CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A survey of related literature is always very helpful in research work, so before starting the actual work the investigator planned as all researchers do, to make a survey of the work already done in this field and surveyed a number of books and journals related to this area. An extensive survey of various studies related to this topic is summarized in this chapter.

STUDIES RELATED TO PATTERN OF TIME USE

Time use pattern and different activities in junior high school classes and relationships between class time use and student achievement, behavior, and attitude was explored by Sanford & Evertson (1983). A total of 102 English and Mathematics classes were observed about 9 hours each. Data included descriptive narratives, time logs, student engagement ratings, and observer ratings of student and teacher behavior. Results showed much variation in the way individual junior high school teachers use class time, within a limited number of activity structures. Significant relationships were found between time use and class achievement and attitude in mathematics classes, but not in English classes. Studies of class time use have drawn on a number of various different measures, including individual student time on task, days or hours of instruction, student task engagement rates, and classroom organization or allocation of time. Among measures, individual students' time on task or engaged time has often proven to be the strongest predictor of achievement gains, but some measures of time allocated to instruction have also been shown to be significantly and positively related to achievement. In the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES), for example, allocated time, based primarily on teachers' logs of instructional time, was significantly related to achievement in five content areas in reading and mathematics, accounting for from 2% to 24% of residual variance on the posttest.

Detailed nature of information collected by time use studies enables policy makers to understand the needs of special groups of people such as old or disabled. As people age, their demands for assistance and care increase. If these demands are not satisfied, wellbeing of the old and sick people would deteriorate (Andorka and Rudolf 1987). Similarly, it is important to
have adequate information on time parents devote to their children. The quality of care children receive is correlated with their cognitive development (Hill and Stafford, 1980).

The relationships between college students’ self-reported time management, academic performance and various affective measures of stress were explored for 123 undergraduates by Macan, & Hoff (1990). Their study indicates that self-reported time management is multidimensional and that there are important relationships among time management, performance, and stress.

A profile of the real world of undergraduate students and how they spend discretionary time presented by Wade (1991). His study examined how students at Pennsylvania State University chose to spend their discretionary time outside the structured classroom. A sample of 367 students (a 73% response) completed surveys (62% were from males) containing 19 questions classified in non-academic and academic categories. The three academic questions focused on amounts of time related to number of credits, amount of time dedicated to study, and number of hours spent at the library. The sixteen non-academic questions focused on time related to employment, religious service, volunteer activities, intramural sports, shopping, personal care, talking with friends, dating, cultural events, and time away from the university community. Among the results were the following: (1) 82% of the students reported spending twenty or fewer hours per week on study; (2) 25% of the students spent no time in the library; (3) males tended to enroll for more credits than females; (4) 47% reported watching television five or fewer hours per week and 15% watched no television; (5) 43% worked, and 86% of those reported working 20 or fewer hours per week; (6) 39% participated in intramural sports with 66% spending two or fewer hours per week in intramural sports; and (7) 38% spent one to three hours per week dating.

The use of total quality management (TQM) practices will improve just-in-time (JIT) performance through process variance reduction and reduced rework time and that JIT practices will improve quality performance through problem exposure and improved process feedback proposed by Barbara et al (1995). They were using data on 42 plants in three U.S. industries. They found that common infrastructure practices formed a strong foundation for both types of
performance; in addition, they demonstrated that TQM and JIT practices interacted. Some trade-offs were identified, indicating that JIT and TQM approaches can be customized to plants. Using various sources of data, IFAD in 1995 compared rural Chinese women’s time allocation to productive activities with their time allocation to reproductive activities. The former activities were defined as work, travel to work and marketing/shopping. Reproductive activities covered cooking, washing, other domestic work, reading and leisure activities. The leisure activities were included because it was argued that they contributed to self-regeneration and therefore to efficiency and effectiveness of work (though sleep was not included). The study found that, nationwide, rural women spent somewhat more time on their reproductive than on their productive roles (56.7% as compared with 43.3%). However, there was considerable variation in such time allocation among the provinces compared. In some, such as Sichuan, Jilin, Shandong, Shanxi and Yunan, women spent two or three times as much time on productive as on reproductive activities. In other areas, such as Heilongjiang, it was the reverse.

China - Rural women's workload and time-use patterns. If both market and non-market works are included, rural women’s economic day in China can be as long as 15 hours. An IFAD comparison of male and female contributions to the gross domestic product (GDP) showed women contributing about 47%, if non-market production was also taken into account. Women’s contribution to non-market work is greater than men’s: 64% compared with 34%.

For rural men in China, the pattern is not very dissimilar, though with the men spending somewhat more time on productive than on reproductive activities: 55% versus 45%. Men in China assume a greater share of household tasks than in most countries. They even spend slightly more time shopping than women do. But women spend comparatively more time on tasks such as cooking, washing, sewing and caring for children. Whereas in most countries women allocate a large share of their time to activities that contribute to household food and energy security, in rural China, only women household heads have this exclusive responsibility.

Women’s time-use patterns also vary by age and education. Rural women over age 50 spend most of their day on housework, as physical labour in the fields is considered too taxing. Women of middle age play a key role, both at home and in the fields, in sharing crop and
livestock activities with men. Younger women, as in many countries, often prefer alternatives to farming. As educational level rises, household work time for women tends to decrease, and time spent on production and leisure increases. Education broadens women’s employment opportunities.

There are also seasonal differences in time-use patterns in rural areas. During the busiest agriculture season (mid-May to mid-September) both women and men spend at least 8-10 hours in the fields. During the slack season, women usually carry out greenhouse production or income-generating activities such as handicrafts and weaving. But there is variation among provinces. In some, such as Heilongjiang, women appear to perform little productive labour during the slack months, whereas in others, such as Qinghai or Sichuan, where 50-70% of younger men have migrated or taken up cattle-herding, women’s workload is increased. One of the most important lessons of these findings is the need to be aware of differences in time-use patterns among rural women in different parts of China, which may be related to differences in economic opportunities. Another is the need to recognize the relatively greater role of men in reproductive or domestic activities than in many countries.

The earlier research efforts in the area of children’s time-use and activity-travel patterns may be classified into two broad areas: (1) Time-use studies that provide aggregate daily or weekly time-use statistics, with limited to no examination of the context of participation in activities, and (2) Studies that model the factors affecting children’s participation in specific activity episodes, such as physical activity participation and hours of television viewing. The literature within each of these categories is discussed in the following two paragraphs. (1) The time-use studies have been primarily undertaken in the sociology, developmental psychology, economics, and education fields. These studies examine children’s time-use in one or more countries (Hofferth and Sandberg, 2001, and Zill et al., 1995; see Larson and Verma, 1999 for a review) or study changes in time-use over time (Hofferth and Sandberg, 2000). Many of these studies also examine time spent with family and friends, with an emphasis on time spent with parents (Larson and Verma, 1999; Hofferth and Sandberg, 2001). (2) The latter emphasis is a result of the desire to examine the effects of parental involvement on children’s cognitive and
social-emotional development, especially in the context of changing family structure and maternal employment patterns (Bryant and Zick, 1996a; Asmussen and Larson, 1991; Sandberg and Hofferth, 2001). Some of the time-use studies also examine the after-school activities of children, with the intention of assessing the need for, and benefits of, after-school programs (Shann, 2001; Posner and Vandell, 1999; Posner and Vandell, 1994; and Hofferth and Jankuniene, 2001). Overall, the broad time-use studies have provided a rich basis for understanding the social-psychological aspects of children’s development. However, they either do not focus, or focus in only very limited ways, on the temporal, spatial, “with-whom”, and episode sequencing contexts of children’s activity-travel participation. A second broad area of children’s activity studies has examined the factors affecting participation in such specific activities as physically active pursuits or sedentary activities (for example, watching television). Many of these studies are motivated by the growing child obesity problem in the United States (CDC, 2005), and the well established epidemiological link between physical activity and obesity reduction/other health benefits. Studies focusing on the correlates of physically active and inactive lifestyles in children include Zakarian et al. (1994), Sallis et al. (1999, 2000), and Janz et al. (1999). Some related studies have sought to identify relationships between the time spent in physical activity and time spent in sedentary activities or a relationship between the time spent in both activities to unhealthy attributes in children (Anderson et al., 1998; Robinson et al., 1993; Durant, 1994). Another recent study assessed how television viewing affects time spent in other free time activities and with family members (Vandewater et al., 2006).

Academic stress and its relation to their anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction among 249 university undergraduates by age and gender studied by Misra & McKean (2000). They found that time management behaviors had a greater buffering effect on academic stress than leisure satisfaction activities. Significant gender differences existed among all the measures. Females had more effective time management behaviors than males, but also experienced higher academic stress and anxiety. Males benefited more than females from leisure activities. Freshmen and sophomore students had higher reactions to stress than juniors and seniors. Anxiety, time management, and leisure satisfaction were all predictors of academic
stress in the multivariate analysis. Anxiety reduction and time management in conjunction with leisure activities may be an effective strategy for reducing academic stress in college students.

An impact of racial/ethnic difference upon internet use among college students investigated by Korgen et al (2001). A large study of college students found that differences by race/ethnicity in use of the internet exist even among undergraduates at internet-accessible colleges and universities. Differences were significant for overall use and even among students owning their own computers. While presence or absence of a computer in the home of origin (and length of time, if present) strongly influenced Internet use, such factors did not account for all the differences found by race/ethnicity. Self-reported study time was also found to be strongly connected to internet use, and this also differed significantly by race/ethnicity.

The biobehavioral developments, perception, and action: dynamic patterns of time use in adolescence studied by Shanahan & Flaherty (2001). Patterns of time use are tangible representations of individual identity and the meaning of age groups in the life course. How do young people allocate their time to multiple domains of involvement, including the school, workplace, family, and peer group? Drawing on longitudinal data from the Youth Development Study (N= 1,010), a person-centered analytic strategy was used to describe configurations of time use through the high school years. Over half of the students were engaged in many domains, although a substantial percentage of students focused their time on one or two domains outside the school. Students who were highly engaged in multiple domains tended to remain so across grade levels, whereas students focused on one or two domains frequently changed their commitments. Plans for school, grade point average, future orientations that emphasize marriage and good citizenship, and gender significantly predicted time-use patterns.

The time serves as a medium for collaboration in teams, allowing members to exchange personal and task-related information assessed by Harrison et al (2002). They proposed that stronger team reward contingencies stimulate collaboration. As time passes, increasing collaboration weakens the effects of surface-level (demographic) diversity on team outcomes but strengthens those of deep-level (psychological) diversity. Also, perceived diversity transmits the impact of actual diversity on team social integration, which in turn affects task performance.
Results from four waves of data on 144 student project teams support these propositions and the strong relevance of time to research on work team diversity. Using the data from European Quality of Life Survey (2003), Bohnke, (2005) revealed a strong correlation between time use and subjective wellbeing. In most of the countries covered by the survey, it was found that people who had long work hours and poor work-life balance generally had low subjective wellbeing.

The exercise behavior, sleep habits and time management among students of the medical university of Lublin studied by Nieradko et al (2003). The aim of their study was to depict and assess patterns of daytime behavior and sleeping habits as well as general daytime management among students of Medical University of Lublin. On examination of 167 third-year medical students (107 women and 60 men, 20 to 29 years old) they found out that the third-year students did not exercise enough. Their sedentary lifestyles resulted from sharing their time between universities, libraries and studying medical textbooks at homes. Medical students socialize and spend enough time with their families, and in this way they get family and friends' support, which allows them to manage stress and psychological problems. Most of the students neither watch TV nor play with computers longer than 2 hours per day.

The neural correlates of cognitive time management investigated by Katya & Smith (2004). Cognitive time management is an important aspect of human behavior and cognition that has so far been understudied. Functional imaging studies in recent years have tried to identify the neural correlates of several timing functions, ranging from simple motor tapping to higher cognitive time estimation functions. Several regions of the frontal lobes, in particular dorsolateral prefrontal cortex (DLPFC), inferior prefrontal cortex (IFC), anterior cingulate gyrus (ACG) and the supplementary motor area (SMA), alongside non-frontal brain regions such as the inferior parietal lobes, the cerebellum and the basal ganglia have been found to be involved in tasks of motor timing and time estimation. In this paper they review and discuss the involvement of these brain regions in different tasks of cognitive time management, illustrating it with own findings on motor timing and time perception tasks using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). The review shows that the same brain regions are involved in both
motor timing and time estimation, suggesting that both functions are probably inseparable and mediated by common neural networks.

The time management skills as an important aspect of student learning: the construction and evaluation of a time management scale with Spanish high school students assessed by Rafael et al (2004). Main purpose of this study was to analyze the factorial structure, psychometric properties and predictive capacity for academic achievement of a scale designed to evaluate the time management skills of Spanish high school students. An adaptation of the Time Management Questionnaire was presented to two samples of 350 Spanish high school students. Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis results from the two samples shows an adequate fit of a three-factor oblique model, as well as its superior explanatory capacity compared to other competitive models considered. This model basically reproduces the structure of the original scale, integrating the subscales on short-range planning, long-range planning, and time attitudes. The psychometric properties of the three subscales also reach satisfactory values. Finally, the predictive capacity of time management skills on academic achievement is examined, especially regarding the scale on Long-range planning.

A study described time-use patterns of children institutionalized in an Eastern European orphanage and examines differences in time-use between institutionalized children and those attending child care in the United States done by Daunhauer et al (2005). Thirty-two children between the ages of 8 and 34 months participated. Sixteen institutionalized children and 16 typical, family-reared children attending child care were matched approximately for age and gender. Inter-rater reliability of the observers’ time-use observations was established at 92% agreement (range, 81% to 98%). Results indicated children living in the institution spent significantly less time with adults, engaged in significantly different activities, and spent less time in adult-led activities compared to the childcare group (.2 = 9.94, p < .01; .2 = 23.51, p < .001; and .2 = 16.45, p < .001, respectively). Where the children spent time and their observable affect did not differ significantly between groups (.2 = .64, ns; and .2 = .68, ns, respectively). Differences between the groups’ occupations and engagement with others highlight factors that may contribute to developmental delays in institutionalized children.
Royal Government of Bhutan (2005) observed patterns of activities that are consistent with life-cycle variation in time use. Confirming to an a priori expectation, work hours peaked for the respondents that were in their prime age ranges, 31-45. Participation in active sports and leisure diminished with age and other passive activities such as praying, resting and attending to one’s personal needs rose with age. Hours devoted to education and learning peaked at younger ages, especially for those in prime ages for attending school or college. In this study correlation was observed between hours of work and stress and work-life balance. It was also observed that pattern of time use differed between the rural and urban residents. Most of the activities such as agriculture, livestock, forestry and horticulture, quarrying, and visit to public offices, were confined to rural areas. Most of the business, trade and service related activities were confined to urban areas. Apart from variations between urban and rural areas, it was also observed variations within rural areas. It was also found that weaving was prominent in Bumthang and Lhuentse whereas bamboo craft works were more prevalent in Trongsa. This shows cultural influences to activities in different regions. It was also observed that differences in time use between various types of family structures. Families with children had longer work hours, largely amounting from more household and childcare works associated with the presence of children. These families spent made up more time they spent on work by reducing time for leisure and sleep. In the case of difference in time use between various categories of employment, as expected it was observed that employed people had longer hours of work and shorter time for leisure. It was seen that respondents spent 200 minutes on household maintenance was, 158 minutes on care of children and sick, and 271 minutes on community participation, including voluntary work. If monetary value assigned to these hours and calculate an aggregate figure for a year, the amount would constitute a significant percentage of GDP. As mentioned earlier, these activities affect wellbeing directly but are somehow excluded from the accounts that are used to measure our wellbeing. The study presents a wide array of information related to public policy issues. For instance it was found that rural people spend quite substantial amount of time on visiting gulp’s office and other public functionaries for various reasons. This amounts to waste of farmers’ precious time since they were not able to work in
their farms during such days. Such information could be very useful for policy makers involved in planning rural roads and transport and communication facilities on the whole. It was observed that very few people read during their leisure time although quite a number of respondents had decent level of education. In the study it was observed that significant number of people including rural residents spent long time watching TV. Since excessive watching of TV affects wellbeing of individuals negatively and destroys healthy interactions between family members, policy makers might want to take this development seriously and think about designing policies that could encourage people to pursue active and productive leisure activities such as reading. They also saw the exclusive role women play in processing food items for the household.

Women’s role in home production, particularly in producing handicraft products by engaging in weaving and other craft-related activities is crucial to maintaining the economic security of many households in rural and urban Bhutan highlighted by this study. Such information could be very useful for formulating specific policies related to improving economic conditions of women. Data also provides information on the success of some of Bhutan’s development programs. For instance, not only a small number of respondents reported fetching of water as one of their activities, they spent very short time on it. This shows that the provision of piped drinking water supply by the government has been quite successful; over 84% of the population has access to piped drinking water (Royal Government of Bhutan, 2005). On the other hand, we saw quite a number of respondents who reported fetching of firewood as their activities during the day preceding the interview. This confirms our a priori knowledge that large section of people in Bhutan is still dependent on firewood for fuel. Such information could be useful in designing alternative energy or fuel policies as well as conservation policies.

Imbalance in time allocation between work and other things is caused by a number of factors amongst which increased number of work hours is the most prominent one. Increase in work hours in turn is among others caused by one’s desire to make more money. Money becomes the focus or the driving force behind long hours of work to many individuals. These individuals exaggerate the importance of money to their wellbeing and get into a situation of what academics call as “focusing illusion”. As they devote more time to work they do not find
time to do things that they enjoy. Such people are not happier but are much more stressed than others (Kahneman et al., 2006). To sum up, they found that total burden of work for women was more than that for men and was largely due to greater time commitment of women to household maintenance, child care, and craft related activities. They have noted distinct sex specificity to some activities such as weaving and food processing were carried out exclusively by women. They also noted that men largely carried out activities that required more physical exertion while women engaged in activities that were physically not so demanding. Men spent much longer time at both passive and active sports and leisure. Men also slept longer than women and spent longer time at other activities related to personal care.

A study explored graduate student’s perspectives of how graduate school affected their participation in physical and social activities and their self-worth done by Longfield et al (2006). Seven focused groups (n=47) were conducted using a semi-structured interview guide. Finances and quality of interactions were among the main challenges reported. Activity availability was among the main physical activity concern reported. Delayed gratification and an elation/depression cycle were among the themes pertaining to self-worth. Any changes to one wellness component could jeopardize an individual’s well-being and life balance. Their study’s participant’s physical and social activity and self-worth were reportedly all impacted by being graduate students: at times, some areas of their lives (i.e. school) received magnified attention at the cost of other areas.

A risk attitude in small time saving decisions assessed by Munichor et al (2006). They presented four experiments that explore situations in which a decision maker has to relay on personal experience in an attempt to minimize delays. Experiment one shows that risk attitude in these time saving decisions is similar to risk attitude in money related decisions from experience: a risky prospect is more attractive than a safer prospect with the same expected value only when it leads to a better outcome most of the time. Experiment two highlights boundary conditions: it suggests that a difficulty in ranking the relevant delays moves behavior toward random choice. Experiment third and four shows that when actions must be taken during the delay (thereby helping compare delays), this increases the similarity of time saving
decisions to money related decisions. In these settings the results reflect an increase in risk aversions with experience.

The correlation between video game usage and academic performance markers studied by Anand V. (2007). Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT) and grade-point average (GPA) scores were used to gauge academic performance. The amount of time a student spent playing video games has a negative correlation with students' GPA and SAT scores. As video game usage increases, GPA and SAT scores decrease. A chi-squared analysis found a p value for video game usage and GPA was greater than a 95% confidence level (0.05 < p < 0.01). His finding suggests that dependence exists. SAT score and video game usage also returned a p value that was significant (0.01 < p < 0.05). Chi-squared results were not significant when comparing time spent studying and an individual's SAT score. This research suggests that video games may have a detrimental effect on an individual's GPA and possibly on SAT scores. Although these results show statistical dependence, proving cause and effect remains difficult, since SAT scores represent a single test on a given day. The effects of video games may be cumulative; however, drawing a conclusion is difficult because SAT scores represent a measure of general knowledge. GPA versus video games is more reliable because both involve a continuous measurement of engaged activity and performance. The connection remains difficult because of the complex nature of student life and academic performance. Also, video game usage may simply be a function of specific personality types and characteristics.

The work-study, time use tradeoffs, student work hours and implications for youth employment policy studied by Bonnie & Golden, (2007). Work hours are found to be inversely related to hours in educational activities among those aged 16-24. Moreover, there are nonlinearities by the number of actual hours. In contrast to previous studies and samples, students who work as little as 5 or more hours spend a statistically significant lesser amount of time studying than their cohorts who are not employed. The extent to which work displaces time spent studying is consistent across levels of weekly work hours, but becomes largest when hours are 40 or more, even when controlling for various demographic and occupational characteristics, but not time spent in class. They concluded that students who work during the school year have a relatively
lower well being. It also explores implications for policies, such as extending youth employment regulatory protections to students if it is warranted by clear threats to their mental or physical well being.

Impact of value based education upon time management of university students studied by Das & Ruby (2007). They found that value based education fosters an intrinsic positive change in the personality of students as they pass their academic years in value based education system. It enhances all round development of personality since students pursuing studies in such an educational system spend maximum time in their mental, physical and spiritual development. It was also found in their study that students spend comparatively minimum time on entertainment activities than on routine activities.

A study explored the relations of television viewing and reading: findings from a 4-year longitudinal study done by Ennemoser & Schneider (2007). Their longitudinal study explored the long term effects of television viewing on the development of children’s reading competencies. Among 2 cohorts of German children (N₁ = 165, N₂ = 167). Measures of television viewing were collected over 4 years and tests of reading speed and reading comprehension were administered annually. As a main result, TV genre (educational versus entertainment programs) produced different effects. Whereas educational program viewing was positively correlated with reading achievement, relations between entertainment program viewing and reading performance were negative. Children who were classified as heavy viewers (average viewing time per day = 117min) showed lower progress in reading over time as compared to medium and light viewers (average viewing time per day 69 and 35 min, respectively). Partial support was found only for 1 of the 3 tested causal mechanisms, namely television-induced reduction in leisure-time book reading.

It was hypothesized by Feinstein (2007) that the ways in which young people spend their time and pattern their lives may have a role to play, and that these patterns have changed over recent decades. This review investigated the ways in which social structure influences the time use of young people, and how these relationships vary by various subgroups of youth. Drawing on wide-ranging data sources, the project described about how young people are using their school
time in the UK, in order to explore the extent to which patterns of time use may explain and/or mediate trends in adolescent welfare.

Using the data from pilot survey carried out in Bhutan, Galay (2007) looks at the relationship between patterns of time use and happiness. He analyzed time spent on work and non-work activities in terms of gender, age, region (area of residence), family structure, and employment status. Distinct gender patterns were observed. For instance, activities such as weeding of fields and processing of food were dominated by women while activities such as plowing and chopping or sawing of wood were dominated by men. On the whole it was observed that amount of time spent on work by women was more than that of men and this was largely due to more time women spent at household maintenance activities (such as cooking) and care of children. Men spent longer time at activities that were physically strenuous.

It was also observed that pattern of time use differ by age. Total hours of work peaked for those respondents in their prime working ages (31-45) whereas time spent on non-work activities such as praying was longer for elderly people. In terms of region, it was observed that respondents from rural areas spent much longer time at work than those from urban areas. Time use also differs significantly by the type of family one belongs to. In this study researcher also found that respondents with children had longer duration of work than respondents without children. Employed people worked much longer than respondent with other status of employment. Although not a robust one, data does establish relationship between pattern of time use and reported level of happiness. It was observed that respondents who had longer work hours reported lower happiness than those who worked an appropriate amount of time. It was also observed that respondents who worked very short hours of time reported lower happiness than others. Participation in socio-cultural activities, sports and leisure show a positive relationship with the level of happiness; i.e. respondents who participated in social and cultural activities, sports and leisure activities during the previous day reported higher level of happiness than those who didn’t. In the descriptive analysis, community participation and engagements in religious activities show inverse relationship with level of happiness, which is a deviation from the findings of past studies. However, in the simple statistical analysis conducted to test the
relationship between reported level of happiness and time spent on various activities, community participation and religious activities show positive relations with reported level of happiness. Productive activities include a series of unpaid activities such as household work, childcare, care of sick and old, and time allocated to various other activities for the upkeep of societies. Productive activities also include, in addition to those done for oneself and one’s members of the household, voluntary activities carried out for members of the community or for people outside one’s community. These activities are fundamental to wellbeing of both people who provide and receive such services. A true picture of wellbeing can be obtained only if these activities are taken into account. Time use studies provide information on such activities that are fundamental to wellbeing of the society.

The similarities and differences in time use: a pattern-analytic, within-family approach studied by Lilly et al (2007). Similarities and differences in adolescent siblings' free time activities were investigated. Firstborns and secondborns from 181 predominantly White, working, and middle-class families reported on their time use and sibling relationships. Their parents reported on their socioeconomic status and neighborhood characteristics. Cluster analysis identified three groups of sibling dyads: Cluster 1 differentiated in leisure and time with friends, Cluster 2 differentiated in instrumental activities and time alone, and Cluster 3 did not differentiate in time use. Multinomial logistic regressions revealed that the longitudinal links between sibling relationship qualities and cluster membership were moderated by firstborns' sex. Findings of this study highlight the importance of person-oriented analytic strategies for understanding sibling similarities and differences and of within-family variability in youth's time use.

The correlates of the digital divide and their impact on college student learning investigated by Flora & Tsu (2008). The main findings of their study include the following: (1) Undergraduates use computers not only for fulfilling their academic requirements and searching for information, but also for entertainment. On average, undergraduates spend about 19 hour per week using computers, of which 5 hour are academic-related. (2) Most undergraduates perform at the middle average level in terms of computer knowledge. (3) No significant differences among correlates in relating to demographic and socioeconomic family background were found in
predicting the various purposes in using computers. (4) Students who are female, whose fathers and/or whose mothers are from minorities, whose fathers are blue-collar workers or unemployed, who study in the fields of the humanities and social sciences, and who enter private universities, are at a disadvantage in terms of computer skills and knowledge. However, female students, students whose mothers were less educated and students who enroll in private universities are more focused computer users in terms of allocating time to academic-related work. (5) Computer knowledge and devotion to using computers for academic-related work have a moderate effect on college student learning, while the various other uses of computers do not. Of the different kinds of computer knowledge, it is the knowledge of software that helps students to learn the most.

A study explored the relationship between marriage arrangements and daily activities of young married women, using detailed time-use data from an adolescent study in rural Bangladesh done by Amin & Suran (2008). Measures of marriage arrangement are payment of dowry and the relative wealth status of natal and marital families. The data were collected in three rural districts in 2001 and 2003. Using multivariate regression analysis, the results show that women’s time spent in domestic work, socializing, and self-care is significantly associated with marriage arrangement variables. Those who paid dowry spent more time in domestic work and less time in self-care and socializing relative to those who did not pay dowry. These patterns of association are similar to those the authors found in an earlier study between marriage arrangements and domestic violence, where paying dowry and marrying up are associated with greater violence.

The student support through personal development planning: retrospection and time examined by Sue & Serena (2008). They present an analysis of higher education students' retrospective meaning making of their experiences of personal development planning (PDP). An earlier study of first year students had indicated that students rarely reflected on their own meta-cognitive processes and were preoccupied with practical study skill matters, particularly time management. Therefore, in looking at whether students in their final year had developed the ability to reflect on their learning, and which aspects of their learning experiences they felt
supported them in these developments. They undertook 20 in-depth interviews which explored
how students approached learning and the supports they had found useful as well as probing
specifically about the PDP elements of the course. Their analysis reveals the complexity of
students' understandings of their own first-year experiences: their lack of engagement, and
'faking' reflection and planning by completing 'plans' only after the event. Retrospective
realization of relevance and an increased focus on results and the future shaped their
understandings in the final year. The authors draw on theorists of time to explore how
understanding the multiple temporalities involved in education might offer insight into the
difficulties students experience and their lack of future orientation in the first year. Rather than
being simply mundane concerns, time, time management, and perceptions of the present in
terms of the past, present or the future illuminate some of the difficulties of reflection and of the
projection of future selves implicit in the term 'personal development planning'. Tempo and
timing appear to be essential in terms of students' shifting personal epistemologies, their
experiences of self as both relatively unchanging and developing, and their capacities to judge
relevance and access support.

**STUDIES RELATED TO ATTITUDE TOWARDS CHEATING**

Cheating more common among those students who were less self-confident and who exerted
little effort in their studies investigated by Hetherington & Feldman (1964). In study by Schab
(1969), approximately 24% of the girls and 20% of the boys admitted that they first began
cheating in the first grade, 17% of the girls and 15% of the boys began cheating in the eighth
grade, and 13% of the girls and 9% of the boys began in the seventh grade. Zastro (1970)
provided evidence of a 40% incidence of cheating among graduate students.

It was hypothesized that older children show a stronger value/behavior relationship than
younger children by Henshel (1971). He found that Schoolgirls (Ss) in the fourth through
seventh grades were given an anonymous questionnaire to detect certain values. A week later
the Ss were provided with an opportunity to cheat within their regular classroom context. The
hypothesis was confirmed: the negative correlations between honesty scores and number of
cheating incidents rose steeply from the lower (younger) to higher (older) grades.
The cheaters generally had parents who punished them severely or not at all. His results suggest that a moderate degree of discipline results in children who internalize moral values and are more honest in their school work investigated by Vitro (1971).

Several investigators have worked with the relationship between either intelligence or school achievement and cheating. The majority of studies indicate that students who are lower in intelligence or school achievement may cheat more frequently. They said that in the response to this problem, a great deal of research has been performed in education and psychology. Most studies deal with (a) characteristics of cheaters, (b) the situational factors involved in a student’s decision about whether or not to cheat, and (c) reasons students often give for cheating. (Bushway & Nash, 1977).

As for situational factors, several investigators have determined that particular characteristics of a situation have a great influence on whether or not a student cheats. The moral climate of the school also influences the amount of cheating. Bushway & Nash (1977) say that the moral tone of the school can have a positive effect on the characters of students as well as on the incidence of cheating in the school and that a good emotional tone in the classroom and instruction about cheating before taking a test and great difficulty in cheating led to less cheating. The chance of success of cheating was another situational determinant. Personality and teaching style of the teacher or professor were found to be other situational determinants.

An attitude toward cheating of self and others by college students and professors studied by Miguel & Ballew (1994). They found that number of situational and dispositional factors which might account for the high levels of reported cheating. They also reported that competition for grades was regarded by students as a major reason for cheating. Haines et al. (1986) found that cheaters tend to be immature and not committed to academics.

University students’ perception of cheating and plagiarism in academic work and assessment examined by Peter et al (1997). Their study reports the use of a qualitative methodology which attempts to discover the students’ perception of cheating and plagiarism without presupposing that students start from the same premises as academics. Prominent among the findings are: (a) there is a strong moral basis to student’ views, which focus on such values as friendship,
interpersonal trust and good learning. This means some punishable behavior can be regarded as justifiable and some officially approved behavior can be felt to be dubious; (b) the notion of plagiarism is regarded as extremely unclear- some students have a fear that they might well plagiarise unwittingly in writing what they genuinely take to be their own ideas and (c) factors such as alienation from the university due to lack of contact with staff, the impact of large classes, and the greater emphasis on group learning are perceived by students themselves as facilitating and sometimes excusing cheating.

At what age at which children start cheating investigated by Smith (1998). Cheating has become a problem in schools. At what age do children start recognizing that cheating is just that cheating? He tried to discover at what age cheating begins and what children consider cheating to be; having others do their work, copying other students’ work or the aspect of not getting caught. The participants were first grade through sixth grade students in St. Joseph Public School District. A Chi-square test was used for statistical analysis. A significant interaction was found (Chi-square (5) = 201.96, p. <.05). This showed a clear difference that first grader were less likely to see the behaviors as cheating than fourth and fifth grade students.

The factors associated with cheating among college students: A review investigated Whitley (1998). A review was conducted of the results of 107 studies of the prevalence and correlates of cheating among college students. He concluded that among the strongest correlates of cheating were having moderate expectations of success, having cheated in the past, studying under poor conditions, holding positive attitudes toward cheating, perceiving that social norms support cheating, and anticipating a large reward for success.

The gender differences in cheating attitudes and classroom cheating behavior: a meta-analysis investigated by Whitley & Curtis (1999). Academic dishonesty is a major problem in American colleges and universities, relatively little researches have investigated gender differences in cheating. Based on the differential socialization theory of gender differences in moral reasoning (e.g., Chodorow, 1989; Gilligan, 1982) they expected that, compared to women, men would report more favorable attitudes toward cheating and more cheating behavior. They conducted a meta-analysis that included 8studies of gender differences in attitudes toward cheating, 34
studies of gender differences in cheating behavior, and 6 studies that investigated both attitudes and behavior. Although the mean effect size for gender differences in attitudes was of moderate magnitude, equivalent to a correlation of $r = .21$, the mean effect size for behavior was small, equivalent to $r = .08$.

A study examined college students' perceptions of peers who cheat done by Whitley & Kost (1999). They conducted two studies that investigated the efficacy of three theoretical models in explaining college students' judgments of peers who cheat and of accomplices who assist cheaters. The value pluralism model predicted that accomplices who acted for money would be judged more harshly than those who acted from friendship, the attribution model predicted that cheaters whose actions were caused by internal controllable factors would be judged more harshly than those whose actions were caused by external uncontrollable factors and that feelings of anger and sympathy would mediate this relationship, and the relative preference model predicted that students who saw themselves as more likely to act as the cheater and accomplice did would make less harsh judgments. Results of both studies indicated that accomplices were judged less harshly and elicited more sympathy and less anger than cheaters, and that participants saw themselves as more likely to help someone cheat than to cheat them.

The personality factors associated with academic dishonesty: a big 5 analysis investigated by Blankenship & Whitley (2000). They hypothesized that academically dishonest students would score lower than honest students on the Big 5 personality dimension of conscientiousness. Cheaters scored lower on both conscientiousness and agreeableness than non cheaters. False excuse makers also scored lower on conscientiousness and agreeableness than students who did not use false excuses.

The relationship of general deviance to academic dishonesty studied by Blankenship & Whitley (2000). They investigated the relationships of cheating on an exam and using a false excuse to avoid taking an exam as scheduled to various forms of minor deviance. College students completed measures of cheating, false excuse making, and minor deviance. A factor analysis identified clusters of deviance behaviors. Cheaters scored higher than noncheaters on measures of unreliability and risky driving behaviors, and false excuse makers scored higher than other
students on measures of substance use, risky driving, illegal behaviors, and personal unreliability. In addition, males scored higher than females on substance abuse and illegal behaviors factors.

A study done by Whitley (2001) examined the gender differences in affective responses to having cheated and the mediating role of attitudes in it. He found in his study that women college students cheat at the same rate as men but report more negative attitudes toward cheating. Consistent with predictions derived from cognitive consistency theories, female college students, compared to male students, reported less positive affect in response to having cheated. This gender difference was mediated by gender differences in attitudes toward cheating.

The relationship between student characteristics and ethics: implications for educators examined by Bui (2003). His study examines the relationship between student characteristics and level of ethics. The students’ characteristics studied are: competitiveness, personality type, age and gender. An instrument to measure the level of ethics is developed and a model involving these five variables is tested using a sample of 345 college students. Results show that i) ethics is inversely related to individual competitiveness and Type A personality, ii) ethics improves with age, and iii) gender does not impact ethics.

An attitude toward examination cheating and examination cheating behavior scales developed by Onakoya & Alarape (2003). This study reports that cheating or academic dishonesty is one of the problem plaguing students in its entirety. The result of the factor analysis suggests that students view the act of cheating from different perspectives. The factor analysis also showed that examination Cheating consist of different attitude and variety of behaviors. Which implies that students’ participation in examination Cheating is due to a variety of reasons? The results of the correlation between attitudes toward examination cheating and examination cheating behavior and some measures of personality characteristics suggest that the two scales possess construct validity. Threat to our level of self esteem can lead us to lying or cheating to avoid exposing ourselves. Students with low self esteem usually don’t think highly of themselves. The need to enhance or repair the self may likely lead them to engage in Academic dishonesty.
Therefore, the relationship between attitudes toward examination cheating and examination cheating behavior scales was expected to be positive.

The literature on plagiarism by students, much of it based on North American experience, to discover what lessons it holds for institutional policy and practice within institutions of higher education in the UK reviewed by Park (2003). It explores seven themes: the meaning and context of plagiarism, the nature of plagiarism by students, how do students perceive plagiarism, how big a problem is student plagiarism, why do students cheat, what challenges are posed by digital plagiarism and is there a need to promote academic integrity? It is concluded that plagiarism is doubtless common and getting more so (particularly with increased access to digital sources, including the Internet), that there are multiple reasons why students plagiarise and that students often rationalize their cheating behavior and downplay the importance of plagiarism by themselves and their peers. It is also concluded that there is a growing need for UK institutions to develop cohesive frameworks for dealing with student plagiarism that are based on prevention supported by robust detection and penalty systems that are transparent and applied consistently.

A study on examination of the ethical and value orientation of criminal justice students conducted by Bjerregaard & Lord (2004). The purpose of their research was to compare the values, likelihood of engaging in ethical violations, and perceptions of the seriousness of a variety of ethical violations of criminal justice students with students in other disciplines while controlling for their gender and interest in law enforcement. Few differences were found between criminal justice students and other students in terms of their value orientations. Although criminal justice students were found to be less likely to believe they would engage in ethical violations and more likely to view such violations as serious, these relationships were found to be insignificant. The variable found to have the most effect in all models was the gender of the student. Women were less likely to commit ethical violations and more likely to view them as more serious. Overall, the research lends more credence to the socialization or occupational opportunity theories for explaining the existence of the police subculture.
The self-control, perceived opportunity, and attitudes as predictors of academic dishonesty studied by Bolin (2004). Academic dishonesty is a persistent and pervasive problem on college campuses. Researchers have suggested a variety of factors that influence academic dishonesty. The present study is an examination of the roles of self-control, attitude toward academic dishonesty, and perceived opportunity in predicting academic dishonesty. The dataset consisted of 853 survey responses from university students across the United States. The results showed that attitude toward academic dishonesty mediated the relationship between self-control and academic dishonesty and also between perceived opportunity and academic dishonesty.

A study on dishonesty in academics and business: a cross-cultural evaluation of student attitudes studied by Grimes (2004). His study presents the findings from an international survey of college students which examined perceptions and attitudes toward dishonesty in academic and business contexts. Data were collected from undergraduate students studying business and economics in eight transitional economies of Eastern Europe and Central Asia and from students in the United States. The results indicate that academic cheating is a common activity in all of the countries surveyed. Even though most students reported fearing the punishment of being caught, substantial numbers of students indicated that academic cheating is socially acceptable and not ethically wrong. When asked to rate their perceived degree of dishonesty with respect to behavior in an academic setting relative to analogous behavior in a business setting, students in both the United States and the transitional economies viewed dishonesty in a business context more severely than dishonesty in an academic context. The evidence also suggests that when compared to students in the transitional economies, American students apply a relatively higher standard of honesty toward behavior in both the academic and business settings.

The influence of attitudes toward curriculum on dishonest academic behavior assessed by Zubin (2006). The objective of their study was to examine possible association between students’ self-reported behaviors and opinions towards academic dishonesty, and their attitudes toward curriculum, assessment, and teaching within the pharmacy program. Results showed that more than 80% of respondents had participated in one or more of the act of academic dishonesty. A
weak to moderate correlation was found between students’ attitudes toward pharmacy education and their self-reported behaviors related to academic dishonesty.

A study explored the challenges associated with mobile phones in college classrooms as a means of cheating conducted by Campbell & Scott (2006). A sample of faculty and students was surveyed to assess the extent to which the technology for cheating and attitude about policies restricting it from ringing and being used during class. Collectively, participants reported strong perception of ringing as a problem and support for formal policies restricting mobile phones in college classrooms.

The generational differences in cheating in community college studied by Kathleen (2007). He provided insight into differing definitions of attitude towards cheating among college students and argued that community college faculty must educate students about appropriateness of behavior in their courses. Students’ cheating have been the subject of much despair and considerable research in higher education. College often include character education in their missions, so to be confronted with students’ cheating is for some faculty and administrators, to be confronted with failure.

A study on undergraduate plagiarism from a pedagogical perspective by Ellery (2008), said that student plagiarism is a pervasive and increasing problem at all levels of study in tertiary institutions. His study revealed little deliberate intention to deceive but instead poor understanding of both technical matters such as correct referencing norms that had been addressed in the module and higher-order issues such as writing as process, knowledge as constructed and the establishment of authorial voice through language and referencing. Lack of real engagement with plagiarism and referencing issues was also a problem, with certain groups of students being more at risk in terms of committing plagiarism than others. It is argued that, particularly in a demographically diverse society, acquiring values, attitudes, norms, beliefs and practices that help prevent plagiarism should be viewed as a long-term and iterative process.

**STUDIES RELATED TO WORK VALUES**

A study on work values of university students: an analysis by ethnic group and sex conducted by Lafitte, Pat Chew (1974). In order to establish work values schemes more directly, a study at
the University of Texas randomly surveyed 148 students with diverse backgrounds and interest. Students rated 45 work values on a scale from “important” to “unimportant” and answered 11 queries about their personal and ethnic backgrounds and career goals. Findings indicated that, although values related to life style, achievement, creativity, and economic returns were emphasized by all students, there were differences in work values by sex and ethnic groups. Whereas female students tended to stress altruism and supervisory relationships, males valued independence, economic returns and intellectual stimulation. Black-Americans valued economic returns considerably more than all other groups and Mexican-Americans valued security second only to way of life. Oriental students scored significantly lower on all scales than did the other groups, indicating that they demand less values fulfillment from their work.

A study on work values contrasts at the associate and baccalaureate student levels in the medical laboratory sciences conducted by Dietrich & Doran (1978). The work values patterns of female and male students at the two- and four-year levels of an allied health profession have not been reported. The purpose of this study was to examine these patterns in students at the associate and baccalaureate levels of the clinical laboratory sciences occupational area. Responses from 320 students on Super's Work Values Inventory led to the conclusion that the two-year students placed greater emphasis on extrinsic values related to work outcomes. Additionally, male students (who are the minority sex in this discipline) maintained a more masculine work values profile stressing independence and management in comparison with female respondents. Therefore, a student's educational level or sex has an impact on his/her work orientation. These differences in work values were demonstrable despite commonality in career choice.

A study explored the some determinants of work alienation done by Mottazl (1981). His study represents an attempt to examine the nature and sources of self-estrangement in work. The concept is defined using a discrepancy approach. Questionnaire data were collected from 1,313 employees representing seven occupational groups. The results suggest that individual work values interact with perceptions of the work situation to produce different levels of self-estrangement within each occupational group. Furthermore, multiple regression analysis indicates that job conditions are significantly more important than background factors for
explaining feelings of self-estrangement. In particular, lack of control over task activities (powerlessness) and lack of meaningful work (meaninglessness) are found to be the most powerful predictors across all occupational groups.

The gender differences in work satisfaction, work-related rewards and values, and the determinants of work satisfaction studied by Mottazl (1986). His study investigated possible gender-related differences in perceptions of work rewards, work values, overall work satisfaction, and the determinants of work satisfaction. Data from 1385 workers representing a variety of occupations are analyzed. Basically, the analysis identifies a number of similarities as well as differences between male and female workers regarding their perceptions and attitudes about work. Additionally, two explanations of the gender-work satisfaction relationship are examined. They are the expectancy and value explanations. The available data provides conditional support for the value explanation.

To know the work values in relation to gender and forecasted career patterns for women done by Perron & Louise (2004). This study examined the problem of life-style and career patterns for women. College students (367 males, 332 females) expressed their preferences for one of three career patterns for women combining work and family involvement and also answered a work values questionnaire. Results showed that 70.5% of the subjects expected women to attend school and/or work outside the home first and to have their children only after they have established themselves in a career. Forecasting of career patterns for women was significantly related to subjects' work values. Results confirmed previous findings and also indicated new trends in work values that differentiate between male and female college students.

The work values of managers and workers studied by Damodar Suar. (1992). He analyses the importance of work value and difference between managers and workers. The importance of work value matches with the difference of work values. The managers put more emphasis on work values of self actualization, social concern and self expression than other values. On these values, managers outscore the workers. The workers care more for materialistic values than for other values in work. The results help developing a conceptual framework for value orientation of employees.
A study on judgment of fit in the selection process: the role of work values congruence conducted by Adkins & Russell (1994). They examined work values as an antecedent recruiters’ judgments of applicant fit with organization. Data were collected on the work values of recruiters, their organizations, and job applicants in actual job interviews conducted through the placement center of a large university. Following the interviews, recruiters evaluated applicants’ general employability and organization-specific fit. Approximately 4 months following the interviews, data on whether the applicants were invited for a second interview were also obtained. Work values congruence between the applicant and the recruiters was found to be related to judgments of general employability and organization-specific fit. Congruence between the applicant and the organization (as perceived by the recruiter) was not related to judgments of employability and organization-specific fit. Recruiters rating of employability were related to the decision to invite the applicant for a second interview. Work values congruence was not related to second interview decisions. It is concluded that if work values and judgments of applicant fit influence the personnel selection process, they are more likely to do so at later stages when job offer decisions are made. Work values and judgments of applicant fit seem to have minimal impact on decisions to retain the applicant for additional consideration in early stages of the selection process.

The relationship between gender and work values: a comparative analysis studied by Elizur & Bar-Ilan (1994). The results of their recent investigations on work values suggest that the contradictory findings in regard to gender differences may be rooted in variations in the underlying structure of the work-values domain. In the present study a definitional framework for work values was proposed and tested. Smallest space analysis (SSA; Guttman, 1968) was performed on the ratings of 24 work-value items by samples of men and women from Hungary, Israel, and the Netherlands. A double-ordered conceptual system, a radex structure, was obtained in each of the samples, reflecting two hypothesized facets: modality of outcome (cognitive, affective, and instrumental) and type of system performance contingency. Essentially the same structure was obtained for women and men. However, women ranked affective outcomes as well as some of the instrumental and cognitive values higher than men.
did, whereas men ranked some other cognitive (influence, independence, responsibility) and instrumental (pay) items higher than women did. Personal growth and use of abilities were ranked higher by men in some samples and by women in others.

The work value among technical students with the moderating effect of socio-economic status explored by Michael Raj & Chauhan (1994). This study focuses on the perception of work value with the moderating effect of socio-economic status among technical students. The perception of work value of the subjects are analyzed in the study. The sample for the present study consists of 100 final year polytechnic students in one institution situated in Coimbatore. To obtain the measures of Work-Value and Socio-economic Status, the Protestant Ethic Scale developed by Mirels & Garrett (1971) and the Socio-economic Inventory by S. John Michael Raj were used.

In order to find out the mean differences between High and Low Socio-economic Status groups the data were subjected to percentage Critical Ratio. The results reveal that there is a significant difference between High and Low Socio-economic Status groups with regard to their perception of Work-Value.

In order to measure people's attitudes toward money, a 12-item Money Ethic Scale (MES) was developed by Tang (1995) based on a sample of 740 subjects. Three factors were identified: Success, Budget, and Evil. Attitudes toward money as related to people's demographic variables, personality variables, and job satisfaction were examined. Those who scored high on the Money Ethic Scale (the overall Money score) tended to have high economic values, and low religious values, high Type A behavior pattern, to be values.

To study the gender as a determinant of work values among university students in Israel a study done by Ismael & Richard (1997). They measured gender differences in work values, by the 25-item Manhardt scale (1972), were examined among 820 (391 male and 429 female) undergraduate students at Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Israel. Male and female students differed on 9 items. The single students’ scores were similar to the scores of cnennnnm on 13 items; in the faculty of Engineering, they differed on 8 items; and in the faculty of medicine, they differed on 2 items. There was no consistent pattern of gender-based differences in work values. Those findings show the need to control for background variables and field of
study/occupation in examination of gender-based differences in work values; they also indicate the need to revise and augment traditional explanation of gender differences in work values. Increasing similarity in the values and life plans of male and female college students studied by Timothy (1998). He said that time-series analysis of college freshmen indicates that from 1969 to 1984 there has been a dramatic increase in the value women place on status-attainment goals, but not a comparable decrease in the value placed on domestic-nurturing goals—a pattern that reflects an amalgamation rather than a masculinization of the feminine value constellation. As the value placed on status-attainment goals has not increased as significantly for males, there has been a narrowing of the difference in the value constellations of the sexes over this time period. Further, there has been a greater increase in the percentage of women than men aspiring to graduate degrees and to the highest status professional and executive occupations, resulting in increased congruence in the educational and high-status career goals of women and men.

To know the Tourism students’ perceptions of work values: a case of Taiwanese universities studied by Chen et al (2000). This study investigated students’ perceptions of work values and occupational choice propensity. A total of 311 hospitality majors at four different universities in Taiwan were analyzed in the study. The work value inventory (WVI) scale, containing 45 attributes, developed by Super, was used to assess students’ perceptions of work values. The study found “supervisory relations”, “work surroundings”, and “way of life” were the most important work values among respondents. Three mutually exclusive clusters of respondents were identified. This research suggests a longitudinal study measuring students’ perceptions of work value before and after entering the workforce.

The work values and personality traits as predictors of enterprising and social vocational interests investigated by Dries et al (2004). They investigated the incremental validity of work values to predict enterprising and social vocational interests over and above personality traits in a sample of 178 undergraduate commercial engineering or commercial sciences seniors. Twelve work values, defined as broad tendencies to prefer general job characteristics, were operationalized as the extent to which people assign importance to a range of job characteristics when thinking about an ideal work situation. Personality traits were assessed with the Dutch
authorized adaptation of the NEO-PI-R. Enterprising and Social vocational interests were assessed with three-item scales representing job titles. Although, the majority of the work values were related to the Five Factor Model-traits, correlations were modest to moderate, not exceeding 0.44. The results of the stepwise hierarchical multiple regression analyses show that work values have incremental validity over and above the FFM-traits to predict enterprising and social vocational interests. Enterprising interests are predicted by Extraversion, whereas Social interests are predicted by Openness. The work values Influence and Team respectively further add positively and negatively to the prediction of enterprising vocational preferences, while interest in Social occupations is additionally characterized by putting less weight on Earnings.

A study on work values of mortuary science students conducted by Duys et al (2005). The focus of their study was the work values held by mortuary science students from 3 educational programs in the Midwest. The Values Scale (D. Nevill & D. Super, 1989) was used to measure the career-related values of a sample group of 116. According to participants' scores, the 5 sub scales of Economic Security, Achievement, Personal Development, Ability Utilization, and Economic Rewards were the highest ranking. Work values were examined by gender, race, and other demographics.

A study on a better understanding of the core values of Thai undergraduates conducted by Shawyun & Tanchaisak (2005). A critical issue facing the modern day educators is the changing values and understanding of the values of the students under their tutorage. A better understanding of the underlying core values of the undergraduate students could possibly lead to a more fruitful and beneficial educational approach that is both student-centered and focused on the full development of the student. Their paper aimed at identifying the core values of the student using the Rokeach’s (1973) two broad categories of terminal value and instrumental value. His research identified 20 terminal and 23 instrumental values for Thai people and 9 Thai national values. These values were examined in this preliminary study on 528 undergraduate students in 4 faculties. The descending ranking order of the 9 national values in this study was: interdependence orientation, fun-pleasure orientation, grateful relationship orientation, smooth interpersonal relationship orientation, achievement – task orientation, flexibility and adjustment
orientation, education and competence orientation, ego orientation and religious-psychical orientation. On the comparison of the importance and the degree of practice of both the terminal and instrumental values, it was astounding to find that students reported that the values were important but the degree of the actual practice of these values did not match the importance. This could be construed that the students have strong beliefs in the values but might not be practicing what they believed as important.

The work values and their effect on work behavior and work outcomes in female and male managers conducted by Frieze et al (2006). A longitudinal sample of over 800 MBA graduates’ surveyed across a 16-year period was recruited to investigate the relationship of work values to work effort, salary levels, and other work outcomes. As predicted, economic work values were related to higher salary levels and to the number of hours worked. Changing companies more often and receiving more promotions were also significantly related to work values. Work values did not differ for women and men in the sample, except that women are higher in the values of wanting to do an excellent job. Controlling for work values did not explain significantly higher salaries for men as compared to women.

The influence of work values relative to other variables in the development of organizational commitment was investigated by Luis & Luis (2006). They used the four high order values proposed by the theory of values of Schwartz to operationalize the construct of work values; they evaluated the influence of these values on the development of organizational commitment, in comparison with four facets of work satisfaction and four organizational factors: empowerment, knowledge of organizational goals, training and communication practices. A sample of 982 employees from eight companies of northeastern Mexico was used in this study. Our findings suggest that work values occupy a less important place on the development of organizational commitment when compared to organizational factors, such as the perceived knowledge of the organization or some attitude such as satisfaction with security and opportunities of development.

A factorial validation of work value structure: second-order confirmatory factor analysis and its implications studied by Chu (2008). His study presents a procedure of a second-order
confirmatory factor analysis for identifying hospitality students’ work value structure. Data were collected from questionnaires completed by 511 senior hospitality students, and were divided into two sets. The first set was used to explore the underlying factor structure and three latent work value factors were derived: intangible rewards, self-fulfillment, and liberal spirit. These three latent factors can also be explained by the higher order of the latent factor–work value. The second data set was used to confirm this second-order factorial structure using confirmatory factor analysis. The fit indices showed that the model fitted the data well. This three-factor structure also showed a superior fit when compared with factor structures found in other studies.

To know the work values of Turkish and American university students a study done by Zahide et al (2008). The first aim of their study was to investigate how the traditional Protestant work ethic (PWE) and more contemporary work values (i.e., masculine, feminine, and entrepreneurship values) were related to one another, and differed across genders and two cultural contexts, namely Turkey and the U.S. The second aim was to elucidate the role of religiosity in PWE among the two cultural groups. Two hundred and sixty six American and 211 Turkish university students participated in this questionnaire study. The analyses examining cross-cultural differences revealed that Turkish university students reported greater scores in the PWE and all contemporary work values as compared to their American counterparts. For the Turkish sample, there were no gender-related differences in the PWE, whereas in the U.S. sample, men reported greater PWE scores than did women. With regard to gender differences in contemporary work values, our results showed that gender groups differed in feminine and entrepreneurship values in both cultural contexts; men emphasized femininity and entrepreneurship more than women in Turkey but the reverse was true in the U.S. Correlations between contemporary work values and the PWE illustrated that the PWE is associated with entrepreneurship and masculine values in both cultural contexts and with feminine values in the Turkish context. Finally, the results regarding the role of religiosity in PWE indicated that highly religious participants reported greater PWE scores than the less religious ones regardless of culture.
Since no research study has been done to see the impact of attitude towards cheating and work values upon pattern of time use, the present problem was formulated and the research was carried out to analyze the time used (or time management) by students of different attitudes and different work values.