

W.P.: 319

# Working Paper

IIM  
WP-319



**INDIAN INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT  
AHMEDABAD**

SURVEY OF LITERATURE ON THE  
ATTITUDES AND VALUES OF THE  
PROFESSIONALS--WITH REFERENCE  
TO THE COUNTRIES IN THE THIRD  
WORLD

By

Mirza S Saiyadain

WP319  
  
WP  
1980  
(319)

W P No. 319

July 1980

The main objective of the working paper series of the IIMA is to help faculty members to test out their research findings at the pre-publication stage.

INDIAN INSTITUTE OF MANAGEMENT  
AHMEDABAD

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author is thankful to the Research & Publication Committee of the Indian Institute of Management, Ahmedabad for funding this project. Mrs. Asmi Arul provided the research help. Her painstaking efforts and a keen eye for details is very gratefully acknowledged. Miss. Sosamma deserves special thanks for perseverance in preparing this report.

## INTRODUCTION

"Most nations today are development minded". Fifteen years ago this was the opening statement of a book on Education, Manpower, and Economic Growth (Harbison & Myers, 1964). In the decade and a half that followed the situation has changed tremendously. For example, today it could be safely stated that all nations are development-minded. The only difference being of the level of development that the nations have been able to achieve.

The developed nations have by and large been able to master resources to provide for the basic needs of the masses. Shortages of food, shelter, clothing and medicines are not the major issues for them. These nations are now aspiring to explore outer space, and bring into subjugation some either unknown and unexplored areas of medical and computer based technologies. On the other hand the ~~loss~~ developed or developing nations are still striving to achieve freedom from poverty, disease, ignorance and domination by more powerful nations. In both cases there is an optimistic conviction that development can take place at a faster rate than what our forefathers might have experienced.

Whether it is the mastery of space or mastery over economic and political insitution, the attitudes of the people, their predispositions and values are going to play a significant role in the process of development, because in the final analysis development is basically the result of human efforts. If, therefore, people are not

willing to bring and accept development, nations may continue to be at a given stage of development and growth and may not make any progress.

Besides the attitudes the nations would also need training and education to equip their professionals to fulfill the national aspirations. Without necessary education, qualified political leaders, doctors, judges, lawyers, managers, engineers, artists, writers and other professionals may not be available and hence the progress of development may come to a stand still. As pointed out by Curle (1962) "Countries are underdeveloped because most of their people are underdeveloped, having had no opportunity of expanding their potential capacities in the service of society". Hence, we see that for development to take place we need the ability and also the willingness on the part of people.

Given that the resources to inculcate ability are available, and in fact most nations are spending time, money and efforts to provide them, the willingness to work and bring about development is more crucial. Hence a study of the attitudes and values of professionals and those in the making becomes of over riding importance.

Since the focus of our study is on the attitudes and values, first an attempt is made to understand what these concepts stand for and how they are explored in the relevant literature. In the following pages therefore, we shall first look at these two concepts and then under another subtitle review literature on the attitudes and values of professionals.

### Attitudes

Many disciplines may be willing to take the credit of introducing their concept of attitude. Technically, however we can trace the concept of attitude to the early days of experimental psychology (late nineteenth century). The social dimension of the concept on the other hand can be said to have arisen since the publication of "Escape from Freedom" by Erich Fromm (1941). Much boost was provided by Adorn<sup>o</sup> et.al (1950) in making attitude popular as a social psychological concept. In management literature the term probably first surfaced in technical literature in the writings of Taylor (1960). By attitude Taylor meant much more than feelings; he meant the workers philosophy ~~concern~~, cooperation with management and their view of their own self interest.

In the social psychological context, one of the early definitions of attitude referred to it as a "mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive and/or dynamic influence upon the individuals' responses to all objects and situations with which he is related" (Allport, 1935). Here the attitude is seen as a state of readiness to act in a certain way evolved on the basis of experience. Subsequent work on the concept identified

the evaluative component when Katz and Allport (1959) defined it as "an individual's tendency or predisposition to evaluate an object or a symbol of that object in a certain way".

Three components of attitude are generally mentioned. Attitudes are conceived of as having affective, cognitive and behavioural components, that is, as involving feelings and emotion, belief, and action. More of one component than another may be present in a given attitude. Some attitudes may be heavily loaded with affective component and may not require any action beyond the expression of feelings. Others may be heavily intellectualized and abstract and may not be used as valid predictors of the course of action that an individual may take, while action oriented attitudes may involve a minimum of beliefs and feelings.

One of the major problems in defining attitudes is that attitudes are not directly observable. They are inferred from action or behaviour. We may roughly describe them as our likes and dislikes, our agreements and disagreements, our affinities and aversions to persons, objects, situations or any other identifiable aspect of our environment, including abstract ideas and social policies (Bem, 1970). However each attitude has a reference point in values, implies consistency, is based on experience and as such is a learned response.

### Values

The greatest boost to the study of values came with the publication of "Types of Men" by Spranger (1928). Spranger contended that there are various types of men who could be identified by one of the six dominant

interests - aesthetic economic, political, social religious and theoretical. Spranger thus equated values with interest. English and English (1958) in the comprehensive dictionary of psychological and psychoanalytical terms defined values as "the worth, or the excellence or the degree of worth ascribed to an object or a class thereof. Though ascribed to an object and reacted to as if external or objective value is a function of the valuing transaction, not of the object."

Implied in the above definition is the concept of desirable. Specifically as viewed by Kluckhohn (1951) it is "a conception implicit or explicit, distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the **desirable** which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of actions". They are thus an important class of beliefs that are shared by members of a culture concerning what is good or desirable. Seen in this light members of a culture exhibit some form of value compatibility, and hence values vary from culture to culture. As pointed out by Tanaka (1972) the common value system is essentially a psychological process that can be demonstrated empirically through the actions and attitudes of individuals within a common value system. Values refer to those "desired" and those "**desirable**" ( Hofstede, 1978).

Many of us have strong personal values which have developed through out our lives and exert a powerful influence over our behaviour. We believe that there is a right and a wrong way of relating with others. Since these are encouraged by social support of like minded people, they are not easy to change although they are not inherited but are developed through the process of specialization. Thus values are seen as a concept of desirability where desirability refers to acceptability either by the individual or by larger society. They are what people prefer, believe and generally feel comfortable with.

#### Attitudes and Values

Perhaps a better grip on the two concepts may come about if we try to compare the two. Here again there seems to be no general agreement. Some authors define values as a broader attitude while others regard values as a component of attitudes. Despite the controversy there seems to be some agreement on the relationship between attitudes and values.

It is agreed that both are culture specific and learned responses and hence may vary from culture to culture. Since they are learned, they may yield themselves to possible modification over the years. On the other hand values are seen as more fundamental than the systems of beliefs and attitudes. In fact both could be placed on a specific general continuum with values representing the more general cultural orientation and attitudes the specific individual orientation. Values are similar to an ideology or philosophy and are more ingrained and stable and less tied to any specific reference object than attitudes (England et.al., 1974). A subtle distinction is made by Klein (1960) who distinguishes them in terms of "feels". According to him one always feels the attitude but not the values. Schaupp (1978) concludes by stating

that values as a concept have a higher level of abstraction than attitudes.

### Survey of Literature

The topic of attitudes and values of the professionals in the West has been thoroughly explored. A number of studies are available that have examined various facets of the attitudes and values of a variety of professionals. Most of these studies have drawn their conclusions on the basis of data collected on American samples. This survey of the literature on attitudes and values of professionals is essentially concerned with those studies that have drawn their samples from other nations particularly those from the Third World countries. For studies on American samples the readers are referred to Rosenberg (1957), Tagiuri (1965) and England (1967, 1978). In addition the following kinds of studies are also reviewed in this survey.

1. This survey is not completely divorced from studies that have used US samples. Cross-cultural studies that have provided comparative data on US and other samples are included in this survey. The conviction is that comparative data provides a richer understanding of the realities of a given sample and helps in comprehending it much better.

2. An attempt is also made to include studies on professionals in the making. Thus researches that have concerned themselves with the attitudes and values of students enrolled in professional courses of training are covered by this survey.
3. Attitudes and Values have been seen in a broader perspective. Studies that have explored, examined or measured. A number of facets in the area of attitudes and values are included. The attempt has been to widen the coverage by including all those studies that have treated attitudes and values as dependent variables, independent variables and intervening variables.
4. A number of studies on job attitudes are reported in management literature. These studies were not covered in this review because they have essentially concentrated on factors related to job satisfaction rather than attitudes as such.

In the wake of recent discussion on the behaviour and its relationship with the value system, England's (1978) study seems to have particular relevance. Using the Personal Values Questionnaire he collected data on managers from five different countries. (Australia, India, Korea, Japan and USA). The results indicated a common pattern of the translation of values into behaviour across the countries despite

value differences and diversity within each country. The study found a significant positive correlation between the level of success achieved by these managers and their personal values for all five samples. More successful managers were found to favour pragmatic, dynamic, achievement oriented values and preferred substantial interaction with others, while the less successful managers had values associated with static, protected environment in which they look relatively passive roles and often enjoyed extended seniority in their organizational positions.

In another study Sharma (1976) examined the socio-economic background of Indian students enrolled in professional courses and their occupational values of being successful and independent. Data were collected from students of architecture, engineering, law, management, medicine and social work. The results showed that these professionals in the making defined success primarily in terms of extrinsic rewards like money, status and security while independence was seen in terms of scope for self expression, creativity, originality, and variety. Interestingly socio-economic status was found to have no relationship with success or independence.

In an earlier attempt England and Lee (1974) studied the relationship between values and success of managers from four countries (Australia, India, Japan and USA). Using the Personal Values Questionnaire they found a strong positive relationship between the level of success achieved and values of pragmatism, dynamism, and

achievement orientation. Degree of success was negatively correlated with static and passive values.

In an attempt to validate the findings of England and Lee (1974), Orphen (1976) replicated their on a sample of 92 South African Managers. He found a general support for England and Lee's study. Successful managers had values which emphasized productivity, profit competition and aggressiveness while less successful managers had values oriented towards social welfare, dignity, honour, religion, security, leisure, and trust.

Success in a given profession and its relationship to a certain kind of value system can be a function of several factors like nature of industry, environment, position in the organization and so on. How much the choice of a profession determines this relationship is a question which still remains unanswered. Perhaps studies on the choice of a profession may indirectly throw some light on this relationship.

Assuming that the ultimate aim is to become successful in one's chosen profession, Taylor et.al. (1976) studied the factors that determine the choice of a profession/career of 1480 interns of 7 medical colleges in India. Using a battery of questionnaires and psychological tests, they found that intellectual satisfaction predominated the list of factors influencing the choice of a profession. This was followed by such factors as job security, prestige, remuneration, job opportunities, leisure time opportunities, desire to do humanitarian and religious work, influence of teachers, hours of work

and proximity to have intellectual satisfaction was seen as component of success.

In another study on 404 final year medical students of 7 Indian medical colleges, Rao (1976) noticed that of the total sample 29.5% thought of studying medicine before they reached the age of 10, while 43.5% gave serious thought to studying medicine when they were between the ages of 11 and 17. A majority of the students in the sample reported that self interest (indirectly a desire to excel) played a significant role in their decision to study medicine followed by insistence from father mother, relatives, friends, teachers, and/or doctors.

Having chosen a particular profession and having spent a few years in the preparation for the profession or the job itself what kind of values and attitudes take predominance in their thought process and behaviour? Several studies have addressed themselves to this question.

Rao (1976) found that while projecting their future mobility the Indian medical students perceived themselves professionally at point 5 on a 10 point scale at the beginning of their career but felt that an increase of 2-3 points could easily be indicated in the next five years. In their jobs they sought security, good salary, challenge and independence. The data were collected through questionnaires.

In another study on the occupational values of 285 Indian managers drawn from coal, engineering and steel industries, Singh (1979) found a greater preference for challenge, talent utilization, security, exercise of power and freedom from supervision. These were found to be

who represented the first supervisory level from 15 South African industrial firms showed that the western oriented employees exhibited work values that reflected the more secularized protestant ethic than their counterparts of the tribal orientation.

The hypothesis that the value orientation of professionals depends on the exposure to modernization was studied by Sutcliffe (1974). Data were collected with the help of interviews on five Palestinian Samples (Peasants, modern farmers, teachers, and students). The first category consisted of refugees of two different origins Bedouin and Peasantry. Education was found to have a significant positive effect on child training, livestock care while field care was found to be negatively effected by education. In other words, the more educated did develop certain positive values about child rearing and cattle care but at the same time developed a negative attitudes towards fields care.

An interesting cross cultural comparison on the attitudes towards people comes from a study conducted by sharma (1971). In 1961-62 he collected some data on 153 management and 77 engineering students enrolled in US colleges. Seven years later, using the same questionnaire data were collected on 180 Management students in India. The results of the study suggested that both Indian and American management students did not have an unqualified faith in people. A little over half the students disagreed (53% Indian and 54% American) with the statement that "human nature is fundamentally cooperative rather than selfish".

no different from those indicated by Sharma (1976). Where the combined sample of Indian students enrolled in architecture, engineering, law, management and medical colleges were studied. His sample valued and showed preference for self expression, income, social status, freedom from supervision, security, and people orientation.

A variety of other issues in the areas of attitudes and values has been studied by a number of researchers. These studies throw some significant light on the attitudes and values of professionals from a variety of fields and different countries.

For example, Grillo (1973) delves into the details of how and why an individual railwayman orders his social world from two contrasting viewpoints and how he conducts his relationship with others on the basis of the norms and values that he has acquired. The data were collected on 59 randomly selected Ugandan employees of South African Railway Harbour. The interview results showed that all the railwaymen, had an orientation towards social institutions and persons outside the industry especially those who were close to their home and belonged to their own ethnic groups. Because of this extra-industry orientation their commitment to work was weak.

In another study of 124 black male employees of South Africa, Orphen (1978) studied the work values of 65 urban (Western) oriented and 59 rural (tribal) oriented employees. The data were collected through a number of questionnaires. These black employees

Much in the same vein is another study based on data from 364 blue collar and 202 white collar Peruvian workers from an electricity company in Peru (Williams, Whyte & Green, 1966). These workers tended to show a low attitude of faith and trust in people. Their identification with a work group was also low. It was explained that generally the suspicious nature of Peruvian workers tended to develop among them a mistrust of their individuals, resulting in isolation of individual workers from their fellows.

The relationship between attitude towards work and degree of efficiency and adaptation was explored by Dawson (1963) among 474 West African apprentices, artisans, clerks, labourers and male and female nurses employed in an Iron ore mining factory of Moramba in Sierra Leone. The results generally indicated that the traditional values militated against the work efficiency unless the worker had gone through education and industrial training.

Allport, Vernon and Lindzey's study of values questionnaire was administered to Indian male students enrolled in engineering, law, medicine and teachers training (Pal, 1967). Comparison of scores on various value segments showed that law students scored significantly higher than medical students on aesthetic and political values and significantly lower on theoretical and social values. Engineering students scored significantly higher than teacher trainees on economic values and lower on political values. Medical students yielded a significantly higher value on the social scale and lower on aesthetic and political values when compared to teacher trainees.

A study of the attitudes and values of the Ghanaian employees in various positions was carried out by Peil (1972 ). Data were collected through interviews of over 1400 employees in different skills from 22 different factories located in Accra and surrounding villages. It was found that attitudes towards work varied according to the size of the town, educational level and the occupational status. Small town workers spent their spare time with workmates more often than their counterparts from large towns. More educated and skilled employees were less tied to industrial routine than semi skilled less educated employees, though both were equally concerned with pay.

The values and attitudes of medical doctors and paramedical staff have been extensively studied. For example, Commen (1978) interviewed a sample of 337 doctors, 140 house surgeons, and 545 nurses belonging to ten different public hospitals in India. The purpose was to examine and understand the value orientation of these people vis-a-vis the patient care. It was observed that all the three categories were predominantly patient oriented though the doctors had a relatively high professionalism while nurses nurtured substantially more bureaucratic values.

Glicksman and Wohl (1965) examined the values of 84 Burmese students of University of Rangoon and compared them with their American counterparts. Both samples consisted of students enrolled in management and commerce. The Burmese students expressed greater concern with values attached to education and social life while their American counterparts seemed to value economic security, marriage and family life, and religion.

The two studies by Rao (1974, 1976) on the final year Indian medical students indicated that the work values of these students essentially dominated by independence, status, social and creative orientations. A sample of 219 Indian managers filled out "Values for working" questionnaire (Ganesh & Malhotra, 1975). The analysis of the results revealed that Indian managers showed greatest preference for existential values (25.5%) and least preference for ego-centric values (4.0%).

Simcha (1978) investigated the relationships between personal value systems and job attitudes of 135 industrial employees drawn from 11 Kibbutz firms and 187 employees from privately owned factories in Israel. The results indicated a higher level of self realization values and intrinsic job satisfaction among Kibbutz workers than private sector employees. On the other hand, private sector employees reported a higher level of aggrandizement values and extrinsic job satisfaction than Kibbutz workers.

In a cross-cultural study of participative management among managers from eight different countries (Argentina, Canada, France, Germany, India, Japan, Netherland and U.K.), Schaupp (1978) asked them to rate on a five point scale (1 = strongly agree; 5 = strongly disagree)

the statement: "Most employees in industry prefer to avoid responsibility, have little ambition and want security above all". As expected the managers from Netherland averaged the least ( $\bar{X} = 3.00$ ) on the five point scale. The highest average was of those from Argentina ( $\bar{X} = 3.74$ ) followed by managers from Japan, Canada, Germany, U.K, India and France, in that order.

In another cross-cultural study on the political values of cultivators and industrial workers with sufficient and without much experience, Inkeles and Smith (1974) collected data from samples of 6 countries (Argentina, Chile, East Pakistan, India, Israel, and Nigeria). Generally it was found that the factory culture helped them to develop an enhanced sense of political value. Invariably the samples from all the six countries favoured fundamental changes in political institutions and social customs.

Bhambri (1971) studied the attitudes and values of Indian Administrative Service probationers in relation to political modernization, defined as active participation of the people in the governance of the country. With the help of questionnaires data were collected from 96 probationers on 4 values (equality, democracy, secularism and economic planning). The results showed that except for democracy, the value perceptions and attitudes of the probationers on the other three were substantially high.

In another study of high school and University Indian teachers Dixit and Sharma (1971) administered Allport-Vernon-Lindzey's scale of values to 50 female and 50 male teachers half of each group coming from high school and university. The value orientations of these teachers were found to exhibit differential preference. Male high school teachers scored significantly more on aesthetic values than male university teachers. On the other hand female high school teachers scored significantly lower than their counterparts on economic values. Other differences were not significant.

In another study on teachers, Kakkar (1971) using the same methodology as Dixit and Sharma (1971) mentioned above collected data from 25 Indian male teacher trainees and 25 Indian male college teachers. Though there were significant differences between the two groups on such values as economic, aesthetic and social, the scores of the two groups were below the norms for male. College teachers scored significantly higher than teacher trainees on such values as aesthetic and social and significantly lower on economic values.

The results of a large scale study on managerial attitudes carried out in 14 countries (Denmark, Germany, Norway, Sweden, Belgium, France, Italy, Spain, England, U.S., Argentina, Chile, India, and Japan) are discussed by Haire, Ghisell and Porter, (1966). In their study managers from large companies consistently advocated a more positive attitude towards democratic participative approach to management. Surprisingly these findings were found to hold true for managers from developed and developing countries.

Finally, Sinha and Sayeed (1979) first examined the value patterns of Indian engineering students and then compared them with their counterparts from America, Australia, Canada and Israel. Data were collected through a questionnaire based on Rokeach's (1972, 1973) scale. This scale measures the terminal values (**ends**) and instrumental values (**means**). The results showed that Indian engineering students agreed with their counterparts from the other countries on the instrumental values, but differed on the terminal values.

## Summary and Conclusions

This survey of the attitudes and values of professionals in the Third World reviewed studies published during 1963 to 1979. In all 26 studies were reviewed which dealt with data collected on samples drawn from 14 different occupations representing 26 countries of the world. These occupations included managers, supervisors, teachers, railwaymen, doctors, nurses, interns, artisans, bureaucrats and professionals in the making from such fields as engineering, architecture, law, medicine, management, teacher training and social work. Among some of the countries of the Third World such nations as Argentina, Burma, Chile, East Pakistan (Now Bangla Desh), Ghana, India, Korea, Nigeria, Peru, Sierra Leone, and Spain etc figured in this survey.

Although studies reviewed in this survey used a variety of data collection techniques such as interviews, paper-pencil tests and secondary data, in most cases questionnaires were more commonly used. Such questionnaires as Allport, Vernon, & Lindzey's "study of values" and England's "Personal Values Questionnaire" were more frequently relied upon for purposes of data collection. In some cases questionnaires were translated into local languages for ease in understanding.

Most of the studies surveyed here were more of exploratory type where data were collected on either a specific sample from one country or cross cultural samples. As indicated earlier, data were collected on professionals who have spent some years in a job or those who were undergoing professional training and education.

As far as the findings in their totality are concerned, perhaps the following conclusions can be drawn. This survey indicates the relative dearth of studies on the attitudes and values of the professionals in the Third World. Comparatively, the attitudes and values of the professionals from the developed nations are more thoroughly explored than these from developing nations. There are very few independent studies on the samples from the Third World, except perhaps from India. In most cases these samples constitute an appendage to those from developed nations. Similarly, not too many professions are explored. Most of the studies have dealt with doctors, nurses, managers, teachers and industrial employees from the ranks. This survey therefore, suggests the need to initiate more such studies and in addition widen the scope to include more samples from developing nations and a variety of professions. In the absence of such effort only limited conclusions can be drawn from available literature.

As suggested by studies reviewed in this survey the concepts of attitude and value have been perceived in a broader framework. Several kinds of issues and concerns have been covered under the general concept of attitude and value giving them a wider flavour. Under the circumstances it may perhaps be useful not to narrow down their definitions to the specifics but broad base them to cover a variety of facets. This suggests the need to relook at the concepts of attitude and value to understand what they do or do not include.

The survey suggests that a variety of factors contribute either singly or in conjunction with others to the growth of positive attitude and higher value to a profession. These are both environmental and personality factors. As the review points out education and training, one's background, faith in people and social institutions, organizational level, the size of the organization one belongs to and the stage of development of the country influence the attitudes and values of professionals. Generally it is shown that higher education, urban background, greater trust in people greater affiliation with social institutions, higher level in the organizational hierarchy, larger size of the organization and a relatively developed stage of the nation's growth contribute to the acceptance of an organized way of life and the growth of positive attitude towards one's profession. They have also been found to facilitate participative style of management and a more democratic attitude on the job.

What different professionals from various nations value most could perhaps be classified into two categories-intrinsic and extrinsic. Of the intrinsic that they seem to emphasize are such values as intellectual satisfaction achievement orientation, scope for free expression, creativity and originality, dignity, challenge, and success. A profession can become much more rewarding if it provides scope for nurturing these values. As far as the extrinsic values are concerned, security, status, control on hours of work, freedom from supervision, and exercise of power are also claimed to be of significance

to professionals from different countries. The materialistic touch is not altogether missing either. They would also like to have more money and more leisure time opportunities. The most redeeming feature of their values seems to be their concern for excellence, productivity and profitability as the outcome of their efforts, without which they feel that their profession may not be perceived to have challenge and scope for initiative.

## REFERENCES

- Adorno, T.W., Frenkel-Brunswik, E. Levinson, D.H. & Sanford, R.N. The Authoritarian Personality, N.Y. Harper, 1950.
- Allport, G.W. Attitudes In Murchison, C. (Ed.) Handbook of Social Psychology Worcester, Massachusetts: Clark University Press, 1935.
- Bem, D.J. Beliefs Attitudes and Human Affairs, Belmont Calif: Brooks Cole Publishing Co. 1970.
- Bhambri, C.P. The Administrative Elite And Political Modernization In India - A Study of The Value Attitudes of IAS Probationers 1970-71. Indian Journal of Public Administration 1971, 17(1), 47-64.
- Curle, A. Some Aspects of Educational Planning In Underdeveloped Areas. Harvard Educational Review, 1962, 32(3) 300.
- Dawson, J.L.M. Traditional Values and Work Efficiency in a West African Mine Labour Force. Occupational Psychology, 1963, 37(3), 209-218.
- Dixit, R.C. & Sharma, D.D. Differential Values of High School and University Students and Teachers Journal of Psychological Researches 1971, 15(1), 12-17.
- England, G.W. Organizational Goal and Expected Behaviour of American Managers. Academy of Management Journal, 1967, 10(2), 107-117.
- England, G.W. & .EE R. The Relationship Between Managerial Values and Managerial success in the United States, Japan, India and Australia. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1974, 59(4), 411-419
- England, G.W. Managers and their value system: A Five Country Comparative Study. Columbia Journal of World Business, 1978, 13(2), 35-44.
- English, H.B. & English, A.C. A comprehensive Dictionary of Psychoanalytical Terms. New York: Longmans Green, 1958.
- Fromm, E. Escape From Freedom. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston of Canada Limited, 1941.
- Ganesh, S.R. & Malhotra A.K. Work Values of Indian Managers. ASCI Journal of Management, 1975, 4(2), pp 147-62.

- Glicksman, M. Wohl, J. Expressed Values of Burmese and American University Students. Journal of Social Psychology, 1965, 65, 17-25.
- Grillo, R.D. African Railwaymen. Cambridge, Mass: Cambridge University Press, 1973.
- Haire, M, Ghiselli, EE. and Porter, L.W. Managerial Thinking: An International Study. New York : John Wiley & Sons, 1966.
- Harbison, F. & Myers, C.A. Education, Manpower and Economic Growth - Strategies of Human Resource Development New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1964.
- Inkeles, A. & Smith, D.H. Becoming Modern - Individual Change in Six Developing Countries. London: Heinemann Educational Books Ltd., 1964.
- Kakkar, S.B. Value Scores of Teacher Trainees and College Teachers. Indian Journal of Applied Psychology, 1971, 8(2), pp 77-80.
- Katz, D. & Stotland, E. A Preliminary Statement To A Theory of Attitude Structure And Change. In Koch, S. (Ed) Psychology A study of Science . Vol.3. New York : McGraw Hill, 1959.
- Orphen, C. The Relationship Between Managerial Success and Personal Values in South Africa : A Research Note. Journal of Management Studies, 1976, 13(2), 196-198.
- Orphen, C. The Work Values of Western and Tribal Black Employees. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 1978 9(1) 99-112.
- Pal, S.K. Values of Students in Four Professions Under Indian Conditions. Journal of Social Psychology, 1967, 72, 297-298.
- Peil, M. The Ghanian Factory Worker : Industrial Man in Africa : Cambridge, Mass: Cambridge University Press, 1972.
- Rao, T.V. Work Value Pattern Of Indian Medical Students. British Journal Of Medical Education 1974, 8(4), 224-229
- Rao, T.V. Doctors in Making. Ahmedabad: Sahitya Mudranalaya, 1976

- Rosenberg, M. Occupations And Values: Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press, 1957.
- Schaupp, D.L. A Cross-Cultural Study of A Multinational Company. New York : Praeger Publishers, 1978.
- Sharma, B.R. Occupational Values and Business - A cross-cultural Comparison. New Delhi. Indian Academy of Social Sciences, 1971.
- Sharma, B.R. Professionals In The Making: Their Goals and Values. Manpower Journal 1976, 12(2), 61-91.
- Simcha, R. Personal Values : A Basis For Work Motivational Set and Work Attitude. Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance, 1978, 21(1), 80-107.
- Singh, P. Occupational Values and Styles of Indian Managers, New Delhi: Wiley Eastern Limited, 1979.
- Sinha, P. & Sayeed, O.B. Value Systems: Some Cross-Cultural Comparisons. Indian Journal of Social Work, 1979, 40(2), 139-146.
- Spranger, E. Types of Men (translated), New York Storch Hafner, 1928.
- Sutcliffe, C.R. The effects of Differential Exposure to Modernization On the Value Orientations of Palestinians. Journal of Social Psychology, 1974, 93, 173-180.
- Tagiuri, R. Value Orientations And the Relationship of Managers and Scientists. Administrative Science Quarterly, 1965, 10(1), 39-51.
- Tanaka, Y. Values In The subjective Culture : A Psychological View. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 1972, 3(1), 57-69.
- Taylor, C.E., Alter, J.D, Grover, P.L. Sangal, S.P. Andrews, S. & Tukulia, H.S. Doctors For The Villages - Study of Rural Internships in Seven Indian Medical Colleges. Bombay: Asia Publishing House, 1976.
- Taylor, F. Time Study, Piecework, And the First-class Man. In Merril, H.F. (Ed.) Classics in Management New York: American Management Association, 1960.
- Williams, L.K., Whyte, W.F. & Green, C.S. Do Cultural Differences Affect Workers Attitudes. Industrial Relations, 1966, 5(3), 105-118.