NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY FACULTY OF ECONOMICS AND ADMINISTRATIVE SCIENCES DEPARTMENT OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

RESEARCH METHODS IN ADMINISTRATIVE SCIENCES (MAN400)

GRADUATION PROJECT

PERCEPTION OF WORK ETHIC AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

SUBMITTED BY:

MUSTAFA TAMAY (20033147)

SUBMITTED TO:

YRD. DOÇ. DR TAHİR YEŞİLADA

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ABSTRACT

Orientation and attitudes toward work are important issues in the workplace where fierce

global competation and demands for increased productivity threaten virtually every business

and industry. Managers and executives perceive an erosion of work ethic by America's young

people and claim that today's university students have no realistic concept of "a day's work

for a day's pay".

The purpose of this study, therefore, was to determine the perceptions of work ethic among

university students and further, to determine if differences in work ethic exist based on the

variables gender, age, planned occupational, work experience, work attitudes, and income

level. The total number of students analyzed as part of the study was 200.

KEY WORDS: Work ethics, Gender, Age, Work attitudes, Planned occupation

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SECTION I

PROBLEM FORMULATION

1.1 Introduction

This section introduces the problem situation, the problem statement, the purpose of the study, and the objectives set for the study.

1.2 The problem situation

This study sought to examine university students self-perceptions toward the occupational work ethic and to make several comparisons based on data collected. The study also summarizes the factors that affect work ethics of students. There exists in society a perception that today's young people do not the meaning of the term "a day's work for a day's pay" (National Center, 1998)

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is to measure work ethic of students in faculty of Economics and Administrative Science at Near East University.

1.4 Objectives set for the study

The objectives of this study were to:

Describe university students in Faculty of Economic and Administrative Science at
Near East University demographically according to gender, nationality, department,
CGPA, planned occupational, age, current employment status, length of employment
and income level.

- 2. Determine perceptions of university students in Faculty Economic and Administrative science at Near East University regarding their own occupational work ethic as measured by the occupational work ethic inventory (OWEI) (Petty, 1993). This instrument is a measure of one's self-expressed work habits, attitudes and values. The 50 items or descriptors contained in the inventory represent essential work ethic concepts and attitudes developed from previous research by Hatcher (1995), Petty and Hill (1994), and Petty (1995a).
- 3. Determine if differences exist in occupational work ethic perceptions on the OWEI based on the following selected demographic variables:
 - a) Gender
 - b) Nationality
 - c) Department
 - d) CGPA
 - e) Planned occupational
 - f) Age
 - g) Current employment status
 - h) Lenght of employment
 - i) Income level

1.5 Conclusion

This section reviewed introduction, the problem situation, the purpose of the study, objectives set for the study.

SECTION II

LITERATURE REVIEW: PERCEPTIONS OF WORK ETHIC AMONG UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

2.1 Introduction

This section is purpose to identify of literature on perception of work ethics among university students.

2.2 Definition of work ethic

Work ethic is a set of values based on the moral virtues of hard work and diligence. It is also a belief in moral benefit of work and its ability to enhance character. A work ethic may include being reliable, having initiative or maintaining social skills. (Daniel, 1978)

The work ethic is a cultural norm that advocates being personally accountable and responsible for the work that one does and is based on a belief that work has intrinsic value. (Cherrington, 1980; Yankelovich & Immerwahr, 1984)

The definition of the term 'work ethic' has evolved overtime, having had an interesting history. Coming originally from the work of max Weber (1904-1905), work ethic was regarded as a belief in hard work for its intrinsic value. It was a cultural norm that promoted being accountable and responsible for the quality and quantity of work performed (Cherrington, 1980; Colson & Eckerd, 1991; Quinn, 1983; Yankelovich & Immerwahr, 1984).

According to Barbash (1983): The work ethic has no fixed definition, but the fallowing key ideas and meanings suggest the ways the concept is used: 1) Work as an end in itself which is expected to be rewarded eventually with material success; key meanings under this head include the centrality of work, the dignity of work however menial, work as a calling; 2) pride in good quality workmanship, hard work, 'an instinct of workmanship,' satisfaction in work; and 3) adherence to the discipline of work; punctuality, obedience, diligence, industriousness.(McCrocken&Falcon-Emmanuelli,1994) P. 5.

2.3 History of work ethic

Attitudes Toward Work During the Classical Period

One of the significant influences on the culture of the western world has been the Judeo-Christian belief system. Growing awareness of the multicultural dimensions of contemporary society has moved educators to consider alternative viewpoints and perspectives, but an understanding of western thought is an important element in the understanding of the history of the United States.

The Greeks, like the Hebrews, also regarded work as a curse (Maywood, 1982). According to Tilgher (1930), the Greek word for work was *ponos*, taken from the Latin *poena*, whichmeant sorrow. Manual labor was for slaves. The cultural norms allowed free men to pursue warfare, large-scale commerce, and the arts, especially architecture or sculpture (Rose, 1985).

Mental labor was also considered to be work and was denounced by the Greek The mechanical arts were deplored because they required a person to use practical thinking, "brutalizing the mind till it was unfit for thinking of truth" (Tilgher, 1930, p. 4). Skilled crafts

were accepted and recognized as having some social value, but were not regarded as much better than work appropriate for slaves. Hard work, whether due to economic need or under the orders of a master, was disdained.

Braude (1975) described the Greek belief that a person's prudence, morality, and wisdom was directly proportional to the amount of leisure time that person had. A person who worked, when there was no need to do so, would run the risk of obliterating the distinction between slave and master. Leadership, in the Greek state and culture, was based on the work a person didn't have to do, and any person who broke this cultural norm was acting to subvert the state itself.

Attitudes Toward Work During the Medieval Period

The fall of the Roman empire marked the beginning of a period generally known as the Middle Ages. During this time, from c400 AD until c1400 AD, Christian thought dominated the culture of Europe (Braude, 1975). Woven into the Christian conceptions about work, however, were Hebrew, Greek, and Roman themes. Work was still perceived as punishment by God for man's original sin, but to this purely negative view was added the positive aspect of earnings which prevented one from being reliant on the charity of others for the physical needs of life (Tilgher, 1930). Wealth was recognized as an opportunity to share with those who might be less fortunate and work which produced wealth therefore became acceptable.

In the culture of the medieval period, work still held no intrinsic value. The function of work was to meet the physical needs of one's family and community, and to avoid idleness which would lead to sin (Tilgher, 1930). Work was a part of the economic structure of human society which, like all other things, was ordered by God.

Protestant ethic, also called the work ethic, is a code of morals based on the principles of thrift, discipline, hard work, and individualism. The adjective Protestant is explained by the fact that these qualities were seen to have been especially encouraged by the Protestant religion, especially those denominations based on the tenets of Calvinism. The major formulators of the concept of the Protestant ethic were the German political philosopher and sociologist Max Weber and the English historian Richard H. Tawney. Both men saw a close relationship between the Protestant ethic and the rise of capitalism. With the Reformation, a period of religious and political upheaval in western Europe during the sixteenth century, came a new perspective on work. Two key religious leaders who influenced the development of western culture during this period were Martin Luther and John Calvin. Luther was an Augustinian friar who became discontent with the Catholic church and was a leader within the Protestant movement. He believed that people could serve God through their work, that the professions were useful, that work was the universal base of society and the cause of differing social classes, and that a person should work diligently in their own occupation and should not try to change from the profession to which he was born. To do so would be to go against God's laws since God assigned each person to his own place in the social hierarchy (Lipset, 1990; Tilgher, 1930).

Calvin taught that all men must work, even the rich, because to work was the will of God. It was the duty of men to serve as God's instruments here on earth, to reshape the world in the fashion of the Kingdom of God, and to become a part of the continuing process of His creation (Braude, 1975). Men were not to lust after wealth, possessions, or easy living, but were to reinvest the profits of their labor into financing further ventures. Earnings were thus to be reinvested over and over again, *ad infinitum*, or to the end of time (Lipset, 1990). Using

profits to help others rise from a lessor level of subsistence violated God's will since persons could only demonstrate that they were among the Elect through their own labor (Lipset, 1990).

The Work Ethic and the Rise of Capitalism

During the medieval period, the feudal system became the dominant economic structure in Europe. This was a social, economic, and political system under which landowners provided governance and protection to those who lived and worked on their property. Centralization of government, the growth of trade, and the establishment of economically powerful towns, during the fifteenth century, provided alternative choices for subsistence, and the feudal system died out (*Webster Encyclopedia*, 1985). One of the factors that made the feudal system work was the predominant religious belief that it was sinful for people to seek work other than within the God ordained occupations fathers passed on to their sons. With the Protestant Reformation, and the spread of a theology which ordained the divine dignity of *all* occupations as well as the right of *choosing* one's work, the underpinnings of an emerging capitalist economic system were established.

The Protestant ethic, which gave "moral sanction to profit making through hard work, organization, and rational calculation" (Yankelovich, 1981, p. 247), spread throughout Europe and to America through the Protestant sects. In particular, the English Puritans, the French Huguenots, and the Swiss and Dutch Reformed subscribed to Calvinist theology that was especially conducive to productivity and capital growth (Lipset, 1990). As time passed, attitudes and beliefs which supported hard work became secularized, and were woven into the norms of Western culture (Lipset, 1990; Rodgers, 1978; Rose, 1985; Super, 1982). Weber (1904, 1905) especially emphasized the popular writings of Benjamin Franklin as an example

of how, by the eighteenth century, diligence in work, scrupulous use of time, and deferment of pleasure had become a part of the popular philosophy of work in the Western world.

The Work Ethic in America

Although the Protestant ethic became a significant factor in shaping the culture and society of Europe after the sixteenth century, its impact did not eliminate the social hierarchy which gave status to those whose wealth allowed exemption from toil and made gentility synonymous with leisure (Rodgers, 1978). The early adventurers who first found America were searching, not for a place to work and build a new land, but for a new Eden where abundance and riches would allow them to follow Aristotle's instruction that leisure was the only life fitting for a free man. The New England Puritans, the Pennsylvania Quakers, and others of the Protestant sects, who eventually settled in America, however, came with no hopes or illusions of a life of ease.

Work in preindustrial America was not incessant, however. The work of agriculture was seasonal, hectic during planting and harvesting but more relaxed during the winter months. Even in workshops and stores, the pace was not constant. Changing demands due to the seasons, varied availability of materials, and poor transportation and communication contributed to interruptions in the steadiness of work. The work ethic of this era did not demand the ceaseless regularity which came with the age of machines, but supported sincere dedication to accomplish those tasks a person might have before them. The work ethic "was not a certain rate of business but a way of thinking" (Rodgers, 1978, p. 19).

The Work Ethic and the Industrial Revolution

As work in America was being dramatically affected by the industrial revolution in the midnineteenth century, the work ethic had become secularized in a number of ways. The idea of
work as a *calling* had been replaced by the concept of public usefulness. Economists warned
of the poverty and decay that would befall the country if people failed to work hard, and
moralists stressed the social duty of each person to be productive (Rodgers, 1978). Schools
taught, along with the alphabet and the spelling book, that idleness was a disgrace. The work
ethic also provided a sociological as well as an ideological explanation for the origins of
social hierarchy through the corollary that effort expended in work would be rewarded
(Gilbert, 1977).

Some elements of the work ethic, however, did not bode well with the industrial age. One of the central themes of the work ethic was that an individual could be the master of his own fate through hard work. Within the context of the craft and agricultural society this was true. A person could advance his position in life through manual labor and the economic benefits it would produce. Manual labor, however, began to be replaced by machine manufacture and intensive division of labor came with the industrial age. As a result, individual control over the quantity and methods of personal production began to be removed (Gilbert, 1977).

The factory system also threatened the promise of economic reward--another key premise of the work ethic. The output of products manufactured by factories was so great that by the 1880's industrial capacity exceeded that which the economy could absorb (Rodgers, 1978). Under the system of home and workshop industries, production had been a virtue, and excess goods were not a problem. Now that factories could produce more than the nation could use, hard work and production no longer always provided assurance of prosperity.

factory owners to hold costs down. The model of management which developed, the model, was characterized by a very authoritarian style which did not acknowledge work ethic. To the contrary, Daft and Steers (1986) described this model as holding "that average worker was basically lazy and was motivated almost entirely by money (p. 93)."

To the scientific management concept was developed, predicated on specialization and division of jobs into simple tasks. Scientific management was claimed to increase worker production and result in increased pay. It was therefore seen as beneficial to workers, as well to the company, since monetary gain was viewed as the primary motivating factor for both.

By the end of World War II scientific management was considered inadequate and outdated to deal with the needs of industry (Jaggi, 1988). At this point the behaviorist school of thought emerged to provide alternative theories for guiding the management of workers. Contrary to the principles of scientific management, the behaviorists argued that workers were not intrinsically lazy. They were adaptive. If the environment failed to provide a challenge, workers became lazy, but if appropriate opportunities were provided, workers would become creative and motivated.

In the late 1950's job enrichment theories began to provide the basis for fundamental changes in employer-employee relationships. Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) identified factors such as achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and personal growth which, when provided as an intrinsic component of a job, tended to motivate workers to perform better. Factors such as salary, company policies, supervisory style, working

and relations with fellow workers tended to impair worker performance if madequately provided for, but did not particularly improve worker motivation when present.

for a management style conducive to achieving job enrichment for workers was [Jaggi, 1988]. Theory "X" referred to the authoritarian management style conducive to achieving job enrichment for workers was management of the authoritarian management style conducive to achieving job enrichment for workers was management of the authoritarian management style conductive to achieving job enrichment for workers was management of the authoritarian management style of management.

The Work Ethic in the Information Age

Just as the people of the mid-nineteenth century encountered tremendous cultural and social change with the dawn of the industrial age, the people of the late twentieth century experienced tremendous cultural and social shifts with the advent of the information age.

Toffler (1980) likened these times of change to waves washing over the culture, bringing with it changes in norms and expectations, as well as uncertainty about the future.

Yankelovich and Immerwahr (1984) contrasted the work required of most people during the industrial age with the work of the information age. Industrial age jobs were typically low-discretion, required little decision making, and were analyzed and broken into simple tasks which required very little thinking or judgement on the part of workers. Information age jobs, in contrast, were high-discretion and required considerable thinking and decision making on the part of workers (Miller, 1986). In the workplace characterized by high-discretion, the work ethic became a much more important construct than it was during the manipulative era of machines. Maccoby (1988) emphasized the importance, in this setting, of giving employees authority to make decisions which would meet the needs of customers as well as support the goals of their own companies.

According the Yankelovich and Harmon (1988), the work ethic of the 1980's stressed skill, challenge, autonomy, recognition, and the quality of work produced. Autonomy was identified as a particularly important factor in worker satisfaction with their jobs. Motivation work involved trust, caring, meaning, self-knowledge, challenge, opportunity for personal growth, and dignity (Maccoby, 1988; Walton, 1974). Workers were seeking control over their work and a sense of empowerment and many information age jobs were conducive to meeting these needs. As a result, the work ethic was not abandoned during the information age, but was transformed to a state of relevance not found in most industrial age occupations.

2.4 Student's perception of work ethics

Hill's (1996) research focused on secondary student perceptions regarding work ethic. His study concluded that vocational high school students scored significiantly lower on work ethic perception of initiative and dependability than did employed workers. Hurt and Holen (1976) and Kapes and Strickler (1975) indicated that work values appear to have a good deal of stability throughout the adolescent years, with strong values getting stronger and weak values becoming weaker, and finally stabilizing by late adolescence. A Reliastar Survey (1994) revealed characteristics most often mentioned by human resources and customer service managers as the greatest inadequacies in entry-level job applicants right out of high scool.

Relative to college students, another study (Wentworth & Chell, 1997) found that American college students scored high in possessing a strong work ethic and that their work ethic scores decreased as age increased. Research involving adolescents in sweden found intrinsic work goals to be strong (Hagstrom & Gamberale, 1995). McEwen (1997) recommended that

ethic. They are often the driving force for professionals who are willing to make the extra effort to build successful careers" (p. 45).

2.5 Gender Differences Regarding Work Ethic

McCracken and Falcon-Emannuelli (1994) also found that the perceptions of men and women regarding work ethic were different. Educational situation where the instructor and student are of different sexes shed an interesting perspective on how work ethic is perceived. In the case, it becomes extremely important for the instructor to have understanding of the perceptions of their students to assist them in vocational preparation. (Petty & Hill, 1994)

The more knowledge an educator has of work ethic perception differences which exist by gender, he or she can more appropriately give vocational advice, especially regarding students pursuing occupations previously dominated by the opposite gender. (Abu-saad & Isralowitz, 1997)

2.6 Conclusion

This section has conducted a review of literature on perception of work ethics among university students. Next section describes theoretical framework of work ethics.

SECTION III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This section depicts the theoretical framework adapted by this study to explore the work ethics of the student in faculty of economics and administrative sciences at NEU. The identified variables affecting the problem situation and a theoretical are also explained in this section.

3.2 Variables affecting work ethics

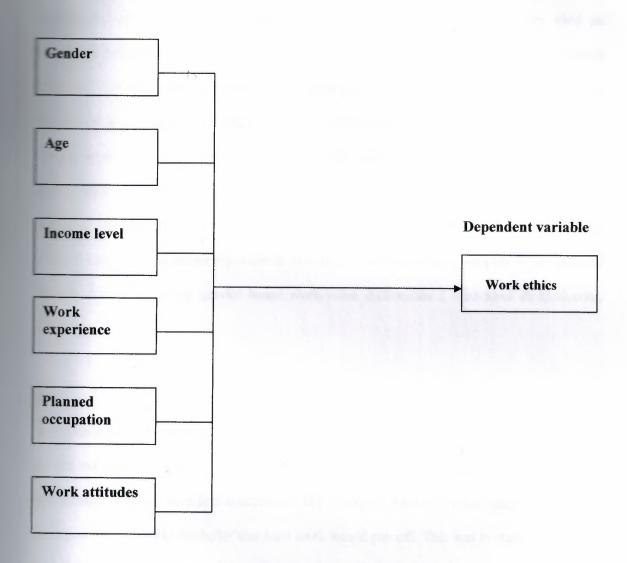
Hill (1997) concluded that the extend to which factors such as gender, age, occupational, and work experience appear to influence work ethic and attitudes is valuable information in increasing the understanding of workplace dynamics. Hill (1997) expressed it this way: with the increasing diversity of the student population now participating in workforce preparation programs, whether retraining displaced workers or preparing learners for initial entry into the workplace, awareness of the potential attitudinal differences among participants with different demographic profiles would also increase an instructor's ability to provide effective guidance and instruction (pp. 5-6). In reviewing the literature, the variables gender, age, planned occupation, work experience, income level and work attitudes.

Research investigations on the effects of demographic variables such as gender, age, level of education, and length of full-time employment on occupational work ethic have been reported in the literature with differing results. A number of studies in the past 20 years reported that females are more likely to exhibit better work attitudes than their male counterparts (Azam, 2002; Petty & Hill, 1994; Hill, 1997; Hall, 1990, 1991; Furnham & Muhiudeen, 1984;

Adag & Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1992) between education and work attitudes. In a recent study, Boatwright and Slate Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1992) between education and work attitudes. In a recent study, Boatwright and Slate Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1979) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1975; Buchholz, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1992) between education and work attitudes. In a recent study, Boatwright and Slate Brief, 1978; MacDonald, 1979; Brief, 1978; MacDonald, 1979; Brief, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Tang & Brief, 1975; Brief, 1975; Brief, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Brief, 1978; MacDonald, 1972) or negative relationships (Brief, 1978; Brief, #### 3.3 Theoratical model on work ethics of students

Figure 3.1 A model of work ethics students

Independent Variables



Gender

and Hill (1994) reported that in one study female workers rated themselves as having a light work ethic than did male workers. McCracken and falcon — Emannuelli (1994) also found that the perceptions of men and women regarding work ethic were different. Educational situation where the instructor and student are of different sexes shed an interesting perspective on how work ethic is perceived. In this case, it becomes extremely important for the instructor to have an understanding of the perceptions of their students to assist them in vocational preparation (Petty & Hill, 1994). The more knowledge an educator has of work ethic perception differences which exist by gender, he or she can more appropriately give vocational advice, especially regarding students pursuing occupations previously dominated by the opposite gender. Conversely, a study of gender as a determinant of work values among university students in israel did not consistently support the traditioanal western theory regarding gender based work-value differences (Abu-Saad & Isralowitz, 1997).

Age

Does perception of work ethic change with age? Studies have revealed mixed results. Deans (1972) indicated that younger workers viewed work differently than older workers, findings that younger workers were less accepting of the concept of hard as a virtue and a duty and not having as much faith in the belief that hard work would pay off. This was in sharp constract to how their parents and grandparents had felt about the concept of hard work.

Petty (1995a) also found that work ethic differed according to age. Adults aged 36-55 experienced higher levels of ambition than did adults from other age groups. In addition, this study found this age group to be "less apathetic, more conscientious, persevering, persistent, and resourceful, and less irresponsible and negligent" (p. 138).

Work experience

& Chell (1997) reported that work experience negatively affects work ethic secretions, indicating that older workers have weaker attitudes about work.

Planned occupation

Does the type of job or planned occupation affect work ethic attitudes? Occupational is not a value in and of itself, but is made on the basis of values (Rosenberg, 1957). Petty (1995b) indicated that self-rated perception of work ethic did differ by occupations. Recognizing any differences that exist relative to occupation can provide important information in the training of employees in the work force.

Work attitudes

Work attitudes can be measured by administering an appropriate standardized instrument to the employee. However, in an actual workplace the supervisor, rather than the employee, isusually the rater. A supervisor's rating of an employee's work attitudes seems intuitively to have value because employee attitudes manifested in the working environment are morevisible to the supervisor than to the employee, and supervisor opinions have greater ecological veracity (Pinneau & Milton, 1958) than self-ratings. The previously mentioned studies had one characteristic in common: they measured *self-rated* work attitudes. For this study, responses were obtained from supervisors regarding information and noninformation employees that they supervised. The Occupational Work Ethic Inventory (OWEI) (Petty, 1993) was used to obtain data.

24 Objectives of the study

The objectives of this study were to:

- Describe university students in faculty of economic and administrative science at NEU demographically according to gender, nationality, department, CGPA, planned occupational, age, current employment status, length of employment and income level.
- 5. Determine perceptions of university students in faculty economic and administrative science at NEU regarding their own occupational work ethic as measured by the occupational work ethic inventory (OWEI) (Petty, 1993). This instrument is a measure of one's self-expressed work habits, attitudes and values. The 50 items or descriptors contained in the inventory represent essential work ethic concepts and attitudes developed from previous research by Hatcher (1995), Petty and Hill (1994), and Petty (1995a).
- 6. Determine if differences exist in occupational work ethic perceptions on the OWEI based on the following selected demographic variables:
 - a) Gender
 - b) Nationality
 - c) Department
 - d) CGPA
 - e) Planned occupational
 - f) Age
 - g) Current employment status
 - h) Lenght of employment
 - i) Income level

3.5 Conclusion

This section described variables affecting work ethics, theoretical framework of the study and effectives of study.

SECTION IV

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This section depicts the methodology of the proposed study and defines sources of data, measuring instrument as a data collection method and research design.

4.2 Sources of data

4.2.1 Secondary sources

Secondary data refer to information gathered by someone other than research conducting the current study. Such data can be internal or external to the organization and accessed through the internet or perusal of recorded or published information (Sekaran, 2003). Such information was collected from articles, internet, books and other archival records.

4.2.2 Primary sources

"Primarly data refer to information obtained by the researcher on the variables of interest for the specific purpose of the study. Primary data sources are individuals, focus groups, panels of respondents specifically set up by the researcher and from whom opinions may be sought on specific issues from time to time, or some unobtrusive sources such as a trash can. The internet could also serve as a primary data source when questionnaires are administered over it" (Sekaran, 2003). This paper propesed to make in- depth interviews with the students in Faculty of Economics and Administrative sciences at Near East University. In addition as the main instrument for data collection a questionnaire was used. In order to support the

Secretical framework developed, it is decided to carry out interviews with the students in Faculty of Economics and Administrative sciences at Near East University.

43 The Sample

sampling technique is non-probability sampling technique. The Sampling method was used convenience sampling. The survey instrument was filled in by Business students, Economics students, Banking and Finace students, Computer Information System students, and International Relationship students.

4.4 Measuring Instrument

The dependent variable, work ethic was measured using 5 items from the spector occupational work ethic inventory. A 5 – point Likert response format ranging from (1) "never" to (5) "always" was utilized. The questionnaire was divided into two sections. The first section of the survey asked demographic questions like gender, nationality, department, CGPA, future career, age, current employment status, length of employment and Income level. Section 2 measured student work ethics with there were 50 questions available in the instrument. The original survey questionnaire is provided in the appendix. The scale contains 50 items and uses a summated rating scale format.

4.5 Reliability and Validity of Measuring Instrument

The reability of a measure indicates the extent to which it is without bias (error free) and hence ensures consistent measurement across time and across the various items in the instrument. In other word, the reability of a measure is an indication of the stability and consistency with which the instrument measures the concept and helps to assess the "goodness" of a measure (Sekaran 2003).

4.6 Research design

4.6.1 Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is descriptive study because a descriptive study is undertaken in order to ascertain and be able to describe the charecteristics of the variables of interest in a situation (Sekaran 2003). The purpose of this study is to investigate work ethics of the students in Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences at Near East University.

4.6.2 The type of investigation

The type of investigation is correlational study because when researcher is interested in delineating the important variables associates with the problem, the study is called a correlation study (Sekaran 2003). This study was try to determine which variables affect each other on work ethics of the students in Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences at Near East University.

4.6.3 The extend of researcher interference

This study is related in the natural environment of the organization with minimum interference. A correlational study is conducted in the natural environment of the organization with minimum interference by the researcher with normal flow of work (Sekaran, 2003).

4.6.4 The study setting

This investigation is done in natural environment of the organization so that the study setting is non-contrived setting and also correlational studies are invariably conducted is nonconducted settings (Sekaran 2003). The proposed study focused field correlation studies done in organizations are field studies (Sekaran 2003).

455 Time Horizon

The study was made cross-sectional nature, because a study can be done in which data pattered just once, perhaps over a period of days or weeks months in order to answer a research question (Sekaran 2003).

4.6.6 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis refers to the level of aggregation of data collected during the subsequent analysis stage (Sekaran 2003). The unit of analysis was individual students at NEU.

4.7 Conclusion

This section introduces the sources of data (secondary and primary sources), the sample, measuring instrument, Reliability and validity of the instrument, research design (purpose of the study, types of study, extend of researcher's interferences, the study setting, time horizon, unit of analysis).

SECTION V

FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

An overview of the results obtained in the study are presented and discussed in this section. The section also outlines the demographic information depicted in table format. The descriptive and inferential statistics are presented thereafter. The alpha level of .05 was selected a priori for test of significance for correlations.

5.2 Demographic Information in terms of the sample

The chapter commences with an analyses of the biographical data gathered from the research sample (n = 200). The data analyzed were presented in the table form. This is followed by a description of the most salient sample characteristics by frequencies and percentages.

Table 5.1 Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Gender		Distribution
Cender		
Utiliuci		
Male	120	60
Female	80	40
Age		
18-20	13	6.5
21-23	86	43
24-26	95	47.5
27-30	5	2.5
31 and older	1	0.5
Income		
0-500	47	24.1
501-750	93	47.7
751-1.000	46	23.6
1.001 and above	9	4.6
Nationality		
Turkey	104	52
TRNC	92	46
Other	4	2
Department		
Business	81	40.5
Economics	27	13.5
CIS	2.7	13.5
nt. Relations	22	11
Banking and Finance	43	21.5
CGPA		
1.01-1.50	8	4.7
1.51-2.00	50	29.6
2.01- 2.50	69	40.8
2.51-3.00	32	18.9
3.01-3.50	9	5.3
3.51-4.00	1	.6
uture Career		
Sales person	5	2.5
Banking	38	19.0
Finance and Acc.	47	23.5
Business	63	31.5
Other	47	23.5

Demographic findings

has show in table, male respondents comprised approximately 60% (n= 120) of the total and respondents comprised approximately 40% (n= 80) of the total.

also be seen in the 6.5 % (n= 13) of subjects were between 18-20 years of age, 43 % were between 21-23 years of age, 47.5 % (n= 95) were between 24-26 years of age, 25 % (n= 5) between 27-30 years of age, 0.5 % were between 31 and above years of age. The age of the respondents showed a higher frequency between the ages of 24-26 47.5 % (n= 95).

The table also indicates the income of the respondents which the higher income were 501-750 YTL n=93 (47.7%). The lowest income were 1.001 and above YTL n=9 (4.6%).

The nationality of respondents showed that the Turkish students were n=104 (52 %), TRNC students were n=92 (46%) and other students were n=4 (2%). The proportion of the students from Turkey, TRNC and other countries reflects the general composition of the students studying in Near East University.

Business students constitute sample's largest group, with the highest percentage of 40.5%, when compared with the other departments.

The CGPA of respondents showed the higher frequency between the CGPA of 2.01-2.50 (n=69, 40.8 %).

The future career of respondents showed that the highest frequency as Business n=63 (31.5%), the lowest frequency as Sales person n=5 (2.5%).

TABLE 5.2 t – Test Analysis Result According to Gender

Statements	Mean	Standard deviation	t	p
Dependable				
Male	3.91	.935	-2.36	.019
Female	4.19	.731		
Effective				
Male	3.77	.753	-2.042	.042
Female	3.99	.684		
Tardy				
Male	3.13	1.100	-2.530	.012
Female	3.55	1.168		
Efficient				
Male	3.82	.756	-2.357	.020
Female	4.06	.700		
Negligent		100 til 2 miles		unicularity of
Male	3.90	.883	-3.182	.002
Female	4.30	.863		
Orderly				
Male	3.83	.729	-2.919	.004
Female	4.13	.700		
Dedicated				
Male	3.76	.830	-2.207	.028
Female	4.00	.636		
Courteous				
Male	3.85	.718	-3.263	.001
Female	4.18	.671		
Loyal				
Male	3.87	.840	-2.226	.027
Female	4.11	.711		

The interview included 50 questions but only 9 statements had statistically significant differences which is summarized in the Table 5.2.

In statement, Q1 "Dependable" the mean score of 3.91 for the respondents male and mean 4.19 for the female respondents. According to this result, there is a statistically significant differences between these two groups. Which means that the female respondents feel more dependable when compared with the respondents.

In statement, Q7 "Effective" the mean score of 3.97 for the male respondents and mean 3.99 for the female respondents. According to this result, there is not a statistically significant differences between these two groups.

In statement, Q9 "Tardy" the mean score of 3.13 for the male respondents and mean 3.55 for the female respondents. According to this result, there is a statistically significant differences between these two groups.

In statement, Q14 "Efficient" the mean score of 3.82 for the male respondents and mean 4.06 for the female respondents. According to this result, there is a statistically significant differences between these two groups. Which means that the female respondents was more efficient when compared with the repondents.

In statement, Q26 "Negligent" the mean score of 3.90 for the male respondents and mean 4.30 for the female respondents. According to this result, there is a statistically significant differences between these two groups. Which means that the female was more negligent when compared with the respondents.

In statement, Q35 "Orderly" the mean score of 3.83 for the male respondents and mean 4.13 for the female respondents. According to this result, there is a statistically significant differences between these two groups. Which means that the female was more orderly when compared with the respondents.

In statement, Q40 "Dedicated" the mean score of 3.76 for the male respondents and mean 4.00 for the female respondents. According to this result, there is a statistically significant differences between these two groups.

In statement, Q42 "Courteous" the mean score of 3.85 for the male respondents and mean 4.18 for the female respondents. According to this results there is a statistically significant differences between these two groups. Which means that the female was more courteous when compared with the respondents.

In statemet, Q48 "Loyal" the mean score of 3.87 for the male and male 4.11 for the female respondents. According to this results there is a statistically significant differences between these two groups. Which means that the female was more loyal when compared with the respondents.

TABLE 5.3 Anova Analysis

TURKEY			NORTHERN CYPRUS			OTHERS					
	N	Mean	St.Dev.		N	Mean	St.Dev.		N	Mean	St.Dev
Q13	104	3.62	1.109	Q13	92	3.46	1.104	Q13	4	2.25	1.893
Q21	104	3.93	.851	Q21	92	3.72	1.170	Q21	4	2.50	1.291
Q25	104	4.18	.833	Q25	92	3.87	.928	Q25	4	4.25	.957
Q40	104	3.71	.759	Q40	92	4.01	.749	Q40	4	4.00	.816

According to Table 5.3, four statements are chosen from 50 which were determined to have statistically significant differences with respect to country of origin. As can be in the table, Question 13 (irresponsible), the reponses of the students from Turkey and TRNC are similar (3.62 and 3.46 respectively), whereas students from other countries responded with a mean value of 2.25 for the same question. The table also shows that significant differences between the students from Turkey and from other countries students. There is so, according to this result Turkish students and TRNC students were more irresponsible than other students.

Question 21 "Depressed", the reponses of students from Turkey and TRNC from other countries responded with a mean value 2.50 for the same question. The table also shows that significant differences between the students from Turkey and from other countries.

Question 25 "selfish", the responses of students from Turkey and other countries are similar (4.18 and 4.25 respectively). Whereas students from TRNC reponses with a mean value 3.87 for the same question. There is so, according to this result the students from Turkey and other countries were more selfish than from TRNC.

Question 40 "Dedicated" The responses of students from TRNC and other countries are similar (4.01 and 4.00 respectively). Whereas students from Turkey responded with a mean value 3.71 for the same question.

5.3 Conclusion

This final section has empirical findings of this study together with the answers of the respondents to objective of the study. Concluding remarks, the limitations and further recommendations for future were also included.

SECTION VI





6.1 Introduction

The objectives of this final chapter is to highlight the contributions that have been made by this study and to provide recommendations.

6.2 Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to determine university students self-perception of work ethic, based on their scores on the Occupational Work Ethic Inventory and to further determine if differences in perception existed based on the nine attribute variables.

The research concluded that based on findings in this study according to there were significant differences in perceptions of work ethic with regard to Dependable, Effective, Tardy, Efficient, Negligent, Orderly, Dedicated, Courteous, and Loyal.

Review of literature, McCracken and Falcon-Emanuelli (1974) also found that the perceptions of man and women regarding work ethic were different.

6.3 Limitation

The research cannot be wide because of the time limit. If there is enough time to prepare a new research, it can be obtained better results with collecting more respondent's answers. Data were collected as soon as possible. The data were collected from selected university students in Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences at Near East University.

6.4 Recommendations for Further Research

- Replication of this study in two or three years is recommended to assess changes
 among the students of Near East University and to suggest recommendations for
 improvement by assessing the results of such a longitudinal study.
- Research on the perception of work ethics in NEU has been analysed in this study but,
 students from the other universities in Northern Cyprus can be conducted and
 compared with the present study.
- Research that investigates the perceptions of work ethics of the students in different geographic areas can also be undertaken to further explore the subject.

6.5 Conclusion

This final section has empirical findings of this study together with the answers to objective of this study. Concluding remarks, the limitations and further recommendations for future were also included.

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APPENDIX

İŞ AHLAKI ENVANTERİ

Cinsiyet:
1. Erkek 2. Kadın
Uyruk :
1. TC 2. KKTC 3. Diğer
Bölümünüz :
Genel not ortalamanız (CGPA) :
Hangi alanda kariyer yapmayı planlıyorsunuz ?
 Satiş elemanı İşletme Diğer Finans-Muhasebe
Yaşınız:
1. 18-20 2. 21-23 3. 24-26 4. 27-30 5. 31- ve üstü
Çalışma durumunuz :
1. Çalışmıyorum 2. Haftada 1-10 saat çalışıyorum
3. Haftada 11-20 saat çalışıyorum 4. Haftada 20 saatten fazla çalışıyorum
Çalışıyorsanız, ne kadar süredir çalışıyorsunuz ?
1. 1 yıldan az 2. 1-2 yıl 3. 3-4 yıl 4. 4 yıldan fazla
Aylık gelir seviyeniz :
1. 0-500 YTL
4. 1,001-ve yukarısı YTL
Aşağıda listelenen iş ahlakı ile ilgili maddeler açısından sizin için en uygun olan
seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Zaman sınırlaması da
yoktur, ancak mümkün olduğunca seri bir şekilde cevaplayınız.
Çalışıyorsanız mevcut işinizi düşünerek, çalışmıyorsanız bir işte çalıştığınızı
varsayarak değerlendirmelerinizi yapınız. İş hayatında kendinizi nasıl
değerlendirirsiniz?

		Hicbirzaman	Arasıra	Bazen	Çoğunlukla	Herzaman
1.	Güvenilir					
2.	İnatçı					
3.	Kuralları takip eden					
4.	Yönlendirmeleri takip ede	en 🔲				
5.	Bağımsız					
6.	Hırslı					
7.	Etkili					
8.	İnanılır					
9.	İşi geciktiren					
10.	İnsiyatif sahibi					
11.	Algılayabilen					
12.	Dürüst					
13.	Sorumsuz					
14.	Verimli					
15.	Uyum sağlayan					
16.	Dikkatli					
17.	Değerbilen, Takdir eden					
18.	Hata yapmayan					
19.	Duygusal yönden istikrar	lı 🗍				
20.	Vicdanlı					
21.	Keyifsiz, Karamsar					
22.	. Sabırlı					
23.	. Dakik, Vaktinde gelen					
	. Hilekar,Üçkağıtçı					
	. Bencil					
26.	. İhmalkar					

	Hicbirzaman	Arasıra	Bazen	Çoğunlukla	Herzaman
27. Azimli					
28. Sempatik					
29. Yardımsever					
30. İlgisiz, Duyarsız					
31. Canayakın					
32. İşbirliği yapan					
33. Yoğun çalışan					
34. Kaba, saygısız					
35. Düzenli					
36. Hevesli, İstekli					
37. Güler yüzlü, Neşeli					
38. Israrcı					
39. Saldırgan					
40. Kendini işine adamış					
41. Sadık, Sadakatli					
42. Kibar, Saygılı					
43. Düşünceli					
44. Dikkatsiz					
45. Üretken					
46. Bakımlı					
47. Dostcanlisi					
48. Sadık					
49. Becerikli, İşi bilen					
50. Alçakgönüllü, Mütevazı					
	_				