

AN INVESTIGATION OF THAI WORK VALUES
AND RESULTING JOB SATISFACTION
IN RELATION TO TWO WORK ROLES

By

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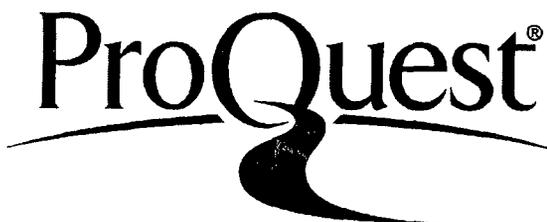
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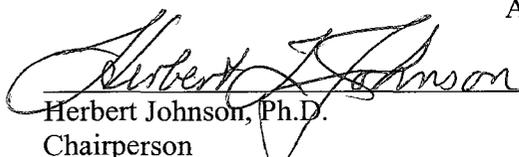
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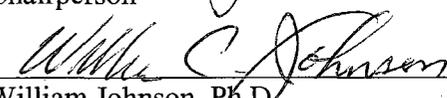
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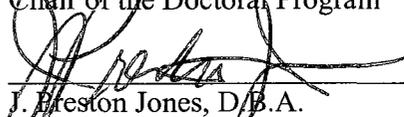
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ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION OF THAI WORK VALUES AND RESULTING JOB SATISFACTION IN RELATION TO TWO WORK ROLES

by

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Business effectiveness requires speed and accuracy of information, prompt decision, and effective responses which are crucial factors to success in business with intense competition. Employees' effectiveness is the key major to accomplish the organizational goals and job satisfaction is one of the most important factor influenced employees' effectiveness. As motivation, task status, monetary, rewards, etc are essential factors in job satisfaction and are important dimensions related to work values. Also, work values possessed by employees have been shown to a major factor that affect to motivation. The objectives of this study, the researcher focused on the different of work values and job satisfaction between two work categories, the relationship between work values and job satisfaction of each work setting and demographics of both work categories. The Survey of Work Values instrument comprised of six components which developed by Wollack et al., and The Job Descriptive Index instrument comprised of six scales which developed by Smith et al were apply to measure in this research. The independent variables are sales personnel, manufacturing personnel, age group, income levels, gender, educational levels, job experiences, and ethnicities. The dependent variables are work vales and job satisfaction. For this study, the researcher developed eighteen hypotheses which were grouped into five sections. 208 of sales personnel and 209 of manufacturing personnel were subjects in this study. The statistical treatment used in evaluating the hypotheses included: T-test, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, and Two-Way Analysis of Variance (Two-Way ANOVA). The reliability of the two instruments was calculated by the Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha Scale and found that the total alpha coefficient of Job Descriptive Index (JDI) instrument was .7888 and the Survey of Work Values (SWV) instrument was .8198. Also, the validity of the Survey of Work Values (SWV) instrument, all factor loadings of six components were greater than $\pm .30$.

The author found a significant relationship between work values and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel but the result inversed in sales personnel. Also there was a significant difference in job satisfaction between two work category groups but the finding was contradicted in work values. All findings between work values and demographic factors were no statistically significant difference when segmented by gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, educational levels, job experiences, and ethnic basis. However there was significant difference in job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels in sales personnel and was significant difference in job satisfaction when determined on the basis of ethnicity in

sales personnel. Also found that the ethnicity of Thai-Chinese had a higher job satisfaction than Thais. It was shown that there were not significant different in job satisfaction when segmented by gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, and job experiences.

However, many results from these findings did not support the majority former studies from other countries but it is possible to explain by unique Thai culture which causes from the religion basis. The results from this study illustrate the need for management team to modify strategies, structures, and processes, which are necessary for the effective organization to motivational reinforce its business and to contribute the maximum abilities to enhance employees' quality, and increase productivity. Those conditions are conducive to employees' job satisfaction which will impact directly to organizational effectiveness to gain a competitive advantage. Also, the basis of the organization's culture develops from work values, beliefs, norms, and behavior. The work values concern the right thing to behave and work values may be the important factor for modeling in organization.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Business conditions in a competitive world require speed and accuracy of information and prompt decisions. However, effective responses at the operational levels are also a crucial factor to success and in businesses with intense competition. Over time, many studies have been conducted in identifying factors that effect employees' effectiveness in meeting organizational needs. Hackman and Oldham (1975) suggested that a set of factors existing in the work situation influenced employee effectiveness. On the other side, work values possessed by the workers and have been shown to be a major factor that affect to motivation and worker performance (Hoy and Miskel, 1991). Expanding, research has also shown that employee job satisfaction is a function of the perceived intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered in the work situation (Martin and Phillips, 1991). Related to this, McAllister(1995) indicated that task status, monetary rewards, and social relationships are four essential factors in job satisfaction and are also important dimensions related to work values (McAllister, 1995). Considering possible negative outcomes, Decker, Borg and Riding (1993) inferred that lowered levels of job satisfaction arise from the interaction between the workers and their work are related to various absenteeism and turnover behaviors. Therefore, in many respects, job satisfaction, which can be regarded i.e., as an employee attitude is a great concern to

organization. However, to understand it is an outcome, it is important to look at its antecedents.

Wollack et al. (1971) defined work values as general behavioral orientation in terms of which an individual evaluates her or his work role. Pine and Innis (1987) add that work values result is individual needs with respect to work and are affected by society, economy, and economic status. For a business to be effective in a dynamic environment, work values become an important force because of the potential relationship to other work issues. Extending the considerations in managing employee performance is the need to understand the demographic factors which influence work values and resulting job satisfaction. The literature on demographic relevant to variables of job satisfaction contains discussion of a variety of issues to includes race, sex, age, and educational level (REF).

Relevance in an Economy in Transition

Thailand was on the verge of becoming the fifth “Asian Tiger” in the early 1990s. While it is a moderate-sized nation of over 60 million people, its economy grew quite rapidly until 1996. Through the summer of 1997, the annual real growth in Thailand’s gross domestic product (GDP) in Thailand was amazingly robust, an average rate of 6-8 percent a year since the mid 1980s. However, the Asian economic crisis began swiftly in Thailand with the problems leading to the devaluation of the national currency, the Baht, on July 2, 1997. What was initially seen as a seemingly innocuous balance-of-payments problem degenerated into a full-scale economic, political, and social crisis, resulting in high levels of unemployment. The Thai economy quickly experienced a loss of 3 million jobs that produced the worst labor market in decades.

A tremendous need for restructuring confronted Thai corporations.

Reengineering and downsizing became familiar to business terms as massive numbers of employees at almost every level in organizations were laid off. The unsettling experiences which unfolded with the Asian crisis in mid-1997 had a severe impact on the role of all levels of Thai employees and resulted in a new insecurity in the workforce at all levels.

When whole departments and divisions were simply eliminated in a frenzy of downsizing, the employees, both those discharged and those retained, could only conclude that their individual efforts, successes, and accomplishments were of little or no consequence to the organization. At the same time, some who were still employed found themselves stuck in unfulfilling jobs with no place to go. These developments in Thai business organizations eventually led to a need for a great deal of change on the part of management and in organization.

As the economy now seems on the path to continued new growth, management teams continue to need to seek to develop effective operating strategies to ensure their organizations are prepared to cope with demanding new competition both domestically as well as with countries such as China and India. In this study, the research focuses on refining understanding of the dynamics of people at work focusing on different operating. The vehicle for the exploration involved the activities of the Saha Group Companies which makes up Thailand's largest consumer goods manufacturing and distributing group as well as involvement in many service industries. The many types of businesses often are comprised of many affiliates. The total number of companies in the Saha Group is about 275.

The data for this study are drawn from the two major companies in Saha Group. They are Saha Pathanapibul Public Company Limited which is a consumer

product distribution/ sales company in Thailand located in Bangkok and Lion (Thailand) Cooperation is a biggest manufacturer to produce and supply consumer products to Saha Pathanapibul Public Company Limited located in Chonburi. The sales volume in 2003 as 9.8 billion baht for Saha Pathanapibul Public Company Limited which is a highest sales volume of consumer products in Thailand. (interviewed the President of Saha Group Company, Oct. 20th, 2003). These were chosen because they represent two major sectors of the Thai economy. Lion (Thailand) focuses on manufacturing activities and factory workers will be targeted in data collection. Saha Pathanapibul is sales and distribution organization and the sales personnel will be targeted in data collection.

Since the Asian crisis, all level of employees of both companies have experienced the severe impact of change. The management teams have tried very hard to help employees while the organizations seek to survive in the market by using many new strategies and new technologies to improve employees' effectiveness. This study considers some of the variables affecting worker behavior in their daily activities.

The comparison will focus on characteristics and attitude of the workforces attributed to the business performance.

Following is an overview of the two companies:

- Saha Pathanapibul Public Company Limited is a consumer product distribution company where marketing strategies are always applied to enhance the volume of sales. Sales Representatives are key forces. They have energetic, dynamic and outgoing personality. In addition, they have to keep up with today's fast changing business trend in order to be in line with competitors and to maintain the

status quo. Furthermore, they have to keep in touch and response to customers' demand all the time to maintain good relationship.

- Lion Corporation (Thailand) Limited is an industrial manufacturer corporation. Their workforces are familiar to working with machines rather than people. As a result, they tend to be process-driven and precision-oriented. They are very strict to the rule and reluctant to accept any flexibility in their production because they would like to deliver their products with underlying quality and standard.

Work Values and Employee Satisfaction

According to Wollack, Goodale, and Wijting (1971) job satisfaction has been defined very simply as the attitude one has toward his or her job. An attitude is an emotional response toward something which, when related to one's job, predisposes one to action. Positive and negative aspects of a job are adjudged together so that job satisfaction "on the whole" can range from relatively high to low. Job satisfaction largely depends upon the extent to which the job that a person holds meets his/her felt needs.

Workers depend upon their employer for a certain type of work or work situations in which they can play an appropriate kind of role. Satisfaction can result from a job that meets their needs today or may promise to meet their needs in the future (Lawler, 1973). However, two employees who may be holding the exact same job, yet their respective levels of satisfaction can differ. Since the features of the job are the same for both, the difference in satisfaction stems from each employee's individual evaluation of factors in and surrounding the job.

Super (1962) argued that work values are important factors in determining individual behavior and choices. Work values appear to provide the basis for this

evaluation in term of the social status of the job, preference for types of activity, upward striving, pride-in-work, etc. Bartol (1976) referred to these values as the worker's job orientation. Accordingly, in a job setting, work values serve as a basis for judgements about work situations that then lead to both job performance and job satisfaction. It has been proposed that values are formed by 1) pre-employment socialization experiences and 2) work and occupational experiences (Beutell and Brenner, 1986). Work values directly affect behavior in that they encourage individuals to act in accordance with their values in the workplace (Rokeach, 1973). Because value-inconsistent behavior produces negative feelings, individuals who fail to act, or are prevented from acting in accordance with their values exhibit lower levels of satisfaction. Martin and Phillips (1991) mentioned that past research has shown that employee job satisfaction is a function of perceived intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by a job that reflect work values held by the individual. Work values also have implications for interpersonal interactions in the workplace. Individuals with similar work values also experience greater satisfaction in their interpersonal relationships and some researchers viewed work values as a major factor and are often described as being strongly associated with effective job performance (Mitchell and Larson, 1987).

As attitudes towards work and the rewards associated with work vary among countries, understanding these issues becomes a valuable asset in the management of people. In most of the countries reviewed, interactions, cooperation, team-play, and social factors seem to suggest that an important component contributing to job satisfaction has the relationship with employees (Schnider, Locke, 1971); and Locke (1973). Pay, benefits, and advancement opportunities quickly follow on the list of satisfiers in some countries, while working conditions and physical surroundings are

more important for job satisfaction in others (Shaw, Duffy, Jenkins, and Gupta, 1999). However, a current review of theory and research on job satisfaction and work values have been investigated in the Western world and yet have not effectively been addressed in other cultures (Martin, 1991).

In light of the above discussion, some important questions emerge. What are the major areas of work values that impact the employees in Thailand? What are the most important job satisfaction's factors that impact the employees of Thai companies? And, how does job satisfaction and work values vary in relationship to individual demographic variables. Finally, do differences exist in employees' job satisfaction and work values across job categories?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify the most important factor of job satisfaction and work values that impact on Thai workers, and to investigate the differences exist in employee' job satisfaction and work values across job categories between two companies. Also, the researcher wants to measure the relationship between employees' work values and employees' job satisfaction and demographic factors. The specific objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To identify the most important job satisfaction's factor that impact the employees of two work situations.
2. To identify the most important work value's factor are held by employees in two work situations.
3. To test for differences in the employees' work values and employees' job satisfaction between the two work situations.

4. To study employee's work values of each work situation as related to specified demographic factors.
5. To study employee's job satisfaction of each work situation as related to demographic factors.

Theoretical Foundation

This study was developed on an established conceptualizations of work values and job satisfaction. Work values have been researched extensively. For purposes here an established model prepared by Wollack, et.al.(1971) who focused on six issues in their *The Survey of Work Values (SWV)*. The issues specified include pride in work, social status of job, attitude toward earnings, activity preference, upward striving, and job involvement. In considering job satisfaction, the factors focused on where developed initially by Smith, et.al. (1969) and included in their *The Job Descriptive Index (JDI)*, (1969). It considers six factors comprised of satisfaction with work on present job, present pay, opportunities for promotion, supervisor, co-workers, and job in general.

Work Values

The six components of Wollack et, al., (1971) operationalization of work values are defined as follows:

- Social status of the job: The effect the job alone has on a person's standing among friends, relatives, and co-workers, in his or her own eyes, and/or in the eyes of others.
- Activity preference: A preference by the worker to keep himself or herself active and busy on the job.

- Upward striving: The desire to seek continually a higher level job and a better standard of living.
- Attitude toward earnings: The value an individual places in making money on the job.
- Pride-in-work: The satisfaction and enjoyment a person feels from doing the job well.
- Job involvement: The degree to which a worker takes an active interest in co-workers and company functions, and desires to contribute to job-related decisions.

Each component is comprised of nine sub-variables for a total of 54 items in their assessment. The instrument containing a complete listing of these is included in Appendix A.

Job Satisfaction

Smith et al., (1969, [revised 1985]) developing their The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) to assess job satisfaction. It is constructed having six components reflecting the following: The first four scales include Work on Present Job, Supervision, Co-workers, and Job in General where each are explored using 18 subvariables. The other two, Present Pay, and Opportunities for Promotion, are each explored using 9 subvariables. The instrument containing a complete listing of these components is included in Appendix A.

Each scale contains statement words or phrases describing the respondents work, using the answers “Y” for “Yes” if it describes their work, “N” for “No” if it does not describe their work, and “?” if the respondents cannot decide. The meanings of each scale are defines as follows:

- Work on the present job: Concerns the employee's satisfaction with the work itself.
- Satisfaction with pay: Assess attitudes toward pay, based on the perceived difference between actual and expected pay, both on the value of perceived inputs and outputs of the job, and the pay of other employees holding similar jobs or possessing similar qualifications.
- Opportunities for promotion: Measures the employee's satisfaction with the company's promotion policy and the administration of that policy.
- Satisfaction with supervision: Reflects an employee's satisfaction with the supervisor(s), the greater the supervisor's perceived competence on the job, the greater the satisfaction with supervision.
- Satisfaction with co-workers: Assesses satisfaction with fellow employees, concerned with people on the present job.
- Job-in-general: Provides an overall evaluation of how individuals feel about their jobs.

The Linkage between Work Values and Job Satisfaction

Many empirical researches support the Attraction-selection-Attrition (ASA) model which developed by Scheider (1987). It was found that employees are more likely to choose organizations with values that match their own values or are more satisfied to work in organizations that fit with their values. According to Chatman (1989) who applied the ASA model in his research and concluded that the employees will not be satisfied to work with organizations with a set work values contrary to their own work values. Also, there are many conceptualizations of linkage between

work values, needs, and job satisfactions. Locke (1976) implied that job satisfaction is to gain important work value and will support individual basic and independent needs. Work values based on Maslow's (1943, 1954) conceptualization are higher order need and reflect a correspondence between need and satisfaction (Zytowski, 1970). Also, Pine and Innis (1987) defined work value as individual needs and orientation to work role. Similarly, Dawis and Lofquist (1984), and Super (1970) used the constructs of needs and values. Hales and Hartmann (1978) stated that personality is related to values, desires, and needs; and have relationship to work values and those variables derive from employees' personalities and attitudes to works or to gain values from work activity (Kalleberg, 1977)

According to the linkage between work values and need, Adler (1956) defined that values come from human behavior, physical & psychological needs, values are everywhere to satisfy human's needs and desires, and also, values should be a key factor in harmony with personal feelings and satisfaction (Zytowski, 1970).

According to Super (1970) stated that values are the element of personal needs which include the meaning of beliefs, and specific belief that guide action, attitudes, standards, and judgment (Rokeach, 1973). Also, Wollack, Goodate, and Wijting (1971) defined employees' work values as employees desire intrinsic values for the accomplishment of work, seek higher positions, need social status from work, and attitudes toward salary can affect work values. Finley and Pritchett (1973); and Yankelovich (1978) conceptualized that the values are of a personal nature, designed to meet the need for a sense of self-esteem, of identity as defined through the work role, and in an existential sense, an assurance of worth as an individual. Many major conceptualizations of work values are need.

The linkage between work values, need, and job satisfaction; the variable “need” was a major content for many theories which related to job satisfaction such as the concept of work-related needs was derived from the Theory of Work Adjustment (Dawis and Lofquist, 1984; Dawis, Lofquist, and Weiss, 1968). The major theory to support need was Maslow’s (1954) need-hierarchy theory and also, McClelland’s (1953) need achievement theory, Alderfer’s (1969) ERG theory, Herzberg’s (1966) two-factor theory, and Hackman and Oldham’s critical psychological state model. All theories referred to need, motivation, and job satisfaction. Cummings (1974) tested the Herzberg’s motivation theory which focuses on job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction and uses a rank-order selection method. The finding indicated that work values do change based on two those variables.

From the linkage between work values and need; the linkage between need, motivation, and job satisfaction; and all reasons above, one can conclude that “need” is the major factor to link between work values and job satisfaction.

Also, many recent definitions of job satisfaction focus on the concepts of values and need fulfillment. In 1978, Andrisani, Applebaum, Koppel, and Miljust, defined job satisfaction as a function of the degree to which a job provides a worker with positively valued outcomes. Locke (1976) suggested that job satisfaction may be defined as the perception that one’s job fulfills or allows the fulfillment of one’s important work values, providing and to the degree, that those values are congruent with one’s needs.

Statement of the Problem

Due to the new competitive environment, many organizations have to improve their competitive advantage in order to survive. Efforts to focus people on their work

offer an important opportunity for management as well as a challenge. Many significant factors in the area of improving effective operations can be addressed. However, job satisfaction has become a key issue in organizations as it implies how employees feel about their work and can affect productivity. Associated with this is the relationship between a person's individual value set and its impact on behavior in the workplace (Katz and Kalhn, 1978). Work values reflect what a person holds to be important to them in their approach to work assignments. Whether it is one's level of pride in work outcomes, social status of job, attitude toward earning, activity preference, upward striving, or job involvement (Wallack et al., 1976) these values result in predisposition to behave in particular ways. Variations both in work values as well as related levels of satisfaction therefore, need to be further analyzed on the basis of various personal demographic factors such as gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, job experiences, and educational levels.

The following specific issues guide the research hypotheses presented in chapter 3.

1. Is there a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel (Saha Pathanapibul Public Company)?
2. Is there a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction of in manufacturing personnel [Lion (Thailand) Cooperation]?
3. Is there a significant difference in dominant work values of employees between the two work category groups?
4. Is there a significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups.

5. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by gender?
6. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status?
7. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels?
8. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels?
9. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels?
10. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences?
11. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis?
12. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by gender?
13. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status?
14. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels?
15. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels?
16. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels?

17. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences?
18. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis?

Significance of the Study

As employees' work values and employees' job satisfaction in organization has been no fully explored in prior research, this research hoped to provide a fuller understanding and clear picture of the relationship in order to help managers, management teams, practitioners, and educators in business to understand the relationship between two variables. Thai managers and management teams need to understand how two variables they affect human resource management strategies as constrained by the organizational environment. Also, the operational aspects of work values are important for contemporary managers to understand, relative to their management styles and organizational goals. A better understanding of how work values of managers which impact employees' job satisfaction would be beneficial in planning staff development programs, creating appropriate work environments, providing organizational incentives, etc.

In terms of comparison between employees' work values and employees' job satisfaction, this study will assist in understanding the impact of the structure of work that can help or improve the quality of employees' performance. Also, the results of this research will help managers in identifying the areas that should be the opportunity to improve or develop operational effectiveness.

Scope and Limitation

Scope of the Study

This study is relatively narrowly focused. The venue is large sophisticated business imbedded in the modern Thai culture of Bangkok. It sought to gain insight into the dynamics of interaction of work values and job satisfaction at the operative level of for-profit business organizations. While the broader organizational environment contains a multitude of factors effecting employees, the current study focused on factors relevant to the day –to-day activities of operative level employees. Its results are considered to relevant to mangers in similar socio-economic business settings.

Limitations

This study is a comparative study focuses on data collected from employees of two consumer companies in Thailand and may not be generalizable to other companies. Further, work values and job satisfaction are the two major variables in understanding the dynamics of worker attitudes and behavior in the work situation. Additionally, the two standard data gathering instruments employed here are not without criticism. While broadly used, they suffer from specificity when applied to defined types of work situations.

The target population required full time employees who work at least two years of work experience in the present position in Saha Pathanapibul Public Company Limited and Lion (Thailand) Cooperation. This was necessary to ensure that respondents have been employed by the organization at least two years for employment at the selected organizations. Finally, as the uniqueness of the Thai

culture shapes the attitudes, values, and the organization culture of the firm under study, the findings may not be generalizable to firms in other countries,

Variable Considered

Independent Variable

Work situations may provide opportunities for differential levels of job satisfaction and work values. Two categories of work activities are considered; sales personnel and manufacturing personnel.

Moderating Variables

Demographic factors have the potential of effecting personal work outcomes to include job satisfaction and work values. Categorizes in terms of age group, income levels, gender, educational levels, and job experience are considered.

Dependent variables

Two sets of dependent variables are considered in the conceptualized linkage resulting in levels of job satisfaction with work situations. They include:

- Work Value, there are six subset of work value in this study such as pride in work, social status of job, attitude toward earnings, activity preference, upward striving, and job involvement.
- Job Satisfaction, there are six components of job satisfaction in this study such as work on present job, present pay, opportunities for promotion, supervisor, co-workers, and job in general.

Summary

This chapter has provided the important information to show the different two tasks of two companies and need to investigate the different employee's job satisfaction and work values. Also stated the Survey of Work Values instrument which developed by Wollack et al., and The Job Descriptive Index instrument by Smith et al. Moreover, the researcher discussed about the background of the research; theoretical foundation; statement of the problem; the scope and limitations of the study; independent variables (employees of two companies, age group, income levels, gender, educational levels, and job experience) and dependent variable (work vales and job satisfaction); research questions which focus on the different of work values and job satisfaction between two companies, the relationship between work values and job satisfaction of each company, and demographics of both companies; and definition of key terms have been provided. Chapter two will present a relevant comprehensive literature review of this study.

Definitions

Job Satisfaction is defined as a simply an attitude a person has about the experience with his or her job (Smith et al., 1969). Job satisfaction in this study will be evaluated in terms of six major categories: (1) work on the present job, (2) satisfaction with pay, (3) opportunities for promotion, (4) satisfaction with supervision, (5) satisfaction with co-workers, and (6) job-in-general.

Work Values is defined as general basis for evaluating the desirability an individual applies to his/her work role (Wollack et al., 1971). Six major components will be measured to include: (1) social status of job, (2) activity preference, (3)

upward striving, (4) attitude toward earnings, (5) pride-in-work, and (6) job involvement.

Job Dissatisfaction is defined as the 'unpleasurable emotional state resulting from appraisal of one's job as frustrating or blocking the attainment of one's job values or as entailing disvalues' (Locke, 1969, p. 316).

Work Situation is defined as the totality of independent variables associated with a persons employment. Of particular relevance to this study were the differing work activities of sales personnel versus manufacturing personnel.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

A number of variables associated with the concept of job satisfaction and work values are common to many theoretical models and pervasive in most documented studies of working people. In this literature review, the first section reviews conceptualization of work values and job satisfaction, the theories of motivation which relate to job satisfaction, measures of job satisfaction, demographic variables and their relationship to job satisfaction, and contemporary studies of job satisfaction. The second section covers the nature of work values and their impact on satisfaction. Finally, a brief review of Thai cultural values is presented.

Conceptualization of Work Values

Kalleberg (1977, p. 129) indicated that “the concept of work value may be regarded as a special usage of the general concept to “value” and may be defined as the conception of what is desirable that individuals hold with respect to their work activity” Work Values was defined by Super (1970) as beliefs, attitudes, judgment, standards that lead actions, comparisons of objects and situation, and the factors of personal need. Similarly, Zytowski (1970), Pryor (1970) and Pine & Innis (1987) defined work values as individual needs, level of preferences, reflectance between need states and satisfaction. Similarly, Rokeach (1973) defined work values as an individual belief or standard which directed attitudes, actions judgment, and

comparison between situations and objects. Many researchers quoted work values as a belief learned to that leads to a specific action which will satisfy individual needs and priorities (Cherrington, 1980; Rokeach, 1973; and Pine and Innis, 1987). Some researchers referred the work values of White racial as the normative orientations to included status, power, competition, individualism, and protestant work ethic (Spigel, 1982; and Katz, 1985). Also Ravlin and Meglino's (1987a, p. 155) defined work values as "beliefs about the way an individual ought to behave" relative to their employment.

For this research the adopted definition of work values is taken from Wollack et al. (1971) as "general attitudes about the meanings that an individual attaches to his or her work role." The authors believed that the meaning of job satisfaction was different from work values. Similarly, Smith (1971, p.331) viewed work values as general attitudes regarding the meaning that an individual as attaches to his/her role. This model developed to evaluate employees' work values is comprised of three parts.

1. Intrinsic part: pride in work, job involvement, and activity preference.
2. Extrinsic part: attitude toward earning, and social status of job.
3. Mixed character: upward striving.

Similarly, Nevill and Super (1989) measured the two dimensions of work values which are intrinsic values and extrinsic values by using the values scale called Work Important Study (WIS). This instrument comprised of twenty items to measure employees' work values: (1) ability utilization, (2) achievement, (3) aesthetics, (4) altruism, (5) authority, (6) autonomy, (7) creativity, (8) economic, (9) life style, (10) personal development, (11) physical activity, (12) prestige, (13) risk, (14) social interaction, (15) social relations, (16) variety, (17) working conditions, (18) cultural identity, (19) physical prowess, and (20) economic security.

Model of Work Values

For this study, the model of work values was developed by Wollack et, al., (1971 [revised 1976]) consisted of six components: Social status of job, activity preference, upward striving, attitude toward earnings, pride-in-work, and job involvement. The six components of The Survey of Work Values (SWV) defined as follow:

1. Social status of the job refers to the effect the job alone which has on a person's standing among friends, relatives, and co-workers, in his or her own eyes, and/ or in the eyes of others.
2. Activity preference refers to a preference by the worker to keep himself or herself active and busy on the job.
3. Upward striving refers the desire to seek continually a higher level job and a better standard of living.
4. Attitude toward earnings refers to the value an individual places in making money on the job.
5. Pride-in-work refers to the satisfaction and enjoyment a person feels from doing the job well.
6. Job involvement refers the degree to which a worker takes an active interest in co-workers and company functions, and desires to contribute to job-related decisions.

Work Values Scales and Subvariables

The work values subvariables are posed as questions answered by using a five-point scale ranging and each scale of subvariable is shown below:

- I. Social status of the job: There are 9 subvariables as follow:

1. One of the reasons that I work is to make my family respect me.
2. A person does not deserve respect just because the person has a good job.
3. A job with prestige is not necessarily a better job than one which does not have prestige.
4. My friends would not think much of me if I did not have a good job.
5. Prestige should not be a factor in choosing a job.
6. The person who holds down a good job is the most respected person in the neighborhood.
7. Having a good job makes a person more worthy of praise from friends and family.
8. As far as my friends are concerned, it could not make any difference if I worked regularly or only once in a while.
9. Even though they make the same amount of money, the person who works in an office has a more impressive job than the person working as a sales clerk.

II. Activity Preference: There are 9 subvariables as follow:

1. A job which requires the employee to be busy during the day is better than a job which allows a lot of loafing.
2. If a person can get away with it, that person should try to work just a little slower than the boss expects.
3. The best job that a worker can get is one which permits the worker to do almost nothing during the work day.

4. When an employee can get away with it, the employee should take it easy.
5. A person who takes long rest pauses, is probably a poor worker.
6. A person would soon grow tired of loafing on a job and would probably be happier if he or she worked hard.
7. If a person is given a choice between jobs which pay the same money, the person should choose the one which requires as little work as possible.
8. A person should try to stay busy all day rather than find ways to get out of doing work.
9. If a worker keeps himself busy on the job, the working day passes more quickly than if the worker were loafing.

III. Upward Striving: There are 9 subvariables as follow:

1. Even if a person has a good job, the person should always be looking for a better job.
2. In choosing a job, a person ought to consider chances for advancement as well as other factors.
3. One should always be thinking about pulling oneself up in the world and should work hard with the hope of being promoted to a higher-level job.
4. If a person likes the job, the person should be satisfied with it and should not push for a promotion to another job.
5. The trouble with too many people is that when they find a job in which they are respects, they don't try to get a better job.

6. A person who turns down a promotion is probably making a mistake.
7. A promotion to higher-level usually means more worries and should be avoided for that reason.
8. A well paying job that offers opportunity for advancement is not a good job for me.
9. One is better off if one is satisfied with one's own job and is not concerned about being promoted to another job.

IV. Attitude toward earnings: There are 9 subvariables as follow:

1. A person should hold a second job to bring in extra money if the person can get it.
2. A person should choose a job which pays the most.
3. If I were paid by the hour, I would probably turn down most offers to make extra money by working overtimes.
4. A person should take the job which offers the most overtime if the regular pay on the jobs is about the same.
5. A person should choose one job over another mostly because of the higher wages.
6. The only good part of most jobs is the paycheck.
7. When someone is looking for a job, money should not be the most important consideration.
8. A good job is a well paying job.
9. A person should take a job that pays more than some other job even if that person cannot stand other workers on that job.

V. Pride-in-work. There are 9 subvariables as follow:

1. One who does a sloppy job at work should feel a little ashamed of oneself.
2. A worker should feel some responsibility to do a decent job, whether or not the supervisor is around.
3. There is nothing wrong with doing a poor job at work if one can get away with it.
4. There is nothing as satisfying as doing the best job possible.
5. One who feels no sense of pride in one's work is probably unhappy.
6. Only a fool worries about doing a job well, since it is important only that you do your job well enough not to get fired.
7. One should feel a sense of pride in one's work.
8. The most important thing about a job is liking the work.
9. Doing a good job should mean as much to a worker as a good paycheck.

VI. Job Involvement. There are 9 subvariables as follow:

1. Most companies have suggestion boxes for their workers, but I doubt that the companies take these suggestions seriously.
2. A good worker cares about finding ways to improve the job, and when one has an idea, one should pass it on to the supervisor.
3. One who has an idea about how to improve one's job should drop a note in the company's suggestion box.
4. A good worker is interested in helping a new worker learn the job.

5. If a worker has a choice between going to the company picnic or staying at home, the worker would probably be better off at home.
6. Even if a worker has a very low-level job, it is still possible for the worker to make suggestions which will affect company policy.
7. Once a week after the workday is over, a company may have their workers get together in groups for the purpose of discussing possible job changes. A worker should remain after question time to participate these discussions.
8. If something is wrong with the job, a smart worker will mind his or her own business and let somebody else about it.
9. One should do one's own job and forget about such things as company meetings and company activities.

Work Values and Their Impact

There are many conceptualizations of work values in the review literature. Most of them are seen as playing on grounded the important role affecting to various work issues for instance motivation, productivity, opportunities of promotion, tardiness and absenteeism. One of work value conceptualization based on Maslow's (1943, 1954) theory of order higher need such is Ginsberg (1971). The author found that work values play an important factor in changing to higher society or higher level of position in organization. Ravlin and Maglino (1987a) combined beliefs with behaviors as a person's internalized "belief about how he or she ought to behave." As the statement of beliefs about "ought to," it will affect to behaviors such as fair vs. unfair, successful vs. unsuccessful, honest vs. dishonest, and so forth. Meglino and Ravlin (1998) developed model in Figure1 which identified the related effect between

types of values, task and situational variables, and outcomes (beliefs, perception, attitudes, decisions, and behavior).

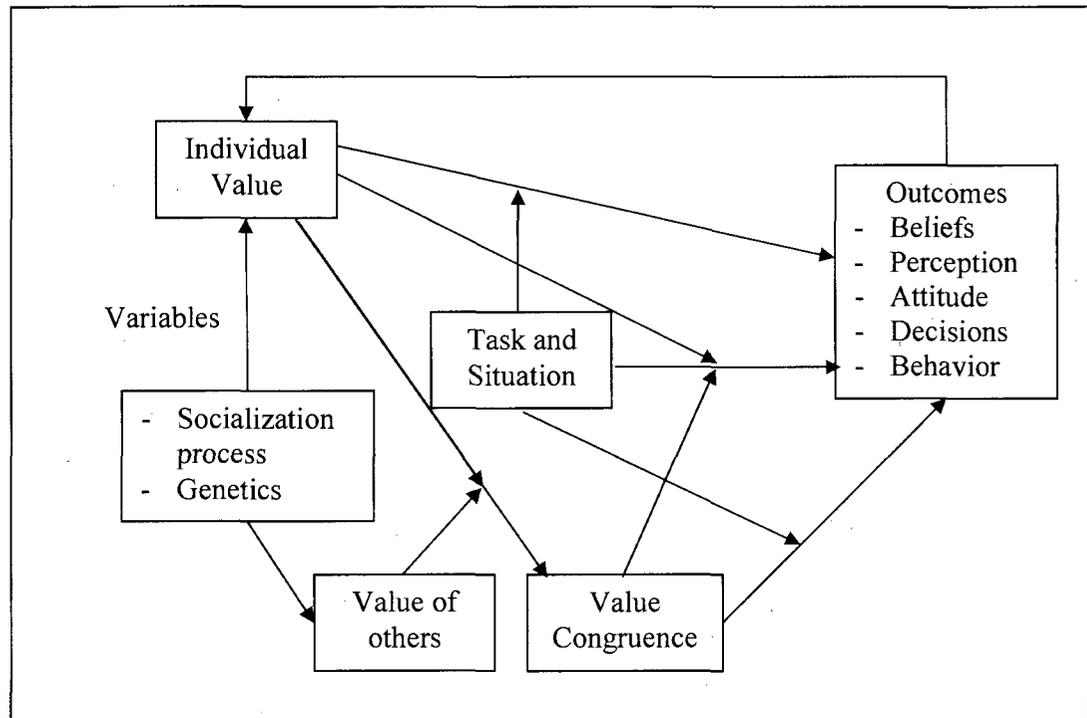


Figure 1. Individual Values in Organizations and Values Effect

Source: Meglino and Ravlin (1998), "Individual Values in Organizations: Concepts, Controversies, and Research," *Journal of Management*, 24(3), p. 366

From Figure 1, the researcher provided a framework which identified how values are thought to arise from socialization processes. The values have two main factors to affect the outcomes. First factor, values can be directed effect to individuals' outcomes. Second factor, values may affect outcomes to the extent that variables are similar with the values of an "other." As Meglino and Ravlin (1998, p. 365) mentioned that "These "other" values can be those of a specific person or the aggregate values of a group or organization unit." The researchers also concluded that the effect of values may be different which depended on different tasks.

Similarly, Wollack et, al.'s model, Kalleberg (1977, p. 127- 128) found from research's analysis and made a conclusion of work values into six dimensions as follow:

1. Intrinsic dimension referred to “those characteristics associated with the task itself, whether it is interesting, allows the worker to develop and use his/her abilities, allows the worker to be self-directive and whether the worker can see the results of the work.”
2. Convenience dimension referred to “job characteristics that provide solid creature comforts, i.e., a “soft” job. Theses include: convenient travel to and from work, good hours, freedom from conflicting demands, pleasant physical surroundings, no excessive amounts of work, enough time to do the work and an opportunity to forget about personal problems.”
3. Financial dimension, an extrinsic dimension referred to payment, fringe benefits and job security.
4. Relationship with co-workers referred to “the job permits chances to make friends, whether co-workers are friendly and helpful and whether one’s co-workers take a personal interest in him/her. Valuation of this dimension reflects a worker’s desire for the satisfaction of social needs from the work activity.”
5. Opportunities the job provides for a career referred to “the chances for promotion are good, whether promotions are handled fairly and whether the employer is concerned about giving everyone a chance to get ahead. Valuation of this dimension represents a worker’s desire for advancement and recognition.”

6. Resource adequacy represented “workers’ wishes for adequate resources with which to do their jobs well and includes such items as whether the help, equipment, authority and information required for job performance are adequate, whether co-workers are competent and helpful, and whether the supervision is conducive to task completion. This dimension of work may be viewed as being different from the previous ones in that it doesn’t refer to what workers “ultimately” want from their jobs.”

However, there are many previous studies that concerned about work values which are summarized in Table 1 as follow:

Table 1

Work Values as Independent Variables

Study	Type of values	Measure	Dependent variables	Moderator or control Variables	Results
Judge&Bretz, 1992	Work values	Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES)	Rated probability of accepting a job offer	Value orientation of job	Value fit with job was a positive predictor of acceptance ratings for Achievement, fairness, and concern.
McNeely&Meglino, 1994	Work value Concern for others (CFO)	CES CFO subscale Empathic Concern subscale	Individual prosocial behavior	Job satisfaction used as a control	CFO and empathy relate positively to individual prosocial behavior independently of job satisfaction
Ravlin&Meglino 1987a	Work values	Ranking, point assignment, CES, Likert-type scale of CES items	Perception of ambiguous stimuli simulated evaluation of employees		Rank and point assignment measures related to perception. Rank, point assignment, and CES measures related to evaluations
Korsgaard et al., 1996	Work value concern for others (CFO)	Comparative Emphasis Scale (CES) CFO	Payoff, risk, positive arousal	Emphasis on risk and return in decisions	For low CFO subjects: more willing to risk as payoff increased and as probability of winning increased; effects only occurred under positive arousal condition in a second study
Korsgaard et al., 1997	Work Value CFO	CES CFO subscale	Feedback favorableness, specificity	Acceptance of and satisfaction with feedback, self-evaluation, action based on feedback, degree of delegation in performance task	For high CFO subjects: no relationship found between favorability, and satisfaction and self-evaluation; more responsive to specific feedback at the cost of the central objective; when feedback positive, were unlikely to change behavior, when negative, were more likely to change behavior

Source: Meglino and Ravlin (1998) Individual Values in Organizations: Concepts, Controversies, and Research. *Journal of Management* 24 (3), 371-374

Previous Studies of Work Values

Harrington, Miles, Watkins, Williamson, and Grady (1996) studied work values in different organizations. The researchers examined 4 companies (Nucor, SunTrust, Merck, and The Body Shop) and the result showed that different organizations had generated different approaches to managing employees through values to work. The researchers concluded that values affect in three significant directions: “(1) They provide a stable base for guiding employee decisions and actions in an otherwise rapidly changing workplace. (2) They form an integral part of an organization’s value proposition to customers and staff. (3) They energize people to go the extra mile for their company.”

The studies related with work values suggest a relationship between a person’s value set and his/her behavior. According to Katz and Kahn (1978) a pattern of motivation associated with value expression and self-identification is related to establishing one’s self-identity; a person derives satisfaction from seeing the self-concept approach the self-ideal. Katz and Kahn (1978) stated that at the core of this is the idea of a close relation between one’s ego expression (or central values) and value expression (self-identification). Expressing one’s important values in words and acts, enables a person to identify himself or herself and to maintain a satisfying self-concept.

Levison (1983) argued that the wish to attain the ego ideal and to like one is the most powerful of motivating forces. The researcher believed that life and work are more rewarding and enjoyable when a career helps satisfy the ego ideal. He explained that people strive toward their ego ideals throughout life but never achieve them. Their aspirations rise, however, with successive accomplishments; and when

people feel they are progressing toward their ego ideal, their self-pictures are more positive.

Lawler (1987) viewed motivation from the perspective that individuals are inherently neither motivated nor unmotivated to perform effectively. Rather, they use their own mental maps of what the world is like to choose behaviors that lead to outcomes which satisfy individual needs. This gives organizations the kind of behavior that, in turn, leads to rewards that employee value. Super (1970) also wrote that values have their roots in self-concept theories of vocational behavior. Values, according to Super (1970), consist of objectives that one seeks to attain to satisfy a need. Values, specifically work values, have long been a topic of interest for researchers. Rockeach (1973) and Locke (1983) believe that values are internalized standard behaviors based on a person's experiences. This internalization causes values to be more stable over time than other kinds of attitudes and beliefs (Rokeach, 1973). There has been other research to show that values are considered to be stable influences that are not easily altered and to be more predictable of behavior over time (Goodale, 1973; Haser & Alvarez, 1981).

Values are the most important shared dimension of culture (Rockeach, 1973). Studies of work values have suggested that they are influenced by sociological, economic, and historical factors (Pine and Innis, 1987). The influences on work values have specifically included ethnicity, subcultures, sex roles, historical cohorts, socioeconomic status, society, and economic conditions (Fine-Davis, 1983; Wrenn, 1964).

Research on Thai Cultural and Work Values

In this section, some of the features of the Thai social organization which have an impact on managerial practices are presented. The section also discusses Thai values which are likely to impact both the work performance and satisfaction of the workforce.

The first extensive study on Thai values was undertaken by Komin (1978). The researcher sampled a total of 2500 men and women from different segments of society stratified by geographic regions and occupations.

The results showed that religious value was one of the most important indicators distinguishing the rural from the urban Thais. Thais were also characterized by 'other-oriented' mutually helpful community values and a deeply profound religious faith and spiritual life. Urban Thais were found to be self-oriented, concerned with personal happiness, material comforts, pleasure and social recognition, with a drastic reduction in their religious values. Nevertheless, respondents from all groups and of all educational and socio-economic backgrounds were found to be fatalists. Women as a whole were found to be more fatalistic (stronger belief in karma) than men (81 per cent of 878 female samples against 71.6 per cent of male samples).

In a forced-choice statement between "maintenance of good and friendly relations" (person-orientation) as opposed to "seriousness and conscientiousness" (task-orientation) in work, 69.8 per cent of the urban Thai and 57.6 per cent of the rural Thai perceived maintenance of good relationships as more important than conscientiousness in work. This supports the view that serious work is not as highly valued in Thailand as interpersonal relations.

McClelland (1961) writing on the achievement needs within individuals in western societies, argued that high achievement needs promote entrepreneurial achievement or professional excellence, which in turn would propel economic growth. In a more recent study on Thai values, Komin (1990) in examining the level of achievement need among Thais, found that the achievement value of being ambitious and hardworking to attain one's goals, has been consistently ranked as the least important value (the 23rd) in relation to the rest, with little variation across groups over time, with the exception of two groups; Thai businessmen who ranked it 19th and Thais of Chinese descent who ranked it 13th. For the majority of Thais, hard work as an achievement value ranked much lower than many of the social relationship values. Further, when exploring the motivation values among government sector officials as compared with those in the private sector, Komin (1990) found that the achievement motive was higher among the private sector officials. She attributed these higher scores to fair evaluation systems, participative management style and organization climates in which employees were rewarded for their creativity. In explaining why government sectors scored the lowest in task achievement value, Komin (1990) argued that it was meaningless to focus on individual achievement drive alone because the social demands of the working environment in the public sector are considered more important than the task itself and it was the acquisition of power and prestige which was the basic motive, not work or professional excellence. In comparing the findings of her two studies on Thai values, Komin (1978, 1990) argued that while the more traditional values essential for maintaining social order are still stable, changes are occurring in urban Thais in the sphere of personal competence moving them towards a higher concern for independence and achievement, and a slightly lower concern for religion.

Conceptualization of Job Satisfaction

Lawler (1973, p. 64) defined job satisfaction as “a person’s affective reactions to his/her total work role. Hoppock (1935) on job satisfaction. Hoppock (1935) stated that a better understanding of the causes of job satisfaction is desirable, not because it will enable us to become completely satisfied, but because it may help relieve that intense and painful dissatisfaction which injures both the individual and the society in which he lives. While many studies have investigated individual motivations and job satisfaction, most of the studies seem to have dealt with human motives as managerial tools rather than as a means for gaining understanding of workers’ values (Super, 1978). Consequently, several theoretical models of human motivation have been developed and used as the basis for research in organizational behavior.

The concepts concerning a job satisfaction were initially developed by the human relations theorists. In 1927, human relations theorists began a series of experiments at the Hawthorne works (1927) of the Western Electric Company. It was proposed that ‘illumination’ would affect the work group’s output. Much to the researchers’ surprise, output increased when illumination was both increased and decreased. In essence, the Hawthorne Studies (1927) enabled Mayo (1933) to observe that the productivity of workers was impacted by their relationships and perceptions. Mayo (1933) argued that individuals live in a constant flux of personal associations; thus management requires social skills based upon understanding the complexity of human relationships, in order to be effective in specific situations.

Since the 1930’s, several different conceptualizations of job satisfaction have resulted from the extensive studies that have been made of the subject. Hoppock (1957) made the first systematic assessment of job satisfaction. Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) defined job satisfaction as a feeling of affective responses to the work

situation. Similarly, Locke (1976) viewed it as the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating one's values.

It was initially thought that people could have an overall feeling of liking for a job, ranging from very low to very high. This is known as global job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is not a singular term, however, it is a composite of attitudes relevant to a range of factors impacting on the worker. Muchinsky (1990) identified many factors that contribute to how a person feels about a job, these include co-workers, pay, supervision, working conditions, and types of work. It is possible for a worker to be dissatisfied with specific "facets" of his or her work, but still report an overall sense of job satisfaction.

The lasting power of early lessons is partly why modern managers continue to be influenced by classical management theories. Porter (1966) listed some of the theories that relate to job satisfaction to include: Maslow's (1954) need-hierarchy theory, Alderfer's (1969) ERG theory, Herzberg's (1966) two-factor theory, McClelland's need achievement theory, Vroom's (1964) valence-expectancy theory, Adams' (1965) Equity Theory, and Hackman and Oldham's Critical Psychological State Model. These theories, although referred to as "Theories of motivation," provide insight into the human pursuit of satisfaction of which work tasted might be considered a source.

Maslow's Need-Hierarchy Theory

Maslow (1954) was a clinical psychologist whose theory of motivation was part of a larger theory of human behavior. Maslow (1954) was a humanist who was deeply concerned about the dignity and worth of individuals. Maslow's (1954) theory has much of its philosophical rationale in a personality theory proposed some years

ago and it was known as “The Hierarchy of needs” model. According to this framework, man is a need-oriented organism, with the needs arranged in a hierarchy from lowest to highest. These five needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance, which he called prepotency. Once lower-level needs are satisfied, needs at the next highest level emerge and influence behavior. The levels of the need hierarchy are not rigidly separated but overlap to some extent. Thus, it is possible for a higher-level need to emerge before a lower-level need is completely satisfied.

As a theory of motivation, its greatest asset is its face validity. However, research does not clearly support this theory because results from studies testing the need hierarchy are difficult to interpret. Furthermore, it neglects the identification of relevant goal-objects as well as the process of goal formation. Maslow’s (1954) research supporting his theory was largely limited to analyzing the biographies of self-actualizing people and his own clinical experiences.

Alderfer’s ERG Theory

Based on a series of studies, Alderfer (1969) condensed Maslow’s need hierarchy from five needs to just three, which he referred to as the ERG theory.

1. Existence Needs. The existence needs refer to all forms of material and physiological factors necessary to sustain human existence. This need encompassed Maslow’s physiological and safety needs.
2. Relatedness Needs. These needs include all socially oriented needs, which include Maslow’s social needs and parts of the safety and esteem needs.

3. Growth Needs. Growth needs are those related to the development of human potential, which includes Maslow's self-actualization plus the internally based portion of self-esteem needs.

Alderfer (1969) agreed with Maslow that individuals tended to move up the hierarchy as they satisfied lower-level needs. However, Alderfer (1969) did not believe that one level of needs had to be satisfied before the next level need would emerge. Studies examining the ERG theory using bank employees, nurses, and life insurance personnel seem to suggest that Maslow's theory can be condensed from five needs to three, and that all three needs can be simultaneously active in motivating behavior (Alderfer, 1969).

McClelland's Need Theory

McClelland (1953) suggested that three important motives drive workers: the needs for achievement, power, and affiliation. The researcher initially emphasized the need for achievement as fundamental in explaining why people in some societies were more productive than others (McClelland, 1961). Hofstede (1980) questioned the universality of McClelland's three needs and begins by pointing out that the word achievement itself is hardly translatable into many languages other than English. Hofstede (1980), however, found that countries with a high need for achievement also have high productivity (Hofstede's masculinity dimension) and a strong willingness to accept risk (Hofstede's weak uncertainty avoidance). Anglo-American countries such as the United States, Canada, and Great Britain (weak uncertainty avoidance combined with masculinity) follow the high achievement motivation pattern, while countries such as Chile and Portugal (strong uncertainty avoidance combined with femininity) follow the low achievement motivation pattern.

Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

This theory is based on the need-hierarchy theory, similar to that developed by Maslow (1954). Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) conducted a study of job satisfaction among 203 engineers and accountants from the Pittsburgh area. They conducted individual interviews, asking subjects to describe incidents that had led to feelings of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The interviews' contents were analyzed to further study their common themes or ideas. This was done to determine:

- What kinds of things were mentioned when people described the times they were very satisfied.
- What kinds of things were mentioned when people described the times they were very dissatisfied, and
- Whether there was any difference in what was described in each circumstance.

The results showed that certain factors were associated with worker satisfaction and others with dissatisfaction. The descriptions of satisfying experiences include such things as: achievement, recognition, advancement and responsibility. Descriptions of dissatisfaction were characterized by factors such as company policy, supervision, salary and working conditions. Finally, Herzberg (1959) proposed the "Two-Factor Theory" based on his findings specified two sets of factors contributing to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

The key to adequately understanding Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory is his conclusion that "the opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction, but rather no job satisfaction; and similarly, the opposite of job dissatisfaction is not job satisfaction, but no dissatisfaction". Herzberg (1959) thus asserts that the dissatisfaction-satisfaction continuum contains a zero midpoint at which

dissatisfaction and satisfaction are absent. Conceivably, an organization member who has good supervision, pay, and working conditions but a tedious and unchallenging task with little chance of advancement would be at zero midpoints. That person would have no dissatisfaction because of good “hygiene factors” and no satisfaction because of a lack of “motivational factors.” Consequently, Herzberg (1959) warned managers that it takes more than good pay and good working conditions to motivate today’s employees.

One appealing aspect of Herzberg’s explanation of motivation is that the terminology is work-oriented. Despite this important feature, Herzberg’s work has been criticized for a number of reasons. For example, some researchers believe that his work oversimplifies the nature of job satisfaction (Pinder, 1984). One valuable research line which continues to maintain the interest of investigators, however is the difference between intrinsic factors termed motivators, and extrinsic factors termed hygiene factors. Herzberg has had a positive effect on the research on job satisfaction. Hewlett-Packard, for example, has restructured many of its operations along the lines described by Herzberg. They rely on both motivators and hygiene factors to increase satisfaction and decrease the likelihood of dissatisfaction (Ivancevich & Matteson, 1999).

In a 1987 retrospective, Herzberg distinguished between ‘movement’ and ‘motivation’. He viewed “movement” as a function of fear and punishment—avoiding negative extrinsic rewards. In contrast, motivation was seen as a function of growth associated with receiving intrinsic rewards from interesting and challenging work. Movement requires constant reinforcement and stresses short-term results, but motivation is an internal engine based on growth needs.

Equity Theory

Equity Theory as proposed by Adams (1965) is primarily a motivation theory which aids our understanding of how employees respond to situations in which they are treated more or less favorably in comparison to a referent 'other'. According to the theory, inequitable comparisons result in a state of dissonance or tension that motivates a person to engage in behavior designed to relieve the tension (e.g., raise or lower work efforts to reestablish equity, leave the situation that is causing inequity).

Equity theory argues that people evaluate the fairness of their own input-outcome balance by comparing it with their perception of the input-outcome balance of their "comparison-other"; the person they compare with (Adams, 1965). On the job, feelings of inequity revolve around a person's evaluation of whether he or she receives adequate rewards to compensate for his or her contributive inputs.

Figure 2, illustrates, a person's perception of what a reward level should be is influenced by a number of factors (Lawler, 1977). Perhaps the most important influence is perceived inputs. These inputs are factors such as time, education, previous work experience, skills, effort expended, personality, age, and seniority. Outcomes are what one take from the situation-for example, pay, benefits, challenging assignments, job security, working conditions, relationship with co-workers, participation in important decisions, and training opportunities.

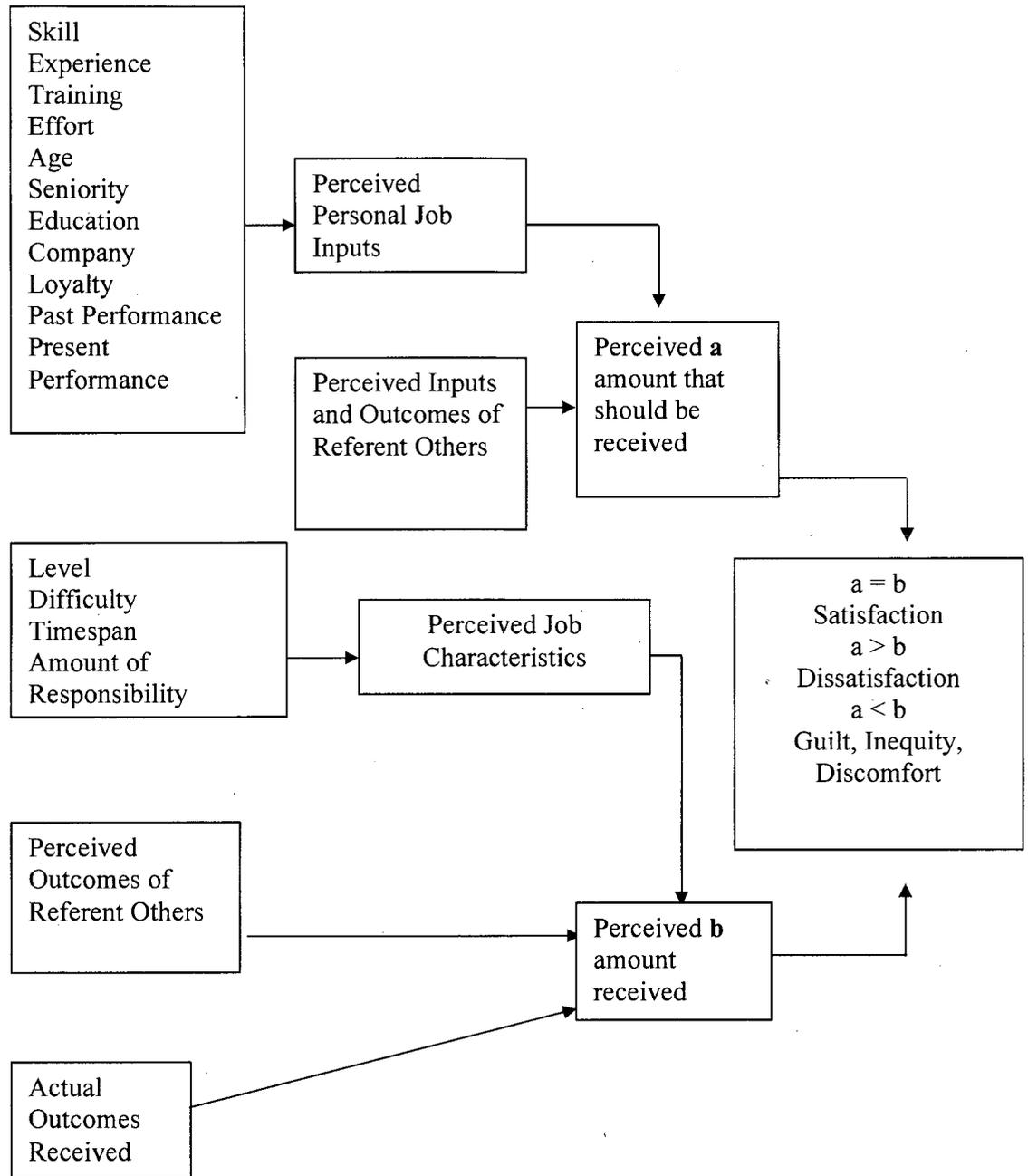


Figure 2. Model of the Determinants of Satisfaction

Source: Lawler, E.E, (1977). "The Nature of Individuals" in Hackman, J.R., Lawler, E.E., and Porter, L.W., (Eds.) Perspectives on behavior on Organizations, New York: McGraw-Hill, pp. 41.

Although equity theory was initially described as a motivational theory, with inequity leading to behavior intended to correct the experienced inequity, some research in the 1990s did not examine the inequity-behavior link. Instead, research focused directly on the inequity component, examining how inequity was associated with attitudes such as dissatisfaction.

Some researchers study the equity and inequity in various directions such as Perry (1993) found a linear relationship between pay equity and job satisfaction. African-Americans whose income was more than \$2000 below the national median reported the lowest levels of job satisfaction, and those that received more than \$3000 over the median reported the highest job satisfaction. However, Cart (1996) found that Australian employees who were paid either more or less than other people in their occupation reported less job satisfaction than employees who were equitably paid. Also, Bylsma and Major (1992) studied gender differences in reactions to inequity. Previous research has indicated that women have a lower sense of personal entitlement than do men with regard to outcomes such as pay. Using a scenario methodology, Bylsma and Major (1992) found that the gender differences were eliminated when men and women received the same information about referent pay or received the same performance feedback.

Expectancy Theory

Expectancy Theory holds that people are motivated to behave in ways that produce desired combinations of expected outcomes. Generally, expectancy theory can be used to predict behavior in any situation in which a choice between two or more alternatives must be made. This section introduces and explains two expectancy

theories of motivation: Vroom's expectancy theory and Porter and Lawler's expectancy theory.

An expectancy, according to Vroom's (1964) theory, is the perceived probability that a particular amount of effort will result in a particular outcome (such as higher pay or promotion or other positive factors). In other words, it is an effort→performance expectation. Expectancies take the form of subjective probabilities.

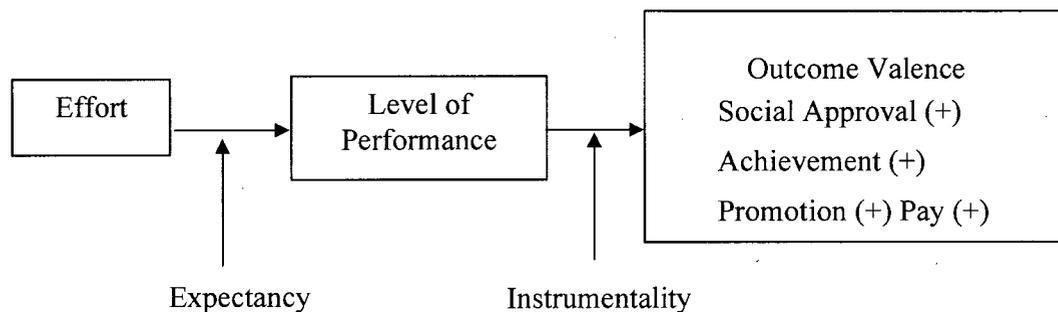


Figure 3. Vroom's VIE Model of Job Motivation and Performance

Source: Beck (1990). Motivation Theories and Principles. (3th Ed.), New Jersey: Prentice Hall. pp.343

As Figure 3 illustrates, employees hold the expectancy that work will lead to a certain level of performance, and that this performance will be instrumental in achieving the long-term goal (promotion). If a person expects that hard work will not produce a high level of performance, or that high performance will not achieve the goal, the perceived instrumentality will be low and the person is not likely to work very hard.

Vroom's theory assumes that people hold preferences among various outcomes or states of nature. Likewise, some people hold preferences among different types of outcomes (as opposed to greater or lesser amounts of particular outcome). For example, many employees would seem to prefer an opportunity to work with other people, even when the only jobs featuring high levels of social interaction entail less comfortable surroundings, lower pay, or some other trade-off.

Vroom (1964) suggested that we consider instrumentality as a probability belief linking one outcome (performance level) to other outcomes. The author showed that studies had not found a strong relationship between satisfaction and performance; in fact, most studies had found a very low positive relationship between the two. The third major component of Vroom's Theory is referred to as expectancy. If a person believes that he can achieve an outcome, he will be more motivated to try for it, assuming the other things are equal. Vroom (1964) spoke of expectancy beliefs as action-outcome associations held in the minds of individuals, and suggested that we think of them in probability terms.

Porter and Lawler's Extension

Porter and Edward Lawler III, developed an expectancy model of motivation that extended Vroom's work. This model attempted to (1) identify the source of people's valences and expectancies and (2) link effort with performance and job satisfaction.

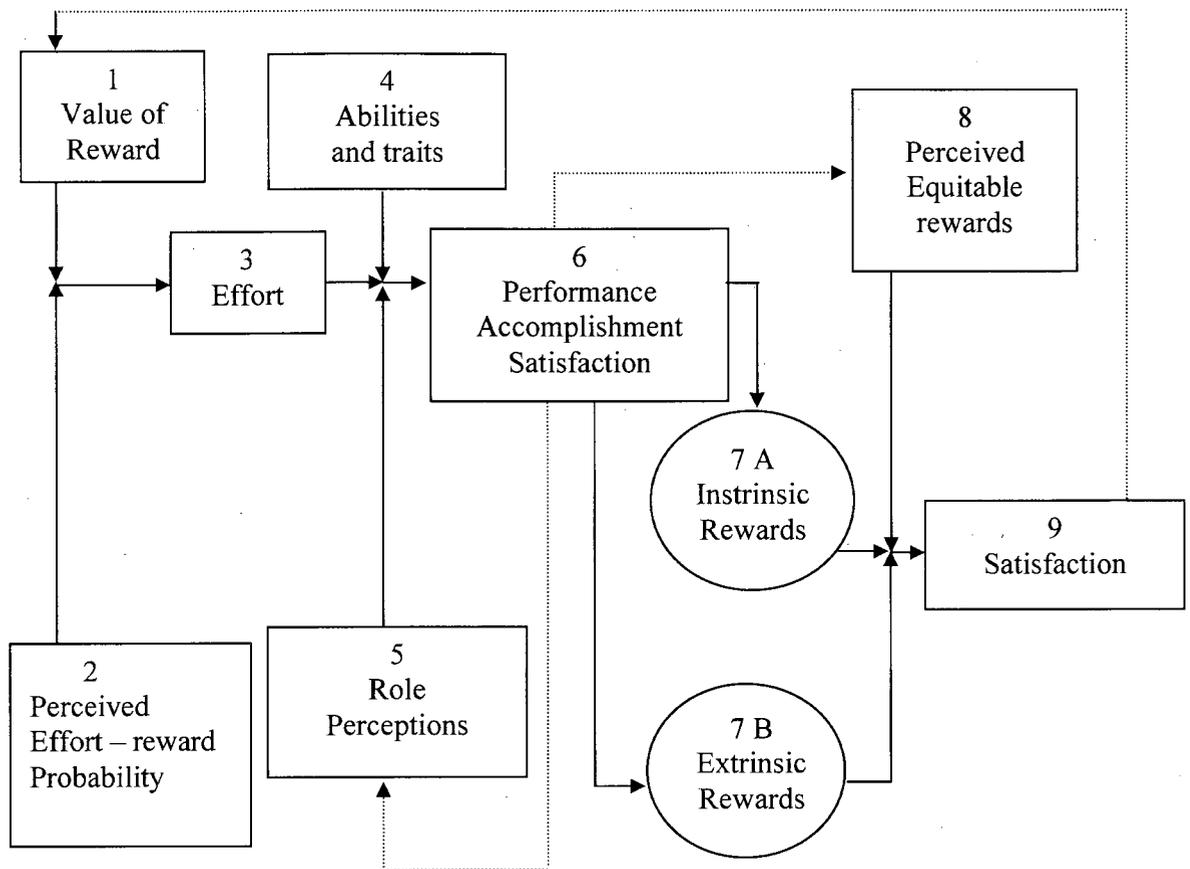


Figure 4. Porter and Lawler's Expectancy Model

Source: Porter and Lawler, *Managerial Attitudes and Performance* (Homewood, IL:Richard D. Irwin, 1968), p.165

Predictors of Effort

Effort is a function of the perceived value of a reward (box 1 in Figure 4) which represents the reward's valence, and the perceived-effort→reward probability (box 2, which reflects an expectancy). Employees should exhibit more effort when they believe they will receive valued rewards for task accomplishment.

Predictors of performance

Performance is determined by more than effort. Figure 4 indicates that the relationship between effort and performance is contingent on an employee's abilities and traits (box 4) and role perception (box 5). That is, employees with higher abilities attain higher performance for a given level of effort than employees with less ability. Similarly, effort results in higher performance when employees clearly understand and are comfortable with their roles. This occurs because effort is channeled into the most important job activities or tasks

Predictors of job satisfaction

Employees receive both intrinsic (circle 7A) and extrinsic (7B) rewards for performance. Intrinsic rewards are self-granted and consist of intangibles such as a sense of accomplishment and achievement. Extrinsic rewards are tangible outcomes such as pay and public recognition. In turn, job satisfaction is determined by employees' perception of the equity of rewards received (box 8). Employees are more satisfied when they feel equitably rewarded. Figure 4 further shows that job satisfaction affects employees' subsequent valence of rewards. Finally, employees' future effort→reward probabilities are influenced by past experience with performance and rewards.

Critical psychological state model

In studying factors that lead to greater motivation, performance, and satisfaction, Hackman and Oldham (1975) theorized that the critical psychological states are created by the presence of five 'core' job dimensions:

1. Skill variety: the degree to which a job allows a worker to develop and use his or her skills and to avoid the monotony of performing the same task repeatedly.
2. Task identity: the degree to which a task consists of a whole or complete unit of work as opposed to a small, specialized, repetitive act.
3. Task significance: the degree to which a task has a significant impact on the organization, the community, or the lives of other people.
4. Autonomy: the degree to which a worker is free of the direct influence of a supervisor and has discretion in scheduling his or her work and deciding how it will be done.
5. Feedback: the degree to which a worker obtains evaluative information on performance in the normal course of doing his/her job.

Hackman and Oldham stated that jobs high in motivating potential do not affect all individuals in the same way. Their studies show that people who strongly value and desire personal feelings of accomplishment and growth may respond very positively to jobs which are high on the core dimensions; but individuals who do not value personal growth and accomplishment may find such jobs anxiety arousing and be uncomfortably stretched by them. The Hackman and Oldham model combines variables implied in the Maslow, Herzberg, and Vroom theories, and suggests the complex interactions among needs, values, and job performance outcomes.

Review of Job Satisfaction's Studies

Adler (1980) studied the self-esteem and causal attributions for job satisfaction and dissatisfaction from 110 male graduate students in business. The researcher found that the male graduate students in business who had high in self-esteem were significantly more than male graduate students in business who had low in self-esteem in term of internal in their attributions for satisfaction. This results confirmed the earlier fact finding of Schneider and Locke (1971), and Locke (1973).

Measurement of Job Satisfaction

Parsons (1983) pointed out that job satisfaction is frequently measured with standardized, self-report, paper and pencil questionnaires; a method with advantages: questionnaires are easy to administer to groups; less open to administrator bias; and identical items and response scales allow easy comparisons of responses across individuals and groups. He also identified weaknesses: all scales require at least a minimum level of reading ability for meaningful responses; scales require that individuals introspect consistently through the scale, fatigue might cause people to become careless or confused while responding; and all respondents must interpret items and response scales similarly to avoid idiosyncratic interpretations. These undesirable events contribute to 'measurement error' because non-trait factors will affect scores.

The Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSO): Weiss, Davis, Lofquist, and England (1966) developed the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSO) by using a Likert Scale and set the ranging from one (very dissatisfaction) to five (very satisfaction) to measure the people feeling toward their jobs. This instrument contained of two forms which included a long form (100 items) and a short form (20 items). There are three parts including intrinsic job satisfaction, extrinsic job

satisfaction, and general job satisfaction. Torres (1990) used the Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) to study the relationship between work values and job satisfaction between community colleges and technical institution.

The measurement of job satisfaction still remains a diverse and complex activity. While an excellent compilation of job-related scales is found in Robinson, Athanasiou, and Head (1969), the half century of research on the topics has not produced a consensus measure or even a consensus measurement strategy. A computer search of job satisfaction studies using PSYCINFO for 1990 and 1991 yielded 426 entries, a number of which were review articles. In order to obtain a reasonable perspective on current measures being employed, 75 articles were randomly selected. Table 2 lists measures found in this review. A description of several of these is provided by the following table.

Table 2

Job Satisfaction Measures used in a Sample of Published Studies

Job Facets Global Measure (Quinn and Staines, 1977)	17
Single-item Global Measure (Quinn and Shepard, 1974)	13
Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall, and Hulin, 1969)	11
Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss et al, 1967)	11
Hoppock Job Satisfaction Blank (Hoppock, 1935)	8
Brayfield and Roth Job Questionnaire (Brayfield and Rothe, 1951)	4
Action Tendency Measure (Hartman et al, 1986)	3
Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) (Hackman and Oldman, 1980)	2
Female Faces Scale (Dunham and Herman, 1975; Kunin, 1955)	1
Index of Job Satisfaction (Kornhauser, 1965)	1
Others	4

Note: In many instances, the scales used were modified versions of the original.

Source: Golembiewski, (1993). Handbook of Organizational Behavior. New York: Marcel Dekker, Inc. pp.118

Other authors have documented a similar disarray in the measurement of job satisfaction. In a review on the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, Rain, Lane, and Steiner (1991) looked at 35 articles and noted that: “Before 1980, a variety of job satisfaction and life satisfaction measures were used, with no single measure dominating the research. Current research continues this trend” (p.295). They reported that a “composite measure” was used in 15 of the studies they reviewed, composite measures being identified as either facet-free or facet-specific measures. These would be similar to the first two items reported in Table 2. These authors also reported the JDI being used in four studies, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) in three studies, and other published measures being used in six studies.

Other job satisfaction instruments

The advent of meta-analysis has brought this issue to the forefront. For example, Spector (1985) conducted a meta-analytic study on the relationship between perceived control and a variety of outcome variables, including job satisfaction. The researcher noted that many different measures of job satisfaction were used the JDI, MSQ, and the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS). In addition, many studies used single-item measures of overall satisfaction. Loher(1985) conducted a meta-analysis on the relation of job satisfaction to various job characteristics. They identified more than eight different measures of job satisfaction in 28 studies. Another meta-analysis conducted by Farrell and Stamm (1988) looked at job satisfaction as a correlate of absenteeism. These authors used 72 studies in their meta-analysis, but do not report the specific measures or indexes encountered. However, the authors discussed their findings within the context of over all job satisfaction, with the exact meaning being

unclear. Clearly, the conclusions drawn in these meta-analyses could be affected by measurement issues such as method variance and multi-items and single-item measures of job satisfaction.

Overall, the findings from existing literature reviews and meta-analyses are very similar to those reported in this review. The inability to develop a uniform or consensual strategy leaves the concept of job satisfaction in a tenuous position with regard to the use of newly developing methodologies such as meta-analysis. In addition, there appears to be a “better mouse trap” approach to the problem. New measures are constantly being developed, older measures are continually being modified, and other measures are being reconstituted.

A number of surveys have been developed to measure job satisfaction. Some have been used extensively. Others were developed for a single study. Some surveys measure global satisfaction, others measure facet satisfaction (and not always the same facets). In recent years, more researchers are using standardized surveys. This permits a cross study comparison, which is of value in making generalizations about job satisfaction. Three surveys are particularly popular, and each has been the object of intensive research. The first one is the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendell, and Hulin (1969).

The questionnaire measures five specific facets; satisfaction with work itself, supervision, pay, promotions, and co-workers, plus a global job-in-general scale. Five scale scores reflecting satisfaction for each of the facets are tabulated. The total score on the JDI has also been used to reflect overall job satisfaction; however, the overall job satisfaction is more than the sum of facet satisfactions. Indeed, Ironson, Smith, Brannick, and Gibson (1989) developed an overall satisfaction scale to accompany the

facet scales of the JDI. The overall scale was not equivalent to the sum of the scores from the five facet scales.

The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) was developed by Weiss, Daviss, England and Lofquist (1967). It is the second most popular measure of satisfaction. Like the JDI, the MSQ also measures satisfaction with facets of a job. Twenty items are included, such as creativity, independence, supervision-human relations, supervision-technical, and working conditions. Each facet is composed of five items. The individual responds on a five-point scale ranging from “very satisfied” (5) to “very dissatisfied” (1).

How many facets of job satisfaction a questionnaire should measure is debatable. The JDI measures 5, the MSQ measures 20. The data clearly indicate that these facets are not independent. The number and kind of dimensions should be determined by the issue of interest to the researcher. The third most common satisfaction measure is the Faces Scale developed by Kunin (1955). This single-item scale is very different from the others. It measures global satisfaction and, is opposed to words or phrases. The scale points are drawings of a human face. The faces Scale is a good measure of overall satisfaction and is widely applicable. Since words are not used, there is less ambiguity about the meaning of the scale points. The person simply checks the face that reflects how he or she feels about the job in general. Kunin’s Faces Scale is applicable to both males and females, though Dunham and Herman (1975) developed a version showing female faces.

Many researchers have used one of the above three scales to assess job satisfaction. However, as Wanous and Lawler (1972) stated, there is no one best measure of job satisfaction. Two things should guide the selection of a satisfaction

questionnaire. First, it should provide reliable and valid assessments. Second, it should measure the facets of satisfaction that are of greatest interest to the researcher.

Review of Conceptual Models Linking Work Value and Job Satisfaction

Levey (1991) studied job satisfaction and work values and found that the work effort with work values will lead to heightened job satisfaction. The author developed the model to show the relations

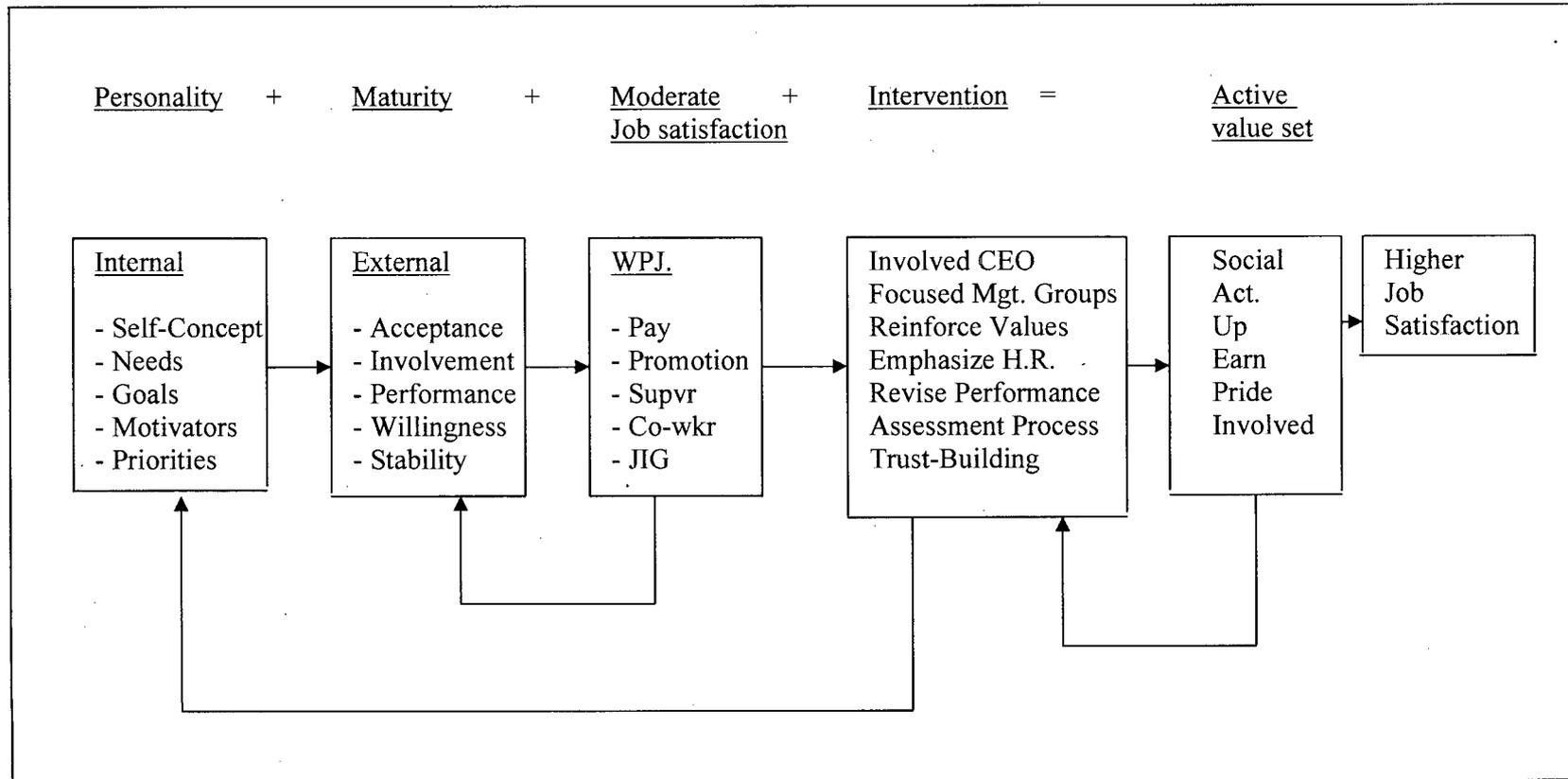


Figure 5. Model Showing Interactions of Personality, Job Satisfaction, Management Style, and Work Values Set

Source: Levey (1991). The Model Interaction of Personality, Job Satisfaction, Management Style, and Work value Set, p. 251

According to Harrington, Miles, Watkins, Williamson & Grady (1996) provided the relationship framework between work values, work values congruence and organizational outcomes which job satisfaction is one subvariable of individual and organization as shown in Figure 6.

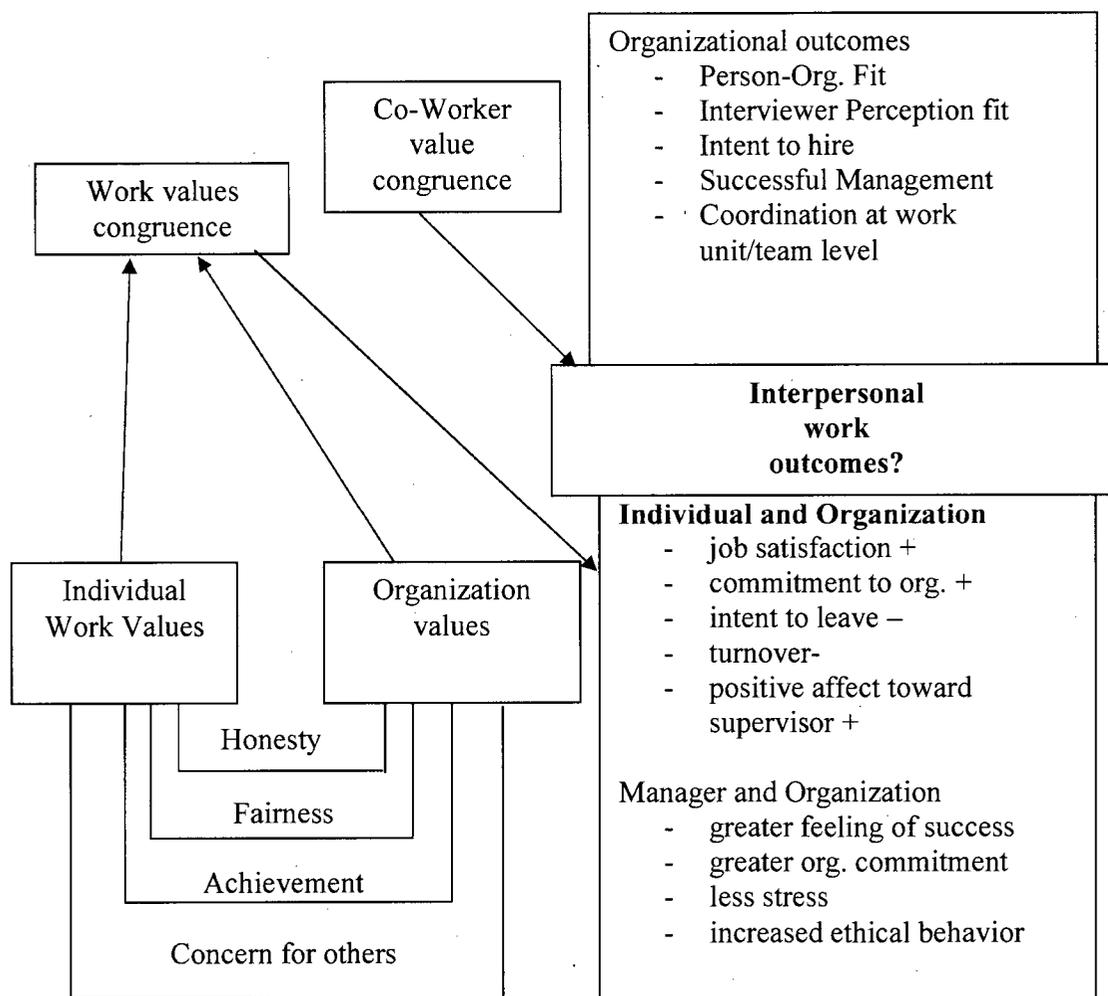


Figure 6. Individual Work Values and Job Satisfaction

Source: Harrington, Miles, Watkins, Williamson, and Grady (1996), "Putting people values to Work," McKinsey Quarterly (3).

Organization factor such as job satisfaction, commitment to organization, intent to leave, turnover, and positive affect toward supervisor are major outcome variables studied by Harrington, Miles, Watkins, Williamson & Grady (1996). The researchers implied that work values congruence comprising individual work values and organizational values to include values of honesty, fairness, achievement, and lead to job satisfaction. Operationalizing this framework in Figure 6, the researchers found that work values had a positive relationship with job satisfaction, commitment to organization, and positive affect toward supervisor but negative relationship with intent to leave, and turnover from organization. Similarly, O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) found that the work value had a positive relationship with job satisfaction, and commitment together with a negative intention to leave and lower turnover.

Torres (1990) studied the relationship between work values and job satisfaction of potential minority leaders in community colleges and technical institutes. Using a sample of 72 respondents data was collected from two groups based on biographical data. Two measures of work values, and job satisfaction were used to collect the data. From this study, the researcher found that there was different in work values between potential minority leaders and heterogeneous group. Also, Black and Hispanic minority candidates were different in work values and job satisfaction.

Chang (2002) studied elementary school teachers' work value and job satisfaction in Taiwan. This study applied three questionnaires to collect the data: personal background, work values, and job satisfaction questionnaire. T-test was applied to test for differences in work values and job satisfaction between male and female teachers. The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was designed to measure both

dependent variables when segmented by demographic factors. Also, Multiple Stepwise Regressions were used to predict between work values and job satisfaction. The author found that female and male teachers had a significant difference in work values and job satisfaction. Also there was significant difference in work values and job satisfaction when segmented by age levels. However, there were no significant difference in work values when determined by marital status, job position, and length of experience which were inversely related when compared with job satisfaction.

Studies Relating Demographic Variables and Job Satisfaction

Researchers have shown great interest in the study of the effects of demographic variables such as gender, age, level of education, salary, length of experience, marital status, and position on job satisfaction. Most of the previous studies (Wright and Hamilton, 1978; Janson and Martin, 1982) found evidence to support the validity of cohort explanations which suggest that different birth cohorts have different socialization experiences and therefore have difference conceptions of what is desirable with respect to work. There also seems to be considerable evidence to suggest that differences in value schemes of female and male adults would show that different satisfactions would be sought from work. Super and Bachrach (1957) noted that, "work satisfaction and life satisfaction depend upon the extent to which the individual can find adequate outlets for his/her abilities, interests, values, and personality traits in his/her job". Thus, one seeks certain kinds of rewards from work according to one's work values.

Age and tenure have often been studied concurrently in relationship to job satisfaction. Age, for the most part, appears to be positively related to job satisfaction, except perhaps during the approach of retirement. The research on tenure was less

clear. Herzberg (1957) originally suggested, on the basis of a review of the research, that the relationship between job satisfaction, age, and tenure was curvilinear or U-shaped, suggesting that job satisfaction declines with age and tenure up to a point and then begins to rise. Additional support for the curvilinear relationship was reported by Altman and Tersine (1973) Clenn and Taylor (1978). By far, the most widely offered explanation of age differences in job satisfaction focuses upon characteristics of the job itself; older workers are more satisfied than their younger counterparts because they (older workers) have 'better' or more highly rewarded jobs (Quinn et al, 1974).

French, Kast and Rosenzweig (1985) stated that older adults tend to be more satisfied with their jobs than younger workers. Older workers paid more attention to intrinsic characteristics of a job than to extrinsic values such as pay, vacation time, and work environment. The researchers indicated that they may find more satisfaction in their work because they have had more time to find the "right" job. Moreover, research showed that their mental health tends to be superior to that of younger co-workers. The motivation, performance, and satisfaction of older workers are much like those of their younger counterparts and the psychological management principles examined in the laboratory are relevant to older workers as well as to younger ones.

Sex Differences in Job Satisfaction

Gender differences in job satisfaction are somewhat imprecise in the research literature. Generally, overall job satisfaction appeared to be equal for males and females, while faceted job satisfaction was more contradictory. Several factors have been used repeatedly in studies of job satisfaction: age, sex, race, education, intelligence, home setting, and length of service (Marriner and Craigie, 1977). The results of numerous studies exploring the influence of such demographic variables on

job satisfaction have been highly inconsistent. Frequently, contradictory findings resulted from different studies involving the same demographic variables.

A number of studies have indicated differences between age groups and job satisfaction. Glenn, Taylor, and Weaver (1977) found that job satisfaction increased with age for women but not for men. However, the results of these studies are inconsistent and the generality of the findings must be questioned (Gruneberg, 1979). Smart, Elton, and McLaughlin (1986) examined gender, congruency of the person with the environment, and job satisfaction. Measures of extrinsic, intrinsic, and overall job satisfaction were employed. The sampling design consisted of 540 males and 474 females. Findings demonstrated that job satisfaction was related to congruency. Gender specific differences emerged in the results. For both sexes, intrinsic job satisfaction was positively related to congruency. Person-environment congruency appeared to be uniquely related to overall job satisfaction for females, while it was uniquely related to extrinsic job satisfaction for males (Smart, Elton, & McLaughlin, 1986).

Frankel (1993) conducted an exploratory study to examine differences in the relationships between gender, sex role, use of moral orientations and job satisfaction among attorneys. The study found both length of years in law practice and income were significantly correlated with intrinsic job satisfaction. Men and women attorneys differed on both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, but men reported significantly higher intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction (Frankel, 1993, p. 1287A).

Job Satisfaction and Job Level

Most researchers have found that job satisfaction increases as the level of the job increases within the organizational hierarchy (Adams, Laker & Hulin, 1977,

Kornhauser, 1965; Smith & Brannick, 1990). Results strongly suggest a positive and linear relationship between job level and satisfaction, with unskilled manual workers reporting the lowest mean job satisfaction, followed by semi-skilled, skilled, sub-professional, and finally professional workers.

Education and Job Satisfaction

Sills (1994) found that there were significant differences in job satisfaction with respect to each aspect of race, gender and year of graduation. Weaver (1980) evaluated job satisfaction data for American workers. Education, age, income, and occupation were significant predictors of job satisfaction as well, which is consistent with Quinn & Mandilovitch (1980) who found that the relationship between education level and job satisfaction was significant.

Glenn and Weaver (1982) examined job satisfaction specific to educational level. Their sample was composed of 1,500 white, full-time employees. Face-to-Face interviews were administered throughout all 48 contiguous states. The total effect of education emerged as slightly positive for both sexes, with the effect being slightly stronger for women (Glenn & Weaver, 1982).

Seybolt (1976) explored the relationships between three characteristics of the work environment (pay, job variety, and task complexity) and the moderating effect of level of education on these relationships. The sample for this study consisted of 926 males employed in 380 different job classification within four major occupational categories; professional and managerial, clerical, services, and manual. The work scale of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was used to measure satisfaction with the work itself. Level of formal education was obtained from organizational records. Job

variety and task complexity were measured by instruments developed or adapted for the purpose of Seybolt's study.

The effect of education and task complexity on work satisfaction was found to be significant. The results showed that individuals with grade school educations in jobs with low variety were significantly more satisfied with their work than those with high school or college educations. Conversely, those individuals with high school educations in jobs with medium variety showed more satisfaction than those with high school education in either low or high variety jobs. The findings of Seybolt's study provide strong support for the proposition that formal education acts as a moderator variable between work environment characteristics (pay, variety, and complexity) and job satisfaction.

Studies Conducted in Thailand

Neeyakorn (1970) studied Job Satisfaction of instructors at Teacher's College and reported that females were more satisfied with their jobs than males on job facets such as salary, supervision, and working conditions. Laohajinda (1975) found that older nurses working in Bangkok hospitals were satisfied with regard to such facets as working conditions, organizational policy, supervision, interpersonal relations, salary, and opportunities for promotion. The area of the highest level of satisfaction was working conditions, with salary and opportunities for promotion ranked second and third. Jariyavidyanont (1978) studied job satisfaction of faculty members at the National Institute of Development Administration (NIDA) one of the state universities in Thailand. He found no significant difference in faculty member's job satisfaction among gender, age, marital status, educational background and work experience.

Knotting (1979) surveyed teachers' morale in demonstration schools in Thailand. He found a high morale in teachers who were female and who earned high salaries, had more years of experience, and were unmarried. Wangphanich (1984) studied job satisfaction of university faculty members at Srinakhrinwirot University, Thailand, both in overall satisfaction and in job-dimension satisfaction, which includes satisfaction with work, supervision, pay, promotion, and co-workers. He found that age, work experience, gender, and skill levels appear to have a significant effect on job satisfaction. His study revealed that the most satisfied faculty members in this study were older people who had greater work experience, higher pay, or higher academic ranks. The study also showed that female faculty members express higher satisfaction with their jobs than male faculty members do.

Charoennit (1986) focused on Factors Influencing the Job Satisfaction of Literacy Volunteer Teachers. She reported that there were no differences in job satisfaction resulting from both internal and external factors between samples that have different marital status or sex. Status and working security have influence upon job satisfaction of the samples at low levels. Salary and welfare, working conditions and organization all have an influence upon job satisfaction at a moderate level.

Hathamart (1996) studied the job satisfaction of non-academic personnel of Assumption University and found that age and gender variables had a significant effect on job satisfaction. The study showed that older workers had a higher level of overall job satisfaction than younger workers did. This is an indication that older workers are in a better position to have more opportunity to find fulfillment in their job, greater work experience, greater competence and higher levels of responsibility. The study also showed that male workers have a higher level of job satisfaction than female workers do.

Job Satisfaction and Dissatisfaction

Locke and colleagues (1988) described job satisfaction as the result of attaining one's job values relative to seven major categories: (1) the work itself (2) pay (3) promotion, (4) working conditions, (5) co-workers, (6) supervision, and (7) the organization. Locke and colleagues (1988) listed as operative words under work (a) interesting (b) significant, (c) achievement, (d) success or accomplishment, (e) feedback, (f) responsibility and autonomy, (g) make or influence decisions, (h) job enrichment or promotion (i) role clarity (j) freedom from physical drudgery. Locke and colleagues (1988) saw money as the primary motivator in non-volunteer organizations, where the operative words under pay are (1) perceived fairness relative to market price, (2) personal financial needs, (3) benefits, (4) security, and (5) internal equity.

Locke and colleagues (1988) identified the respective responsibilities of employees and employers. In order to achieve satisfaction, individuals must have (1) rational values that do not contradict needs or reality; (2) rational expectations regarding attainment of job values; (3) carefully chosen careers or jobs; and (4) made conscientious efforts to satisfy values through appropriate action. Organizations must identify what employees want and then attempt, within reason and cost limitation to fulfill these wants. Locke and colleagues (1988) make one important point and that is organizations cannot use all their resources to make employees happy, and at the same time compete in the marketplace with products or services. Yet, Locke and colleagues (1988) notice a balancing effect. If an organization is significantly less effective than most others at satisfying employees, the market eventually forces it to conform.

Rusbult (1988), while considering the research on organizational behavior, performed research to test a new theory intended to serve as an integrative model of responses to job dissatisfaction. Their typology included four response categories:

1. Exit: refers to leaving an organization by quitting; transferring; searching for a different job; or even harboring thoughts on quitting.
2. Voice: describes active and constructive attempts to improve conditions by discussing problems with one's supervisor or co-workers; taking action to solve problems; suggesting solutions; seeking help from an outside agency such as a union; or whistle-blowing.
3. Loyalty: means passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve; giving public and private support to the organization; waiting and hoping for improvement; or practicing good citizenship.
4. Neglect: refers to passivity, allowing conditions to deteriorate through reduced interest or effort; chronic lateness or absence; using company time for personal business; or increased error rate.

They found a systematic relationship among the four categories: (A) exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect, differ along dimensions of 'constructive versus destructive' and 'activity versus passivity'; (B) voice and loyalty are constructive responses in which an individual attempts to revive or maintain satisfactory employment conditions; and (C) exit and neglect are more destructive.

Satisfaction and Employee Behavior Job

Many large companies are paying special attention to the job satisfaction of their employees these days. In some firms, executive bonuses are partly determined

by the level of their subordinates' job satisfaction (Rucci, 1998). Organization behavior scholars have linked job satisfaction to many types of employee behavior (Spector, 1997). Employees with high levels of satisfaction are less likely to quit the job, be absent from work, and experience mental and health problems. Dissatisfied employees are also more likely to steal, sabotage company products and engage in acts of violence against superiors and co-workers (Hackett, et al, 1996).

Conventional wisdom suggests that absence from work is the by-product of employee job dissatisfaction. People who dislike their jobs will be more likely to miss work than people who like their jobs. Tharenou (1993), for instance, found a correlation as high as -0.34 between absence and job satisfaction in a sample of Australian blue-collar workers. Although it is clear that performance and satisfactions are related, there are two opposite explanations. First, satisfaction might lead to performance. That is, people who like their jobs work harder and therefore perform better. Second, performance might lead to satisfaction. People who perform well are likely to benefit from that performance, and those benefits could enhance satisfaction. A well-performing person might receive more pay and recognition, which might increase job satisfaction (Spector, 1996).

Job satisfaction and Task Performance

Organization behavior research consistently reports an insignificant but modest association between satisfaction and task performance (Staw and Barsade, 1993). People have unique values and experiences so they react differently to the same level of job satisfaction. Task performance also depends on the person's ability and resources, not just the work effort. The weak relationship between job satisfaction and performance may occur because satisfied employees engage in more

organizational citizenship behavior but not in higher levels of traditional job performance (Organ, 1990). Satisfied workers, particularly those who are satisfied with their co-workers, are more likely to help a company beyond their normal duties (Bolon, 1997).

Job Satisfaction and Customer Satisfaction

Research has shown a stronger relationship between job satisfaction and customer satisfaction (Hallowell, 1996). A worker's satisfaction affects his/her mood and employees in a good mood are more likely to communicate positively and with friendliness which customers appreciate. Satisfied employees are also less likely to quit their jobs and this causes them to have more skills and experience to serve clients.

A strong correlation between satisfied employees and better customer relations has been reported in the literature (Moore, 1999). It would seem that if people feel good about their jobs, their happiness would be reflected in the quality of their work and in positive feedback from their customers. Moore (1999) also argues for the effective use of teams whose combined decision-making solves more problems and results in improved customer satisfaction. Both employees and their supervisors have to learn and practice new skills and attitudes and develop new ways of working with each other. When implemented effectively, employees feel good about using their knowledge and skills to solve problems, which in turn, provide higher quality solutions (Moore, 1999).

Job Satisfaction and Leadership

Research has identified a relationship between organizational leadership and employee outcomes and a positive relationship between job satisfaction and aspects of management, such as communication, supervisors effectiveness, and ability to provide structure and consideration (Brown, 1989). In two other studies conducted to determine whether the use of certain leadership behaviors made a difference to employee outcomes, especially job satisfaction, productivity, and commitment to the organization, it was shown that behaviors used by leaders can significantly impact employee outcomes in different circumstances and settings (McNeese-Smith, 1995; Pool, 1997).

According to Tjosvold (1988), traditional organizations expect their managers to be in control; in this climate a good manager is expected to be a strong, decisive leader who clearly announces goals and plans and gets subordinates to accomplish them. Tjosvold argued that this condition co-exists with a 'human' side – managers and employees disagree, fight, argue, and bicker daily. He emphasized that managers must create conditions which allow people to express their feelings and iron out difficulties, rather than avoid or suppress them.

The contemporary popular writings of W. Edwards Deming and Tom Peters represent the neo-human relations school of management (Stoner and Freeman, 1989). Their perspective builds upon the work of early organizational theorists and encourages a participative style of leadership, which forms a 'partnership' with workers by releasing much control over the performance of work to the group level.

International Surveys on Job Satisfaction

Surveys indicate that between 80 and 90 percent of Americans are moderately or very satisfied with their jobs (Gallup Poll, 1997). Although the overall figures for

satisfaction are high, Americans typically report much lower satisfaction for specific aspects of the job. For instance, only 54 percent of American workers believe they are paid fairly, 46 percent say their company promotes fairly, and 41 percent claim that senior managers truly cares about them. Satisfaction with co-workers seems to be one of the few ratings that comes close to overall job satisfaction at 84 percent (Baker, 1997).

Researchers have conducted cross-cultural studies of job satisfaction. One major survey firm recently estimated that employees in Mexico, Brazil, Switzerland, Norway, and Canada, are most satisfied, whereas their counterparts in Hong Kong, Japan, Mainland China, and Singapore are the least satisfied (Bae and Chung, 1997). The problem with these findings is that people with the same feelings toward work respond differently to these questionnaires. People in Japan and Hong Kong tend to subdue their opinions, whereas people in Brazil and Mexico are often more expressive. Also, American workers typically fill out a large number of questionnaires, whereas this is a novel experience for people in some countries, which may inflate their ratings (Bae and Chung, 1997).

Previous Studies between Demographic Variables and Work Values

Chang (2002) found the significant difference in work values between males and females. The researcher applied 18 subvariables of work values to measure this study. From fact finding, females believed that the job could contribute and help persons or people in society to achieve their objective. The results from hypotheses testing, males and females were different attitudes of good living in work values, reputation, and collegueship.

Summary

The literature review discussed in this chapter has addressed the model of work values developed by Wollack et al., (1971) and job satisfaction model developed by Smith et al. (1969). For The Survey of Work Values (SWV) comprised of six components and The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) comprised of six scales. There are many conceptualizations of work values which mentioned in the review literature and most of them grounded the important role of work values affecting to the potential relationship to various work issues. Also several different conceptualizations of job satisfaction have resulted from the extensive studies which represented in this chapter. Some of the research literatures using SWV and JDI survey instruments studied problem related to demographic factors, and some researches studied the relationship between work values and job satisfaction.

The next chapter will present the research methodology used in this study; included a description of research design, conceptual framework, research hypotheses, data collection, the job descriptive index and the survey of work values instruments, reliability and validity, sample, sample size, sampling plan, and data analysis.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to present a description of the research methodology which includes the research questions, conceptual framework and research design of this study including the hypotheses to be tested. Description of instrumentation, selection of subjects, pilot study, sample size, data analysis and statistical tests to be applied are also provided.

Research Design

This research is a comparative study which compares between two different tasks setting. It was designed to test the differences between work values and job satisfaction in two companies that provide differentiated tasks of employees. Also, this study was designed to investigate the relationship between work values and job satisfaction and to understand demographic factors which correlate to job satisfaction and work values. The major theories of this research focuses on the model of work values which comprises of six components and the model of job satisfaction which consists of six factors. The work values instrument was developed by Wollack et, al. (1971) and the job satisfaction instrument was developed by Smith et, al. (1969). To control many variables and insure comparability, respondents will limit to employees of two companies located in Bangkok Thailand which are under Saha Group Company's control that set the same policies, etc. but employees may have a different

attitude toward job satisfaction and different level of job satisfaction which depend on employee's individual perception factors in and surrounding the job. Also Barton (1976) stated that work values affect to attitude toward work and job satisfaction. Previous research has shown that employee job satisfaction is a function of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards offered by a job and work values (Drummond & Stoddard, 1991).

This study was designed as a quantitative research by utilizing survey methodology. As a survey research method was selected for this study. The data collected will be evaluated accordingly, then the data were analyzed to compare work values and job satisfaction between two companies to investigate two different work categories between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel and to test the relationship between work values and job satisfaction for each company by providing the two instruments of the Job Descriptive Index, and the Survey of Work Values to the employees of two companies. According to Seashore (1987) affirmed that an employee survey approach, a method that has developed over four decades, could effectively assess organizations. The author stated that surveys offer management a comprehensive assessment of employees' current concern regarding employment, sources of satisfaction and dissatisfaction; and this opinion about various programs, policies, and working conditions. Seashore (1987) found survey data useful in rather simple forms; tables and graphs, showing mean responses and distributions for each variable and allowing comparisons of demographics, reveal patterns of work-group composition and attitudes associated with group performance.

Issac and Michael (1987) described surveys as the most widely used technique in the behavioral sciences for collecting data for answering questions that have been raised, assessing needs, setting goals, and generally describing what exists, in what

amount, and in what context. According to Kumer, Aaker, and Day (1999) stated that the survey method provides a great deal of data which can be collected from individual respondents at one time, quickly, inexpensively, and represent on efficient and accurate means of assessing information about a population. Also Davis (1996) mentioned that the survey method is the appropriate research technique for gathering the data of working people because it is a method of primary data collection based on communication with a representative sample of individuals. Survey method allows the researcher to study and describe large population fairly and quickly at relatively low cost.

In order to interpret the data gathered, the researcher applied descriptive analysis and inferential analysis to analyze the results of this study. Zikmund (1997) interpreted that descriptive analysis is applied to transform the raw data into a form that will make them easy to understand and interpret; rearrange, order, and manipulate data to generate descriptive information such as frequency, percentage, and means. Issaac and Michael (1987) stated that descriptive analysis is used in the literal sense of describing situations or events. It accumulates a solely descriptive data base, which does not necessarily seek or explain relationships, test hypotheses, make predictions, or get meanings and implications. However this research aimed at theses more powerful purposes can use descriptive analysis to analyze the demographic factors in term of frequency and percentage, and analyze respondent's answers in part 1 and part 2 of questionnaire in term of frequency, percentage, mean, standard deviation, and variance. For inferential analysis, as research hypothesis is a declarative, operational, should reflect a guess, which is based upon some knowledge, and previous research, research hypothesis must be testable by inferential analysis (Davis and Cosenza, 1993). Also Zikmund (2000) stated that inferential statistics are used to make an

inference about a population from a sample. For this study, the researcher aimed to apply the inferential statistics to test the hypotheses.

This summary of research design was supported by quantitative research by utilizing a survey methodology. The approach selected for analyzing this study was descriptive and inferential analysis. This design enabled the necessary gathering of data through an anonymous three parts from questionnaire which examined job satisfaction, work values, and demographic factors.

Conceptual Framework of a Comparative Study of Employee's Work Values and Job Satisfaction Between Sales Personnel and Manufacturing Personnel in Thailand

In order to satisfy the research objectives of this study, a hybrid framework was consisting of theory based on work values and job satisfaction will be tested between two different work settings. The goal of this study is to determine whether there is relationship between work values and job satisfaction for the employees of two companies, and to investigate demographic factors which correlate to job satisfaction and work values. The model to be tested this study is shown below:

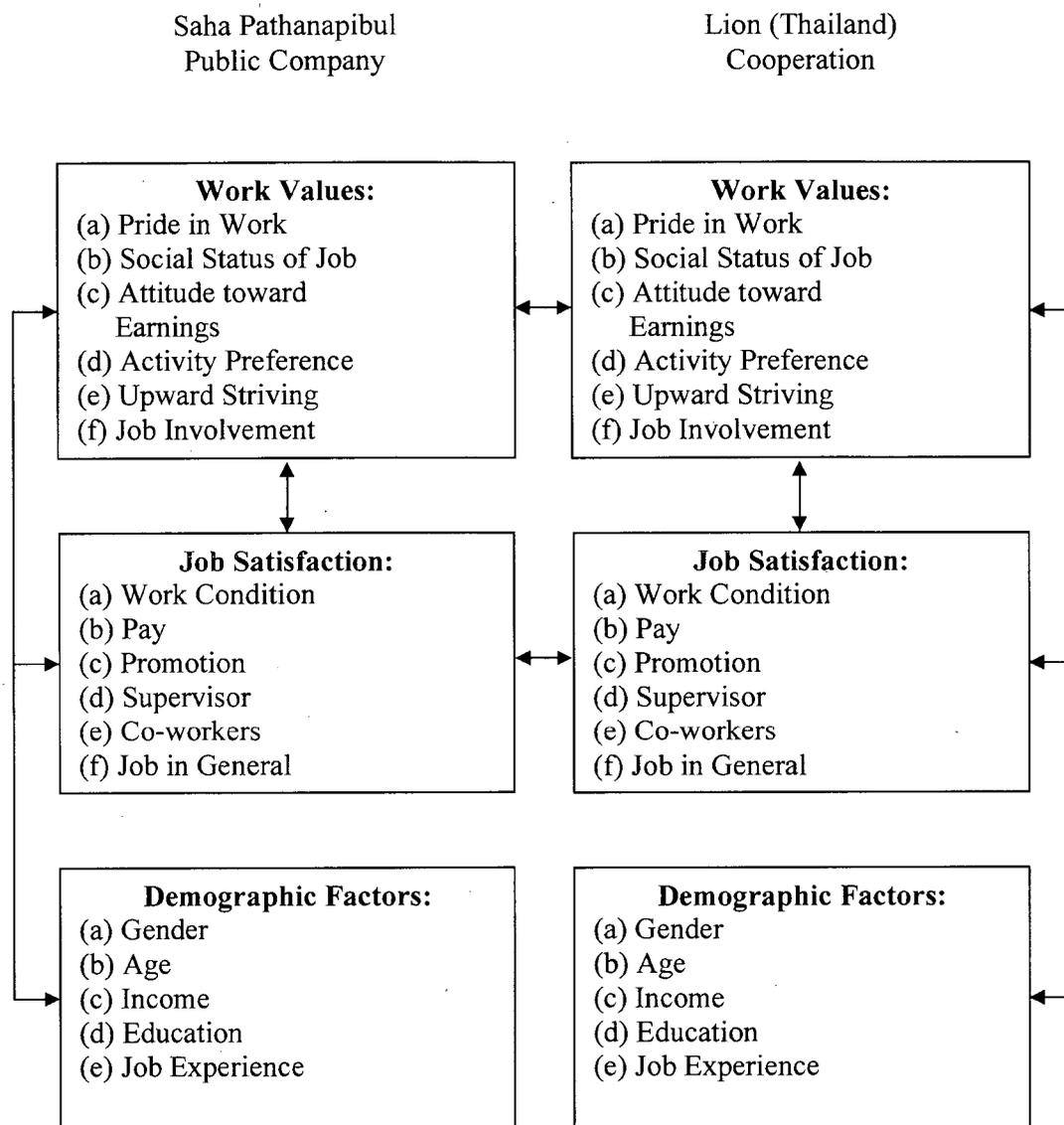


Figure 7. Conceptual Framework of an Investigation of Work Values and Resulting Job Satisfaction in Relation to Two Work Roles.

Research Questions

As discussed in review of literature, work values and job satisfaction are essential to improve employ's effectiveness to cope with the business with intense competition. Lawler (1973) implied that two employees may be holding the same job but their respective levels of satisfaction differ. Also this research was expected to provide the fact finding or research result to modify operations for success in two organizations. Elaborating on the research questions mentioned in previous chapter, this research addressed the following research questions:

1. Is there a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel (Saha Pathanapibul Public Company)?
2. Is there a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction of in manufacturing personnel [Lion (Thailand) Cooperation]?
3. Is there a significant difference in dominant work values of employees between the two work category groups?
4. Is there a significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups?
5. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by gender?
6. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status?
7. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels?
8. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels?

9. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels?
10. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences?
11. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis?
12. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by gender?
13. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status?
14. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels?
15. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels?
16. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels?
17. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences?
18. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis?

Research Hypotheses

The eighteen hypotheses developed from the research questions of this research are grouped into five groups. The first group, hypothesis one, and two, investigates the relationship between employee's work values and job satisfaction of

each work situation. The second group consists of one hypothesis which was developed to compare work values between two work situations. The third group, consists of hypothesis four which was developed to compare job satisfaction between two work situations. The fourth group; hypothesis five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, and eleven explores the difference between demographic factors and employee's work values of each work situation. The fifth group; hypothesis twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen investigates the difference between demographic factors and job satisfaction of each work situation. The research hypotheses for this study are as follows:

Group A: To test the relationship between work values and job satisfaction:

Many previous studies have researched the relationship between work values, and job satisfaction. Harrington, Miles, Watkins, Williamson & Grady (1996) found that work values had a positive relationship with job satisfaction, commitment to organization, and positive affect toward supervisor. But, then found a negative relationship with intent to leave, and turnover from organization. Similarly, O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) found that the work value had a positive relationship with job satisfaction, and commitment but negative relationship to intention to leave, and lower turnover. Ronen (1978) found that there was a significant relationship between work values and job satisfaction and Meglino and Ravlin (1998) implied that individual values in organization had a relationship with job satisfaction.

Kalleberg (1977) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and work values and found that work values had independent and significant effect on job satisfaction. Similarly, Torres (1990) found the relationship between work values and job satisfaction which was similar result that found by Sarnswang (1995). Also, the

same results supported by Akroyd, O'Brien, and Richards, 1993; Bruening and Hoover, 1991; Colgrove and Shinville, 1993; Grady and Burnet, 1958; and Sandholtz, 1900. Assessment of a potential similar independence resulted in the following hypotheses.

H_{1o}: There is no relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel (Saha Pathanapibul Public Company).

H_{1a}: There is a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sale personnel (Saha Pathanapibul Public Company).

H_{2o}: There is no relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel [Lion (Thailand) Cooperation].

H_{2a}: There is a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel [Lion (Thailand) Cooperation].

Group B: To compare the work values between two situations; sales personnel vs. manufacturing personnel.

Harrington, Miles, Watkins, Williamson, and Grady (1996) studied work values in four different organizations. The researchers found that different organizations had developed different approaches to managing employees through values to work. The researchers concluded that values affect the base to direct employee decisions and actions, form the organization's value that will affect to customers and staff, and reinforce employees to work hard or dedicate for their company. Also Torres (1990) found the difference in work values when the researcher

compared between study group and norm group. The results of work values showed that ability utilization, advancement, aesthetics, altruism, authority, creativity, personal development, social interaction, variety, working conditions, cultural identity, economic security, compensation, social status, supervision human relations, and supervision-technical of study group were higher than norm group. Similarly, Williams (2001) studied the relationship in work values in different work settings (i.e. different organizations) and found that there was no relationship in work values between both corporations. But, Meglino and Ravlin (1998) concluded that the effect of work values may be different which depended on different tasks. Therefore, in evaluating possible difference between groups, the following hypothesis was formulated:

H_{3o}: There is no significant difference in dominant work values of employees between the two work category groups.

H_{3a}: There is a significant difference in dominant work values of employees between the two work category groups.

Group C: To compare the job satisfaction between two work category groups.

Sarnswang (1995) tested a difference of job satisfaction between different two groups of university deans and found that there was a significant difference in job satisfaction.

H_{4o}: There is no a significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups.

H_{4a}: There is a significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups.

Group D: To test the difference between demographic factors and work values of the two work category groups.

Torres (1990) found that female's work values in term of ability utilization and creativity were higher than males but Kimmel and Nevill (1990) examined gender differences of values by using Saliency Inventory instrument (SI) and found that males had a higher value in social interaction than females. According to Pine and Innes's (1987) study, the authors found that females had a lower concern of altruism and social interaction than males but higher concern of power, value of status, and money than males. In Lofkowitz's (1994) implied that females valued autonomy, power, and security less than males. The author found that there was two significant differences in higher males valued maturity and lower valued in financial reward than females.

Chusmir and Parker (1991) investigated values related to the workplace and to personal life between male and females from 258 managers and found that the first rank of females was responsibility in both values but the first rank of males was workplace and second was their personal lives.

H₅₀: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by gender.

H_{5a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by gender.

H₆₀: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status.

H_{6a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status.

Funderburg (1996) found that there was a relationship between different age levels and work values. The author indicated that the older age levels became more willing to take a risks which was supported by Buchholz (1978); and Cherrington, Condie & England (1979) who concluded work values as dependent variables and age as independent variables. The researchers found that there was a difference in work values when determined by age levels. Similarly, Singboorana (2001) found that different age levels were different in attitude toward earning and pride-in-work factor of work values. Also, Singer and Stefflre (1954) studied different age between high school and adult males. The researcher found that adult males focused on independence but high school boys concerned about experience and profit in work values.

H_{7o}: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels.

H_{7a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels.

Wijting, & Smith (1971) studied the relationship between employees' work values and different positions, social status, and different income levels. The authors found that most employees seek higher position or opportunity for promotion, employees need social status in organization, and employees' attitudes toward salary can effect work values. Also, Singboorana (2001) concluded that different income levels were different in work values in term of attitude toward earning, especially, the employees who had low monthly income.

H_{8o}: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels.

H_{8a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels.

Buchholz (1978); and Cherrington, Condie & England (1979) examined work values as dependent variables and demographic factors as independent variables. The researchers found that there was difference in work values as a function of different education levels.

H_{9o}: There is no a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels.

H_{9a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels.

According to Funderburg's study (1996), the researcher measured the relationship between years of experiences and work values by using the VS (The Value Scale)) and found that there was no real relationship between two variables.

H_{10o}: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences.

H_{10a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences.

Cater, Gushue, and Weitzman (1994) studied the different college students' racial identity attitudes and work values and found that different races and different cultures could affect employees' work value. Similarly, Pine and Innis (1987) indicated that individual work values were affected from different cultures, history,

and society which caused from different beliefs, attitudes, and judgment (Super, 1970).

H₁₁₀: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis.

H_{11a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis.

Group E: To test the difference between demographic factors and job satisfaction of the two work category groups.

An important consideration in understanding's behavior a potential employee is to understand the demographic factors which correlate to job satisfaction. The literature on demographic correlates of job satisfaction includes sex, marital status, age, educational level, income level, and job experience. To understand sex differences in job satisfaction, past researchers have attempted to relate gender with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, and job level. A number of researchers have attempted to such intrinsic rewards as autonomy, and job level as responsible mediators of sex differences in job satisfaction (Lambert, 1991). Klecker (1997) found that there were difference in job satisfaction between males and females. Kremer and Goldstein (1990) mentioned that females had a higher job satisfaction than males. Similarly, the study of Adelman (1991) found that females had a higher positive attitude than males in term of working conditions and relationship on the jobs. Also, Gruneberg (1979) implied that some researches conclude females to be more satisfied in their works more than males, some conclude the reverse, and some conclude no significant difference. The author reviewed that males are more concerned about employee

supervision, long-term jobs, and major decision which females are more focused on the intrinsic facets of work environment.

H₁₂₀: There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by gender.

H_{12a}: There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by gender.

Chapman (1983) found that unmarried females had lower job satisfaction than married males. Also, Te-Ming (2002) studied the elementary school teachers' job satisfaction and concluded that there were significant differences in job satisfaction when segmented by marital status. The researcher implied that unmarried teacher had lower job satisfaction than married teachers which was caused by married teachers having to take care their family with a need for security job, and making easier to accept and follow the rules than unmarried teachers.

H₁₃₀: There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status.

H_{13a}: There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status.

In the fields of management and psychology, many studies of age-related effects on job satisfaction have been reported (Weaver, 1980). Age was found to be positively correlated with general and job-related determinants. It was found that younger employees stressed the importance of intrinsic aspects such as challenge of their work, while older employees found extrinsic aspects such as security were more important. Kremer & Goldstein (1990) and Calloway (1985) also indicated that

different age levels could affect job satisfaction. Similarly, Melvin (1979) implied that older workers are more satisfied in job than younger workers.

H_{14o}: There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels.

H_{14a}: There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels.

Levey (1991) found a significant difference between income or payment and job satisfaction of two groups which supported Bass's research (1981), and Katz and Kahn's study (1978) who referred that inadequacy of reward or income establishing pattern would impact individual productivity. Also Smith et al. (1969) implied that income variable affected an index of the presence of any job levels in organization. Similarly, the study of Patitu and Tack (1991) found that different income levels are a major factor affecting job satisfaction.

H_{15o}: There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels.

H_{15a}: There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels.

Parnes (1966), and Sheppard and Herrick (1972) found that the higher an employee's educational level, the more likely he/she was satisfied. This was explained on the basis that employees with a higher educational background had achieved more in terms of financial compensation, benefits, and supervision, than the ones with lower educational backgrounds. It appears that employees with higher educational levels have higher expectations of salary, incentives, and recognition and

these higher expectations can be fulfilled, job satisfaction will result. Also, Hawkins (1991) found that there was a significant in higher education in relation to role and duty, and job satisfaction. Similarly, Klein and Maher (1966) compared college-educated and non-college-educated managers and concluded that non-college-educated managers are satisfied with their income and job more than college-educated manager. In reverse, Levey (1991) compared the job satisfaction between two groups of respondents who had college degrees and without college degrees and the researcher found that there was no significant relationship between job satisfaction and years of education or between two groups.

H_{16o}: There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels.

H_{16a}: There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels.

Jurgensen (1978) studied job satisfaction between the longer and shorter term employees work experiences and found that the employees with longer working experiences were concerned about security and organizational reputation but shorter term employees focused on salary, work condition, and co-workers relationship. Also, Smith et al. (1996) stated that there was a significant difference in overall job satisfaction based on tenure with companies in the hospitality industry. However, higher satisfaction levels of new employees with less than six months of employment was found. This was seen as possible relating to the pleasure of obtaining a new job. Overall satisfaction dropped for employees of more than six months, and the greatest level of job turnover occurs during the first six months. Smith et al. (1996) argued that high turnover may be due to lack of job satisfaction. Clark, Oswald, and Warr (1996)

found that age and tenure exist in a state of covariation, which means that the moderating effect of age could be explained simply by reference to individual differences in tenure. Since to some degree, measures of tenure embody the work experiences of employees the covariation between tenure and age, embodies work experiences also.

Camp (1987) studied vocational teachers in USA. and found a negative relationship between length of experience and degree of job satisfaction. Also Te-Ming (2002) found a significant differences between job satisfaction and length of working experiences. But Levey (1991) found that there was no relationship between job satisfaction and years of experience in the current job. Some researches mentioned that older, more experienced workers may have a chance to select jobs that will satisfy them (Gruneberg, 1979).

H₁₇₀: There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences.

H_{17a}: There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences.

Weaver (1980) studied the level of job satisfaction among American workers when segmented by ethnic basis from 1972 through 1978 with a sample (n = 4,709) and found that blacks were less job satisfaction than whites.

H₁₈₀: There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis.

H_{18a}: There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis.

Data Collection

The data was collected by using three instruments. Each instrument was evaluated and analyzed to compare the difference of work values and job satisfaction between employees of two companies, and to determine the relationship between the two primary instruments, The Survey of Work Values and The Job Descriptive Index, for each company's employees. As presented to a potential respondent, three of the instruments were combined into a single battery and served as the data gathering instrument: (see Appendix A)

Part 1: The Job Descriptive Index: Job Satisfaction instrument statements

operationally defined job satisfaction as simply the feeling a worker has about his or her job (Smith, et al., 1969). This section comprises of six scales and each scale consists of a number of subvariables as follow:

Scales	Subvariables
1. Work on Present job	18
2. Present Pay	9
3. Opportunities for Promotion	9
4. Supervision	18
5. Co-workers	18
6. Job in General	18
Total subvariables	90

The instrument form contains of a set of instructions which explains the intent and provides directions for responding to the 90 subvariables by scales. Each sub

variable is assessed by responding to words or phrases describe their work using the answers “Y” for “Yes” if it describes their work, “N” for “No” if it does not describe their work, and “?” if the respondents can not decide.

Part 2: The Survey of Work Values: Survey of Work Values instrument operationally defined as general attitudes about the meanings that an individual attaches to his or her work role (Wollacl et al., 1971). The instrument consists of six components, each component comprises of nine subvariables and total are 54 subvariables. There are as follow:

<u>Components</u>	<u>Subvariables</u>
1. Social status of the job	9
2. Activity Preference	9
3. Upward Striving	9
4. Attitude toward earnings	9
5. Pride-in-work	9
6. Job Involvement	9
Total subvariables	54

This part also contains a set of instructions which provides directions for responding to the 54 subvariables. Each statement of work value is evaluated in terms of relative importance on a five point Likert-type scale (See Appendix A), ranging from one (strongly disagree), two (moderately disagree), three (neither agree nor disagree), four (moderately disagree), and five (strongly agree).

Part 3: The personal profile or demographic factors requests information from the subjects. It asks employees to provide indication of gender, ethnic basis, marital status, age category, income levels, education levels, and job experience.

The Job Descriptive Index and the Survey of Work Values Instruments

As indicated above, the Job Descriptive Index and the Survey of Work Values Instruments are the principal instrument to use for data collection in this study. Each instrument is described in the following sub topics:

The Job Descriptive Index Instrument

The job Descriptive Index Instrument (JDI) was developed by Smith et al., (1969, and Smith 1985). The JDI is an indirect measure of job satisfaction which encompasses six aspects of work: work, pay, promotion, supervision, co-workers, and the job-in-general. The JDI was developed by Patricia Cain Smith as a part of the Cornell Studies of Job Satisfaction initiated in 1959. There were five categories of job satisfaction: work, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and co-workers. Five categories were selected on the basis of a factor analysis of the literature on job satisfaction and affect extensive analyses of preliminary categories. The sixth factor, job-in-general was added to the JDI by Smith et al., in 1985. The JDI consists of a total of 90 subvariables including 18 in each of the sub-scales of work, supervision, co-workers, job-in-general, and 9 subvariables each in pay and opportunities for promotion. The six categories of the JDI are defined as follow:

1. Work on the present job refers to the employee's satisfaction with the work itself.

2. Satisfaction with pay refers to attitudes toward pay, based on the perceived difference between actual and expected pay, both on the value of perceived inputs and outputs of the job, and the pay of other employees holding similar jobs or possessing similar qualifications.
3. Opportunities for promotion refer to the employee's satisfaction with the company's promotion policy and the administration of that policy.
4. Satisfaction with supervision refers to an employee's satisfaction with the supervisor(s), the greater the supervisor's perceived competence on the job, the greater the satisfaction with supervision.
5. Satisfaction with co-workers refers to satisfaction with fellow employees, concerned with people on the present job.
6. Job-in-general refers to an overall evaluation of how individuals feel about their jobs.

The JDI instrument included 6 components and 90 subvariables and for each subvariable is posed as adjectives or short phrases, hence it does not require the subject to understand abstract or complicated terms. Individuals indicate whether a word or phrase applies to the particular scale relative to their jobs (e.g. pay). If it applies, the respondent writes "Y" (yes); if it does not, the respondent writes "N" (no). If undecided, the respondent enters a question mark (?). About half of the items selected for each component are positive and half are negative. Therefore, an individual who answer each item with a "Y" would not get a high satisfaction score by simply responding "yes" to all items. For this research, the researcher has to

convert score when analyzes by using SPSS technique for instance if “?” is equal 1; “N” is equal 2; and “Y” is equal 3. The researcher has to convert the score for the negative short phrases in questionnaire by using transform technique in SPSS to change the scores or numbers from 1 to 3, 2 to 2, and 3 to 1 before analyzes by using descriptive and inferential analysis in chapter four. The negative short phrases in questionnaire by using transform technique such as question number 4, 8, 14, 15, and 17 of Work on Present Job scale; 4, 6, 7, and 9 of Present Pay scale; 2, 4, 6, and 7 of Opportunities for Promotion scale; 2, 3, 8, 11, 12, 14, 16, and 18 of Supervision scale; 2, 3, 5, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 16, and 18 of Co-workers; and 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 12, 14, 16, and 18 of Job in General.

The subvariables of each scale are posed as short word or phrases. There are many details for each component as follows:

1. Work on Present Job. There are 18 subvariables as follow: (1) fascinating, (2) Routine, (3) satisfying, (4) boring, (5) good, (6) creative, (7) respected, (8) uncomfortable, (9) pleasant, (10) useful, (11) tiring, (12) healthful, (13) challenging, (14) too much to do, (15) frustrating, (16) simple, (17) repetitive, and (18) gives sense of accomplishment.
2. Present pay. There are 9 subvariables as follow: (1) Income adequate for normal expenses, (2) fair, (3) barely live on income, (4) bad, (5) income provides luxuries, (6) insecure, (7) less than I deserve, (8) well paid, and (9) underpaid.
3. Opportunities for Promotion. There are 9 subvariables as follow: (1) good opportunities for promotion, (2) opportunities somewhat limited, (3) promotion on ability, (4) dead-end job, (5) good chance

for promotion, (6) unfair promotion policy, (7) infrequent promotions, (8) regular promotions, and (9) fairly good chance for promotion.

4. Supervision. There are 18 subvariables as follow: (1) asks my advice, (2) hard to please, (3) impolite, (4) praises good work, (5) tactful, (6) influential, (7) up-to-date, (8) doesn't supervise enough, (9) has favorites, (10) tells me where I stand, (11) annoying, (12) stubborn, (13) knows job well, (14) bad, (15) intelligent, (16) poor planner, (17) around when needed, and (18) lazy.
5. Co-workers. There are 18 subvariables as follow: (1) stimulating, (2) boring, (3) Slow, (4). Helpful, (5) stupid, (6) responsible, (7) fast, (8) intelligent, (9) easy to make enemies, (10) talk too much, (11) smart, (12) lazy, (13) unpleasant, (14) gossipy, (15) active, (16) narrow Interests, (17) loyal, and (18) stubborn.
6. Job-in-general. There are 18 subvariables as follow: (1) pleasant, (2) bad, (3) ideal, (4) waste of time, (5) good, (6) undesirable, (7) worthwhile, (8) worse than most, (9) acceptable, (10) superior, (11) better than most, (12) disagreeable, (13) makes me content, (14) inadequate, (15) excellent, (16) rotten, (17) enjoyable, and (18) poor.

The Survey of Work Values Instrument

The Survey of Work Values Instrument was developed by Wollack et al., (1971 [revised 1976]). This instrument was designed to measure work values as general attitudes about meaning that an individual attaches to his or her work role by using indirect questions. The researchers designed the Survey of Work Values to

index one's attitude toward work in general, rather than feeling about a specific job. The authors found the correlation between work values as general attitudes and behaviors in organization that had a low relationship that caused from economic and social factors limit the alternative behaviors available to an individual regardless of his or her attitude. Since indirect measures do not index accurately an individual's work values, the researchers revised the Survey of Work Values instrument in 1976 as more direct questions to measure. The model of work values (Wollack et al., 1971 [revised 1976]) consist of six components: Social status of job, activity preference, upward striving, attitude toward earning, pride-in-work, and job involvement.

The Survey of Work Values instrument comprised of six components and 54 subvariables. The six components of the work values survey correspond to statements as follows: Social status of job (statement 1 to 9), activity preference (statement 10 to 18), upward striving (statement 19 to 27), attitude toward earning (statement 28 to 36), pride-in-work (statement 37 to 45); and job involvement (statement 46 to 54). A five-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strong agree" (5) (Wollack et al., 1971) is provided for subject responses.

For this research, the researcher has to convert the score for the negative statement in questionnaire by using transform technique in SPSS to change the scores or numbers from 1 to 5, 2 to 4, 3 to 3, 4 to 2 and 5 to 1 before analyzes by using descriptive and inferential analysis in chapter four. The negative questions in questionnaire by using transform technique such as question number 11, 12, and 14 of Activity Preference; 25 and 26 of Upward Striving; 39 and 42 Pride-in-Work; and 50, 53, and 54 of Job Involvement.

Reliability and Validity

Smith (1969) reported that the internal consistency of the five Job Descriptive Index scales range from .80 to .88 as determined by split-half correlations based on a sample of 80 male employees from two electric plants. An average correlation between the different scales of approximately .37 indicates that the Job Descriptive Index instrument adequately discriminates among the five scales. The Job Descriptive Index scales have been correlated with other measures of satisfaction with an average correlation of .70. Therefore, in this sense, the Job Descriptive Index instrument can be considered a valid measure of job satisfaction. Since the initial studies, the Job Descriptive Index instrument have been analyzed for reliability on a sample of over 3500 completed instruments using Cronbach's Alpha. All the scales are reported to have corrected split-half internal consistency coefficients exceeding .80, and test - retest reliabilities averaging .57 (Schneider, Benjamin, and Dachler, 1978).

The second section concerned work values, which were measured using The Survey of Work Values (Wollack, 1971). The author conceptualized work values as general attitudes about the meanings that an individual attaches to his/her work role. The author designed The Survey of Work Values to index one's attitude toward work in general, rather than feelings about a specific job. The researcher found that correlations between attitudes, and supposedly logically, related behaviors were usually low because economic and social factors limit the alternative behaviors available to an individual regardless of his/her attitude. The author developed as six components to measures the work values.

Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, and Smith (1971, p. 334) analyzed median intrascale item intercorrelations and reliabilities (alpha) of six subscales of work values by using a sample of industrial workers (n = 495), government workers (n =

356), and test-retest reliabilities from a group of insurance employees (n = 66). The results of analysis are shown in Table 3.

Table 3.

Median Intrascale Item Intercorrelations Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities, And Test-Retest Reliabilities

Subscale	Industrial workers		Government workers		Insurance employees employees
	Mdn.r	Alpha	Mdn.r	Alpha	Test-retest (Alpha)
Status	.16	.63	.12	.55	.71
Activity	.16	.63	.15	.61	.71
Striving	.14	.59	.12	.55	.76
Earning	.16	.63	.18	.66	.65
Pride	.16	.63	.15	.61	.69
Involvement	.11	.53	.16	.63	.68

From Table 4, Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, and Smith (1971) mentioned that the subscale reliabilities or the alpha testes from different three groups were determined to be satisfactory. For the test-retest reliabilities form a group of insurance employees were higher than industrial and government workers.

Validity of The Survey of Work Values Instrument

According to Harman (1967) implied that the six factors should rotated by the quartimin method of principal components analysis. Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, and Smith (1971) selected quartimin method to analyze six dimensions of work values instrument and the results from factor analysis as shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Sample Items and Their Factor Loadings for Tile Six Factors of The survey of WorkValues

Sample item	Factor loading
Intrinsic values	
A workers should feel some responsibility to do a decent job whether or not his supervisor is around.	.61
If the person can get away with it, he should try to work just a little slower than the boss expects him to.	-.57
The best job that a worker can get is one which permits him to do almost nothing during the working day.	-.57
Organization-Man Ethic	
A man should feel a sense of pride in his work.	.86
If a worker keeps himself busy on his job, the working day passes more quickly than if he was loafing.	.83
A worker who does a sloppy job ough to feel a little ashamed of himself.	.65
Upward Striving	
If a man likes his job, he should be satisfied with it and should not push a promotion to an other job.	-.68
A worker is better off if he is satisfied with his job and is not concerned about being promoted to another job.	-.64
A promotion to a higher-level job usually means more worries and should be avoided for that reason.	-.50
Social Status of Job	
The man who holds down a good job is the most respected man in the neighborhood.	.65
My friends would not think much of me if I did not have a good job.	.64
Having a good job makes a person worthy of praise from his friends and family.	.62

Table 4 (continued)

Sample item	Factor loading
Conventional Ethic	
Doing a good job should mean as much to a worker as a good paycheck.	.64
A man should always be thinking about pulling himself up in the world and should work hard with the hope of being promoted to a higher level job.	.57
There is nothing as satisfying as doing the best job possible.	.54
Attitude toward Earnings	
A man should choose the job which pays the most.	.76
A man should take the job which offers the most overtime if the regular pay on the job is about the same.	.64
A man should choose one job over another mostly because of higher wages.	.62

Source: Wollack, Goodale, Wijing, and Smith (1971), "Development of The Survey of Work Values," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 55(4), p. 335

The first factor in Table 4 is intrinsic dimension which predominated by significant loadings of Activity preference, Pride-in-work, and Job Involvement subscales. Different factors of subscales were Attitude toward earnings, Social status of job, and Upward Striving.

Wollack, Goodale, Wijing, and Smith (1971) suggested that measuring in reliability and validity of work values instrument in different cultures are necessary for empirical research.

Pilot Study in Thailand

The objective of the pilot study was to examine the reliability and validity of the instrument and to determine how well questionnaire was responded to by subjects. According to Tull (1975) stated that " the same scales may have different reliabilities in different cultures, and that the same scales may exhibit different reliabilities when

used by the same individual in evaluating products from different cultures.” To use these two instruments in Thailand, the researcher has to re evaluate them. Carman (1990) mentioned that instrument should be refined by alpha test which was developed by Cronbach and should test by factor analysis to see the validity before being applied in empirical research in different culture. Also Churchill (1999) implied that each item in the questionnaire should be tested within a group of respondents for the purpose of detecting problems in the questionnaire instructions or design. During such a pilot study process, the researcher would be able to look for the clue of ambiguous questions leading to the respondents’ misinterpretation and to correct them in time. Making the most of pilot study situation, the researcher can make sure that the designed questionnaire is understood in the same way to all respondents regardless of culture.

Before applying this questionnaire in Thailand, the instrument was translated from English into Thai language by a linguistic expert from Faculty of Arts at Chulalongkorn University, Bangkok, Thailand and the process of translating back from Thai into English language was done by another linguistic expert from Faculty of Arts at Assumption University of Thailand, Bangkok, Thailand. After verifying the authenticity of the translation, fifteen employees of Saha Pathanapibul Public Company were the first sample to test the instrument. After researcher adjusted some questions that were ambiguous, misunderstood, or contained inappropriate word; the researcher distributed the questionnaire to a research sample in order to test reliability and validity of questionnaire. According to Wanichbuncha (2001) implied the sample size for pilot test should be at least 25 and typically between 25 to 50 respondents. To assure reliability the researcher distributed the questionnaire to 58 respondents.

Reliability

After the researcher gathered the data from pilot test, the data were coded and processed by SPSS program. The reliability of the instrument was accessed by calculation of the Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha scale. The results calculated on the basis of pilot study data were as follows:

Measurement of	Alpha Coefficient
The Job Descriptive Index	
1. Work on the present job	.7754
2. Satisfaction with pay	.6025
3. Opportunities for promotion	.7351
4. Satisfaction with supervision	.7085
5. Satisfaction with co-workers	.8259
6. Job-in-general	.8536
Total	.8817

Measurement of	Alpha Coefficient
Work Values	
1. Social status	.6418
2. Activity preference	.6065
3. Upward striving	.6014
4. Attitude toward earning	.7356
5. Pride-in-work	.6113
6. Job involvement	.6041
Total	.8553

Sekaran (2000) stated that if the alpha test is equal to at least 0.6, it was considered reliable. Also, Nunnally (1967) implied that many researchers have accepted alpha test estimates of .50 to .60 as sufficient to continue the research. From this pilot test, the coefficient exceeded 0.60 in all parts of the questionnaire. Therefore, it is considered reliable.

Validity

Volicer (1984) mentioned that Factor Analysis is a way of looking at the structure of intercorrelations among a large number of variables, usually with the general intent of simplifying a large amount of data. The correlation among the variables may fall into some kind of pattern which mean that there are clusters of variables that are highly correlated among themselves, and poorly correlated with variables in other clusters. This kind of clustering of variables makes it possible to identify “concepts” each of which is measured by a cluster of several variables. These clusters may also referred to as “dimensions” or “factor.” Mclaughlin (1995) indicated that that “ As an analytical technique, factor analysis groups together variables which are highly correlated to reveal a basic pattern or structure within the data. Each variable is assigned a “loading” which related it to a certain factor.” According to Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1995) “Factor loadings greater than $\pm .30$ are considered to meet the minimal level; loadings of $\pm .40$ are considered more important; and the loadings are $\pm .50$ or greater, are considered practically significant.” The results of the Survey of Work Value instrument are as follow: For $n = 58$, used Factor Analysis with Pricipal Component Analysis and selected Varimax rotation which WACT1 to WACT 9 are Activity preference, WATT 1 to WATT 19 are Attitude toward earnings, WINVOL 1 to WINVOL 9 are Job

involvement, WPRIDE 1 to WPRIDE 9 are Pride-in-work, WSOCIAL 1 to WSOCIAL 9 are Social status, WUP 1 to WUP 9 are Upward striving.

The factor loadings indicated considerable converged validity, at least 50 percent do support of this instrument's convergent validity. It may cause from the small sample size in the pilot study. A large sample size may be more reliable or more accurate results.

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
WACT1						
WACT2						
WACT3						
WACT4			.63514			
WACT5						
WACT6			.30001			
WACT7			.30536			
WACT8			.50989			
WACT9			.57465			
WACTI1				.41199		
WACTI2				.41737		
WACTI3				.30248		
WACTI4				.49348		
WACTI5				.70849		
WACTI6						
WACTI7				-.41611		
WACTI8				.68471		
WACTI9				.43915		
WINVOL1						
WINVOL2						
WINVOL3						
WINVOL4						
WINVOL5		45486				
WINVOL6		-.41673				
WINVOL7		.31495				
WINVOL8		.43916				
WINVOL9		.56956				
WRRIDE1	.34052					
WRRIDE2	.47180					
WRRIDE3						
WRRIDE4	.59012					
WRRIDE5						
WRRIDE6	.34390					
WRRIDE7	.67699					
WRRIDE8	.80490					

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
WRRIDE9						
WSOCIAL1						.62816
WSOCIAL2						
WSOCIAL3						
WSOCIAL4						.56483
WSOCIAL5						
WSOCIAL6						
WSOCIAL7						.30022
WSOCIAL8						.47112
WSOCIAL9						
WUP1						
WUP2						
WUP3					.37108	
WUP4						
WUP5						
WUP6					.56304	
WUP7						
WUP8					-.32101	
WUP9					-.53608	

For n = 58, used Factor Analysis with Maximun Likelihood Analysis and selected EQUAMAX rotation which WACT1 to WACT 9 are Activity preference, WATT 1 to WATT 19 are Attitude toward earnings, WINVOL 1 to WINVOL 9 are Job involvement, WPRIDE 1 to WPRIDE 9 are Pride-in-work, WSOCIAL 1 to WSOCIAL 9 are Social status, WUP 1 to WUP 9 are Upward striving.

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
WACT1						
WACT2		.50108				
WACT3		.71363				
WACT4						
WACT5		.30113				
WACT6						
WACT7		.42407				
WACT8						
WACT9						
WACTI1			.49080			
WACTI2			.82575			
WACTI3			.45585			
WACTI4						
WACTI5			.41552			
WACTI6						

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
WACTI7			.30529			
WACTI8						
WACTI9						
WINVOL1	.43313					
WINVOL2	.56931					
WINVOL3	.67247					
WINVOL4	.62592					
WINVOL5						
WINVOL6	.32710					
WINVOL7						
WINVOL8						
WINVOL9						
WRRIDE1				.30498		
WRRIDE2						
WRRIDE3						
WRRIDE4						
WRRIDE5				.31035		
WRRIDE6				.32674		
WRRIDE7						
WRRIDE8						
WRRIDE9				.31517		
WSOCIAL1						.64589
WSOCIAL2						
WSOCIAL3						.31001
WSOCIAL4						.58715
WSOCIAL5						.36771
WSOCIAL6						
WSOCIAL7						.41628
WSOCIAL8						
WSOCIAL9						
WUP1					.50254	
WUP2					.37569	
WUP3						
WUP4						
WUP5					.48594	
WUP6						
WUP7						
WUP8						
WUP9					.33070	

From the results of two techniques of Factor Analysis, most factor loadings indicated that they seemed support this instrument. However, the results of all factor loadings did not cover at least 0.30 for this pilot test. It may cause from the small

sample size in the pilot study. A large sample size may be more reliable or more accurate results.

Anyway, from each component of alpha tests' job satisfaction and work values, the result is above 0.60. Also, the total reliabilities of job satisfaction and work values are .8817 and .8553, respectively. Therefore, it implied that two instruments could be use to test the total of work values and job satisfaction of two work category groups.

Sample Size, and Method

Hair, Anderson, Tatham, Black (1995) stated that "Regarding the sample size question, the researcher generally would not factor analyze a sample of fewer than 50 observations, and preferably the sample size should be 100 or larger." The authors provided a guideline table to identify significant factor loading based on sample size as follow:

Table 5

Sample Size Based on Significant Factor Loading

Guidelines for Sample Size	
Factor Loading	Sample Size Needed for Significance
.30	350*
.35	250
.40	200
.45	150
.50	120
.55	100
.60	85
.65	70
.70	60
.75	50

* Significance is based on a .05 significance level

Many previous studies used the factor loading of .30 level, which relates to the sample size needed for significance of 350. Torres (1990) studied the relationship between work values and job satisfaction of potential minority leaders in community colleges and technical institutes, the researcher had a sample size for two groups equal to 144. Funderburg (1996) researched the work values and job satisfaction of business educators in secondary school systems and community/technical colleges in Arkansas, the author had a sample size for two groups equal to 129. Te-Ming (2002) studied the elementary school teachers' work values and job satisfaction, the author had a sample size equal to 385. Williams (2001) studied the relationship between shared work values and interpersonal trust among individuals in selected work settings, and an employee survey involving a total of 242 respondents was conducted at two organizations to investigate the relationship at the individual coworker level. Bennett (1999) studied the relationship between gender and work values across occupation level and age, the author had a sample size equal to 404. Hence, the sample size in this research is 417 respondents and the researcher distributed the questionnaire to 208 sales personnel of Saha Pathanapibul and 209 manufacturing personnel of Lion (Thailand) Cooperation.

The Sampling Plan

The researcher contacted the president at the headquarters of Saha Group Company in Bangkok, Thailand on October 20, 2003; and got a permission to collect data. The pilot study involved providing the questionnaires to equal sized employee groups at Saha Pathanapibul Public Company Limited and Lion (Thailand) Cooperation. Twenty nine employees for each company responded fully within one week. On average, the employees answer the questionnaire in 15 to 20 minutes.

For the full study a sampling plan two steps. The first step focused on the choice of companies in the Saha Group Companies and the researcher selected Saha Pathanapibul Public Company Limited and Lion (Thailand) cooperation which based on different work categories between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel. Lion (Thailand) cooperation is the biggest manufacturing to produce and supply the consumer product to Saha Pathanapibul Public Company Limited. The second step selected employees from each company. Eligibility for inclusion into the target population required full-time employment, with at least two years of work experience in the working place. This was to ensure that respondents had achieved a steady state in their work category. 208 sales personnel from Saha Pathanapibul Public Company Limited and 209 manufacturing personnel from Lion (Thailand) cooperation were randomly selected, both of which are located within Bangkok, Thailand.

Data Analysis

The Cronbach alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) was used to measure reliability of data collected. Also the data was analyzed by factor analysis to ensure the validity of instrument. The researcher applied many statistical treatments to analyze the hypothesis. The relationship of between employee's work value and job satisfaction for each company in hypothesis one, and two used the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. The researcher used t-test for independent samples to analyze the different in employee's work values and job satisfaction between sales personnel in Saha Pathanapibul Public Company and manufacturing personnel in Lion (Thailand) in hypothesis three and four. The different relationship between demographic factors and work values of sales personnel and manufacturing personnel involving segmentation by gender and ethnic basis in hypothesis five and eleven used

the t-test of independent sample analysis. Tests of hypothesis six, seven, eight, nine, and ten involved Two-Way ANOVA. The analysis of difference between demographic factors and job satisfaction of sales personnel and manufacturing personnel when segmented by gender and ethnic basis in hypothesis twelve and eighteen employed the t-test independent sample. Hypothesis thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, and seventeen were used Two-Way ANOVA. For this study, all inferential discusses were based on confidence level at 95% or the alpha test at the .05 level of statistical significance. The following summarizes the analytic methods used on this study:

1. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient: for hypotheses 1, and 2.
2. T-Test: for hypotheses 3, 4, 5, 11, 12, and 18.
3. Two-Way Analysis of Variance (Two-Way ANOVA): for hypotheses 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 15, 16, and 17.
4. Cronbach alpha coefficient: reliability of the Survey of Work Values and the Job Descriptive Index survey instrument.
5. Factor Analysis: for 6 components of the Survey Work Values instrument, validity of instrument.
6. Mean: general comparison
7. Standard deviation, and variance: general analysis.
8. Percentage, and frequency: general analysis.

Summary

This chapter has described the study's methodology, research design, conceptual framework, research questions and hypotheses, data collection, to include

the Job Descriptive Index: Job Satisfaction instrument and The Survey of Work Values: Survey of Work Values instrument, together with the assessment of the validity and reliability of these instruments. Sample size determination and method, the sampling plan, the techniques of data analysis, and the summarizes of the analytic methods used on this study were also presented.

For this study, the researcher focused on the work values and job satisfaction, developing eighteen hypotheses which were grouped into five sections. The first section compared the work values between two companies. The second section compared the job satisfaction between two companies. The third section tested the relationship between work values and job satisfaction. The fourth section tested the difference between demographic factors and work values of two companies. The last section tested the difference between demographic factors and job satisfaction of two companies.

208 of sales personnel and 209 of manufacturing personnel were subjects in this study. In the pilot study, the researcher conformed the reliability of the data collection instruments with Thais workers by using the conbach alpha coefficient and tested validity by using factor analysis. The statistical treatment used in evaluating the hypotheses included: T-test, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, and Two-Way Analysis of Variance (Two-Way ANOVA). The next chapter will cover details of the statistical analyses used in this research.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF FINDING

The following chapter is organized the results of statistical analysis from three questionnaires: job satisfaction questionnaire, work values questionnaire, and demographic factors questionnaire. Data were collected from a sample of 417 employees at two different organizations between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel.

The findings of this study were answered eighteen research questions posed earlier which were presented in five groups. Group A: to test the relationship between work values and job satisfaction; Group B: to compare the work values between two work situations, sales personnel vs. manufacturing personnel; Group C: to compare the job satisfaction between two work category groups; Group D: to test the difference between demographic factors and work values of the two work category groups; and Group E: to test the difference between demographic factors and job satisfaction of the two work category groups.

These results in this chapter were divided in four stages. First, the analysis of demographic factors; Second, the result of work values and job satisfaction's reliability; Third, the result of work values validity; and Fourth, the analysis of hypotheses were presented. The criteria used for statistical significance to test all hypotheses was at the .05 level.

Description of the Sample Size and Demographic Factor

For this research, the sample size for the two work category groups was 417 employees. A total of 208 employees from sales personnel responded to the questionnaire and the data were collected at Saha Pathanapibul Public Company. Also, the data was collected from a total of 209 employees from manufacturing personnel at Lion (Thailand) Cooperation.

Demographic Factors

The major demographic factors examined in this research were gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, educational levels, job experience, and ethnic basis. From Table 6 indicated that: (1) Gender, a higher percentage (56.7%) of sales personnel were females but a lower percentage (43.3%) of sales personnel were males when compared with manufacturing personnel females (63.3%) and males (36.4%). (2) Marital status, a highest percentage (60.0%) of sales personnel was single and a lowest percentage (2.4%) was divorced/ widowed while a highest percentage (50.2%) of manufacturing personnel was married and a lowest percentage (1%) was divorced/ widowed. (3) Age levels, a highest percentage (52.2%) of sales personnel was age between 21 to 30 and a lowest percentage (11.3%) was age between 41 to 50 while a highest percentage (47.8%) of manufacturing personnel was age between 21 to 30 and a lowest percentage (16.8%) was age between 41 to 50. (4) Income levels, a highest percentage (49.5%) of sales personnel was income between 10,001 to 20,000 baht and a lowest percentage (5.3%) was income between 30,001 to 40,000 baht and income between 40,001 baht or more while a highest percentage (50.2%) of manufacturing personnel had incomes between 10,001 to 20,000 baht and a lowest percentage (4.3%) was income between 40,001 baht or more. (5) Educational levels, a highest

percentage (60.6%) of sales personnel earned bachelor degrees and a lowest percentage (11.5%) earned master degree or higher while a highest percentage (49.8%) of manufacturing personnel earned bachelor degree and a lowest percentage (6.2%) was master degree or higher. (6) Job experience, a highest percentage (51.0%) of sales personnel was job experience between 6 years or more and a lowest percentage (17.3%) was job experience between 4 to 6 years while a highest percentage (63.6%) of manufacturing personnel was job experience between 6 years or more and a lowest percentage (18.2%) was job experience between 4 to 6 years, and 2 to 3 years. (7) Ethnic basis, the higher percentage (80.3%) of sales personnel were Thai-Chinese but a lower percentage (19.73%) of sales personnel was Thais when compared with manufacturing personnel Thai-Chinesees (70.8%) and Thais (29.2%).

Table 6

Demographic Factors of Respondents

Variables	Sales personnel	Manufacturing personnel
	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
Gender		
-Male	90(43.3%)	76(36.4%)
-Female	118(56.7%)	133(63.3%)
Marital Status		
-single	126(60.6%)	102(48.8%)
-Married	77(37.0%)	105(50.2%)
-Divorced/ widowed	5(2.4%)	2(1.0%)
Age levels		
-21 to 30	105(52.2%)	96(47.8%)
-31 to 40	76(36.5%)	74(35.4%)
-41 to 50	27(11.3%)	39(16.8%)
Income levels		
-10,000 baht or low	37(17.8%)	38(18.2%)
-10,001 to 20,000 baht	103(49.5%)	105(50.2%)
-20,001 to 30,000 baht	46(22.1%)	43(20.6%)
-30,001 to 40,000 baht	11(5.3%)	14(6.7%)
-40,001 baht or more	11(5.3%)	9(4.3%)

Table 6 (continued)

Variables	Sales personnel	Manufacturing personnel
	Frequency (%)	Frequency (%)
Educational levels		
-High school or less	26(12.5%)	45(21.5%)
-Diploma or equivalent	32(15.4%)	47(22.5%)
-Bachelor degree	126(60.6%)	104(49.8%)
-Master degree or higher	24(11.5%)	13(6.2%)
Job experience		
-2 to 3 years	66(31.7%)	38(18.2%)
-4 to 6 years	36(17.3%)	38(18.2%)
-6 years or more	106(51%)	133(63.6%)
Ethnic basis		
-Thai	41(19.7%)	61(29.2%)
-Thai-Chinese	167(80.3%)	148(70.8%)
Total	208(100%)	209(100%)

Instrument Evaluation

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) was developed by Smith et al., (1969 and Smith 1985) as a category scale. There are three multiple choices by using the answer “Y” for “Yes,” “N” for “No,” and “?” for “Cannot Decide.” All sub-variables are assessed by words or phrases. All negative structures of survey instrument were recoded by using transform technique in SPSS program.

The Survey of Work Values (SWV) was developed by Wollack et, al (1971) as a five point Likert-type scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. There are six components and 54 sub-variables. Also, all negative structures of survey instrument were recoded by using transform technique in SPSS program.

Reliability of Instruments

After the researcher gathered the data from sample, the data were coded and processed using SPSS. The reliability of the instrument was assessed by using

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient technique. The results calculated on the basis of sample data were as follows:

Measurement of	Alpha Coefficient
The Job Descriptive Index	
1. Work on the present job	0.6498
2. Satisfaction with pay	0.6926
3. Opportunities for promotion	0.7528
4. Satisfaction with supervision	0.6818
5. Satisfaction with co-workers	0.6685
6. Job-in-general	0.6641
Total	0.7888
The Survey of Work Values	
1. Social status	0.6452
2. Activity preference	0.6053
3. Upward striving	0.6019
4. Attitude toward earning	0.6903
5. Pride-in-work	0.6738
6. Job involvement	0.6020
Total	0.8198

From the results of reliability coefficients of two instruments which calculated the data from two work category groups. The Job Descriptive Index ranged from 0.6498 to 0.7528 and the total is 0.7888. The Survey of Work Values ranged from

0.6020 to 0.6903 and the total alpha coefficient is 0.8198. Sekaran (2000) mentioned that the alpha coefficient is equal at least 0.6. It was considered reliable. Similarly, Nunnally (1967) concluded that a general reliability of .50 to .60 has been considerable sufficient to examine the hypotheses. The results of all alpha coefficients in this study indicated strong support for using of the Job Descriptive Index and the Survey of Work Values instruments.

Validity of Instrument

Validity was analyzed by using factor analysis technique to look at the structure of intercorrelations among a large number of variables (Volicer, 1984). If the result of "Factor loadings greater than $\pm .30$ are considered to meet the minimal level; loadings of $\pm .40$ are considered more important; and the loadings are $\pm .50$ or greater, are considered practically significant" which concluded by Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1995). The results of the Survey of Work Value instrument are as follow:

For n = 417, used Factor Analysis with Principal Component Analysis and selected Varimax rotation which WACT1 to WACT 9 are Activity preference, WATT 1 to WATT 19 are Attitude toward earnings, WINVOL 1 to WINVOL 9 are Job involvement, WPRIDE 1 to WPRIDE 9 are Pride-in-work, WSOCIAL 1 to WSOCIAL 9 are Social status, WUP 1 to WUP 9 are Upward striving. The results are as follow:

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
WACT1			.43254			
WACT2			-.32820			
WACT3			-.40554			
WACT4			.55707			
WACT5			-.49687			
WACT6			.52381			
WACT7			.48532			
WACT8			.58760			
WACT9			.54787			

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
WACTI1		.4317				
WACTI2		.65945				
WACTI3		.46229				
WACTI4		.49905				
WACTI5		.68843				
WACTI6		.56859				
WACTI7		.30420				
WACTI8		.61855				
WACTI9		.39942				
WINVOL1						.53472
WINVOL2						.61594
WINVOL3						.59021
WINVOL4						.47066
WINVOL5						-.35775
WINVOL6						.55810
WINVOL7						.44630
WINVOL8						-.34017
WINVOL9						.40474
WRRIDE1	.46344					
WRRIDE2	.55898					
WRRIDE3	.35253					
WRRIDE4	.51433					
WRRIDE5	.37132					
WRRIDE6	.31805					
WRRIDE7	.53779					
WRRIDE8	.64722					
WRRIDE9	.41844					
WSOCIAL1					.34499	
WSOCIAL2					.54785	
WSOCIAL3					.63901	
WSOCIAL4					.54130	
WSOCIAL5					.5549	
WSOCIAL6					.30133	
WSOCIAL7					.33080	
WSOCIAL8					.47784	
WSOCIAL9					.33292	
WUP1				.41109		
WUP2				.50139		
WUP3				.53049		
WUP4				.77199		
WUP5				.63529		
WUP6				.50250		
WUP7				.36538		
WUP8				.30877		
WUP9				.56882		

From the results above, all factor loadings indicated that there were very strong of each group of factor loading which tested by factor analysis technique that six components of activity preference, attitude toward earnings, job involvement, pride-in-work, social status, and upward striving as applied to test in two work category groups in Thailand. All results were matched for each component pattern that found in others research in USA.

Tests of the Research Hypotheses

The hypotheses were stated in this chapter involved eighteen issues which could be grouped into five groups. The first group comprised of hypothesis one, and two; focused on the relationship between work values and job satisfaction. The second group consisted of hypothesis three; focused on the comparison of work values between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel. The third group comprised of hypothesis four which compared the job satisfaction between two work category groups. The fourth group consisted of hypothesis five, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, and eleven which tested the difference between demographic factors and work values of the two work category groups. The fifth group comprised of hypothesis twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen which tested the difference between demographic factors and job satisfaction of the two work category groups. The significant level at .05 was used to be a threshold for acceptance or rejection of the evaluation for all hypotheses.

Group A. To test the relationship between work values and job satisfaction

This group focused on hypotheses one and two. Hypothesis one involved testing for the relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in

sales personnel. Hypothesis Two tested the relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel.

Hypothesis One (H_1)

H_{1o} : There is no relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel (Saha Pathanapibul Public Company).

H_{1a} : There is a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel (Saha Pathanapibul Public Company).

Table 7

The Analysis of Relationship between Work Values and Job Satisfaction in Sales Personnel by using Pearson Correlation Coefficient Product Moment

		SUMW	SUMJ
SUMW	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.119
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.087
	N	208	208
SUMJ	Pearson Correlation	.119	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.087	
	N	208	208

From Pearson Product Moment Coefficient Correlation analysis in Table 7 indicated that there was no relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel (Saha Pathanapibul Public Company). With a 2-tailed significance of .087 which is greater than .05. Therefore, the null hypothesis of

relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel was not rejected.

Hypothesis Two (H₂)

H_{2o}: There is no relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel [Lion (Thailand) Cooperation].

H_{2a}: There is a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel [Lion (Thailand) Cooperation].

Table 8

The Analysis of Relationship between Work Values and Job Satisfaction in Manufacturing Personnel by using Pearson Correlation Coefficient Product Moment

		Correlations	
		SUMW	SUMJ
SUMW	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.145*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.037
	N	209	209
SUMJ	Pearson Correlation	.145*	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.037	
	N	209	209

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

From Table 8, the Pearson Product Moment Coefficient Correlation analysis showed that there was a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel. A 2-tailed test of significance of (.037, $p < .05$) resulted in the null hypothesis of no relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel was rejected.

Group B: To compare the work values between two work situations, sales personnel vs. manufacturing personnel.

This group comprised of hypothesis three. Hypothesis three involved testing for a difference in dominant work values of employees between the two work category groups.

Hypothesis Three (H₃)

H_{3o}: There is no significant difference in dominant work values of employees between the two work category groups.

H_{3a}: There is a significant difference in dominant work values of employees between the two work category groups.

Table 9

The Analysis of Work Values between Employees of the Two Work Category Groups by using Independent T-Test

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
SUMV	.244	.622	1.128	415	.260	2.0903	1.8529	-1.5520	5.7325
Equal variances assumed			1.128	412.573	.260	2.0903	1.8532	-1.5527	5.7332
Equal variances not assumed									

The t-test for independent sample analysis in Table 9 indicated that there was not statistically significant difference in dominant work values of employees between the two work category groups (.260, $p > .05$). It means that the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Group C: To compare the job satisfaction between two work category groups.

This group consisted of Hypothesis Four. Hypothesis Four tested a difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups as follow:

Hypothesis Four (H_4)

H_{4o} : There is no a significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups.

H_{4a} : There is a significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups.

Table 10

The Analysis of Job Satisfaction between Employees of the Two Work Category Groups by using Independent T-Test

Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equal Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
SUMJ	.025	.874	-3.401	415	.001	-5.5237	1.6241	-8.7162	-2.3312
Equal variances assumed			-3.401	414.995	.001	-5.5237	1.6241	-8.7162	-2.3312
Equal variances not assumed									

From Table 10, the analysis of job satisfaction between employees of the two work category groups by using Independent t-Test showed that the significant level at .001 was less than .05. It means that the null hypothesis was rejected. Therefore, there is a statistical significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups at the significant level .05.

Group D: To test the difference between demographic factors and work values of the two work category groups.

Hypotheses 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 are all demographic factors which focus on gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, educational levels, job experiences, and ethnic basis; respectively which were tested in employee's work values of the two work category groups. All results of this group appear in Tables 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16 and 17; respectively.

Hypothesis Five (H₅)

H₅₀: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by gender.

H_{5a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by gender.

Table 11

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Work values of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Gender by using Two-Way Analysis of Variance (Two-Way ANOVA)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumw

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	748.646 ^b	3	249.549	.695	.555	2.086	.198
Intercept	21515074.6	1	21515074.64	59941.687	.000	59941.687	1.000
company	426.066	1	426.066	1.187	.277	1.187	.192
gender	248.040	1	248.040	.691	.406	.691	.132
company * gender	39.536	1	39.536	.110	.740	.110	.063
Error	148239.503	413	358.933				
Total	22752099.0	417					
Corrected Total	148988.149	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .005 (Adjusted R Squared = -.002)

According to the Two-Way ANOVA presented in Table 11, there were no statistically significant differences in work values between the two work category groups and between the genders of the employees. No significant interaction effect of the variables work category and gender on work values was found at the .05 level of significance (sig = .227, sig = .406, and sig = .740 > .05). Accordingly, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Six (H₆)

H_{6o}: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status.

H_{6a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status.

Table 12

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Work Values of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Marital Status by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumw

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	1495.227 ^b	5	299.045	.833	.527	4.167	.300
Intercept	2703909.097	1	2703909.097	7534.644	.000	7534.644	1.000
company	60.757	1	60.757	.169	.681	.169	.070
marit	798.851	2	399.426	1.113	.330	2.226	.246
company * marit	466.205	2	233.103	.650	.523	1.299	.159
Error	147492.922	411	358.864				
Total	22752099.0	417					
Corrected Total	148988.149	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .010 (Adjusted R Squared = -.002)

According to the Two-Way ANOVA presented in Table 12, there were no statistically significant differences in work values between the two work category

groups and between the marital status of the employees. No significant interaction effect of the variables work category and marital status on work values was found at the .05 level of significance (sig = .681, sig = .330, and sig = .523 > .05).

Accordingly, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Seven (H₇)

H_{7o}: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels.

H_{7a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels.

Table 13

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Work Values of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Age Levels by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumw

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	2845.277 ^b	5	569.055	1.600	.159	8.002	.558
Intercept	17990366.0	1	17990365.97	50594.602	.000	50594.602	1.000
company	1079.873	1	1079.873	3.037	.082	3.037	.413
age	1716.843	2	858.422	2.414	.091	4.828	.486
company * age	862.446	2	431.223	1.213	.298	2.425	.265
Error	146142.871	411	355.579				
Total	22752099.0	417					
Corrected Total	148988.149	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .019 (Adjusted R Squared = .007)

According to the Two-Way ANOVA presented in Table 13, there were no statistically significant differences in work values between the two work category groups and between the age levels of the employees. No significant interaction effect of the variables work category and age levels on work values was found at the .05

level of significance (sig = .082, sig = .091, and sig = .298 > .05). Accordingly, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Eight (H₈)

H_{8o}: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels.

H_{8a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels.

Table 14

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Work Values of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Income Levels by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumw

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	4516.573 ^b	9	501.841	1.414	.180	12.724	.682
Intercept	11298057.7	1	11298057.73	31828.472	.000	31828.472	1.000
company	658.996	1	658.996	1.856	.174	1.856	.274
inc	2289.161	4	572.290	1.612	.170	6.449	.497
company * inc	1868.264	4	467.066	1.316	.263	5.263	.411
Error	144471.576	407	354.967				
Total	22752099.0	417					
Corrected Total	148988.149	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .030 (Adjusted R Squared = .009)

According to the Two-Way ANOVA presented in Table 14, there were no statistically significant differences in work values between the two work category groups and between the income levels of the employees. No significant interaction effect of the variables work category and income levels on work values was found at the .05 level of significance (sig = .174, sig = .170, and sig = .263 > .05).

Accordingly, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Nine (H₉)

H_{9o}: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels.

H_{9a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels.

Table 15

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Work Values of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Educational Levels by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumw

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	1914.935 ^b	7	273.562	.761	.621	5.325	.329
Intercept	13849137.9	1	13849137.91	38513.454	.000	38513.454	1.000
company	134.386	1	134.386	.374	.541	.374	.094
edu	317.268	3	105.756	.294	.830	.882	.107
company * edu	910.599	3	303.533	.844	.470	2.532	.234
Error	147073.214	409	359.592				
Total	22752099.0	417					
Corrected Total	148988.149	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .013 (Adjusted R Squared = -.004)

According to the Two-Way ANOVA presented in Table 15, there were no statistically significant differences in work values between the two work category groups and between the education levels of the employees. No significant interaction effect of the variables work category and education levels on work values was found at the .05 level of significance (sig = .541, sig.= .830, and sig = .470 > .05).

Accordingly, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Ten (H₁₀)

H_{10o}: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences.

H_{10a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences.

Table 16

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Work values of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Job Experiences by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumw

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	3280.326 ^b	5	656.065	1.851	.102	9.253	.631
Intercept	17229899.9	1	17229899.87	48600.609	.000	48600.609	1.000
company	36.261	1	36.261	.102	.749	.102	.062
exp	1390.990	2	695.495	1.962	.142	3.924	.406
company * exp	1474.465	2	737.232	2.080	.126	4.159	.427
Error	145707.822	411	354.520				
Total	22752099.0	417					
Corrected Total	148988.149	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .022 (Adjusted R Squared = .010)

According to the Two-Way ANOVA presented in Table 16, there were no statistically significant differences in work values between the two work category groups and between the job experiences of the employees. No significant interaction effect of the variables work category and job experiences on work values was found at the .05 level of significance (sig = .749, sig = .142, and sig = .126 > .05).

Accordingly, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Eleven (H₁₁)

H_{11a}: There is no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis.

H_{11a}: There is a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups segmented by ethnic basis.

Table 17

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Work Values of the Two Work Groups when Segmented by Ethnic Basis by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumw

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	680.953 ^b	3	226.984	.632	.595	1.896	.183
Intercept	16184029.3	1	16184029.31	45068.643	.000	45068.643	1.000
company	104.880	1	104.880	.292	.589	.292	.084
ethnic	2.753	1	2.753	.008	.930	.008	.051
company * ethnic	225.328	1	225.328	.627	.429	.627	.124
Error	148307.195	413	359.097				
Total	22752099.0	417					
Corrected Total	148988.149	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .005 (Adjusted R Squared = -.003)

According to the Two-Way ANOVA presented in Table 17, there were no statistically significant differences in work values between the two work category groups and between the ethnic basis of the employees. No significant interaction effect of the variables work category and ethnic basis on work values was found at the .05 level of significance (sig = .589, sig = .930, and sig = .429 > .05). Accordingly, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Group E: To test the difference between demographic factors and job satisfaction of the two work category groups.

Hypotheses 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18 are all demographic factors which focus on gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, educational levels, job

experiences, and ethnic basis; respectively which were tested in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups. All analysis results of this group were appeared in Table 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23 and 24; respectively.

Hypothesis Twelve (H_{12})

H_{12o} : There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by gender.

H_{12a} : There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by gender.

Table 18

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Job Satisfaction of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Gender by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumj

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	3866.058 ^b	3	1288.686	4.692	.003	14.076	.895
Intercept	13363983.4	1	13363983.39	48658.357	.000	48658.357	1.000
company	2670.302	1	2670.302	9.723	.002	9.723	.875
gender	206.719	1	206.719	.753	.386	.753	.139
company * gender	461.327	1	461.327	1.680	.196	1.680	.253
Error	113430.158	413	274.649				
Total	14130563.0	417					
Corrected Total	117296.216	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .033 (Adjusted R Squared = .026)

The results of the Two-Way ANOVA related to this hypothesis are shown in Table 18. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction between the sales and manufacturing personnels at the .05 level of significance ($\text{sig} = .002 < .05$). No statistically significant difference was found

between males and females in the two work groups ($\text{sig} = .386 > .05$). No significant interaction effect of the variables work category and gender on job satisfaction was found ($\text{sig} = .196 > .05$). Based on those results, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Thirteen (H_{13})

H_{13o} : There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status.

H_{13a} : There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status.

Table 19

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Job Satisfaction of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Marital Status by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumj

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	4619.315 ^b	5	923.863	3.370	.005	16.849	.903
Intercept	1622520.924	1	1622520.924	5918.304	.000	5918.304	1.000
company	1568.192	1	1568.192	5.720	.017	5.720	.665
marit	426.941	2	213.470	.779	.460	1.557	.183
company * marit	771.590	2	385.795	1.407	.246	2.814	.302
Error	112676.901	411	274.153				
Total	14130563.0	417					
Corrected Total	117296.216	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .039 (Adjusted R Squared = .028)

The results of the Two-Way ANOVA related to this hypothesis are shown in Table 19. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction between the sales and manufacturing personnels at the .05 level of significance ($\text{sig} = .017 < .05$). No statistically significant difference was found between marital status in the two work groups ($\text{sig} = .460 > .05$). No significant

interaction effect of the variables work category and marital status on job satisfaction was found ($\text{sig} = .246 > .05$). Based on those results, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Fourteen (H_{14})

H_{14o} : There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels.

H_{14a} : There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels.

Table 20

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Job Satisfaction of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Age Levels by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumj

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	4139.405 ^b	5	827.881	3.007	.011	15.035	.862
Intercept	11088720.0	1	11088720.01	40275.649	.000	40275.649	1.000
company	3175.471	1	3175.471	11.534	.001	11.534	.923
age	697.144	2	348.572	1.266	.283	2.532	.275
company * age	255.802	2	127.901	.465	.629	.929	.126
Error	113156.810	411	275.321				
Total	14130563.0	417					
Corrected Total	117296.216	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .035 (Adjusted R Squared = .024)

The results of the Two-Way ANOVA related to this hypothesis are shown in Table 20. The results indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in job satisfaction between the sales and manufacturing personnel at the .05 level of significance ($\text{sig} = .001 < .05$). No statistically significant difference was found among age levels in the two work groups ($\text{sig} = .283 > .05$). No significant interaction

effect of the variables work category and age levels on job satisfaction was found (sig = .629 > .05). Based on those results, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Fifteen (H₁₅)

H_{15a}: There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels.

H_{15a}: There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels.

Table 21

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Job Satisfaction of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Income Levels by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumj

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	4572.134 ^b	9	508.015	1.834	.060	16.508	.816
Intercept	6903524.783	1	6903524.783	24925.770	.000	24925.770	1.000
company	589.556	1	589.556	2.129	.145	2.129	.307
inc	409.042	4	102.260	.369	.831	1.477	.135
company * inc	973.657	4	243.414	.879	.477	3.515	.280
Error	112724.082	407	276.963				
Total	14130563.0	417					
Corrected Total	117296.216	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .039 (Adjusted R Squared = .018)

The result of the Two-Way ANOVA shown in Table 21, indicated that there were no statistically significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups, and between the income levels. There was no interaction between the variables work category group and income level affecting job satisfaction at the significant level of .05 (.145, .831, and .477 > .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Sixteen (H_{16})

H_{16o} : There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels.

H_{16a} : There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels.

Table 22

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Job Satisfaction of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Education Levels by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumj

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	7336.100 ^b	7	1048.014	3.898	.000	27.287	.983
Intercept	8573507.621	1	8573507.621	31889.423	.000	31889.423	1.000
company	1949.354	1	1949.354	7.251	.007	7.251	.766
edu	2900.221	3	966.740	3.596	.014	10.787	.791
company * edu	587.107	3	195.702	.728	.536	2.184	.205
Error	109960.116	409	268.851				
Total	14130563.0	417					
Corrected Total	117296.216	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .063 (Adjusted R Squared = .046)

The analysis of Two-Way ANOVA in Table 22, the results indicated that there were statistically significant differences in job satisfaction between the two work category groups, and between educational levels at the significant level of .05 (.007 and .014 < .05). No significant interaction effect of the variables work category group and educational level was found (sig = .536 > .05). Based on these results the null hypothesis was rejected.

As the result of sub-hypothesis two (2) found that there was a difference in employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels as the result of

significant level was equal the .014 which was less than the .05 which can continue to test by using multiple comparisons. After the researcher tested the homogeneity of variances to select the LSD (Least-Significant Difference) technique of multiple comparisons. The researcher separated the analysis between two work category groups. From Table 23, 24, and 25 were analyzed sales personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels. Also, from Table 26, 27, and 28 were analyzed manufacturing personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels. All results were as follow:

Table 23

The Analysis of Homogeneity of Variance of Sales Personnel Group

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

sumj

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
2.579	3	204	.055

Table 24

The Analysis of Sales Personnel Employee's Job Satisfaction when Segmented by Educational Levels by using ANOVA

ANOVA

sumj

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3238.139	3	1079.380	4.107	.007
Within Groups	53615.381	204	262.820		
Total	56853.519	207			

Table 25

The Analysis of Sales Personnel Employee's Job Satisfaction when Segmented by Educational Levels by using LSD Technique of Multiple Comparisons

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: sumj

LSD

(I) Educational levels	(J) Educational levels	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
High school or lower	Diploma or equivalent	-.68029	4.28038	.874	-9.1197	7.7592
	Bachelor degree	3.37973	3.49204	.334	-3.5054	10.2649
	Master degree or higher	13.41346*	4.58905	.004	4.3654	22.4615
Diploma or equivalent	High school or lower	.68029	4.28038	.874	-7.7592	9.1197
	Bachelor degree	4.06002	3.20921	.207	-2.2675	10.3875
	Master degree or higher	14.09375*	4.37767	.001	5.4625	22.7250
Bachelor degree	High school or lower	-3.37973	3.49204	.334	-10.2649	3.5054
	Diploma or equivalent	-4.06002	3.20921	.207	-10.3875	2.2675
	Master degree or higher	10.03373*	3.61064	.006	2.9148	17.1527
Master degree or higher	High school or lower	-13.41346*	4.58905	.004	-22.4615	-4.3654
	Diploma or equivalent	-14.09375*	4.37767	.001	-22.7250	-5.4625
	Bachelor degree	-10.03373*	3.61064	.006	-17.1527	-2.9148

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

From the results of Table 23 indicated that there was equal variance and from Table 24 showed that there was a difference in sales personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels. The Multiple Comparisons in Table 25 indicated that there were statistical significant difference between high school level or lower and master degree or higher, diploma or equivalent and master degree or higher; and bachelor degree and master degree or higher at .05 (.004, .001, and .006 < .05). It means that the null hypotheses were rejected which were supported the result from Table 22 at the sub-hypothesis (2). However, the results showed that there were no difference between high school level or lower, diploma or equivalent, and bachelor degree at .05 (.874, .207, and .334 < .05).

From Table 26, 27, and 28 were presented the analysis of manufacturing personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels. The results were as follow:

Table 26

The Analysis of Homogeneity of Variance of Manufacturing Personnel Group

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

sumj

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.168	3	205	.323

Table 27

The Analysis of Manufacturing Personnel Employee's Job Satisfaction when Segmented by Educational Levels by using ANOVA

ANOVA

sumj

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	917.188	3	305.729	1.112	.345
Within Groups	56344.735	205	274.852		
Total	57261.923	208			

Table 28

The Analysis of Manufacturing Personnel Employee's Job Satisfaction when Segmented by Educational Levels by using LSD Technique of Multiple Comparisons.

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: sumj

LSD

(I) Educational Levels	(J) Educational Levels	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
High School or lower	Diploma or equivalent	3.87754	3.45771	.263	-2.9397	10.6948
	Bachelor degree	4.36261	2.95815	.142	-1.4697	10.1949
	Master degree or higher	8.16068	5.22018	.120	-2.1314	18.4528
Diploma or equivalent	High School or lower	-3.87754	3.45771	.263	-10.6948	2.9397
	Bachelor degree	.48507	2.91389	.868	-5.2600	6.2301
	Master degree or higher	4.28314	5.19523	.411	-5.9598	14.5261
Bachelor degree	High School or lower	-4.36261	2.95815	.142	-10.1949	1.4697
	Diploma or equivalent	-.48507	2.91389	.868	-6.2301	5.2600
	Master degree or higher	3.79808	4.87702	.437	-5.8175	13.4136
Master degree or higher	High School or lower	-8.16068	5.22018	.120	-18.4528	2.1314
	Diploma or equivalent	-4.28314	5.19523	.411	-14.5261	5.9598
	Bachelor degree	-3.79808	4.87702	.437	-13.4136	5.8175

From the results of Table 26 indicated that there was equal variance and from Table 27 showed that there was no difference in manufacturing personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels. Similarly, the Multiple Comparisons in Table 28 indicated that there were no statistical significant difference in manufacturing personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels.

Based on the above analysis, it was concluded that the significant difference in job satisfaction among employees with different education levels was due to significant differences between employees with master degree or higher and other education levels within the sales personnel group.

The conclusion of the significant results for sales and manufacturing employees' job satisfaction when determined by educational levels.

Table 29

The Conclusion of the Significant Results in Job Satisfaction between Sales Personnel and Manufacturing Personnel Based on Educational Level.

Sales personnel			Manufacturing personnel	
	Variables	Sig.	Variables	Sig.
Master degree	High school or low	.004	High school or low	.120
	Diploma or equivalent	.001	Diploma or equivalent	.411
	Bachelor degree	.006	Bachelor degree	.437

Hypothesis Seventeen (H_{17})

H_{170} : There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences.

H_{17a} : There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences.

Table 30

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Job Satisfaction of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Job Experiences by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumj

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	5391.610 ^b	5	1078.322	3.960	.002	19.802	.947
Intercept	10685167.2	1	10685167.21	39244.173	.000	39244.173	1.000
company	948.109	1	948.109	3.482	.063	3.482	.461
exp	1324.741	2	662.370	2.433	.089	4.865	.489
company * exp	886.327	2	443.164	1.628	.198	3.255	.344
Error	111904.605	411	272.274				
Total	14130563.0	417					
Corrected Total	117296.216	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .046 (Adjusted R Squared = .034)

The result of the Two-Way ANOVA shown in Table 30, indicated that there were no statistically significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups, and between the job experiences. There was no interaction between the variables work category group and job experience affecting job satisfaction at the significant level of .05 (.063, .089, and .198 > .05). Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Eighteen (H₁₈)

H_{18o}: There is no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis.

H_{18a}: There is a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis.

Table 31

The Analysis of Difference in Employee's Job Satisfaction of the Two Work Category Groups when Segmented by Ethnic Basis by using Two-Way ANOVA.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: sumj

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
Corrected Model	5613.594 ^b	3	1871.198	6.920	.000	20.759	.978
Intercept	9884762.534	1	9884762.534	36553.645	.000	36553.645	1.000
company	4359.692	1	4359.692	16.122	.000	16.122	.980
ethnic	1958.070	1	1958.070	7.241	.007	7.241	.766
company * ethnic	759.797	1	759.797	2.810	.094	2.810	.387
Error	111682.622	413	270.418				
Total	14130563.0	417					
Corrected Total	117296.216	416					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

b. R Squared = .048 (Adjusted R Squared = .041)

The finding of the Two-Way ANOVA as shown in Table 31, indicated that there were statistical significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work

category groups, and between the ethnic groups at the significant level of .05 (.000 and $.007 < .05$). No significant interaction between the variables work category group and ethnic basis affecting job satisfaction was found ($\text{sig} = .094 > .05$).

Observing a significant differences in job satisfaction between the ethnic groups led to study these differences in each of the working group. Table 32 was analyzed sales personnel employee’s job satisfaction when segmented by ethnic basis. Similarly, Table 33 was analyzed manufacturing personnel employee’s job satisfaction when segmented by ethnic basis. All results were as follow:

Table 32

The Analysis of Difference in Sales Personnel Employee’s Job Satisfaction when Segmented by Ethnic Basis by using Independent Samples T- test.

Group Statistics

Ethnic basis		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
sumj	Thai	41	173.8780	16.46541	2.57147
	Thai Chinese	167	182.1856	16.23199	1.25607

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
sumj	Equal variances assumed	.407	.524	-2.928	206	.004	-8.30758	2.83708	-13.90101	-2.71415
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.903	60.535	.005	-8.30758	2.86184	-14.03108	-2.58408

The Independent Sample T-Test Analysis in Table 32 showed significant differences in job satisfaction between Thai and Chinese-Thai among the sales

personnel ($\text{sig} = .004 < .05$). As seen in Table 32 Chinese-Thais had a higher job satisfaction than Thais.

From Table 33, the researcher analyzed the manufacturing personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by ethnic basis and the result was as follow:

Table 33

The Analysis of Difference in Manufacturing Personnel Employee's Job Satisfaction when Segmented by Ethnic Basis by using Independent Samples T- test

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
sumj	Equal variance assumed	.023	.879	-.764	207	.446	-1.93022	2.52705	-6.91227	3.05184
	Equal variance not assumed			-.744	105.947	.458	-1.93022	2.59299	-7.07111	3.21068

The Independent Sample T-Test Analysis in Table 33 showed no significant differences in job satisfaction between Thai and Chinese- Thai among the manufacturing personnel ($\text{sig} = .446 > .05$).

Summary

From the results of analysis showed that the sample size was appropriate to measure all research hypotheses. The reliability of the two instruments was calculated by the Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha Scale and found that the total alpha coefficient of Job Descriptive Index (JDI) instrument was .7888 and the Survey of Work Values (SWV) instrument was .8198. Also, the validity of the Survey of Work Values (SWV)

instrument, all factor loadings of six components were greater than $\pm .30$ which were considered to apply to this research. The following summarizes the results of all hypotheses testing. Hypothesis 1: There was no relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel (Saha Pathanapibul Public Company) or the null hypothesis (H1₀) was not rejected. Hypothesis 2: There was a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel [Lion (Thailand) Cooperation] or the null hypothesis H2₀) was rejected. Hypothesis 3: There was no significant difference in dominant work values of employees between the two work category groups or the null hypothesis (H3₀) was not rejected. Hypothesis 4: There was a significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups or null hypothesis (H4₀) was rejected. Hypothesis 5: There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by gender or the null hypothesis (H5₀) was not rejected. Hypothesis 6: There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status or the null hypothesis (H6₀) failed to reject. Hypothesis 7: There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels or the null hypothesis (H7₀) was not rejected. Hypothesis 8: There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels or the null hypothesis (H8₀) failed to reject. Hypothesis 9: There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels or the null hypothesis (H9₀) was not rejected. Hypothesis 10: There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences or the null hypothesis (H10₀) was not rejected. Hypothesis 11: There was no difference in employee's work values

of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis or the null hypothesis (H11o) was not rejected. Hypothesis 12: There was no different in employee's job satisfaction when segmented by gender for each work group. The null hypothesis (H12o) was not rejected. Hypothesis 13: There was no different in employee's job satisfaction when segmented by marital status for each work group. The null hypothesis (H13o) was not rejected. Hypothesis 14: There was no different in employee's job satisfaction when segmented by age levels for each work group. The null hypothesis (H14o) was not rejected. Hypothesis 15: There was no difference in employee's job satisfaction of two work category groups when segmented by income levels or the null hypothesis (H15o) was not rejected. Hypothesis 16: There was a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups and when segmented by educational levels. The null hypothesis (H16o) was rejected. Hypothesis 17: There was no difference in employee's job satisfaction of two work category groups when segmented by job experience or the null hypothesis (H17o) was not rejected. Hypothesis 18: There was a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups and when segmented by ethnic basis. The null hypothesis (H18o) was rejected

The final chapter will present research summary, finding, implications, recommendations or suggestions, and conclusion.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter comprises of five parts. The first part presents a summary of research, the second part discusses implications and research finding, the third part discusses the possible impact of the Thai culture on the results of the hypothesis testing, and the fourth part suggests further research, followed by the part conclusions.

Summary

The general purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between employee's work values and job satisfaction of sales personnel and manufacturing personnel. Also this research compared employee's work value and job satisfaction between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel. Further, a series of research hypotheses were considered to examine overall work values and job satisfaction which were influenced by selected demographic variables such as gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, educational levels, job experiences, and ethnic basis.

The demographic factors were completed by each respondent and the analysis of each work category group was presented as follow: (1) Gender, a higher percentage (56.7%) of sales personnel were females and also, manufacturing personnel were females (63.3%). (2) Marital status, a highest percentage (60.0%) of sales personnel was single

but a highest percentage (50.2%) of manufacturing personnel was married. (3) Age levels, a highest percentage (52.2%) of sales personnel was age between 21 to 30 and a highest percentage (47.8%) of manufacturing personnel was age between 21 to 30. (4) Income levels, a highest percentage (49.5%) of sales personnel was income between 10,001 to 20,000 baht as well as a highest percentage (50.2%) of manufacturing personnel was income between 10,001 to 20,000 baht (5) Educational levels, a highest percentage (60.6%), and (49.8%) of sales personnel, and manufacturing personnel; respectively were bachelor degree. (6) Job experience, a highest percentage (51.0%) of sales personnel and a highest percentage (63.6%) of manufacturing personnel was job experience between 6 years or more. (7) Ethnic basis, a higher percentage (80.3%) of sales personnel and (70.8%) of manufacturing personnel were Thai-Chinese.

Eighteen hypotheses were tested from the research questions. The data analyses and findings presented in this chapter answered the following questions:

Principal Research Question

There are eighteen questions in this study:

1. Is there a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel (Saha Pathanapibul Public Company)?
2. Is there a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction of in manufacturing personnel [Lion (Thailand) Cooperation]?
3. Is there a significant difference in dominant work values of employees between the two work category groups?

4. Is there a significant difference in job satisfaction between the two work category groups.
5. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by gender?
6. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status?
7. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels?
8. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels?
9. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels?
10. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences?
11. Is there a difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis?
12. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by gender?
13. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status?
14. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels?
15. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels?

16. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels?
17. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences?
18. Is there a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis?

The eighteen hypotheses were developed from eighteen research questions of this study. There were grouped into five grouped which will present the research findings and discuss implication on the next topic.

Discussion of Research Findings

Many previous studies have been used the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Survey of Work Values instruments (SWV) and have been tested the reliability and validity in different cultures. In this research, data collected from both survey instruments were tested by the Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha Scale and got the total alpha coefficient of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) instrument equal .7888 and the Survey of Work Values (SWV) instrument equal .8198. Scale validity was analyzed by using Factor Analysis to test the Survey of Work Values (SWV) instrument. The results from a Factor Analysis run on the fifty-four work values sub-variables. From the results of analysis by using Principal Component analysis and selected Varimax rotation, the researcher found six factors: (1) Pride-in-work, (2) attitude toward earnings, (3) activity preference, (4) upward striving, (5) social status, and (6) job involvement. All six factors were similar to the study of Wollack et al., (1971 [revised 1976]). These results were all based on factor loadings greater than $\pm .30$ (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black, 1995).

Based on the data collected by using both instruments, all analyses and results of hypotheses testing in this research were presented as follow:

Group A: To test the relationship between work values and job satisfaction: This group focused on the results of hypothesis one and two.

Hypothesis one (H_1): The result of analysis indicated that there was no relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel (Saha Pathanapibul Public Company).

This result was supported by the study of Maples (1977) who concluded that there was no relationship between work values and overall job satisfaction. The researcher measured work values by using Work Values Inventory (WVI) instrument and Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) instrument for job satisfaction. Also, Kalleberg (1977) examined the relationship between job satisfaction and work values which associated with six dimensions of work and found that two variables were independent.

Hypothesis two (H_2): The result showed that there was a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel [Lion (Thailand) Cooperation].

From the result of findings in Hypothesis Two, there was support from former research that studied the relationship between work values and job satisfaction. Sarnswang (1995); Akroyd, O'Brien, and Richards (1993); Colgrove and Shinville (1993); Bruening and Hoover (1991); and Torres (1990) found a significant relationship between work values and job satisfaction. Kalleberg (1977) implied that the work values had independent and significant effected on job satisfaction.

Likewise, O' Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell (1991) found that the work values and job satisfaction had a positive relationship. Also, Blood (1969), and Robey (1974) found the relationship between work values and job satisfaction.

From hypothesis 1, the result of relationship level at .119 and the significant level at .087 in Table 7 indicated that there was no relationship between work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel while compared with the result in Table 8 of hypothesis 2, the relationship level at .145 and the significant level at .037 which indicated that there was a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel. According to Salkind (2000) mentioned the correlation coefficient which reflects to degree of relationship between variables. If the correlations between .0 and .2, it means that there has a very weak relationship between two variables. From the result of hypothesis two, one can conclude that there was very weak relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel or almost no relationship. It means that the results of two hypotheses were similar or there were not a big gap of difference between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel when compared the relationship between work values and job satisfaction.

Group B: To compare the work values between two work situations, sales personnel vs. manufacturing personnel: This group focused on the result of hypothesis three.

Hypothesis Three (H₃): The result showed that there was no statistically significant difference in dominant work values of employees between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel.

Results of this hypothesis were similar to a study by Williams (2001), who examined the relationship of work values in different work settings or different

organizations and found that there was no relationship in work values between both corporations. Also, Singboorana (2001) studied in Thailand and found that there was no relationship between different leadership styles and work values. Yavas, Luqmani, and Quraeshi (1990) compared the work values between Saudi managers of large companies and concluded that they are similar in work values of the two groups. However, there were some previous research found the different results such as Harrington, Miles, Watkins, Williamson, and Grady (1996) who studied work values among four different organizations. The authors concluded that the different values which created from different organizations were affected to their employee decisions and actions which was supported by Torres (1990). Also, Meglino and Ravlin (1998) tried to explain that the affect of work values may be different which based on different tasks.

Group C: To compare the job satisfaction between two work category groups: This group focused on Hypothesis Four.

Hypothesis four (H₄): The analysis of job satisfaction between employees of the two work category groups showed that there was a significant difference in job satisfaction between sales personnel group and manufacturing personnel group. The result from Hypothesis 4 was supported by the result of Sarnswang (1995) tested a difference of job satisfaction between different two groups of university deans in Thailand and concluded that there was a statistical significant difference in job satisfaction.

Group D: To test the difference between demographic factors and work values of the two work category groups: Hypothesis 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 considered selected

demographic factors such as gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, educational levels, job experiences, and ethnic basis; respectively which were related to employee's work values of the two work category groups.

Hypothesis five (H_5): There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by gender. The results indicated that there were no statistical significant difference in work values when determined by gender.

From the results, there was no statistical significant difference in work values between the two work category groups when determined by gender. It was supported by Row and Snizek (1995) who concluded that there was no statistical significant difference in work values between males and females. Also, Torres (1990) concluded that there was very little difference in work value between males and females.

In an opposite direction, Kimmel and Nevill (1990) examined the difference between gender and work values, and found that males had a higher value in social interaction than females. Also, Pine and Innes's (1987) concluded that females had a lower concern of altruism and social interaction than males but higher concern of power, value of status, and money than males. Lofkowitz's (1994) implied that females valued autonomy, power, and security less than males. Similarly, Hales and Hartman (1978) stated that male and female employees had different work values.

Hypothesis six (H_6): There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status.

From the result, there was no different in employee's work values when segmented by marital status for each company. It was supported by Chang's research

(2000) who found that there was no statistical significant difference in work values when segmented by marital status.

Hypothesis seven (H₇): There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels.

From the result, there was no different in employee's work values when based on age levels. This result could be related to the study of Cory (1974) who concluded that work values were not statistically different with respect to different age levels. Also, Lowe and Schellenberg (2002) studied employees' work values, job satisfaction, and motivation and found that younger and older employees have similar value.

Some previous studies contradicted the finding such as Funderburg (1996) found that there was a relationship between different age levels and work values. The author indicated that the older age levels became more willing to take a risks which was supported by Buchholz (1978); and Cherrington, Condie & England (1979) who concluded work values as dependent variables and age as independent variables. The researchers found that there was a difference in work values when determined by age levels. Similarly, Singboorana (2001) found that different age levels were different in attitude toward earning and pride-in-work factor of work values. Also, Singer and Stefflre (1954) studied different age between high school and adult males. The researcher found that adult males focused on independence but high school boys concerned about experience and profit in work values.

Hypothesis eight (H₈): There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels.

The results indicated that there was no difference in employee's work values when segmented by income levels for each company. The researcher found that these results had an opposite results from former studies. According to Wijting, & Smith (1971) studied the relationship between employees' work values and different income levels. The authors found that most employees seek higher opportunity for promotion, and employees' attitudes toward salary could affect work values. Also, Singboorana (2001) concluded that different income levels were different in work values in term of attitude toward earning. Especially, the employees who had low monthly income.

Hypothesis nine (H_9): There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels.

The results indicated that there was no difference in employee's work values when segmented by educational levels for each company. It was supported by Chang's study (2000) who found that different levels of education background didn't affect work values. Also, Torres (1990) found no relationship between work values and different age levels.

Other previous studies had found the opposite direction. According to Buchholz (1978); and Cherrington, Condie and England (1979) examined work values and educational levels. The researchers found that there was a difference in work values as a function of different education levels.

Hypothesis ten (H_{10}): There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences.

Based on the results, there was no difference in employee's work values when segmented by job experiences for each company. According to Funderburg's study

(1996) who studied the relationship between years of experiences and work values and found that there were no real relationship between two variables. Also, Chang (2000) concluded that there was no significant difference in work values when determined by length of job experiences which was supported by Skaggs (1987) who implied that length of professional experience could not affect work values. Similarly, a study of Torres (1990) mentioned that there was no affect employees' work values by length of experience which was supported by Cory (1974) and Maples (1977).

Hypothesis eleven (H_{11}): There was no difference in employee's work values of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis.

From the result, there was no difference in employee's work values when segmented by ethnic basis for each company. As Handy (1985) concluded that employees who share the same culture, they tend to have a similar belief and values.

The opposite was found in previous studies such as Cater, Gushue, and Weitzman (1994) who studied the different college students' racial identity attitudes and work values and found that different races and different cultures could affect employees' work value. Similarly, Pine and Innis (1987) indicated that individual work values were affected from different cultures, history, and society which caused from different beliefs, attitudes, and judgment (Super, 1970).

Group E: To test the difference between demographic factors and job satisfaction of the two work category groups: Hypothesis 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17 and 18 are all demographic factors which focus on gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, educational levels, job experiences, and ethnic basis; respectively which were tested in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups.

Hypothesis twelve (H_{12}): There was no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by gender.

From the results, there was a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by gender. These results could be related to Jariyavidyanont (1987) who studied job satisfaction in Thailand and found that there was no significant difference in job satisfaction when determined by gender. Chang (2000) found that there was no statistical significant difference in job satisfaction in sub-variables of principal management, teaching and rewards, and culture when segmented by gender. Similarly, Dicaprio (1974), and Saleh and Lalljee (1969) mentioned that there was no significant different in job satisfaction and gender which supported by the study of Billups (1972) who concluded that there was not related in job satisfaction between males and females. Maples (1977) found that there was no statistically significant differences in overall job satisfaction when analyzed on the basis of gender. Also; Hoagland (1968), Stosberg (1958), Hammer (1970), and Redefer (1959) found that there were no differences in job satisfaction based on gender.

However, some earlier research by Klecker (1997) found that there were differences in job satisfaction between males and females. Kremer and Goldstein (1990) mentioned that females had a higher job satisfaction than males. Similarly, the study of Adelman (1991) found that females had a higher positive attitude than males in term of working conditions and relationship on the jobs. Also, Gruneberg (1979) implied that some research concludes females to be more satisfied in their work more than males, some conclude the reverse, and some conclude no significant difference.

Hypothesis thirteen (H_{13}): There was no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status.

From the results, there was a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by marital status. It was similar to Jariyavidyanont's study (1987) who researched in Thailand and concluded that there was no significant difference in job satisfaction when segmented by marital status. Also, Charoennit (1986) found that there was no difference in job satisfaction resulting from internal and external factors that had a different marital status. Similarly, a study of Hill (1961), Hammer (1970), and Redefer (1959) found no different in job satisfaction when determined on the basis of marital status. Chapman (1983) found that unmarried females had lower job satisfaction than married males. Change (2002) found that job satisfaction was different when analyzed on the basis of marital status.

Hypothesis fourteen (H_{14}): There was a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels.

From the results, there was no differences in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by age levels. According to Billups (1972) who examined the job satisfaction of Black school administrators. From the analysis revealed that There was no relationship on job satisfaction when determined by age levels. Also Saleh and Lalljee (1969) concluded that there was not different in job satisfaction when controlled by age levels and Maples (1977) studied the job satisfaction by using Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) instrument and found that job satisfaction was not different when compared on the basis of age levels which was supported by Redefer (1959).

Some researchers found different directions. For example, Weaver (1980) studied age-related effects on job satisfaction and the author found that younger employees focused on the intrinsic aspects such as challenge of their work, while older employees focused on the extrinsic aspects such as security. Kremer & Goldstein (1990) and Calloway (1985) also indicated that different age levels could affect job satisfaction which was supported by Novak (1974). Similarly, Melvin (1979) implied that older workers are more satisfied in job than younger workers which was similar Kremer and Goldstein (1990) who concluded that increase age could increase job satisfaction. Also, French, Kast, and Rosenzweig (1985) concluded that older adults tend to be more satisfied with their jobs than younger workers. However, this finding was contradicted by Cutter's study (1990) who found that Older employees tended to be less job satisfaction.

Hypothesis fifteen (H_{15}): There was no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels.

From the result, there was no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by income levels. This result could be related to earlier findings such as Butler (1961) who found that no statistically significant difference in job satisfactions when determined on the basis of income levels. Also, Stosberg (1958), O' Connor (1958), Hill (1961), Hammer (1970), and Redefer (1959) concluded that there were no differences between job satisfaction and salary or salary schedule.

However, Levey (1991) found a significant difference between income or payment and job satisfaction of two groups which was supported by Bass's research (1981), and Katz and Kahn's study (1978) who referred that inadequacy of reward or

income establishing pattern would impact individual productivity. Also Smith et al. (1969) implied that income variable affected an index of the presence of any job levels in organization. Similarly, the study of Patitu and Tack (1991) found that different income levels are a major factor affecting job satisfaction which was supported by Seybolt's research (1976). Also, Perry (1993) stated that lower income was lower level of job satisfaction and higher income was higher job satisfaction which was similar the result of Ohanesian's study (1974) who found that a higher income level, the greater of job satisfaction..

Hypothesis sixteen (H_{16}): There was a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels.

From the result, there was a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by educational levels. The researcher found that there was a difference in employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels which can continue to test by using LSD (Least-Significant Difference) technique of multiple comparisons. The researcher separated the analysis to be two work category groups. First group, the researcher tested the sales personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels. Second, the researcher analyzed the manufacturing personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels. The result of the first group indicated there was a difference in sales personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels and there were statistical significant difference between high school level or lower, diploma or equivalent, bachelor degree, and master degree or higher. It means that the null hypotheses were rejected.

The result of the second group, the researcher found that there was no differences in manufacturing personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels, which means that the null hypotheses of this sub-hypothesis failed to reject.

The result of the first group of this hypothesis indicated there were statistical significant differences between high school level or lower, diploma or equivalent, bachelor degree, and master degree or higher degree which means that a different educational background was affected in sales personnel employee's job satisfaction. This result was supported by Hawkins (1991) who found that there was a significant different in higher education in term of job description, and job satisfaction. Also, Klein and Maher (1966) concluded that non-college-educated managers were satisfied with their income and job more than college-educated managers. Mandilovitch (1980) and Seybolt (1976) found the relationship between education level and job satisfaction was significance. Similarly; Parnes (1966), and Sheppard and Herrick (1972) concluded that different educational backgrounds were lead into different achievements and different levels of job satisfactions.

The result of the second group of this hypothesis found that there was no different in manufacturing personnel employee's job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels. This result was supported by Levey (1991) who compared the job satisfaction of two different groups between employees who have college degrees and without college degrees. From the results, it can conclude that there was no significant relationship between job satisfaction and years of education between two groups. Also, the study of Jariyavidyanont (1978) in Thailand found that there was no significant differences in job satisfaction when determined by educational background. Similarly, a study of Saleh and Lalljee (1969), and Hill (1961) found no

significant difference between job satisfactions when compared on the basis of educational levels.

Hypothesis seventeen (H_{17}): There was no difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by job experiences which means the null hypothesis failed to be rejected in this case.

This result was supported by Chang (2000) who concluded that there was no significant difference in employee's job satisfaction when segmented by length of experience. Also, Jariyavidyanont (1987) studied job satisfaction in Thailand and concluded that there was no significant difference in job satisfaction among different working experiences. Similarly, the study of Maples (1977), Hill (1961), and Hammer (1970) found no significant difference on job satisfaction when controlled by job experience. Levey (1991) found that there was no relationship between job satisfaction and years of experience.

Some studies found different results such as Jurgensen (1978) studied job satisfaction between the longer and shorter term employees work experiences and found that the employees with longer working experiences were concerned about security and organizational reputation but shorter term employees focused on salary, work condition, and co-workers relationship. Also, Smith et al. (1996) stated that there was a significant difference in overall job satisfaction based on tenure with companies in the hospitality industry and argued that high turnover may be due to lack of job satisfaction. Camp (1987) studied vocational teachers in USA. and found a negative relationship between length of experience and degree of job satisfaction. Some researches mentioned that older, more experienced workers may have a chance to select jobs that will satisfy them (Gruneberg, 1979).

Hypothesis eighteen (H_{18}): There was a difference in employee's job satisfaction of the two work category groups when segmented by ethnic basis. One can be concluded that the null hypotheses were rejected.

As the variables was different, the researcher continued to test this result by using Independent Samples T- test analysis and separated the analysis to be two work category groups. The first group is sales personnel and the result showed that there was a difference in employee's job satisfaction when segmented by ethnic basis. From the analysis, it can conclude that Thai- Chinese had a higher job satisfaction than Thais. The second group is manufacturing personnel and the result indicated that there was no difference in employee's job satisfaction when segmented by ethnic basis.

The result from sales personnel group showed that there was a difference in employee's job satisfaction when segmented by ethnic basis which was similar a study of Weaver (1980) who analyzed the level of job satisfaction when determined by ethnic basis and found that blacks were less job satisfaction than whites. In opposite direction, Culture (1990) found that older white employees tented to be less job satisfaction but different back group were not different in job satisfaction. Sills (1994) implied that there was significant different in job satisfaction with respect to different races and Torres (1990) compared job satisfaction between Black and Hispanic educators based on different ethnicity and found that there was a difference in job satisfaction between two groups which was similar to the study of Slocum and Strawser (1972); and Andrisani, Applebaum, Koppel, and Miljust (1978). However, Washington (1974) concluded that "It is possible that ethnic origin or race could be related to job satisfaction."

The second group is manufacturing personnel, the result revealed that there was no difference in employee's job satisfaction when segmented by ethnic basis.

There were many previous researches found and supported this result. According to Hendel and Weiss (1970) who found no ethnic differences from four racial groups and also, some studies reported that there were a little or no differences in job satisfaction when tested by different races such as Gavin and Ewen (1974). Similarly; Katzell, Ewen, Korman (1974); and Stosberg (1958) who found that there was no ethnic differences on job satisfaction when tested by Black and White groups.

The Thai Culture - A Possible Explanation of the Hypothesis Testing Results

While the previous part related the existing literature to the findings of this study, this part relates the Thai culture characteristics to the results of the hypothesis testing

Group A: To test the relationship between work values and job satisfaction: This group focused on the results of hypothesis one and two.

Hypothesis one (H_1): The result of analysis indicated that there was no relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in sales personnel (Saha Pathanapibul Public company).

Hypothesis two (H_2): The result showed that there was a relationship between employee's work value and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel [Lion (Thailand) Cooperation].

There is no doubt that social culture have shaped people to have a strong belief or to have a different levels of beliefs in different areas such as employees in urban and rural areas or employees who have different work settings such as sales personnel and manufacturing personnel. It is possible that employees in urban and rural areas, they create a different levels of attitude toward work values and job satisfaction.

Based on Thai religion as well as Thai culture values, people in rural area or outside Bangkok are more concerned to behave by following the Buddhist's teaching and their life more involve and close to the temple than people in urban or people in Bangkok area. Anyway, the values from both different work settings are still the same trend.

Also, the nature of employees between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel are different. Sales personnel, they are energetic, dynamic and outgoing personality. In addition, they have to keep up with today's fast changing business trend in order to be in line with competitors and to maintain the status quo. Furthermore, they have to keep in touch and response to customers' demand all the time to maintain good relationship. For this nature of sale personnel, sometime, they have to behave, control, and make a decision based on situation, different customer needs, competitors, organizational policy, and so on. Therefore, the decision making or out put to offer or response to their customers may satisfy or dissatisfy or may conflict with their personal values or organizational values but they have to cope or make it success to keep a good relationship with their customers, maintain the level of market share, and compete with their competitor's offering. As sale personnel works with the customers who can change their mind any time if customers get a better condition from other companies. The sale people have to face, solve the problem, cope with fast changing business trend, and keep their customers. The value still in their bottom minds but customer's satisfaction comes first.

Inversion, manufacturing personnel, they are workforces and familiar to working with machines rather than people. As a result, they tend to be process-driven and precision-oriented. They are very strict to the rule and reluctant to accept any flexibility in their production because they would like to deliver their products with

underlying quality and standard. As they strict with the rule and work with the machines, they may create the value in harmony with person feeling and job satisfaction based on the machines. Manufacturing personnel can create the satisfaction based on their work values. They know how to control and make themselves satisfied when they work with the machines which were easier than work with the customers.

As both different task settings, their works and their mind are focus on different things. It is possible to get the different results of relationship between work values and job satisfaction between two different work categories.

Group B: To compare the work values between two work situations, sales personnel vs. manufacturing personnel: This group focused on the result of hypothesis three. Hypothesis three (H_3): The result showed that there was not statistically significant difference in dominant work values of employees between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel.

From the discussion in hypothesis one and two, the researcher mentioned that values from both different work settings are still the same trend. They are Thais and perceive the same culture, believe, and values under the same environment, regulation, rule, policy, welfare, and so forth. The result from Table 9 found that the raw score difference between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel is at 2.0903 which is very low raw scores. It means that work values of both different work settings were not different or they are the same trend under the same Thai value, culture, and religious.

Group C: To compare the job satisfaction between two work category groups: This group focused on hypothesis four.

Hypothesis four (H_4): The analysis of job satisfaction between employees of the two work category groups showed that there was a significant difference in job satisfaction between sales personnel group and manufacturing personnel group.

The discussion in hypothesis one and two, the researcher explained about the different nature between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel and how did the different natures of both work settings affect to different level of job satisfaction. The result from Table 10 indicated that the raw score difference between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel is -5.5237 and the raw score of manufacturing personnel from Appendix C of hypothesis 4 was 186.0718 which was greater than the raw score of sales personnel ($186.0718 > 180.5481$). It means that the manufacturing personnel had a higher job satisfaction than sales personnel.

Group D: To test the difference between demographic factors and work values of the two work category groups.

The results from hypothesis 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 were no statistical significant difference in work value of the two work category groups when segmented by gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, educational levels, job experiences, and ethnic basis.

Gender: Based on economic growth, and current situation, Thai women have changed to be more working women. They are well education. The women who have worked in organization are the ones who have very similar backgrounds to the men. Both women and men, they work the same function, same long period time, under the same policy, regulation, and so forth. In furthering, women work as the men under the

same organizational values. For this circumstance, the results from findings were supported the work values pattern between males and females that they become more homogeneous over time. Likewise, it is possible to conclude that the traditional gender stereotypes might be losing their potency as a way to distinguish between men and women, at least where work values are concerned. A study of Komin (1978) found that Thai men and women were not differ in their values such as deeply-rooted culture values, i.e.; gratitude, honesty, broad-mind, etc.

The reason as mentioned above, also further to support the result of this research that the work values are more similar or no difference in marital status, age levels, income levels, educational levels, job experiences, and ethnic basis. Since religion is a major aspect in Thai culture values and in Thai social organizations, Buddhism is a very significant impact to Thais' life or lifestyle which religious values and beliefs are guides action, attitudes, behavior, and perception of situation (Rokeach, 1973). Thai values and behavior emphasize on noninvolvement, permissiveness, tolerance, non-violence, and other values which derived from Buddhist concepts which the same concepts as mentioned by Embree (1950) who implied that Thai's values are indifference, non-commitment, and emotionless. One belief is widely accepted in Thai value that "jai yen" (cool heart) means avoided expressing feelings and emotions directly, even though, they face an unhappy situation or conflict situation, and instead Thais' face always keep smiling to maintain a good interpersonal relationship and meritorious act. Also, "mai pen rai" (never mind) is one important Thai's value which means forgiveness, even though, they lose or fail. It is a sign of calm disposition. Especially, Thai's values are indifference, non-commitment, emotionless, and never quenched thirst for money and obsessive consumerism. It may guide to indifference in work values when segmented by marital

status, age levels, income levels, educational levels, job experiences, and ethnic basis. Similarly, the education system adds the values of discipline, self master, and knowledge who demonstrate these values will qualify as good people. Being good is a safeguard against individual loss of face and also promotes the reputation of the group; if everybody behaves accordingly, family, school, community, and society will be peaceful and free of trouble (Embree, 1950). In confrontation with strangers, right manners and a smile seem to smooth interaction and to include kind and pleasant mutuality. A care for a conflict atmosphere and a desire for harmony is also the root of Thai culture. Also, keep a conflict and dissatisfaction in mind is the one of Buddhist teaching, practice to be patient is one of the most importance for Thais lifestyle, and be happy with the things that they have. All of these will bring happiness to their life.

Values and income: Komin (1991) implied that there was no clear cut relationship found between Thais' high income and low income. The results showed that Thais' poor or rich, were not statistical significant different values. A world of peace or Brotherhood spirit of Thai people concerns as Freedom and Equality which is different from the material concern, such as having a comfortable life, pleasure, and status-wealth. The author also found that there was no significant difference in the realm psychological peacefulness and inner harmony which were supported the results for this research.

Ethnicity: work values and job satisfaction for ethnicity that focused on different races between Thai-Chinese, and Thais but both ethnicities are Thai nationality. For Thai-Chinese, even though, their parent, one of them is Chinese but they were born in Thailand and perceive culture and values on the way of Thai's style. Also, they grow up in the same environment, government regulation, rule, law, study

in the same school system, and so forth. It may affect indifferent in work values between Thai-Chinese, and Thais.

Group E: To test the difference between demographic factors and job satisfaction of the two work category groups.

The result from hypothesis 12, 13, 14, 15, and 17 were no statistical significant difference in job satisfaction of the two category groups when focused on gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, and job experiences. Inversion, the result from hypothesis 16, and 18 were statistical significant difference in job satisfaction of the two category groups when determined by education levels and ethnicities.

The result from hypothesis 12, 13, 14, 15, and 17 were no statistical significant difference in job satisfaction of the two category groups when focused on gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, and job experiences. There are many reasons to discuss in these results as follow:

(1) All independent variables, there are gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, and job experiences. There are no priority concern to job satisfaction. In this research the priority independent variables are the difference of two work categories which are sales personnel (sample size equals 208 respondents) and manufacturing personnel (sample size equals 209 respondents). Therefore, all results maybe or maybe not error.

(2) As Thai ideal types related to the triad of Nation, Religion, and King. All Thai people believe in the Buddhist teachings that people should live peacefully and happily. Also, people should satisfy and be happy with the things that they have. The depth of satisfaction with presentation is also explicit in the Thai ethos. Also,

happiness in mind and healthiness are important more than money, opportunities for promotion, and anything else.

(3) Since Thai people have faced the economic crisis as well as many countries, most Thai employees have learnt, got a lesson and accepted that they have to work hard to be survival for their family. Even though, Thais' economic is starting better more than a few years ago, they still be careful and do not trust the economic situation. Meanwhile, they accept and willing to work hard under the rule and regulation of organization. It is a wisdom and survival value. Also, during the economic crisis, our king who plays very important role as the patron of religion, the good luck of the Thai people of having a center of unity in the monarch, the function of the king as a cherished, protective guardian (in Thai's word "mingkhuwan") of the people (Mulder, 2002). The king always advise and emphasize the Thai people that they have to be honest, patience, self-restraint, and work hard to get through all hazardous situations. All of these will result in a stable family and prosperous nation. The affect from economic crisis situation may change Thais' work values in organization. As Frazee (1988) stated that changing time and changing situation may change values. It reflexes from employees. The major issue of their outlook on the future is job security and safety. For theses reasons, it may lead them to be acceptable to work without argument.

(4) Admittedly, it may be a sensitive issue to approach to satisfy or dissatisfy their job and the researcher could not get the real answer from respondents as employees try to cover the conflict as influence by nature of Thais.

(5) The results from Appendix D, the researcher could conclude the means of each factor of job satisfaction between sale personnel and manufacturing personnel by ranking from three highest mean scores (full score of mean = 3) as follow:

Sales personnel: There are six factors.

1. Work on present job: fascinating (2.64), useful (2.62), and good (2.52).
2. Present pay: Barely live on income (2.19), fair (2.08), and underpaid (2.01).
3. Opportunities for promotions: infrequent promotions (2.42), somewhat limited (2.18), and promotion on ability (2.06).
4. Supervision: Known job well (2.36), Influential (2.65), and praises good work (2.35).
5. Co-workers: helpful (2.62), responsible (2.58), and loyal (2.54)
6. Job in general: Poor (already converted the scores because it is a negative question which means good after converted the mean score, the mean scores equal 2.63), worthwhile (2.61), and better than most (2.58)

Manufacturing personnel: There are 6 six factors.

1. Work on present job: fascinating (2.60), useful (2.55), and good (2.51).
2. Present pay: Barely live on income (2.58), fair (2.49), and underpaid (2.40).
3. Opportunities for promotions: infrequent promotions (2.57), somewhat limited (2.48), and promotion on ability (2.40).
4. Supervision: Influential (2.67), intelligent (2.45), and around when needed (2.44).
5. Co-workers: loyal (2.62), responsible (2.57), and stimulating (2.45)
6. Job in general: Poor (already converted the scores because it is a negative question which means good after converted the mean score, the mean

scores equal 2.65), good (2.58), and acceptable & pleasant (2.56 and 2.56).

From the results above, there are the same three highest mean scores ranking of sub-variables of work on present job, present pay, and opportunities for promotions factors between sales personnel and manufacturing personnel. The rest factors of co-workers, and job in general factors are similar three highest mean scores ranking of sub-variables. Except, supervision factor of sales personnel and manufacturing personnel, sales employees satisfy the supervision who know job well, influential, and praise good work but manufacturing employees satisfy the supervision who are influential, intelligent and be around when they need which may cause from both groups are different nature of works and nature of characteristics. Also, it may cause from lack of knowledge and self confidence. However, both groups are almost the same sub-variables ranking and level of job satisfaction.

From all above reasons, it may support the results of these hypotheses.

Difference in job satisfaction of the two category groups when determined by education levels

As the result from hypothesis 16, and 18 were statistical significant difference in job satisfaction of the two category groups when determined by education levels and ethnicities. From findings, the researcher found that the educational levels in sales personnel were difference in job satisfaction but found opposite direction in manufacturing personnel. The population consists of so many people. The nature of people in urban or city people and rural or outside city, they are different in many ways of life styles which may cause from environment, technology, the different

attitude of perception between urban areas or sales people who live in Bangkok and rural area or manufacturing people who live in Chonburi.

The results indicated that there were statistically significant difference between high school level or lower, diploma or equivalent, bachelor degree, and master degree or higher degree but between high school level or lower, diploma or equivalent, and bachelor degree were not different in sale people which means that a different educational background was affected in sales personnel employee's job satisfaction especially, the educational level at master degree or higher. Similarly, the study of Komin (1991) concluded that employees in Bangkok care for knowledge more than the rural employees. Most of people like to study and get more knowledge when they have an opportunity and they satisfy to have the same education level as their colleagues. Also, they have more opportunity to study because there are many universities and many kinds of programs that allow people to study anytime as depend on their convenient time. In a fast-moving of competitive city like Bangkok, it is reasonable to find that people are more for those self-centered, achievement and competence values, such as being independent, responsible, capable, courageous, broadminded, imaginative, and ambitious-hardworking. Especially, sale people, they are more social people, outgoing personality, deal with many customers, well dress, ambitious, hardworking, need more luxury life, flexible time to work (may go to entertain with customers at a night time or week end to maintain a good relationship), compromise in negotiation, more freedom life style in Bangkok, face some unpredictable problems which cause from various outside variables and sometime can not control to get the predictable outcome, sometime need a good instinct to cope the problem, and more fascinated material than people in rural or manufacturing employees because they need to impress their customer. From all of those reasons

shape them to be alertly ambitious people to learn, search, study more information from any sources, and include study more in a higher level of education to get new knowledge, and new technology to cope with all uncertain situations in market and in an organization. In support of this view, Herzberg, Mauner, and Snyderman (1959) mentioned that job satisfactions are more important to employees with greater education.

Inversion, the researcher found that the educational levels in manufacturing personnel were not difference in job satisfaction which means that employees who have education level at high school level or lower, diploma or equivalent, bachelor degree, and master degree or higher are not difference in job satisfaction. For rural area or manufacturing employees who live in Choburi, they are different in nature of life style, work settings, and geographic area when compare with sales personnel. The religion is one of the most important indicator distinguishing people in rural from people in urban. People in rural are more involved and closed to the religious and temple than people in Bangkok especially, when compare with sales people because they are different nature of life style and nature of work. People in rural is more strict and serious to follow the Buddhist teaching which affect to their normal activities to live with happiness and peace which is important more than material or luxury life. Also, the nature of work, manufacturing employees, they are very strict on the rule, work and focus on the machine, serious control the quality of product, less social life to deal with people when compare with sales people, face the most predictable problems and can control the problem from machines, and no need well dress when work with the machine. They are happy with the simple life with their work. For urban employees or manufacturing personnel, their lifestyles, environment, and level of ambitious are less than urban area. They are more family people.

Also, geographic area is very important factor to be mentioned here. As, the new trend of development, technological change, social culture change, and all interrelations occur in the Thai society. According to the extremely imbalanced growth and development of the last decades driven Bangkok apart from the rest of the country, there are tremendous of different impact. The totally different physical and social environments shaping the urban employees and rural employees are different. The rural employees are quite different in their goal of life when compared with the urban employees.

From the conclusion in Table 34 (data from Appendix D) indicated that the total mean in job satisfaction of industrial manufacturer is grater than sales people.

Table 34

The Total Mean of Job Satisfaction between Sales Personnel and Manufacturing Personnel.

Variables	Sales personnel	Manufacturing Personnel	Gap between two works
Work on present job	2.13	2.11	0.02
Present pay	1.75	1.97	-0.22
Opportunities for promotion			
Supervision	1.87	2.08	-0.21
Co-workers	1.99	2.08	-0.09
Job in general	2.09	2.00	0.09
	1.74	2.13	-0.39
Total	11.57	12.37	-0.80

As Komin (991) implied that Thailand is the world of Peace or Brotherhood spirit of Thai people concerns as Freedom and Equality which is different from the material concern. It may be another reason to support the result of manufacturing employees who have education level at high school level or lower, diploma or equivalent, bachelor degree, and master degree or higher are not statistically

significant difference in job satisfaction. From table 34, the means of manufacturing employees showed that they satisfy on present pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, and job in general more than sales people which may lead to support this result that they are no different in job satisfaction when examined by educational levels.

Differences in job satisfaction of the two category groups when determined by ethnic basis

The results from hypothesis 18, the researcher found that the ethnicities in sales personnel are differ in levels of job satisfaction but found invert in manufacturing personnel. In Thailand, it has commonly held that the Thai-Chinese are rich especially in Bangkok or urban area. They are usually merchants, working up from nothing, and only through hardworking and perseverance that they gradually emerge into the rich class. Most Chinese origin is a high ambitious-hardworking and high self-controlled (Komin, 1991). The interesting finding was the attributes of Chinese characters that account for their success story. This evident and the finding from this research tend to support the different in achievement and job satisfaction between Thai-Chinese and Thai in sales personnel.

The researcher also found that the ethnicities between Thai-Chinese and Thais in manufacturing personnel are not differ in levels of job satisfaction which may influence from nature of work, geographic area, and strong Thai culture in rural.

Study Results – Implications for Practitioners

Drawing from the significant findings of this research, the researcher found no relationship between work values and job satisfaction in sales personnel and weak

relationship between work values and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel. However, many researchers and some theories do support and realize the relationship and the effect on work values and job satisfaction.

Based on the results of this study, the researcher would like to suggest the managers to improve or help employees to build or set a direction of work values in organization which may focus on different values for different organizations. The researcher believes that specific work values for each organization can have a significant impact on the effectiveness and competitive advantage of an organization. Also, work values can shape the modeling in organizations which the tangible elements of values are at the surface and these elements of values are sometimes referred to behavior patterns or norms of behavior, rites or rituals, modes of dress, language, physical office or factory layout, logos, publications, corporate image, and so on. They also include rules, systems and procedures. Their meanings are grasped in terms of the values that underline them.

Basic assumptions deal with the fundamental aspects of organizational values. They tell members how to think, feel and perceive and yet they may be taken for granted. It is only when they surface that the whole value pattern is illuminated and clarified. Basic assumptions may relate to, for example, human nature, organizational goals and the organization's relationship to its environment. Consistent organizational values are what also called a strong value: basic assumptions, beliefs and values are shared solidly throughout the organization. It is also likely to have a charismatic owner or leader. The culture allows alignment and achievement of organizational goals because of the sharing of basic assumptions. Employees and managers are likely to be "pulling in the same direction." The level of involvement informal or formal-of the employees is also linked to organizational effectiveness. A project, task team or

quality circles approach fosters this involvement as individuals who have ownership and responsibility for a particular piece of work such as new product. Individuals feel a greater commitment to the project and the organization, perform better and require less control.

As all reasons above, the relationship of values to organizational outcomes is important to organizational behavior because they are based on shared beliefs about what behaviors and attitudes are appropriate, work values and organizational values determine what kinds of human resource strategies will be conceived. In turn, support mechanism initiated by the organization will impact the attitudes and perceptions of individuals and subsequent outcomes such as commitment to their jobs, job satisfaction, and productivity which will benefit to employees and organization. Values concern what is important and they are culturally learnt by organizational members. They are concerned to moral and ethical codes. They shape, predict, and explain what happens at the surface level. Then, for example, it is organizational values that guide people when deal with different situations. They deal with what people think and what they ought to do or how do they think and ought to behave which include their honesty, integrity and being fair with people. The category also includes beliefs-what people believe is or is not true. In practice, values and beliefs are difficult to distinguish.

Work values and job satisfaction may be also be able to explain why some organizations can adapt easily to new challenges and flourish in a changing environment, while other organizations are not able to handle change successfully. The notion of work values and job satisfaction may be important for performance management, depending on which elements of the definition of values are chosen to emphasize. The manager should stress the values/behavior standards aspects then

provides the moral principles and behavioral guidelines that regulate employees' performance-quality, excellence, ethics, etc.

Some example in Thailand: The high level of management team of C.P. 7-Eleven Company in Thailand develops and trains people in organization by focusing on 7 values & 11 leadership model, and job satisfaction to be the root of organization culture (Chairutsamee, 2004) and the management team believe that they are major power or motivational reinforce of organizational effectiveness to achieve the organizational goals. The 7 work values are (1) sturdy or robust (2) brave (3) courageous (4) united (5) generous or liberal (6) respect other people's idea, and (7) appreciation a beautiful life. These work values are drawn from the employees' minds. The 7 work values were applied to set five organizational behaviors. There are (1) to make a great effort on work or attempt to achieve the organizational goals (2) to pay high attention to service customers (3) to be honest and ethic person (4) to devote and dedicate for organization (5) to work as a team and cooperate with organization. One more important factor for employees is job satisfaction. The author mentioned that the major role of all managers is to help employees to satisfy to work as a team which may use many strategies. The author mentioned that the managers may increase knowledge about work satisfiers and work values to employees to improve job satisfaction, service training programs, and so forth. To achieve the organizational goals, the high management level team of 7-Eleven recruit and require the managers by emphasizing on 11 qualifications of work values which are (1) sincerity (2) no discrimination or reduce hierarchy (3) use a proper word to employees (4) not to be fascinated in power (5) be a good person or model for employees (6) fairness (7) mercy (8) good and brave to make a decision (9) maintain good employees, and (10) generosity .

The other example of business in Thailand, as Jeamrotjananon (2004) mentioned that different companies will set different work values to achieve the organizational goals. Based on the highest successful basis, Shin Corporation will set the new corporate culture, new work values, and new employees' belief. The high management level team set a new policy for human resources to find a future culture or future work values to drive the company to be a high continuous improvement and to develop the highest employees' capacity. The major principal of new corporate culture and work values' formula is to develop the employees as the highest robust and durable competitor to compete with any companies. For the new corporate culture and work values' formula, this company has to set the new strategy to fit with a new structure such as job grading, pay structure, and ground work. Moreover, the company has to bring a new technology and new software to be a tool to develop a high capacity of employees such as cubic rewarding system.

Different jobs imply a different set of work values or should emphasize the set of specific work values to fit with the nature of particular work as implied by Schein (1980, 1992). However, despite different work settings, employees have the same basic work values or general work values which receive or perceive from Thai culture values, religion, Buddhist teaching, beliefs and so forth which most of them focus on peacefulness, happiness, and mind more than the material. These assertions were supported by Handy (1985) implied that employees who share the same culture values tend to have similar attitudes and engage in similar practices.

From this result, upper management should set a particular set of work values to fit with the nature of each work and should set new strategy and policy to be the same direction of specific work values to satisfy employees to do their jobs. As many researchers found that the work values in organization guide people to deal with their

works and it guide people to think what they ought to do and how to do such as Lowe and Schellenberg (2002) stated that all employees bring their values to the working place. If a workplace or job meets their expectation, this is the first step to create a productive work. Therefore, the major principal and moral principles to set the work values in sale personnel and manufacturing personnel should be based on their work nature to be the behavioral guidelines which will regulate employees to behave ethically and develop a good quality or the way to things in their companies. From interviewing the high management level team of company who control both companies (July 22th, 2004), the researcher found that the core value of honesty that is the one general of work values to emphasize to all employees to keep in mind and they have no specific technique to apply this work values to set the major principal and moral principles for behavioral guideline to employees.

The nature of sales people and manufacturing personnel people are different. Thus, management have to examine the nature of each worker group and choose the proper set of work values to fit with each nature work. After that stress the work values standard aspects to shape the model or provide the major principal and moral principles and guideline to control the employees' performance which management team may develop these set of work values to be one part of an organization's culture. From this point of view, performance management in organization may modify the new structure, new technology, new payment structure, and other new human resource strategies to reinforce and enhance the employees' quality, commitment, productivity, challenged and successfully overcome problems, and so on. All of those will impact directly to organizational effectiveness and will impact to the attitudes and perceptions of employees and subsequent outcomes such as commitment, and job satisfaction. Also, the senior management's work value has to be enhanced to

understand and satisfy employees to do their best jobs. As one can see from the example of 7-Eleven and Shin Corporation, they try to find a future of corporate culture based on work values in the hope of gaining a competitive advantage.

No different in job satisfaction of the two category groups when focused on gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, and job experiences.

From findings from Hypothesis 12, 13, 14, 15, and 17, the researcher found that there were no significant differences in job satisfaction of the two category groups when focused on gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, and job experiences. In general or normal situation, many researches do support difference in job satisfaction when segmented by most of demographic factors. From interviewing the high management level team of company who control both companies (July 22th, 2004), the researcher could conclude that upper management of both companies set similar standards of pay for both companies. The normal progress of payment level for all employees are 1 step but the excellent workers will get more than 1 step. As the result from Table 34, the present pay is the least mean scores of job satisfaction for sale personnel and almost the least mean scores of job satisfaction for manufacturing personnel. Therefore, the researcher would like to argue that organization may not meet the expectations of the establishment of appropriate payment structure and reward system. As Porter et al. (1973) divided people into high or low psychological "need for growth". People who have the high need for growth, they will want to be challenged by the chance partly to design their own jobs. People who have the low growth needs, they are more concerned with a steady job with clear instructions and they may call a supervision for help when they need it. A person with low growth lacks to clear the rule definition and they will create anxiety.

As the economic returns, the high management level team should realize the importance and powerful role to develop the employee behavior which also depends on the difference between the effective structure and ineffective structure that the organizational structures contribute the minimum or maximum abilities to reinforce the employees. The effective structure will improve the employees to accept greater responsibility, to take more risks and to do things differently. The result of this effective factor will create the outstanding capability, effectiveness and efficiency in the ability to grow. The more efficient the employees are the more development and stability of the organization. From research findings below, the researcher would suggest as follow:

1. From this finding, upper management may revise the payment structure and rewarding system to motivate employees to have more responsibility, more challenging, commitment, productivity, and more favorable workplace which will affect to job satisfaction. Lawker (1970) stated that "satisfaction is an indicator of an employee's motivation and satisfaction influences job motivation to perform a job effectively in very direct ways." Also, Lowe and Schellenberg (2002) emphasized that rewarding of work has long been a core value and continue to work values which will affect to job satisfaction. The effective reward system will affect employee behaviors, motivation, give the employees a sense of ownership that lead to increase productivity, quality, job satisfaction, ultimately, and employees' loyalty (York, 1989).

2. The management team should recognize in different effectiveness of motivational factor between segments of employees and develop the appropriate reward systems to particular groups.
3. Introduce improvement of employees' quality, increase job satisfaction, reduce inequity in organization, and increase productivity. To improve productivity, Wood (1968) suggested (1) improving the work environment (2) improving the relationship between work attitude and work behavior.
4. Form the findings, manufacturing employees satisfy the supervision who are intelligent and need be around them when they need which may cause from lack of knowledge and confidence. The management team should provide an opportunity to increase their knowledge and provide an appropriate training program to employees which supported by Gaertner and Nollen (1989), and Igarria (1991), and Lee and Maurer (1997) who mentioned that employees may remain committed and productive employees for an organization as long as they believe that the company help them or train them to success in career experience positively.

As Elliott (1980) mentioned that the employees who achieve his or her job, the satisfaction will be maximized, have a high thrust, high intimacy, and low hinderance. All suggestions above, the managers should help or assist organizational members, organization itself to accomplish the organizational goals and all benefit will contribute to the community as well as the country as a whole. The managers should realize how to increase the personnel satisfaction to the maximum; consequently, to the organizational effectiveness and efficiency.

Suggestions for Future Research

The researcher would like to suggest some further researches in this area that could be pursued:

1. As the result from hypothesis two, even though, there was a weak relationship between work values and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel. It can imply that future research could study the prediction of job satisfaction by using work values variable as the independent variable. Future research may focus on one big company and expand the sample size to get a clear picture to represent the result for population. As Rokeach (1973) stated that work values are useful to be a variable in predicting job satisfaction because individuals can examine their abilities, skills, and job requirements which are needed to be satisfied on a job. Normally, work values emphasize situational characteristics, but they also assess attributes of the person in relation to the work situation. The fact findings between two variables, it may be conceivable to decide organizational aspects that create job satisfaction or reduce job dissatisfaction.
2. Future research should be conducted on work values and job satisfaction by focusing on different races in the same or different organization and select the sample who are not Thai nationality to see a different result from real different ethnicities.
3. The future research should be replicated to other organizations or to different task settings to study the appropriateness of wider generalizations of the finding in the current business situation.

4. Further study should investigate or explore and find the relationship of each component between work values and job satisfaction.
5. There are many important issues to be investigated in work values and job satisfaction in Thailand which may affect from many factors that create different individual values, organizational values and finally, individual work values in organization. Also different organizations will create or focus on different organizational work values, the question is “Does it affect or influence to their employees?” For the employees, they have individual values which may cause from culture, religion, economy, economic status, and so forth. In Thailand, Thais people confronted the economic crisis around 1997 and have been active a couple years ago. From economic crisis situation, many Thais may change individual values and this change may affect work values in organization. It may mean that they are more acceptable to work without argument. Further study may produce the additional insight that never discover from previous studies.
6. What is the most important factor of work values that affect to job satisfaction? Are there different work values toward job satisfaction in different organizations and different ethnicities? What is the most important job satisfaction factor in different organizations?
7. Future studies should explore the existing work values of employees in organization and examine or test the direction of relationship of existing work values of employees, organizational values,

organizational behavior policy, and job satisfaction. Do they set or conduct the same direction?

8. Future studies should set the Thai work values and measure or compare between job satisfaction among Thai employees who work in Thai company, Thai merges with foreign company, and foreigner company. To see the level of exiting Thai work values and the relationship between job satisfaction for three different owner companies.
9. To study and compare work vales between two companies who set the specific work value and the one who never set specific work values to be a direction or foundation of company.
10. From finding in Hypothesis 12, 13, 14, 15, and 17 found that there was no significant difference in job satisfaction of the two category groups when focused on gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, and job experiences. The question is “why” for the future research. What factors are causing employees to be indifferent in job satisfaction?
11. For future research, one should consider the instrument of work values that would be refinement and expansion to focus on the different nature of each organization.

Conclusion

This research applied the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Survey of Work Values (SWV) instruments to be a tool to collect the data and found that these instruments had high reliabilities and validity when used in Thailand. The author

found a significant relationship between work values and job satisfaction in manufacturing personnel but the result inverted in sales personnel. Also there was a significant difference in job satisfaction between two work category groups but the finding was contradicted in work values. All findings between work values and demographic factors were no statistically significant difference when segmented by gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, educational levels, job experiences, and ethnic basis. However there was significant difference in job satisfaction when segmented by educational levels in sales personnel and was significant difference in job satisfaction when determined on the basis of ethnicity in sales personnel. Also found that the ethnicity of Thai-Chinese had a higher job satisfaction than Thais. It was shown that there were not significant different in job satisfaction when segmented by gender, marital status, age levels, income levels, and job experiences.

From many previous studies were shown to support these results of significant differences and no significant differences. Anyway, many results from these findings do not support the majority former studies from other countries but it is possible to explain by unique Thai culture, values, and beliefs which causes from the religion basis.

Theses results illustrate the need for management team to modify strategies, structures, and processes, which are necessary for the effective structure of organization to motivational reinforce its business and to contribute the maximum abilities to enhance employees' quality, increase productivity, etc. Those conditions are conductive to employees' job satisfaction which will impact directly to organizational effectiveness to gain a competitive advantage. Also, the basis of the organization's culture develops from work values, beliefs, norms, and behavior. The

work values concern the right thing to do or to behave and work values may be the important factor for modeling in organization.

APPENDIX A

The Job Descriptive Index: Job Satisfaction and Survey of Work Values Instrument (English Version)

Descriptive Index: Job Satisfaction

The Job Descriptive Index is a questionnaire to measure Job Satisfaction which comprises of six scales and each scale consists of a number of subvariables as follow:

<u>Scales</u>	<u>Subvariables</u>
1. Work on Present Job	18
2. Present Pay	9
3. Opportunities for Promotion	9
4. Supervision	18
5. Co-workers	18
6. Job in General	18
Total subvariables	90

Part1.1: Work on Present Job

Think of the work you do at present. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work? In the blank beside each word below, write

- Y for "Yes" if it describes your work
 N for "No" if it does NOT describe it
 ? if you cannot decide

-
1. Fascinating
 2. Routine
 3. Satisfying
 4. Boring
 5. Good
 6. Creative
 7. Respected
 8. Uncomfortable
 9. Pleasant
 10. Useful

- 11. Tiring
- 12. Healthful
- 13. Challenging
- 14. Too much to do
- 15. Frustrating
- 16. Simple
- 17. Repetitive
- 18. Gives sense of accomplishment

Part 1.2: Present Pay

Think of the pay you get now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay? In the blank beside each word below, write

- Y for "Yes" if it describes your pay
 - N for "No" if it does NOT describe it
 - ? if you cannot decide
-

- 1. Income adequate for normal expenses
- 2. Fair
- 3. barely live on income
- 4. bad
- 5. Income provides luxuries
- 6. Insecure
- 7. Less than I deserve
- 8. Well paid
- 9. Underpaid

Part 1.3: Opportunities for Promotion

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these? In the blank beside each word below, write

- Y for "Yes" if it describes your opportunities for promotion
- N for "No" if it does NOT describe them

? if you cannot decide

- 1. Good opportunities for promotion
- 2. Opportunities somewhat limited
- 3. Promotion on ability
- 4. Dead-end job
- 5. Good chance for promotion
- 6. Unfair promotion policy
- 7. Infrequent promotions
- 8. Regular promotions
- 9. Fairly good chance for promotion

Part 1.4: Supervision

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this? In the blank beside each word below, write

- Y for "Yes" if it describes the supervision you get on your job
 - N for "No" if it does NOT describe it
 - ? if you cannot decide
-

- 1. Asks my advice
- 2. Hard to please
- 3. Impolite
- 4. Praises good work
- 5. Tactful
- 6. Influential
- 7. Up-to-date
- 8. Doesn't supervise enough
- 9. Has favorites
- 10. Tells me where I stand
- 11. Annoying
- 12. Stubborn

- _____ 13. Knows job well
- _____ 14. Bad
- _____ 15. Intelligent
- _____ 16. Poor planner
- _____ 17. Around when needed
- _____ 18. Lazy

Part 1.5: Co-workers

Think of the majority of the people that you work with now or the people you meet in connection with you. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people? In the blank beside each word below, write

- Y for "Yes" if it describes the people you work with
 - N for "No" if it does NOT describe them
 - ? if you cannot decide
-

- _____ 1. Stimulating
- _____ 2. Boring
- _____ 3. Slow
- _____ 4. Helpful
- _____ 5. Stupid
- _____ 6. Responsible
- _____ 7. Fast
- _____ 8. Intelligent
- _____ 9. Easy to make enemies
- _____ 10. Talk too much
- _____ 11. Smart
- _____ 12. Lazy
- _____ 13. Unpleasant
- _____ 14. Gossipy
- _____ 15. Active
- _____ 16. Narrow Interests
- _____ 17. Loyal
- _____ 18. Stubborn

Part 1.6: Job in General

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time? In the blank beside each word below, write

- Y for "Yes" if it describes your job
 N for "No" if it does NOT describe them
 ? if you cannot decide
-

1. Pleasant
 2. Bad
 3. Ideal
 4. Waste of time
 5. Good
 6. Undesirable
 7. Worthwhile
 8. Worse than most
 9. Acceptable
 10. Superior
 11. Better than most
 12. Disagreeable
 13. Makes me content
 14. Inadequate
 15. Excellent
 16. Rotten
 17. Enjoyable
 18. Poor

PART 2: Survey of Work Values

Direction: This is a questionnaire concerning the way people feel about work. It is a measure of your opinions. You indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by picking one of the five numbers next to each statement. If you strongly agree that the way you feel about work, you should possess a feature, record a

“5” in the appropriate space. If you strongly disagree that the way you feel about work, you should possess a feature, record a “1”. If your feelings are not strong, record any of the numbers in the middle. There are no right or wrong answers. Read each statement carefully and please do not omit any statements.

Response

Strongly Disagree 1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 Strongly Agree

Social status of the job

- ___ 1. One of the reasons that I work is to make my family respect me.
- ___ 2. A person does not deserve respect just because the person has a good job.
- ___ 3. A job with prestige is not necessarily a better job than one which does not have prestige.
- ___ 4. My friends would not think much of me if I did not have a good job.
- ___ 5. Prestige should not be a factor in choosing a job.
- ___ 6. The person who holds down a good job is the most respected person in the neighborhood.
- ___ 7. Having a good job makes a person more worthy of praise from friends and family.
- ___ 8. As far as my friends are concerned, it could not make any difference if I worked regularly or only once in a while.
- ___ 9. Even though they make the same amount of money, the person who works in an office has a more impressive job than the person working as a sales clerk.

Activity Preference

- ___ 10. A job which requires the employee to be busy during the day is better than a job which allows a lot of loafing.
- ___ 11. If a person can get away with it, that person should try to work just a little slower than the boss expects.

- ___ 12. The best job that a worker can get is one which permits the worker to do almost nothing during the work day.
- ___ 13. When an employee can get away with it, the employee should take it easy.
- ___ 14. A person who takes long rest pauses, is probably a poor worker.
- ___ 15. A person would soon grow tired of loafing on a job and would probably be happier if he or she worked hard.
- ___ 16. If a person is given a choice between jobs which pay the same money, the person should choose the one which requires as little work as possible.
- ___ 17. A person should try to stay busy all day rather than find ways to get out of doing work.
- ___ 18. If a worker keeps himself busy on the job, the working day passes more quickly than if the worker were loafing.

Upward Striving

- ___ 19. Even if a person has a good job, the person should always be looking for a better job.
- ___ 20. In choosing a job, a person ought to consider chances for advancement as well as other factors.
- ___ 21. One should always be thinking about pulling oneself up in the world and should work hard with the hope of being promoted to a higher-level job.
- ___ 22. If a person likes the job, the person should be satisfied with it and should not push for a promotion to another job.
- ___ 23. The trouble with too many people is that when they find a job in which they are respected, they don't try to get a better job.
- ___ 24. A person who turns down a promotion is probably making a mistake.
- ___ 25. A promotion to higher-level usually means more worries and should be avoided for that reason.
- ___ 26. A well paying job that offers opportunity for advancement is not a good job for me.
- ___ 27. One is better off if one is satisfied with one's own job and is not concerned about being promoted to another job.

Attitude toward earnings

28. A person should hold a second job to bring in extra money if the person can get it.
29. A person should choose a job which pays the most.
30. If I were paid by the hour, I would probably turn down most offers to make extra money by working overtimes.
31. A person should take the job which offers the most overtime if the regular pay on the jobs is about the same.
32. A person should choose one job over another mostly because of the higher wages.
33. The only good part of most jobs is the paycheck.
34. When someone is looking for a job, money should not be the most important consideration.
35. A good job is a well paying job.
36. A person should take a job that pays more than some other job even if that person cannot stand other workers on that job.

Pride-in-work

37. One who does a sloppy job at work should feel a little ashamed of oneself.
38. A worker should feel some responsibility to do a decent job, whether or not the supervisor is around.
39. There is nothing wrong with doing a poor job at work if one can get away with it.
40. There is nothing as satisfying as doing the best job possible.
41. One who feels no sense of pride in one's work is probably unhappy.
42. Only a fool worries about doing a job well, since it is important only that you do your job well enough not to get fired.
43. One should feel a sense of pride in one's work.
44. The most important thing about a job is liking the work.
45. Doing a good job should mean as much to a worker as a good paycheck.

Job Involvement

46. Most companies have suggestion boxes for their workers, but I doubt that the companies take these suggestions seriously.

- ___ 47. A good worker cares about finding ways to improve the job, and when one has an idea, one should pass it on to the supervisor.
- ___ 48. One who has an idea about how to improve one's job should drop a note in the company's suggestion box.
- ___ 49. A good worker is interested in helping a new worker learn the job.
- ___ 50. If a worker has a choice between going to the company picnic or staying at home, the worker would probably be better off at home.
- ___ 51. Even if a worker has a very low-level job, it is still possible for the worker to make suggestions which will affect company policy.
- ___ 52. Once a week after the workday is over, a company may have their workers get together in groups for the purpose of discussing possible job changes. A worker should remain after question time to participate in these discussions.
- ___ 53. If something is wrong with the job, a smart worker will mind his or her own business and let somebody else about it.
- ___ 54. One should do one's own job and forget about such things as company meetings and company activities.

PART 3: Personal Profile

1. Gender Male Female
2. Marital Status: Single Married Divorced/Widowed
3. Age category: 21 - 30 31 - 40 41 or more
4. Your income per month: 10,000 baht and below 10,001 – 20,000 baht
 20,001 – 30,000 bath 30,001- 40,000 baht
 40,001 baht or more
5. Highest education level: High School Graduate or less
 Diploma or equivalent
 Bachelor's Degree
 Master's Degree and higher

6. Job experience: 2-3 years 4-6 years 6 years or
more

7. Your ethnic basis or native origin is.....

APPENDIX B

The Job Descriptive Index: Job Satisfaction and Survey of Work Values Instrument (Thai Version)

แบบสอบถาม ความพึงพอใจในการทำงานและคุณค่าของงาน

แบบสอบถามนี้แบ่งออกเป็น 3 ส่วน

- ส่วนที่ 1. แบบสอบถาม ความพึงพอใจในการทำงาน
- ส่วนที่ 2. แบบสอบถาม คุณค่าของงาน
- ส่วนที่ 3. แบบสอบถาม ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล

ส่วนที่ 1: ดัชนีรายละเอียดของงาน: ความพึงพอใจในการทำงาน

ดัชนีรายละเอียดของงานคือแบบสอบถามเพื่อวัดความพึงพอใจของงานซึ่งประกอบด้วย 6 ระดับด้วยกัน ซึ่งในแต่ละระดับยังแบ่งเป็นจำนวนตัวแปรย่อยดังต่อไปนี้

<u>ระดับ</u>	<u>ตัวแปรย่อย</u>
1. ลักษณะของงานในปัจจุบัน	18
2. รายได้ปัจจุบัน	9
3. โอกาสในการปรับเลื่อนตำแหน่ง	9
4. การควบคุมงานของผู้บังคับบัญชา	18
5. ผู้ร่วมงาน	18
6. งานโดยทั่วไป	18
ตัวแปรย่อยทั้งหมด	90

ส่วนที่ 1.1 : ลักษณะของงานในปัจจุบัน

คิดถึงงานที่คุณทำอยู่ในขณะนี้
ข้อความใดต่อไปนี้ที่สามารถอธิบายงานในปัจจุบันของคุณได้ดี
กรุณาเติมช่องว่างต่อไปนี้

Y สำหรับคำตอบ "ใช่" ที่อธิบายงานของคุณ

N สำหรับคำตอบ "ไม่ใช่"

ถ้าข้อความนั้นไม่อธิบายงานของคุณได้

? ถ้าคุณไม่สามารถตัดสินใจได้

- 1. น่าสนใจ
- 2. เป็นกิจวัตร / ไม่เปลี่ยนแปลง
- 3. น่าพึงพอใจ
- 4. น่าเบื่อ
- 5. ดี
- 6. สร้างสรรค์
- 7. มีคุณค่า น่ายกย่อง
- 8. ไม่น่าสบาย
- 9. ไม่น่าพึงพอใจ
- 10. มีประโยชน์
- 11. น่าเหนื่อย
- 12. มีความสมบูรณ์แบบ
- 13. น่าท้าทาย

- ___ 14. งานมากเกินไป
—
- ___ 15. นำสับสน/วุ่นวาย
—
- ___ 16. เรียบง่าย
—
- ___ 17. ช้าชาก
—
- ___ 18. ให้ความรู้สึกของการประสบความสำเร็จในการทำงาน
—

ส่วนที่ 1.2 : รายได้ปัจจุบัน

คิดถึงรายได้ของคุณที่ได้รับอยู่ในปัจจุบัน
ข้อความใดต่อไปที่สามารถอธิบายรายได้ปัจจุบันของคุณได้ดี
กรุณาเติมช่องว่างต่อไปนี้ดังนี้

Y สำหรับคำตอบ “ใช่” ที่อธิบายรายได้คุณ

N สำหรับคำตอบ “ไม่ใช่”

ถ้าข้อความนั้นไม่อธิบายรายได้ของคุณได้

? ถ้าคุณไม่สามารถตัดสินใจได้

- ___ 1. รายได้เพียงพอกับรายจ่ายปกติ
—
- ___ 2. พอใช้
—
- ___ 3. รายได้พออยู่ได้
—
- ___ 4. แยก
—

___ 5. รายได้เพียงพอกับการใช้จ่ายสิ่งฟุ่มเฟือย

___ 6. ไม่มั่นคง

___ 7. น้อยกว่าที่ควรจะได้รับ

___ 8. รายได้ดี

___ 9. ต่ำกว่าที่องค์กรทั่วไปได้รับ

ส่วนที่ 1.3 : โอกาสในการปรับ/เลื่อนตำแหน่ง

คิดถึงโอกาสในการเลื่อนขั้นและปรับตำแหน่งของคุณที่จะได้รับ
ข้อความใดในต่อไปนี้ที่สามารถอธิบายโอกาสในการปรับตำแหน่งของคุณได้
ดีดี กรุณาเติมช่องว่างดังต่อไปนี้

Y สำหรับคำตอบ “ใช่” ที่อธิบายโอกาสในการปรับตำแหน่งของคุณ

N สำหรับคำตอบ “ไม่ใช่”

ถ้าข้อความนั้นไม่อธิบายโอกาสในการปรับตำแหน่งของคุณได้

? ถ้าคุณไม่สามารถตัดสินใจได้

___ 1. มีโอกาสที่ดีในการปรับ/เลื่อนตำแหน่ง

___ 2. มีโอกาสในการปรับ/เลื่อนตำแหน่งบ้างแต่จำกัด

___ 3. การปรับ/เลื่อนตำแหน่งขึ้นอยู่กับความสามารถ

___ 4. เป็นงานที่ไม่สามารถปรับ/เลื่อนตำแหน่งได้

___ 5. มีความเป็นไปได้ในการปรับ/เลื่อนตำแหน่ง

___ 6. นโยบายการปรับ/เลื่อนตำแหน่งไม่ยุติธรรม

___ 7. มีการปรับ/เลื่อนตำแหน่งไม่บ่อย

___ 8. มีการปรับตำแหน่งสม่ำเสมอ

___ 9. ค่อนข้างมีโอกาสดีในการปรับตำแหน่ง

ส่วนที่ 1.4 : การควบคุมการทำงานของผู้บังคับบัญชา

คิดถึงชนิดของการควบคุมงานของผู้บังคับบัญชาที่คุณได้รับอยู่ในขณะนี้

ข้อความใดในต่อไปนี้ที่สามารถอธิบายชนิดของการควบคุมงานของคุณ
กรุณาเติมช่องว่างดังต่อไปนี้

Y สำหรับคำตอบ “ใช่”

ที่อธิบายชนิดของการควบคุมงานที่คุณได้รับอยู่

N สำหรับคำตอบ “ไม่ใช่”

ถ้าข้อความนั้นไม่สามารถอธิบายชนิดของการควบคุมงานที่คุณได้รับอยู่ได้

? ถ้าคุณไม่สามารถตัดสินใจได้

___ 1. ผู้บังคับบัญชามักขอคำแนะนำจากฉัน

___ 2. ยากที่จะทำให้ผู้บังคับบัญชาพอใจ

___ 3. ผู้บังคับบัญชาไม่สุภาพ

___ 4. ผู้บังคับบัญชาหยิ่งเมื่อผลงานดี

___ 5. ผู้บังคับบัญชาบริหารงานอย่างแยบยล

- ___
- ___ 6. ผู้บังคับบัญชามีอิทธิพลต่อการทำงาน
- ___
- ___ 7. ผู้บังคับบัญชาบริหารงานอย่างทันสมัย
- ___
- ___ 8. ผู้บังคับบัญชาไม่มีการควบคุมที่เพียงพอ
- ___
- ___ 9. ผู้บังคับบัญชามีลูกน้องที่ชื่นชอบอยู่แล้ว
- ___
- ___ 10.
- ___ ผู้บังคับบัญชามีการบอกให้ทราบถึงตำแหน่ง/ความรับผิดชอบอย่างชัดเจน
- ___ 11. ผู้บังคับบัญชาน่าเบือนำราคาญ
- ___
- ___ 12. ผู้บังคับบัญชาดีอรัน
- ___
- ___ 13. ผู้บังคับบัญชารุงานที่ทาเป็นอยางดี
- ___
- ___ 14. ผู้บังคับบัญชาแย
- ___
- ___ 15. ผู้บังคับบัญชาฉลาด
- ___
- ___ 16. ผู้บังคับบัญชาเป็นผู้วางแผนที่ไม่ดี
- ___
- ___ 17. ผู้บังคับบัญชาพร้อมจะช่วยเหลือเมื่อต้องการ
- ___
- ___ 18. ผู้บังคับบัญชาชี้เกียจ
- ___

ส่วนที่ 1.5 : ผู้ร่วมงาน

คิดถึงผู้ร่วมงานกลุ่มใหญ่ที่ร่วมงานและติดต่อประสานงานกับคุณ
ข้อความใดต่อไปนี้ที่สามารถอธิบายผู้ร่วมงานกลุ่มนั้นได้ดี
กรุณาเติมช่องว่างต่อไปนี้

Y สำหรับคำตอบ “ใช่” ที่อธิบายผู้ร่วมงานกลุ่มนั้น

N สำหรับคำตอบ “ไม่ใช่”

ถ้าข้อความนั้นไม่สามารถอธิบายผู้ร่วมงานกลุ่มนั้น

? ถ้าคุณไม่สามารถตัดสินใจได้

___ 1. เป็นแรงกระตุ้นในการทำงาน

___ 2. น่าเบื่อ

___ 3. เชื่องช้า

___ 4. มีประโยชน์

___ 5. ไม่ฉลาด

___ 6. มีความรับผิดชอบ

___ 7. รวดเร็ว

___ 8. ฉลาด

___ 9. เป็นมิตรยาก

___ 10. พุดมาก

- 11. เก่ง
- 12. ขี้เกียจ
- 13. ไม่น่าพึงพอใจ
- 14. ช่างนินทา
- 15. กระตือรือร้น
- 16. มีความสนใจในเรื่องต่างๆน้อย
- 17. ซื่อสัตย์
- 18. ตื้อรั้น
-

ส่วนที่ 1.6 : งานทั่วไป

คิดถึงงานโดยทั่วไปของคุณทั้งหมดที่คุณทำอยู่ในขณะนี้
 งานทั่วไปของคุณมีลักษณะอย่างไร กรุณาเติมช่องว่างดังต่อไปนี้

Y สำหรับคำตอบ “ใช่” ที่อธิบายงานทั่วไปของคุณ

N สำหรับคำตอบ “ไม่ใช่”

ถ้าข้อความนั้นไม่สามารถอธิบายงานทั่วไปของคุณ

? ถ้าคุณไม่สามารถตัดสินใจได้

- 1. น่าพึงพอใจ
- 2. แย่

- ___ 3. เป็นงานในอุดมคติ
- ___ 4. เสียเวลา
- ___ 5. ดี
- ___ 6. ไม่น่าปรารถนา
- ___ 7. มีคุณค่า
- ___ 8. ส่วนใหญ่แย
- ___ 9. เป็นที่ยอมรับ
- ___ 10. เยี่ยม
- ___ 11. ส่วนใหญ่ดี
- ___ 12. ไม่เห็นด้วย
- ___ 13. ทำให้ฉันพอใจกับงาน
- ___ 14. ไม่เพียงพอ
- ___ 15. ยอดเยี่ยม
- ___ 16. ไร้ศีลธรรม

_____ 17. น่าสนุก

_____ 18. พอใช้

ส่วนที่ 2 : การสำรวจคุณค่าของงาน

วิธีทำ : แบบทดสอบนี้จะคำนึงถึงความรู้สึกที่คุณได้จากงาน เป็นแบบสอบถามที่วัดความคิดเห็นของคุณ

คุณควรระบุระดับที่คุณเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยกับแต่ละข้อความต่างๆ

โดยเลือกหมายเลข 1 ถึง 5

ถ้าคุณเห็นด้วยอย่างมากกับสิ่งที่คุณรู้สึกในงานนั้น กรุณาใส่หมายเลข 5 ในช่องที่กำหนด ถ้าคุณไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างมากกับสิ่งที่คุณรู้สึกในงานนั้น

กรุณาใส่หมายเลข 1 ในช่องที่กำหนด

ถ้าคุณรู้สึกเห็นด้วยหรือไม่เห็นด้วยในระดับที่แตกต่างจาก 1 และ 5

กรุณาระบุตัวเลขในระดับกลาง เช่น 2,3,4 ตามระดับที่คุณเห็นว่าเหมาะสม คำตอบทุกคำตอบของคุณไม่ถือว่าถูกหรือผิด

กรุณาอ่านและตอบความคิดเห็นของคุณในแต่ละข้อความอย่างรอบคอบ

และกรุณาอย่าละเลยข้อความใดๆ กรุณาตอบทุกข้อความ

การตอบสนอง

ไม่เห็นด้วยมาก 1 _____ 2 _____ 3 _____ 4

5 เห็นด้วยมาก

สถานการณ์ทางสังคมของตำแหน่งหน้าที่การงานที่รับผิดชอบ

_____ 1. เหตุผลหนึ่งที่คุณทำงานก็เพื่อให้ครอบครัวของคุณเคารพ และชื่นชมคุณ

_____ 2. อาชีพ และตำแหน่งงานที่ดีเพียงอย่างเดียวไม่อาจทำให้คนอื่นมาเคารพคุณ

ณ

- ___ 3. ไม่จำเป็นว่างานที่มีเกียรติจะเป็นงานที่ดีกว่างานที่ไม่มีเกียรติ
- ___ 4.
เพื่อนของคุณไม่ได้คบคุณเพราะว่าคุณมีตำแหน่งหน้าที่การงานที่ดี
- ___ 5. เกียรติยศชื่อเสียงไม่ใช่ปัจจัยสำคัญในการพิจารณา
- ___ 6. บุคคลที่มีหน้าที่การงานดีมักจะได้รับความนับถือจากเพื่อนๆ
- ___ 7. อาชีพและตำแหน่งหน้าที่การงานที่ดี
ทำให้คุณมีคุณค่าและเป็นที่น่ายกย่องจากครอบครัว และ
เพื่อนๆของคุณ
- ___ 8. ตราบใดก็ตามที่คุณยังเป็นคนที่เพื่อนๆ รักใคร่ชื่นชม
หน้าที่การงานที่มั่นคงหรืออาชีพอิสระ
ไม่ใช่สิ่งที่เพื่อนของคุณจะพิจารณาในการคบหาสมาคมกับคุณ
- ___ 9. ในผลตอบแทนที่เท่ากัน พนักงานในสำนักงาน
จะดีกว่าพนักงานขายที่ต้องออกไปพบลูกค้า

ความชื่นชอบในกิจกรรมของงานที่ทำ

- ___ 10.
งานที่ทำให้พนักงานต้องยุ่งตลอดเวลาดีกว่างานที่ไม่ค่อยจะมีอะไรให้ทำ
- ___ 11. ถ้าคุณทำได้
คุณควรทำงานให้ช้ากว่าความคาดหวังของเจ้านายคุณ
- ___ 12. งานที่ดีที่สุด
คืองานที่ผู้ทำงานได้รับอนุมัติให้ไม่ต้องทำอะไรมากในระหว่างวัน
- ___ 13. เมื่อพนักงานปรับตัวเข้ากับงานได้แล้ว
เข้าสามารถทำงานได้อย่างสบายๆ
- ___ 14. พนักงานที่หยุดพักร้อนไปนาน
อาจเป็นพนักงานที่ไม่มีประสิทธิภาพ

- ___ 15. บุคคลที่เริ่มเบื่อกับการไม่มีงานอะไรที่จะทำในที่ทำงาน
___ บุคคลนั้นอาจมีความสุขถ้าได้รับผิด ชอบงานมากขึ้น
- ___ 16. ถ้ามีงานสองอย่างที่ได้เงินเดือนเท่ากัน
___ คนจะเลือกงานที่สบายกว่า
- ___ 17. การยุ่งอยู่กับงานทั้งวัน
___ ดีกว่าการพยายามหลีกเลี่ยงไม่ทำงานนั้น
- ___ 18. การทำงานยุ่งตลอดทั้งวัน จะทำให้เวลาผ่านไปอย่างรวดเร็ว

เป้าหมายและความก้าวหน้าในอาชีพการงาน

- ___ 19. ถึงแม้ว่าคุณจะมีหน้าที่การงานที่ดีแล้ว
___ คุณก็ควรมองหางานที่ดีกว่า
- ___ 20. ในการเลือกงาน
___ คุณควรจะพิจารณาโอกาสในความก้าวหน้ารวมทั้งปัจจัยอื่นๆ
___ ร่วมกัน
- ___ 21.
___ คุณควรคำนึงถึงความเจริญก้าวหน้าทางการงานของตนเองและควร
___ ทำงานหนักเพื่อจะได้เลื่อน
___ ขึ้นปรับตำแหน่งให้อยู่ในระดับสูง
- ___ 22. ถ้าพนักงานพึงพอใจอยู่กับงานที่ทำปัจจุบัน
___ เขาจะไม่พยายามปรับตัวเองไปสู่ตำแหน่งที่สูงกว่า
- ___ 23. คนส่วนใหญ่เมื่อได้งานที่เขาชอบแล้ว
___ เขาก็จะไม่พยายามหางานใหม่ที่ดีกว่า
- ___ 24. บุคคลที่ปฏิเสธการเลื่อนตำแหน่ง
___ อาจเป็นการตัดสินใจที่ผิดพลาด
- ___ 25.
___ คุณควรหลีกเลี่ยงการปรับตำแหน่งสูงขึ้นเพราะคุณจะมี ความกังวลแ
___ ละความเครียดเพิ่มขึ้น
- ___ 26.
___ งานที่ให้รายได้ดีและเสนอโอกาสในการก้าวหน้าไม่ใช่งานที่ดีสำหรับ

_____ บคุณ

_____ 27. สิ่งที่ดีสำหรับคุณก็คือ
_____ คุณมีความพึงพอใจกับงานที่คุณได้ทำโดยไม่คำนึงถึงการเลื่อนตำแหน่ง

_____ ทศนคติต่อผลตอบแทนที่ได้รับ

_____ 28. คุณควรทำงานเสริมเพื่อเพิ่มรายได้ให้กับตนเอง

_____ 29. เราควรเลือกงานที่ให้ผลตอบแทนมากที่สุด

_____ 30. ถ้าบริษัทจ่ายค่าจ้างแบบนับตามชั่วโมงการทำงาน
_____ คุณอาจปฏิเสธที่จะรับข้อเสนอนี้ เพื่อที่จะทำงานล่วงเวลา
_____ และรับค่าตอบแทนมากขึ้น

_____ 31.
_____ ถ้ารายได้จากตำแหน่งงานที่ไม่มีค่าล่วงเวลาให้ผลตอบแทนเท่ากับ
_____ ตำแหน่งที่มีค่าล่วงเวลา
_____ เราควรเลือกงานที่ทำล่วงเวลาเนื่องจากได้ผลตอบแทนมากกว่า

_____ 32. เราควรเลือกงานที่ให้ค่าตอบแทน (เงินเดือน) สูงที่สุด

_____ 33. สิ่งที่ดีที่สุดจากการทำงานก็คือ การได้รับเงินเดือน

_____ 34. เงินไม่ควรเป็นสิ่งที่สำคัญที่สุดในการตัดสินใจเลือกงาน

_____ 35. คำว่า “งานดี” ในความหมายของคุณก็คือ การได้เงินเดือนมากๆ

_____ 36. เราควรเลือกงานที่ให้รายได้สูง
_____ แม้ว่าเราไม่สามารถทนหรือเข้ากับเพื่อนร่วมงานได้

ความภาคภูมิใจในอาชีพและหน้าที่การงาน

- ___ 37. คนทำงานที่ขาดศีลธรรม ควรละลายแก้ไข
- ___ 38. พนักงานควรมีความรับผิดชอบต่องานที่ได้รับมอบหมายให้ดีที่สุด ไม่ว่าจะต่อหน้าหรือลับหลังเจ้า นาย
- ___ 39. ไม่ใช่สิ่งผิดถ้าคุณจะไม่ใส่ใจกับงาน
- ___ 40. เป็นเรื่องที่น่าพึงพอใจที่สุด ถ้าคุณได้มีโอกาสทำงานดีที่สุดในตำแหน่งที่คุณจะทำได้
- ___ 41. คนที่ไม่มีความภาคภูมิใจในการทำงาน ไม่น่าจะเป็นคนที่มีความสุข
- ___ 42. คุณไม่ควรกังวลในการปรับปรุงงานให้ดีขึ้นเพียงแค่คุณทำงานที่คุณรับผิดชอบให้ดีที่สุดพอที่คุณจะไม่ ถูกไล่ออกก็เพียงพอแล้ว
- ___ 43. เราควรภูมิใจในงานที่ทำ
- ___ 44. สิ่งที่สำคัญที่สุดในการทำงาน คือเราต้องรับผิดชอบงานที่เราทำอยู่
- ___ 45. งานที่ดี น่าจะหมายถึงงานที่ได้เงินมากมายด้วย

ปัจจัยแวดล้อมต่อการทำงาน

- ___ 46. บริษัทส่วนใหญ่ที่ติดตั้งกล่องรับความคิดเห็นและคำแนะนำจากพนักงาน คุณคิดว่าบริษัทเอง ก็ให้ความสำคัญมากกับคำแนะนำจากพนักงาน
- ___ 47. พนักงานที่ดีควรสนใจที่จะพัฒนางานและเมื่อมีความคิดในการที่จะพัฒนางาน เขาจะเรียนให้ผู้

_____ บัณฑิตบัญชาบริหาร

_____ 48.

_____ หากเรามีความคิดในการพัฒนางานเราควรส่งคำแนะนำของเรา
_____ ลงในกล่องรับความคิดเห็นของบริษัท

_____ 49. พนักงานที่ดี ควรช่วยสอนงานให้พนักงานที่เข้ามาใหม่

_____ 50. ระหว่างการไปสังสรรค์กับเพื่อนที่ทำงานกับการได้อยู่บ้าน
_____ “คุณจะเลือกอยู่บ้าน”

_____ 51.

_____ แม้ว่าพนักงานจะเป็นพนักงานระดับล่างแต่ข้อเสนอแนะของพนักงาน
_____ ก็มีผลต่อนโยบายบริษัท

_____ 52. ถ้าบริษัทจะจัดให้มีการอภิปรายสัปดาห์ละครั้ง

_____ หลังเลิกงานเพื่อหารือเกี่ยวกับการปรับปรุงงานพนักงานควรเข้าร่วม
_____ การอภิปราย

_____ 53. ถ้าพบว่าการทำงานผิดพลาด
_____ คนที่ผิดพลาดจะรับผิดชอบเฉพาะงานของตน
_____ และให้คนอื่นรับผิดชอบในส่วนของเขา

_____ 54. คุณเพียงแค่อตั้งใจ

_____ และรับผิดชอบในส่วนงานของคุณโดยไม่จำเป็นต้องเข้าร่วมประชุม
_____ หรือเข้าร่วมกิจกรรมใดๆ ของบริษัท

_____ ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล

1. เพศ () ชาย () หญิง
2. สถานะ () โสด () สมรส () หย่า/เป็นม่าย
3. อายุ () 21 – 30 () 31 – 40
() 41 หรือมากกว่า
4. รายได้ต่อเดือน () 10,000 บาทและน้อยกว่า () 10,001 –
20,000 บาท

- () 20,001 – 30,000 บาท () 30,001 –
40,000 บาท
- () 40,001 บาทหรือมากกว่า
5. ระดับการศึกษา () อุดมศึกษา หรือน้อยกว่า
() ประกาศนียบัตร หรือเทียบเท่า
() ปริญญาตรี
() ปริญญาโท หรือสูงกว่า
6. ประสบการณ์การทำงาน () 2 – 3 ปี () 4 – 6 ปี
() 6 ปีหรือมากกว่า
7. เชื้อชาติดั้งเดิม หรือ เชื้อชาติของบิดามารดา
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Appendix C

Data Support the Analysis of Chapter V

Hypothesis 4: The Analysis of job satisfaction between employees of the two work category groups by using Independent T-Test.

T-Test

Group Statistics

company	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
sumj sahapat	208	180.5481	16.57271	1.14911
Lion	209	186.0718	16.59210	1.14770

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
sumj	Equal variance assumed	.025	.874	-3.401	415	.001	-5.52369	1.62409	-8.71617	-2.33122
	Equal variance not assumed			-3.401	414.995	.001	-5.52369	1.62409	-8.71616	-2.33122

Appendix D

The Analysis of Job Satisfactions' Mean and Work Values' Mean of Sales Personnel and Manufacturing Personnel

Job Satisfactions' mean of Manufacturing Personnel

1. Work on present job

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Fascinating	209	2.60
Routine	209	2.31
Satisfying	209	2.37
Boring	209	1.73
Good	209	2.51
Creative	209	2.29
Respected	209	2.25
Uncomfortable	209	1.99
Unpleasant	209	1.73
Useful	209	2.55
Tiring	209	1.93
Healthful	209	1.74
Challenging	209	2.12
Too much to do	209	1.85
Frustrating	209	1.96
Simple	209	1.78
Repetitive	209	2.01
Give sense of accomplishment	209	2.21
Valid N (listwise)	209	

2. Present pay

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Income adequate for normal expenses	209	2.40
Fair	209	2.49
barely live on income	209	2.58
bad	209	1.31
Income provides luxuries	209	1.41
Insecure	209	1.34
Less than I deserve	209	1.89
Well paid	209	2.04
Underpaid	209	2.24
Valid N (listwise)	209	

3. Opportunities for promotion

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Good opportunities for promotion	209	2.10
Opportunities somewhat limited	209	2.48
Promotion on ability	209	2.40
Dead-end job	209	1.54
Good chance for promotion	209	1.69
Unfair promotion policy	209	2.11
Infrequent promotions	209	2.57
Regular promotions	209	1.89
Fairly good chance for promotion	209	1.88
Valid N (listwise)	209	

4. Supervision

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Asks my advice	209	1.75
Hard to please	209	1.95
Impolite	209	1.42
Praises good work	209	2.32
Tactful	209	2.22
Influential	209	2.67
Up-to-date	209	2.39
Doesn't supervise enough	209	2.20
Has favorites	209	2.36
Tells me where I stand	209	2.43
Annoying	209	1.83
Stubborn	209	1.86
Knows job well	209	2.38
Bad	209	1.50
Intelligent	209	2.45
Poor planner	209	2.02
Around when needed	209	2.44
Laxy	209	1.33
Valid N (listwise)	209	

5. Co-workers

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Stimulating	209	2.45
Boring	209	1.64
Slow	209	1.69
Helpful	209	2.56
Stupid	209	1.42
Responsible	209	2.57
Fast	209	2.22
Intelligent	209	2.36
Easy to make enemies	209	1.52
Talk too much	209	1.88
Smart	209	2.29
Lazy	209	1.46
Unpleasant	209	1.56
Gossipy	209	1.76
Active	209	2.32
Narrow Interests	209	1.90
Loyal	209	2.62
Stubborn	209	1.77
Valid N (listwise)	209	

6. Job in general

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Pleasant	209	2.56
Bad	209	1.52
Ideal	209	1.78
Waste of time	209	1.91
Good	209	2.58
Undesirable	209	1.94
Worthwhile	209	2.61
Worse than most	209	1.90
Acceptable	209	2.52
Superior	209	2.05
Better than most	209	2.56
Disagreeable	209	1.62
Makes me content	209	2.34
Inadequate	209	1.81
Excellent	209	1.92
Rotten	209	1.72
Enjoyable	209	2.41
Poor	209	2.65
Valid N (listwise)	209	

Work Values' mean of Manufacturing Personnel

1. Social status of the job

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
One of the reasons that I work is to make my family respect me.	209	3.49
A person dose not deserve respect just because the person has a good job.	209	4.06
A job with prestige is not necessarily a better job than one which does not have prestige.	209	4.16
My friends would not think much of me if I did not have a good job.	209	3.99
Prestige should not be a factor in choosing a job.	209	3.72
The person who holds down a good job is the most respected person in the neighborhood.	209	3.80
Having a good job makes a person more worthy of praise from friends and family.	209	3.98
As far as my friends are concerned, it could not make any difference if I worked regularly or only once in a while.	209	3.96
Even though they make the same amount of money, the person who works in an office has a more impressive job than the per	209	3.04
Valid N (listwise)	209	

2. Activity preference

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
A job which requires the employee to be busy during the day is better than a job which allows a lot of loafing.	209	3.87
If a person can get away with it, that person should try to work just a little slower than the boss expects.	209	4.11
The best job that a worker can get is one which permits the worker to do almost nothing during the work day.	209	3.89
When an employee can get away with it, the employee should take it easy.	209	3.94
A person who takes long rest pauses, is probably a poor worker.	209	3.64
A person would soon grow tired of loafing on a job and would probably be happier if he or she worked hard.	209	3.89
If a person is given a choice between jobs which pay the same money, the person should choose the one which requires as	209	4.04
A person should try to stay busy all day rather than find ways to get out of doing work.	209	4.37
If a worker keeps himself busy on the job, the working day passes more quickly than if the worker were loafing.	209	4.50
Valid N (listwise)	209	

3. Upward striving

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Even if a person has a good job, the person should always be looking for a better job.	209	3.82
In choosing a job, a person ought to consider chances for advancement as well as other factors.	209	4.42
One should always be thinking about pulling oneself up in the world and should work hard with the hope of being promoted	209	4.03
If a person likes the job, the person should be satisfied with it and should not push for a promotion to another job.	209	3.04
The trouble with too many people is that when they find a job in which they are respects, they don't try to get a better	209	3.60
A person who turns down a promotion is probably making a mistake.	209	3.32
A promotion to higher-level usually means more worries and should be avoided for that reason.	209	3.55
A well paying job that offers opportunity for advancement is not a good job for me.	209	3.54
One is better off if one is satisfied with one's own job and is not concerned about being promoted to another job.	209	3.43
Valid N (listwise)	209	

4. Attitude toward earnings

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
A person should hold a second job to bring in extra money if the person can get it.	209	4.04
A person should choose a job which pays the most.	209	3.64
If I were paid by the hour, I would probably turn down most offers to make extra money by working overtimes.	209	2.91
A person should take the job which offers the most overtime if the regular pay on the jobs is about the same.	209	2.97
A person should choose one job over another mostly because of the higher wages.	209	3.61
The only good part of most jobs is the paycheck.	209	3.72
When someone is looking for a job, money should not be the most important consideration.	209	3.40
A good job is a well paying job.	209	2.86
A person should take a job that pays more than some other job even if that person cannot stand other workers on that job	209	2.28
Valid N (listwise)	209	

5. Pride-in-work

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
One who does a sloppy job at work should feel a little ashamed of oneself.	209	4.43
A worker should feel some responsibility to do a decent job, whether or not the supervisor is around.	209	4.72
There is nothing wrong with doing a poor job at work if one can get away with it.	209	3.94
There is nothing as satisfying as doing the best job possible.	209	4.55
One who feels no sense of pride in one's work is probably unhappy.	209	4.04
Only a fool worries about doing a job well, since it is important only that you do your job well enough not to get fired	209	3.55
One should feel a sense of pride in one's work.	209	4.30
The most important thing about a job is liking the work.	209	4.55
Doing a good job should mean as much to a worker as a good paycheck.	209	3.68
Valid N (listwise)	209	

6. Job involvement

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Most companies have suggestion boxes for their workers, but I doubt that the companies take these suggestions seriously.	209	3.54
A good worker cares about finding ways to improve the job, and when one has an idea, one should pass it on to the superv	209	4.16
One who has an idea about how to improve one's job should drop a note in the company's suggestion box.	209	3.81
A good worker is interested in helping a new worker learn the job.	209	4.49
If a worker has a choice between going to the company picnic or staying at home, the worker would probably be better off	209	3.00
Even if a worker has a very low-level job, it is still possible for the worker to make suggestions which will affect com	209	4.34
Once a week after the workday is over, a company may have their workers get together in groups for the purpose of discus	209	3.84
If something is wrong with the job, a smart worker will mind his or her own business and let somebody else about it.	209	3.35
One should do one's own job and forget about such things as company meeings and company activities.	209	3.79
Valid N (listwise)	209	

Job Satisfactions' mean of Sales Personnel

1. Work on present job

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Fascinating	208	2.64
Routine	208	2.28
Satisfying	208	2.27
Boring	208	1.73
Good	208	2.52
Creative	208	2.22
Respected	208	2.30
Uncomfortable	208	2.12
Unpleasant	208	1.67
Useful	208	2.62
Tiring	208	2.14
Healthful	208	1.55
Challenging	208	2.39
Too much to do	208	2.08
Frustrating	208	2.32
Simple	208	1.52
Repetitive	208	2.00
Give sense of accomplishment	208	2.10
Valid N (listwise)	208	

2. Present pay

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Income adequate for normal expenses	208	1.90
Fair	208	2.08
barely live on income	208	2.19
bad	208	1.43
Income provides luxuries	208	1.24
Insecure	208	1.50
Less than I deserve	208	1.88
Well paid	208	1.51
Underpaid	208	2.01
Valid N (listwise)	208	

3. Opportunities for promotion

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Good opportunities for promotion	208	1.93
Opportunities somewhat limited	208	2.18
Promotion on ability	208	2.06
Dead-end job	208	1.62
Good chance for promotion	208	1.52
Unfair promotion policy	208	1.87
Infrequent promotions	208	2.42
Regular promotions	208	1.56
Fairly good chance for promotion	208	1.65
Valid N (listwise)	208	

4. Supervision

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Asks my advice	208	1.73
Hard to please	208	1.88
Impolite	208	1.25
Praises good work	208	2.35
Tactful	208	2.16
Influential	208	2.65
Up-to-date	208	2.24
Doesn't supervise enough	208	2.01
Has favorites	208	2.29
Tells me where I stand	208	2.28
Annoying	208	1.71
Stubborn	208	1.83
Knows job well	208	2.36
Bad	208	1.41
Intelligent	208	2.31
Poor planner	208	1.78
Around when needed	208	2.31
Laxy	208	1.29
Valid N (listwise)	208	

5. Co-workers

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Stimulating	208	2.41
Boring	208	1.76
Slow	208	1.77
Helpful	208	2.62
Stupid	208	1.76
Responsible	208	2.58
Fast	208	1.99
Intelligent	208	2.51
Easy to make enemies	208	1.68
Talk too much	208	2.13
Smart	208	2.43
Lazy	208	1.58
Unpleasant	208	1.70
Gossipy	208	1.91
Active	208	2.33
Narrow Interests	208	1.89
Loyal	208	2.54
Stubborn	208	2.00
Valid N (listwise)	208	

6. Job in general

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Pleasant	208	2.51
Bad	208	1.41
Ideal	208	1.92
Waste of time	208	1.57
Good	208	2.51
Undesirable	208	1.39
Worthwhile	208	2.61
Worse than most	208	1.53
Acceptable	208	2.50
Superior	208	2.11
Better than most	208	2.58
Disagreeable	208	1.62
Makes me content	208	2.30
Inadequate	208	1.61
Excellent	208	1.95
Rotten	208	1.32
Enjoyable	208	2.27
Poor	208	2.63
Valid N (listwise)	208	

Work Values' mean of Sales Personnel

1. Social status of the job

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
One of the reasons that I work is to make my family respect me.	208	3.82
A person dose not deserve respect just because the person has a good job.	208	4.18
A job with prestige is not necessarily a better job than one which does not have prestige.	208	4.03
My friends would not think much of me if I did not have a good job.	208	4.11
Prestige should not be a factor in choosing a job.	208	3.75
The person who holds down a good job is the most respected person in the neighborhood.	208	3.86
Having a good job makes a person more worthy of praise from friends and family.	208	4.10
As far as my friends are concerned, it could not make any difference if I worked regularly or only once in a while.	208	4.01
Even though they make the same amount of money, the person who works in an office has a more impressive job than the per	208	3.35
Valid N (listwise)	208	

2. Activity preference

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
A job which requires the employee to be busy during the day is better than a job which allows a lot of loafing.	208	3.84
If a person can get away with it, that person should try to work just a little slower than the boss expects.	208	4.06
The best job that a worker can get is one which permits the worker to do almost nothing during the work day.	208	3.95
When an employee can get away with it, the employee should take it easy.	208	3.99
A person who takes long rest pauses, is probably a poor worker.	208	3.69
A person would soon grow tired of loafing on a job and would probably be happier if he or she worked hard.	208	3.65
If a person is given a choice between jobs which pay the same money, the person should choose the one which requires as	208	3.83
A person should try to stay busy all day rather than find ways to get out of doing work.	208	4.18
If a worker keeps himself busy on the job, the working day passes more quickly than if the worker were loafing.	208	4.45
Valid N (listwise)	208	

3. Upward striving

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Even if a person has a good job, the person should always be looking for a better job.	208	4.09
In choosing a job, a person ought to consider chances for advancement as well as other factors.	208	4.62
One should always be thinking about pulling oneself up in the world and should work hard with the hope of being promoted	208	4.20
If a person likes the job, the person should be satisfied with it and should not push for a promotion to another job.	208	3.07
The trouble with too many people is that when they find a job in which they are respects, they don't try to get a better	208	3.55
A person who turns down a promotion is probably making a mistake.	208	3.36
A promotion to higher-level usually means more worries and should be avoided for that reason.	208	3.67
A well paying job that offers opportunity for advancement is not a good job for me.	208	3.69
One is better off if one is satisfied with one's own job and is not concerned about being promoted to another job.	208	3.20
Valid N (listwise)	208	

4. Attitude toward earning

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
A person should hold a second job to bring in extra money if the person can get it.	208	3.99
A person should choose a job which pays the most.	208	3.92
If I were paid by the hour, I would probably turn down most offers to make extra money by working overtimes.	208	3.10
A person should take the job which offers the most overtime if the regular pay on the jobs is about the same.	208	3.26
A person should choose one job over another mostly because of the higher wages.	208	3.93
The only good part of most jobs is the paycheck.	208	3.58
When someone is looking for a job, money should not be the most important consideration.	208	3.30
A good job is a well paying job.	208	3.01
A person should take a job that pays more than some other job even if that person cannot stand other workers on that job	208	2.36
Valid N (listwise)	208	

5. Pride-in-work

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
One who does a sloppy job at work should feel a little ashamed of oneself.	208	4.27
A worker should feel some responsibility to do a decent job, whether or not the supervisor is around.	208	4.62
There is nothing wrong with doing a poor job at work if one can get away with it.	208	3.88
There is nothing as satisfying as doing the best job possible.	208	4.56
One who feels no sense of pride in one's work is probably unhappy.	208	4.09
Only a fool worries about doing a job well, since it is important only that you do your job well enough not to get fired	208	3.50
One should feel a sense of pride in one's work.	208	4.31
The most important thing about a job is liking the work.	208	4.60
Doing a good job should mean as much to a worker as a good paycheck.	208	3.57
Valid N (listwise)	208	

6. Job involvement

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean
Most companies have suggestion boxes for their workers, but I doubt that the companies take these suggestions seriously.	208	3.76
A good worker cares about finding ways to improve the job, and when one has an idea, one should pass it on to the superv	208	4.21
One who has an idea about how to improve one's job should drop a note in the company's suggestion box.	208	4.00
A good worker is interested in helping a new worker learn the job.	208	4.44
If a worker has a choice between going to the company picnic or staying at home, the worker would probably be better off	208	2.89
Even if a worker has a very low-level job, it is still possible for the worker to make suggestions which will affect com	208	4.14
Once a week after the workday is over, a company may have their workers get together in groups for the purpose of discus	208	3.63
If something is wrong with the job, a smart worker will mind his or her own business and let somebody else about it.	208	2.79
One should do one's own job and forget about such things as company meeings and company activities.	208	3.98
Valid N (listwise)	208	

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