

**DEMOGRAPHICAL FACTORS INFLUENCING ATTITUDES TO WORK AND
ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT AMONG ACADEMIC WORKERS IN
FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE-EKITI AND EKITI STATE UNIVERSITY**

BY

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CERTIFICATION

I certify that this study was carried out by YUSUF NAFISAH FOLASHADE (PSY\11\0215) of the Department of Psychology, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Federal University, Oye Ekiti.

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DEDICATION

This project work is dedicated to Almighty Allah, the Beneficent and Merciful for guiding me to the right path. Glory is to him.

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My profound gratitude goes to Almighty Allah, The lord of worlds for giving me the ability and assistance to do this project.

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To my wonderful friends AdeoyeTaiwoOluwafunmilayo (sweetest),Ogunbadejo Mariam (darling roommate),Olawande Samuel,Arogundade Ibrahim (banse),Taiwo Olatoye, Ijiyode Damilola(school son) and My best pal IloriAbiola Daniel (hylorry),My Guardian Mr.Emmanuel,my course mates and finally MR AND MRS ADEYEMI. May God be with you all, I LOVE YOU ALL.

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ABSTRACT

Issue of occupational commitment and attitude to work among workers is a thing of concern to all management of organization including the academic workers of Federal University Oye- Ekiti and Ekiti State University in Ekiti State. The present study investigated the influence of perceived demographical factors influencing attitudes to work and organizational commitment among academic workers of Federal University Oye-Ekiti and Ekiti State University Ado, Ekiti. The study adopted ex-post factor research design. A total number of 100 workers were accidentally sampled in the study. These participants were administered with Occupational commitment scale and attitude to work scale together with demographic information. Six hypotheses were tested in the study using independent samples t-test, two were confirmed and the other two were tested with One-Way ANOVA and one was confirmed. The result of the tested hypotheses showed that gender has significant influence on organizational commitment ($t=3.29$; $df = 98$; $p < .05$). Gender has no significant influence on attitude to work ($t=1.84$; $df=98$; $p > .05$). Work environment has significant influence on organizational commitment ($F(2,97)=3.21$; $p < .05$). Work environment has no significant influence on attitude to work ($F(2,97)=0.55$; $p > .05$). Age has no significant influence on organizational commitment ($t=0.90$; $df =78$; $p > .05$). Age has no significant influence on attitude to work ($t=-1.78$; $df=78$; $p > .05$). Length of service has significant influence on organizational commitment ($t=-0.50$; $df=88$; $p > .05$). Length of service has no significant influence on attitude to work ($t = 0.11$; $df=88$; $p > .05$). Based on findings, it is concluded that demographic factors are important in understanding organizational commitment and attitude to work of academic workers. Moreover, gender differs in level of organizational commitment of workers. The findings show that gender, length of

service and work environment have significant influence on organizational commitment so organizations should always pay great attentions to these factors for increment of productivity

Keywords: Organizational commitment, attitude to work, work environment, Federal University Oye-Ekiti, Ekiti State University Ado-Ekiti State.

Word Count: 267.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

According to information provided by The United States Department of Labor, in 2009 employed persons worked an average of 7.5 hours on the days they worked, which were mostly weekdays, 84 percent of employed persons did some or all of their work at their workplace. Therefore, this indicates that the majority of the population is spending their waking hours at work, outside their homes. Therefore employers must do their best to create a low stress and inspiring work environment to yield greater productivity. Michelle T. Iaffaldano and Paul M. Muchinsky were one of the first people to reignite interest in the connection between job satisfaction and job performance. The meta-analytic research of these individuals impacted the way in which later research on the topic was conducted, especially regarding sample sizes.

Positive psychology in the workplace is about shifting attention away from negative aspects such as work violence, stress, burnout, and job insecurity. Positive psychology can help create a working environment goal of promoting positive affect in its employees. Fun should not be looked at as something that cannot be achieved during work but rather as a motivation factor for the staff. Along these same lines, it is important to examine the role of: helping behaviors, team building exercises, job resources, job security and work support. The new emerging field of Positive Psychology also helps to creatively manage organizational behaviors and to increase productivity in the workplace through applying positive organizational forces. In the broad sense traditional psychology has not specifically focused on the implementation of positive psychology methods in the workplace. The recent research on job satisfaction and employee retention has

created a greater need to focus on implementing positive psychology in the workplace. Research demonstrates that interrelationships and complexities underlie what would seem to be the simply defined term job attitudes. The long history of research into job attitudes suggests there is no commonly agreed upon definition. There are both cognitive and affective aspects, which need not be considered. For the past many decades, Nigerian Governments has recorded and experienced poor attitude from both public and private corporations. This sad experience took a mounting turn to nowadays. Government has done a lot in their effort to revive this culture but all was to no avail. There is a wide spread interest in improving the level of poor attitude to work in corporations. Apart from the economic benefits of better preparing workers for unprecedented demands of modern workplace, there are also social benefits tied to improving performance International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences/journals and access for larger number of workers to post-organizational learning, Training and Development opportunities and laying stronger foundation to skills for life-long learning.

Guerrero and Sire, (2000) if the worker have negative attitude towards work, the consequence can create problem in applying the prescribed job design, which means there will be failure in accomplishing organizational goals. The good things in raising the level of attitude has led to a focus on identifying the range of causes that shape poor attitude as well as understanding how these causes operate to limit or enhance the performance of workers. Attitudes are developed as a result of some kind of learning experiences, or Attitude can also be formed simply by adapting the example and opinion of co-employees, friends and managers. This is mimicry or imitation, which also has a vital to play in developing negative attitude at workplace. Poor attitude according to Aremu (2003) is a performance that is adjudged by the owners/customers and some other significant as fallen below an expected standard. Poor attitude

of workers has been observed among employees in both public and private own entities. The poor attitude among workers has been and is still a source of concern to the owners, customers and members of the community as a whole. This is because of the great importance that workers have on the organizational development of any formal entity. All over the world there is unanimity of opinion about the fallen standard of workers attitude (Adebule, 2004). Shareholders are in total agreement that their huge investment on organization is not yielding the desired dividend. Customers also complain of workers poor attitude at both within and outside the organizations. Aremu (2010) stressed that poor attitude is not only frustrating to the owners and the customers, its effects are equally grave on the society in terms of dearth of manpower in all spheres of the economy and politics.

Attitude as a concept is all about individual way of thinking, acting and behaving. It has a very serious effect on work/employee performance. Positive attitude at work place is supposed to be the bedrock and foundation toward higher performance in established settings. It is an investment as well as resources that can be used to achieve a higher profit, good reputation and overall organizational goals. The role of worker attitude is to lay the foundation for further performance and if a good foundation is laid at worker level there are likely to be improvement at other level. However different organizations at different times have passed the blame of poor attitude in organization to the workers, because of their low achievement, low motivation and the likes. DeSimione and Harris (1998) concurred that the possible influences on worker's behavior are internal factors such as motivation, ability, attitude, knowledge and skills. Morakinyo (2003) stated that the fallen level of worker performance is attributable to owner's nonuse of supervisory strategies. Others found out that the attitude of some owners to their organization is reflected in their poor attendance to office, lateness, unsavory comments about worker's

performance that could damage their ego, poor method of on-job training and the likes affect worker's performance. Organizations are faced with poor level of attitudes such as Erratic provision of services has become an increasing persistent problem facing the corporation and seriously affecting the general public, Careless and casual handling of the existing tools and machines and General nonchalant attitude of staff in the discharge of their correspondence with each other. Job attitude should also not be confused with the broader term attitude, because attitude is defined as a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor, whereas job attitude is a particular instance as an entity.

In the definition above, the term "job" involves one's current position, one's work or one's occupation, and one's employer as its entity. However, one's attitude towards his/her work does not necessarily have to be equal with one's attitudes towards his/her employer, and these two factors often diverge duties. Organizational commitment is an important area of study to many researchers and organizations because the outcomes of this behavior or value may help to determine many work related interaction of the employees. It is mainly related to the employee's desire to continue working with the particular organization. As such, researchers and practitioners are ever so keen and interested to understand the factors that may influence an individual's decision to stay or leave the organization. Here, affective commitment most often tends to be the most highly related to the desire to leave an organization. Studies have shown that Organizational Commitment have received considerable attention due to the importance that managers place on retaining personnel (Johnston, Parasuraman, Futrell, and Black, 1990; Mathieu, Bruvold and Ritchey, 2000; Boles, Madupalli, Rutherford and Wood, 2007). However, the importance of retaining employees or personnel is not only confined to any single industry, as many employers place great importance to employee retention and to reduce employee turnover as this may

involve high costs in terms of induction, training and productivity (Firth, Mellor, Moore and Loquet(2004).In today's world, we see an increase in the use of knowledge in organizations in various industries. This is the era of k-economy where knowledge is deemed an important factor that may contribute to the success of an individual as well as the organization. As such, these individuals whose work primarily consists of having the updated knowledge within their area of specialty and apply it to bring benefits for the organization (Amar, 2002), are called knowledge workers. The behavior and attitudes of a knowledge worker is very different from an average white collar worker and as such, the behavioral outcomes will also be different.Organizational commitment has been referred to as a "person's belief in and acceptance of the value in his or her chosen occupation in the line with work and willingness to maintain membership in that organization.Cortarelli;and Bishop (1989) defined organizational commitment as the attachment to identification with and involvement in personally develop those organizational goals.It is widely accepted that for organizational effectiveness, there is a need for strengthening employee's commitment to their jobs.

1.2. STATMENT OF PROBLEM

According to C.O. Ajila (2012) a study was carried out on the various aspects of demographical factors leading to generalization of one sort or the other on the possible effect it could pose on several dimensions.Previous studies on demographic factors as it relates to Attitude to work and organizational commitment had yielded conflicting result.Therefore, scholars hold conflicting views with regard to the influence of demographical factors on Attitude to work and organizational commitment of workers. While some believe it leads to poor attitude and low organizational commitment,others advocate that it has nothing to do with poor attitude and low

organizational commitment. This study, therefore, intends to look into these two positions. Thus, the present study pays particular attention to the following questions:

i. Does the demographic factor Age influence attitude to work and organizational commitment among academic workers in Federal university Oye-Ekiti and Ekiti state University Ado?

ii. Does Gender influence attitude to work and organizational commitment among academic workers in Federal university Oye-Ekiti and Ekiti state university Ado?

iii. Will the length of service influence attitude to work and organizational commitment among academic workers in Federal university Oye-ekiti and Ekiti state university Ado?

iv. Will the perceived demographic factor work environment influence levels of organizational commitment and attitude to work among academic workers in Federal university Oye-Ekiti and Ekiti state university Ado?

1.3. PURPOSE OF STUDY.

The specific objectives of this study are to:

i. Examine the influence of age on academic workers' attitude to work and organizational commitment

ii. Examine the influence of Gender on academic workers' attitude and organizational commitment.

iii. Examine the influence of length of service on academic workers' attitude and organizational commitment.

iv. To examine the influence of work environment on academic workers' attitude and organizational commitment.

1.4 RELEVANCE OF STUDY

In its broadest sense, the study is aimed at improving on the existing data and contribution to the growing body of knowledge, on issues relating to the interaction between psychological wellbeing, attitude and commitment. Finding from this study are expected to provide insight into the extent to which various demographical factor can influence academic workers attitude and organizational commitment. The outcome could also serve as empirical basis that provide important insight for government, policy makers ,business leaders and even workers themselves to become familiar with how different demographical factor influence workers who are males and females and those who are married to who are single as it relates to their level of commitment and attitude they portray on job.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Theories of Motivation

Herzberg's Motivation –Hygiene Theory(Two Factor Theory)

To better understand workers' attitude, motivation and commitment to organization, Fredrick Herzberg performed studies to determine which factors in workers' work environment caused satisfaction or dissatisfaction. He published his findings in the 1959 book the motivation to work. The studies included interviews in which employee were asked what pleased them and displeased them about their work. Herzberg found out that factors causing job satisfaction (and presumably motivation) were different from those causing job dissatisfaction .Two factor theory of job satisfaction/commitment was developed by Frederick Herzberg in 1966.His theory focuses on the effects of certain types of job facet on job commitment and attitude. He proposes that every worker has two sets (2 factors) of needs or requirements: motivation needs and hygiene needs. According to Herzberg, two kinds of needs affect motivation, and they do it in different ways:

- Hygiene factors. These are factors whose absence motivates, but whose presence has no perceived effect. They are things that when you take them away, people become dissatisfied and act to get them back. A very good example is heroin to a heroin addict. Long term addicts do not shoot up to get high; they shoot up to stop being sick -- to get normal. Other examples include decent working conditions, security, pay, benefits (like

health insurance), company policies, interpersonal relationships. In general, these are extrinsic items low in the Maslow/Alderfer hierarchy.

- Motivators. These are factors whose presence motivates. Their absence does not cause any particular dissatisfaction, it just fails to motivate. Examples are all the things at the top of the Maslow hierarchy, and the intrinsic motivators.

So hygiene factors determine dissatisfaction, and motivators determine satisfaction. The two scales are independent, and you can be high on both. If you think back to the class discussion on power, we talked about a baseline point on the well-being scale. Power involved a threat to reduce your well-being, causing dissatisfaction. Hence, power basically works by threatening to withhold hygiene factors. Influence was said to fundamentally be about promising improvements in well-being -- when you are influenced to do something, it is because you want to, not because you were threatened. Influence basically works by offering to provide motivators (in Herzberg's terms). The following table presents the top six factors causing dissatisfaction and the top six factors causing satisfaction that can make employees to be less or more committed to their organization. These are listed in the order of higher to lower importance.

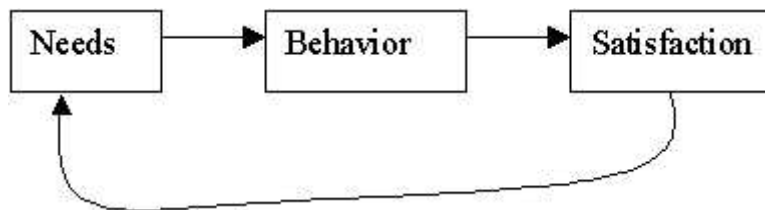
Factors Affecting Job Attitudes.

Leading to dissatisfaction | leading to satisfaction

- | | |
|--------------------------|----------------|
| ✓ Company policy | Achievement |
| ✓ Supervision | Recognition |
| ✓ Relationship with boss | Work itself |
| ✓ Work conditions | Responsibility |
| ✓ Salary | Advancement |

✓ Relationship with peersGrowth

At a simple level, it seems obvious that people do things, such as go to work, in order to get stuff they want and to avoid stuff they don't want. Why exactly they want what they do and don't want what they don't is still something a mystery. It's a black box and it hasn't been fully penetrated. Overall, the basic perspective on motivation looks something like this:



In other words, you have certain needs or wants (these terms will be used interchangeably), and this causes you to do certain things (behavior), which satisfy those needs (satisfaction), and this can then change which needs/wants are primary (either intensifying certain ones, or allowing you to move on to other ones). A variation on this model, particularly appropriate from an experimenter's or manager's point of view, would be to add a box labeled "reward" between "behavior" and "satisfaction". So that subjects (or employees), who have certain needs do certain things (behavior), which then get them rewards set up by the experimenter or manager (such as raises or bonuses), which satisfy the needs, and so on.

Classifying Needs

People seem to have different wants. This is fortunate, because in markets this creates the very desirable situation where, because you value stuff that I have but you don't, and I value stuff that you have that I don't, we can trade in such a way that we are both happier as a result. But it also means we need to try to get a handle on the whole variety of needs and who has them in order to

begin to understand how to design organizations that maximize productivity. Part of what a theory of motivation tries to do is explaining and predicts who has which wants. This turns out to be exceedingly difficult. Many theories posit a hierarchy of needs, in which the needs at the bottom are the most urgent and need to be satisfied before attention can be paid to the others.

Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs.

Maslow's hierarchy of need categories is the most famous example:

self-actualization
Esteem
Belongingness
Safety
Physiological

Specific examples of these types are given below, in both the work and home context. (Some of the instances like "education" is actually satisfiers of the need.)

Need	Home	Job
self-actualization	education, religion, hobbies, personal growth	training, advancement, growth, creativity
Esteem	approval of family, friends, community	recognition, high status, responsibilities

belongingness	family, friends, clubs	teams, department, coworkers, clients, supervisors, subordinates
Safety	freedom from war, poison, violence	work safety, job security, health insurance
physiological	food water sex	Heat, air, base salary

According to Maslow, lower needs take priority. They must be fulfilled before the others are activated. There is some basic common sense here -- it's pointless to worry about whether a given color looks good on you when you are dying of starvation, or being threatened with your life. There are some basic things that take precedence over all else. Or at least logically should, if people were rational. But is that a safe assumption? According to the theory, if you are hungry and have inadequate shelter, you won't go to church. Can't do the higher things until you have the lower things. But the poor tend to be more religious than the rich. Both within a given culture, and across nations. So the theory makes the wrong prediction here. Or take education: how often do you hear "I can't go to class today, I haven't had sex in three days!"? Do all physiological needs including sex have to be satisfied before "higher" needs? (Besides, wouldn't the authors of the Kama Sutra argue that sex was a kind of self-expression more like art than a physiological need? that would put it in the self-actualization box). Again, the theory doesn't seem to predict correctly. Cultural critique: Does Maslow's classification really reflect the order in which needs are satisfied, or is it more about classifying needs from a kind of "tastefulness" perspective, with lofty goals like personal growth and creativity at the top, and "base" instincts like sex and hunger at the bottom? And is self-actualization actually a fundamental need? Or just something that can be done if you have the leisure time?

Alderfer's ERG theory

Alderfer classifies needs into three categories, also ordered hierarchically:

- a) Growth needs (development of competence and realization of potential)
- b) Relatedness needs (satisfactory relations with others)
- c) Existence needs (physical well-being)

This is very similar to Maslow -- can be seen as just collapsing into three tiers. But maybe a bit more rational. For example, in Alderfer's model, sex does not need to be in the bottom category as it is in Maslow's model, since it is not crucial to (the individual's) existence. (Remember, this about individual motivation, not species' survival.) So by moving sex, this theory does not predict that people have to have sex before they can think about going to school, like Maslow's theory does. Alderfer believed that as you start satisfying higher needs, they become more intense (e.g., the power you get the more you want power), like an addiction. Do any of these theories have anything useful to say for managing businesses? Well, if true, they suggest that

- Not everyone is motivated by the same things. It depends where you are in the hierarchy (think of it as a kind of personal development scale)
- The needs hierarchy probably mirrors the organizational hierarchy to a certain extent: top managers are more likely to motivate by self-actualization/growth needs than existence needs. (But try telling Bill Clinton that top executives are not motivated by sex and cheeseburgers...)

Acquired Needs Theory (McClelland)

Some needs are acquired as a result of life experiences

- Need for achievement, accomplish something difficult. as kids encouraged to do things for themselves.
- Need for affiliation, form close personal relationships. as kids rewarded for making friends.
- Need for power, control others. As kids, able to get what they want through controlling others. Again similar to Maslow and Alderfer.

These needs can be measured using the TAT (Thematic Apperception Test), which is a projection-style test based on interpreting stories that people tell about a set of pictures.

Cognitive Evaluation Theory

This theory suggests that there are actually two motivation systems: intrinsic and extrinsic that corresponds to two kinds of motivators:

- Intrinsic motivators: Achievement, responsibility and competence. Motivators that come from the actual performance of the task or job -- the intrinsic interest of the work.
- Extrinsic: pay, promotion, feedback, working conditions -- things that come from a person's environment, controlled by others.

One or the other of these may be a more powerful motivator for a given individual. Intrinsically motivated individuals perform for their own achievement and satisfaction. If they come to believe that they are doing some job because of the pay or the working conditions or some other

extrinsic reason, they begin to lose motivation. The belief is that the presence of powerful extrinsic motivators can actually reduce a person's intrinsic motivation, particularly if the extrinsic motivators are perceived by the person to be controlled by people. In other words, a boss who is always dangling this reward or that stick will turn off the intrinsically motivated people. Note that the intrinsic motivators tend to be higher on the Maslow hierarchy.

Equity Theory

Suppose employee A gets a 20% raise and employee B gets a 10% raise. Will both be motivated as a result? Will A be twice as motivated? Will B be negatively motivated? Equity theory says that it is not the actual reward that motivates, but the perception, and the perception is based not on the reward in isolation, but in comparison with the efforts that went into getting it, and the rewards and efforts of others. If everyone got a 5% raise, B is likely to feel quite pleased with her raise, even if she worked harder than everyone else. But if A got an even higher raise, B perceives that she worked just as hard as A, she will be unhappy. In other words, people's motivation results from a ratio of ratios: a person compares the ratio of reward to effort with the comparable ratio of reward to effort that they think others are getting. Of course, in terms of actually predicting how a person will react to a given motivator, this will get pretty complicated:

1. People do not have complete information about how others are rewarded. So they are going on perceptions, rumors, and inferences.
2. Some people are more sensitive to equity issues than others
3. Some people are willing to ignore short-term inequities as long as they expect things to work out in the long-term.

Reinforcement Theory

Operant Conditioning is the term used by B.F. Skinner to describe the effects of the consequences of a particular behavior on the future occurrence of that behavior. There are four types of Operant Conditioning: Positive Reinforcement, Negative Reinforcement, Punishment, and Extinction. Both Positive and Negative Reinforcement strengthen behavior while both Punishment and Extinction weaken behavior.

- Positive reinforcement. Strengthening a behavior. This is the process of getting goodies as a consequence of a behavior. You make a sale, you get a commission. You do a good job; you get a bonus & a promotion.
- Negative reinforcement. Strengthening a behavior. This is the process of having a stressor taken away as a consequence of a behavior. Long-term sanctions are removed from countries when their human rights records improve. (You see how successful that is!). Low status as geek at Salomon Brothers is removed when you make first big sale.
- Extinction. Weakening a behavior. This is the process of getting no goodies when do a behavior. So if person does extra effort, but gets no thanks for it, they stop doing it.
- Punishment. Weakening a behavior. This is the process of getting a punishment as a consequence of a behavior. Example: having your pay docked for lateness.

	Apply	Withhold
Reward	positive reinforcement (raise above	negative reinforcement (raise up to

	baseline)	baseline)
Stressor	punishment (bring down below baseline)	extinction (stay at baseline)

Reinforcement schedules.

The traditional reinforcement schedule is called a continuous reinforcement schedule. Each time the correct behavior is performed it gets reinforced. Then there is what we call an intermittent reinforcement schedule. There are fixed and variable categories.

The *Fixed Interval Schedule* is where reinforcement is only given after a certain amount of time has elapsed. So, if you decided on a 5 second interval then each reinforcement would occur at the fixed time of every 5 seconds.

The *Fixed Ratio Schedule* is where the reinforcement is given only after a predetermined number of responses. This is often seen in behavior chains where a number of behaviors have to occur for reinforcement to occur.

The *Variable Interval Schedule* is where the reinforcement is given after varying amounts of time between each reinforcement.

The *Variable Ratio Schedule* is where the reinforcement is given after a varying number of correct responses.

Fluctuating combinations of primary and secondary reinforcers fall under other terms in the variable ratio schedule; For example, Reinforcer delivered intermittently in a Randomized Order (RIR) or Variable Ratio with Reinforcement Variety (VRRV).

	Fixed	Variable
Interval	<p>give reward after first proper response following a specified time period</p> <p>(yearly raise)</p> <p>[short term]</p>	<p>give reward after a certain amt of time w/ the amt changing before the next reward</p> <p>(unexpected bonus based on merit)</p> <p>[medium term]</p>
Ratio	<p>punishment (subtract from baseline)</p> <p>(commissions or piecework pay)</p> <p>[medium term]</p>	<p>give reward after a number of responses, w/ that no. changing before the next reward</p> <p>(team-based)</p>

		bonus) [long term]
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Expectancy Theory (Vroom)

Expectancy theory originated in the 1930's, but at that time it was not related to work motivation. Vroom (1984) brought expectancy theory into the arena of motivation research and it looks at the role of motivation in the overall work environment. It is a cognitive /psychological theory. Each person is assumed to be rational decision maker who will expend effort on activities that leads to desired rewards. According to vroom(1962) some psychological factors (age, gender, salary, religion, length of service an work environment) must be given serious consideration because if any of this is not in place it will reflect in the worker's attitude to work and that can possibly bring low organizational commitment. This theory is meant to bring together many of the elements of previous theories. It combines the perceptual aspects of equity theory with the behavioral aspects of the other theories. Basically, it comes down to this "equation":

$$M = E * I * V$$

Or

$$\text{Motivation} = \text{expectancy} * \text{instrumentality} * \text{valence}$$

M (motivation) is the amount a person will be motivated by the situation they find themselves in.

It is a function of the following.

E (expectancy) = the person's perception that effort will result in performance. In other words, the person's assessment of the degree to which effort actually correlates with performance.

I (instrumentality) = the person's perception that performance will be rewarded/punished. I.e., the person's assessment of how well the amount of reward correlates with the quality of performance. (Note here that the model is phrased in terms of extrinsic motivation, in that it asks 'what are the chances I'm going to get rewarded if I do good job?'. But for intrinsic situations, we can think of this as asking 'how good will I feel if I can pull this off?').

V (valence) = the perceived strength of the reward or punishment that will result from the performance. If the reward is small, the motivation will be small, even if expectancy and instrumentality are both perfect (high).

Theories of Attitude

Several attitude change categorization schemes have been proposed in the literature (Eagly&Chaiken, 1993; O'Keefe, 1990), and most are similar. For this discussion, attitude theories have been organized into four categories

- Consistency theories
- Learning theories
- Social judgment theories
- Functional theories

The study of attitudes has been approached with varying emphases and methods during most of this century. Prior to World War II, the emphasis was on definition issues and attitude measurement. Most studies were of a survey nature and provided important correlation findings,

but little insight into causality. Experimental techniques such as control groups or comparison groups were notably absent (Himmelfarb&Eagly, 1974). This changed dramatically during World War H. Attitude change was an important topic of Army-sponsored research . Because of the influence of experimental psychologists such as Carl Hovland, true experimental techniques were used to study the persuasive effects of propaganda. The work of Hovland and his associates in the area of attitude change research was continued after the war at Yale University. Theories developed by this group served as an organizational framework for the study of attitude change (Hovland, Janis & Kelley, 1953; Himmelfarb&Eagly, 1974; Insko, 1967; O'Keefe, 1990). Most of Hovland's attitude change research can be considered classical. Most of this research and theory building approached the concept of attitude from the behaviorist perspective, and most research activities dealt with trying to relate attitudes to observable outcomes in learners.

Consistency Theories

The basic assumption of these theories is the need of the individual for consistency. There must be consistency between attitudes, between behaviors, and among attitudes and behaviors. A lack of consistency causes discomfort so that an individual attempts to ease the tension by adjusting attitudes or behaviors in order to once again achieve balance or consistency. One of the earliest consistency theories was balance theory (Himmelfarb&Eagly, 1974; Kiesler, Collins & Miller, 1969; O'Keefe, 1990). Relationships among the perceiver, another person, and an object are the main focus of balance theory (Heider, 1958). Relationships are either positive or negative, based on the cognitive perceptions of the perceiver. In this theory, there are eight possible configurations; four balanced and four unbalanced. Unbalanced states are recognized as being unstable. Under these conditions, perceivers attempt to restore balance by changing their attitudes toward objects or other persons. Two extensions of Heider's balance theory include the

work of Newcomb (1961) and that of Abelson (Abelson & Rosenberg, 1958). Newcomb studied interpersonal situations as well as cognitive balancing and transferred these ideas to research on the pressures for uniformity in groups. Abelson proposed four additional modes of restoring balance: (a) denial, (b) bolstering, (c) differentiation, and (d) transcendence (Himmelfarb & Eagly, 1974; Kiesler, Collins & Miller, 1969; Insko, 1967; O'Keefe, 1990). Establishing balance was critical to individuals. Attitude changes occurred when the individual attempted to reestablish balance by modifying their attitudes.

Affective-cognitive consistency theory examines the relationship between attitudes and beliefs (Rosenberg, 1956). An unstable state occurs when an individual's attitudes toward an object and knowledge about an object are inconsistent. Persuasive communications attempt to change the affective component of an attitude system by changing the cognitive component of attitude. In other words, providing an individual with new information that changes the cognitive component of attitude will tend to cause that individual to change overall attitudes toward an object. An alternative to Rosenberg's theory is Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957). While Rosenberg's theory deals with affect and cognition, Festinger's theory examines consistency among cognitive elements or beliefs about oneself, behavior, or environment. Dissonance occurs when elements are logically inconsistent or psychologically inconsistent because of cultural mores, specific opinions deviating from more encompassing opinions, or information or experiences that are contrary to previous information or experiences. Dissonance motivates the individual to reduce the dissonance and return to consonance. When faced with dissonance, the individual seeks to avoid situations or information that may increase dissonance.

To test dissonance theory, Festinger and Carlsmith (1959) reported on an experiment that is considered one of the most controversial ever conducted in the area of attitude change. It was also one of the most influential. This study led to numerous modified replications, including Simonson's (1977) study reported here earlier. The simple act of decision making creates dissonance, too. The magnitude of the dissonance is related to the importance of the decision and the attractiveness of both the chosen and the unchosen alternatives (O'Keefe, 1990). For example, hypermedia-based instructional systems, with their many learner choices, provide a great deal of decision making that may influence learner's attitudes in either a positive or negative direction, depending on the success and attractiveness of the decisions. One of the major criticisms of consistency theories is that there are too many of them. Since they all work from the similar theme of an individual's trying to maintain consistency, it has been suggested that the area would be stronger if the various sub theories were consolidated. Today, interest in dissonance theory specifically, and a consistency theory generally, has waned considerably in social psychology (Eagly&Chaiken, 1993). This loss of interest is, in part, due to the growth of understanding about the conditions and processes responsible for the phenomena dissonance theorists investigated. Researchers have a better understanding of the interactions between attitudes and opinions and actions and behaviors, so consistency theories that are not directly related to processes are of little interest to today's cognitive scientists who tend to be more process oriented than behaviorists who studied consistency theories.

Early Learning Theories

This section might more accurately be called *behavioral theories of attitude change*. These theories were also developed during the 1950s and 1960s. During this time, learning theories reflected behavioral psychology. A major commonality of these theories was their

emphasis on the stimulus characteristics of the communication situation. Staats' (Insko, 1967) work reflected the ideas of classical conditioning, and focused almost entirely on the formation of attitudes. Events in the environment create an emotional response in an individual. As new stimuli are consistently paired with old stimuli (events), the new stimuli develop the power to create an emotional response in the individual (O'Keefe, 1990). Learning theories of attitude change received major emphasis by Hovland and his associates in the Yale Communication Research Program (Hovland, Janis & Kelley, 1953). They proposed that opinions tended to persist unless the individual underwent some new learning experience. Persuasive communications that both present a question and suggest an answer serve as learning experiences. Acceptance of the suggested answer is dependent on the opportunity for mental rehearsal or practice of the attitude response, and on the number of incentives included in the communication. Hovland and his colleagues assumed that as people processed persuasive message content, they rehearsed the message's recommended attitudinal response, as well as their initial attitude. For attitude change to occur, more than rehearsal and practice had to take place. The Yale researchers emphasized the role of incentives and the drive-reducing aspects of persuasive messages as mechanisms for reinforcement, thereby creating acceptance of new beliefs and attitudes.

In the Yale model of attitude change emphasis is placed on attention, comprehension, and acceptance. An individual must attend to and comprehend the communication before acceptance can occur. It is during the attending and comprehending phases that the individual has the opportunity to practice the recommended new opinion. Practice alone does not lead to acceptance, but when combined with incentives and recommendations imbedded in the communication, attitude change is likely. Incentives are broadly defined by Hovland et al.

(1953). They could be direct financial or physical benefits (e.g., money, improved health), or they could take on more abstract forms such as the knowledge gain from persuasive arguments, social acceptance by others who are respected, or self-approval from the feeling that one is correct. Hovland and his associates identified three classes of variables that influenced the effectiveness of the message: (a) source characteristics, (b) setting characteristics, and (c) communication content elements. Research using the Yale model focuses on variables in one or more of these three classes. Examples include research in communicator credibility (trustworthiness and degree of expertness), fear-arousing appeals, and the placement of persuasive arguments within the communication (Himmelfarb & Eagly, 1974; Kiesler et al., 1969; Insko, 1967). A Skinnerian approach to the study of attitude change was employed by Bem (1967), whose major assumptions reflected the viewpoint that attitudes were learned as a result of previous experience with the environment.

Bem proposed that since the person trying to change attitudes usually lacked direct knowledge of the internal stimuli available to the learner, it was necessary to rely on external cues in order to reward and punish the individual. It was the combination of external cues and observable behaviors that produced changes in attitude (Himmelfarb & Eagly, 1974; Kiesler et al., 1969; Insko, 1967). Today, few attitude change theorists feel that the early research by Hovland and others has direct impact on current procedures (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). Newer research and theory building is directed toward approaches that emphasize multiple modes of processing information. However, these early researchers investigated basic issues, such as reinforcement, incentives, and drive-reduction constructs that are related to how motivational states influence information processing and persuasion. Early-learning theorists' efforts provided a foundation for more modern process models of attitude change.

Social Judgment Theory

Social judgment theory focuses on how people's prior attitudes distort their perceptions of the positions advocated in persuasive messages, and how such perceptions mediate persuasion. In general terms, the theory assumes that a person's own attitudes serve as a judgmental standard and anchor that influences where along a continuum a persuader's advocated position is perceived to lie (Sherif&Hovland, 1961). Social judgment theory- is an attempt to apply the principles of judgment to the study of attitude change. According to Sherriff, Sheriff, and Nebergall (1965), an individual's initial attitude serves as an anchor for the judgment of related attitude communications. Opinions are evaluated against this point of reference and are placed on an attitudinal continuum. Opinions that most characterized the individual's own opinion are in the latitude of acceptance. Those opinions found most objectionable are placed in the latitude of rejection. The latitude of no commitment consists of those opinions that are neither accepted nor rejected. Communication that falls within the latitude of acceptance is assimilated, and if judged to be fair and unbiased will result in a change in attitude, within the limits of the latitude of acceptance, the greater the difference between the initial opinion and the communicated opinion, the greater the attitude change. Though some change is possible when Opinions fall within the latitude of rejection, the greater the discrepancy the less the change in attitude (Himmelfarb&Eagly, 1974; Kiesler et al., 1.969; Insko, 1.967). Social judgment theory's core propositions can be summarized as follows (Eagly&Chaiken, 1993):

1. A person's current attitude serves as a judgmental anchor for new attitude positions.
2. Latitude widths determine whether a message's position will be assimilated or contrasted (e.g., accepted or rejected). Positions falling within the latitude of acceptance will be

assimilated toward a person's current attitude. Positions falling within the latitude of rejection will be contrasted away from the person's own attitude.

3. Ego involvement of a person broadens the latitude of rejection and narrows the latitude of non commitment.
4. Both assimilation and contrast effects increase as a positive function of a message's position and the recipient's attitude,
5. Ego involvement increases the anchoring property of initial attitudes.
6. Greater assimilation produces more positive evaluation of message content, which produces greater amounts of attitude change. Conversely, greater contrast produces more negative evaluations of message content, which produces lesser amounts of attitude change.
7. Ambiguity enhances the likelihood of judgmental distortions. Therefore, other effects are greater when recipients are exposed to persuasive messages whose content positions are ambiguous.

In summary, social judgment theory predictions for attitude change are largely home out by the research literature and by practice. Recently however, researchers have questioned the basic principles of social judgment theory and how the theory's principles relate to one another. Social judgment theory is important because it demonstrates the importance of people's prior attitudes. Most other approaches only deal marginally with previous attitudes. Newer theories incorporate social judgment principles as covariates and control variables in experimental designs (Wood, 1982).

Functional Theories

A fundamental question about attitudes concerns their purpose: That is, what functions do attitudes serve? Understanding the purposes of attitudes is the identifying characteristic of functional theories. Attitudes serve different functions for different individuals or for the same individual in different settings. The reasons for attitude changes are individualized and related to personal functions of attitudes. Functional theories of attitude entered the literature in the 1950s when researchers developed the idea that attitudes served varying psychological needs and thus had variable motivational bases. A common and central theme of these early efforts was the listing of the specific personality functions that attitudes served for individuals. Unlike other theoretical approaches developed during this golden decade of attitude research, functional theories are still relevant and important today (Eagly&Chaiken, 1993).Functional theories hold that successful persuasion entails implementing change procedures that match the functional basis of the attitude one is trying to change. Katz (1960) proposed that any attitude held by an individual served one or more of the four distinct personality functions. The more of these functions that contributed to an attitude system, the stronger and less likely it were that the attitude could be changed. Katz (1960) identified four personality functions of attitudes as follows: (a) utilitarian function, (b) knowledge function, (c) ego-defensive function, and (d) value-expressive function. In order for attitude change to occur, there must be a discrepancy between the need being met by the attitude and the attitude itself. Attitude change is accomplished by recognizing the function of the attitude for the individual and designing strategies to produce a disparity between the attitude and one or more of the attitude functions.

The *utilitarian function* acknowledges the behaviorist principle that people are motivated to gain rewards and avoid punishments from their environment. Utilitarian attitudes are instrumental in

securing positive outcomes or preventing negative ones. For example, parents' opposition to busing might be based on the utilitarian belief that it would be harmful to their child. Often, utilitarian beliefs are associations to stimuli. For example, children often acquire a positive feeling about the month of December because they associate it with holidays, presents, and vacations (Eagly&Chaiken, 1993).

The *knowledge function* -of attitudes presumes a basic human need to gain a meaningful, stable, and organized view of the world. Attitudes supply a standard for organizing and simplifying perceptions of a complex and ambiguous environment. Attitudes provide a way of sizing up objects and events so they can be reacted to in a meaningful way. If people's attitudes toward school are positive, then when they are asked about schools they will be likely to say positive things without needing to "think about it too much."

Katz's *ego-defensive-function* emphasizes the psychoanalytic principle that people use defense mechanisms such as denial, repression, and projection to protect their self-concepts against internal and external threats. People protect their feelings by developing convenient, if sometimes biased, attitudes that do not require active involvement in threatening or unfamiliar situations. For example, a high school student may think: "Chemistry is for nerds, and I do not want to be a nerd; that is why I do not like chemistry." Or a student might think: "Only really smart people study chemistry, and I study chemistry, so I must be really smart; that is why I like chemistry. Finally, Katz's *value-expressive function* acknowledges the importance of self-expression and self-actualization. Attitudes are a means for expressing personal values and other aspects of self-concept. A person who draws self-esteem from being a liberal and an environmentalist is motivated to hold attitudes that reflect these ideologies (Eagly&Chaiken, 1993).The central theme of functional theories is that changing an attitude requires

understanding its motivational basis, or its function for the individual. Knowing what function an attitude performs for a person helps guide the designer of the persuasive message who wants to change the attitude. Whatever function attitudes perform they provide a frame of reference for comprehending and categorizing objects, persons, and events, and only by understanding an attitude's function can attitude change efforts be successful. An alternative and related theory looks at social relationships that occur in social influence situations. Kelman (1958) looked at three processes of opinion change: (a) compliance, (b) identification, and (c) internalization. Compliance results in only a surface level change. Attitudes are changed only to receive a favorable reaction from another person or group. This attitude is only expressed when the other person is present. The attitude change resulting from identification occurs both publicly and privately but does not become part of the person's value system. The change is dependent on the relationship with the source but not with the source's presence. Attitudes that are internalized become part of an individual's value system. McGuire's (1964) inoculation theory is concerned with resistance to change. Research in this area investigates the treatments individuals could receive which would allow them to resist successfully attacks on their belief systems. An analogy is drawn from the biological process of inoculation. Once people are inoculated, they are immune when exposed to the disease. Attitudes are often established in a relatively "germ-free" environment, free from attack. Thus, the individual has little chance to develop resistance to future attacks. McGuire's research strategy was to expose the individual to mild attacks in a control setting in order to motivate the individual to defend his or her beliefs (Himmelfarb & Eagly, 1974; Kiesler et al., 1969; Insko, 1967). Functional theories are in the mainstream of attitude research. Their theoretical approaches remain conceptually intriguing to investigators because of their breadth and unique focus on the functional bases for attitudes. Functional theories provide a link between the behavioral theories proposed during the 1950s

(consistency theories, early-learning theories, social judgment theories) and the processing and cognitive themes of more recent theorizing. Attitude and persuasion research is a major area of interest to those in social psychology. Theory building has been characteristic of this research. Only a fraction of this literature has been reviewed in this section of this chapter; however, the information presented provides a basis for information presented later. These theories, especially the functional theories discussed last, provide guidance to the development of recommendations for the design of persuasive messages delivered by media.

Table 1. Overview of the theories of attitude formation and change

Theory	Basic Premise(s)	Suggested Intervention(s)
Behavioral	Learning occurs when behavior is positively reinforced.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide training and/or behavior reinforcement with desired attitudes. • Provide positive reinforcement.
Cognitive dissonance	Unstable state created when attitudes inconsistent with behavior.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create dissonance. • Provide means to reduce dissonance (free to make attractive choice).
Affective-cognitive consistency	Unstable state created when attitudes inconsistent with knowledge.	Change cognitive component first by providing new information.
Social judgment	Existing attitudes surrounded by attitude of acceptance.	Incremental provision of messages within (even) shifting attitude of acceptance.
Social learning	Individual learns attitudes by observing and imitating the behavior of others.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide powerful models. • Multiple models doing same thing.
Functional Koriat's theory	Purpose: attitude serves for person who holds it; determines best method for changing it; intensity of goal; attitude null through subjective change.	Acknowledge ego-defensive role of attitudes related to self-concept; Learning at a given level depends on prior learning at lower levels.

Work attitude

A work attitude is a set of evaluations of one's job that constitute one's feelings toward, beliefs about, and attachment to one's job. Overall job attitude can be conceptualized in two ways. Either as affective job satisfaction that constitutes a general or global subjective feeling about a job, or as a composite of objective cognitive assessments of specific job facets, such as pay, conditions, opportunities and other aspects of a particular job. Employees evaluate their advancement opportunities by observing their job, their occupation, and their employer. Research demonstrates that interrelationships and complexities underlie what would seem to be the simply defined term job attitudes. The long history of research into job attitudes suggests there is no commonly agreed upon definition. There are both cognitive and affective aspects, which need not be in correspondence with each other. Job attitude should also not be confused with the broader

term attitude, because attitude is defined as a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor, whereas job attitude is a particular instance as an entity. In the definition above, the term "job" involves one's current position, one's work or one's occupation, and one's employer as its entity. However, one's attitude towards his/her work does not necessarily have to be equal with one's attitudes towards his/her employer, and these two factors often diverge.

Attitudes to work also vary between age groups. Young people deviate more from the pattern than other groups. To a greater extent, they report that the salary is their main reason for working, and as a group, they feel less attached to their workplace and less loyal to their employer. Further, a higher proportion of young people do not consider an interesting job one of the most important aspects of life, and they value their time off work more highly. Thus, young people have a more instrumental attitude; both in relative and absolute terms, to work. We have just seen that women to a greater extent than men consider an interesting job to be one of the most important aspects of life. Among young people, we find the opposite. Young men are more work-oriented, whilst a greater number of young women consider family, relatives and friends to among the most important things in life. Young people thus appear to have a more traditional view than older generations as regards the relative attitude to work. This differs from findings reported by Bi Puranen. According to her, girls emphasize the importance of having an interesting job, whilst boys stress the importance of having someone to love and live with. However, her findings are based on answers from high school students aged about 18 without much work experience. Other variables that reveal differences are ethnicity, type of industry, level of employment, and experience of unemployment. Results shows that those born outside Sweden, and, in particular, those born outside Scandinavia, are more likely to have an

instrumental attitude. Attitudes to work vary between people in different sectors. A comparison between the public and private sectors reveals these differences. More people in the public sector have a committed attitude to work than in the private sector. If we consider different types of businesses, we find even greater differences. The strongest instrumental attitudes are found among those working in the retail trade, restaurants and hotels and in the mining and manufacturing industries, and the committed attitude is strongest among those in banking, insurance and public administration and other services.

A somewhat rash but illustrative summary of the differences in attitudes in relation to level of employment would be to say that the instrumental attitude increases as working hours decrease. A higher proportion of those who work part-time and, in particular, of those who are employed less than 50 per cent say that they only work for money. This is surprising considering the gender differences we have seen so far. We know that it is primarily women who work part-time, and it would therefore be logical to expect that these groups would show a greater commitment to their work. 14 per cent of the respondents have been unemployed at some point during the last five years. There is a remarkable difference in attitude between those with and without experience of unemployment. Those who have experienced unemployment more often report that they only work for money.

The examples that I have given relate to the question whether one only works for money, or because work gives one a sense of personal satisfaction. These differences are also valid for the relative centrality of work. The overall impression produced by my findings, with the few exceptions I have discussed above, is that the differences between different categories follow the same pattern for all the dependent variables. They may vary in level and intensity but the overall tendency is the same. Earlier research has indicated three types of explanation for attitudes

towork. There are those who maintain that these attitudes are closely linked to societal circumstances, for example urbanization, the high level of welfare and the productivity of industry. Others claim that they are determined by factors outside work, such as gender, family situation and social class. Attitudes to work do differ between different categories of people. However, this does not necessarily mean that the differences between people explain their different attitudes to work. Other hidden variables can sometimes explain gender and class differences.

Types

Global

Global job attitudes are attitudes developed towards a job through the organization, working environment, affective disposition, aggregate measures of job characteristics and the social environment. They depend on the broad totality of work conditions. In fact, job attitudes are also closely associated with more global measures of life satisfaction. Scales such as "Faces" enable researchers to interpret overall satisfaction with work. The Job in General scale focuses on the cognitive perspective (rather than applied) of the effects of job attitudes. A variety of job attributes are associated with different levels of satisfaction within global job attitudes.

Other types

1. Job Involvement: Identifying with one's job and actively participating in it, and considering performance important to self-worth.
2. Organizational Commitment: Identifying with a particular organization and its goals, and wishing to maintain membership in the organization.

3. Perceived Organizational Support (POS): The degree to which employees feel the organization cares about their well-being.
4. Employee Engagement: An individual's involvement with, satisfaction with, and enthusiasm for the organization.

Affective

Affective job satisfaction is a singular construct comprising an overall emotional feeling about a job as a whole or in general. Affective job satisfaction is measured with items addressing the extent to which individuals subjectively and emotively like their job overall, not a composite of how individuals cognitively assess two or more specific aspects of their job. The 4-item Brief Index of Affective Job Satisfaction has been developed to produce a purely affective as opposed to cognitive measure of overall affective job satisfaction.

Job facet satisfaction

Job facet satisfaction refers to feelings about specific job aspects, such as salary, benefits, and relationships with co-workers.

- Satisfaction with work: The emotional state of a worker while working is critical to job attitudes. Although a person may self-identify in terms of profession, for example as a doctor, lawyer or engineer, it is their well being at work which is significant in characterizing job attitude. Satisfaction with work can be analyzed by evaluation (I like or dislike my job), cognitively (my work is challenging) and behaviorally (I am reliable).

- Supervision: Supervision has a significant relationship with productivity. However, supervision can only be taken positively with acceptance. Therefore, it is important to ensure a positive attitude to work.
- Co-workers: Co-workers are a common source of job stress, as demonstrated by studies using role theory.
- Pay and promotion: Given employee commitment and organizational personality orientation, compensation and advancement function as positive reinforcement, demonstrating that the worker is valued and reinforcing loyalty. Influencing factors are

Emotional exhaustion

Interpersonal conflict affects job attitudes: cut-throat competition resulted in a bitter relationship with co-workers. The exacerbated stress leads to emotional exhaustion, and this negatively affects job attitude.

Personality

Subordinates' job attitude, such as job satisfaction and turnover intention, does not influence "satisfaction with the supervisor". The supervisor's personality strongly influences the subordinate's "satisfaction with the supervisor". Personality traits of the supervisor, in particular agreeableness, extroversion and emotional stability, are positively related to subordinate attitude and have a greater effect on subordinate satisfaction with supervision than do more general work-related attitudes. Supervisor agreeableness and emotional stability were positively related with employee satisfaction with the supervisor, and supervisor extroversion was negatively correlated with turnover intentions.

2.2 RELATED STUDIES /LITERATURE REVIEW.

Bernard in Stoner, et al. (1995) accords due recognition to the needs of workers saying that, "the ultimate test of organizational success is its ability to create values sufficient to compensate for the burdens imposed upon resources contributed." Bernard looks at workers, in particular librarians, in an organized Endeavour, putting in time and efforts for personal, economic, and non-economic satisfaction. In this era of the information superhighway, employers of information professionals or librarians must be careful to meet their needs. Otherwise, they will discover they are losing their talented and creative professionals to other organizations who are ready and willing to meet their needs and demands. The question here is what strategies can be used to motivate information professionals, particularly librarians? The following are strategies:

Salary, Wages and Conditions of Service: To use salaries as a motivator effectively, personnel managers must consider four major components of a salary structures. These are the job rate, which relates to the importance the organization attaches to each job; payment, which encourages workers or groups by rewarding them according to their performance; personal or special allowances, associated with factors such as scarcity of particular skills or certain categories of information professionals or librarians, or with long service; and fringe benefits such as holidays with pay, pensions, and so on. It is also important to ensure that the prevailing pay in other library or information establishments is taken into consideration in determining the pay structure of their organization.

Akintoye (2000) asserts that money remains the most significant motivational strategy. As far back as 1911, Frederick Taylor and his scientific management associate described money as the most important factor in motivating the industrial workers to achieve greater productivity.

Taylor advocated the establishment of incentive wage systems as a means of stimulating workers to higher performance, commitment, and eventually satisfaction. Money possesses significant motivating power in as much as it symbolizes intangible goals like security, power, prestige, and a feeling of accomplishment and success. Katz, in Sinclair, et al. (2005) demonstrates the motivational power of money through the process of job choice. He explains that money has the power to attract, retain, and motivate individuals towards higher performance. For instance, if a librarian or information professional has another job offer which has identical job characteristics with his current job, but greater financial reward, that worker would in all probability be motivated to accept the new job offer. Banjoko (1996) states that many managers use money to reward or punish workers. This is done through the process of rewarding employees for higher productivity by instilling fear of loss of job (e.g., premature retirement due to poor performance). The desire to be promoted and earn enhanced pay may also motivate employees. It is worth considering how employee engagement levels vary across occupations, industries and globally. Much of the available international evidence comes from Gallup, which has conducted Employee Engagement Index surveys in many countries. We would argue that cross-national comparisons of levels of employee engagement should be treated with some caution due to cultural and definitional differences.

Americans in the workforce are not fully engaged or they are disengaged. Furthermore, a Global Workforce Survey conducted in 2005 by consultancy firm Towers Perrin found disconcerting findings, again in the USA (Seijts and Crim 2006). The survey involved about 85,000 people who worked full-time for large and mid-sized firms; it found only 14 per cent of all employees worldwide were highly engaged in their job. The survey also indicated that on a country-by-country basis, the percentages of highly engaged, moderately engaged, and actively

disengaged employees varied considerably. Moreover, the results showed some interesting, perhaps counter-intuitive, findings. For example, Mexico and Brazil have the highest percentages of engaged employees, while Japan and Italy have the largest percentages of disengaged employees. It is argued that global research will help employers gauge their employees' level of engagement against the norm for their own country (ISR 2004). Previous research (Hofstede 1997) has shown that organizations must adapt to different cultural values and norms when it comes to attracting, motivating and retaining staff. ISR's (2004) study identified four issues as global factors in managing engagement; career development, leadership, empowerment, and image (which refers to the company's image to customers and the public). Career development was found to influence engagement for employees in each of the ten countries studied, with the key message being organizations with high levels of engagement provide employees with opportunities to develop their abilities, learn new skills, acquire new knowledge and realize their potential. The logic behind this is that when companies invest in their people in this way, their people invest in them. The research also identified the need for empowerment; employees want to be involved in decisions that affect their work. It was found that leaders of high-engagement workplaces do not create fear or blame cultures, where employees are reluctant to express their ideas or exercise their initiative. Instead, they create a trusting and challenging environment, in which employees are encouraged to input and innovate to move the organization forward.

A useful comparison between a range of demographic segments, from job level (senior executive, director/manager, supervisor/foreman, specialist/professional, non-management salaried and non-management hourly) to industry category (non-profit, high tech, heavy manufacturing, insurance, pharmaceuticals, hospital and finance/banking) was carried out by researchers at Towers Perrin (2003), who found a pattern across the segments. Each group had only a small group of highly engaged respondents, a slightly larger disengaged group, with the

majority in the 'moderately engaged group'. However, in each case there was one exception to the pattern that is worth noting; senior executives were found to be more highly engaged than any other group and were less likely to be disengaged. Cynics might suggest this may be linked to income level and, while this certainly emerged as important in this study, it was not the only contributory factor.

More important were role characteristics, such as challenge, authority, autonomy, stimulation, access to information, resources and growth opportunities, that research has shown are linked to high levels of engagement. The lowest levels of engagement have been found among hourly workers, who arguably have the least control or influence over their jobs and work experience. Across industries, engagement is substantially higher in the non-profit sector than in every other sector looked at by Towers Perrin (2003). This would appear logical, given that people tend to be drawn to this sector through a sense of mission, rather than from any prospect of high pay or wealth accumulation. This finding is also consistent with the numerous definitions and views surrounding engagement, which identifies a 'passion for work' as being a key component factor (Truss et al 2006, Brim 2002 and Holbeche and Springett 2003). Indeed, the fact that the sector is traditionally not a high-paying one, relative to the others studied, emphasizes the fact that it is not possible to 'buy' engagement in the conventional sense by offering better than average monetary awards. Conversely, in another study comparing the public and private sectors, Truss et al (2006) found that group in the public sector had a more negative experience of work, they reported more bullying and harassment than those in the private sector, and were less satisfied with the opportunities they had to use their abilities. This reinforces the findings of previous studies and underlines the scale of the challenge facing public sector managers in particular, and the negative impact that bullying and harassment have on employees and their levels of engagement (Emmott 2006). One way managers can stimulate motivation is to give

relevant information on the consequences of their actions on others (Olajide, 2000). To this researcher it seems that there is no known organization in which people do not usually feel there should be improvement in the way departments communicate, cooperate, and collaborate with one another. Information availability brings to bear a powerful peer pressure, where two or more people running together will run faster than when running alone or running without awareness of the pace of the other runners. By sharing information, subordinates compete with one another.

Studies on work motivation seem to confirm that it improves workers' performance and satisfaction. For example, Brown and Shepherd (1997) examine the characteristics of the work of teacher-librarians in four major categories: knowledge base, technical skills, values, and beliefs. He reports that they will succeed in meeting this challenge only if they are motivated by deeply-held values and beliefs regarding the development of a shared vision. Vinokur, Jayarantne, and Chess (1994) examine agency-influenced work and employment conditions, and assess their impact on social workers' job satisfaction. Some motivational issues were salary, fringe benefits, job security, physical surroundings, and safety. Certain environmental and motivational factors are predictors of job satisfaction. While Colvin (1998) shows that financial incentives will get people to do more of what they are doing, Silver throne (1996) investigates motivation and managerial styles in the private and public sector. The results indicate that there is a little difference between the motivational needs of public and private sector employees, managers, and non-managers.

Dornstein and Matalon (1998) describe eight variables that are relevant to organizational commitment. These are interesting work, coworker's attitudes towards the organization, organizational dependency, age, education, employment alternatives, attitude of family and friends. The variables explain 65% of the variance in organizational commitment. Glisson and

Derrick in Adeyemo and Aremu (1999) in their study of 319 human service organization workers analyzed the effects of multiple predictors (job, organization, and worker characteristics) on satisfaction and commitment. They showed that skill variety and role ambiguity are best predictors of satisfaction, while leadership and the organization's age is the best predictor of commitment. Ellemer, Gilder, and Heuvel (1998) found that background variables as gender, level of education, or team size were not clearly related to three forms of commitment. Adeyemo (2000) reported a positive correlation between education and organizational commitment. Irving, Coleman, and Cooper (1997) found that age was not related to organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1984) earlier argued that age might be correlated with commitment by postulating that it serves as proxy for seniority that is associated with opportunity to better one's position in the work. On the issue of gender, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported its relationship to organizational commitment. Similarly, it was found by Irving, et, al. (1997) that the men in their sample had higher level of commitment than the women.

2.3 STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

- i. Gender will significantly influence organizational commitment
- ii. Gender will significantly influence Attitude to work of workers
- iii. There will be positive relationship between work environment and organizational commitment.
- iv. There will be a negative relationship between work environment and attitude to work among workers.
- v. Workers with long length of service will significantly report higher organizational commitment than those with short length of service.

vi. Workers with short length of service will significantly report positive attitude to work than workers with long length of service.

vii. Older workers will significantly report higher organizational commitment than young workers.

Viii. Younger workers will significantly report positive Attitude to work than old workers.

2.4. OPERATIONAL DEFINATION OF TERMS.

Attitude to work: This is a dependent variable in the study. It was measured on the section B of the questionnaire. The close ended item required respondents to tick either positive or negative attitude they often had to work. It was measured using a scale developed by RAVI VANGALA (2011) attitude to work scale. The item required workers to tick using a 5-point rating scale by likert ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree(5). higher scores indicate higher level of attitude to work.

Organizational commitment: This is the second dependent variable in the study. it was also measured by single item on the section C of the questionnaire. It was a close ended questionnaire. This variable was measured using a 24-item Organizational Commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). The scale has 5 – point Likert response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores indicate higher level of organizational commitment.

Demographical Factors: These are personal characteristics used in collect and evaluate data on a people in a given population. E.g age, gender, length of service and work environment. These factors can influence how a person relate and later affect his decisions and relations in his daily life. This is an independent variable Inthe study. it was measured in the section (A) of

the questionnaire. The item required workers to tick using a 5-point rating scale developed by Likert.

Age: This refers to the length of time during which a being or thing has existed; length of life or existence to the time spoken of or referred to: trees of unknown age; His age is 20 years. can be said to be a period of human life, measured by years from birth, usually marked by a certain stage or degree of mental or physical development and involving legal responsibility and capacity: the age of discretion; the age of consent; or the particular period of life at which a person becomes naturally or conventionally qualified or disqualified for anything. This is an independent variable in the study. it will be measured with a single item on the questionnaire.

Gender: Gender refers to the personal sexual identity of an individual, regardless of the person's biological and outward sex. This is defined as whether the respondent is a male or female as indicated by the questionnaire in section A.

Length of service: Refers to duration of service or employment, Often used to indicate how long an employee has worked at a company or an individual has belonged to an organization. This will be indicated by the respondent in the questionnaire.

Work environment: The term work environment is used to describe the surrounding conditions in which an employee operates. The work environment can be composed of physical conditions, such as office temperature, or equipment, such as personal computers. It can also be related to factors such as work processes or procedures. The work environment can involve the social interactions at the workplace, including interactions with peers, subordinates, and managers. Generally, and within limits, employees are entitled to a work environment that is free from harassment. A hostile work environment exists when unwelcome sexual conduct interferes with an employee's job performance, or creates a hostile, intimidating, or offensive work environment. This will be indicated in the questionnaire in section A

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN.

This study employs the ex-post facto research design. It implies that none of the variables were actually manipulated. The independent variables in the study are demographical factors gender, age, length of service, and work environment. The dependent variables are attitude to work and organizational commitment.

3.2 SETTING

The research took place in two Universities in Ekiti State namely Federal University, Oye-Ekiti and Ekiti State University in Ado-Ekiti. Ekiti State is made up of 18 local government of which Oye and Ado is inclusive. Federal University Oye-Ekiti is a new Federal University with less than 3000 students having more than 100 lecturers with four faculties and two campuses. Ekiti State University is a State University having more than 7000 students with a minimum of 1000 lecturers having five faculties and two campuses.

3.3 SAMPLING TECHNIQUE.

The sampling technique used for selecting the employees was the accidental sampling technique. The technique was used because the researcher could not have access to all staff members of the two Universities, so those approached and volunteered to participate in the study actually completed the questionnaire.

3.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLE.

The study population consisted of academic staff from two universities in Ekiti State, Federal University Oye-Ekiti and Ekiti State University Ado-Ekiti. These categories have been chosen because these are the public Universities available in Ekiti State. Initially 210 questionnaires were administered while total number of 103 questionnaires were retrieved from the two Universities. However 3 questionnaires were discarded because of incomplete information, therefore, 100 was used for the study, this means that a total of 100 academic staff participated in the study. They consisted of male and female with age ranged between 28 years to 56 years with mean of 35.6. The accidental sampling technique was found appropriate in the study because the researcher could not have access to all workers in various faculties and departments, so those that volunteered to participate in the study actually completed the questionnaire. The Accidental sampling method was used to select participant from the various faculties in both Universities. The selection was done as follows:

FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE EKITI

FACULTY	DEPARTMENT	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANT
AGRICULTURE	ANIMAL SCIENCE	8
	AGRIC ECONMIES	7
	CROP SCIENCE	5
	TOTAL	20
ENGINEERING	MECHANICAL	7
	ELECTRICAL\ELECTRONICS	3
	MECHTRONICS	2
	WATER RESOURCES AND METROLOGY	4
	TOTAL	15

SCIENCE	BIOCHEMISTRY	9
	MICROBIOLOGY	4
	ANIMAL ENVIRONMENTAL BTH	9
	TOTAL	22
HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES	PSYCHOLOGY	5
	DEMOGRAPHY AND SOC STAT.	10
	SOCIOLOGY	8
	ENGLISH AND LIT.STUDIES	2
	THEATER AND MEDIA ARTS	3
	TOTAL	28

EKITI STATE UNIVERSITY, ADO- EKITI

FACULTY	DEPARTMENT	NUMBER OF PARTICIPANT
SOCIAL SCIENCE	PSYCHOLOGY	
	TOTAL	5
ENGINEERING	MECHANICAL	
	TOTAL	5
SCIENCE	MATHEMATICS	
	TOTAL	5

3.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Two standardized questionnaire were used to collect data in the study. They are organizational commitment scale (OC) and Attitude to work scale (AWS). The questionnaires were divided into sections namely:

Section A: DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

These include participant's characteristics such as age, gender, length of service and environment

Section B: ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT SCALE

This section measures organizational commitment as work attitude using a 24-item Organizational Commitment scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1991). The scale has 5 – point Likert response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores indicate higher level of organizational commitment. The authors reported a reliability coefficient of 0.75. In the present study, the researcher obtained Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.71

SECTION C: ATTITUDE TO WORK SCALE

Attitude to work was measured using a scale adopted from Ravi Vangala Attitude questionnaire (2011). It is a 20 item attitude to work scale. The scale has 5 – point Likert response format ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Higher scores indicate positive attitude to work. The instrument was subjected to both face and content validity through the use of experts in psychometrics to validate. The Test-retest reliability coefficient of the instrument was 0.76 while its Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was 0.55.

3.6 PROCEDURE.

Questionnaire was used to collect data from participants of the study. The researcher sought the permission of the Heads of Departments from both Universities. The Heads of Departments further briefed members of staff on the research purposes. Three members of staff assisted in the distribution of the questionnaires. Participants were accidentally sampled across the various departments in the two universities. The staff members that were willing to participate were given the questionnaire and were encouraged to fill them. The administration and collection of the questionnaire took three weeks. The questionnaire items were very direct and easy to understand. It took each participant a minimum of 10 minutes to complete but some took it home. A total of 210 questionnaires were distributed but 103 were retrieved. However, only 100 that were properly completed were used for data analysis.

3.7 STATISTICAL TOOLS/TECHNIQUES/METHOD.

The data collected were subjected to analysis using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Demographic variables were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, and percentage and frequency distribution table. Hypotheses stated were tested using inferential statistics. Six hypotheses stated in the study were tested using t-test for independent group to determine group difference and the other two hypotheses were using one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA).

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

Hypothesis one which state that Gender will have significant influence on organizational commitment.

Table 4.1: T-test for independent Group showing Gender and organizational commitment. It explains hypotheses 1 and 2.

Group Statistics

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	T	P
OrganizationalCommitment	Male	66	53.09	17.49	98	3.29	<.05
	Female	34	41.50	14.95			
AttitudetoWork	Male	66	48.80	12.93	98	1.84	<.05
	Female	34	43.82	12.64			

From Table 4.1,the result shows that gender has significant influence on organizational commitment($t=3.29$. $df= 98$. $p<.05$).This suggest that male participant ($X =53.09$) reported higher organizational commitment than female participants($X=41.50$).hypothesis is accepted.

Hypothesis two which stated that gender will have significant influence on attitude to work of workers. Table 4.1: t-test for independent group showing gender and attitude to work.From table 4.1,the result shows that Gender has no significant influence on Attitude to work ($t=1.84$; $df=98$; $p>.05$). This suggest that male participants ($X=48.80$) were not significantly different from female participant($X=43.82$).Therefore, hypothesis two is rejected.

Hypothesis three which stated that work environment will significantly influence organizational commitment among workers.

Table 4.3: of one-way Anova showing the influence of work Environment on Organizational commitment. This table also explains hypothesis 3 and 4.

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Organizational Commitment	Between Groups	1877.399	2	938.699	3.205	.045
	Within Groups	28409.351	97	292.880		
	Total	30286.750	99			
Attitude to Work	Between Groups	187.283	2	93.642	.550	.579
	Within Groups	16504.507	97	170.150		
	Total	16691.790	99			

Table 4.3 shows that work environment significantly influence organizational commitment among workers ($F(2,97)=3.21; p<.05$). The result indicates that participants who perceived average work environment ($X=52.91$) significantly reported higher organizational commitment than those with good ($X=44.27$) and poor ($X=43.92$) respectively. Hypothesis three is accepted.

Hypothesis four which state that there will be a negative relationship between work environment and Attitude to work. The result is presented in table 4.3 From table 4.3: of one-way ANOVA showing the influence of work environment on Attitude to work among workers. Table 4.4 shows that work environment did not significantly influence attitude towards work ($F(2,97)=0.55; P>.05$). The results indicates that participants who perceived work environment averagely ($X=48.29$) were not significantly different in attitude towards work from those who perceived poor ($X=45.61$) and good ($X=45.50$) respectively. Hypothesis four is rejected.

Hypothesis five which stated that workers with long length of service will significantly report higher organizational commitment than those with short length of service.

Table 4.5: T-test for independent group showing length of service and organizational commitment. This table explains hypothesis 5 and 6.

Variables.	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	T	P
Organizational commitment	Long	23	48.52	16.51	88	-0.50	>.05
	short	67	50.58	17.27			
Attitude to Work	long	23	45.26	11.11	88	-0.11	p>.05
	short	67	48.69	13.30			

Result from table 4.5 showed that length of service did not significantly influence organizational commitment. ($t=-0.50$; $df=88$; $p>.05$). This result suggests that workers with long length of service ($X=48.52$) were significantly different in organizational commitment from workers with short length of service ($X=50.58$). Therefore, hypothesis five is rejected.

Hypothesis six which states that workers with short length of service will significantly report positive attitude to work than workers with long length of service. From Table 4.5, The result showed that length of service did not have significant influence on Attitude to work. ($t=-0.11$; $df=88$; $p>.05$). This suggests that workers with short length of service ($X=48.69$) were not significantly different in Attitude from workers with long length of service ($X=45.26$). Therefore, hypothesis six is rejected.

Hypothesis seven which states that old workers will significantly report higher organizational commitment than young workers.

Table 4.7:T-test for independent group showing age and organizational commitment. This table explains hypothesis 7 and 8

Variables	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Df	T	P
Organizational commitment	old	36	51.86	18.49	78	0.90	<.05
	young	44	48.48	15.01			
Attitude to Work	Old	36	46.86	12.11	78	-1.78	<.05
	young	44	46.93	12.37			

Result in table 4.7 showed that age did not significantly influence organizational commitment. ($t=0.90$; $df=78$; $p>.05$) This suggest that old workers ($X=51.86$) were not significantly different in organizational from young workers ($X=48.48$). Therefore hypothesis seven is rejected.

Hypothesis eight which stated that younger workers will report positive Attitude to work than old workers. From table 4.7, Result show that age did not have significant influence on Attitude to work ($t=-1.78$; $df=78$; $p>.05$). This result suggest that old workers ($X=46.86$) were not significantly different in attitude to work from young workers ($X=46.93$). Therefore hypothesis eight is rejected.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 DISCUSSION.

This investigated the influence of age,gender,work environment and length of service on organizational commitment and workers attitude in Ekiti State. The researcher's purpose in this study was to explain the influence of the mentioned demographic variables on commitment and work Attitude among Academic workers in Ekiti State.

Hypothesis one stated that gender will significantly influence organizational commitment. The result shows that gender has significant influence on organizational commitment. The finding indicates that male participants reported higher organizational commitment than female participants. In support of this finding, the studies revealed that the women are more concerned about their tasks and put more labor for achieving the same. While on the other hand, the men though physically strong are studied as lethargic and possess a mindset which is less task oriented. Now, if the both male and female work in the same organization, the male workers, due to their muscular instincts would definitely aspire to overwhelm the spheres of efficiency and output. Consequently, this phenomenon will augment the organizational commitment (Saifuddin& Nawaz, 2012).As traditional organizations are masculine oriented, females working in the organizations are considered to be less committed. The other side of the picture is that the organizations where female and male work together, the level of efficiency and output regarding productivity gets enhanced. Parallel to it, the graph organizational commitment also goes up. Among many causes behind, some of them are, sense

of competition, high input due to less absenteeism and greater professionalism (Kargar et al, 2012)

Hypothesis two states that Gender has no significant influence on Attitude to work. The finding indicates that male participants were not significantly different from female participant in attitude toward work. Attitudes to work vary between people in different sectors. Previous research has reported contradictory views on gender aspects of attitudes to work. Some of these findings, for example those of Mats Johansson, show that women express a more instrumental attitude to work, whilst other studies, e.g. Anne-Lise Ellingsæter, indicate that men have a more instrumental attitude than women. According to Knut Halvorsen the findings depend on how we operationalise commitment to work. However, he points out that the gender differences in his study are small, and very often non-significant. On the whole, my findings agree more with those of Ellingsæter, but there is also some support for Halvorsen's conclusion that the gender differences are small, at least compared with the differences concerning working environment and social class.

Hypothesis three stated that work environment will significantly influence organizational commitment among workers. The finding indicates that participants who perceived average work environment significantly reported higher organizational commitment than those with poor and good respectively. Hypothesis three is accepted. Specter and Beer (1994) acknowledged that work systems cannot only affect commitment, competence, cost effectiveness and congruence but also have long term consequence for workers' well being, there are some evidences to indicate that work systems designs may have effect unphysical health, mental health and longitivity of life itself. Conducive work environment ensures the wellbeing of employees

which invariably will enable them to exert themselves to their roles with all vigor that may translate to higher productivity (Akinyele, 2007).

Hypothesis four stated that work environment did not significantly influence on attitude towards work. The finding indicates that participants who perceived work environment averagely were not significantly different in attitude toward work from those who perceived good work environment. Hypothesis four is rejected. In contrast to this finding, there is a significant relationship between work environment and workers' attitude to job. This means that the work environment has an impact on the workers' attitude to job. This may range from conduciveness of the environment and management style. This is in line with Spector and Beer (1994) argument that work systems cannot only affect commitment, competence, cost effectiveness and congruence but also have long term consequence for workers' welfare and there are some evidences to indicate that work systems designs may have effects on physical health, mental health and longevity of life itself. Additionally, Akinyele (2007), adds that conducive work environment ensures the welfare employees which invariably will enable them exert themselves to their roles with all vigor that may translate to higher productivity. Secondly, the outcome of employees' perception of reward to those of others is not likely to determine job satisfaction. This is because key factors which determine job satisfaction include among others, the pleasure and satisfaction workers get from their co-workers, job conditions, supervision, benefits and the nature of the work. Therefore, the work environment of most Nigerian organizations must be accorded with high priority while adequate consideration must be given to other rewards that give positive attitudes to workers in order to be satisfied with their job.

Hypothesis five stated that workers with long length of service will significantly report higher organizational commitment than those with short length of service. This result suggests

that workers with long length of service were significantly different in organizational commitment from workers with short length of service. Therefore, hypothesis five is rejected. In contrast to this present findings, past findings stated that: Stevens et al; (1978) found that Job tenure was a positive predictor of organizational commitment while positional tenure was a negative predictor position tenure refer to the number of year spent in the same position while Job tenure (or organizational tenure) refer to years an employee has spent with an organization. In this study however, our attention is on Job position. In a study carried out in Pakistan, Butt (2009), found out that Job position among other demographic variables had a positive and significant relationship with organization commitment. Another study in India by Kanchana and Panchanatham (2012) it was also found that there was positive and significant association between job position and organizational commitment. Balay (2010) in his study of teachers in Turkey also came to a similar conclusion. The strong positive correlations between tenure and commitment are consistent with previous studies (Rousseau & Parks 1993; Meyer, Allen and Gaellatly 1990; Kolbert and Kwon 2000 and Salami 2008). The finding is also consistent with Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) study which concluded that tenure was the most important variable that impacted on organization commitment. This may be because the longer an employee stays in an organization the more opportunity the employee has, not only to gain more experience but also develop a sense of belonging (Joiner and Bakalis, 2006). Concerning the relationship between job position and organization commitment, the study results suggest a positive correlation between the two variables. This result which is as predicted is consistent with the findings of Butt (2009) in Pakistan, Kanchana and Pananchanatham (2012) in India and Balay (2010) in Turkey.

Hypothesis six workers with short length of service will significantly report positive attitude to work than workers with long length of service. This suggests that workers with short

length of service were not significantly different in Attitude from workers with long length of service. Therefore hypothesis six is rejected.

Hypothesis seven stated that Old workers will significantly report higher organizational commitment than young workers. This suggest that old workers were not significantly different in organizational from young workers. Therefore hypothesis seven is rejected. This result contradicts the findings of (Nawaz & Kundi, 2010) which stated that as the person grows older, his/her sense of obligations also gains maturity. Along, the chances for the switchovers also dwindle. Resultantly the individuals in the high age group possess more organizational commitment as compared to fresh entries. Moreover, this phenomenon is also supported by the monetary benefits like pay, pension, funds and allowances. Contrast to this present finding, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) did a meta-analytic study involving 41 samples and 10335 subjects. The conclusion arrived at by the study was that there was a statistically significant positive correlation between age and employee commitment. Allen and Meyer (1990) also studied the link between age and affective commitment and found a positive correlation between the two variables. Karsh et al (2005) in their study of 6584 nursing home employee found that unlike younger employees, older employees displayed a higher continuance commitment. The above notwithstanding, other researcher have failed to show a significant relationship between age and organizational commitment. For example, Hawkins (1998) in a study of the affective commitment levels of 396 high school principles found a statistically non-significant correlation ($r = -.004$) between age and affective commitment. Colbert and Kwon (2000) in a study of 497 college and university internal auditors, failed to show any reliable relationship between age and organizational commitment.

On the basis of the studies referred to .am obliging force which requires that the person honor the commitment, even in the face of fluctuating attitudes and whims(Brown, 1996) the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization (Mowday et al, 1979). The psychological attachment felt by the person for the organization, it will reflect the degree to which the individual internalizes or adopts characteristics or perspectives of the organization” (O'Reilly & Chatman, 1986).a psychological state that binds the individual to the organization” (Allen & Meyer, 1990). Organizational commitment is defined as a psychological treaty signed between the person and the organization, (McDonald and Makin(2000). In a study of 497 college and university internal auditors, failed to show any reliable relationship between age and organizational commitment. On the basis of the studies referred to here it may be concluded that while the relationship between age and organizational commitment seem to be inconsistent, the weight of evidence in literature tends to support a positive relationship between age and organizational commitment (Kaldenberg, Becker and Zvonkovic (1995) and Price and Mueller (1981) . Irving, Coleman, and Cooper (1997) found that age was not related to organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1984) earlier argued that age might be correlated with commitment by postulating that it serves as proxy for seniority that is associated with opportunity to better one's position in the work. On the issue of gender, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported its relationship to organizational commitment. Similarly, it was found by Irving, et, al. (1997) that the men in their sample had higher level of commitment than the women.

Hypothesis eight stated that Young workers will significantly report positive Attitude to work than old workers. This result suggests that old workers were not significantly different in attitude to work from young workers. Therefore hypothesis eight is rejected. This differs from

findings reported by Bi Puranen (2010) According to her;however, her findings are based on answers from high school students aged about 18 without much work experience.Other variables that reveal differences are ethnicity, type of industry, level of employment, and experience of unemployment. Results show that those born outside Sweden, and, in particular, those born outside Scandinavia, are more likely to have an instrumental attitude .Attitudes to work varies between people in different sectors. A comparison between the public and private sectors reveals these differences.More people in the public sector have a committed attitude to work than in the private sector. If we consider different types of businesses, we find even greater differences.

5.2: CONCLUSION.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of perceived demographical factors(age,gender,work environment and length of service) on workers' attitude to work and organizational commitment of the academic workers.To address this, relevant data were collected and analyzed.From the findings of this study,the following major conclusions are arrived at: gender has significant influence on organizational commitment of Academic workers, gender has no significant influence on Attitude to work among Academic workers, work environment will significantly influence organizational commitment of Academic workers, work environment did not significantly influence attitude towards work among Academic workers, length of service has no significant influence on organizational commitment, length of service has no significant influence on Attitude, Age has no significant influence on organizational commitment and lastly, age has no significant influence on Attitude to work

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the present study, the following are recommended, Organizations, community, private practice and institutions settings need to understand the basic concept of psychological factors and its influence on workers' attitude and organizational commitment. This may help people integrate psychological factors, commitment and workers' attitude to work in ways that are satisfying and no area is lacking. Measuring levels of organizational commitment among workers' should not be based on Gender and work environment. Rather, demographic factors other than the aforementioned may be of significance in determining levels of organizational commitment among workers.

The finding also revealed that demographical factors if not managed properly will affect workers and the organization, and may also affect the productivity of the organization and even the society at large. Hence, implementing effective programme on how to manage demographical factors in order for it not to affect Attitude to work and Organizational commitment and increasing enrichment should be shared by organizations, individuals and policy makers.

Since, work environment has significant influence on organizational commitment, I recommend that work environment should continue to be an area of concern in order to increase or boost organizational commitment. In order to further increase workers organizational commitment, workers with longer length of service should be promoted since length of service has significant influence on organizational commitment.

5.4: LIMITATION OF THE STUDY.

This study was confronted with some limitations. These include the following:

The study employed ex-post factor design that does not give room for manipulation of variables. Therefore, no cause-effect relationship can be inferred or established. The study had a small sample size which makes the generalization of the result questionable. The small sample size was as a result of participants' low response rate and loss of some questionnaire during administration. For instance a sample size of 100 was eventually obtained out of the 210 initially proposed for the study. The researcher was faced with financial difficulties in the course of the research work.

The issue of demographical factors, organizational commitment and attitude of workers to work shall for a long time remain active area of research. However, the direction of emphasis may keep changing as dictated by the needs of workers and employers. Research of this nature can be carried out again with larger population and more diverse nature of occupation such as nursing, military and even the immigration services. Though, this study has identified demographical factors as variables significant in the determination of organizational commitment and Workers' attitude to work in certain work environment, another possible area of further research is to investigate influence of psychological factors on family life and organizational commitment. Further study may investigate the relative contribution of conditions such as single parenthood, people caring for dependant other than their children in determining their attitude to work and organizational commitment.

Finally, another limitation of the study is that lecturers in the two university were unyielding mostly in the Ekiti State University because during the data collection the post jamb was going on, so this really caused low turn up of workers. So the participants are not proportional with participant in the Federal University Oye-Ekiti.

5.4: CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEGDE.

In its broadest sense, the study is aimed at improving on the existing data and contribution to the growing body of knowledge, on issues relating to the interaction between demographical wellbeing, attitude and commitment. Finding from this study are expected to provide insight into the extent to which various demographical factor can influence academic workers attitude and organizational commitment. The outcome could also serve as empirical basis that provide important insight for government, policy makers ,business leaders and even workers themselves to become familiar with how different demographical factor influence workers who are males and females and those who are married to who are single as it relates to their level of commitment and attitude they portray on job.

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(APPENDIX A)

FEDERAL UNIVERSITY OYE EKITI

FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

Dear respondent,

This questionnaire is to seek information only about the issues raised for research purposes. All response given shall be treated with utmost confidentiality.

SECTION A

Age:.....

Gender (a) Male () Female ()

Length of Service(in years)

Work Environment (a) Good () (b) Average () (c) Poor ()

SECTION B: Instruction: Tick the following statements as they apply to you according to your degree of agreement to disagreement as follows: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D),Strongly Disagree (SD) and Undecided(undecided)

S/N	Item	SA	A	U	D	SD
1.	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.					
2.	I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization.					
3.	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.					
4.	I do not feel like 'part of my family' in this organization.					

5.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.					
6.	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.					
7.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.					
8.	I think I could easily become a attached to another organization as I am to this one.					
9.	Right now, staying with my organization is a matter of necessity as much as desire.					
10.	One of the major reasons I continue to work for this organization is that leaving would require considerable sacrifice-another organization may not match the overall benefits I have.					
11.	I feel I have too few options to consider leaving this organization.					
12.	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this organization would be the scarcity of available alternatives.					
13.	It would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now even if I wanted to.					
14.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decide I wanted to leave my organization now.					
15.	It would not be too costly for me to leave my organization in the future.					
16.	I am not afraid of what might happen if I quit my job without having another on line up.					
17.	I think these people these days move from employer to employer too often.					
18.	I do not believe that a person must always be loyal to his or her organization.					
19.	Jumping from organization does not seem at all unethical to me.					
20.	One of the major reasons I continued to work for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important and therefore feel a sense of moral obligation to remain.					
21.	If I get another offer for a better job elsewhere, I would not feel it would not be right to leave my organization.					
22.	I was taught to believe in the days when people stayed with one					

	organization from most of their careers.					
23.	Things were better in the days when people stayed with one organization for most of their careers.					
24.	I do not think that wanting to be an organizational man or woman is sensible anymore.					

SECTION C: Instruction: Tick the following statements as they apply to you according to your degree of agreement to disagreement as follows Strongly Agree(SA), Agree(A),Undecided (U) Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD)

S/N	Item	SA	A	U	D	SD
1.	I come to work regularly					
2.	I leave my office before the closing time					
3.	I no longer work till closing time because I have other businesses to augment my low monthly salary					
4.	.I sometimes come to work late since the working environment is not encouraging					
5.	Most of my office hours is spent working.					
6.	I spent part of my official hours in pursuing my academic in order to retire at a good grade.					
7.	I engage in buying and selling at work just to make enough savings					
8.	I consider it is necessary for every employee to participate in decision making					
9.	I put in more effort in my work since I know I am also contributing to my retirement benefit)					
10.	I have decided that the work can perish since it cannot benefit me on retirement.					
11.	I know the objectives of Workers Participation in Management (WPM)					
12.	I attend the meeting conducted by the management regularly					
13.	There is a positive impact of your participation on industrial relations					

14.	Is WPM concept is useful in improving relations between manager and employee/worker					
15.	I no longer take my work serious since much will not be benefited from it on retirement					
16.	Management resolved my problems through union					
17.	There is standing orders of the company known to me					
18.	Manager/Supervisor cares about both my personal (Health, Family etc)and Job (production, Training and Development etc)					
19.	I am satisfied with the company's reward and recognition program					
20.	Manager/Supervisor iscooperative with me					