à organização. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11.2. Nesta organização as pessoas prestam mais atenção aos seus próprios interesses. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11.3. Da minha experiência, sinto que a organização trata os empregados bastante bem. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11.4. A Administração é sincera na sua tentativa de perceber o ponto de vista dos trabalhadores. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11.5. A nossa organização terá um futuro negro a menos que possa atrair melhores administradores. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11.6. Pode confiar-se na Administração na tomada de decisões sensíveis para o futuro da organização. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11.7.	Esta organização é muito estável.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11.8.	Esta organização está a ir para a frente.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11.9.	Esta organização tem uma boa imagem.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11.10	Nesta organização, não há muito esforço no sentido do seu crescimento e melhoria constante.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11.11	Esta organização é eficiente.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. Assinale com uma cruz (X) o seu grau de concordância sobre cada uma das frases que se segue, segundo a escala:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Total/ em desacordo	Discordo	Ligeira/ em desacor.	Não conc. Nem disc.	Ligeira/ de acordo	Concordo	Total/ de acordo

12.1.	Na generalidade estou muito satisfeito com a minha função.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12.2.	Pessoalmente estou muito envolvido no meu trabalho.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12.3.	Estou disposto a esforçar-me para além do normal de forma a ajudar esta organização a ter sucesso.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12.4.	Penso frequentemente em abandonar esta função.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12.5.	Vivo para a minha função.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12.6.	Aceitaria quase qualquer tipo de função de forma a poder continuar a trabalhar para esta organização.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12.7.	Gosto do tipo de trabalho que faço nesta função.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12.8.	As coisas mais importantes que me acontecem têm a ver com o meu trabalho.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12.9.	Acho que os meus valores e os da organização são muito semelhantes.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12.10	Tenho orgulho em dizer aos outros que faço parte desta organização.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. Indique o número médio de horas que passa diariamente no trabalho: 7H 7,5H 8H 8,5H 9H 9,5H 10 ou +

1. DADOS GENERICOS

1.01. **Sexo:** Masculino _ Feminino _

1.02. **Habilitações:**

4ªcl/6ºA/1ºci	2ºciclo/9ºA	3ºciclo/12ºA	Freq.Univers	Licenciat

1.03. **Situação Familiar:**

Solteiro(a)	C/vida conjugal Casada(o)	Separado(a) Divorciada(o)	Viuvo(a)

1.04. **Ano de Nascimento:** 19__

1.05. **Zona de Origem** (permanência superior a 10 anos):

Cidades Lisboa/Porto	Grande Porto * Grande Lisboa	Outras Cidades	Vilas	Aldeias Lugares

1.06. O principal recurso financeiro da sua família é o saláric que aufere nesta organização? Sim Não

1.07. Número de dependentes:

0	1	2	3/4	5 ou +

1.08. Em que idade começou a trabalhar? __ anos.

1.09. Antiguidade na actual Empresa? __ anos.

1.10. Antiguidade nas actuais funções? __ anos.

1.11. Categoria: _____ Nivel de remuneração: _____

1.12. Número de Promoções não automáticas desde que está na Empresa:

0	1	2	3/4	5 ou +

Ano da sua última promoção não automática: Ano 19__

1.13. Número de Méritos desde que está na Empresa:

0	1	2	3/4	5 ou +

1.14. Que probabilidade de promoção não automática estima ter a médio prazo na organização?

nula	fraca	alguma	boa	forte

Na sua opinião, quantas promoções pensa que pode ter ao longo da sua vida nesta empresa?

0	1	2	3/4	5 ou +

1.15. **Desde que está nesta organização,**

- quantas acções de Formação frequentou nas suas instalações? (intra-empresa)

0	1	2/3	4/5	6 ou +

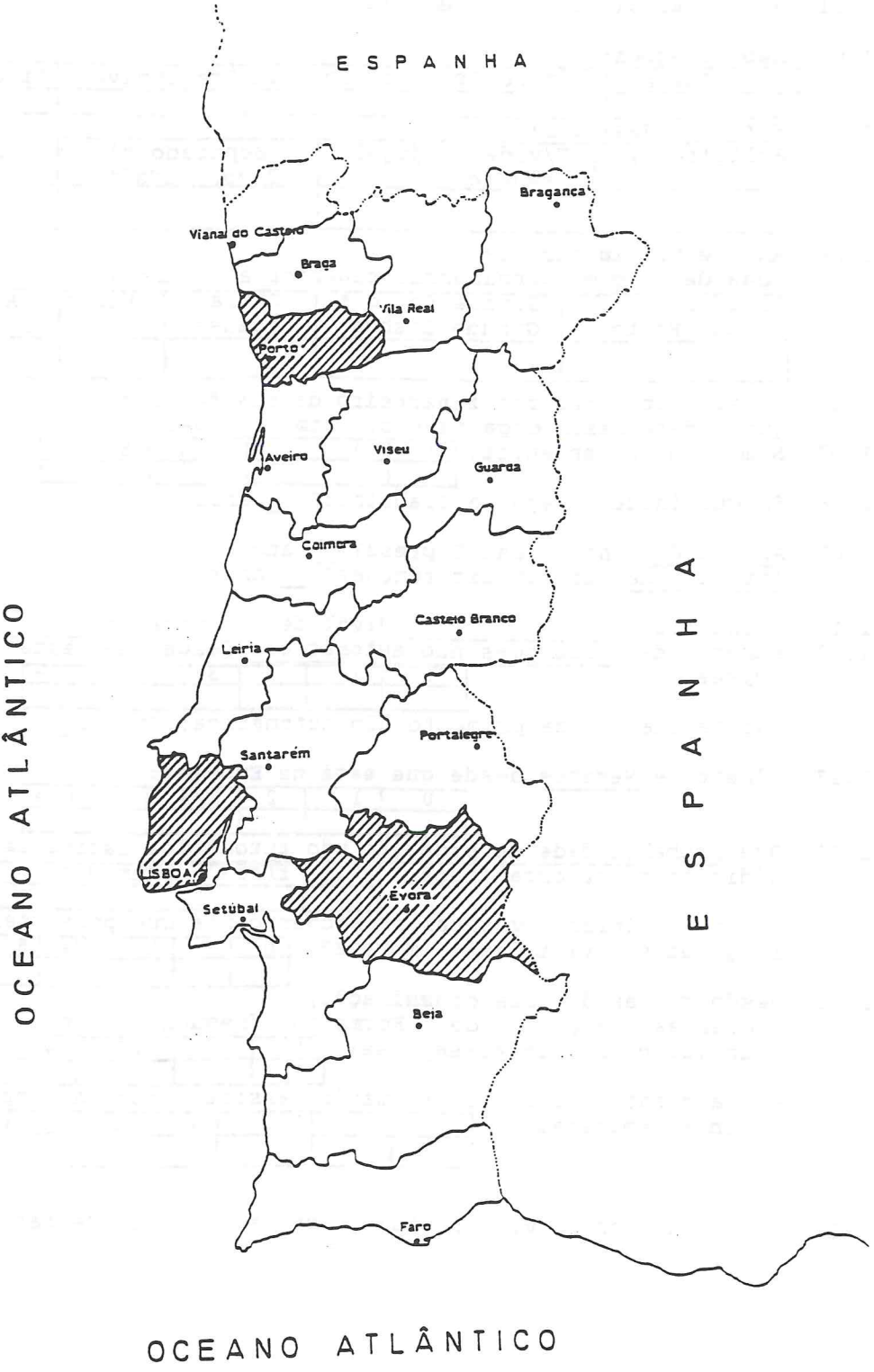
- e a quantas acções de Formação assistiu fora da empresa? (inter-empresas)

0	1	2/3	4/5	6 ou +

* - Ex.s:Matosinhos, V.N. de Gaia, Loures, Almada, Oeiras ...

APPENDIX 2

PORTUGAL



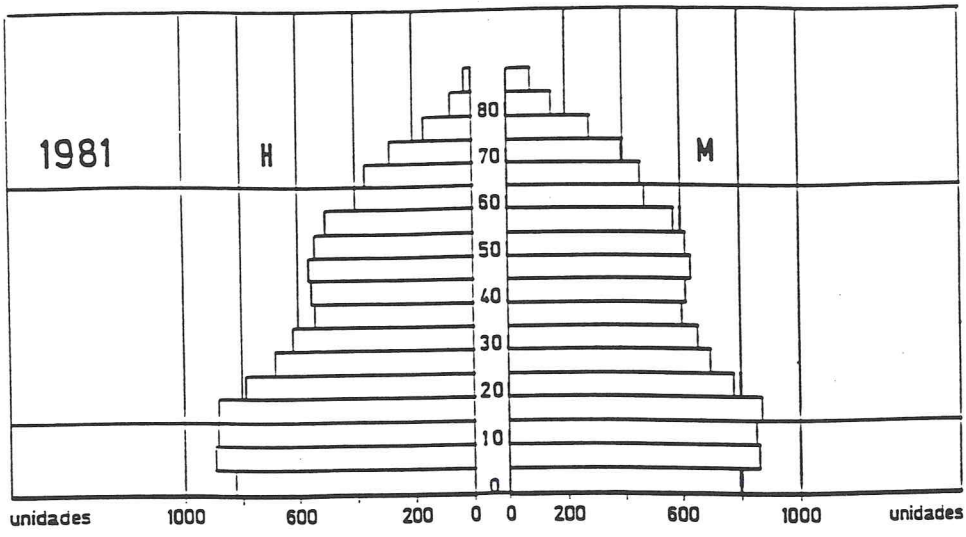
APPENDIX 3 - AGE STRUCTURES

APPENDIX 3.1

PORTUGAL

CENSO DE MARÇO DE 1981

(POR 100.000 HAB.)



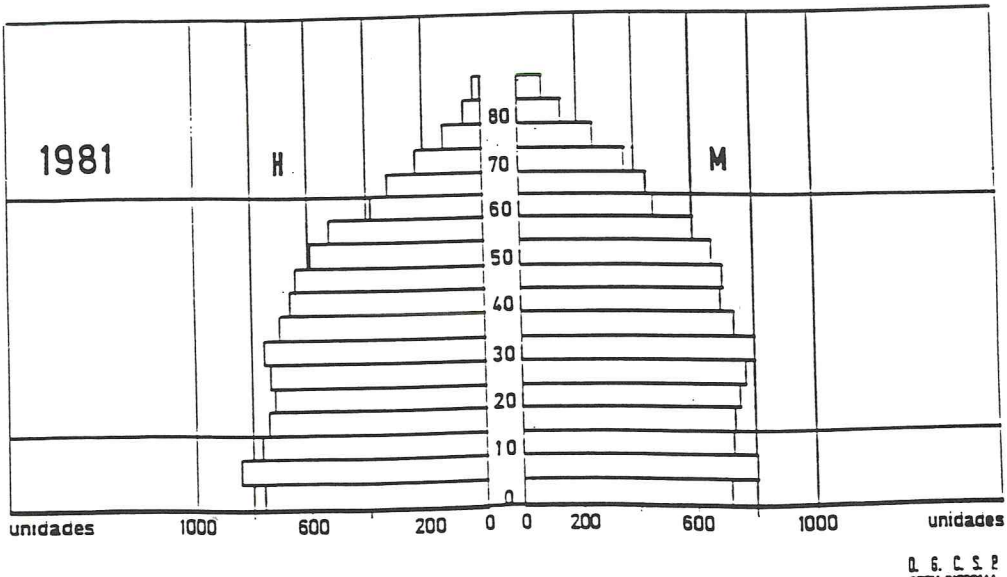
D. G. C. S. P.

APPENDIX 3.2

DISTRITO DE LISBOA

CENSO DE MARÇO DE 1981

(POR 100.000 HAB.)



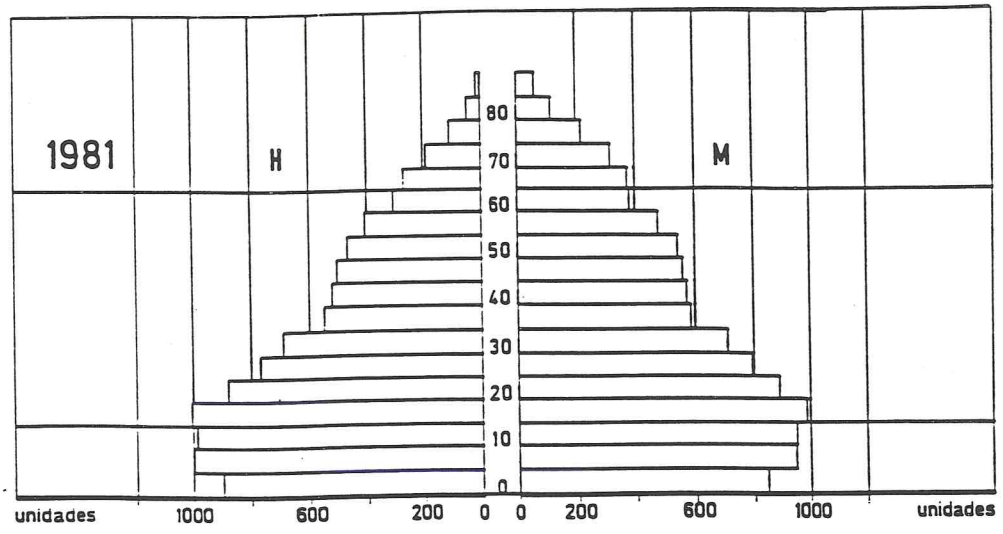
D. G. C. S. P.
SERV. DEFARMA

APPENDIX 3.3

DISTRITO DO PORTO

CENSO DE MARÇO DE 1981

(POR 100.000 HAB.)



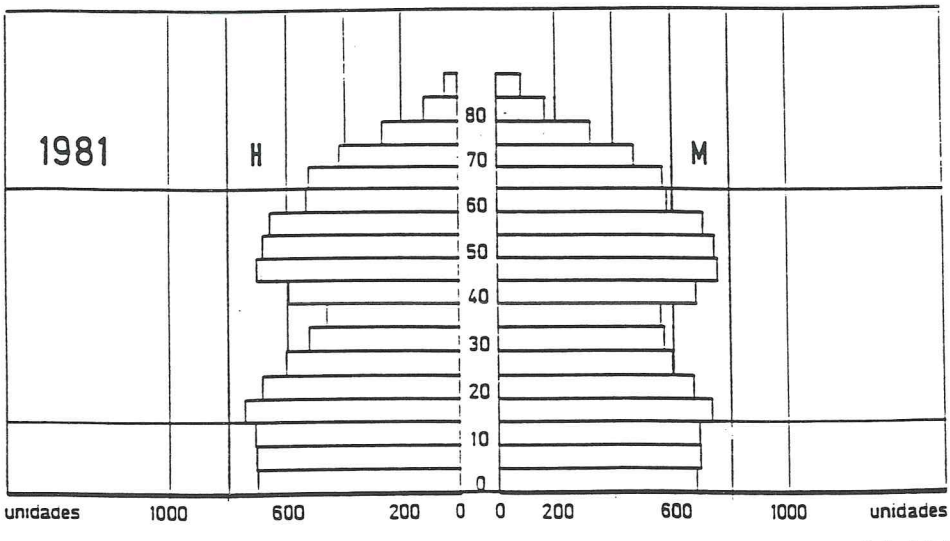
D. G. C. S. P.
SERV. INFORMA.

APPENDIX 3.4

DISTRITO DE ÉVORA

CENSO DE MARÇO DE 1981

(POR 100.000 HAB.)



D. G. C. S. P.
SERV. INFORMA.

APPENDIX 4

Refª. 195/89/CM/AP

A

Assunto: Investigação sobre Socialização Organizacional

Exmos. Senhores,

Na sequência dos contactos estabelecidos pelo docente deste Instituto, Dr. Carlos Alves Marques, com a DRH e das consequentes autorizações superiores da empresa, vimos solicitar a Vãs. Exãs., a melhor compreensão e colaboração para a fase de recolha de dados sobre a investigação citada em epigrafe, da responsabilidade daquele docente, cuja idoneidade cientifica e profissional temos a honra de abonar.

O Dr. Carlos Alves Marques far-se-à acompanhar nos seus trabalhos pelos finalistas deste Instituto Helena Anastàcio, Célia Fragoso e Pedro Caldeira.

Gratos pela colaboração, apresentamos os nossos respeitosos cumprimentos.

Lisboa, 19 de Junho de 1989

O DIRECTOR

ISPA - INSTITUTO SUPERIOR DE PSICOLOGIA APLICADA CRL
Rua Jardim do Tabaco, 44
1100 LISBOA — Telef. 86 31 84/5/6

Prof. Doutor Frederico Pereira

INSTITUTO SUPERIOR DE PSICOLOGIA APLICADA

Ref. 189/89

Aos

Assunto: Investigação sobre Socialização Organizacional

Ex.mos Senhores

Na sequência dos contactos estabelecidos pelo docente deste Instituto Dr. Carlos Alves Marques, com a DGT e das consequentes autorizações superiores da empresa (D-0284/89 - DRHT de 17/5/89), vimos solicitar a V.ª Excias, a melhor compreensão e colaboração para a fase de recolha de dados sobre a investigação citada em epígrafe, da responsabilidade daquele docente, cuja idoneidade científica e profissional temos a honra de abonar.

O Dr. Carlos Alves Marques far-se-à acompanhar nos seus trabalhos pelos finalistas deste Instituto Helena Anastácio, Célia Fragoso e Pedro Caldeira.

Gratos pela colaboração, apresentamos os nossos respeitosos cumprimentos.

Lisboa, 9 de Junho de 1989

O DIRECTOR

INSTITUTO SUPERIOR DE PSICOLOGIA APLICADA
Rua Jardim do Tabaco, 44
1100 LISBOA — Telef. 86 31 84/5/6

(Prof. Doutor Frederico Pereira)