**Design a tool used to measure attitudes**

**Attitude definition** of **attitude** - a settled way of thinking or feeling about something, truculent or uncooperative behavior, the orientation of an aircraft or spac

Through survey tools of student comfort levels with math & sciencewhat does this assessment measure**?**

Students' self-reported experiences and comfort level with previous math and science courses.

**Briefly describe how you use this assessment tool.**

This survey was created for an introductory-level, interdisciplinary science course for elementary education majors. I have used it in other intro-level science courses, as well. It is helpful for getting a sense of students' attitudes and previous experiences with math and science. It helps me to get a sense of the students' expectations for the course, based on their experiences—this could even be another question that could be added to the survey. I use the survey information to form heterogeneous groups of students, with a range of interests, experiences, and comfort levels in math and science. Mostly these are groups that would work together in lab.

The survey is administered the first day of class. Information is used to group students into heterogeneous groups with a range of comfort levels with math and science. We could also use the information to track changes in attitude, when students report this in the journal they keep for the course.

Science situation questioners

#### **What does this assessment measure works?**

This instrument is targeted at middle school students, designed to determine the relative strengths of their attributions in specific science settings. With respect to internal attributions, the variables are connectedness to peers, autonomy, and competence. With respect to external attributions, the variables are relatedness to adults or more capable peers, perceptions of support for their autonomy, and personal agency in controlling alternative outcomes, or reflectance. Each of the six variables is represented in the context of a specific science learning or engagement opportunity. A series of brief vignettes are presented, each followed by a series of six statements in a Likert format, asking respondents to indicate their likelihood of responding in a manner similar to the statement. Data are then aggregated by variable and by vignette content area.

#### **Briefly describe how you use this assessment tool.**

The original instrument was developed as a part of my doctoral dissertation in 1995. At the time, field testing of the much smaller instrument yielded internal reliability values (Cronbach's alpha) of up to 0.86. Currently, this instrument is in an advanced prototype stage, having been much expanded and recently been converted into an online format. This was necessary as the logistics of field-testing the instrument (getting it to schools, recording the data, minimizing impact during the school day) proved to be difficult. With the easy availability of online survey technology, however, the instrument is now ready for a full field test, and several middle school teachers have indicated an interest in having their students participate.

The main idea is that with these data, an instructor or teacher would be able to better tailor the delivery of content to the motivational profile of their students. For instance, if a group of students indicated a strong interest in personal autonomy for a particular domain, instructional delivery in a teacher-centered, control-oriented manner would be incompatible. Furthermore, if a group of students were relatively uninterested in alternative outcomes, then instructional time need not emphasize these, unless there was a specific need to do so. Advance knowledge of this gap would be useful in planning the time required to achieve such goals.

As stated, however, this instrument is targeted at a much younger audience. It is my interest in adapting this instrument to more advanced students, in high school Earth science as well as introductory geology classes. Furthermore, as the vignettes cover a broad range of science domains, I am also interested in developing vignettes specific to the Earth sciences.

**Questionnaire** to measure indicators for recruitment/retention in geoscience careers

**What does this assessment measure works?**

The instrument is designed to measure changes in attitudes and behaviors related to enhanced likelihood of students remaining in the geosciences career pipeline. These indicators were developed by AIR staff as part of a conceptual framework to enable us to assess the effectiveness of NSF Opportunities for Enhancing Diversity in the Geosciences (OEDG) projects in the short term. The framework is based on a general literature review of STEM college major/career choice by underrepresented minorities and a critical incident study focusing on specific indicators for geoscience career choice (Fuhrman et al; 2004). These geoscience indicators include, for example: attitude toward outdoors activities, ability to work in groups, and geoscience faculty accessibility. The specific indicators assessed in the draft survey are listed in the separate indicator/survey linking document.

**Briefly describe how you use this assessment tool.**

This instrument is designed for use as a pre- /post-evaluation of an individual workshop, course, or other intervention intended to enhance geoscience career choice. It is based on similar surveys used by OEDG grantees as one way to evaluate the effectiveness of their programs/workshops/courses in encouraging members of under-represented minorities to enter and be retained in a pathway toward a geoscience career.

Customized items can be added to address specific goals of an individual workshop or course—see the optional items at the end of the instrument, for some examples. These items have been designed to measure changes in attitudes and behaviors; so it is important that users administer the exact same items in the pre- and post- versions of the survey. It makes data interpretation difficult when different versions of items are used in pre- and post- versions.

Note that these items are all closed-ended. It may be tempting to add open-ended items, but it streamlines the analysis procedure greatly if as many items as possible are closed-ended. Closed-ended questions can always have a "catch-all" option of : "Other (explain)"..; common "other" answers can then become formal options in subsequent versions of the instrument.

Perceptions of Instrumentality Scale

What does this assessment measure?

Perceptions of Instrumentality. (Husman, Derryberry, Crowson, & Lomax, 2004). This scale consists of two subscales: Endogenous Instrumentality and Exogenous Instrumentality. The Endogenous subscale consists of four items that ask about the utility of learning the course content for future goals (alpha=.73). The Exogenous instrumentality subscale consists of 4 items that ask if receiving a good grade or passing the course will help students achieve their future goals (alpha=.52). Students responded to both subscales on a five point Likert type response from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

**Briefly describe how you use this assessment tool.**

Each of the two subscales are summed or averaged. Before calculating the subscale scores four of the eight items, which are negatively worded, need to be recoded. I have used this scale at the beginning and end of a semester to measure change in students PI throughout the semester. The scale can also be used in the middle of the semester to determine the students' mid-semester sense of the importance of the course. I have also determined that the scale is most effective at the course level (rather than at the "chapter" or "topic-of-the-week" level).

**General Community Attitude Measures**

Social Distance

One of the most commonly used approaches, social distance, assesses a respondent’s willingness to interact with a target person in different types of relationships.

**Semantic Differential and Related Measures**

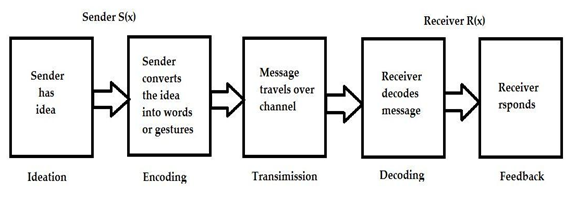
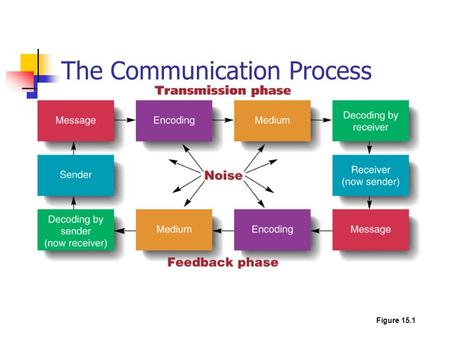
Developed by Charles E. Osgood and colleagues (1957), the Semantic Differential is a measurement technique that provides a direct assessment of stereotyping, or the tendency to link a label like “person with mental illness” with negative attributes. The Semantic Differential presents respondents with labels, or concepts, such as “person with mental illness” and asks them to evaluate the extent to which those labels are associated with various characteristics

**Attribution Measures**

Measurement focusing on a subject’s emotional reactions (e.g., pity, anger), behavioral intentions, and perceived controllability of a stigmatizing condition stems from attribution theory (Weiner, 1988). According to attribution theory, the target’s perceived responsibility for the stigmatizing circumstance predicts either anger and punishing actions (if believed to be controllable), or pity and helping behaviors towards the target (if believed to be uncontrollable). Causes that are seen as changeable over time generate conceptions that recovery from the condition is possible, whereas causes that are seen as unchanging elicit beliefs that the condition is immutable. Attribution measures include assessments of responsibility and the emotional reactions that variation in responsibility might induce such as pity, anger, fear, helping/ avoidant behavior, and coercion-segregation (see Corrigan et al, 2003;

Emotional reaction to mental illness scale angermeyer and matschinger (1996) developed a scale to measure emotional reactions toward persons with mental illnesses. the final measure consisted of 12 five-point likert-scale items, with each item assessing a single emotional response. factor analysis yielded three dimensions: 1) aggressive emotions (e.g., anger, irritation); 2) prosocial reactions (desire to help, sympathy); and 3) feelings of anxiety (uneasiness, fear). this instrument’s key strengths are its assessment of affective experiences of the stigmatizer which have previously been under-assessed and its demonstrated reliability and validity.

**Qn 2Construct the communication process diagram**



1Sender

First step communication start with the sender the initiator generate the ideas to which is to be communicated and the receiver of the massages it being verbal or none verbal all series

2 Receiver Transmission take place to the receiver channel the message is understood

3 Noise any things that obstruct the effectiveness o the communication

4 feedback between the two parties involved in the process

#### Feedback **edit attitude** work need be inculdued

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**Methods Used for Measuring the Attitudes of Individual Employee**

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Some of the major methods which are used for measuring the attitudes of individual are as follows:

**The Sample:**

Changes in attitude, degree, or direction demand measuring techniques of established, reliable, and valid variety. Accordingly, psychologists and other social scientists devote much time and attention to sampling techniques and instrument construction so that attitudes can be measured accurately. The results of any attitude measurement have to be generalized against or com­pared with a population with known characteristics.

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Predictions are possible when the group included for measurement is typical of the population being studied. In a national election the sample should be representative of the total number of persons who actually vote. For a new product, the sample of potential users studied must resemble those who will ultimately use the product. Various techniques have been developed to draw a sample.

Kish (1953) describes simple random sampling, probability sampling, area sam­pling, stratified sampling, and cluster sampling, among others. As can readily be inferred, the choice and size of subjects included in the sample is a matter of budget and time, but some systematic method of selecting the sample from the universe of the population is mandatory if the results are to have any reliability and validity.

In drawing a simple random sample, the size of the population, such as the num­ber of employees, is known and a number is assigned to each. Those interviewed will be the total decided and those whose numbers were drawn by chance as if out of a hat. The probability sample selects respondents based upon knowledge of the elements comprising the population; in other words, it is a statistical refinement of the random sample. Area sampling selects its respondents from, boundaries that are defined and identifiable. Most often the respondents in area sampling are identified with dwelling units within the area.

Stratified sampling divides the population into subpopulations called strata. From each strata a sample is selected. For example, subsamples might consist of product users versus nonusers, or teen-age males and teen-age females, or almost any variable in the characteristics of a population about which one hopes to obtain data leading to a solution of the problem investigated. Cluster sampling requires the selection of respondents from defined groups or areas. Selecting a sample from five cities, eight blocks, three classes of general psychology students, or any other selected and defined segment of a population is the essence of cluster sampling.

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Regardless of the method of sampling and the statistical refinements introduced to reduce sampling errors, the ultimate value of the sample obtained depends upon the quality and integrity of the interviewers. One cannot hope to obtain an adequate sample without paying great attention to the briefing, supervising, and auditing of field interviews.

Unfortunately, this fact is often overlooked by quite a few so-called research organizations, and when they do not obtain the sample character­istics desired, they “correct” for the imbalance by “projecting” from within segments of their own sample. Statistically this may be correct, but methodologically it is a poor and unsatisfactory substitute.

Six methods of measuring attitudes, each with its advantages and disadvantages, will be described and illustrated. Which one should be used will often depend on the person or group upon whom the decision rests. Attitude measurement can be used by an individual employer, a trade association, a union, or an informal em­ployee group. A satisfied staff, a strike call, an expansion of the group, or a series of changes in the plant may result from the facts uncovered.

**The methods to be described are:**

(1) Impressionistic,

(2) Guided interview,

(3) Unguided interview,

(4) Questionnaire,

(5) Attitude scale, and

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(6) Indirect.

**1. Impressionistic Method:**

The impressionistic method is non-statistical in that it does not lead to quantitative knowledge. It is based upon the observation of behaviour and attitudes. From the point of view of science, it is the least desirable of the six methods but because it is a method whereby attitude measures attitude, it is the most widely used.

The industrial psychologist can only condone it. It is excusable when regarded as a preliminary to the other methods or when a very rapid spot survey must be made. The validity of the impressionistic method varies from very poor to rather good, depending to a large extent upon the training of the observer—whether he can remain neutral in the situation he observes, whether his background and identifica­tions preclude the possibility of correct conclusions, and whether the results are forced in a certain direction. Since it is hard to tell who is a saint or a sinner either before or after the report is made, this method has its danger points and must be taken with at least a few grains of salt.

It must be recognized that the very source of data can be highly subjective. The reporter’s biases, point of view, and previous attitudes toward similar experiences can determine what is perceived. Further, one’s acceptance or rejection of the person reporting the impression often determines whether the impression is regarded as fact or fiction.

Industrial towns, factory sites, work conditions, and employee morale are often measured by the impressionistic method. An illustration—and one intended to bring out its chief characteristic, impressions—is given below. It concerns one author’s impressions of Hershey, Pennsylvania, the site of the Hershey Chocolate Corporation. The author claims the report is factual; some readers may claim that it is fiction.

Numerous visits to Hershey have led the author to conclude that this is the garden spot of America, at least as far as industrial towns are concerned. It seems to him that the employees are given much more than merely a chance to work for a living, to earn money. This small town contains more opportunity to live and enjoy oneself than does any other town of comparable—and, in many cases, much greater—size.

For example, there is a community building that houses the commu­nity theater, a little theater, a junior college, a hospital, a gymnasium, a swimming pool, bowling alleys, game rooms, a social room, library, dining room, cafeteria, club rooms, and dormitories. Elsewhere in the town there is a park ballroom, an amusement park for picnicking and riding, trout pools, a zoological garden, a rose garden, playhouses and playgrounds for children, a sports arena, an outdoor stadium, and a department store.

The school system is understood to be the largest con­solidated system in the country, and includes grade school, junior high, and senior high—with its academic, commercial, and vocational divisions—an industrial school, and a junior college. There is no tuition for any of this schooling. A sidelight on the school system is the program whereby 1000 orphan boys are housed oh nearby farms and taught trades as well as given an education. At age 18 they receive a year’s supply of clothing and $100 in addition to what they may have saved from their weekly allowances.

There is a palatial hotel on the hilltop and an inn which, although much less pretentious, is clean and well-kept. Guests receive miniature Hershey bars. Everything in the town, from the factory to the office building and the homes, is spotless. The people look happy and well-fed, and the homes are in good repair. The streets are named after the various items used in the chocolate bars; the only thing that is not named Hershey is the post office.

To compare this city with some of the mining towns in the same state is like getting a glimpse of paradise and its opposite. The author’s impression of Hershey, its factory, and its workers is extremely favorable. However, it is only fair to say that many people, professional psychologists included, who have had the same op­portunities to observe the town do not agree with this view. To them the entire setup indicates an excessive paternalism, and they feel that the employees have been lulled into a false security and have consequently lost their zeal, ambition, and drive.

The reader may wonder about the possibility of industrial strife in such a com­pany. The fact is that in 1937 Hershey was the scene of bloodshed. Newspaper files reveal that on March 18, 1937, Hershey signed an agreement with the United Chocolate Workers of America (CIO) recognizing the union as the collective bar­gaining agent for its members.

On April 2, 1937, about 500 Hershey workers went on a sit-down strike; they occupied the main plant and forced a complete shutdown of the company. On April 8, 1937, the front-page headlines of the city’s newspaper read: “Farmers oust 500 sit-down strikers in battle at Hershey plant. Many injured. M. S. Hershey in tears.” Finally, on April 24, 1937, an election supervised by the National Labour Relations Board was held, and 1542 men voted for no union while 781 voted for the United Chocolate Workers.

Depending upon preconceived attitudes, many different conclusions can be drawn from this series of episodes. One might be that it pays to treat employees fairly; another might be that it does not. Since the authors hold no brief for either general­ization—because neither is warranted—it is not necessary to draw any conclusion except to observe that the impressionistic method needs bolstering. More rigid and exacting techniques for measuring attitudes are necessary, and the remaining five methods supply them. The first two are specific types of interviewing used in the measurement of attitudes. They differ in organization and in the type of question asked.

**2. Guided Interview:**

The second method of measuring attitudes, the guided interview, is a purposeful conversation in which the interviewer tries to obtain honest and complete answers to a specific number of questions. Like all interviews, it has the advantage of face-to-face contact. This type of interview is used most frequently in industry when considering an applicant for a job. In addition, an employer or his representative may use it in handling group complaints of workers. However, it has not been used very often in determining employee attitudes.

In the guided interview, the interviewer must abide by certain rules. He must limit his talking to the minimum, asking questions and saying a few words here and there to impress the interview with the importance of what the interviewee is saying. The interviewer should never argue or give advice; he should have skill m relining from both of these.

He should not express his private convictions. He must be sympathetic and encouraging but make no suggestions. The interviewer must try to have all his questions answered, and he must ask all his subjects the same questions in the same way. The questions must be fair; they must allow for an answer and should not be leading. They must not be embarrassing. A fair and complete record of the interview should be kept. Usually the best time to make this record is immediately after the interview.

The reader must be cautioned about such interviewing. It is difficult, much more difficult than one suspects. The pitfalls are many. In the hands of the inexperienced, the interview is likely to turn into a pep talk, a biased series of questions, or an

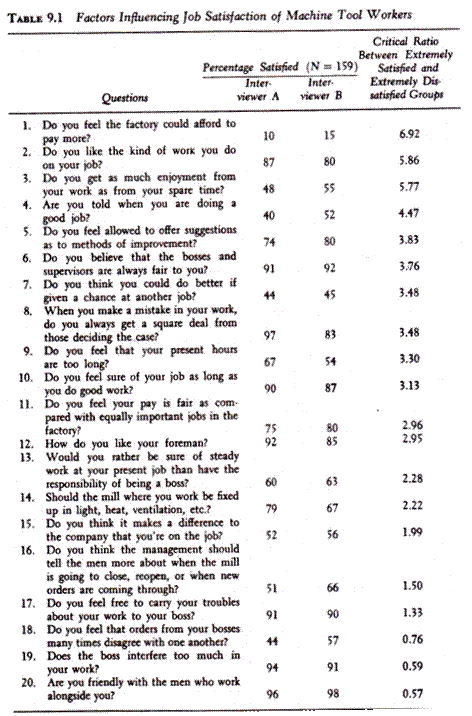
The guided interview is a relatively expensive method of determining employee attitude. Unless an experienced person conducts it, the results are likely to be as inaccurate as those obtained with the impressionistic method. To do a survey of 100 employees usually requires from one hundred to two hundred hours. This time includes planning, preparation, interviews, analysis of data, and writing the report. While it is not necessary to argue how much the services of an industrial psychol­ogist are worth, the prevailing scale paid to consultants varies, and such a study can cost between $2000 and $4000. This cost deters a great many employers and en­courages them to use the impressionistic method.

The guided interview is valuable insofar as it yields information on the specific frustrations of employees. It shows what has gone wrong with the beautiful blue­print of organization and communication.

A study by Stagner, Rich, and Britten (1941) illustrates a guided interview with the “closed” type of answer. In such an interview the respondent is asked a series of specific questions and is expected to answer with one of a number of answers that are provided. In its most simple and highly structured form, the closed type of answer is either “yes” or “no.” A group of 159 machine tool workers were inter- viewed in their homes.

Thirty-four brief questions were read to them, and the answers were recorded on a five-point scale from emphatic “yes to emphatic no. Each interview was short, lasting only about eight minutes. A numerical scoring system was used on which a number from 1 through 5 was assigned each answer. Since 19 questions, according to the authors, were related to job satisfaction, it was possible to get a total score for this attitude. Perfect satisfaction would yield a score of 19 and complete dissatisfaction a score of 95. In this study the range was from 27 to 67, with an average of 43.5 indicating that the average worker m this group was “satisfied” (neutrality would be 57).

Extremely satisfied and extremely dissatisfied workers were then selected on the basis of their scores in an effort to determine the questions that most clearly dif­ferentiated these two groups. Some of the questions used in the interview are reported in Table 9.1, together with the percentage of satisfied workers and the critical ratios (CR, significance of the difference between the satisfied and the dissatisfied groups defined in a study; a CR of 3 or more indicates a statistically significant dif­ference) . The main object in presenting this table is to illustrate the type of question asked in a guided interview on job satisfaction. The results are to be considered of secondary importance. (The questions are arranged by their critical-ratio value and not in the order asked.)

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The table shows that although a small proportion of the workers were satisfied with their pay, this question nevertheless differentiated to the greatest extent the satisfied workers from the dis-satisfied ones. Each question m Table 9.1 can be examined in terms of the way the entire population would probably answer, and thus a list of satisfactions and dissatisfactions can be constructed. It can also be analyzed in terms of the way dissatisfied workers differ from satisfied workers. For example, “pay” “liking the kind of work,” and “relation of enjoyment of work and spare-time activity” successfully differentiate the two groups. However, “friendly with the men,” “boss interferes,” and “bosses’ orders disagree” are items that do not suc­cessfully distinguish the two groups.

Another example of the guided interview technique is the work of Kornhauser (1952). While he was broadly concerned with the attitudes of Detroit people toward Detroit, at least two points in the study have particular reference here.

**A total of 324 employed people rated their job satisfaction as follows:**

Very satisfied – 62

Fairly satisfied – 35

Rather dissatisfied – 2

Very dissatisfied – 1

In response to the query “What do you like about your job? What like about it?” the principal likes and dislikes mentioned are listed in Table 9.2.

**A quotation from the study is most interesting in view of its implications:**

“Not less interesting is a related discovery. Whereas 68 percent of skilled and 51 percent of non-skilled factory workers mention “inherent interest, nature of work and the like as reasons for liking their jobs, only 38 percent of skilled and 27 percent of non-skilled workers outside of factories cite similar reasons. This tends to refute the notion that auto-plant jobs are especially robot like, deadly or devoid of interest. At the same time, however, it is to be noted that factory workers speak much less than non-factory workers of freedom, personal responsibility and opportunities for advancement as sources of job satisfaction. Among all the occupational groups, moreover, there are remarkably few references to chances for advancement.”

Heron, working in this same area, has proposed a I5-item job satisfaction inven­tory (1954). The nature of the questions allows either a multiple-choice type of response on a five-point scale or a considerable degree of verbalism. By Way of illus­tration his inventory is presented (Heron, 1954). It is a good model.

1. How do you feel you have got on since first coming here?

2. As a place to work, how does transport compare with other places in this area (or where you lived before)?

3. How much does your job give you a chance to do the things you are best at?

4. How fresh do you usually feel at the end of the day?

5. Not counting all the other things that make your job good or bad, how do you like the kind of work that you do?

6. How do your mates think this job compares with most other jobs?

7. How convenient are the hours on this job?

8. How do you find the transport department as an employer?

9. How well do your average earnings supply a decent standard of living?

10. How interesting is this job?

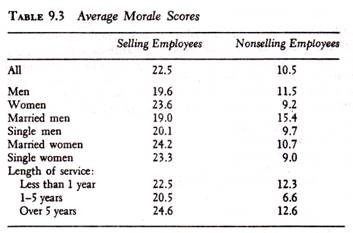
11. What is your opinion about the speed at which a guard has to work during peak hours?

12. How well is the transport department run?

13. How do you like your job?

14. How do you feel about your prospects of advancement in the transport department?

15. How satisfied are you with your job?

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**3. Unguided Interview (Non-directive):**

The third method of determining employee attitude is the unguided interview or the nondirective interview. Although there are differences between the two terms, for purposes of industrial psychology they can be considered similar.

The unguided interview is characterized by the free nature of the discussion and by the fact that it is the person interviewed who really defines its limits. There are no specific questions that the interviewer must ask; his main concern is to probe and establish the emotional content of the interview. Carl Rogers is one of the leaders in promoting this type of interview as a form of psychotherapy; the reader will benefit greatly by reading his book Counselling and Psychotherapy (Rogers, 1942). The Hawthorne group has been responsible for many ad­vances in the application of this technique to industry. One of their contributions is a series of rules of orientation and of conduct.

**The rules of orientation are as follows:**

1. The interviewer should treat what is said in an interview as an item in a context.

a. The interviewer should not pay exclusive attention to the manifest content of the con­versation.

b. The interviewer should not treat everything that is said as either fact or error.

c. The interviewer should not treat everything that is said as being at the same psychologi­cal level.

2. The interviewer should listen not only to what a person wants to say but also for what he does not want to say or cannot say without help.

3. The interviewer should treat the mental contexts described in the preceding rule as indices and seek through them the personal reference that is being revealed.

4. The interviewer should keep the personal reference in its social context.

a. The interviewer should remember that the interview is itself a social situation and that therefore the social relation existing between the interviewer and the interviewee is in part determining what is said. The interviewer should see to it that the speaker’s senti­ments do not act on his own.

**The rules of conduct are:**

1. The interviewer should listen to the speaker in a patient and friendly, but intelligently critical, manner.

2. The interviewer should not display any kind of authority.

3. The interviewer should not give advice or moral admonition.

4. The interviewer should not argue with the speaker.

5. The interviewer should talk or ask questions only under certain conditions:

a. To help the person talk

b. To relieve any fears on the part of the speaker which may be affecting his relation to the interviewer

c. To praise the interviewee’ for reporting his thoughts and feelings accurately

d. To veer the discussion to some topic which has been omitted or neglected

e. To discuss implicit assumptions, if this is advisable

These rules are not cited because they are either self-explanatory or above debate, but because they give an idea of the general conduct of the interview. Excerpts from two interviews show both the varied nature of the discussion and the underlying principles involved.

**Employee:**

Things went along pretty well for a long time, although at times I was a little dis­couraged, as during the time I was laid off for three or four months and there were quite a number of changes in supervisors; and when I came back to work in Department\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ I was very much surprised.

**Interviewer: How’s that?**

**Employee:**

It seems that it was my destiny to be working for a man who had been my supervisor three times before on outside jobs. We had always got along together then, but there seemed to be a certain coolness developed between us—why, I don’t know—but I did my work and said nothing. His attitude toward me did not get any better and many a time I had reason­able cause for complaint, but I kept still.

**Interviewer: Is that so?**

**Employee:**

Yes, he used some very abusive language at times. . . . Last year I was hit a terrible blow. My seventeen-year-old girl was taken away from me. She was sick not quite a week. She died of spinal meningitis.

**Interviewer: That’s too bad.**

**Employee:**

Yes, she was a dandy young lady. She would have graduated from high school this February. My daughter’s death caused my wife to have a general nervous breakdown a week after my girl was buried. That meant I had to send her to the hospital right away. In the course of her treatment in the hospital, the doctors advised me that in addition to her nervous con­dition she was in a very delicate condition. I could hardly believe it, but later on I was convinced. Well, my wife was in the hospital for about nine weeks and then came home.

About seven and a half months after that I was the father of twins, a girl and a boy, and the birth of twins, along with my wife’s nervous condition, left her in a very bad shape. She – came home from the hospital three weeks after the twins were born. She was unable to walk; in fact, she was almost an invalid.

A week or two later, while my other girl who is fifteen years old went to the store and there was nobody else around, my wife made an attempt to walk, and in doing so she was so weak that she fell and knocked one kneecap out of place and injured herself internally. I had to send her back to the hospital. She was there from three to five weeks, I think, and now she is practically an invalid.

I have been advised by the doctors that what she needs the most is rest and quiet, and I am saving every penny so that I may be able to send her to a sanitarium.

Mr. Interviewer, aren’t you getting tired of listening to me?

**Interviewer:**

No, indeed I am not. Go right ahead. I am very much interested.

**Employee:**

Well, all the time that I was having this trouble my supervisor, a man whom I worked with twelve years, treated me like a dog.’

Excerpts from another interview are as follows:

**Interviewer:**

You feel that there is a little politics played, is that it?

**Employee:**

A little? Well, I think there is a great deal of it, if you are asking me. This friend­ship stuff, stepping out with the boss, goes a long way around here. A blind man could see that.

**Interviewer:**

You feel that stepping out with the boss gives a person a drag?

**Employee:**

A drag? Say, he is sitting on top of the world. It doesn’t make any difference whether he knows anything or not. He is put on a job and is sure to remain there as long as his friend remains a department head. Usually the man has ample time to get experience and with the department head coaching him along, he has probably developed himself well enough so that by the time his friend is transferred he is rather familiar with the job.

**Interviewer:**

You mentioned that you were a supervisor one time. What capacity were you in?

**Employee:**

I was a section head in the X department at one time. I was later made a section head in charge of the Y department.

**Interviewer:**

Were you given any reason why you were, taken off this supervising work?

**Employee:**

No, they never told me a thing. They took me off and made me like it. That’s what makes me mad. They do these damn things and they never give a fellow any explana­tion. They put anything they feel like down on this personnel record and it goes upstairs and the employee never knows what is on that record. I don’t see how they can do that. If they put anything on record, I don’t see why the employee is not allowed to see it.

I think if they would show these things to the employees, an employee would have an opportunity of correcting these wrongs if he only knew what they were. When raise time comes along, you don’t get a raise and they never give you any reason why.

They just tell you that you ate doing a good job, to keep it up, that they are very sorry but they didn’t have enough to go around. Of course, that’s very possible, that everybody can’t get a raise every time, but I think they should arrange it so that certain ones would get a raise one time and the others another time. They also tell you that you are not under limit of the job, but they don’t give you any more money. I can’t figure that thing out.

If a fellow gets up around $50 a week, he is at a standstill. It’s been two and a half years now since I have had an increase. I am working just as conscientiously as I ever did. I am always living in hope that the next time I’ll get a raise. When a fellow is married and has a family, there are always certain places for your money every week?

The greatest advantage of this type of interview is that when it is conducted cor­rectly the interviewer is fairly sure of getting at what is on the worker’s mind and thus is able to understand the attitudes of employees. Its disadvantages are that it is difficult to summarize and requires laborious study. It is also time consuming and costly, and sometimes presents problems that most industrial concerns believe are out of their province.

**4. Questionnaire:**

The fourth method, the questionnaire, lends itself to the mass-production tech­niques of determining employee attitudes. In some respects there is more similarity than difference between this method and the guided interview. For example, the study by Stanger, Rich, and Britten (1941) might just as well have been a question­naire study. The fact that eight minutes is reported as the length of the interview means that they went at a very rapid pace.

However, it may be that these authors pre­ferred to question the workers in their homes because they felt they would get more honest answers. It is also possible that they wanted workers from various plants, or were afraid they would not be given permission to conduct their survey at the plant.

In any case, they could have distributed these questionnaires at one time if they could have gotten the subjects together. On the other hand, the interview usually affords an opportunity for the interviewer to observe the subject’s feelings and manner of answering questions.

Although these two methods overlap, the questionnaire is more economical be­cause one person can administer it to a large group at one time. This method also has the advantage of eliminating any effect the interview may have on the respondent and of not requiring as much experience or training on the part of the interviewer as the other methods do. It has the disadvantages of securing no more information than that provided by the answers to the specific questions and of lacking the spon­taneity of the unguided interview.

The use of the questionnaire method in determining employee attitude is exem­plified in Kolstad’s study (1938). Kolstad constructed a questionnaire designed to measure the attitudes of certain employees in a department store toward specific items and the overall job morale.

**He defines morale by listing the following ten attitudes or beliefs that were expressed by employees with high morale:**

1. Feels very sure of holding his job as long as he does good work

2. Has been made to feel in every way that he is ready a part of the organization

3. Feels that the management does a great deal more than could be expected to maintain good working relationships between him and the people with whom he works

4. Feels that the management of this store is more interested in the welfare of the people in jobs such as his than are the other department stores in the city

5. Has never been dissatisfied with his job or if he has, such dissatisfaction was hardly ever the store’s fault

6. Believes that this department store treats its employees better than the other department stores in the city

7. Feels that the management is always fair with the employees in jobs such as his

8. Feels that his immediate superiors are always fair in their treatment of him

9. Can always find out whether his work is improving or not

10. Knows of no other department store in the city in which he would rather work in the same job at the same salary

Ten multiple-choice questions were used to cover these topics. Each question had five answers; the subject checked only one.

**A representative question was:**

How much does the management do to have good working relations between you and the people with whom you work?

( ) as little as possible

( ) much less than one would expect

( ) about as much as one would expect

( ) a little more than one could expect

( ) a great deal more than one could expect

**The questionnaire was scored, the possible scores ranging from + 48 to —48. The specific items that were found to be most closely related to morale (as defined by Kolstad) were:**

1. Promotion of best-qualified persons

2. Help available to get results expected

3. Encouragement to offer new ideas and suggestions

4. Fair hearing—square deal for grievances

5. Pay increase when deserved

6. Invitation to offer suggestions when plans are being made

7. Freedom to seek advice when problems arise

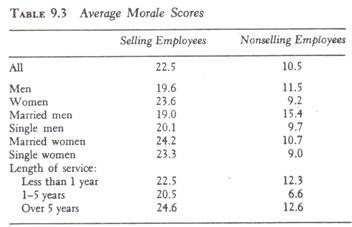
8. Reasons given when changes are ordered in work

9. Information about plans and results

10. No contradictory or conflicting order?

The findings of this study, shown in Table 9.3, are based upon 740 non-selling and 660 selling employees. The table is presented not in order to demonstrate the nature of morale, but rather to illustrate how scoring a questionnaire leads to quan­titative results. These data indicate that the morale of the employees who sell is higher than that of employees who do not sell. Kolstad finds no significant statistical differences between the scores of men and women, married and single men, or married and single women.

He does report statistically significant differences in the scores based on length of service. Thus the group employed one to five years had a lower morale than either the short-term employees or those employed over five years.

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Since the main point of this article is to explain the principles of measuring attitudes, a minor, comment may be made about the table in the original article. It is incomplete. Kolstad goes to the trouble of reporting averages and standard devia­tions for twenty groups but does not indicate the number in the subgroups. He merely reports the total number of employees in the selling and non-selling groups. As a result, it is impossible to check the reliability of the differences reported or to compute others. To fail to indicate the number of persons in a group is a serious error in statistical technique.

Kolstad also reports on the items investigated. He queried the employees on 54 specific items related to store pride, relations with superiors, promotion, pay, and factors influencing employee results on the job.

**The four items that he found most closely related to morale among the selling employees were:**

(1) Promotion of best- qualified persons,

(2) Encouragement to offer new ideas and suggestions,

(3) Under­standing of difficulties of job by superiors, and

(4) Help available to get results expected.

**The four items for the non-selling employees were:**

(1) Help available to get results expected

(2) Encouragement to offer new ideas and suggestions,

(3) Fair hearing—a square deal for grievances, and

(4) Promotion of best-qualified persons.

A novel questionnaire technique has been proposed by Kerr (1948). This system not only guarantees anonymity, but also makes it unnecessary to do any writing or marking on the responses. The “Tear Ballot for Industry” has eleven appropriate questions. Each question furnishes five answers, and all the person does in responding is to tear the appropriate arrowhead at the end of the answer.

Weitz and Nuckols compared the direct and indirect question technique as used in a questionnaire (1953). As an example of the indirect approach the following question was used: “Approximately what percent of the agents in your company think that the training they received was good? 0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100 percent.” As an example of the direct approach the following question was used: “The training I received for my present job was\_\_\_\_ poor;\_\_\_\_\_ adequate; \_\_\_ excellent.”

The authors found that the direct and indirect items correlated with each other. They found that both, to some extent, could predict the criterion which they used, that is, survival or continued employment. They also found that the direct items, in general, did a slightly better job of predicting survival, and so they see no ad­vantage in using the indirect question.

The methodological controversy over the use of direct and indirect items as a system of gathering data will of course continue. A review of all the literature in this connection indicates that there is as much evidence in favour of one as in favour of the other. Apparently the bias of the researcher enters into the situation. Both will continue to be used; the advantages and disadvantages of each should be care­fully considered in relation to the particular situation.

**Attitude Scales:**

The fifth and best method of formally measuring employee attitudes is through the use of attitude scales. As the name implies, an attitude scale is a kind of “psycho­logical yardstick” which can be used to measure attitudes in a quantitative manner.

There are a number of different techniques available for constructing good atti­tude scales. Also, attitude scales can themselves be grouped into different classes, depending upon their rationale.

**The following taxonomy is a useful one:**

1. Rating-Scale Instruments

2. Scaled-Item Instruments

a. Rank Order Scaling

b. Paired Comparison Scaling

c. Equal Appearing Intervals Scaling

d. Successive Intervals Scaling

3. Criterion-Group Instruments

a. Likert Scale

b. Error-Choice Scale

4. Other Methods

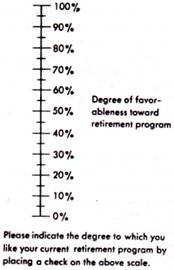
a. Guttman Scale

b. Osgood Semantic Scale

A detailed examination of these different types of scales is not possible here. However, a brief discussion of each will be useful.

**Rating-Scale Instruments:**

Appropriately named, these are simple scales which are given to a person to use to rate himself on a given attitude dimension. To illus­trate, suppose you wished to measure workers’ attitudes toward their retirement pro­gram. One way of doing this would be to present each worker with a scale as shown below.

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The resulting rating is a single, global estimate of how favourable the worker is to the particular attitude object involved (in this case the attitude object was the retirement program). Some of the major advantages of this method of obtaining a person’s attitude are its simplicity and its ease of use. Its major disadvantages are the ease with which it can be faked (a person can easily falsify his attitude if he so desires) and its lack of specificity (it only gives a global assessment of the attitude without giving any more detailed information).

**Scaled-item instruments:**

The rationale of this attitude-measuring procedure is quite simple also.

**In sequence, it goes something like this:**

1. A large number of statements are obtained about the attitude object.

**If we wish to measure attitudes toward the retirement program, then statements might look like:**

(a) “Our retirement program is excellent in most respects,”

(b) “Our re­tirement program is hard on certain people,” or

(c) “Our retirement program is hard to understand.” These statements can be gathered from any number of sources, such as the employees themselves or from general discussion sessions among the staff.

2. Each item is scaled for “favourableness.” The second step is to obtain a scale value for each statement which expresses how favourable that statement is toward the attitude object. Thus statement (a) above, which seems to be saying something nice about the retirement program, would probably end up with a high scale value, while statements (b) and (c), which are less flattering, would probably end up with lower scale value.

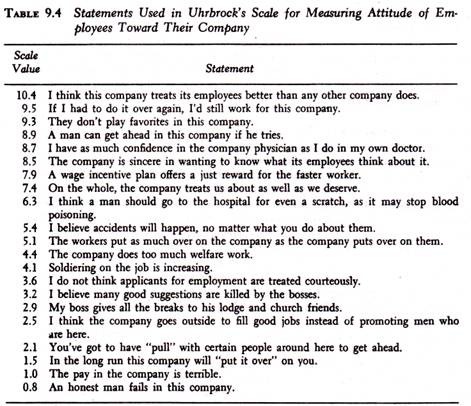
In other words, this step is simply one of attempting to determine exactly how favourable each statement is toward, in this case, the retirement program.One can use (1) the rank-order method, (2) the paired-comparison method, (3) the equal appearing interval method, or (4) the successive-interval method, depending upon one’s own preference.

3. Selection of best statements for final instrument. After all items have been scaled, the best items are selected for use in the final attitude measuring instrument. Statements covering the entire range of scale values are included, and statements where there was high agreement on the scale value are preferred.

4. Use of instrument to measure attitudes. The final form of the instrument is now ready for use. The person responding to the attitude questionnaire is simply asked to check those statements with which he agrees. His score is the median scale value of the items with which he agrees.

An example of such a scale is provided by Uhrbrock (1934) who has developed a scale to measure the attitude of employees. The items in it and the values assigned to each item are shown in Table 9.4.

On this scale 3934 factory workers obtained an average score of 6.34. Ninety-six clerks averaged 6.84, and 400 foremen had an average score of 7.19. Care must be exercised in interpreting these results, lest one come to the conclusion that the attitude of the typical factory worker is exemplified by the statement “I think a man should go to the hospital for even a scratch, as it may stop blood poisoning.” After all, this statement has a scale value of 6.3 and is closest to the average of 6.34. But such a conclusion is of course foolish, because 6.34 is the average of the mathematical weights of all the statements checked by the employees.

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In fact, Uhrbrock reports that statements expressing a favourable attitude toward the company were checked by more than twice as many workers as checked the unfavour­able statements. In addition to finding that foremen had more favourable attitudes than factory workers, he found that this was true more of women than of men, and that employees who had worked for the company more than six years were slightly more favourably inclined than those with a shorter period of service. It will be noted that Uhrbrock finds a difference in attitude between males and females, whereas Kolstad does not. This is due to different samples, different levels of employ­ment, and other similar factors.

**Criterion-Croup Instruments:**

The third class of attitude-measuring devices con­sists of those which are constructed using the standard test construction (item-anal­ysis) procedures. This method also involves a sequence of events.

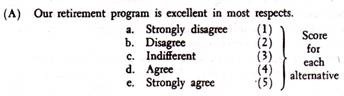
1. Collection of items.

2. Item analysis against a criterion.

All items are examined to see if they dis­criminate significantly between a group of individuals which is favourable toward the attitude object (Group F) and a group which is unfavourable (Group U). If the item does so discriminate, it is kept on the final scale.

The two major versions of this type of attitude scale are the Likert Scale and the Error-Choice Scale.

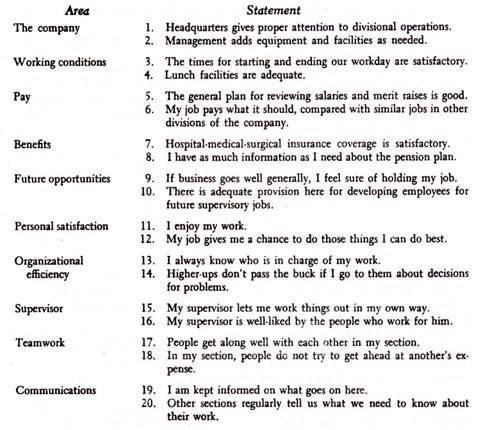
**A Likert item would look like this:**

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The person reads the item and then selects one of the alternatives. Each alterna­tive has a score or weight associated with it. A person’s score on the final attitude scale is simply the sum of the weights of the alternatives he has checked. Weights are usually assigned so that high scores indicate favourable attitudes.

The following example illustrates this method. Richardson, Bellows, Henry and Company did a considerable amount of employee attitude meas­urement for its clients. As an example, for one such study (Stagner, Rich, and Britten, 1941) 94 statements were prepared based upon preliminary interviews with a sample of employees’ discussions with management and upon general considera­tions based on experience.

**These statements were intended to cover ten specific areas:**

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**Employees responded by indicating:**

(1) Definitely agree,

(2) Inclined to agree,

(3) Inclined to disagree, or

(4) Definitely disagree.

All questionnaires were filled out, and anonymity was guaranteed. The results are presented in Figure 9.1. They com­pare the respondents who respond favourably in each of four categories: supervisory, nonsupervisory, in the company, and in other companies. The second major version of criterion-group scales is the Error-Choice Attitude Scale, originally proposed by Hammond (1948).

**It is somewhat similar to the Likert Scale in that:**

(1) The items are presented in multiple-choice format and

(2) Only items which statistically discriminate between high and low criterion groups are included on the final form. However, it differs from the Likert in one very important respect—if is disguised to look like a test of general knowledge rather than a test of attitude!

Each item in an error-choice attitude scale asks a factual question and in­cludes usually two or four alternatives. The catch is that none of the alternatives are correct! Half are underestimates of the “true” or correct answer and the other half are overestimates.

**The rationale goes something like this:**

1. Even, though a person is given an item without the correct answer he is still forced to respond. That is, he is required to select one of the incorrect alternatives by the very nature of the test, even if he is reasonably sure that none of them are correct.

2. When forced into picking an incorrect answer, the decision to overestimate or underestimate will be related to an individual’s attitude.

3. Thus by seeing if a person continually overestimates or underestimates on factual items one can measure attitudes.

Perhaps an illustrative item would be helpful to demonstrate. Suppose one wants to measure attitudes toward women drivers. Suppose also that we know that there is no difference in the number of accidents experienced by female drivers and male drivers when frequencies are adjusted for amount of miles driven.

**We could then write an item which might look like this:**

The number of accidents per mile driven for women is what ratio to the number of accidents per mile driven for men? That is, how much more often do women have ac­cidents than men after one adjusts for mileage?

(a) 2 female to 1 male accident (4)

(b) 1½ female to 1 male accident (3)

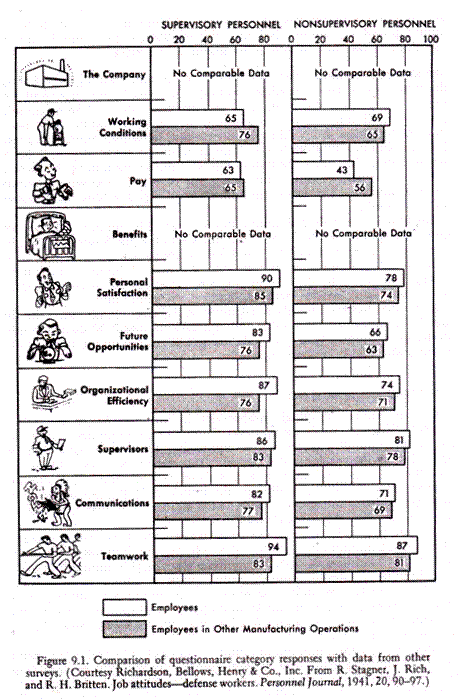
(c) 1 female to 1½ male accidents (2)

(d) 1 female to 2 male accidents (1)

What do you think would happen if this item were given to a random sample of 100 men and 100 women? In all likelihood the men would get higher scores than the women, since they would be more apt to bias their responses toward (a) and (b), while the women would be more apt to select (c) or (d).

The problem of faking on the attitude scale is virtually eliminated with the error- choice method, simply because the testee does not know his responses are being used to reflect his attitude. To him, it looks like his knowledge about driving and accidents is being measured—not his attitude toward women drivers.

Weschler (1951) has demonstrated the use of this technique by constructing a test to measure attitude toward labour-management relations. While 24 of the items were real, 16 were of the error-choice type. An illustration of the type of question he used is: “At present, the following percentage of people in the United States are entirely dependent upon jobs and have very few savings: (a) about 55 percent; (b) about 85 percent.” (Note—correct answer is 70 percent.)

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**Other Scaling Methods:**

Guttman (1950) has proposed a scaling method where the items have a special cumulative property. For example, the respondent who responds positively to the eighth item of a ten-point scale will have responded positively to all other seven items; similarly, the one who responds to the fourth item will have responded positively to only the first, second, and third.

In a perfect Guttman scale, an individual’s score bears a one-to-one relationship with his re­sponse pattern. In practice the construction of a perfect scale, using this method, has many difficulties because of the multiplexity of attitude dimensions. However, the scale does present an interesting methodological departure from the Thurstone and Likert methods.

The final scaling method of attitude measurement to be discussed has been pro­posed by Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum and is known as the Semantic Differential (1957). The method requires the respondent to rate on a scale of, let us say, four or six or eight points, the associate meaning of a series of descriptive polar terms. Examples of such polar terms are innumerable: rough-smooth, weak-strong, small- large, tense-relaxed, wet-dry, fresh-stale, cold-hot, fair-unfair, etc.

A valuable reference for those interested in building attitude scales in this area is the work of Uhrbrock (1961). He has gathered over 2000 short descriptive statements which have been given scale values. This material can serve as a source to those who need to construct such scales.

**5. Indirect Method:**

The sixth method of attitude measurement has been described as the indirect method (Weschler and Bernberg, 1950). It is intended to provide a more free rein of expression. The objective is to explore the “deeper levels rather than to deal only with the manifest verbal content.” This method deliberately attempts to conceal the intent of the measurement and allows the experimenter to observe and measure without producing an effect on the attitude itself. Varieties of techniques have been included within this category: word associations, sentence completions, or picture and story theme completion.

**Weschler has raised four interesting questions as a result of the indirect technique (1951) which point up the, problem as to whether this is trickery or scientific method:**

(1) Do I have the right to investigate other people’s attitudes?

(2) Do I have the right to “deceive” (authors’ quotes) people in order to get at their atti­tudes?

(3) Do I have the right to report on new indirect attitude-measuring devices at a time when these can be used by unscrupulous politicians or by other selfish interests?

(4) What is my responsibility for seeing that the findings which I report are properly interpreted?

These are significant questions and must be answered. Admittedly, the answers reveal the authors’ attitude—and without a survey. The answer is an unequivocal “yes” to question 1—we have the right to investigate attitudes. The answer is “yes” to question 2, except that in our opinion the indirect method is not deception.

The false answers willingly given by the respondents when direct techniques are used are the deceptions. As for question 3, we will always have unscrupulous politicians and selfish interests, so why wait for Utopia in order to do worthwhile research? In answer to question 4, we believe that our research responsibility is great, but in a free society and with a press interested in circulation one may expect others to mis­interpret. This should not deter the scientist but rather should encourage him to communicate more directly with the public.

The indirect method of measuring attitude is the newest development, is the most subtle, and conceivably has dangerous implications in the hands of the unscrupulous. Nevertheless, it is a technique and will be used. Little good can come from wishing that the H-bomb were not in existence. More good can come from knowing of its existence and trying to work within its framework of possible destruction. In a much smaller and possibly insignificant way, let us not hide our heads in the sands with reference to this technique of attitude measurement.

Friesen (1949) has developed an incomplete sentence blank which is an attempt to standardize the indirect-method technique of measuring employee attitudes. A rather novel approach has been suggested by Baumgarten (1952). She has collected a large number of proverbs concerning human, labour, and social relations. The testee selects those proverbs which he believes to be correct and incorrect. While this technique theoretically could evidence attitude, for the time being it has to be regarded as interesting and speculative.

The Evans and Laseau (1950) research known as “My Job Contest (MJC) conducted at General Motors is an example of research using the indirect method of attitude measurement. On the surface, this was a letter-writing contest on the topic “My Job and Why I Like It.” Five thousand prizes were awarded, including such items as a Cadillac and other General Motors cars on down to rear-view mirrors. A tremendous amount of employee participation occurred—almost 50 percent of the 297,401 eligible employees entered. The letters varied in length from one hand-written sentence to twenty typewritten pages. About 700 letters were written in languages other than English.

Management recognized that this served a greater purpose than merely a letter- writing contest. It presented the opportunity to analyze thematically the relatively unstructured reflections of employees. It was, therefore, an indirect method to meas­ure attitude: Analysis of the content of the letters resulted in establishing 58 themes and formed the basis for reporting to each division the findings about its employees attitudes toward their job and related conditions.

Although the analysis made use of rather exacting statistical techniques and recognized necessary procedural controls, it was communicated to management in an interesting and nontechnical manner. This is very important as a general principle-. Too many industrial psychologists be­come so technical that they lose even their colleagues, let alone the management people who must understand and translate the findings into action.

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