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UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

WORK VALUES: THE ACCULTURATION OF ETHNIC GROUPS IN  
THE WORKPLACE

BY

MONIQUE LOUISE GERVAIS TIMMER ©

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in  
partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science

IN

FAMILY STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN ECOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL 1994



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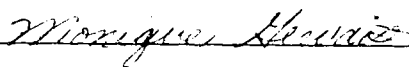
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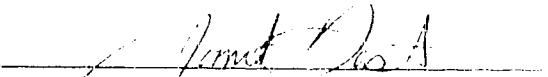
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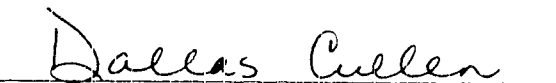
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## ABSTRACT

Any person entering a new physical and social environment is confronted with the challenge of adaptation. The person coming from another country is of special interest because he or she is being socialised into a new culture and may experience more profound changes.

This research investigated the acculturation of foreign-born workers in a Canadian work setting. Using socialisation theory, an acculturation model was derived based on the notion that immigrants bring beliefs, attitudes, and values that may be modified as they establish new reference groups and are influenced by the host society. The general objectives of this study were to determine what were the work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers in a multicultural workplace, secondly, to examine whether there are similarities in work values and, finally, to examine whether the workplace influences the work values of foreign-born workers.

Data were collected and analysed regarding the work values of immigrant and Canadian-born workers in similar workplaces. Work values were measured using the Survey of Work Values. There were no statistically significant differences in work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers. However, in terms of self-reported ethnicity, there were statistically significant differences for four of the six work values. In terms of mother tongue, there was a statistically significant difference for one of the six work values. The variables of mother tongue, ethnicity, job tenure, education level, length of residency in Canada had no statistically significant main effects or interaction effects on work values. It was concluded that the acculturation process is complex. Suggestions were offered as to how research of this nature could be strengthened.

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## Chapter I. Statement of the Problem

### **A. Research Purpose**

The purpose of this research was to study the acculturation of foreign-born workers in a Canadian work setting. Data was collected and analysed regarding the work values of immigrant and Canadian-born workers in similar workplaces. One important question which was dealt with is the degree to which the values of immigrant workers come to resemble those of Canadian-born workers over time.

### **B. Background and Justification**

Any person entering a new physical and social environment is confronted with the challenge of adaptation. The child who moves to a different school, the woman who joins the workforce after raising a family, the rural worker who moves to the city- all are involved in the process of adapting to new environments. The person coming from another country is of special interest, however, because he or she is being socialised into a *new* culture and thus experiences more profound changes.

This adaptation process, by which one is socialised into a culture other than that into which one is born, is referred to as acculturation (Moschis, 1987). Feather (1975), in his study of value systems in different societies, describes some of the changes a newcomer experiences while adapting to a new culture:

He has moved from a country where he was socialised as a child and has detached himself from the social roles he previously performed....he has narrowed his field of social participation and given up some of his major frames of reference for testing his attitudes,

beliefs, and values. He has many new adjustments to make....In the course of the process the beliefs, attitudes, and values that he brought with him may be modified....(pp. 232-33)

Canada is a major receiving country for immigrants and refugees.

Between 1985 and 1990, a total of 34,022 new immigrants came to Edmonton, Alberta (Alberta Career Development and Employment, 1991). According to 1986 federal census data, one in six Albertans is foreign-born and 20 % of all Albertan workers are first generation Canadians.

Given that future immigration to Canada will be predominantly multicultural in composition (Passaris, 1987) and that this multiculturalism will also be reflected in our workforce, more research is needed to better understand how the workplace, as a microcosm of the host society, affects the acculturation of immigrants to Canada. It will become increasingly necessary for local businesses and industry to deal with a culturally diverse workplace in which workers do not share the same patterns of thinking, feeling and behaving. Hofstede (1980a) sums it up well:

The survival of mankind will depend to a large extent on the ability of people who think differently to act together....Exploring the way in which nationality predisposes our thinking is therefore not an intellectual luxury. A better understanding of invisible cultural differences is one of the main contributions the social sciences can make to practical policy makers in governments, organisations and institutions - and to ordinary citizens. (p. 8)

The general objectives of this study are:

1. to determine what are the work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers in a multicultural workplace;
2. to examine whether there are similarities and differences between the work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers; and

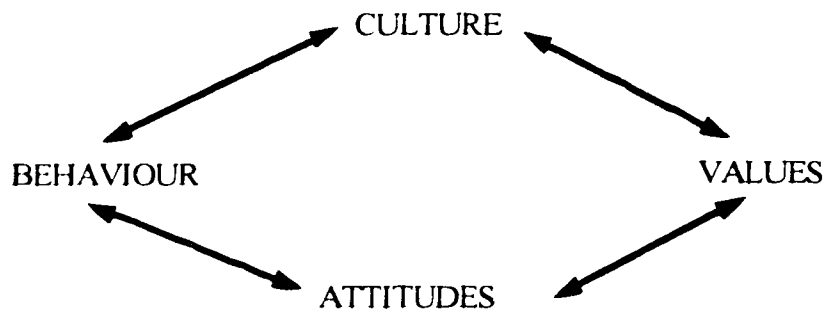
3. to examine whether the workplace, as a socialisation agent, influences the work values of foreign-born workers (i.e. do work values become more similar to those of Canadian-born workers the longer they work together?)

### **C. Definitions of Terms and Concepts**

**Values** are conceptions about what, personally, is important, about what is good or bad, and about things that are right or less so. Values develop through experience and give direction to one's attitudes, beliefs and behaviour. They provide a conscious and unconscious guide for choosing among various means and ends for one's behaviour (Brown, 1976; Danandjaja, 1987; Kluckhohn & Stodtbeck, 1961). Values are enduring yet changeable and are organised along a continuum of importance (Rokeach, 1973).

**Work values** are values that are concerned with what individuals think is important about their work. Some examples of work values include job security, prestige, authority, recognition and autonomy.

According to Adler (1991), the cultural orientation of a society reflects the complex interaction of the values, attitudes, and behaviours displayed by its members. As shown in Figure 1, individuals express culture and its normative qualities through the values that they hold about life and the world around them. These values in turn affect their attitudes about the form of behaviour considered more appropriate and effective in any given situation. The continually changing patterns of individual and group behaviour eventually influence the society's culture, and the cycle begins again.



**Figure 1: Influence of Culture on Behaviour  
(Adler, 1991, pp.15-16)**

**Culture** - Although there appears to exist a relative agreement on the issue of what culture is and how it is to be conceptualised, semantic confusion abounds in definitions. Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) for example, catalogued more than one hundred different definitions of culture. Feather (1975) offers a comprehensive definition:

A culture is associated with a common set of shared beliefs, attitudes, and values among its members, these orientations being reflected not only in the behaviour of individuals, but also in societal organisation and functioning..... A culture is not fixed and unchanging.... Yet, it preserves some constancy in its outward forms and central values over time. (p. 195)

An **ethnic group** is a group within a larger society that displays a common set of cultural traits. The group has a sense of community among its members based on a presumed common heritage, a feeling of ethnocentrism among group members, ascribed group membership, and, in some cases, a distinct territory. Each of these characteristics is a variable, differing from group to group and among members of the same group (Marger, 1985). Therefore, even within ethnic groups, there may be a great deal of variability in values among its members. Even so, ethnic cultures exist that can be empirically identified and compared (Hofstede, 1980b).

The distinction between **immigrants** and **refugees** has usually been related to the decision to migrate, defined as 'voluntary' or 'pulled' in the first case, and 'involuntary' or 'pushed' in the second. This is because it is believed that immigrants choose to leave their homeland whereas refugees are forced out by necessity. Fantino (1982) suggests, however, the distinction between voluntary and involuntary migration is not easily and clearly defined:

As with the refugees, assumed 'voluntary' immigrants may have taken the decision to migrate as the only alternative to overcome difficult conditions of life in their original societies. They may have also had to take the available, and contemporary restricted opportunities of countries offering immigration. In fact, due to selective standards, they have been "chosen" rather than having selected themselves the country of destination....In most situations...it seems to be more a matter of degree than of radical distinctions. (p. 42)

Given that migration circumstances can be placed on a continuum of choice, the term "immigrant" in this study includes both refugees and immigrants to Canada.

In general, **acculturation** is used to describe change that occurs when individuals or groups have contact with a different culture (Teske & Nelson, 1974; Berry, 1980; Hannigan, 1990). This change has been described as a "dynamic process by which individuals or groups, who are well-anchored in their culture, acquire elements of a new one" (Jockenhovel-Schieke, 1986, pp. 583-4).

## **Chapter II. Review of the Literature**

This review includes literature in two areas: migration and acculturation studies; and secondly, the role of culture in organisations. The first section provides a brief overview of some of the challenges faced by immigrants in a new culture. It also explores how the acculturation process has typically been studied and what factors seem to contribute to the successful adaptation of newcomers. This information was helpful in establishing what variables were relevant for the research.

Another concern is to better understand the relationship between workplace and ethnicity. Thus, the second section examines the findings of cross-cultural research on work values, whether there are significant differences in work-related values across cultures and if organisational culture affects cultural diversity. In doing so, a rationale for further examining the acculturation process in the workplace is established.

### **A. Migration Research**

Immigrant individuals and families are seldom dealing with a single challenge such as learning a new language. Multiple changes and demands occur simultaneously, such as dealing with culture shock, altered family roles, rejection and isolation stemming from hostile attitudes, entering the school system or experiencing employment barriers. If the family members migrate separately, the family must cope with the separation of family members as well as the other problems associated with the different migration experiences among different members of the family (Dumon, 1976; Tseng & Hsu, 1991).



Not only does a family need to adjust to the new environment in terms of residence, occupation, financial resources, and social network, but also to the new ways of thinking and behaving. As individuals, the different paces of adjusting to the new cultural system will sometimes seriously affect hierarchy within a family (Sung, 1985). Individual family members must balance duties toward one's immediate family members in Canada and responsibilities toward family members left behind in the home country (Mangalam, 1985). They also must cope with changes in marital attitudes (Meredith & Rowe, 1986) and changes in family structure (Dumon, 1975).

Lovell, Tran and Nguyen (1987) describe the tremendous change and stress families have in adjusting to the country of resettlement:

Many men perceive a loss of control over the family at a time when they are seeing themselves as devalued in the larger social arena. Family situational crises, marital problems, even domestic violence may result.... The woman who is both married and working becomes a marginal woman who lives at the juncture of two cultures.... Some attempt to retain conservative, traditional roles at the expense of conflict with their Americanised children. Others try to embrace American mores and norms too quickly, thus escalating marital problems. (p. 321)

In Canada, the measures of acculturation have typically been the immigrant's use of an official language and his or her knowledge of Canadian symbols and institutions. Obtaining employment, preferably commensurate with the immigrant's education and qualifications, has also been considered an essential ingredient in the adaptation process (Richmond, 1974; Lobodzinska, 1986).

Most acculturation research has tried to determine what factors are involved in the process of "fitting in." These factors influencing the acculturation of immigrants may be considered under three main headings:

1. Situational influences in Canada which may vary according to time and place
2. The pre-migration characteristics and circumstances of the immigrants themselves
3. Length of residence in Canada and the effects of interaction with people born in Canada and with earlier groups of immigrants.

These factors may be observed in the context of economic integration, social integration, satisfaction with life, together with the degree of identification and commitment to Canada, exhibited by the immigrants themselves (Richmond, 1974; Kirkland, 1984).

Research has also suggested that migrants experience less acculturative stress in multicultural societies than in unicultural societies (Kagistcibasi, 1987; Murphy, 1965, 1975). In multicultural societies, it is possible for groups to maintain supportive cultural networks, traditions and identities while in unicultural societies, there is a single dominant culture with a clear set of national attitudes and values that all immigrants must either adjust to or oppose. Perhaps workplaces mirror the societal attitudes and thus influence acculturative processes.

As far as the length of residence and the process of adaptation are concerned, the longer an immigrant resides in Canada, the better adapted he or she tends to be. The better educated the immigrant on arrival, the more likely he or she is to achieve a higher occupational status and income (notwithstanding some initial status dislocation). Generally speaking, the higher the educational and occupational qualifications of the immigrant, the

more likely it is that he or she will experience some initial status dislocation and the longer it would take to recover his or her former position (Richmond, 1974). Arrival in Canada as a child contributes to a more rapid acculturation and high economic achievement. Middle-aged and elderly immigrants experienced a much greater difficulty in adaptation, particularly when their education was low (Goldlust & Richmond, 1974).

In summary, acculturation research has focused on the adjustment of immigrants and ethnic groups. It has incorporated adjustment measures such as economic achievements, language acquisition, institutional and social integration. Some factors which seem to contribute to the successful adaptation include knowledge of English or French (Richmond, 1974), independence from kin (Surace & Seeman, 1981), supportive cultural networks (Kagistcibasi, 1987; Murphy, 1965, 1975), length of time in Canada, level of education, and age of migration (Richmond, 1974). It is assumed that as immigrants become acculturated to Canadian society, they will acquire the attitudes, values, and behavioural norms of the area in which they settle. Although much research has documented the value clashes immigrants experience in a new culture (Kagistcibasi, 1987; Lovell et al., 1987; Murphy, 1965, 1975; Richmond, 1974), little study has been undertaken of the process of acculturation in terms of value changes.

## **B. Cross-cultural Research on Organisations**

Reviewing numerous cross-cultural studies, John Child (1981) found one group of researchers repeatedly concluding that the world's organisations are growing more similar and another group of researchers concluding that they are maintaining their dissimilarity. Upon closer examination, Child discovered that most of the studies concluding convergence focused on macro level issues-- such as the structure and

technology of the organisations themselves-- while most of the studies concluding divergence focused on micro level issues--the behaviour of people within organisations. Therefore organisational structure world-wide is growing more similar, while the behaviour of people within organisations is maintaining its cultural uniqueness.

Research by Geert Hofstede (1980a) strongly supports the cultural divergence theory. He conducted a 40-country study (1980b, 1983) which was later expanded to over 60 countries, including both Oriental and Occidental cultures and 160,000 managers and employees from an American multinational corporation. Hofstede found significant cultural differences in the behaviour, attitudes, perceptions and values of employees and managers from different countries who worked for this multinational corporation.

Does organisation culture erase or at least diminish national culture? Surprisingly, the answer is no: employees and managers *do* bring their ethnicity to the workplace. In Hofstede's study (1980b), national culture explained 50 % of the differences in employees' attitudes and behaviours. National culture explained more of the difference than did professional role, age, gender, or race.

Even more strikingly, Laurent (1983) found value differences more pronounced among foreign employees working within the same multinational organisation than among employees working for organisations in their native lands. Laurent observed managers from nine Western European countries and the United States who were working for organisations in their native countries (e.g., Swedish managers working for Swedish companies, Italian managers working for Italian companies, etc.). He replicated his research in one multinational corporation. Laurent assumed that employees working for the same multinational corporation

would be more similar than their domestically employed colleagues, but instead he found employees maintaining and even strengthening their cultural differences. There were significantly greater differences between managers from the ten countries working within the same multinational corporation than there were between managers working for companies in their native countries. When they work for a multinational corporation, it appears that Germans become more German, Americans become more American, Swedes become more Swedish, and so on.

Little information is available on the acculturation of immigrants in the workplace. Hedley (1980) discovered that for immigrant workers whose mother tongue was not English (and who did not share the same cultural heritage as native-born Australians), there was an initial and substantial increase in the similarity of work values to Australians. He found, however, that there is virtually no further gain in similarity after eight years' residency in the host country.

Research has not yet been able to answer the question of why organisational culture enhances national cultural differences. Perhaps the pressure to conform to the organisational culture of a foreign-owned company brings out employees' resistance, causing them to cling more firmly to their own national identities. Perhaps ethnic culture is so deeply ingrained in adults that it cannot be erased by any external force. This study of immigrant and Canadian-born workers may contribute to the understanding of the role of a multicultural setting in culture acquisition by adults.

An examination of cross-cultural studies does bring into question how best to categorise "ethnicity". Hedley (1980) compared workers across nationalities. This may not always accurately reflect the ethnic heritage of workers. For example, when considering an ethnic Chinese immigrant

who was born in Vietnam, should he or she be perceived as a Vietnamese (nationality or nativity) or as a Chinese (ethnicity) or as a Canadian (citizenship)? Hedley found that when responding to the question, "In what country were you born?" many Yugoslavs referred to their specific ethnic heritage by replying 'Croatian,' 'Slovenian,' 'Serb,' etc.

In another workplace study by Jain et al. (1979) the job motivation of Anglophone and Francophone hospital employees were compared. Jain et al. found culture-based differences in the job motivation of these two language groups. This study may have been flawed as language usage may not appropriately differentiate an individual's or groups' culture. Even though the workers may speak a common work language, they themselves may represent a multitude of cultural backgrounds. Jain et al. have not satisfactorily ascertained that each hospital is a homogeneous culture. Perhaps the differences and similarities between two different language worksites can be explained by other factors such as varying organisational cultures, human resource practices and regional differences.

To summarise, researchers have observed that there are differences in work-related values across cultures. National cultures exist that can be empirically identified and compared. Organisational culture does not seem to erase or reduce the diversity of values in the workplace as there are striking cultural differences within a single multinational corporation (Hofstede, 1980b). Employees working for the same multinational corporation maintain and even strengthen their cultural differences (Laurent, 1983). If workers do bring their ethnicity into the workplace, to what degree does the workplace influence the work values of foreign-born workers. Do their work values become more similar to those of Canadian-born workers the longer they work together?

### **C. Conclusion**

While migration literature has accumulated, there continues to be a gap concerning the process of change resulting from cultural contact. There is a need for more comprehensive measurement of acculturation which includes not only economic and social aspects but also value change and how it involves the host society. In addition, serious difficulties confront the analysis of ethnicity. This study tries to address the classification of ethnic groups by using multiple measures of ethnicity. In conclusion, by studying the acculturation of immigrants in a significant socialising institution, namely the workplace, it is hoped that more will be understood about the acculturation process for adult immigrants.

### **Chapter III. Conceptual Framework**

#### **A. Socialisation Theory**

The conceptual model for this study is socialisation theory. This perspective suggests that values and behaviours are acquired through interaction between the person and various agents in specific settings. Persons acquire the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that make them able members of their society (Brim, 1966). The concept of resocialization as used by social theorists incorporates the notion of acculturation (Moschis, 1987). Consequently, the terms "acculturation" and "socialisation" are used interchangeably throughout this study.

The main components of the socialisation theory are classified into (1) antecedent variables, (2) acculturation or socialisation process, and (3) outcomes.

##### **1. Antecedent Variables**

There are two major categories of antecedent variables: firstly, age or life-cycle position and secondly, social structural variables. Age or life-cycle position refers to a specific time in a person's life when socialisation occurs. Social structural variables refer to the social environment such as social class or ethnic background within which a person's learning takes place.

##### **2. Acculturation or Socialisation Process**

The acculturation process is influenced by both the socialisation agent and the type of learning process operating. A socialisation agent can be a "person or an organisation directly involved in socialisation because of



frequency of contact with the individual, primacy to the individual and control over rewards and punishments given to the individual" (Moschis, 1987, p. 17).

Learning processes refers to the ways in which the learner acquires specific values and behaviours from socialisation agents while interacting with them. Learning processes fall into three categories: modelling or observational learning, reinforcement, and social interaction. Modelling involves imitating the agent's behaviour. Reinforcement is learning by reward of appropriate or punishment of inappropriate behaviour. Social interaction is a less specific mechanism whereby an agent's characteristic social norms shape the learner's attitudes, values and behaviours through interactions with that agent. Moschis (1987) suggests that social interaction may be the most important socialisation process for adults.

### 3. Outcomes or Learning Properties

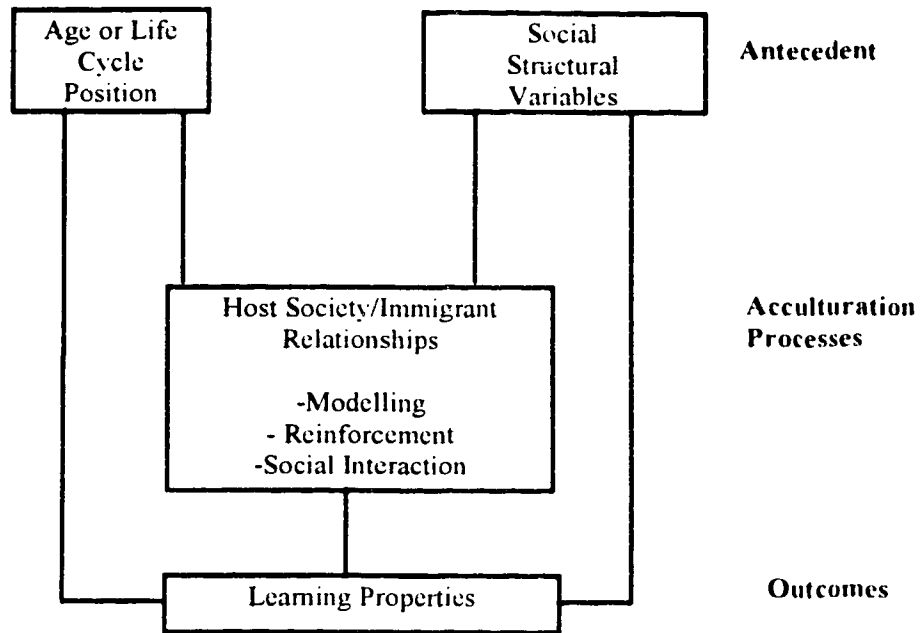
Outcomes refers to the cognitions and behaviours necessary for the performance of a given social role. Often these include specific behavioural acts as well as cognitive components such as values, attitudes, and beliefs.

#### **B. Conceptual Model of Immigrant Socialisation**

Hofstede (1980a) believes that each culture provides the grounds for a different socialisation of its members via the socio-educational process, causing 'value sets' or 'mental programmes' which are culture-specific. These 'programmes' affect the way people in each culture perceive and interpret the world, influencing their expectations, goals, beliefs, and ultimately behaviour in everyday life, including their work experiences.

People from a given culture come to internalise shared 'mental programmes' which they carry with them and which serve to frame experience. Such programming is most marked in the formative years of childhood, but is continued by society's various socialising institutions, including the workplace (Westwood & Everett, 1987). In other words, culture is continually being learned over the life span, our "culture maps" are drawn and re-drawn in a lifelong process of social and environmental interaction (Pitman, Eisikovits & Dobberts, 1989).

The conceptual model of immigrant socialisation (see Figure 2) is based on the notion that immigrants bring beliefs, attitudes, and values that may be modified as they establish new reference groups and are influenced by the host society. The immigrant socialisation process or, in this case, the acculturation process, is influenced by the socialisation agent (host society) and the learning processes operating (modelling, reinforcement, social interaction). Socialisation processes directly affect learning properties (immigrants' values) which are viewed as outcomes of socialisation. The antecedent variables (social structural variables and age/life cycle position) might affect the acquisition of learning properties (outcomes) directly and indirectly through their impact on the socialisation processes.



**Figure 2: A conceptual model of immigrant socialisation, based on Moschis & Churchill, 1978**

An antecedent variable is said to have a direct effect on socialisation when it produces a statistically significant effect that is the result of a relationship between the antecedent factor and the learning property. For example, ethnicity may have a direct effect on values, in that people from the same ethnic group may share the same attitudes and beliefs which are different from other ethnic groups. An indirect effect is the outcome of the variable's functional relationship with a specific socialisation *process*, which in turn directly affects a specific aspect of learning properties (Moschis, 1987). For example, length of residency in Canada may have an indirect effect on values, in that foreign-born workers who have been in Canada longer may be more likely to be employed and may thus share more

work values with their Canadian-born colleagues than with their fellow immigrants.

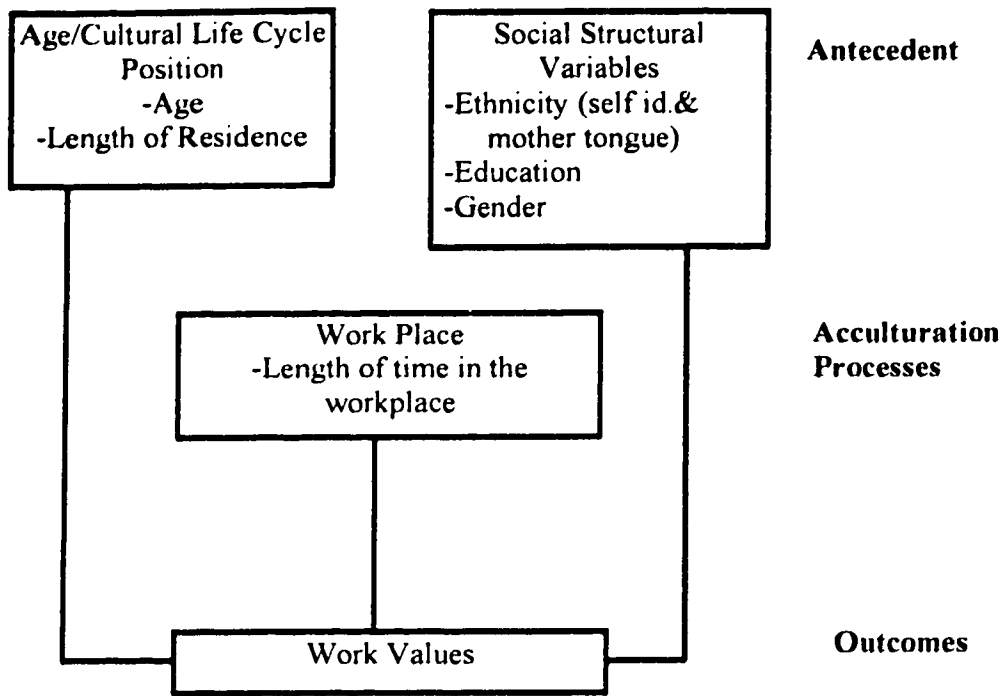
## **Chapter IV. Methodology**

### **A. Empirical Model and Specification of Variables**

The general objectives of this study, as stated in the introduction, were:

1. to determine what are the work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers in a multicultural workplace;
2. to examine whether there are similarities and differences between the work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers; and
3. to examine whether the workplace, as a socialisation agent, influences the work values of foreign-born workers (i.e. do work values become more similar to those of Canadian-born workers the longer they work together?)

In order to meet these objectives, the following empirical model (Figure 3) was derived. It shows the relationships among the backgrounds of the immigrants (antecedents), the participation of the immigrant in the workplace (host society/socialisation processes) and the subsequent immigrant work values (outcomes).



**Figure 3: An Acculturation Model of Work Values**

The age or life cycle position was operationalized as two variables: the adult worker's age in years and years of residence in Canada. Four social structural variables were measured through self-report: the worker's ethnic background(s), education, gender, and mother tongue(s). The agent-learner relationship was operationalized by the informal socialisation measured in terms of the length of time in the workplace. As it would be difficult to measure the amount of social interaction in the workplace, this operationalization assumes that the longer a worker is in the workplace, the more opportunities he or she will have to informally socialise.

Work values was measured by the Survey of Work Values (SWV). SWV (Wollack, Goodale, Wijting, and Smith, 1971) is a 54-item scale that indicates subjects' attitudes to six facets of the Protestant Ethic on six-point Likert rating scales. (See Appendix A for further information about the

Survey of Work Values.) The SWV provides a profile of a person's values that pertain specifically to the meaning of work. Scores are obtained for each subject by summing responses to the nine items in each of the six subscales. The six dimensions are:

- 1) pride in work - *the satisfaction and enjoyment a worker feels from doing his or her job well,*
- 2) 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;*
- 3) activity preference - *a preference by the worker to keep himself/herself active and busy on the job,*
- 4) attitude towards earnings - *the value an individual places on making money on the job,*
- 5) social status of job - *the effect the job alone has on a person's standing among his or her friends, relatives, and co-workers,*
- 6) upward striving - *the desire to continually seek a higher level job and a better standard of living.*

. The following are six examples of items from the SWV, with their respective subscales in brackets: “A well paying job that offers little opportunity for advancement is not a good job for me” (upward striving); “A good worker is interested in helping a new worker learn the job” (job involvement); “Having a good job makes a person worthy of praise from his friends and family” (social status of job); “There is nothing as satisfying as doing the best job possible” (pride in work); “A person should choose the job which pays the most” (attitude towards earnings); “If a worker keeps himself busy on his job, the working day passes more quickly than if he were loafing” (activity preference).

The SWV assesses both intrinsic and extrinsic values. Intrinsic values concern the importance one places on work as its own reward, whereas extrinsic values concern the importance of work because it is instrumental in obtaining other material and social rewards. This bidimensionality is the major feature of the SWV that distinguishes it from other value measures (Simerson, 1985).

SWV was chosen for a number of reasons: it has been used to compare values among groups from different countries or cultures (Bluen & Barling, 1983; Orpen, 1978), its administration is not difficult and lends itself easily to group or unsupervised administration (Simerson, 1985). A fifth-grade English reading level is required and the survey takes about 10 minutes to complete. Although it was mentioned in Simerson's (1985) "Test Critiques" that the SWV was available in other languages, when copies of the instrument were purchased from Bowling Green State University the researcher discovered that no other language versions were available.

Reliability of the SWV is considered adequate. Its alpha coefficients range from .48 (Upward Striving) to .72 (Pride in Work), and uncorrected test-retest reliabilities have been obtained from .50 (one year) to .76 (one month). Internal consistencies are reported to be slightly higher for the intrinsic (.86 to .95) and extrinsic (.87) subscales (Simerson, 1985).

To review "An Acculturation Model of Work Values" (Figure 3), the **antecedent variables** include:

- a) Age/Cultural Cycle Position
- Age of the individual worker (in years) at the time of the study.
  - Length of residence in Canada (in years)



b) Social Structural Variables

- Ethnicity- operationalized by ethnic self-identification and by mother tongue (“the first language the respondent spoke and still understands” was used as an alternate indicator of ethnicity)
- Education- operationalized as the highest level of education attained in Canada
- Gender- self-reported in pre-coded categories

The **socialisation process** incorporates the workplace and the opportunities inherent for socialisation processes to occur. In this research, the agent was the workplace. Social interaction was operationalized as

- the length of time in the workplace

The **outcome variable** is work values. These are values that are concerned with what individuals think is important about their work. Six value dimensions were measured:

- pride in work
- job involvement
- activity preference
- attitude towards earnings
- social status of job
- upward striving.

**B. Empirical Hypotheses**

The socialisation perspective suggests that values toward work can undergo formation and change. The antecedent variables (age/cultural and social structural) may have direct effects on the work values of immigrants. As previously cited in the literature review, there appears to be a

relationship between cultural background (such as ethnicity and language) and work values. Workers of the same ethnic background may share more similar work values than they do with co-workers from other ethnic backgrounds. In addition, the socialisation processes themselves may directly influence work values. For example, workers, regardless of backgrounds, who have worked together for a length of time may come to share more similar work values.

The following are hypotheses generated by this empirical model:

- H1:** Workers with a common mother tongue will share more similar work values than will co-workers who speak different mother tongues. The effect of mother tongue will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.
  
- H2:** Workers of the same ethnic background will share more similar work values than will co-workers with different ethnic backgrounds. The effect of ethnicity will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.
  
- H3:** The longer a foreign-born worker has been in the multicultural workplace, the more similar are his or her work values to those of Canadian-born co-workers.
  
- H4:** Immigrant workers who are more educated will share more similar work values with Canadian-born workers. The effect of education will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.

**H5:** The work values of immigrant workers who have resided longer in Canada will be more similar to those of Canadian-born workers than immigrant workers who have resided less time in Canada. The effect of residency will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.

### **C. Data Collection and Procedures**

Whereas most North Americans have become accustomed to public opinion surveys, many newcomers have never been interviewed for social research purposes in their home country. Yu and Liu (1989) cite an example of a Vietnamese refugee with minimal education who began to suspect that the two interviewers were communist agents when they asked whether some of his family members were left behind during the evacuation to the United States. Many immigrant respondents fear that their responses to survey questions may cause some harm to relatives left in the home country. In addition, there are often unrealistic expectations that participation in research will bring instantaneous benefits such as improved working conditions or resolved family problems. The potential implications for this research included a need to very clearly explain the reason for the survey to the respondents, assuring workers of confidentiality and that their managers or supervisors had sanctioned the survey, taking extra time to explain the scoring method, and allowing for the possibility of a lower response rate. Despite these concerns, the researcher expected a high response rate as other workplace studies suggested that the response rate to a survey could range from 58% to 100% (Jain, Normand & Kanungo, 1979; Hedley, 1980; Shackleton & Ali, 1990).

A self-completed questionnaire was administered to employees of four immigrant aid organisations. These agencies provide a wide range of

settlement and integration services to immigrants and refugees. The worksites were located in urban areas and were similar in size, employing approximately 30 to 40 workers from a variety of cultural backgrounds. Two of the workplaces were in Edmonton and two were in Calgary, Alberta. A fifth workplace in Edmonton was also invited to participate but declined citing work pressures (i.e. no time to complete the survey) as the major reason.

A self-administered questionnaire was used because it was more affordable and made it possible to obtain a larger sample size. It was also hoped that the workers would feel that their anonymity was respected. This would encourage them to be more honest about their perceptions of work and also encourage a higher response rate.

Before the main study occurred, a pilot study using six workers was carried out. The pilot study's main purpose was to find any ambiguous or unclear instructions or questions in the demographic questionnaire. These workers were debriefed by the researcher in order to obtain verbal feedback on how the methodology of the study could be improved. Their suggestions to improve the clarity of the questionnaire wording and readability were considered in the final design.

Ethical approval was granted by the Faculty of Agriculture/Forestry and Home Economics Ethics Review Committee before the research was conducted (Appendix B). Access to the workplaces was arranged through meetings with the executive directors at the work sites. The administration of the survey was determined in discussion with the individual directors. At one of the Edmonton work sites, the researcher attended a staff meeting to discuss the survey with the employees. At the other Edmonton work site, the executive director informed the staff of the study during the employees' monthly staff meeting. In the two work sites located in Calgary, the

surveys were mailed to the executive directors with letters attached addressed to the employees, asking for their participation. The surveys were distributed to staff during their staff meetings. A self-addressed, stamped envelope was provided with each survey and the respondents were asked to mail their completed surveys back to the researcher

In all worksites, it was emphasised that participation in the study was entirely voluntary and that workers were assured of confidentiality. Workers were informed that the researcher was interested only in the general conclusions of the data. The data was to be used for research purposes only and the organisation would not be given the individuals' responses.

Participating workers were asked to complete a consent form (a copy of which appears in Appendix C) acknowledging that all the information collected would be kept confidential and would not be released to management or to the organisation. All respondents had the opportunity to request a summary of the results of the study. The list of names and addresses to whom summaries were being sent was kept separately from the questionnaires.

#### **D. Data Analysis**

The data were analysed in the context of the three general objectives of the study. The first objective was to determine what were the work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers in a multicultural workplace. The usual descriptive statistics pertaining to the sample and to the respondents' work values were generated and are reported in the following chapter. The second objective was to examine whether there are similarities and differences between the work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers. Tests for differences between the mean work values of Canadian and

foreign-born were conducted to describe similarities and differences between the work values of Canadian-born and foreign-born. The third objective was to examine the effect of the workplace as a Socialization agent. The acculturation model (Figure 3) was tested using a correlation matrix and analyses of variance.

Correlations were conducted to learn more about the relationships that exist among the many variables. It identified which variables are most highly correlated with work values i.e. the six work values were paired with the variables of age, level of education in Canada, years of education before immigrating to Canada, length of residence in Canada and length of time in the workplace.

The model hypothesised should have been tested using path analysis but the sample size precluded this statistical method. Instead the empirical model illustrated in Figure 3 was tested using a series of two-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) with pairwise deletion of missing data. The six subscale work values variables (pride in work, job involvement, activity preference, attitudes towards earnings, social status of job and upward striving) were used as dependent variables. In each analysis one of the factors used was one of antecedent variables measuring ethnic origin (Canadian versus foreign -born, mother tongue or ethnicity), the second factor was the socialisation process variable length of time in the workplace. Co-variates included age, gender and education. If the F-test was statistically significant, post-hoc tests for differences between means were conducted using the Student-Newman-Keuls statistic.

The results of these analyses are reported in the section titled "Testing the Empirical Hypotheses: Data Analysis Results." To make the data more manageable, only analyses which gave significant results ( $p < .05$ ) are

discussed. The results for each hypothesis are also summarised in corresponding figures.

## **Chapter V. The Results**

### **A. The Sample**

From the 142 questionnaires distributed, 59 completed questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 42%. This is less than the response rate of other workplace studies of 58% to 100% (Jain, Normand & Kanungo, 1979; Hedley, 1980; Shackleton & Ali, 1990). The difference may be due in part to the current economic climate. The questionnaires were distributed near the end of the fiscal year for all the agencies. Given the funding uncertainties, job instability and work demands, some people may have been too preoccupied or busy. In addition, some of the potential respondents may have never been interviewed for social research purposes in their home country (Yu and Liu, 1989). Strand and Jones (1983), for example, in their experience with a Vietnamese sample had a response rate of 35%. Potential respondents may have feared that their responses to survey questions would jeopardise their own employment or affect their working conditions. Some of the potential respondents may have simply declined to participate due to limited English comprehension skills.

### **B. Sample Characteristics**

Of the overall sample, 18 (31%) of the workers were Canadian-born and 40 (69%) had immigrated to Canada. One of the respondents did not provide any information regarding her place of origin. Their ages ranged from 25 to 62, with a sample mean of 41 years. Seventy-six percent of the study population was female. The sample was multicultural and multilingual in nature as respondents reported over 25 different ethnic origins and 16 different languages. Sixty-eight percent of the sample spoke



a mother tongue other than English. The languages spoken included Arabic, Chinese, Croatian, Dutch, French, German, Hungarian, Lao, Polish, Russian, Somali, Spanish, Tigrinia, Urdu and Vietnamese.

The education level of respondents ranged from no schooling in Canada (24%) to holding a graduate degree (4%). Half of the sample had at least some college or university education. Forty-three percent had a university degree or college diploma. The length of residence for those workers who had immigrated to Canada ranged from three to 36 years with the mean of 13.5 years.

With regard to work place demographics, the number of years staff were employed at their current work site ranged from less than a year to 23 years. On average, respondents had been in their current work site almost 6 years. Most of the respondents (80%) worked full-time.

The sample profiles for the Canadian-born and foreign-born workers differed on a few variables. The mean age of Canadian workers was 35 years whereas the average for foreign-born workers was 44 years ( $p=.002$ ). The level of schooling in Canada also differed ( $p=.0003$ ). The Canadian-born workers on average had university degrees and /or college diplomas whereas the foreign-born workers tended to have technical training in Canada. However, although foreign-born participants had less schooling in Canada, they had a mean of 14.7 years of schooling before immigrating to Canada.

### **C. The Work Values**

Referring back to the first two objectives of the study, this section reports (1) what were the work values of the Canadian and foreign-born workers and (2) the similarities and differences between the work values of Canadian-born and foreign-born by the two measures of ethnicity.

First, the work values results are compared to the normative SWV scores. The normative SWV Scores (Bowling Green State University, 1979) are listed in the following tables with the mean total scores for the entire group in this study. The researcher suggests that these figures indicate that the work values scores in this study are valid measures of Protestant Ethics work values. Secondly, the work values scores were compared and analysed in three ways, according to nativity (Table 1), self-reported ethnicity (Table 2), and mother tongue (Table 3).

Data analyses failed to find any statistically significant differences in the work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers. In other words, the work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers were similar. However, in terms of self-reported ethnicity (Table 2), there were statistically significant differences for four of the six work values: “attitude towards earnings” ( $p=.0434$ ), “activity preference” ( $p=.0415$ ), “pride in work” ( $p=.0084$ ) and “social status” ( $p=.0409$ ). In terms of mother tongue (Table 3) there was a statistically significant difference for one of the six work values “pride in work” ( $p=.0057$ ).

| Work Value                | Normative | This Study<br>(std. dev.)<br>n=59 | Cdn.born <sup>a</sup><br>(std. dev.)<br>n=18 | Immigrant <sup>b</sup><br>(std. dev.)<br>n=41 | p-<br>value <sup>ab</sup> |
|---------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------|--|---|---------------------------|
| Attitude towards earnings | 24        | 21<br>(5.38)                      | 19<br>(4.71)                                 | 22<br>(5.50)                                  | .08                       |
| Activity preference       | 36        | 37<br>(3.78)                      | 38<br>(3.18)                                 | 37<br>(3.98)                                  | .22                       |
| Job involvement           | 36        | 36<br>(3.72)                      | 36<br>(3.87)                                 | 36<br>(3.70)                                  | .91                       |
| Pride in work             | 39        | 40<br>(4.31)                      | 41<br>(3.25)                                 | 39<br>(4.62)                                  | .13                       |
| Social status             | 24        | 23<br>(6.33)                      | 21<br>(5.63)                                 | 23<br>(6.50)                                  | .10                       |
| Upward striving           | 30        | 29<br>(4.58)                      | 28<br>(5.75)                                 | 30<br>(3.85)                                  | .09                       |

**Table 1: A comparison of normative SWV scores and mean scores of respondents in this study.**

| Work Value                | Normative | This Study<br>(std. dev.)<br>n=53 | "Canadian"<br>ethnicity <sup>a</sup><br>(std. dev.)<br>n=20 | Ethnicity<br>not<br>Canadian <sup>b</sup><br>(std. dev.)<br>n=33 | p-<br>value <sup>ab</sup> |
|---------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------|---|--|---------------------------|
| Attitude towards earnings | 24        | 21<br>(5.13)                      | 19<br>(4.20)  | 22<br>(5.40)   | .04*                      |
| Activity preference       | 36        | 37<br>(3.84)                      | 39<br>(3.12)  | 36<br>(4.04)   | .04*                      |
| Job involvement           | 36        | 36<br>(3.77)                      | 37<br>(4.16)  | 35<br>(3.48)   | .24                       |
| Pride in work             | 39        | 39<br>(4.45)                      | 42<br>(3.38)  | 38<br>(4.61)   | .01*                      |
| Social status             | 24        | 23<br>(5.91)                      | 21<br>(5.36)  | 24<br>(5.93)   | .04*                      |
| Upward striving           | 30        | 29<br>(4.75)                      | 28<br>(5.53)  | 30<br>(4.10)   | .13                       |

**Table 2: A comparison of normative SWV scores and mean scores of respondents in this study according to self-reported ethnicity.**

\* = statistically significant at the .05 level or better

| Work Value                      | Normative | This Study<br>(std. dev.)<br>n=57 | “Mother<br>tongue<br>English”<br>(std. dev.)<br>n=18 | Mother<br>tongue not<br>English<br>(std. dev.)<br>n=39 | p-<br>value <sup>ab</sup> |
|---------------------------------|-----------|-----------------------------------|--|--|---------------------------|
| Attitude<br>towards<br>earnings | 24        | 21<br>(5.42)                      | 20<br>(4.13)   | 22<br>(5.88)   | .21                       |
| Activity<br>preference          | 36        | 37<br>(3.78)                      | 38<br>(2.83)   | 37<br>(4.12)   | .24                       |
| Job<br>involvement              | 36        | 36<br>(3.70)                      | 37<br>(3.58)   | 35<br>(3.73)   | .22                       |
| Pride in work                   | 39        | 40<br>(4.37)                      | 42<br>(2.85)   | 38<br>(4.56)   | .00*                      |
| Social status                   | 24        | 23<br>(6.31)                      | 21<br>(5.10)   | 24<br>(6.63)   | .08                       |
| Upward<br>striving              | 30        | 29<br>(4.63)                      | 29<br>(4.92)   | 29<br>(4.56)   | .80                       |

**Table 3: A comparison of normative SWV scores and mean scores of respondents in this study according to mother tongue**

\* = statistically significant at the .05 level or better

#### **D. Testing “An Acculturation Model of Work Values”**

The third objective of the study was to examine whether the workplace influences the work values of foreign-born workers. In other words, do work values of foreign-born workers become more similar to those of Canadian-born workers the longer they work together? Five operational hypotheses flowing from “An Acculturation Model of Work Values” (Figure 3) were tested, results of which are reported below. A correlation matrix of work values, and the variables of age, education and job tenure were not statistically significant. Correlations between the work values variables and years of foreign education are reported under results for Hypothesis 4. Correlations between the work values variables and length of time in Canada are reported under results for Hypothesis 5.

**H1:** *Workers with a common mother tongue will share more similar work values than will co-workers who speak different mother tongues. The effect of the mother tongue will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.*

Two-way ANOVAs of the antecedent variable, mother tongue, and the workplace variable (length of time on the job) were performed with each of the six work values. For the purpose of the ANOVA, the time in the workplace was operationalized using median split. Age, length of residency, gender and education were entered as co-variates. No statistically significant main effects or interaction effects were found. None of the co-variates were significant.

**H2:** *Workers of the same ethnic background will share more similar work values than will co-workers with different ethnic backgrounds. The effect of ethnicity will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.*

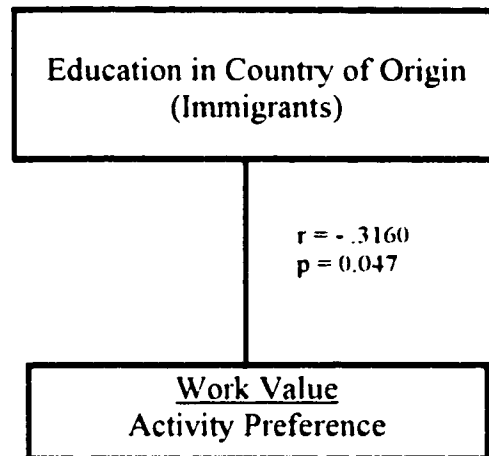
Two-way ANOVAs of the antecedent variable, ethnicity, and the workplace variable (length of time on the job) were performed with each of the six work values. Age, length of residency, gender and education were entered as co-variates. No statistically significant main effects or interaction effects were found. None of the co-variates were significant.

**H3:** *The longer a foreign-born worker has been in the multicultural workplace, the more similar are his or her work values to those of Canadian-born co-workers.*

None of the correlations between the work values variables and job tenure were statistically significant. Two-way analyses of variance were conducted with the antecedent variable (Canadian-born vs. foreign-born) and the socialisation variable of length of time in the workplace. No main effects or interaction effects were found.

**H4:** *Immigrant workers who are more educated will share more similar work values with Canadian-born workers. The effect of education will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.*

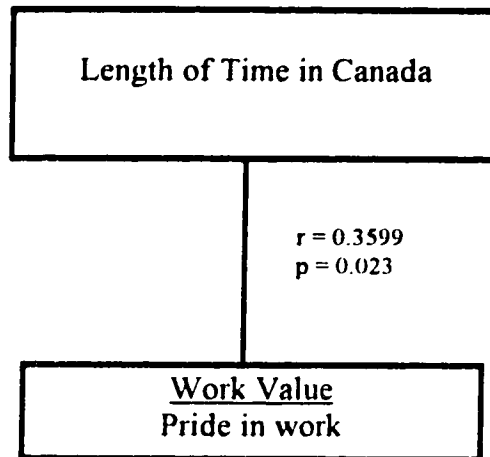
None of the correlations between the work values variables and education in Canada were statistically significant. The work value "activity preference" did however have a significant negative correlation with years of education obtained in country of origin ( $r = -.3160$ ,  $p = .047$ ). The more educated a foreign-born worker was in his or her country of origin, the lower was the score for the activity preference work value. Figure 4 provides a summary of the significant result.



**Figure 4: A model of the relationship between immigrant workers' education level in country of origin and the strength of the work value "activity preference".**

**H5:** *The work values of immigrant workers who have resided longer in Canada will be more similar to Canadian-born workers than immigrant workers who have resided less time in Canada. The effect of residency will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.*

A correlation matrix for length of time in Canada and the six work values (Figure 5) showed no significant correlations with the exception of "Pride in Work" ( $r=.3599$ ,  $p=.023$ ). Immigrant workers who had resided longer in Canada had higher scores for the work value "pride in work" than immigrant workers who had been in Canada for a shorter period of time.



**Figure 5: A model of the relationship between immigrant workers' length of time in Canada and the strength of the work value "pride in work".**

Two-way analyses of variance were conducted with the antecedent variable (length of time in Canada) and the socialisation variable of length of time in the workplace. For the purposes of the ANOVA, both of these variables were operationalized using their median split. The co-variates used were age, gender, and education. No main effects or interaction effects were found. No co-variates were statistically significant.



## **Chapter VI. Discussion**

### **A. Introduction**

The following discussion will try to clarify why the results were so. First, the work values results will be discussed. Second, each hypothesis will be discussed in terms of significant results. Next, some possible reasons for nonsignificant findings in the acculturation model will be offered. Finally, the discussion will conclude with implications for future research.

### **B. Discussion of Work Values**

As mentioned in the previous chapter, Canadian and foreign-born workers had statistically significant differences in terms of age, ethnicity, mother tongue, and level of schooling in Canada. The sub-samples were similar with respect to characteristics of gender, length of time in the workplace, and years of education. The normative SWV Scores from Bowling Green State University (1979) when compared with the mean total scores for the entire sample of this study do not differ significantly. The researcher suggests that this indicates that the work values scores in this study are valid measures of Protestant Ethics work values.

What is interesting is the examination of the similarities and differences between the work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers. In addition to nativity, the work values scores were compared and analysed according to two different measures of ethnicity: self-reported ethnicity and mother tongue. Data analyses failed to find any statistically significant differences in the work values of Canadian and foreign-born workers. However, there were statistically significant differences for four of the six

work values in terms of self-reported ethnicity. Only one of the six work values was statistically significant in terms of mother tongue.

What is apparent in analysing the results is that the respondents replied differently to the questions of ethnicity, mother tongue, and nativity. Whereas 59 people answered the question “Did you immigrate to Canada?” only 53 of the respondents answered the question “To what ethnic or cultural group do you consider yourself to belong?” A few more people (57) responded to the question “What is your mother tongue?” This would suggest that it may matter how ethnicity is measured. Subjects may have been reluctant to identify their ethnicity given the current public sentiment against “hyphenated Canadians”. It was interesting to note that although there were 18 Canadian-born respondents, 20 respondents reported themselves to be “Canadian”. Perhaps one reason for the statistically significant differences in work values when the respondents were grouped according to ethnicity is that some of the immigrants had acculturated to the point that they identified themselves as primarily Canadians. This may have accentuated the similarities in work values as these respondents may have embraced “Canadian” work values to an even greater extent than do the Canadian-born.

In terms of mother tongue, as only one work value was statistically different, it is difficult to determine to what degree language can be considered in this study as a measure of ethnicity. In hindsight, it might also have been useful to have collected information regarding the current language usage as a measurement of acculturation. Assuming that language retention might be an indicator of cultural values retention, perhaps more work values would have been significantly different if the mother tongue had also been measured in terms of language most often spoken at home.

Since some of the work values were statistically different vis-à-vis self-reported ethnicity and mother tongue, the researcher suggests that there may be a different rate of acculturation depending on the work value involved. In other words, some of the work values may be more “changeable” while other values more enduring.

### **C. Discussion of “The Acculturation Model of Work Values”**

The third objective of this study was to examine if the workplace, as a socialisation agent, influences the work values of foreign-born workers. In terms of the hypotheses generated from “An Acculturation Model of Work Values” (Figure 3), the findings of this study were, overall, statistically insignificant. As there were no statistically significant differences in work values of Canadian-born and foreign-born workers as measured by the SWV in this study, these findings are expected. However, in terms of mother tongue and self-reported ethnicity, there were some statistically significant differences in work values.

It may be that the results of the t-tests were “washed out” under the more powerful analyses of variance. Since most of the workers had been employed at their current work site almost 6 years and, in the case of immigrants, resided in Canada on average 13 years, perhaps there were no differences because most of the respondents had already acculturated. Unfortunately, given the nonsignificant results, the role of the workplace in influencing the work values of foreign-born workers is unknown. It is unclear if there really are no differences in work values, or if the analyses failed to detect them. The following sections will provide some additional reasons for the non-significant findings.

## **1. Discussion of Hypothesis One**

*H1: Workers with a common mother tongue will share more similar work values than will co-workers who speak different mother tongues. The effect of the mother tongue will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.*

In this hypothesis, mother tongue was used as a measure of cultural differentiation. There were no significant differences in work values of workers whose mother tongue was English and those whose mother tongue was not English. One possible explanation for these findings is that the researcher failed to study the extent to which workers spoke a common language on the job. Perhaps if they were speaking English in the work place they had already been exposed to "Western" values through the process of learning English.

## **2. Discussion of Hypothesis Two**

*H2: Workers of the same ethnic background will share more similar work values than will co-workers with different ethnic backgrounds. The effect of ethnicity will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.*

As no statistically significant main effects or interaction effects were found, it would appear that ethnicity did not play a role for any of the work values in the workplace. These findings are inconsistent with previous cultural work values studies such as Hofstede (1983) and Orpen ((1978). However, it is also possible, given that there were statistically

significant differences in work values in terms of ethnicity, that the workplace variable “job tenure” simply did not play a socialisation role.

As was noted in the discussion of Hypothesis One, more research is needed to understand “ethnicity” as a cultural differentiator. In this study, a number of immigrants stated their ethnicity as “Canadian”. Perhaps immigrants who choose to identify themselves as Canadians have rejected their cultural heritage or are eager to be seen and accepted as part of mainstream society. If this is so, it would appear logical for these immigrants to embrace “Canadian” values in the workplace. A statistically significant difference would have been expected. Perhaps the grouping of all “ethnic” workers together in the statistical analyses washed out the ethnic differences. Unfortunately, the sample was too small to further break down the groupings into other ethnic categories. Another possible reason for the lack of statistically significant differences in work values is that the job mandate of the workers is to assist newcomers to successfully integrate into Canadian society. The similarity in work values, regardless of ethnicity, may indicate a level of acculturation necessary for their work.

### 3. Discussion of Hypothesis Three

*H3: The longer a foreign-born worker has been in the multicultural workplace, the more similar are his or her work values to those of Canadian-born co-workers.*

No main effects or interaction effects were found for the antecedent variable Canadian born vs. foreign-born and length of time in the work place. There are several possible reasons for nonsignificant findings in the acculturation model. Firstly, the researcher did not ask the respondents about previous work experience. The immigrants may have been

acculturated to Protestant work ethics at previous work sites. Secondly, there were few immigrant workers who were relatively “new” to the job. Unfortunately, the sample was too small to narrow the length of time at work to study the values of immigrant workers who had been at work just a few years. Thirdly, the respondents may have been hired by their employers because they had the type of work attitude or values consistent with the Protestant work ethic or perhaps the work values are a function of job satisfaction and only those workers who feel that they “fitted in” chose to remain employed by the organisations.

#### **4. Discussion of Hypothesis Four**

*H4: Immigrant workers who are more educated will share more similar work values with Canadian-born workers. The effect of education will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.*

No main effects or interaction effects were found for the antecedent variable education and length of time in the work place. The negative correlation of years of foreign education and the work value “activity preference” may be explained by the lack of recognition of foreign credentials. Perhaps some workers feel undervalued or in an occupation that does not reflect their training and the status they may have had in their country of origin thus affecting their perception of work. More research is needed to understand this relationship.

Given the high level of education attained by the respondents, maybe common values occurred due to the “westernization” within the education system of their country of origin. A larger sample with more variance in years of education would be needed to further explore the relationship of education levels and work values.

## **5. Discussion of Hypothesis Five**

**HS:** *The work values of immigrant workers who have resided longer in Canada will be more similar to Canadian-born workers than immigrant workers who have resided less time in Canada. The effect of residency will be different depending on the workers' job tenure.*

There were no significant differences in work values between the immigrants and Canadian-born in this sample. A likely reason may be that the sample did not contain enough “new” immigrants. Only five respondents in the sample had been in Canada five years or less. Although the literature would suggest that there are differences in work values, more research is needed to know at what point in time, that is, after how many years, do values become similar. There was a positive correlation for the work value “Pride in work” and the length of time in Canada. It may be that immigrants who have been in Canada a longer period of time have resolved or accepted their initial status dislocation and are more satisfied with their current work.

## **D. Implications for Future Research**

Much more research is needed to understand the acculturation process of newcomers in terms of value change. Given that the work sites were multicultural in nature, it was surprising to see the uniformity in strengths of values. The nonsignificant findings in this test of the acculturation model may be attributed to a number of factors. As mentioned earlier, the lack of statistically significant differences in work values measured by the Survey of Work Values between Canadian-born and foreign-born workers may

account for a similar lack of work value differences in the test of the workplace as a socialisation agent.. However, any variation in value scores may have also been due to factors other than place of birth. These unknown factors may or may not have been connected with the place of birth.

Secondly, the sample size was small, resulting in an inability to analyse variables in smaller units. For example, a larger sample may have permitted an analysis of immigrants according to ethnic groupings. The possibility of non-response to the survey may be due to language limitations. The Survey of Work Values assumes a fifth-grade English reading level. Some of the potential respondents may have been less literate in English and may have decided not to participate due to the amount of effort it would take to complete the survey. Consequently, this might have excluded those workers with the most different values.

In addition, research literature suggests that migrants experience less acculturative stress in multicultural societies (Kagistcibasi, 1987; Murphy, 1965, 1975). In a multicultural workplace it may be possible for ethnic groups to maintain supportive cultural networks and identities. If this is the case, there may be less resistance to change. Another possible explanation for the nonsignificant findings in this research may simply be that the immigrant workers in this sample had acculturated. On average, these workers had been in Canada over 13 years and at their current work place almost six years. The current literature has not reached a consensus as to how long is the acculturation process. It may not be surprising that few differences in work values remain after this length of time in Canada..

Or perhaps some values are more “changeable” than others. In other words, the acculturation process in terms of values may occur at different rates. Immigrants may cherish certain “core” values and may be resistant



to change them whereas other values, such as those relating to work may be less strongly held. It may be possible that there may be differences in values regarding things other than work. Work values may simply not be as entrenched as other values. Or maybe work values are not that different in different cultures or maybe were not so different for the individuals surveyed in this study.

More research is needed to understand the role of recruitment/ job-screening- perhaps staff are selected for the work because they will “fit” in i.e. share common values or vision. Or maybe only satisfied staff choose to stay at their current work site or have consciously made a choice based on their values to work in the domain of human services.

More research is also needed to investigate the two-way acculturation of Canadian and foreign-born workers. The researcher failed to investigate the cross-cultural experience of the Canadian-born workers. Perhaps these workers not only provided the immigrant workers with models of Canadian values but had also learned to appreciate other ways of perceiving work.

Culture as a causal variable is likely to be interwoven with several other factors (politics in country of origin, previous work experience, age of migration etc.). Interpreting the findings within the confines of the workplace ignores many other aspects of the immigrant's reality, such as the effects of socialisation in language classes, their children acting as socialisation agents and so forth.

As mentioned earlier, it would be erroneous to assume that individuals in ethnic groups all behave the same way and share the same values. Furthermore, as noted in this study, the measurement of ethnicity is not a simple matter: the individual might be a member of more than one culture (e.g. parents from two different cultures); the involvement of the individual in an ethnic group is a matter of degree; and the differences in socio-

economic classes or rural-urban origins might affect the similarity of values. More research is needed to understand to extent to which becoming “Canadian,” be it through citizenship or embracing a “Canadian” identity, indicates an inner acceptance of “Canadian” values and/or the rejection of the individual’s native values. Further research is also needed to better understand the relationship between language learning and acculturation.

Finally, the generalizability of study results are limited. Information about the acculturation of work values in one workplace may not be transferable to other processes of culture change in the larger host society. Furthermore, quantitative surveys, by their nature, simplify and transform complex information, perhaps at the expense of missing the richness and depth of the phenomenon (Westwood & Everett, 1987) Replication in other multicultural workplaces is needed, including longitudinal studies, as well as further exploration using qualitative methods regarding the meaning of work for immigrants. Greater attention must be given to devising appropriate research techniques that encourage the participation of people from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds and from differing levels of literacy. Nonetheless, it is hoped that this study does contribute to our understanding or desire to better understand the acculturation process of newcomers in Canadian society.

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**Appendix A: Survey of Work Values and Demographic Questions**

The researcher was unable to obtain a letter of copyright permission for the Survey of Work Values. The Survey of Work Values Form U (SWV-U; copyright, 1976, BGSU) measures six secular aspects of the Protestant Ethic; pride in work, social status of the job, attitude toward earnings, activity preference, upward striving, and job involvement. The test measure may be purchased from:

BGSU Test Measures  
Department of Psychology  
Bowling Green State University  
Bowling Green, OH 43403  
(419) 372-2301

For addition information contact Dr. Patricia Smith (419) 372-8247 or 352-5514 or Dr. William Balzer (419) 372-2280) at the Department of Psychology, Bowling Green State University.

*This section of the survey will help the researcher understand how different backgrounds are related to individual perceptions of work. Please answer all the questions. There are no right or wrong answers.*

1. Please indicate the date today. \_\_\_\_\_
2. Are you  Male or  Female ?
3. What is your age? \_\_\_\_\_ years.
4. What year did you start working for this agency? 19\_\_\_\_
5. How many hours do you usually work for this agency each week?  
 8 hours or less  9 to 24 hours  25 to 44 hours  45 hours or more
6. To what ethnic or cultural group do you consider yourself to belong?  
\_\_\_\_\_
7. What is your mother tongue? *(the first language you spoke which you still understand)*  
\_\_\_\_\_
8. If you have attended school in Canada, what level of education have you attained?
  - have not attended school in Canada
  - elementary school
  - junior high school
  - technical training
  - some college or university
  - university degree or college diploma
  - graduate degree
9. Did you immigrate to Canada?  Yes  No

*If "yes" to #9, please answer the following questions.*

- 9(a). What is your country of origin? \_\_\_\_\_
- 9(b). In what year did you immigrate? 19\_\_\_\_
- 9(c). How many years of schooling did you complete before immigrating to Canada? \_\_\_\_\_ years
- 9(d). What was your occupation in your country of origin?  
\_\_\_\_\_

*Thank you for participating in this study. Be assured that all this information will be kept confidential.*

**Appendix B: Ethical Approval for Work Values Survey**



University of Alberta  
Edmonton

Canada

Department of Food Science and Nutrition  
Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry/Home Economics

2-06 Agriculture-Forestry Centre, Telephone (403) 492-3236  
Fax (403) 492-8914

APPROVAL  
FOR  
PROPOSAL ON HUMAN RESEARCH

This is to certify that MONIQUE GERVAIS TIMMER has submitted a proposal for a research project entitled WORK VALUES: THE ACCULTURATION OF ETHNIC GROUPS IN THE WORKPLACE to the merged Faculty of Agriculture/Forestry and Home Economics Ethics Review Committee.

The Ethical criteria for human research have been met.

Date: January 27, 1994

Dr. T. K. Basu, Chair

**Appendix C: Consent Form for Survey of Work Values**

## Consent Form

I, \_\_\_\_\_, agree to participate in the Work  
(please print your name)

Values Study, being carried out by Monique Gervais Timmer, a Masters student at the University of Alberta, Human Ecology Department.

I give my consent with the understanding that:

1. All the information will be kept confidential.
2. My participation is voluntary and I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time if I wish to do so.
3. All the original questionnaires will be destroyed once the study is complete.
4. I can receive a summary of the results of the study if I indicate that I would like one with my name, address and postal code at the bottom of this page.

Signature of Participant: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_, 19\_\_

*Please note that this consent form will be separated from your questionnaire when it is received by the researcher.*

If you would like a copy of the summary of the results, please state mailing address:

Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Address: \_\_\_\_\_

Postal Code: \_\_\_\_\_