

Fouts, Susan Fowler. Differences in Work Ethic Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status and Age and Gender. (Under the direction of Carol Kasworm and Leila Gonzalez-Sullivan.)

Work ethic has historically been linked to financial success of individuals and is a multi-dimensional attribute desired by employers. This study examined the level of adherence to work ethic among jobseekers grouped by employment status, age, and gender. This ex-post facto descriptive study used a univariate analysis of variance ($p < .05$) to evaluate responses to the Occupational Work Ethic Inventory. The study was conducted at the Haywood County JobLink Center in rural Western North Carolina. Jobseekers were grouped by employment status, age, and gender separately and by combinations of these independent variables.

There were no significant differences in work ethic scores among jobseekers when grouped by age and gender separately or a combination of age and gender. There were differences in work ethic scores of jobseekers when grouped by employment status. There were also differences in work ethic scores of jobseekers when grouped by employment status and gender. Additionally, there were significant differences in work ethic scores among jobseekers when grouped by employment status and age. The most significant finding of the study was a higher level of work ethic among some unemployed jobseekers when compared with employed jobseekers. This study was one of the first to examine the work ethic among jobseeker groups.

Differences in Work Ethic
Among Jobseekers Grouped by
Employment Status and Age and Gender

By

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Biography

Susan Fowler Fouts was born in Sylva, North Carolina, one of four children born to Franklin Fowler and Janie Burrell Fowler. Fouts lives in Sylva, North Carolina with her daughter, Loren. Following the example of her father, Fouts has always been committed to education. She was valedictorian of the 1974 high school graduating class at Glenville High School and continued her education at Western Carolina University, graduating with a degree in Clinical Laboratory Science. While working full-time, Ms. Fouts returned to school and completed a Masters in Business Administration at Western Carolina University.

In 1997, encouraged by two of her mentors, Dr. Joe Barwick and Kirk Stephens, Fouts enrolled in the doctoral program in Adult and Community College Education at North Carolina State University. Fouts completed a doctorate in spring 2004.

Fouts' professional career includes ten years of service to WestCare Health System where she was promoted from Clinical Laboratory Scientist to Assistant Laboratory Manager. She led many educational activities during this phase of her career. In 1988, Fouts joined Southwestern Community College as Director of the Medical Technology Program. After completing her Masters Degree in Business Administration, she joined Southwestern Commission as Workforce Planner. Fouts planned and implemented nationally recognized training programs for the seven-county region. After serving with Southwestern Commission for 5 years, Fouts returned to Southwestern Community College as

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In 2000, Fouts became the Workforce Development Director for Southwestern Commission and currently manages all federal programs under the Workforce Investment Act. She currently holds this position that involves economic, workforce, and community development. She has participated in several state and multi-state task forces and has presented at state and national conferences. Fouts' commitment to education has been evident in the programs and services provided to the citizens of southwestern North Carolina.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES ..	ix
LIST OF FIGURES ..	xi
CHAPTER	
I. The Problem and its Setting	1
Introduction	1
Background of the Problem	3
Employer Perspectives of Work Ethic	3
Employer Expectations	3
Relation of Unemployment to Work Ethic	4
Relation of Age to Work Ethic	6
Relation of Gender to Work Ethic	7
Theoretical Framework	7
Purpose of the Study	12
Hypotheses ..	13
Definitions of Concepts and Terms	13
Limitations of the Study	15
Significance of the Study	15
II. Literature Review.....	17
Introduction	17
Origins of Weber's Work Ethic Theory	17
Weber's Concept of Work Ethic	17
Key Themes of Weber's Theory	19
Development of Work Ethic in the United States	22
Work Ethic in Colonial America	22
Indentured Servants in the Colonial Period	23
Women in the Colonial Period	24
Work Ethic and the Era of the Post-American Revolution	24
Work Ethic in the Nineteenth Century	25
Work Ethic in the Twentieth Century	27
The Great Depression	28
Post World War II.....	28
The 1970s and 1980s	30
Work Ethic in Relation to Age Groups	34
Age Group of 18-35(Generation X).....	34
Age Group of 36-50(Baby Boomers)	35
Age Group of 50 and Above (Matures)	36
Gender and Work Ethic.....	36

Development of Work Ethic	37
Childhood Experiences	37
Family Background	41
Supervision and Work Experience	41
Employers' View of Jobseekers and Work Ethic.....	43
Employer Expectations of Work Ethic for Entry Level Employees.....	43
Employer View of Jobseekers by Employment Status	47
Employer View of the Unemployed	47
Employer View of those Unemployed Due to Layoff.....	49
Employer View of Part-time Employees.....	52
Summary and Theoretical Framework.....	53
III. Methods.....	54
Introduction	54
Overview of the Study.....	54
The Research Site	54
Haywood County JobLink Center	55
Population and Sample.....	56
Research Design and Instrumentation.....	57
Research Design.....	57
Research Instrument	57
Pilot Test and Training.....	60
Hypotheses.....	60
Variables.....	61
Independent Variables.....	61
Dependent Variables	62
Relationship Between Variables.....	63
Data Collection Procedure.....	64
Data Analysis	64
IV. Findings	66
Introduction	66
Overview of the Study	66
Methodology.....	66
Sample.....	67
Hypotheses.....	69
Hypothesis One.....	69
Hypothesis Two.....	75
Hypothesis Three	76
Hypothesis Four	77
Hypothesis Five.....	80
Hypothesis Six.....	84
Hypothesis Seven.....	87
Summary of the Findings	90

V. Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations	92
Overview of the Study and Hypotheses	93
Conclusions and Implications	93
Employment Status	93
Employment Status and Gender	95
Employment Status and Age	95
Employment Status, Age and Gender	97
Age	98
Gender	98
Age and Gender	98
Summary	99
Recommendations for Further Research	100
References	103
Appendices	112
Appendix A. Being Dependable Subscale Descriptors	113
Appendix B. Interpersonal Skills Subscale Descriptors	114
Appendix C. Initiative Subscale Descriptors	115
Appendix D. Printed Copy of the Online Version of the OWEI	116
Appendix E. Instruction for Haywood County Jobseekers	130
Appendix F. Script for Employment Counselors	131
Appendix G. Informed Consent	132
Appendix H. Submission for New Studies	134

List of Tables

Table 1 Frequency Count and Percentage of Respondents by Employment Status 68

Table 2 Frequency Count and Percentage of Respondents by Age Category 68

Table 3 Frequency Count and Percentage of Respondents by Gender..... 69

Table 4 Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factor of Employment Status 71

Table 5 Mean OWEI Scores and Standard Deviations for Respondents Classified by Employment Status..... 71

Table 6 Work Ethic Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status . 72

Table 7 Mean Dependable Scores and Standard Deviations for Respondents Grouped by Employment Status 73

Table 8 Mean Interpersonal Scores and Standard Deviations for Respondents Grouped by Employment Status 74

Table 9 Mean Initiative Scores and Standard Deviations for Respondents Grouped by Employment Status 75

Table 10 Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factor of Gender 76

Table 11 Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factor of Age..... 77

Table 12 Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factors of Employment Status and Gender 78

Table 13 Work Ethic Among Female Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status 78

Table 14 Work Ethic Among Male Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status 79

Table 15 Work Ethic Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status and Gender 80

Table 16 OWEI Overall Mean Scores Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status and Age..... 82

Table 17 Dependable Subscale Mean Scores Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status and Age 82

Table 18 Interpersonal Subscale Mean Scores Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status and Age 83

Table 19 Initiative Subscale Mean Scores Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status and Age..... 83

Table 20 Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factors of Employment..... 84

Table 21 Work Ethic Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status, Age and Gender..... 85

Table 22 Dependable Subscale Means Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status, Age and Gender..... 87

Table 23	Interpersonal Subscale Means Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status, Age and Gender.....	88
Table 24	Initiative Subscale Means Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status, Age and Gender.....	89
Table 25	Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factors of Employment	90

List of Figures

Figure 1.	Work Ethic Model	21
Figure 2.	Relationship Among Variables	63

Chapter 1: The Problem and its Setting

Introduction

A high level of work ethic is one of the most desired characteristics in an employee among employers (Hill & Petty, 1995; Denka, 1994; Young, 1986). Work ethic can be described as both a social expectation or norm and as a set of characteristics of an individual worker. Work ethic as a social norm places a positive value on doing a good job and defines work as having an intrinsic value of its own (Cherrington, 1980; Yankelovich & Immerwahr, 1984). As a social norm, work ethic is an example of one of the many unwritten rules that govern such aspects of life as work, sexual behavior, or the obligations of family members to one another (Yankelovich & Immerwahr, 1984). Like other social norms, researchers, practitioners, and employers refer to work ethic as an attribute with multiple dimensions. In his study of the work ethic, Weber (1905) identified four distinct elements of the concept: work as a calling; work as a means for success; asceticism; and rational control over life.

The term work ethic has also been used to define certain characteristics of an individual worker. Research from this perspective continues to build on Weber's definition. For example, Furnham (1985, 1990) and Furnham and Koritsas (1990) concluded that work ethic is a multi-dimensional attribute linking hard work and success. Cherrington (1980) suggests that beyond a social norm, work ethic is an attribute promoting personal accountability and responsibility for one's work, with work having an intrinsic value exclusive of the external rewards.

Petty (1991), and later Hill and Petty (1995), suggest that work ethic is a multidimensional factor focused on the work-related attributes of individuals. These include dependability, ambitiousness, consideration, and cooperation.

Research findings have also suggested that schools and parents have a major impact on the development of work ethic (Braude, 1975; Cherrington, 1980; Hill, 1992, Severinsen, 1979). Many theorists also believe that high quality work experiences contribute to developing and sustaining a high level of work ethic (Braude, 1975). Others point to the critical role supervisors play in the development of work ethic (Cherrington, 1980). According to Cherrington, supervisors who hold high expectations of employees, including a commitment to excellence, are more likely to develop employees who exhibit a strong work ethic. The expectations of supervisors influence performance by changing the worker's self-concepts, personal aspirations, and goals. With effective supervision, employees develop personal commitment and exercise individual choice, which leads to them become willing and enthusiastic workers –workers with a strong work ethic.

Many workers, however, have not developed a strong work ethic. This descriptive study will consider the relationship of work ethic to a variety of different groupings of jobseekers and examine key potential indicators of different categories of jobseekers that may or may not have a salient relationship with specific factors of the work ethic.

Background of the Problem

Employer Attitudes Toward Work Ethic

Although definitions of work ethic vary, employers generally discuss work ethic in terms of employees being on time, being dependable, and working hard. Through focus group interviews with employers and workforce development professionals, the Workforce Development Board (1998), located in Charlotte, NC, developed an operational definition. Their findings suggested that work ethic consists of two elements. The first is the relationship of the employee to the job. This component includes (a) taking pride in and being accountable for one's work, (b) being at work when needed, (c) being productive while on the job, and (d) being dependable on the job. The second element of work ethic is the set of employee personal characteristics concerning (a) honesty, (b) attitude toward work, (c) interpersonal skills, and (d) taking responsibility. This definition coincides with Crain's (1984) finding that a strong work ethic is one in which employees display dependability, proper attitudes toward work and the ability to get along with fellow employees.

Employer Expectations. Employers expect entry-level employees to have a minimum level of job-specific skills and a high level of work ethic when they arrive at work (Hill & Petty, 1995; Denka, 1994; Young, 1986). Recent studies have found that the work ethic dimension, more than the job-specific skill dimension, is the primary requirement for work success. Four of the top five needs identified in a survey of 450 employers in Mississippi were attributes

associated with the work ethic such as dependability, interpersonal skills, and initiative (Baxter & Young, 1980). These employers were much less interested in particular job-related skills, such as the proper use of tools. In another study by Murphy & Jenks (1983), employers mentioned communication, dependability, interpersonal skills, and good work habits as the most desired attributes of new and current employees. Crain (1984) found that dependability, proper attitudes about work, and getting along with others were the top three traits desired by employers. In 1996, in focus groups with employers in the Charlotte-Mecklenburg area of North Carolina, these business people consistently mentioned work ethic as the most desired attribute for an employee (Charlotte-Mecklenburg Workforce Development Board, 1996). Dependability, good communication, and working hard were some of the components of the work ethic attribute mentioned in these focus groups.

The main reason employers value a strong work ethic is that it leads to economic benefits (Ali & Falcone, 1995). Businesses with employees who are committed to work often have a market advantage. Furthermore, when a new hire does not have sufficient commitment to work and an appreciation of the value of work, the organization is immediately at risk of losing productivity and profits.

Relation of unemployment to work ethic. Unemployment is seen as a vice (Beder, 2000), and those who do not work are viewed as lazy and unmotivated. Further, there is a belief that there are sufficient jobs for the unemployed (Sennett, 1998) but these people are not truly committed to seeking work. The

public expects that adults be engaged in work, and they believe that only those who are weak and lazy depend on government welfare programs. Even in good economic times, however, many able-bodied people are unemployed (Shimko, 1992). Many of the chronically long-term unemployed (unemployed for 3 months or longer, according to the federal definition) include public assistance recipients, older homemakers entering the workforce, young black males, members of other minority groups, the handicapped, and individuals with criminal records. The cycle of the long-term unemployed includes periods of unemployment, short-term work, public assistance, and then a return to unemployment (Blunt & Richards, 1998).

Employers are reluctant to hire from the chronically long-term unemployed even though many from this group are looking for work (Shimko, 1992). One of the main reasons for this reluctance is the belief that individuals in these groups have a weak work ethic. Furthermore, when an employer hires an individual from one of these groups and the individual performs poorly, the employer extends this perception of poor performance to the entire group and typically will not hire from that group again.

Employers assume the long-term unemployed are opposed to hard work and lack the necessary work experience to develop a high level of work ethic (Blunt & Richards, 1998). In particular, employers believe that welfare recipients not only lack work ethic, but also bring up children without work ethic (Beder, 2001). Further, Beder notes that recent shifts toward a knowledge-based economy reinforce the view that it is the responsibility of the unemployed to

correct their employment deficits to meet the needs of employers. Employers believe that these jobless people are unemployed because of low effort or poor education and blame these individuals for their own unemployment. These perceptions make it difficult for the chronically unemployed to become employed – a difficulty that increases with the length of time the individual remains out of work.

Those who are unemployed because of a plant closure or layoff are viewed differently. Downsizing and plant closures are seen as changes in the economy that are unrelated to the individual's work ethic (Sennett, 1998). Job loss in manufacturing is associated with the mechanization and computerization of the workplace (Applebaum, 1998). Unemployment due to a plant closure or downsizing does not carry the negative stigma associated with unemployment of other types. These workers are not viewed as unemployed due to their lack of work ethic, but for reasons beyond their control.

Relation of age to work ethic. Employers also see distinctions in the work ethic of different age groups. One view, articulated by Filipczak (1994), is that 18-35 year old employees are lazy and cynical. They are uninterested in work as a way of life and have no commitment to companies or organizations. Often called Generation X, these employees tend to be less loyal and change jobs more often (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Managers often feel as if they are parenting this group of workers (Filipczak, 1994) and many managers prefer not to work with this group. Employees aged 36-50 are viewed as having a stronger work ethic, as placing a higher value on work, valuing coworkers more, attending more

consistently, being more dedicated, and having lower accident rates (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Workers aged 50 and older are seen as having a high level of work ethic, as being friendly and congenial associates, and as being good team players. These characteristics are elements of the multi-dimensional work ethic profile desired by employers.

Relation of gender to work ethic. Gender and work ethic have been linked throughout history. Women in colonial America worked alongside their husbands to survive (Applebaum, 1998). Work was an obligation and women had the additional responsibility of maintaining the household. In modern times, women continue to engage in both work and family responsibilities (Applebaum, 1998). Hill (1992) found that working women exhibited a slightly higher work ethic than men did.

Theoretical Framework

The multi-dimensional concept of work ethic has its roots in Weber's (1905) writings, in which he broadly equated work ethic with the Protestant ethic and linked this attribute with capitalism, noting that business leaders and owners of capital were overwhelmingly Protestant. Success in the marketplace was linked to Protestant work attitudes, according to Weber. Calvinism proposed that through work, a Christian serves God. Work did not result in salvation but was indispensable as a sign of an individual's belief in God. Weber's definition of capitalism was the pursuit of profit by hard work and peaceful exchange (Buss, 1999).

Following are the four elements of Weber's work ethic concept (Furnham, 1984):

1. The first element is that work is virtuous and performed with excellence and honesty. Work is a calling and the reward is in the work itself. Adjectives describing employees with this element include *honest, reliable, and careful*.
2. The second element is that God's grace is found in the success that results from working hard. Successful people see themselves as God's chosen people. Adjectives describing employees with this element include *enthusiastic and dedicated*.
3. Asceticism is the strict self-discipline that controls personal actions as a method of serving God. This third element includes the idea that the more work done, the less time for vices. If an individual is working, then there is less time for sin. Adjectives describing employees with this element include *efficient, productive, and conscientious*.
4. The fourth element stresses rational control over life. This element rejects the Catholic idea of mystic sacraments as a way to the kingdom of God. An individual considers the consequences of all actions in terms of ethical consequences. Adjectives describing employees with this element include *loyal, devoted, cooperative and team players*.

As time passed, these elements described by Weber were secularized into a positive belief regarding the value of work (Lipset, 1992). Building on Weber's work, Cherrington (1980) described work ethic as a social norm that promotes personal accountability and responsibility for one's work, with work having an intrinsic value exclusive of external rewards. A regression analysis done by Cherrington (1980) examined the responses of 3,632 individuals to determine the variables that seemed most closely related to two work values: the moral importance of work and pride in craftsmanship. The study looked at 43 independent variables in the categories of personal background, race, religion, demographic data, reinforcement contingencies, and job attitudes. This study supported Weber's concept, as did later studies by Furnham (1990).

According to Furnham (1990), Protestant Work Ethic is one of the few concepts that spans history, theology, and psychology. In a study of 1,021 individuals (primarily students), Furnham subjected the responses of seven work ethic instruments to factor analysis and found five factors contained in Weber's original model of work ethic including: belief in hard work; role of leisure; religious and moral beliefs; stress on independence from others; and asceticism. While Furnham's research on the multidimensional nature of work ethic examined factors such as attitudes about work, wealth, time, and morality, the study did not find a strong correlation between religion and adherence to work ethic.

In earlier studies, Furnham (1984, 1987) did find a positive correlation between age and a higher level of work ethic. He predicted that people born in the 1970s would adhere less to work ethic, as they grew older. Older middle-

class people had a tendency to demonstrate a higher level of work ethic than the younger workers did (Furnham, 1984). While studies reveal differences in work ethic based on age, the variation between males and females was less clear (Furnham, 1985). Finally, Furnham and Koristas (1990) found a correlation between vocational preference and work ethic. These researchers cautioned against using correlation research inappropriately and emphasized that vocational interests and work ethic development are largely a product of socialization. This research further linked the workplace and work ethic research. Because of his research and the view of work ethic as a multi-dimensional attribute, Furnham (1990) stressed the need for development of work ethic instruments that measured the dimensions of work ethic and produced subscale scores in addition to a total score.

Petty (1991) developed the Occupational Work Ethic Inventory (OWEI) based on extensive research. Instruments used in prior studies used personality type, personal preference and measures of work satisfaction. Petty avoided the use of these attributes and focused on measuring characteristics related to a person's work. Consistent with Furnham's (1990) recommendation, the instrument yielded a total score for work ethic but also measured components of work ethic. Petty developed four subscales including: being dependable, ambitious, considerate, and cooperative. Hill (1992) subsequently conducted a descriptive study to collect baseline data on work ethic in relation to occupation, age, gender, work experience, and empowerment. He found workers in administrative, engineering, scientific, or teaching positions scored significantly

higher on the *ambition* subscale of the OWEI. Technical, clerical, and sales workers scored higher on the *considerate* subscale of the OWEI. Education level was not a strong indicator of work ethic; however, those with higher education level scored higher on the *ambition* subscale of the OWEI. Little difference in work ethic was detected when workers were grouped by age. Hill (1992) suggested that the rural nature of the population studied might make them less likely to change social norms than urban populations. In addition, female workers had a greater adherence to the four subscales of work ethic than male workers did (Hill, 1992). The four subscales of the OWEI were further condensed by factor analysis into three subscales. These subscales are interpersonal skills, initiative, and being dependable.

Weber linked work ethic to success in the marketplace in his development of the concept. Research by Cherrington and Furnham supported the multi-dimensional concept of work, furthered the knowledge about the work ethic concept, and proposed a need for an instrument that measured the multi-dimensional aspects of work ethic. Petty developed the OWEI, which measures the various dimensions of work ethic and focuses on the work-related attributes of individuals. Hill (1992) researched work ethic of employees using the OWEI and found variations of work ethic among employees in different occupations.

No studies were found on individuals seeking employment or the potential employee pool; this is a neglected area of research. Nevertheless, employers have perceptions of potential employees' work ethic based on the age, gender,

and employment status of the potential employee. A descriptive study is needed to examine the work ethic of jobseekers by employment status, age, and gender.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between work ethic and the employment status, age and gender of jobseekers. The first independent variable was employment status – (1) unemployed (both long and short term), (2) employed full-time, and (3) employed part-time. The second independent variable was gender- (1) male, (2) female. The third independent variable was age- (1) 16-29 year olds (2) 30-39 year olds (3) 40-49 year olds (4) 50 years old and older. The dependent variable was work ethic, which was operationally defined as (1) valuing interpersonal skills, (2) being dependable, and (3) taking initiative.

This study was conducted in a North Carolina career center (JobLink Center) which offered one-stop employment services, including matching employers with potential employees, pre-employment screening, and job placement. A local Workforce Development Board established and chartered the JobLink Center.

Hypotheses

This study tested the following hypotheses:

H₀₁ There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among jobseekers of different employment status.

H₀₂ There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, between male and female jobseekers.

H₀₃ There is no significance difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among jobseekers in different age groups.

H₀₄ There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among aggregated groupings of jobseekers based on employment status and gender.

H₀₅ There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among aggregated groupings of jobseekers based on employment status while controlling for age.

H₀₆ There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among aggregated groupings of jobseekers based on employment status while controlling for age and gender.

H₀₇ There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among jobseekers based on age and gender.

Definitions of Concepts and Terms

Being Dependable -This subscale of the OWEI consists of descriptors dealing with the expectations and agreement to perform certain functions at work. Workers are dependable if they meet the minimum expectations for

satisfactory job performance (Petty & Hill, 1995). A list of these descriptors is found in Appendix A.

Employed Full Time - An individual working for a single employer for at least 30 hours per week.

Employed Part Time - An individual working less than 30 hours per week for a single employer.

Interpersonal Skills - This subscale of the OWEI consists of descriptors relating to working relationships with other people. The descriptors include personal characteristics that would facilitate good interpersonal relationships and contribute to job performance in a setting where cooperation is important (Petty & Hill, 1995). A list of these descriptors is found in Appendix B.

Initiative - This subscale of the OWEI consists of descriptors relating to promotion and dissatisfaction with the status quo. The descriptors include personal characteristics such as sticking with a job until successfully completed, dedication to work and being productive on the job (Petty & Hill, 1995). A list of these descriptors is found in Appendix C.

Jobseeker - An individual seeking employment through a JobLink Center.

Layoff - The termination of an employee due to an economic slowdown or plant closing and not for reasons related to employee performance.

Unemployed (less than 3 months) not due to layoff - An individual who is unemployed for less than 3 months for a reason other than temporary or permanent layoff.

Unemployed (more than 3 months) not due to layoff - An individual who is unemployed for more than 3 months for a reason other than temporary or permanent layoff, consistent with the federal definition of long-term unemployment (Cotter, 2001).

Unemployed due to layoff - An individual who is unemployed because of a temporary or permanent layoff.

Work Ethic- A social norm that places a positive moral value on doing a good job and is based on a belief that work has intrinsic value for its own sake (Cherrington, 1980, Yankleovich & Immerwahr, 1984; Hill, 1992).

Limitations of the Study

1. The study is limited to a single JobLink Center in North Carolina and may not be generalizable to other populations.
2. Dependent variables that impact work ethic are limited to those three subscales measured by the Occupational Work Ethic Inventory (OWEI).
3. Participants are directed to the survey and may choose not to complete the survey. Non-readers or computer phobic individuals may elect not to complete the survey.

Significance of the Study

This study makes important contributions to both the research literature on work ethic and the practice of employment services. It will provide data and analysis concerning the relationships among categories of jobseekers and the three aspects of work ethic. This examination will also consider past research on

employer perceptions about jobseekers in relation to work ethic, as well as contribute to the general literature of work ethic research. Further, this study will make an important contribution to future practice by providing practitioners with a better understanding of the level of work ethic that might be expected in various groupings of jobseekers, and any differences that might be attributable to age and gender characteristics. Finally, it may provide information for future employment screening, as well as potential development of work-related programs that address work ethic.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Introduction

Researchers narrowly define work ethic as a social norm that places a positive value on doing a good job and defines work as having an intrinsic value without regard to extrinsic rewards (Cherrington, 1980; Yankelovich & Immerwahr, 1984). Weber first proposed the concept of the Protestant Work Ethic (1905). He defined work ethic broadly as a value held by Protestants that equated hard work with success in the marketplace. Since Weber's original concept proposal, researchers have completed several studies into the nature of work ethic.

The purpose of this literature review is to: (a) identify the origins and development of work ethic concepts; (b) provide a historical review of work ethic, and (c) review key work ethic research. Further, the review will focus on the historical and theoretical concepts as related to employers and individuals looking for work.

Origins of Weber's Work Ethic Theory

Weber's Concept of Work Ethic

Weber developed the theory of work ethic by drawing on the ideas of Martin Luther, who had asserted that men are "called to work" and work was a "calling" (Weber, 1905). According to Weber, Protestants used "calling" to define a life task or field of work. Work was a task set by God, and Martin Luther taught that doing excellent work was living in a manner acceptable to God. A commitment to work was also equated with serving God and formed a significant

part of the Protestant lifestyle. In his analysis, Weber contrasted the Protestant and Catholic view of work. Catholics believed in acknowledgement and forgiveness of sin through a priest and had no similar concept of “work as a calling” nor did they view work as a mode of pleasing God. Weber’s basic hypothesis was that the Protestant work ethic provided the moral justification for the accumulation of wealth. Accumulation of wealth equated with living a life that was pleasing to God. If a person worked hard enough and was committed enough to work, then God would reward this person with riches (Furnham, 1984).

Weber (1905) noted that the owners of capital, higher skilled individuals or more technically trained personnel, were overwhelmingly Protestant and concluded that adherence to Protestant Doctrine resulted in wealth. Protestants developed an economic drive toward profit not observed in other religious groups. Weber concluded that the explanation for the differences was due to an intrinsic factor in the religious beliefs of Protestants. Protestant belief in the importance of work as the way to serve God was central to the Weber theory. He suggested that the Protestant drive to accumulate wealth promoted the development of capitalism. Present day scholars view the relationship between Protestantism and capitalism as one of elective affinity instead of causation (Buss, 1999). Protestants tended to be better educated and more likely to inherit wealth than Catholics, and scholars view these factors as more significant contributors to economic success than the adherence to Protestant beliefs. However, the concept of work ethic formulated by Weber continues to be associated with success in the marketplace.

Key Themes of Weber's Theory

There are four themes to Weber's Theory as described by Furnham (1984):

The Doctrine of Calling. Calling was the idea that God was pleased by hard work. Working hard brings an individual closer to God and to a higher place in heaven. "Called" individuals take initiative to do a good job and are resourceful in finding ways to improve in their job.

Predestination. Predestination suggests success in this life is a sign of God's grace. Further, predestination assumes that successful people are part of God's select group. Success of the employee is related to a willingness to be devoted, loyal, and hardworking.

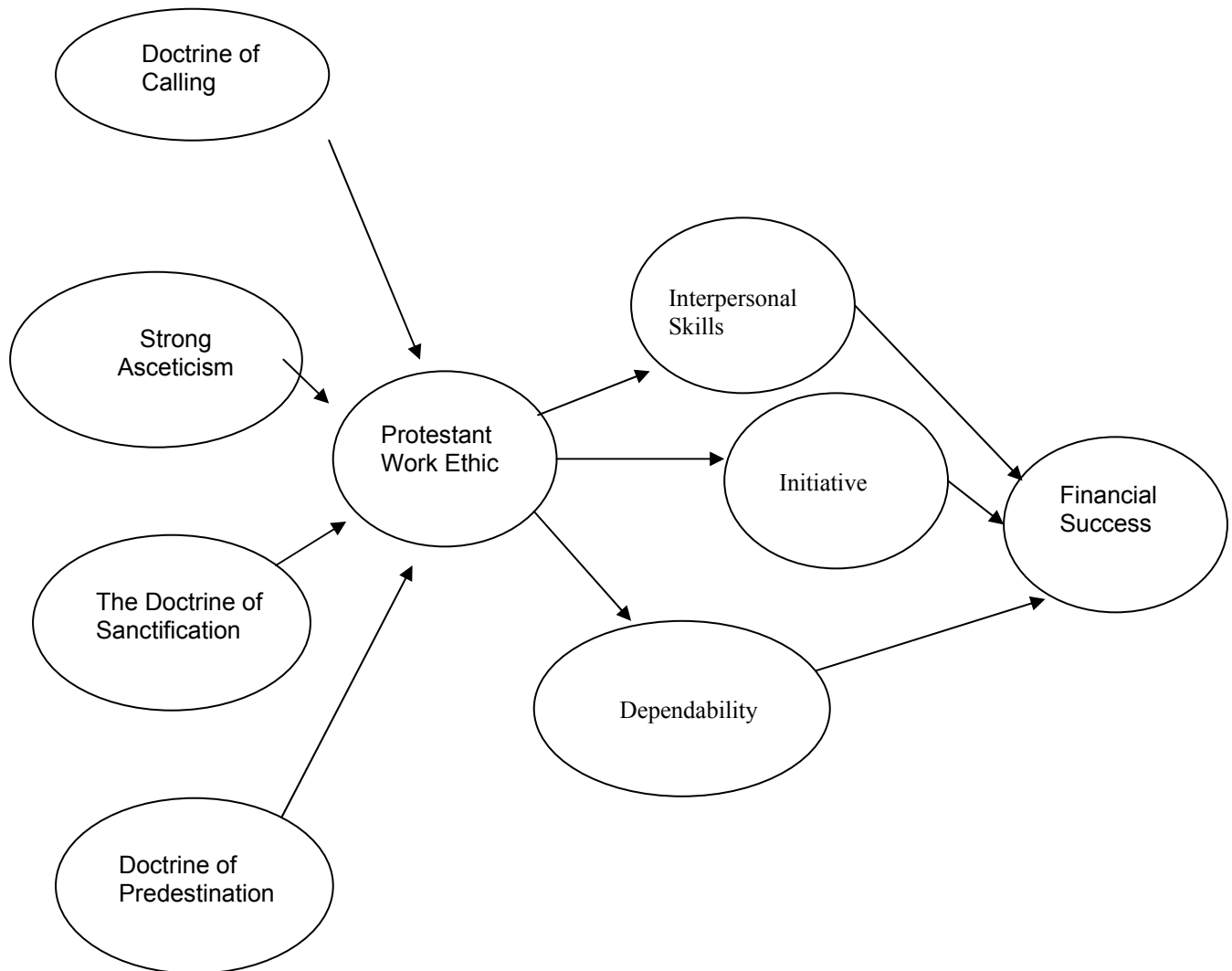
Asceticism. Asceticism stresses saving, thrift, and a drive to work hard as the ends and not the means of accumulating wealth. There is a rejection of spending wealth on vices and luxuries. Strong asceticism is supreme self-control that dominates the actions of the individual. Through those actions, the individual serves God. Independence, conscientiousness, accuracy, honesty in the workplace, and dependability are manifestations of this asceticism.

Doctrine of Sanctification. Sanctification stresses rational control over all aspects of life. Individuals should choose to do good work, and the work is accomplished in order to honor God. Individuals should control all of the activities in daily life and spend all their time working in order to be pleasing to God. Self-control is manifested in the interpersonal skills of the individual.

The religious beliefs that work is a calling and success is related to the willingness of the individual to be devoted and hard working contribute to the overall work ethic of the individual. Personal beliefs such as asceticism including the drive to work hard, the rejection of sin, and the rational control over life by the individual also contribute to work ethic. A model of Weber's Protestant work ethic is illustrated in Figure 1.

Weber was able to provide evidence that wherever a base group of individuals adhering to the Protestant ethic was established, modern capitalism developed (Buss, 1999). Capitalism developed despite the most unfavorable environmental conditions, such as those experienced by the New England Puritans. However, Weber was unable to find a historical comparison that matched his theory that the Protestant ethic created capitalism and capitalism created wealth.

Figure 1- Work Ethic Model



Note: adapted from Jones, H. B. (1997). The Protestant ethic: Weber's model and the empirical literature. Human Relations, 50 (7), (p.763).

Development of Work Ethic In The United States

Work Ethic in Colonial America

The Protestant work ethic was recognized through the initial work efforts of the Puritans. Work was a value shared by all. Key Puritan leaders, such as John Smith, John Winthrop, and William Bradford discussed the necessity of hard work to survive in the new world. There was no tolerance for those who did not work (Applebaum, 1998).

During the colonial period, ideas about the role of work formed in America and a belief in a strong work ethic became a major part of the colonial culture. The early immigrants to America were primarily Protestant separatists who valued work as a noble activity (Cherrington, 1980). Colonial Americans' work reflected the four themes of Weber's work ethic including work as a calling; pursuit of wealth not as an end but as a means of serving God; the individual's control over the work; and the use of work as a measure of success.

There were two forms of work in colonial America: farm work and skilled craft (Applebaum, 1998). Most Protestant settlers engaged in farming because farmland was plentiful in the new world, and the basic economic unit in the eighteenth century was the farm. Land was relatively cheap and abundant; however, clearing land for farming involved vast amounts of manual labor. Farming required hard work in annual cycles for planting and harvesting. The strong relationship between these forms of hard work and bountiful harvests reinforced the Protestant work ethic (Eisenberger, 1989). In contrast to their

lifestyle in England, American farmers accumulated great wealth and this wealth provided these farmers with status as citizens.

Skilled craftsmanship was the second form of work in colonial America. The skilled craftsman was an individual who owned his own tools, possessed a skill, and generally learned a trade from another master craftsman (Applebaum, 1998). The skilled craftsman's work was task oriented and not time oriented. The skilled craftsman, or artisan, took great pride in work and valued integrity and diligence. These workers wanted to earn a decent living and were less interested in accumulating wealth. Rock, Gilje and Ashner (1995) described three aspects of the artisan's work ethic in colonial America. One was the Puritan ethic that valued work for the spirit of industry and for the frugality oriented toward the common good. The second aspect was one of a free government that supported the accumulation of wealth through hard work. The third aspect was self-control and self-reliance that led to economic independence for an individual and his family. Weber's view of the Protestant ethic and capitalism shared these three aspects (Weber, 1905).

Indentured Servants in the Colonial Period. There were two other significant groups of workers beyond skilled craftsmen and farmers in colonial America: indentured servants and women (Applebaum, 1998). Most individuals could not afford passage to America, so the indentured servant came with a contract to work for others in America to pay for that passage. However, the contract was for indentured servitude not slavery. Thirty to forty percent of indentured servants worked as farm labor or with skilled craftsmen; they

displayed a work ethic similar to those they served (Applebaum, 1998). The contract between master and indentured servant often included obligations by the master to train the indentured servant. The skilled craftsmen and farmers followed this aspect of the contract to varying degrees, and some indentured servants did become landowners and independent farmers or craftsmen at the end of the contract. Others became sharecroppers and continued to work hard toward land ownership and entrepreneurship.

Women in the Colonial Period. Women in the colonial period also played diversified roles in the economy (Applebaum, 1998). Work ethic of colonial women consisted of three components: the Puritan work ethic, the family ethic, and the feminine ethic. Applebaum suggested that women believed that working hard was essential for the survival of the family. Through this Puritan work ethic, they participated in the skilled craftsmanship or farming, often learning the trades of their fathers and husbands. Farmwomen were involved in all aspects of farm operations except for the heaviest work. The family ethic included caring for the household and raising the children. Women actively bartered for goods and services and maintained the household. The feminine ethic included caring for and nurturing the larger community as well as in one's own household. Work for colonial women was both an obligation and a responsibility to maintain the household, and the family, and the community.

Work Ethic in the Era of the Post-American Revolution

With the American Revolution in 1776, freedom came along with the cultural message that every American would work and that the fancied life of a

leisure class would not be tolerated (Applebaum, 1998). According to Schwartz (1997), the founders of America believed all men were created equal and independent. This equality included the economic independence that resulted from the labor of the individual. Followers of both James Madison and Thomas Jefferson believed the survival of the new republic was dependent upon individual citizens being able to attain through their own efforts a minimal standard of living that provided adequate comfort. This sense of economic well-being was associated with the virtues and rewards of hard work. Thus, the era of the post-American Revolution turned work into the “universal badge of honor” (Applebaum, 1998, p. 51). English noblemen had seen farmers and skilled craftsmen as inferior. After the American Revolution, foreign visitors noted American society considered work honorable and farmers and skilled craftsmen as important citizens in American society. An individual who did not work in post-Revolutionary American society was considered dishonorable. The economic success of skilled craftsmen and farmers after the American Revolution solidified the value of work in American culture (Applebaum, 1998).

Work Ethic in the Nineteenth Century

With a significant expansion of the geographic territory of the United States between 1800 and 1860, the farm population grew rapidly. However, the industrial workforce grew even faster (Applebaum, 1998). With the beginning of the industrial revolution around 1850, work ethic norms changed. Factories brought different working conditions and different views about work (Cherrington, 1980). The repetitive work of factories was contrary to the work ethic of the

skilled craftsman (Applebaum, 1998). The skilled craftsman had taken a great deal of pride in the individual products; factories called for increasing the quantity of products without regard to product quality. These opposing ideas about work evolved to a work ethic that focused on profit in the marketplace. Farmers became more involved in commercial farming and less involved in self-sufficiency farming. Mechanization came to farming; as a result, farmers tended to produce a single cash crop. They began to buy food for subsistence instead of growing their own and did not link farming with survival.

Industrialization did not erode the strength of the work ethic. Even with the unionization of the industrial labor force, belief in the work ethic continued to grow. The early American labor associations espoused the value of work and the equity of rewards that should go to the producers of goods (Tyler, 1983). Both labor and owners of capital believed in the importance of work ethic. Labor believed that work was good and those who worked should receive rewards for that work. Owners of capital believed that God rewarded people according to their work effort. Those who possessed the most wealth must have contributed the most to society through their work. The concept of a high level of work ethic became deeply entrenched because a person's success was a direct result of the industriousness of that individual. Even labor union activists such as Terence Powderly, the Grand Master of the Knights of Labor, stated God ordained that man should work (Eisenberger, 1989). Union support for a high level of work ethic in factories assisted in moving the norm from farm to factory.

Work Ethic in the Twentieth Century

The 1900s were characterized by the introduction and perfection of mass production and mechanization. Between 1900 and 1930, implementation of Taylor's Scientific Management Theory helped to create a workforce suited to mass production (Applebaum, 1998). Taylor's methods included the reduction of each task involved in production into minute steps. This mechanization of work had a profound effect on the ideology of work. Taylor believed that discretionary effort, motivation, and productivity were closely related. The way to increase productivity was to decrease discretionary effort (Yankelovich, & Immerwahr, 1984).

With industrial jobs, the idea of the intrinsic value of work began to fade because tasks were repetitive and skilled craftsmanship was no longer needed (Zuboff, 1983). One of the ways that manufacturing organizations satisfied the need to attract workers was to increase wages. Higher wages for lower skilled workers contrasted with the idea of individual work as the route to financial independence. A direct relationship between hard work and success was more difficult to promulgate with the scientific method of production. Upward mobility was associated with conforming to the new workplace instead of possessing a unique skill.

According to Rodgers (1978), work ethic became the businessman's creed during this industrialization period. Mill owners and managers were more likely to espouse the honor of work than were the workers in the factories of this time. Rodgers' research noted that American workers began missing scheduled

work, arriving late, demanding shorter work hours, and moving from job to job. Workers began to want more leisure time and to be less focused on work. Nevertheless, many factory workers continued to work hard and to espouse the value of work as a means toward success.

The Great Depression. The Great Depression had a profound effect on the work attitudes of older workers (Cherrington, 1980). High unemployment and low wages dominated the period from 1929 through 1941. During this period, employers could find additional employees at a moment's notice. Losing a job due to careless performance could mean not working again. The lucky worked long, hard hours; the unfortunate were without work. The mass unemployment during the depression threatened the accepted view of unemployment as a result of a poor level of work ethic in the individual. It was inconceivable that so many Americans were unemployed solely because of laziness or lack of a desire to work (Furnham, 1990).

Federal programs such as the New Deal and the Civilian Conservation Corps put many citizens to work in public programs during the Depression (Cherrington, 1980). These programs were developed to provide income for citizens sufficient for survival. However, some criticized this effort as "make work" programs that led to a decline in work ethic. Others viewed these programs as a method for bringing the country out of the economic depression.

Post World War II. After World War II, America had a prosperous economy with Americans engaged in two basic types of employment (Applebaum, 1998). The first type of jobs were in big firms, government, or the military; these jobs

provided well-paid, long-term employment, and men generally held these jobs. The secondary jobs were available in the farm, retail, clerical, and service sectors; women filled the majority of these secondary jobs. Although women entered the work force beginning with World War II to help meet the demands of the war effort, when the war was over some women remained in the workforce, mostly in jobs considered secondary to the male occupations (Levitan & Johnson, 1983). Women derived a sense of community, accomplishment, and identity from work just as men did. The additional income also allowed post-war families to develop and maintain a middle class lifestyle. According to Levitan and Johnson, work was important to increase income for families to improve lifestyles; consequently, the value of work increased as an American norm during this period.

The post World War II era also brought about an increased expectation of an educated and trained workforce. Wartime production had increased the demand for industrial skills (Levitan & Johnson, 1983). Before World War II, employers had few entry requirements. After the war and in response to soldiers taking advantage of the GI Bill, the educational level of individuals involved in the workforce increased. However, Levitan & Johnson reported many of the available jobs did not require higher educational levels. An over-educated workforce had the potential to increase worker dissatisfaction and adversely affect work ethic. As a result, Eisenberger (1989) reported, absences; and other negative behavior increased and productivity decreased. In addition to an over-educated workforce, massive migration from farm employment to factory employment affected work

ethic. Mass production of goods diminished the role of the skilled craftsman. The combination of these factors reduced the expectation that success was directly related to the individual's work. Further, individuals increased wages through longevity or union negotiations, not the hard work of the person. Individuals had little influence on increasing their own wage through hard work. Finally, indoctrination into the Protestant work ethic was less likely with these structural changes in employment. These new factory workers were less committed to their jobs because they felt no ownership and had little control over their work.

Beginning in the 1950s, popular culture also affected the work ethic (Eisenberger, 1989). Magazines and other media emphasized non-work and social activities. Suddenly, advertisements were emphasizing leisure over work. After the 1950s, advertisements promoting work were rare; instead, most advertising included ideas on how to use leisure time. Before this time, Eisenberger noted that magazine advertising was often about the value of work or work improvement. This lack of public emphasis on work supported a decline in the value of work.

The 1970s and 1980s. Work productivity increased during this time because of major advances in technology (Seigel, 1984). Shorter workdays and workweeks, a decrease in child labor, an increase in the level of education of workers, and a further movement away from agriculture as primary work accompanied this rise in productivity. The sophistication in measuring productivity increased as well. With all of the new methods of measuring

productivity, Seigel suggested that any decline in productivity was linked to a decline in work ethic.

During the 1970s and 1980s, the composition of the workforce changed. Participation of white males in the labor force decreased significantly because of the significant retirement numbers (Quinn, 1983). These retirees were able to receive a pension and social security income; therefore leisure activities competed with work. Quinn suggested that the significant move to retirement was related to financial resources available in retirement and the increase affinity of the individual to leisure activity. However, decreased work time was not always an indication of a decreased work ethic. The extreme view of work ethic that suggested individuals should continue to work regardless of financial need faded during this era. However, according to Jazunek (1978), individuals still espoused a high commitment to work, including continuing to work even if they inherited enough money to live comfortably.

During this period, women and blacks were entering the workforce in even larger numbers. However, they did not experience the same work success as white males. Duncan (1979) found that blacks who held a stronger belief in the value of work actually had less growth in earnings, than blacks who placed lesser importance on work. Duncan and Morgan (1981) also found that strong work commitment did not correlate to marketplace success for women. Another study by Morgan (1976) provided evidence that there was little connection between work ethic and success in the workplace. The study showed that commitment to

work had no effect on increased earnings. This was particularly true for women, blacks, and low-income individuals.

During this period, there was also a great increase in the number of college graduates in the workforce (Zuboff, 1983). The political climate of the time was one of revolt against the established order and toward fulfillment of self. This group of college graduates (many of whom were managers and administrators) valued the concept of self and felt a routine existence threatened the fulfillment of self. Individuals wanted to feel rewarded in their work and not just to work hard. A study by Buchholz (1978) showed that individuals of this era adhered more to the idea of fulfillment of self than to the traditional work ethic as a way of life. These individuals expected to receive fulfillment from work, not just financial reward. They also saw the financial benefits of work as a means of fulfilling self in other arenas.

According to Walton, (1972), workers during this period wanted challenge, mutual influence, and interesting work. Walton suggested that employers for the first time were trying to design workplaces and work processes in a way that fulfilled employees. As a part of this change, employers began to value teamwork and the accompanying interpersonal skills.

With the resulting changes in workplace design, Moss-Kanter (1983) documented the differences in the traditional organization (organizations of the 1920s) and modern organizations. Traditional organizations employed unskilled, uneducated workers; modern organizations employed sophisticated, educated, and career-oriented employees. Traditional organizations required simple,

physical tasks, while modern organizations required complex intellectual tasks. A greater commitment to the task was required in the modern organization. This type of commitment and personal attention was consistent with Weber's conceptual model of work ethic. Modern organizations required a greater attention to change because of the rapidly changing and complex marketplace. The modern organization also had a greater overlap between workers and managers. These organizational changes and heightened competitiveness increased the expectation of an employee's work ethic by employers. According to Moss-Kanter (1983), individuals were still key players in the workplace; however, the context in which a person operated was also important. Work environment and quality of supervision were factors in productivity, not just internal personal traits of the employee. Thus, productivity in the work environment of modern organizations was due to the interaction of the work environment. It was not dependent on the worker.

According to Rothman (2000), workers in the 1970s and 1980s were striving for "quality of life". Quality of life meant that work was unavoidable, but work was a means toward an end. Americans expected a good life, while hoping to work as little as possible to achieve that success. A new system of class developed in the workplace. One class of workers was vested in the workplace and its success; another class was marginal in commitment to the workplace and its success.

Work Ethic in Relation to Age Groups

Research studies of work ethic identified a relationship between age of the worker and the level of work ethic (Furnham, 1984). For example, older lower - and middle-class people endorsed the work ethic attribute more than younger people did (Furnham, 1984). Manz & Grothe (1991) found significant differences in work ethic based on age, with individuals in their late 30s to late 50s having a high level of adherence to the work ethic attribute.

A review of work ethic studies related to age suggested differing work ethic characteristics for three age groups. These groups were divided into age categories of 18-35; 36-50; and over 50. Each reflected the three defined generations of the twentieth century (Filipczak, 1994). The first, sometimes called "Generation X" (age 18-35), is the smallest workforce group in the twentieth century. The second group is the "Baby Boomers." The boomers grew up in the 1950s and 1960s and are now age 36-50; this group is the largest group of workers of this century. The third, aged older than 50, and deemed the "matures" consisted of those who grew up in the depression and later benefited from unprecedented economic growth.

Age Group of 18-35 (Generation X). There are conflicting views about Generation X and their commitment to work. Filipczak (1994) proposes that Generation X employees are lazy, cynical, and uninterested in work as a way of life. They exhibit no sense of loyalty to companies or organizations because they have witnessed the lay off of long-term workers from company after company. As a result, they have developed a disdain for company loyalty. Tulgan (1996) offers

another view. Generation X is not disloyal but, as a generation, has no experience of any loyalty by companies toward workers. Xers want to create valuable results and their sense of loyalty is around adding value. Another feature of this generation is that of risk taking. The world of Generation X has been a world of constant change; therefore, Generation X believes that nothing will last forever and change is inevitable. They are less likely to adhere to Weber's concept of work ethic than prior generations of the work force.

Generation X faces a multitude of challenges in the workplace; in particular, they need more technical skills to be effective in their jobs. In addition, this entry-level worker will need the work ethic qualities of dependability and initiative (Trunk, 1995). Workers will also need teamwork, computer training, and business skills to meet the needs of employers. However, a labor shortage is expected and workers possessing the needed skills will be scarce. As early as 1985, Parnell asserted that the workplace of the future would require more than a "single inoculation" of education for a lifetime (Parnell, 1985, p.21). While Parnell focused on technology and other specific job skills, employers still identify communication and commitment to work as the most desired attributes of new employees (Oheren & Reese, 1999).

Age Group of 36 –50 (Baby Boomers). Boomers are individuals aged 36-50 and typically consider Generation Xers lazy, cynical, and disinterested in work (Filipczak, 1994). This group is more likely to adhere to work and organizational values such as the value of work itself, as well as commitment and loyalty to the organization (Manz & Grothe, 1991). Work is still the primary source of identity

for many of these workers. Employers view Boomers as possessing a high level of work ethic. Boomers have more positive work attitudes, consistent attendance and timeliness, and greater practical knowledge than Xers. They also are more likely to adhere to the work ethic attribute (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Boomers place a higher value on work itself and feel higher levels of job satisfaction in general.

Age Group of 50 and above (Matures). This age cohort exhibits employer loyalty, values comfort, values security, and tends to be better team players than boomers or Xers (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Employers view Matures as hard-working and conformist. Matures have more work absences than Boomers, but less absenteeism than Xers (Manz & Grothe, 1991). There is speculation that these absences are a product of the health status of this group. Furnham (1987) found that this group was more likely to adhere to the work ethic attribute, but was also looking toward leisure activities and retirement.

Gender and Work Ethic

There have been limited findings regarding the commitment of women to work. Cherrington (1980) reported women scored higher than men did on pride in doing a good job and working hard. Other studies also supported differences in work ethic between men and women. Hill (1992) reported women scored higher than men did on all the subscales of the OWEI in a workplace study. Wentworth and Chell (1997) studied work ethic in college students and found female students had higher Protestant Work Ethic (PWE) scores than male students.

Development of Work Ethic

A review of the relevant literature suggests there are many forces that affect the development of an individual's work ethic. This section will present the research findings regarding the development of work ethic in relation to childhood experiences, family background, work supervision and work experience.

Childhood Experiences

Studies have shown that childhood experiences are important in the development of work ethic. Cherrington (1980) suggested the moral importance of work and pride in craftsmanship are two key factors of work values and are influenced by childhood experiences. According to Cherrington, discipline and self-control play a major role in the development of work ethic early in life. In his research, he identified adults with a high level of work ethic and found the best predictor of the work ethic was childhood experiences that reflected specific boundaries in the interpersonal relationships with other children. Examining 43 independent variables, he found that employees whose childhood experiences included completing chores to parental satisfaction rated the moral importance of work and pride in craftsmanship as high. Employees who rated the moral importance of work and pride in craftsmanship as high also rated their sense of control over their own destiny and the acceptability of taking initiative as high. Conversely, employees who rated the moral importance of work as low also rated the acceptability of receiving welfare as high. During childhood, these workers with high work ethic commitments were expected to perform well on the job because their parents expressed that expectation. These adults spent time

working alongside their parents, doing farm chores, yard work, or part-time jobs in their youth. Adults with a high level of work ethic also acknowledged having a close relationship with family members and ranked religion as important in their lives. Cherrington (1980) concluded from examining the childhood background of these adults that the development of work ethic is strongly influenced by childhood experiences.

Authoritative parents also contribute to the development of work ethic (Baumrind, 1966). Baumrind reviewed twelve child rearing studies and concluded that those children who experienced high expectations of behavior were the least hostile or delinquent. Parents who demanded that children perform chores and other household responsibilities were also likely to be involved in the child's welfare. This review also showed that self-reliant children came from families where the parents exhibited firm control. In the analysis of these child-rearing studies, parents could be divided into three types: authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. Among authoritative (those who set boundaries and explained those boundaries) and authoritarian (those who set boundaries without explanation) parents, the behavioral differences in the parents were small. However, there was a significant difference in the behavior of the children. Both sets of parents took an active role in shaping the children's behavior; however, authoritative parents gave reason for the direction, encouraged intimate verbal contact, and displayed empathetic understanding while authoritarian parents did not. Children with authoritarian parents did not retain the acceptable behavior upon removal of the parental presence. Baumrind (1966) concluded that

independence and individuality develop not by the absence of control, but by appropriate controls that help children master their environment. A high level of work ethic includes these characteristics of independence and individuality.

According to Braude (1975), children learn to place a value on work as they are assigned chores with increasing responsibility and greater expectations of the outcome. Work ethic is positively influenced by expectations of good performance from both those assigning the chores and other family members. Based on negative or positive reinforcement through the reactions of others to the outcome of their work, children develop an attitude toward work. As a child gets older, the attitude is internalized and the child is less dependent on the reaction of others to the outcome of the work. Children are also influenced by the attitudes of parents toward work (Hill, 1996). If a parent exhibits a positive attitude toward work, then the child will believe that work is worthwhile. Parents who have a high level of work ethic tend to have children with a high level of work ethic. In a report for the Employment Policies Institute, a model for intergeneration transmission of work ethic was proposed (Mulligan, 1997). Children's willingness to work is related to parental willingness to work, the amount that a parent worked, and other factors such as amount of education and income. According to Milligan (1997), the equation for intergenerational transmission of willingness to work is:

$$\text{Child's Willingness to Work} = \text{Parent's Willingness to Work} + \text{Amount Parent Worked} + \text{other factors}$$

Parents make decisions to work or not work based on three factors. The first factor is the amount of money a person can make in the workplace. A second factor is the amount of money that can be made not working (for example, from the income of a spouse, government programs, or crime). The third factor is the willingness to work. The following equation depicts the decision to work (Mulligan, 1997 p. 6):

$$\text{Net Utility from working} = \text{Willingness to work} + \text{Wage} - \text{Non-wage Income}$$

Further, the willingness to work is influenced by habits, childhood experiences, and attitudes (Mulligan, 1997). When a person developed the attitude from childhood that, regardless of wages, work is good, honorable, and important, then the willingness of an individual to work increases. Conversely, greater willingness to receive non-wage income such as government welfare or unemployment compensation decreases the willingness of an individual to work. Childhood experiences, then, affect the resulting work ethic of an adult. If the child sees a parent with a positive attitude toward work, the child will likely have a positive attitude toward work as a grownup. The expectations placed on the child about work have an effect on the resulting adult work ethic. Children reared with expectations about completing work and doing work well will likely perform well as adults.

Family Background

Other studies suggest that work ethic and family background are related. In 1968, the Panel Study of Income Dynamics (PSDI) (Mulligan, 1997) conducted research with a non-representative sample of low-income families. The study collected a variety of information including employment, income, schooling, religion, housing, family background, and attitudes. All members of the households were a part of the study, including any person who later cohabitated with an original member of the sample. The data from children of the 1968 households and the data from the same individuals in 1984-1989 were compared. Mulligan's (1997) regression analysis of these data showed the following positive intergenerational correlations:

1. Families who had parents who work less and were more likely to participate in government welfare programs were generally poorer. They had poorer children who might be less likely to work and more likely to participate in government welfare programs.
2. Some parents who were less willing to work (or more willing to participate in government programs) had children with similar willingness.
3. Children who observed their parents working were more willing to work.

Supervision and Work Experience

Mulligan (1997) suggests factors other than childhood experiences contribute to willingness to work. An individual's experience as an employee is

also a factor in willingness to work. A person who has successfully arranged transportation, childcare, and other critical family factors will have a higher willingness to work than individuals without these arrangements in place. Finally, individuals with problem-solving skills that include managing the multiple priorities associated with working have an increased willingness to work.

Good supervision also plays a role in developing this attribute as well (Cherrington, 1980). High quality work experiences can have a dramatic impact on work values. Cherrington (1980) put forth seven principles through which supervisors could promote good work values in employees:

1. Establish an organizational climate that fosters positive work values and a commitment to excellence.
2. Set group norms that encourage and support excellence including having supervisors that display excellence in their own work and an organizational mission that maximizes the social benefits of excellence.
3. Communicate clear expectations about productivity and high-quality craftsmanship. Supervisors, peers and subordinates have clear expectations of performance. These expectations often become self-fulfilling prophecies. Additionally, performance expectations are effectively communicated during the assignment of regular tasks and especially during the orientation of new employees. This communication includes teaching and explaining the value of work, the dignity of labor, and the joy of service.

4. Establish individual accountability through effective delegation.
5. Develop personal commitment and involvement through individual choice and participation. Having organizational goals that are ethical, socially worthwhile, and personally meaningful can develop this commitment. Personal commitment is also developed by encouraging individual participation in job re-design and goal setting.
6. Provide feedback on performance through effective performance appraisals. Performance evaluations should include an evaluation of attendance, punctuality, quantity of work, quality of work, peer review about innovative behaviors, and strengths and weaknesses. Reward effective performance with pay and other social reinforcers. Effective performance should be highly rewarded with praise and recognition. High performers should receive more pay than low performers.
7. Continually encourage employees in their personal growth and skill development. Workers should be encouraged to develop and follow their own self-improvement plan.

In summary, the development of work ethic is influenced by childhood experiences, family background, work experience and supervision.

Employers' View of Jobseekers and Work Ethic

Employer Expectations of Work Ethic for Entry Level Employees

Further, research shows that employers expect the work ethic attribute to be present in entry-level employees as well as experienced workers. Employers

expect entry-level employees to have a minimum level of skill. Moreover, employers often suggest that work ethic as the most needed skill or norm (Denka, 1994; Hill & Petty, 1995; Young, 1986). Four of the top five needs identified by employers in a study of 450 employers in Mississippi were attributes associated with the work ethic norm such as dependability, interpersonal skills, and initiative (Baxter & Young, 1980). These employers were much less interested in particular skills such as using tools.

In a study by Murphy & Jenks (1983), employers most often cited communication, dependability, interpersonal skills, and good work habits as the most desired attributes of new and current employees. In this study, forty-eight employers were interviewed about the skills needed by entry-level employees. Functional (task-related transferable competencies), adaptive (manner in which employees interact with their environment), and specific content skills (technical skills) were examined. Employers believed individuals could be trained to do specific content skills if functional and adaptive skills were present. Murphy and Jenks (1983) later identified the following categories of functional skills:

1. Communication and persuasion (exchange, transmit and express knowledge and ideas)
2. Organization management (direct and guide a group in completing tasks and attaining goals)
3. Research and investigation (search for specific knowledge)
4. Human service (attend to the physical, mental or social needs of people)
5. Information management (arrange and retrieve data)

6. Design and planning (imagine the future and describe a process for creating it)

Murphy and Jenks also identified the following categories of adaptive skills:

1. Aptitude (capacity for learning)
2. Attitude (characteristics of general outlook, personal values, goals and motivation, indicators of work orientation and work values and social values)
3. Self management (personal, interpersonal style, and characteristics of work performance and work orientation)

Employers in the Murphy and Jenks study suggested that the difference between interviewees hired and those not hired was the adaptive skills of the interviewee. Appearance in the interview, positive attitude, and a sincere interest in the company were indicators of the potential employee's adaptive skills. Prospective employees could be trained for specific skills, but not one adaptive skill was cited as part of the employee-training program. Adaptive skills were also a critical part of the promotion process. These adaptive skills were all associated with the concept of work ethic. Other studies supported the same view of work ethic norms as desired by employers (Aultman, 1997; Crain, 1984).

Crain (1984) examined the responses of 1300 firms in the Johns Hopkins University Survey of American Employers to determine employer attitudes about entry-level employees. These employers identified the following traits as extremely important for entry-level employees:

1. Dependable

2. Proper attitude
3. Good team member
4. Basic adult literacy
5. Quick learner

In a study of 150 Caldwell County, North Carolina employers, Aultman (1997) found those employers sought adaptive skills such as dependability, cooperation, consideration, and ambition in new hires. Aultman compared the employer expectations of work ethic for new employees with the self-report of strength of adherence to work ethic attributes of community college graduates. Employers identified higher expectations than graduates self-reported in the following dimensions of work ethic:

1. Ambitious
2. Conscientious
3. Enthusiasm
4. Hard-working
5. Independence
6. Initiating
7. Persevering
8. Persistent
9. Resourceful

In 1996, in focus groups with employers in the Charlotte-Mecklenburg area of North Carolina, employers consistently mentioned work ethic as the most desired attribute for employees (Charlotte-Mecklenburg Workforce Development

Board, 1996). Dependability, good communication, and working hard were some of the norms mentioned by the employers in these focus groups. In other geographic areas of the United States, similar expectations are held by employers. As noted in the Boulder County Business Report (Lewin and Rosse, 1998), Boulder employers noted that work ethic among jobseekers was a concern. Workers with needed technical skills appeared to lack the necessary work ethic to be effective employees. Business leaders such as Jack Eckerd, founder of Eckerd Drug, and Christian commentators like Charles Colson, founder of Prison Fellowship, blamed a lack of work ethic on the economic downturn in the United States (Colson & Eckerd, 1991). They insisted that the growth of welfare and government programs had contributed to a decrease in American work ethic and economic power. The economic downturn and the demise of the manufacturing economy was the result of poor management and lack of training instead of the a decline in work ethic according to others (Schwarz, 1997).

Employer View of Jobseekers by Employment Status

Employer View of the Unemployed. Employers believe that individuals who work hard will be successful and those who do not work will not succeed (Beder, 2000). Those who do not work are viewed as lazy and unmotivated. In addition, employers believe that there are sufficient jobs for the unemployed (Sennett, 1998). Thus, they believe that the unemployed are not working because they choose not to work. Beder (2000) suggests that the public expects all capable adults to engage in work and sees dependence on government

welfare programs as a flaw in the individual. This perception by employers can be explained by attribution theory. Attribution theory is concerned with causal explanations (Forsterling, 1988). Employers attribute a lack of a strong work ethic to unemployed individuals. This deficit causes these individuals to be unemployed.

However, even in good economic times, many able-bodied people remain unemployed. Employers are reluctant to hire from the chronically unemployed even though this group may be looking for work (Shimko, 1992). These chronically unemployed include public assistance recipients, older homemakers entering the workforce, young black males, and members of other minority groups, the handicapped, and individuals with criminal records. There are many reasons why employers are reluctant to hire from these groups, but one of the most prominent is a perception that they have a poor or non-existent work history or work ethic. When an employer does take a risk and hires from these groups and the employee performs poorly, the employer extends this perception of poor performance to the entire group and will not hire from that group again (Shimko, 1992).

Long-term unemployment is defined as an individual who has been out of work for more than 90 days, according to federal guidelines (Cottle, 2001). The long-termed unemployed are assumed by employers to be oppositional to a high level of work ethic (Blunt & Richards, 1998). Recent shifts toward a knowledge-based economy reinforce the view by employers that it is the responsibility of the unemployed to correct their employment deficits to meet the needs of employers.

The long-term unemployed are also believed to lack the work experience necessary to acquire the correct work ethic (Blunt & Richards, 1998). Employers believe that if potential employees have a high level of work ethic they will prepare themselves for changes in the workplace to meet the needs of employers in a knowledge-based economy.

The cycle of the long-term unemployed, including unemployment, short-term work, public assistance, and more unemployment, prevents the individual from developing work ethic. This cycle contributes to employer's view of these workers as temporary and not valuable. Potential employees whose work history displays this cycle are unattractive to employers. Employers believe that welfare recipients not only do not possess a strong work ethic themselves, but also bring up children without a strong work ethic (Beder, 2001). The long-term unemployed are blamed for their own lack of employment because of lack of effort or education.

Employer View of Those Unemployed Due to Layoff. Over the last twenty years, many individuals in the United States have lost a job due to a plant closure or slowdown. These layoffs were primarily caused by four factors (Cottle, 2001):

1. Companies were under increased pressure to increase profits
2. Machines replaced people for repetitive tasks
3. The U. S. lost jobs to other countries with cheaper labor
4. Companies increased their reliance on contractors

These changes are structural changes in the economy. The laid-off worker is unable to change these factors with hard work. Blue-collar, unskilled laborers

and poorly educated adults are the most affected in manufacturing layoffs. The public and employers understand these factors and see the laid-off workers as victims of changing times. This employer view of mass unemployment probably arises from the experience of the Depression. Unemployment of this magnitude could not possibly be the result of the lack of work ethic of such a large number of workers. Therefore, the Depression created a precedent for communities and government to view mass and cohort unemployment as something other than a low level of work ethic (Furnham, 1990). These laid-off workers were believed to be unemployed for reasons beyond their control and not related to a low level of work ethic.

Unemployment due to layoff appears to be a result of being in the wrong place at the wrong time (Parnes, 1982). In contrast with other unemployed persons, individuals unemployed due to a layoff often elicit a sympathetic response from local governments. These government officials respond to a plant closure or significant layoffs by commenting on the high work ethic of the affected employees (Portz, 1990). Local officials take an active role in trying to find a replacement industry for these workers. Replacing these jobs with other manufacturing jobs is becoming increasingly difficult (Cottle, 2001). Laid-off workers are seen as willing to work, but jobs are not available. Additionally, research suggests that employers and local governments tend to view laid-off workers as having a good work ethic and attribute this type of unemployment to poor economic conditions and not personal inadequacies.

Laid off workers tend to move to another job of the same type within the same industry, as long as those jobs are available, instead of training for a different form of employment. These laid-off workers also tend to stay through the plant shutdown in an attempt to show loyalty to potential new employers and then move into the new employment. The average duration of unemployment for these workers is about 16 weeks (Cottle, 2001). This move to new employment is seen by employers as evidence of a strong level of work ethic.

Employers react differently to different cohorts of laid-off workers. Layoffs are more likely to affect those over age forty-five (Cottle, 2001). This age cohort is viewed as having a good work ethic. Younger workers are more likely to be laid off early in a plant closure and subsequently find other work. Older workers are more likely to stay until the plant shuts down and are viewed as having a high level of work ethic (Perrucci, Perrucci, Targ & Targ, 1988). Boomers are more likely to exhibit employer loyalty, and are more likely to stay until the plant shuts down (Jurkiewicz & Brown, 1998). Many of these workers believe if they are faithful, obedient, and moderately competent, the company will take care of them so they remain with the company until the plant is closed (Reynolds, 1992). Other manufacturers in the area often reward this loyalty by hiring many of these workers. Blue-collar managers identify with the plight of these laid off workers. These managers facilitate the reemployment of these laid-off workers because the managers believe that these workers possess a high level of work ethic (Reynolds, 1992).

Employer View of Part-time Employees. There had been an increase in the use of part-time employees because of corporate downsizing (Schwarz, 1997). In addition to the use of permanent part-time employees, there has also been an increase in part-time employment because of outsourcing and the use of temporary workers. In particular, service industries hire more part-time workers than manufacturing industries. Managers with responsibility for short-term profit favor part-time workers rather than full-time employees (Part-timers raise productivity, 2000). Part-time worker arrangements also benefit employers by lowering payroll and benefit costs and by decreasing legal risks. However, supervisors and those responsible for production view part-time employees differently.

Supervisors generally view part-time employees in one of two ways. The first view sees the typical part-time employee as a good employee who wants to work full-time and will be looking for full-time work while working hard at the current job. These supervisors generally would like to hire the individual full-time, but are constrained by corporate policy or profit margins. The second view of part-time employees is that these individuals really do not care about work. In this view, the part-timer is working for some kind of supplemental income and will only work temporarily or in specific situations and lacks commitment to the organization. JobLink Manager Edward Wood (personal communication, Nov, 1 2002) reports employers use part-time employees only in positions that are not critical to the organization. Current literature suggests that employers view part-time employees as having a lower adherence to work ethic (Beder, 2000).

Alternatively, Eisenberger (1989) reports that some employers believe that part-time workers have a high adherence to work ethic but are only working in part-time positions until a full-time position can be found.

Summary and Theoretical Framework

From the preceding studies and perspectives, several conclusions can be drawn concerning the development and commitment to work ethic and jobseekers. These conclusions are as follows:

1. Weber's concept of work ethic is still a prevalent belief although no longer related to religion. The concept has been further refined and researched.
2. Historically, work ethic has played a significant role in the economic and cultural development of the United States.
3. Work ethic is a multi-dimensional attribute.
4. Work ethic is an attribute desired by employers.
5. Employers view the work ethic of jobseekers differently, based on their employment status.
6. Previous studies have shown that generational age cohorts have similar adherence to work ethic within the cohort.
7. Several studies have shown that women have higher adherence to work ethic.
8. Work ethic development is affected by childhood experiences, family background, work experience, and supervision.

Chapter Three will describe the research design and methodology used in this study as well as the instrument, population, and site of the study. The statistical treatment for the research study will also be presented.

Chapter Three: Methods

Introduction

Employers expect employees to come to the workplace with certain skills and abilities, and one of the primary expectations is a high level of work ethic. While much research on work ethic has explored its presence in high school and college student populations and selected worker groups, there is no research concerning work ethic among jobseekers. Still, employers often perceive jobseekers as having a certain level of work ethic based on employment status, age and/or gender.

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the work ethic of jobseekers and their employment status, gender, and age. This research study was designed to provide descriptive information, as well as evidence to support or reject the presence of work ethic in jobseekers. This chapter will identify (a) the population used in the study; (b) the location and setting for the research; (c) the research design; (d) the instrument and how it was developed; (e) the data collection procedures, and (f) the statistical treatment used in the study.

Overview of the Study

Given the purpose of this descriptive study, the independent variables were defined as employment status (including unemployed- both long and short term; unemployed due to layoff; employed full-time; and employed part-time) age, and gender. The dependent variable was defined as work ethic and further defined as the valuing interpersonal skills, dependability, and initiative as important elements of job performance as measured by the Occupational Work Ethic Inventory.

The Research Site

Haywood County JobLink Center

The site for this study was the Haywood County JobLink Center located in Haywood County, North Carolina. Haywood County has approximately 54, 000 citizens and is growing. The population has increased by 15% in the last ten years (U. S. Census Bureau, 2000). Approximately 44% of the population is active in the labor force and over 51% of the workforce is employed in the service or retail industry. The per-capita personal income is \$22,407 annually. There are 24,101 individuals employed, with approximately 4,600 of these working part-time. During 2000, approximately 1,500 individuals were laid off (N. C. Employment Security Commission, 2002).

The Workforce Investment Act (WIA) requires the establishment of one-stop career centers--designated JobLink Centers in North Carolina--to match employers with qualified employees. These centers are designed to facilitate the optimal employee-employer match (Training and Employment Report, 2000).

Each center acts as a single point of contact for employers to list job openings and provide information about current and future job skills required and for jobseekers to receive assistance with their search for work. The WIA legislation also created local boards charged with the responsibility of assessing the needs of employers and meeting these needs through a network of workforce development professionals in North Carolina. Local business-led Workforce Development Boards charter (franchise) JobLink Centers that are mandated by law to facilitate successful employer-employee matches.

The Haywood County JobLink Center was the first operational JobLink Center in North Carolina. From July 1, 2000 to June 30, 2001, approximately 5,500 people used the Haywood County JobLink Center to look for work. These individuals using the Haywood County JobLink Center can be divided into five groups:

- (a) Employed full time
- (b) Employed part time
- (c) Unemployed for reason other than layoff (less than 90 days)
- (d) Unemployed for reason other than layoff (more than 90 days)
- (e) Unemployed due to layoff

Population and Sample

The study population was 373 jobseekers using the Haywood County JobLink Center from May 1, 2003 until September 1, 2003. The sample size was determined by the method described by Cohen (1988). The power was set at .90 with an effect size of .25 and the level of significance at .05. A minimum sample

size of 58 subjects of each employment status was collected and was sufficient to perform a univariate analysis of variance.

Research Design and Instrumentation

Research Design

The research design was an ex-post facto study utilizing a univariate analysis of variance to analyze data. The sampling unit was the individual jobseeker utilizing the Haywood County JobLink Center in North Carolina during the study timeframe. Employment counselors asked all jobseekers using the Haywood County JobLink to complete an online instrument.

Research Instrument

The Occupational Work Ethic Inventory (OWEI) developed by Gregory C. Petty at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville was used for this study (Petty, 1991). Roger Hill later converted this instrument to an online version. The OWEI was the most appropriate instrument for this research because it measures the multiple dimensions of work ethic directly related to a person's work. In selecting the instrument for this study, the OWEI has the following advantages:

1. It was simple to complete and required only a short amount of time.
2. It had measurable subscales.
3. The online OWEI provided easy access for jobseekers at the JobLink Center.

4. This survey had been used in similar studies with high school and community college students, university students and workers (Hill, 1992).
5. The instrument achieved a Coefficient Alpha of .95, which indicated that the instrument was highly consistent internally.

The OWEI employs a seven-point scale for 50 descriptors and focuses on measurement of work ethic characteristics directly related to a person's work (Hill, 1992). Based on a review of the relevant literature, descriptors were selected for the instrument; validity for each item was determined by a panel of experts (Petty, 1995). Content validity was established by choosing items relating to work attitudes, values, and habits (Lester & Bishop, 1997). A panel of experts reviewed these items and a second panel of experts sorted the items into categories. This process was repeated until consensus was reached. Construct validity was established through factor analysis (Lester & Bishop, 1997). Reliability in the pilot study was established with an alpha correlation of 0.95 (Petty, 1995). Additional studies produced alpha correlations of 0.90 (Hatcher, 1993) to 0.95 (Hill, 1992).

Four subscales were developed including (a) working well with others; (b) striving for advancement and achievement; (c) being dependable, and (d) acceptance of duty. The OWEI was refined in a factor analysis of the results from 1,151 respondents (Hill & Petty, 1995). The population for this factor analysis was employees in 1,011 businesses in the southeastern United States. A random sample of 268 businesses was selected, with 158 firms agreeing to participate in

the study. Based on this study, three constructs were determined to provide measurement of the multi-dimensional nature of work ethic. These three constructs were:

- a. *Interpersonal Skills* - items related to working relationships with other people.
- b. *Initiative* - characteristics that facilitate career advancement and being dissatisfied with the status quo. Some of the descriptors on this item also encompass dedication to a job situation.
- c. *Being Dependable* - descriptors that illustrate fulfilling the expectations of the job and that are inherent in performing certain functions of the job.

An online version of the OWEI developed by Hill was used to measure work ethic and was hosted on the University of Georgia website at www.uga.org/workethic/haywood (Appendix D). Other research studies have been successfully hosted at this site. Directions for completing the online instrument were available online and as printed text.

Employment counselors invited jobseekers to participate in the study. Computers were available in the JobLink Center resource room to complete the survey instrument and assistance with access to the website was provided. The instrument icon was on the opening screen at the Haywood JobLink Career Center resource room computers, directed the individual to the instrument, and provided instructions for completion (Appendix E).

Pilot Test and Training

The process of instrument use, data collection, data transfer, and website integrity was tested and confirmed as adequate before beginning the study. A pilot test was performed with a panel of experts, including employment counselors in the Haywood JobLink Center. The panel evaluated the demographic portion of the instrument to determine appropriate content, ease of use and appropriate language. The pilot test also was used to check the website, average time for completing the assessment and accuracy of data collected.

Employment counselors at the Center presented the work ethic survey to these clients, together with information about the study at the completion of the employment interview. The researcher and the employment counselors developed a script to inform the subjects of the nature of the research and the disposition of information (Appendix F). Employment counselors asked subjects to read and sign the informed consent form (Appendix G). Participants were then directed to the resource room to complete the online instrument. The process and instrumentation for this study was approved by the North Carolina State University Institutional Review Board (Appendix H). JobLink employment counselors were trained in the purpose of the study and the process for data collection. Upon completion of the other services at the Center, jobseekers were directed to the website and asked to complete the OWEI.

Hypotheses

This study will test the following hypotheses:

H₀₁ There is no significance difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among aggregated groupings of jobseekers categorized by employment status.

H₀₂ There is no significance difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI among aggregated groupings of jobseekers categorized by gender.

H₀₃ There is no significance difference in the work ethic as measured by the OWEI among aggregated groupings of jobseekers categorized by age.

H₀₄ There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among aggregated groupings of jobseekers categorized by employment status and gender.

H₀₅ There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among aggregated groupings of jobseekers categorized by employment status while controlling for age.

H₀₆ There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among aggregated groupings of jobseekers categorized by employment status and gender while controlling for age.

H₀₇ There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among jobseekers categorized by age and gender

Variables

Independent Variables

The independent variables for this study were the employment status of jobseekers, gender, and age. Employment status included five categories: (1) employed part-time; (2) employed full-time; (3) unemployed less than 90 days not

due to layoff; (4) unemployed more than 90 days not due to layoff; (5) unemployed due to layoff. Age had four categories: (1) 16-29, (2) 30-39 (3) 40-49 (4) 50 and over.

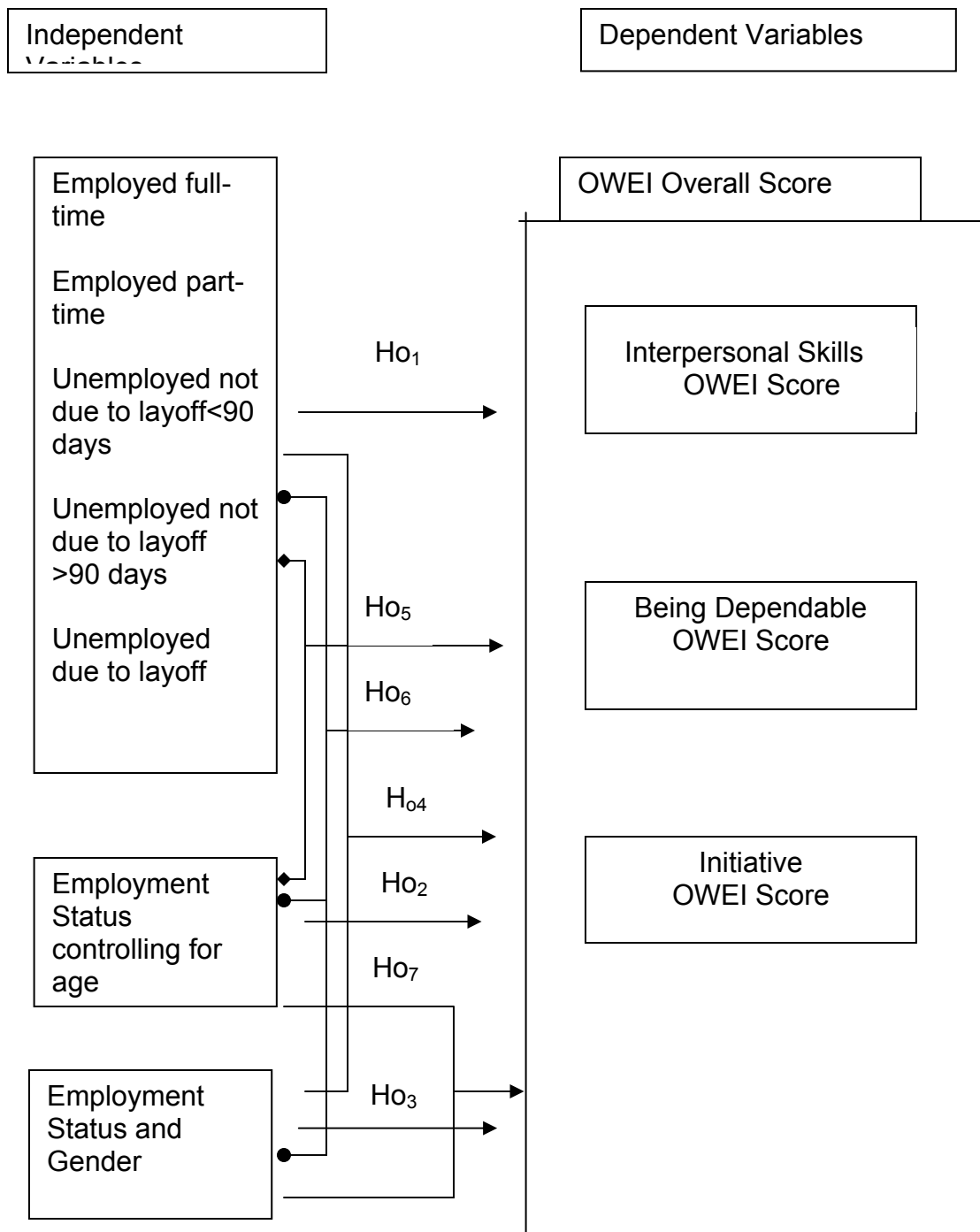
Dependent Variables

The dependent variables for this study are the three subscales of the Occupational Work Ethic Inventory. These variables are: interpersonal skills, being dependable and initiative.

Relationship Among Variables

Figure 2 illustrates the relationship between the dependent and independent variables and the hypotheses.

Figure 2. Relationship Among Variables



Data Collection Procedure

An employment counselor explained the purpose of the study using the prepared script (Appendix H). The subject was placed at a computer in the JobLink Center. Once on the computer, the subject was directed to the JobLink study on the Work Ethic [website www.coe.uga.edu/workethic/haywood.htm](http://www.coe.uga.edu/workethic/haywood.htm) by using a shortcut on the computer screen. The subject completed the OWEI and received the total score and the normed score. The employment counselor explained that scores higher than the normed score indicate a high work ethic and those scores below the normed score indicated a low work ethic and a need to improve dependability, initiative, or interpersonal skills. Employment counselors explained that employers seek a high work ethic, and then counseled the jobseeker through the currently established referral processes. Upon completion of the OWEI, scores were downloaded into a database. A Common Gateway Interface script running on the University of Georgia server handled the data. This interface governed the format of the returned data. The program created an American Standard Code for Information Interchange (ASCII) file containing the data that was later processed using statistical software. A hacker was unable to tamper with the completed survey. Access to the data was only available to Dr. Hill and the researcher. Dr. Hill performed regular back-ups of the data. This site had successfully hosted other studies.

Data Analysis

The researcher conducted a descriptive analysis of the data including a frequency count of respondents in relation to the independent variables. The

number of subjects by categories was adequate for statistical significance. To test the null hypotheses, a univariate analysis of variance was performed for each independent variable to determine if significant differences could be shown for the dependent variables. Data analysis was performed using Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). For each OWEI subscale, an analysis of variance was performed to determine significance at an alpha level of 0.05.

Chapter IV: Findings

Introduction

Overview of the Study

From a historical perspective, Weber's (1905) research broadly equated work ethic with Protestantism and linked the presence of this attribute with capitalism and success in the marketplace. Weber proposed four Protestant doctrines that he associated with work ethic. These doctrines included: Doctrine of Calling; Doctrine of Sanctification; Doctrine of Predestination and Asceticism. Adherence to these doctrines produced a strong work ethic. Strong work ethic caused a high level of dependability, effective interpersonal skills, and increased initiative on the part of the individual. Further, a high level of these factors then contributed to a high level of financial success for the individual. The conceptual model of the relationships among these variables was displayed in Chapter III, Figure 2. While the link to religion has faded, work ethic is still associated with success in the marketplace (Ali & Falcone, 1995) and is desired by employers.

Although there is significant work ethic research focused on employers, employees, and students, there has not been any research focused on jobseekers. The purpose of this study was to determine if there were differences in work ethic among jobseekers based on employment status, age, or gender or combinations of these factors.

Methodology

This study examined the level of adherence to work ethic among jobseekers grouped by employment status, age, and gender. Jobseekers using

the Haywood County, North Carolina, JobLink Center completed the Occupational Work Ethic Inventory (OWEI) to test for differences in work ethic among the sub-groups based on employment status, age, and gender.

The OWEI employs a seven-point scale for 50 descriptors and focuses on measurement of work ethic characteristics directly related to a person's work (Hill, 1992). Averages of the seven-point scale give an overall score on the OWEI: the lower the score, the lower the work ethic. By the same relationship, a higher score on the OWEI reflects a higher level of work ethic. The OWEI subscales are:

- d. *Interpersonal* - items related to working relationships with other people.
- e. *Initiative* - characteristics that facilitate career advancement and being dissatisfied with the status quo. Some of the descriptors on this item also encompass dedication to a job situation.
- f. *Dependable* - descriptors that illustrate fulfilling the expectations of the job and that are inherent in performing certain functions of the job.

Sample

This study was conducted during a five-month period of May through September 2003 at the Haywood County JobLink Center in Haywood County, North Carolina. As shown in Table 1, three hundred seventy-three (373) jobseekers using the JobLink Center completed the survey, including 77 (20.6%) individuals employed full-time; 59 (15.8%) individuals employed part-time; 86 (23.1%) individuals unemployed for less than 3 months; 70 (18.8%) individuals

unemployed 3 months or more; and 81 (21.7%) individuals unemployed due to layoff.

Table 1

Frequency Count and Percentage of Respondents by Employment Status

Employment Status	Frequency	Percentage
Employed Full-time	77	20.6
Employed Part-time	59	15.8
Unemployed less than 3 months	86	23.1
Unemployed 3 months or more	70	18.8
Unemployed due to layoff	81	21.7
Total	373	100.0

The age groups of the respondents are shown in Table 2. The largest group of respondents (35.1%) completing the survey was age 16-29. The second largest group of respondents (24.9%) was the 30-39 age group. The smallest group (19.8%) was age group 40-49. The last age group was individuals age 50 and over (20.1%).

Table 2

Frequency Count and Percentage of Respondents by Age Category

Age	Frequency	Percentage
16-29	131	35.1
30-39	93	24.9
40-49	74	19.8
50 and over	75	20.1
Total	373	100

As shown in Table 3, the third category of demographical data relevant to the study was gender. More females (52.3 %) than males (47.7%) completed the survey.

Table 3

Frequency Count and Percentage of Respondents by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Females	195	52.3
Males	178	47.7
Total	373	100.0

Hypotheses

Seven hypotheses guided this research. Three hypotheses concerned differences in work ethic among jobseekers based on separate analysis of employment status, age, or gender. Three hypotheses concerned differences in

work ethic among jobseekers based on various combinations of two of the three categories (employment status, age, and gender). A seventh hypothesis considered differences in work ethic of jobseekers based on a combination of age, gender, and employment status. All hypotheses were stated as null hypotheses and all were either rejected or supported at the .05 level.

Hypothesis One

There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among aggregated groupings of jobseekers based on employment status.

Table 4 displays the results of the univariate analysis for significant differences in responses to the OWEI overall and subscale scores for H_01 . The F-value on the univariate analysis was 5.2 with 4 degrees of freedom and was significant at the .05 level for the overall OWEI score. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. Because there was a significant difference in the overall score on the OWEI, further analysis was performed to determine any differences on the three subscales of the OWEI. The F-value for the employment status comparison on the *dependable* subscale was 5.24; the *interpersonal* subscale was 4.4; and the *initiative* subscale was 4.6. Each of these values was significant at the .05 level; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected for each the subscales. Employment status accounted for between 4.6% and 5.4% in overall work ethic and its component subscales.

Table 4

Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factor of Employment Status

Source	df	SS- Between	F	ρ	ETA Squared
OWEI	4	9.16	5.2	.000*	.052
Dependable	4	11.25	5.2	.000*	.054
Interpersonal	4	7.03	4.4	.002*	.046
Initiative	4	11.25	4.6	.001*	.047

* $p < .05$

The mean scores for the overall score on the OWEI for the respondents grouped by employment status are shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Mean OWEI Scores and Standard Deviations for Respondents Classified by Employment Status

Employment Status	N	Mean	SD
Employed full-time	77	4.937	1.00
Employed part-time	59	5.203	.52
Unemployed less than 3 months	86	5.355	.31
Unemployed 3 months or more	70	5.132	.80
Unemployed due to layoff	81	5.333	.30
Total	373	5.198	.67

A Tukey test was also performed to determine which respondent subgroup mean(s) were significantly different from the other subgroup mean(s) for the overall score on the OWEI. As shown in Table 6, there were significant

differences between individuals employed full-time and those unemployed less than three months. There were also differences between those employed full-time and those unemployed due to layoff. Fully employed individuals (mean = 4.937) had significantly lower mean scores on the OWEI than those unemployed less than three months (mean = 5.355) and those unemployed due to layoff (mean = 5.333). There were no other significant differences on the overall OWEI scores among the jobseekers grouped by employment status.

Table 6

Work Ethic Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status

Work Ethic Scale	Employment Status				
	Employed Full Time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed < 3 months	Unemployed >3 Months	Unemployed Due to Layoff
OWEI	4.937 _a	5.203 _{ab}	5.355 _b	5.132 _{ab}	5.333 _b
Dependable	5.237 _a	5.512 _{ab}	5.673 _b	5.434 _{ab}	5.699 _b
Interpersonal	4.641 _a	4.901 _{ab}	5.024 _b	4.834 _{ab}	4.971 _b
Initiative	5.027 _a	5.290 _{ab}	5.496 _b	5.224 _{ab}	5.550 _b

Note: Means in the same row that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

Mean scores for the *dependable* subscale for the subgroups of employment status are displayed in Table 7. To determine which subgroup(s) showed differences, a Tukey test was performed for the *dependable* subscale and the results are shown in Table 6. Fully employed individuals (mean = 5.237) had significantly lower mean scores than individuals unemployed less than three

months (mean 5.673); fully employed individuals also differed significantly from those unemployed due to layoff (mean = 5.699). There were no other significant differences on the *dependable* subscale among the jobseekers grouped by employment status.

Table 7

Mean Dependable Scores and Standard Deviations for Respondents Grouped by Employment Status

Employment Status	N	Mean	SD
Employed Full-time	77	5.237	.08
Employed Part-time	59	5.512	.10
Unemployed less than 3 months	86	5.673	.08
Unemployed 3 months or more	70	5.434	.09
Unemployed due to layoff	81	5.699	.08
Total	373	5.512	.74

Mean scores for the *interpersonal* subscale for the subgroups of employment status are displayed in Table 8. To determine which subgroup(s) showed differences, a Tukey test was performed for the *interpersonal* subscale and the results are shown in Table 8. On the *interpersonal* subscale of the OWEI, significant differences were found between those employed full-time and those unemployed less than 3 months, and between those employed full-time and those unemployed due to layoff. Individuals employed full-time had the lowest mean score (4.641) and showed significant differences from those unemployed less than 3 months (mean = 5.024) and those unemployed due to layoff (mean =

4.971) on *interpersonal* subscale of the OWEI. There were no other significant differences on the *interpersonal* subscale among the jobseekers grouped by employment status.

Table 8

Mean Interpersonal Scores and Standard Deviations for Respondents Grouped by Employment Status

Employment Status	N	Mean	SD
Employed Full -time	77	4.641	.99
Employed Part-time	59	4.901	.48
Unemployed less than 3 months	86	5.024	.30
Unemployed 3 months or more	70	4.834	.73
Unemployed due to layoff	81	4.971	.33
Total	373	4.878	.63

On the *initiative* subscale of the OWEI, significant differences were found among respondents based on employment status. Table 9 shows the mean scores for all groups on the *initiative* subscale. To determine which subgroup(s) showed differences, a Tukey test was performed for the *initiative* subscale and the results are shown in Table 9. Individuals employed full-time had a mean score of 5.027 on the *initiative* subscale of the OWEI, and these scores were significantly lower than those unemployed less than three months (mean = 5.496) and those individuals unemployed due to layoff (mean = 5.550), as shown in Table 6. There were no other significant differences on the *initiative* subscale among the jobseekers grouped by employment status.

Table 9

Mean Initiative Scores and Standard Deviations for Respondents Grouped by Employment Status

Employment Status	N	Mean	SD
Employed Full-time	77	5.027	.09
Employed part-time	59	5.290	.10
Unemployed less than 3 months	86	5.496	.09
Unemployed 3 months or more	70	5.224	.10
Unemployed due to layoff	81	5.550	.09
Total	373	5.305	.08

Significant differences in the overall OWEI scores were found among respondents grouped by employment status. Further analysis revealed significant differences in each of the subscales of the OWEI as well. Post-hoc analysis using the Tukey test showed there were differences between those employed full-time and those unemployed less than three months; and between those respondents employed full-time and those unemployed due to layoff. Employed individuals had significantly lower mean scores on the OWEI and on each the OWEI subscales of *dependable*, *interpersonal* and *initiative*; thus they showed a lower adherence to work ethic than those jobseekers unemployed less than 3 months and those jobseekers unemployed due to layoff.

Hypothesis Two

There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among jobseekers categorized by gender.

Hypothesis two was tested using a univariate analysis of variance. No significant difference was found between males and females. Further analysis on the OWEI subscales yielded no significant differences based on gender.

Therefore, H₀₂ was supported (see Table 10).

Table 10

Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factor of Gender

Source	df	SS- Between Groups	F	ρ	ETA Squared
OWEI	1	.11	.244	.622	.001
Dependable	1	.29	.500	.450	.001
Interpersonal	1	3.96	.099	.750	.000
Initiative	1	6.60	.090	.763	.000

* p <.05

Hypothesis Three

There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among jobseekers categorized by age.

The results of the univariate analysis of variance for differences in work ethic as measured by the OWEI among respondents based on age are shown in Table 11. No significant difference was found among age groups, so the null hypothesis was supported. Further analysis on the *dependable*, *interpersonal*, and *initiative* subscales of the OWEI yielded no significant differences based on age group. The null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in work ethic among jobseekers categorized by age was retained.

Table 11

Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factor of Age

OWEI	df	SS- Between	F	ρ	ETA Squared
OWEI	3	2.2	1.59	.19	.01
Dependable	4	3.7	1.71	.15	.02
Interpersonal	4	0.6	0.42	.79	.01
Initiative	4	5.8	2.20	.07	.02

* $p < .05$

Hypothesis Four

There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among aggregated groupings of jobseekers categorized by employment status and gender.

A univariate analysis of variance testing for significant differences in respondents grouped by employment status and gender revealed that there were significant differences (see Table 12). The F value was 3.081 with 4 degrees of freedom. This value was significant at the .05 level so the null hypothesis was rejected. Employment status and gender accounted for between 3.3 and 9.0% of the variance in overall work ethic and its component subscales. There were differences among male and female subgroups by employment status. Table 13 displays the results of the Tukey test which showed that females who were employed full time (mean = 4.779) had significantly different scores on the OWEI from females unemployed less than 3 months (mean = 5.346). Females employed full-time (mean = 4.779) also showed significant differences from

female respondents unemployed due to layoff (mean = 5.358). The differences among these groups were also found on each of the subscales of the OWEI. Additionally, on the *initiative* and *interpersonal* subscales females employed full-time showed significant differences from females unemployed more than three months.

Table 12

Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factors of Employment Status and Gender

OWEI	df	SS-Between	F	ρ	ETA Squared
OWEI	4	5.323	3.081	.016*	.033
Dependable	4	3.923	2.597	.038*	.057
Interpersonal	4	4.785	4.729	.001*	.09
Initiative	4	7.090	3.496	.009*	.075

* $p < .05$

Table 13

Work Ethic Among Female Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status

Work Ethic Scale	Employment Status				
	Employed Full Time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed < 3 months	Unemployed >3 Months	Unemployed Due to Layoff
OWEI	4.779 _a	5.157 _{ab}	5.346 _b	5.305 _{ab}	5.358 _b
Dependable	5.038 _a	5.461 _{ab}	5.685 _b	5.570 _{ab}	5.757 _b
Interpersonal	4.528 _a	4.869 _{ab}	4.983 _b	5.015 _b	4.975 _b
Initiative	4.847 _a	5.222 _{ab}	5.519 _b	5.456 _b	5.454 _b

Note: Means in the same row that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

As shown in Table 14, there were differences among males grouped by employment status. Males unemployed three months or more (mean = 4.903) differed from males unemployed due to layoff (mean = 5.316). These differences were consistent for each of the OWEI subscales as well.

Table 14

Work Ethic Among Male Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status

Work Ethic Scale	Employment Status				
	Employed Full Time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed < 3 months	Unemployed >3 Months	Unemployed Due to Layoff
OWEI	5.127 _{ab}	5.280 _{ab}	5.364 _{ab}	4.903 _a	5.316 _b
Dependable	5.478 _{ab}	5.598 _{ab}	5.660 _{ab}	5.254 _a	5.657 _b
Interpersonal	4.775 _{ab}	4.955 _{ab}	5.063 _{ab}	4.594 _a	4.968 _b
Initiative	5.244 _{ab}	5.404 _{ab}	5.475 _{ab}	4.915 _a	5.447 _b

Note: Means in the same row that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

There were also differences among females grouped by employment status and males grouped by employment status. Females employed full-time had significantly lower means than males unemployed less than 3 months. Fully employed females also had significantly lower means on the OWEI overall score and each of the subscale scores than males unemployed due to layoff. No other differences were found among the groups based on employment status combined with gender groups in the post-hoc analysis using the Tukey test (see Table 15).

Table 15

Work Ethic Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status and Gender

Work Ethic Scale	Gender	Employed Full-time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed <3 Months	Unemployed >3 Months	Unemployed Due to Layoff
OWEI	Male	5.127 _{ab}	5.280 _{ab}	5.364 _b	4.903 _{ab}	5.316 _b
	Female	4.779 _a	5.157 _{ab}	5.346 _{ab}	5.305 _{ab}	5.358 _{ab}
Dependable	Male	5.478 _{ab}	5.598 _{ab}	5.660 _b	5.254 _{ab}	5.657 _b
	Female	5.038 _a	5.461 _{ab}	5.685 _{ab}	5.570 _{ab}	5.757 _{ab}
Interpersonal	Male	4.775 _{ab}	4.955 _{ab}	5.063 _b	4.594 _{ab}	4.968 _b
	Female	4.528 _a	4.869 _{ab}	4.983 _{ab}	5.015 _{ab}	4.975 _{ab}
Initiative	Male	5.244 _{ab}	5.404 _{ab}	5.475 _b	4.915 _{ab}	5.447 _b
	Female	4.847 _a	5.222 _{ab}	5.519 _{ab}	5.456 _{ab}	5.454 _{ab}

Note: Means in the same OWEI scale row that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

Hypothesis Five

There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among aggregated groupings of jobseekers categorized by employment status and age.

A univariate analysis of variance was used to test for significant differences in the OWEI and subscale scores of jobseekers based on employment status and age. Significant differences were found in the overall

OWEI score for jobseekers aged 16-29 combined with employment status. Significant differences were also found among jobseekers aged 50 and over grouped by employment status. Individuals in age group 30-39 and age group 40-49 did not differ significantly when grouped by employment status. As shown in Table 16, individuals employed full-time and aged 16-29 had significantly lower means than all other employment categories for that age group on the OWEI. Additionally, individuals employed full-time and aged 16-29 had significantly lower means than all other employment categories for that age group on the *dependable* (see Table 17), *interpersonal* (see Table 18) and *initiative* (see Table 19) subscales. Employment status and age accounted for between 1.0% and 6.0% of the variance in overall work ethic and its component subscales.

There were also significant differences in the age group 50 and over on the overall OWEI (see Table 16), the *dependable* (see Table 17), and *initiative* (see Table 19) subscales, but there were no significant differences in the *interpersonal* (see Table 18) subscale. Individuals employed full-time in the over 50 age group had significantly lower scores than the other employment subgroups on the overall OWEI scores, the *dependable* and *initiative* subscales.

Table 16

OWEI Overall Mean Scores Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status and Age

Age	Employment Status				
	Employed Full Time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed < 3 months	Unemployed >3 Months	Unemployed Due to Layoff
16-29	4.313 _a	5.236 _b	5.337 _b	5.135 _b	5.367 _b
30-39	4.946 _a	4.714 _a	5.088 _a	4.548 _a	4.969 _a
40-49	5.238 _a	5.142 _a	5.295 _a	5.375 _a	5.422 _a
50+	5.062 _a	5.314 _b	5.375 _b	5.505 _b	5.367 _b

Note: Means in the same row that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

Table 17

Dependable Subscale Mean Scores Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status and Age

Age	Employment Status				
	Employed Full Time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed < 3 months	Unemployed >3 Months	Unemployed Due to Layoff
16-29	4.518 _a	5.514 _b	5.639 _b	5.387 _b	5.768 _b
30-39	5.609 _a	5.375 _a	5.775 _a	5.245 _a	5.630 _a
40-49	5.447 _a	5.557 _a	5.667 _a	5.717 _a	5.692 _a
50+	5.345 _a	5.652 _b	5.636 _b	5.908 _b	5.574 _b

Note: Means in the same row that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

Table 18

Interpersonal Subscale Mean Scores Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status and Age

Age	Employment Status				
	Employed Full Time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed < 3 months	Unemployed >3 Months	Unemployed Due to Layoff
16-29	4.066 _a	5.035 _b	5.031 _b	4.913 _b	5.021 _b
30-39	4.947 _a	4.714 _a	5.085 _a	4.548 _a	4.970 _a
40-49	4.845 _a	4.870 _a	4.924 _a	5.003 _a	5.047 _a
50+	4.798 _a	4.950 _a	4.996 _a	5.000 _a	4.868 _a

Note: Means in the same row that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

Table 19

Initiative Subscale Mean Scores Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status and Age

Age	Employment Status				
	Employed Full Time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed < 3 months	Unemployed >3 Months	Unemployed Due to Layoff
16-29	4.368 _a	5.3001 _b	5.447 _b	5.149 _b	5.363 _b
30-39	5.281 _a	5.071 _a	5.480 _a	5.006 _a	5.513 _a
40-49	5.222 _a	5.416 _a	5.462 _a	5.555 _a	5.648 _a
50+	5.111 _a	5.487 _b	5.752 _b	5.889 _b	5.343 _b

Note: Means in the same row that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

Hypothesis Six

There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among aggregated groupings of jobseekers based on employment status and gender while controlling for age.

A univariate analysis of variance was used to test for significant differences in the OWEI and its subscales among jobseekers with reference to employment status, age, and gender. The F value was 4.14 and was significant at the .05 level; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected (see Table 20). Employment status together with gender and age accounted for between 18 and 22% of the variance in overall work ethic and its component subscales, respectively. Females employed full-time aged 16-29 scored significantly lower than all other groups of both females and males on the OWEI (see Table 21).

Table 20

Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factors of Employment Status and Gender and Age

OWEI	df	SS- Between	F	ρ	ETA Squared
OWEI	23	1.680	4.14	0.00*	.226
Dependable	23	2.006	4.13	0.00*	.221
Interpersonal	23	1.425	4.29	0.00*	.220
Initiative	23	1.976	3.43	0.00*	.184

* $p < .05$

Table 21

Work Ethic Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status, Age and Gender

Gender	Age	Employed Full-time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed < 3months	Unemployed >3 months	Unemployed Due to layoff
Female	16-29	3.588 _a	5.058 _b	5.045 _b	4.980 _b	4.985 _b
	30-39	5.096 _b	4.685 _b	4.994 _b	5.100 _b	5.144 _b
	40-49	4.934 _b	4.929 _b	4.282 _b	4.948 _b	5.042 _b
	50+	4.977 _b	4.913 _b	4.991 _b	5.121 _b	4.722 _b
Male	16-29	5.270 _b	5.312 _b	5.304 _b	5.107 _b	5.360 _b
	30-39	5.120 _b	5.300 _b	5.444 _b	4.238 _b	5.290 _b
	40-49	5.253 _b	4.940 _b	5.553 _b	5.388 _b	5.420 _b
	50+	4.904 _b	5.374 _b	5.350 _b	5.400 _b	5.277 _b

Note: Means in the table that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

A Tukey test was also performed to determine which respondent subgroup mean(s) were significantly different from the other subgroup mean(s) for the *dependable*, *interpersonal*, and *initiative* OWEI subscales for jobseekers grouped by employment status, age, and gender. Differences among the groups on each of the subscales were consistent with the overall OWEI results. On the *dependable* subscale, fully employed females aged 16-29 had lower scores than all other jobseeker age, employment, and gender groups (see Table 22). These females also scored lower on the *interpersonal* subscale (see Table 23) and the *initiative* subscale (see Table 24).

On each of the subscales of the OWEI, there were significant differences between females aged 16-29 and other male and female subgroups by employment and age groups. As shown in Table 22, means for females employed full-time and aged 16-29 were significantly lower than means for all other female and male age and employment groups on the *dependable* subscale. There were differences in females employed full-time and age 16-29 and the various male and female jobseeker groups (see Table 22). There were also differences in mean scores on the *interpersonal* subscale for females aged 16-29 and all other male and female employment groups (see Table 23). In addition, there were differences in mean scores on the *initiative* subscale between females aged 16-29 and all other female and male employment and age groups (see Table 24).

Table 22

Dependable Subscale Means Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status, Age and Gender

Gender	Age	Employed Full-time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed < 3months	Unemployed >3 months	Unemployed Due to layoff
Female	16-29	3.924 _a	5.353 _b	5.676 _b	5.344 _b	5.807 _b
	30-39	5.719 _b	5.328 _b	5.756 _b	5.826 _b	5.807 _b
	40-49	5.535 _b	5.556 _b	5.608 _b	5.721 _b	5.827 _b
	50+	5.532 _b	5.612 _b	5.747 _b	5.859 _b	5.559 _b
Male	16-29	5.704 _b	5.626 _b	5.605 _b	5.442 _b	5.743 _b
	30-39	5.487 _b	5.658 _b	5.780 _b	4.602 _b	5.655 _b
	40-49	5.585 _b	5.193 _b	5.842 _b	5.705 _b	5.710 _b
	50+	5.194 _b	5.714 _b	5.566 _b	6.053 _b	5.583 _b

Note: Means in the table that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

Table 23
Interpersonal Subscale Means Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status, Age and Gender

Gender	Age	Employed Full-time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed < 3months	Unemployed >3 months	Unemployed Due to layoff
Female	16-29	3.588 _a	5.058 _b	5.045 _b	4.980 _b	4.985 _b
	30-39	5.096 _b	4.685 _b	4.994 _b	5.100 _b	5.144 _b
	40-49	4.934 _b	4.929 _b	4.282 _b	4.948 _b	5.042 _b
	50+	4.977 _b	4.913 _b	4.991 _b	5.121 _b	4.722 _b
Male	16-29	5.058 _b	5.045 _b	4.980 _b	4.985 _b	5.096 _b
	30-39	4.934 _b	4.929 _b	4.282 _b	4.948 _b	5.042 _b
	40-49	4.934 _b	4.929 _b	4.282 _b	4.948 _b	5.042 _b
	50+	4.977 _b	4.913 _b	4.991 _b	5.121 _b	4.722 _b

Note: Means in the table that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

Table 24
Initiative Subscale Means Among Jobseekers Grouped by Employment Status,
 Age and Gender

Gender	Age	Employed Full-time	Employed Part-time	Unemployed < 3months	Unemployed >3 months	Unemployed Due to layoff
Female	16-29	3.865 _a	5.101 _b	5.539 _b	5.194 _b	4.416 _b
	30-39	5.370 _b	5.000 _b	5.570 _b	5.722 _b	5.723 _b
	40-49	5.282 _b	5.269 _b	5.296 _b	5.635 _b	5.500 _b
	50+	5.375 _b	5.454 _b	5.756 _b	5.889 _b	5.194 _b
Male	16-29	5.255 _b	5.378 _b	5.363 _b	5.089 _b	5.321 _b
	30-39	5.181 _b	5.500 _b	5.414 _b	5.210 _b	5.444 _b
	40-49	5.679 _b	5.111 _b	5.778 _b	5.467 _b	5.685 _b
	50+	4.900 _b	5.540 _b	5.750 _b	5.889 _b	5.429 _b

Note: Means in the table that do not share the subscripts differ at the $p < .05$ in the Tukey honestly significant difference comparison.

Hypothesis Seven

There is no significant difference in the work ethic, as measured by the OWEI, among jobseekers categorized by age and gender.

A univariate analysis of variance was used to test for significant differences in the overall OWEI and subscale scores of jobseekers based on employment status together with age, and gender. The F value was 4.289 and was not significant at the .05 level. The hypothesis could not be rejected. Further analysis on each of the OWEI subscales resulted in no significant differences among jobseekers when grouped by age and gender (see Table 25).

Table 25

Univariate Analysis of Variance Results for Responses to the OWEI and Subscales for the Factors of Employment Status, Age, and Gender

Source	df	SS- Between Groups	F	ρ	ETA Squared
OWEI	4	4.289	2.366	.063	.025
Dependable	4	1.642	3.013	.164	.018
Interpersonal	4	1.162	1.907	.109	.021
Initiative	4	1.135	1.745	.139	.001

$p = < .05$

Summary of the Findings

This study found significant differences in work ethic based on the employment status of jobseekers. Fully employed respondents scored significantly lower than respondents unemployed less than three months, and fully employed respondents also scored significantly lower than respondents unemployed due to layoff. These scores indicate a lower level of work ethic for employed individuals than for individuals unemployed less than three months and individuals unemployed due to layoff.

Significant differences were also found in comparisons of employment status and age categories. Respondents aged 16-29 who were employed full-time had significantly lower scores on the OWEI and its subscales than all other respondents in this age group. Respondents over age 50 who were employed full-time scored lower than those unemployed less than three months and also scored lower than those unemployed more than three months. These lower scores indicated a lower level of work ethic.

Additionally, significant differences were found in comparisons of employment status and gender on the OWEI and subscales. Females employed full-time scored lower than both females unemployed due to layoff and those unemployed less than three months. Females employed full-time also scored lower than males unemployed due to layoff did. Males unemployed more than three months scored lower than males unemployed due to layoff did.

When age, and gender, and employment status were tested together, significant differences were found among jobseekers. Females aged 16-29 and who were employed full-time had significantly lower scores than all other gender, employment and age groups in combination. However, the highest level of contribution to work ethic was found when analysis of groups were combination of the three independent variables: employment status, age, and gender. This contribution ranged from 18-22%.

No significant differences were found in the OWEI or subscale scores based on age or gender tested separately. Furthermore, no differences among the groups were found when age and gender combination groups were compared.

Chapter V: Summary, Conclusions, and Recommendations

This chapter provides a summary of the study, together with conclusions and recommendations for future research in the area of the work ethic and jobseekers.

Overview of Study

This descriptive study explored the differences in work ethic among jobseekers based on employment status, age, and gender. The study also investigated the differences in three components of work ethic – dependable, initiative, and interpersonal skills-- using an online version of the Occupational Work Ethic Inventory (OWEI) developed by Petty and Hill (Petty, 1991; Hill, 1992). The population for the study was jobseekers using a publicly-funded career center. The sampling unit was the individual jobseeker who used the Haywood County JobLink Center in North Carolina during May to September 2003. Employment counselors invited these individuals to join the study, with three hundred seventy-three jobseekers completing the online survey. The methodology for the study was an ex-post facto analysis measuring work ethic among jobseekers grouped by employment status, age, gender, and combinations of these. Work ethic theory (Please refer to Chapter II, Figure 1, p 21 for the conceptual model) provided the foundation for the study. Of particular interest in the review of literature were several sources noting that employer perceptions of people's work ethic differed based on the employment status, age, and gender of the person. Finally, earlier studies on work ethic used students or

workers as subjects. No research was found on the work ethic of jobseekers; therefore, this group was selected for the current study.

Seven hypotheses guided this research. Each hypothesis dealt with the work ethic of jobseekers based on employment status, age, gender, or a combination of these categories. The first three hypotheses asked whether jobseekers differed in work ethic based on employment status, age, or gender respectively. Hypotheses four through six asked whether jobseekers differed in work ethic based on combinations of two of the three categories. Differences in work ethic based on a combination of age and employment status and gender were tested in the seventh hypothesis.

Data were analyzed using a univariate analysis of variance statistical method. When statistically significant differences were found among respondent groups on the overall OWEI score, a univariate analysis of variance was performed for each of the OWEI subscales-- *dependable*, *interpersonal*, and *initiative*. The significance level was set at the $p < .05$ level. When statistically significant differences were found among respondent groups on the overall OWEI score and subscales, post hoc analysis using the Tukey Honestly Significant Difference comparison test was performed to determine which groups exhibited differences.

Conclusions and Implications

Employment Status

Jobseekers unemployed less than 3 months and those unemployed due to layoff scored significantly higher on the overall OWEI than jobseekers employed

full-time. These two groups also scored higher on each of the subscales (*dependable, interpersonal and initiative*) than the jobseekers employed full-time. These findings appear to contradict the literature that suggests employers believe that employed individuals possess a higher level of work ethic.

It is important to note that while there were statistically significant differences in work ethic scores among the jobseeker groups tested in this study, the contribution of employment status or age and gender combined with employment status to differences in total work ethic was small. Employment status accounted for only 5% of the differences in work ethic among these groups, based on the results of the univariate analysis of variance. Therefore, other factor(s) accounted for 95% of the differences in OWEI and subscale mean scores for jobseekers. These unknown factors may be better predictors of adherence to work ethic.

These results may suggest that the apparent higher level of work ethic for those who are unemployed less than 3 months and those unemployed due to layoff may be influenced by job satisfaction or other factors not measured by the OWEI. Regardless of the possible reasons for the higher level of work ethic, these results suggest that employers who do not consider applicants because they are unemployed may be eliminating persons with a desirable level of work ethic. Other factors influencing the work ethic level of unemployed jobseekers could be the financial strain of being unemployed, a heightened awareness of the expectations of employers, or an unwillingness to accept unemployment compensation due to family background.

Employment Status and Gender

Females unemployed less than three months and those unemployed due to layoff scored significantly higher on the overall OWEI score than females who were employed full-time. These two groups of unemployed females also scored higher on the *dependable* subscale than fully employed females. Females unemployed for more than three months also scored higher than females employed full time on the *interpersonal* and the *initiative* scales. Factors other than employment status seem to influence work ethic of females since only 1-3% of the differences in work ethic among these groups could be attributed to employment status and gender, with other factors contributing 97-99% of the differences among the groups.

Males unemployed due to layoff scored significantly higher than males unemployed three months or more than three months on the overall OWEI scale, indicating a higher level of work ethic. Laid-off males also scored higher on each of the OWEI subscales than males unemployed three months or more than three months. Results seem to support the view that those unemployed due to layoff have higher levels of work ethic; however, females unemployed due to layoff did not exhibit these higher OWEI scores.

Employment Status and Age

Fully employed jobseekers aged 16-29 scored significantly lower on the OWEI than all other employment status groups within this age category. This group also scored significantly lower than all of the other employment groups on

each of the OWEI subscales. Nevertheless, the combination of age and employment status contributed only 1% -6% of the differences in work ethic. Thus, roughly 94% of the variance can be attributed to unknown factors.

One factor might be the level of supervision experienced by the worker. According to Cherrington (1980), supervision deeply influences work ethic. This age group may lack work experience with good supervision. Thus, this lower level of work ethic may be a result, at least partially, of the limited work experiences of this group. Further, having seen long term workers laid off, this group may have no sense of loyalty to a company. This group of jobseekers has also lived in a period of constant change and may see all work as temporary at their current age. Additionally, these jobseekers may be employed in low-wage, low-skill jobs that do not provide the connection between hard work and financial success.

Jobseekers over age 50 who were employed full-time showed significant differences from other employment status groups as well. On the overall OWEI score, jobseekers working full-time and age 50 or over scored significantly lower than those in the same age group who were employed part-time, unemployed less than three months, or unemployed three months or more. On the *dependable* subscale, full-time employed persons age 50 or over also scored lower than those of the same age employed part-time and those unemployed more than three months. Additionally, on the *initiative* subscale, persons over the age 50 and employed full-time scored lower than those unemployed less than three months and those unemployed more than three months.

Significant differences in the overall OWEI, the *dependable* and *initiative* subscales without a significant difference in the *interpersonal* scale may indicate a relationship to the stage of life of the respondents. It is possible that this group of respondents may take less initiative or be less dependable because they may be completing careers, and now view work as a hobby or distraction rather than a vocation. Alternatively, this group may not link hard work and financial success if they are looking for work at this age instead of anticipating retirement or experiencing career success. Health concerns, competition from leisure activities, and family concerns such as caring for elderly parents may also be other factors influencing work ethic in this age group.

Employment Status, Age, and Gender

There were significant differences among some jobseeker groups when the groups were analyzed by a combination of employment status, age, and gender. Females employed full time and aged 16-29 scored significantly lower on the OWEI and on each of the subscales than other females in this age group and also scored significantly lower than males of all age and employment groups. These results suggest that employed females of this age group have a lower level of work ethic.

The combination of employment status, age, and gender had the highest level of contribution to work ethic at 18-22%. Still, other factors that the current study was not designed to detect appear to have greater influence on the work ethic. Lack of work experience, poor goal setting ability, and a possible preference of marriage over work may influence work ethic in these young

female jobseekers. Additionally, they may be employed in low-wage and low level jobs that do not fully engage these women. Factors such as these may also contribute to the low level of work ethic among these women.

Age

Jobseekers grouped by age alone showed no significant differences on the overall OWEI score. Furthermore, there was no difference on the subscales of the OWEI (dependable, interpersonal and initiative). These results are not consistent with the literature review that postulated a lower level of work ethic for the age groups 16-29 and 30-39 (Filipczak, 1994).

Gender

Jobseekers grouped by gender alone showed no significant differences on the overall OWEI or subscale scores. Prior studies found significant differences based on gender; however, students and workers were the subjects in these studies (Cherrington, 1980; Hill, 1992; Wentworth and Chell, 1997). Previous research on other populations showed that females tended to have stronger work ethic than males (Herrington, 1980; Hill, 1992). Jobseekers may have a different adherence to work ethic than students and workers, thus accounting for the difference in findings.

Age and Gender

There was no significant difference in the overall OWEI score when grouped by gender and age. Additionally, there were no differences in the subscales of the OWEI when grouped by age and gender.

Summary

To summarize, this study investigated the differences in work ethic among jobseekers when grouped according to employment status, age and gender and combinations of these factors. The findings lead to several conclusions that are accurate within the limitations specified by the study.

Work ethic of jobseekers differed significantly by employment status. However, the differences were not consistent with employer expectations found in the literature (Bender, 2000; Shimko, 1992). Previous research suggested that employers expected unemployed jobseekers to have lower levels of work ethic, yet this view was not supported by the present study. Instead, this study suggested that employed jobseekers showed significantly lower levels of work ethic than unemployed individuals did. Combining employment status with age or gender revealed differences in work ethic and the subscales of work ethic.

However, age, gender, and age combined with gender showed no differences among the jobseeker groups. This research suggested that among jobseekers, neither age nor gender are major contributors to work ethic. Employment status may be one of the factors influencing work ethic, but this research suggested that employment status and employment status combined with age or gender are not critical indicators of work ethic because these factors account for a relatively low level of variance based on the Tukey test. This study found that neither gender nor age alone is an indicator of a jobseeker's work ethic unless combined with employment status. There were no significant differences in work ethic on the overall OWEI or the subscales of *dependable*,

interpersonal or *initiative* among jobseekers when grouped by gender or by age.

The data presented in this study provide considerable baseline information concerning work ethic in relation to the employment status, age, and gender of jobseekers. Employment status when combined with age, combined with gender, or combined with age and gender together showed significant differences among the groups of jobseekers. Based on the data in this study, employed individuals had a lower level of work ethic than those in the other employment categories and significantly lower levels than those unemployed less than three months and those unemployed due to layoff. Employers' perceptions that employed individuals have a stronger work ethic (Bender, 2000; Shimko, 1992) were not supported by these data. Employment status and employment status combined with age and combined with gender accounted for only 18-22% of the differences in work ethic. Combinations of employment status and gender or age accounted for less than 10% of the contribution to work ethic. While the study found significant differences, 90% of the differences are attributable to something other than employment status or employment status combined with gender or age.

Recommendations for Further Research

The following recommendations are made for further research on the work ethic and the dimensions of work ethic, based on the data presented in this study:

1. A study to determine other factors that may contribute to strong work ethic is recommended.

2. A study to determine other factors that may contribute to the difference in work ethic for females aged 16-29 is recommended.
3. A study to determine what other factors influence the work ethic of persons employed full-time who are over age 50 and looking for new employment is recommended.
4. A longitudinal study to determine whether work ethic remains consistent in an individual at different stages of employment and job search.
5. A longitudinal study of individuals at various stages of employment paired with a measurement of job satisfaction to provide insight into any interaction between work ethic and job satisfaction is recommended.
6. Since only a small part of the work ethic of the jobseeker groups in the study could be attributed to the factors measured by the OWEI, the development of other instruments may be indicated in order to identify and measure other factors contribute to work ethic.

This chapter included an overview of the study, the methodology employed in the study, and a synopsis of the findings of the study. Conclusions and recommendations for further study were also included in this chapter.

This study was intended to promote a greater understanding of the history and development of work ethic and work ethic measurement. The study has added to the body of knowledge by providing information about a previously unstudied group. Further, this study may offer workforce educators, business

leaders, and policy makers a common framework for discussions about work ethic, work ethic development, and employment policy.

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Appendices

Appendix A

Being Dependable Subscale Descriptors

1. Following directions
2. Following regulations
3. Dependable
4. Reliable
5. Careful
6. Honest
7. Punctual

Appendix B

Interpersonal Skills Subscale Descriptors

1. Courteous
2. Friendly
3. Cheerful
4. Considerate
5. Pleasant
6. Cooperative
7. Helpful
8. Likeable
9. Devoted
10. Loyal
11. Well-groomed
12. Patient
13. Appreciative
14. Hardworking
15. Modest
16. Emotionally Stable
17. Stubborn

Appendix C

Initiative Subscale Descriptors

1. Perceptive
2. Productive
3. Resourceful
4. Initiating
5. Ambitious
6. Efficient
7. Effective
8. Enthusiastic
9. Dedicated
10. Persistent
11. Accurate
12. Conscientious
13. Independent
14. Adaptable
15. Persevering
16. Orderly

Appendix D

Printed Copy of the Online Version of the OWEI
(Petty, 1993)

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dissertation only.

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author.

Occupational Work Ethic Inventory (OWEI)

For each work ethic descriptor listed below, select the answer that most accurately describes your standards for that item. There are no right or wrong answers. There also is no time limit, but you should work as rapidly as possible. Please respond to every item on the list.

As a worker I can describe myself as:

1. Dependable

- Never
- Almost Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Usually
- Almost Always
- Always

2. Stubborn

- Never
- Almost Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Usually
- Almost Always
- Always

3. Following regulations

- Never
- Almost Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Usually
- Almost Always
- Always

4. Following directions

- Never
- Almost Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes

- Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
5. Independent
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
6. Ambitious
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
7. Effective
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
8. Reliable
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
9. Tardy
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually

- Almost Always
- Always
- 10. Initiating
 - Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
- 11. Perceptive
 - Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
- 12. Honest
 - Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
- 13. Irresponsible
 - Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
- 14. Efficient
 - Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always

- Always
- 15. Adaptable
 - Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
- 16. Careful
 - Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
- 17. Appreciative
 - Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
- 18. Accurate
 - Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
- 19. Emotionally stable
 - Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always

20. Conscientious
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
21. Depressed
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
22. Patient
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
23. Punctual
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
24. Devious
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
25. Selfish

- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
26. Negligent
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
27. Persevering
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
28. Likeable
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
29. Helpful
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
30. Apathetic
- Never

- Almost Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Usually
- Almost Always
- Always

31. Pleasant

- Never
- Almost Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Usually
- Almost Always
- Always

32. Cooperative

- Never
- Almost Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Usually
- Almost Always
- Always

33. Hard working

- Never
- Almost Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Usually
- Almost Always
- Always

34. Rude

- Never
- Almost Never
- Seldom
- Sometimes
- Usually
- Almost Always
- Always

35. Orderly

- Never
- Almost Never

- Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
36. Enthusiastic
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
37. Cheerful
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
38. Persistent
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
39. Hostile
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
40. Dedicated
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom

- Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
41. Devoted
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
42. Courteous
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
43. Considerate
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
44. Careless
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
45. Productive
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes

- Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
46. Well groomed
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
47. Friendly
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
48. Loyal
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
49. Resourceful
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually
 - Almost Always
 - Always
50. Modest
- Never
 - Almost Never
 - Seldom
 - Sometimes
 - Usually

- Almost Always
- Always

[Submit Answers](#)

Occupational Work Ethic Inventory (OWEI)

Your interpersonal score is 6.31 out of 7

Your initiative score is 6.69 out of 7

Your dependability total is 6.29 out of 7

[Continue](#)

Interpreting Your OWEI Score

To assist you in thinking about your scores on the OWEI, the table below is provided so that you can compare your results with those from a representative sample of working adults. These mean scores are based on responses from 1133 people working in a random sample of 158 different businesses and industries. A full report of this study can be found in the *Journal of Career Development*, volume 24, issue 1. The 1997 article titled "Demographic Differences in Selected Work Ethic Attributes" is found on pages 3-23.

	Interpersonal Skills	Initiative	Being Dependable
Female	6.00	5.67	6.34
Male	5.75	5.52	6.07

To request further information about this instrument or to inquire about ongoing work ethic research, please contact rbhill@arches.uga.edu



[Top of Page](#)



[Home Page](#)

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Appendix E

Instruction for Haywood County Jobseekers

Haywood County JobLink Work Ethic Study

In an effort to assess the work ethic of jobseekers utilizing the Haywood County JobLink Center, a website has been designed to assist jobseekers in evaluating their level of work ethic.

Instructions for using the assessment are provided below:

1. Please read all instructions before going to the next screen. An employment Counselor will assist you if you need assistance.
2. The Employment Counselor will give you a password. Enter that password in the block below and click on the Submit button.
3. The opening screen should appear. On this screen are several drop-down boxes for you to enter your employment status. One of the boxes requires an identification number. The Employment Counselor will give you this identification number.
4. Several questions will then be presented on your screen. Answer each item honestly and carefully as you would if you were at work. You will need to use the scroll down bar to get to the questions at the bottom of the page.
5. After all of the questions have been answered, click the Submit Answers button to move ahead. I
6. f all the questions have not been answered, a message will notify you and provide an opportunity for you to go back and finish answering the questions.
7. The final screen will provide your scores for interpersonal skills, initiative, and dependability. Print this page and click Continue to go to a page with comments about your scores.
8. Thank you for participating in this project and good luck in your job search

If needed, print this page to provide instructions as you continue with the online assessment.

<p>Enter password:</p> <input type="text"/>
<input type="submit" value="Submit"/>

Appendix F

Script for Employment Counselors

The Haywood County JobLink Center is participating in a work ethic study. We would like you to complete an online survey about your work ethic. The survey will take about 10 minutes to complete. Your information is only available to you and the researcher. Would you please sign this informed consent to complete the survey and I will help you to access the survey website. You will print your results immediately after completing the survey. The researcher may be contacted at the number posted.

Appendix G
Informed Consent
North Carolina State University

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Title of Study: Differences in work ethic by employment status of Jobseekers
Principal Investigator: **Susan Fowler Fouts** Faculty Sponsor: **C. Kasworm/L. Gonzalez-Sullivan**

You are invited to participate in a study. The purpose of this study is to determine work ethic of jobseekers as determined by employment status and age and gender.

INFORMATION

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to complete the following tasks:

1. Complete the online Occupational Work Ethic Inventory (OWEI) survey.

RISKS

There are no risks involved with this study.

BENEFITS

This research will benefit employment specialists, employers and policy makers to improve service to Jobseekers

CONFIDENTIALITY

The information gathered during this study will be kept strictly confidential. Data will be stored securely and will be made available only to persons conducting the study unless you specifically give permission in writing to do otherwise. No reference will be made in oral or written reports that could link you to the study.

COMPENSATION

There will be no compensation for participating in this study.

CONTACT

If you have questions at any time about the study or the procedures, you may contact the researcher, Susan Fowler Fouts at 828-586-8074. If you feel you have not been treated according to the descriptions in this form, or your rights as a

participant in research have been violated during the course of this project, you may contact Dr. Matthew Zingraff, Chair of the NCSU IRM for the Use of Human Subjects in Research Committee, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919.515.7856 – mzingraff@ncsu.edu) or Mr. Matthew Ronning, Assistant Vice Chancellor, Research Administration, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (919.513.2148- mronning@ncsu.edu).

PARTICIPATION

Your participation in this study is voluntary; you may decline to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty and without loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you withdraw from the study before data collection is completed your data will be destroyed.

CONSENT

I have read and understand the above information. I have received a copy of this form. I agree to participate in this study.

Subject's signature _____

Date Investigator's signature

Date

Appendix H

**North Carolina State University
Institutional Review Board for the Use of Human Subjects in Research
SUBMISSION FOR NEW STUDIES**

Title of Project: Differences in Work Ethic of Jobseekers as determined by employment status, age and gender

Principal Investigator Susan Fowler Fouts Department Adult and Community College Edu.

Source of Funding (**required** information): none
(if externally funded include sponsor name and university account number)

Campus Address (Box Number) none

Email: susan@regiona.org Phone: 828-488-9211 Fax: 828-488-3950

RANK: Faculty
 Student: Undergraduate; Masters; or PhD
 Other (specify): EdD.

If rank is **other** than faculty, name of faculty sponsor overseeing the research:

Leila Gonzalez-Sullivan

Faculty Sponsor's <lgsulliv@gwced.ncsu.edu> Campus Box 7801 Phone 919-513-4870
Email

As the principal investigator, my signature testifies that I have read and understood the University Policy and Procedures for the Use of Human Subjects in Research. I assure the Committee that all procedures performed under this project will be conducted exactly as outlined in the Proposal Narrative and that any modification to this protocol will be submitted to the Committee in the form of an amendment for its approval prior to implementation.

Principal Investigator:

Susan Fowler Fouts
(typed/printed name)

(signature)

(date)

*As the faculty sponsor, my signature testifies that I have reviewed this application thoroughly and will oversee the research in its entirety. I hereby acknowledge my role as the **principal investigator of record**.*

Faculty Sponsor:

Lelia Gonzalez-Sullivan

(typed/printed name)

_____ (signature)

_____ (date)

**PLEASE COMPLETE IN DUPLICATE AND DELIVER TO:
Institutional Review Board, Box 7514, NCSU Campus (Leazer Hall Lower Level)**

For IRB office use only

IRB Committee Reviewer

- Approve Approve pending modifications Table
- Disapprove

Reviewer Name: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Final IRB Committee Decision

- Exempt Review Expedited Review Full Review
- Not Approved

Committee Chairperson

Date

RECEIVED: _____ SENT TO REVIEWER: _____

LETTER TO PI: _____

**North Carolina State University
Institutional Review Board for the Use of Human Subjects in Research
PRELIMINARY QUESTIONS**

- 1) Is this a taste and food quality evaluation and consumer acceptance study, where (i) wholesome foods without additives are consumed or (ii) food is consumed that contains a food ingredient at or below the level and for a use found to be safe, or agricultural chemical or environmental contaminant at or below the level found to be safe, by the Food and Drug Administration or approved by the Environmental Protection Agency or the Food Safety and Inspection Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture ?
 Yes No

- 2) Will the subjects remain completely anonymous (i.e. no identifiers which can link an individual subject to their data – projects using coded data sheets with a “key” linking code numbers to subjects are not anonymous)?
 Yes No

- 3) Will anyone other than the PI or the research team have access to the data (including any completed surveys) from the moment they are collected until they are destroyed?
 Yes No

- 4) Is your subject population going to consist of only elected or appointed public officials?
 Yes No

- 5) Does your research involve the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior?
 Yes No

- 6) Does your research involve the analysis of existing data, documents, records, pathological specimens or diagnostic specimens?
 Yes No

- 7) In your estimation does the study involve no more than minimal risk to the subjects (see definition of minimal risk in the Policies and Procedures page)
 Yes No

**North Carolina State University
Institutional Review Board for the Use of Human Subjects in Research
GUIDELINES FOR A PROPOSAL NARRATIVE**

In your narrative, address each of the topics outlined below. Failure to follow these directions will result in delays in reviewing/processing the protocol.

A. INTRODUCTION

1. Briefly describe in lay language the purpose of the proposed research and why it is important.
The study will determine differences in the work ethic norm among jobseekers based on Employment Status, age and gender. If differences exist, programs can be developed to improve work ethic of specific groups.
2. If student research, indicate whether for a course, thesis, dissertation, or independent research.
dissertation

B. SUBJECT POPULATION

1. How many subjects will be involved in the research? 290
2. Describe how subjects will be recruited. *volunteer customers in a JobLinkj Center*
3. If applicable, please provide the IRB office with a copy of any advertisement to be used in recruiting subjects. This includes print ads as well as scripts for radio and television ads. If this is not applicable, please check here
4. List specific eligibility requirements for subjects (or describe screening procedures), including those criteria that would exclude otherwise acceptable subjects.
Customers in JobLink Center
5. Explain any sampling procedure that might exclude specific populations (women, minorities, elderly).
No exclusions
6. Disclose any relationship between researcher and subjects - such as, teacher/student; employer/employee.
No close relationship

7. Check any vulnerable populations included in study:
- minors (under age 18) - if so, have you included a line on the consent form for the parent/guardian signature
 - fetuses
 - pregnant women
 - persons with mental, psychiatric or emotional disabilities
 - persons with physical disabilities
 - economically or educationally disadvantaged
 - prisoners
 - elderly
 - students from a class taught by principal investigator
 - other vulnerable population.

If any of the above are used, state the necessity for doing so. Please indicate the approximate age range of the minors to be involved. _____

C. PROCEDURES TO BE FOLLOWED

1. In lay language, describe completely all procedures to be followed during the course of the experimentation. Provide sufficient detail so that the Committee is able to assess potential risks to human subjects. Subjects will be asked to complete an online survey instrument about work attitudes and the results will be entered into a database. Customers will receive a copy of their scores and a comparison score. Copy attached.
2. What will subjects be asked to do? Complete an online survey
3. How much time will be required of each subject? 10 minutes

D. POTENTIAL RISKS

1. State the potential risks (physical, psychological, financial, social, legal or other) connected with the proposed procedures and explain the steps taken to minimize these risks. None
2. Will there be a request for information which subjects might consider to be personal or sensitive (e.g. private behavior, economic status, sexual issues, religious beliefs, or other matters that if made public might impair their self-esteem or reputation or could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability)? If yes, please describe and explain the steps taken to minimize these risks. No

3. Could any of the study procedures be considered as offensive, threatening, degrading, or could study procedures produce stress or anxiety? If yes, please describe why they are important and what arrangements have been made for psychological counseling.
No
4. Describe methods for preserving confidentiality. How will data be recorded and stored? How will identifiers be used? How will reports will be written, in aggregate terms, or will individual responses be described?
Participants will be assigned a number. Only the researcher will have access to the names and unique number. Reports will be written in the aggregate and individual responses will not be used.
5. If audio or videotaping is done how will the tapes be stored and how/when will the tapes be destroyed at the conclusion of the study.
6. Is there any deception of the human subjects involved in this study? If yes, please describe why it is necessary and describe the debriefing procedures that have been arranged.
No

E. POTENTIAL BENEFITS

Please address benefits expected from the research (this does not include compensation for participation, in any form). Specifically, what, if any, direct benefit is to be gained by the subject? If no direct benefit is expected, but indirect benefit may be expected (knowledge may be gained that could help others), please explain.

The subject will have a self-assessment of work ethic.

F. COMPENSATION

1. Explain compensation provisions if the subject withdraws prior to completion of the study.
None
2. If class credit will be given, list the amount and alternative ways to earn the same amount of credit.
N/A

G COLLABORATORS

If you anticipate that additional investigators (other than those named on **Cover Page**) may be involved in this research, list them here indicating their institution, department and phone number.

Roger B. Hill
Roger B. Hill, Ph.D.
> > Department of Occupational Studies
> > 209 River's Crossing; 850 College Station Road
> > The University of Georgia; Athens, GA 30602-4809
> > PHN: 706-542-4100 FAX: 706-542-4054
> > rbhill@uga.edu http://www.coe.uga.edu/~rhill
> >

H. ADDITIONAL INFORMATION

1. If a questionnaire, survey or interview instrument is to be used, attach a copy to this proposal.
 2. Attach to this proposal a copy of the informed consent document that you will use.
 3. Please provide any additional materials or information that may aid the IRB in making its decision.
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