



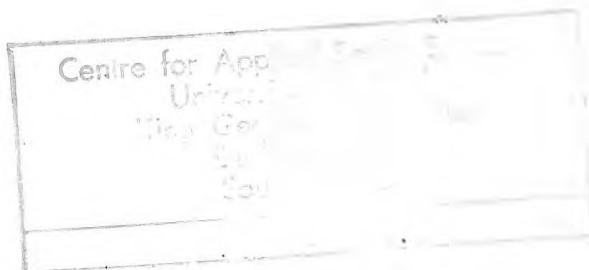
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KILLING ME SOFTLY WITH STRUCTURE:
AN OUTLINE OF THE INFLUENCE OF VARYING
ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE AND PROCEDURE UPON
ORGANIZATION CLIMATE

R.D.J. Allen



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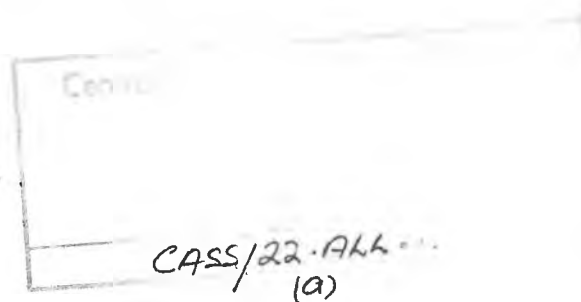
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ORGANIZATION ANALYSIS AND DEVELOPMENT

KILLING ME SOFTLY WITH STRUCTURE:
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ORGANIZATION CLIMATE

R.D.J. Allen



September 1982.

Centre for Applied Social Sciences
University of Natal
Durban

Until recently, the shifting sands of practitioner judgment were the major if not the only source of knowledge about how to organize and run an enterprise. Now, research on leadership, management, and organization, undertaken by social scientists, provides a more stable body of knowledge than has been available in the past. The art of management can be based on verifiable information derived from rigorous, quantitative research. Independent investigators can repeat the research and test the validity of the findings. Not only is the body of knowledge more stable and accurate, but it is likely to grow continuously as the results of additional research on management are accumulated. Quantitative research anywhere in the world can add to this body of knowledge. Its rate of growth can be accelerated by increasing the expenditures for social science research focused on organizations.

Rensis Likert
The Human Organization

In the average company the boys in the mailroom, the president, the vice-presidents, and the girls in the steno pool have three things in common: they are docile, they are bored, and they are dull. Trapped in the pigeonholes of organizational charts, they've been made slaves to the rules of private and public hierarchies that run mindlessly on and on because nobody can change them.

There's nothing fundamentally wrong with our country except that the leaders of all our major organizations are operating on the wrong assumptions. We're in this mess because for the last two hundred years we've been using the Catholic Church and Caesar's legions as our patterns for creating organizations.

Get to know your people. What they do well, what they enjoy doing, what their weaknesses and strengths are, and what they want and need to get from their job. And then try to create an organization around your people, not jam your people into those organization-chart rectangles. The only excuse for organization is to maximize the chance that each one, working with others, will get for growth in his job. You can't motivate people. That door is locked from the inside. You can create a climate in which most of your people will motivate themselves to help the company to reach its objectives.

Robert Townsend
Up the Organization

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INTRODUCTION.

In this paper the concepts of organization structure and organization climate are introduced, variability in the form, structure, and other characteristics of whole organizations demonstrated, and the influences of these parameters upon individual organization members considered. A more detailed examination of organization climate then briefly indicates the utility of characterizations and assessments of organizations from the individual members' perspective (in addition to those made in system terms) in understanding the functioning of organizations.

The nature of organization science concepts.

Most of the concepts used in organization science and management theory have come from the behavioural sciences. The behavioural sciences are still young, in the sense that no universal agreement as to paradigms has been reached, and their subject matter tends to be abstract.

Like many constructs used in the behavioural sciences, the idea of "organization climate" is still diffuse, and is, moreover, a recently discerned concept. It is still in the process of being debated, defined and developed. Any discussion, therefore, of organization climate, the significance of the concept and its role in organization science in general, will be discursive and open-ended rather than clear-cut. Notwithstanding these conditions, the utility of the concept can be demonstrated.

The nature of organizations.

An organization is a method of arranging individuals and resources in order to pursue some large scale objective or series of objectives. Organization is needed as the efforts of more and more people must be co-ordinated. Setting up an organization means, for example, allocating and delegating authority to some individuals, dispersing functions to others, and establishing procedures for instrumental activities to be

consistently performed and co-ordinated.

Organizations exist to perform tasks on a larger scale than the individual is capable of. They arise in response to the human need for co-operation at this scale of activity. In a large organization collective work needs to be done, and the resultant complexity leads to "orchestration needs". Often, division of labour also brings about the assigning of separated or fragmented work tasks to different individuals, who become specialists.

An organization is therefore something deliberately designed and formed in order to "orchestrate" the efforts of many diverse individuals, possibly performing diverse tasks, in the performance of an overall task, or a "common goal".

Although ostensibly composed of little more than its individual members, an organization in fact acquires characteristics and effects of its own, pertaining to its particular scale of events, processes and phenomena. Many of these are discerned by an examination of its structure.

Before the influence of organization structure and procedures upon organization climate can be discussed, it is first necessary to consider the factors comprising organization structures, the composition and nature of the structures, and how they can vary. It will also be necessary to consider procedure as an aspect of organization, and the different ways in which it, too, can be approached.

In addition, some introductory comments need to be made at this point concerning the nature and in particular the "locus" of the organization phenomena that are here being focussed on. In contrast to the idea of organization "climate", structure and procedure are both aspects of the formal constituted organization *per se*. From the point of view of the individual the formally constituted organization is relatively permanent, and can be called a relatively objective reality — intangible perhaps, but readily identifiable. Structure and procedure are thus aspects of a phenomenon which is "bigger"

than the individual, which constitutes an environment for the individual, and in this sense exists at a higher level than the individual.

The "climate" of the organization, on the other hand, is the individual's subjective perception and experience of the organization, as he functions within it. We have to go down to the level of an individual organization member and look through his eyes, his feelings, to find the climate of the organization. Climate is not formally fixed, or "real", or objectively evident, but is something subjectively perceived. If, for example, the climate of an organization had to be empirically discerned or investigated, this would be done not by consulting the organization chart or manuals of procedure, but by interviewing individual organization members in depth. Organization climate is examined in more detail shortly.

ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE.

Because organizations are instrumental, man-made devices ("enacted institutions" in the terms of William Sumner) one of their defining characteristics is that they are in principle formally constituted — they have a relatively persistent and discernible structure.

What specifically is meant when we refer to the "structure" of an organization? We are firstly referring implicitly to a relatively permanent set of recognisable relationships between a number of differentiated tasks. The pattern of relationships between the tasks is determined naturally and logically by the way they contribute functionally toward the overall task of the organization. This could be called the task structure of the organization (Mintzberg, pp. 1-3, 35-40).

In principle, each task is performed by an individual and because these individuals have to communicate and co-operate in order to link their tasks together, social relationships are necessary between them. Approximately, for each component task, there is a component person who performs it. Thus, the set of functional relations between tasks generates a corresponding set of social relations between the individuals performing them.

We are referring to this relatively permanent set of recognisable social

relationships between individual members when we speak of the "social structure" of an organization. Corresponding to each person's task in the task structure is his role in the social structure. Where any form of co-operation or co-ordination is necessary for the pursual of the overall organization objectives, what might have been in principle a purely *technical* activity by the individual becomes a *socio-technical* activity (Brown, p. 131). Given that the organization is composed of persons, these socio-technical activities, and the social structure they generate, would be necessary irrespective of who actually performs them. Indeed, a structural analysis refers, first and foremost, to properties and processes of organizations that exist without regard to the particular human component of the system. Structural features of an organization may determine some of the behaviour that occurs within that organization but it is not necessary to examine human behaviour in order to describe an organization's structure.

Perhaps the two most fundamental underlying principles at work in the emergence of an organization structure are those of *differentiation*, the product of specialisation accompanying growth; and *integration*, the means by which co-ordination/control of disparate functions is achieved (Lievegoed, Ch. 4).

It is worth noting here that once an administrator or decision-maker has designed the task structure, the bulk of his efforts tend to be directed to managing and co-ordinating the social structure, which is unpredictable and difficult to administer because its units are independent persons. By contrast, the task structure is relatively inanimate and once designed logically should function relatively automatically. For this reason, and perhaps also because it is social transactions which are most apparent to us, we tend to regard an organization as consisting first and foremost of a social structure. In fact, numerous other aspects of organizations can be discerned which affect their utility in the overall task for which they were established, and which affect the experiences, satisfactions and performance of the individuals who staff them.

Detailed characteristics of organizations can be discerned by first considering the contrast between whole types of organizations.

This is briefly undertaken under the following heading.

TYPES OF ORGANIZATION STRUCTURE.

Variations in organization structure can be demonstrated and discussed in terms of ideal models of whole organizations. Very generally speaking, two different types of organization structure can be distinguished. The two essential types are commonly known as the Bureaucratic or Mechanistic structure, and the Organic structure (French and Bell, pp. 216-9). In their pure and extreme forms these two can be imagined at opposite poles of a continuum. In reality, various organizations would be classified at different points between these extreme poles and might also move back and forth along the continuum depending upon circumstances.

The Bureaucratic or Mechanistic structure.

Still the most common structure is the classic hierarchical organization. In this type of structure a manager determines work activities, writes job descriptions, organizes people into groups and assigns them to superiors. He establishes objectives and determines the standard of performance. The Bureaucratic manager, in other words, generally has tight control and authority over his personnel.

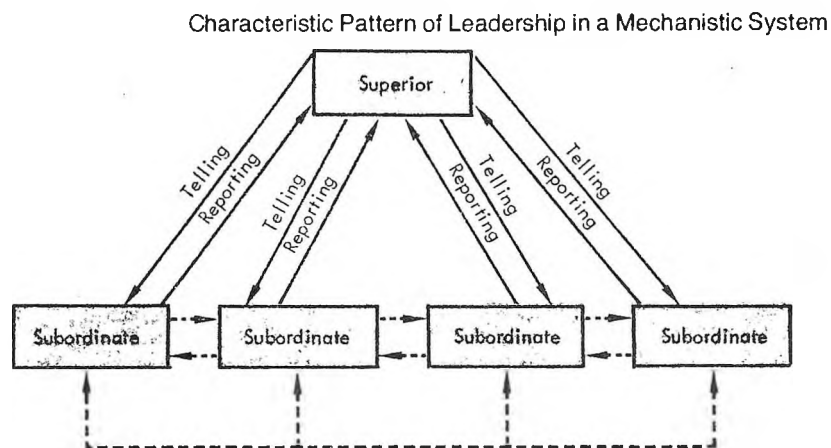
People and departments are ranked one above the other and the resultant stratified structure, with its hierarchy of authority, is commonly illustrated as a triangle with the highest official at the apex and authority flowing downward to the other parts. Historically, authority in organizations has as a rule been thus centralised in the primary administrator. Decision-making is of an autocratic nature and emphasis is placed on hierarchy and strictly-defined roles.

Conventionally, the classic or Bureaucratic structure is seen as an easy way of coping with complexity and suitable for stable environments. It is, however, mechanistic in nature and tends to overlook the nature and needs of people. It is highly formal, and its fixed procedures hinder full communication. Because of this rigidity it also cannot always accommodate the frequent internal and environmental changes afflicting modern organizations.

6.

The mechanistic structure tends to be adopted in organizations which are large, which pursue a fixed and routine set of goals, which employ persons of lower skills or of narrowly specialized skills, whose staff work in close association with a determining technology, or whose leaders simply favour an autocratic style of management.

An example of a mechanistically structured organization would be a state posts and telecommunications administration.



The Organic structure.

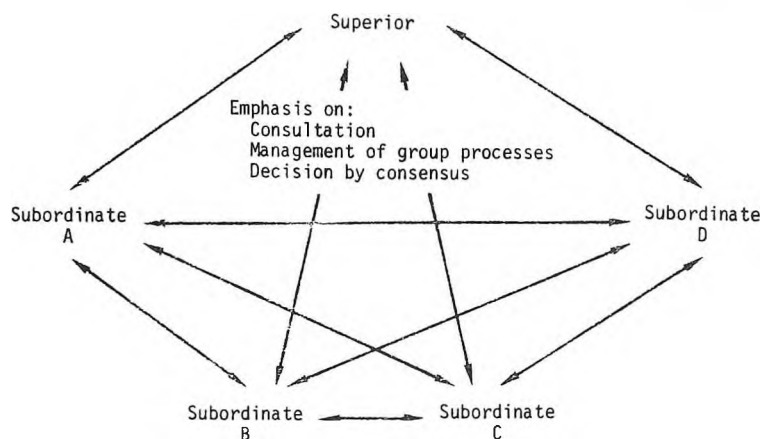
In ideal form this structure is made up of more informal inter-relations between people. One of its main features is therefore that less emphasis is placed on authority. It is considered more important to get the tasks done, than to stick to fixed roles. Correspondingly, less specialization, a heightened awareness of overall goals and of the individual's ongoing contribution to them, tend to characterise this form of organization.

There is little hierarchy in an organic structure. More authority and initiative is delegated downward to those places within the organization where the actual need for decisions first arises. This can enable subordinates to perform responsible tasks more effectively. With this decentralization of authority responsibilities and decision-making are shared more equally among all members of the organization. Communication is open and more advice-giving, and decision-making is often by consensus. The structure of the whole organization is less rigid and strict and in terms of "shape" it is shallow and broad compared to the deep and narrow Bureaucratic pyramid.

In an Organic structure people tend to be regarded as more important than procedures, which makes this organization people-structured, rather than task-structured, and therefore less mechanistic in character. It is a more "developed" structure and depends to a certain extent on a corresponding development of the individuals within the organization (Lievegoed, p. 41,42). With care and skill, however, a manager can make an Organic structure work very effectively — both in terms of overall output and individual satisfactions.

The Organic structure is more likely to be adopted in organizations which are small, which employ highly qualified staff, who tend to be generalists rather than specialists, which pursue overall goals that are novel, changing and challenging, and in which authority can be accepted or legitimized on the basis of technical expertise rather than rank. An example of an organically-structured organization would be an advertising agency or a research department.

Characteristic Pattern of Leadership in an Organic System



Important aspects of the contrast between Mechanistic and Organic structures, and its implications, particularly in terms of management policies and supervisory styles, are well expressed by Likert's typology of approaches to administration within organizations. The types of *administrative style* discerned by Likert correspond to different sets of *assumptions* made by managers about their human resources (McGregor: "Theory X" and "Theory Y"), and appropriate organizational procedures adopted. What Likert terms a "System 1" type of administration arises out of "Theory X" assumptions and corresponds to a Mechanistic organization structure, while what he terms a "System 4" type of administration arises out of "Theory Y" assumptions and corresponds to an Organic organization structure. (Pugh, *et al.* pp. 146-151) (Likert, Ch. 2, Appendix II.)

The dichotomised typology of the Mechanistic-Organic contrast is highly idealised, and in fact other whole organization types can be discerned (Handy, pp. 176-184; Mintzberg, Part IV). However, the basic dichotomy serves to illustrate some of the most essential features of an organization that can be varied, including by implication the organization culture and the work values of its members.

The circumstances, or contingencies, favouring the adoption of one or the other type of organization structure have been investigated in some detail (Mintzberg, pp. 11, 12; French and Bell, pp. 219-224; Gibson, *et al.* pp. 175, 176, 179-190; Luthans, pp. 119-127; Handy pp. 185-195). Factors such as size of organization, technology, nature of goals, skills and commitment of individuals, and others, determine the appropriateness of a specific structure for a particular organization.

Contrasting characteristics of Mechanistic and Organic structures.

So far the Mechanistic and Organic structures have been presented as opposite poles in a typology of *whole* organization types in order to enable us to describe variation in the amount of flexibility within an organization. Each of these ideal types has its own typical characteristics, but by now taking a closer look at these characteristics, it becomes apparent that they can be regarded as independently variable elements of all organization structures. Litterer (p. 339) offers the

following Table summarizing major characteristics of Mechanistic and Organic structures. This exercise isolates variables which could be used to describe any organization, and demonstrates the range of each variable.

Characteristics of mechanistic and organic organizations.

Mechanistic		Organic
High, many and sharp differentiations	SPECIALIZATION	Low, no hard boundaries, relatively few different jobs
High, methods spelled out	STANDARDIZATION	Low, individuals decide own methods
Means	ORIENTATION OF MEMBERS	Goals
By superior	CONFLICT RESOLUTION	interaction
Hierarchical based on implied contractual relation	PATTERN OF AUTHORITY CONTROL AND COMMUNICATION	Wide net based upon common commitment
At top of organization	LOCUS OF SUPERIOR COMPETENCE	Wherever there is skill and competence
Vertical	INTERACTION	Lateral
Directions, orders	COMMUNICATION CONTENT	Advice, information
To organization	LOYALTY	To project and group
From organizational position	PRESTIGE	From personal contribution

RELATED DIMENSIONS:

FORMALIZATION: extent to which rules/procedures, instructions/communication are written.

CENTRALIZATION: locus of decision-making authority.

HIERARCHISATION: number of levels of authority.

CONFIGURATION: ratio of administrative/senior jobs to substantive/junior jobs.

It will be seen that some of the distinguishing dimensions given in the Table directly describe basic characteristics of organizations, while others are elaborations of a single dimension.

A further dimension which might be added to the Table could be termed "Work Ethic" or "Orientation to Work". Generalising broadly, members of Organic organizations tend to be more committed to the work itself and the organization as a whole. They tend to have a more "professional"

attitude towards their work. In Mechanistic organizations, however, the task and the length of the working day are likely to be explicitly defined. This tends to generate a more "Bureaucratic", rule oriented, bargaining attitude to work.

ORGANIZATION PROCEDURES.

The operating procedures by which an organization functions are manifested in specific roles and specific responsibilities. Among these procedures may be distinguished job procedures and organization procedures. Job procedures, such as the ways of classifying and displaying commodities or information, or the best way to assemble a motor car engine, have in principle no direct relationship to the organization procedures.

By *organization* procedures we mean the standardized approaches of individuals to their organization roles as formally laid down in structural charts and manuals of procedure. "Procedures", in *organization* terms, are concerned with determining the way personal interactions are to be handled; with prescribing the approach to individual "organization activities" such as decision-making, exercising or delegating authority, communicating information, or motivating and sanctioning others. In fact, procedures need not be formally recorded.

As must by now be apparent to the reader, it is virtually impossible to describe the structure of an organization without at least implying certain corresponding procedures. The effect of organization procedures on the organization climate, therefore, need not be separately discussed in very great detail. It may be repeated, however, that Likert's typology of organizations has the interest of being expressed primarily in terms of administrative procedures rather than structures.

ORGANIZATION CLIMATE.

The climate of an organization represents the perception of its operation *by organization members*. Climate is phenomenologically external to the individual, yet the concept tries to describe the

organization very much from the individual's point of view. The climate of an organization thus represents its characteristics and scope as a working environment for the individual organization member. Similarly, the organization climate can be seen as an evaluation or characterization of the organization by the criteria of individual needs (in contrast to the organization needs). It is no surprise, therefore, that climate includes a number of relatively "informal" phenomena within the organization.

Because of its subjective and perceptual nature, climate may vary not only from organization to organization, but to some degree from individual to individual. Different people will perceive climate differently in terms of whether they, for example, accept or reject the rules of the organization, and how they view their social environment. One employee may see his superior as autocratic while another may regard him as more democratic. Nevertheless, climate has connotations of continuity and describes something external to the organization member. Tagiuri (1968) suggests that organization climate is capable of being shared, although individuals may differ regarding certain aspects of an organization, that it cannot be a common delusion, that it can be specified in terms of responses, and that it has behavioural consequences.

Organization climate is clearly an aspect, at least, of what in Organization Development terminology is called organization culture.

From the description of the differences between the two polar organization types outlined earlier, there may immediately be discerned elements of contrast which clearly contribute toward the mood or climate within an organization, insofar as it bears upon the individual. Clearly, the mood and approach to work adopted within the constraints of a mechanistic structure differ from those possible under the terms of an organic structure.

The structure of an organization plays a key role in determining the interactions between particular individuals, and between individuals and the organization, and as such is an important variable affecting individual and group behaviour, and therefore the operating climate.

In particular, the type of leadership in the organization is a major factor which can influence climate, and make it possible to distinguish between different working climates. Highly directive leadership, for example, can lend to a rigid structure which influences trust and respect in a negative way. Likert's typology of managerial styles, and hence organization climates, is derived from initial variations in the degree of faith that administrators/managers have in their staff.

Any comprehensive attempts to manipulate the climate in an organization would have to take into account the principal influencing factors of: Organization structure, and allied procedures; Leadership style; Staffing and recruitment policy; Characteristics of members; and Communication patterns.

THE INFLUENCE OF STRUCTURE AND PROCEDURE ON CLIMATE.

Although climate is an organization attribute, we have seen that it actually is something experienced or felt by individual members. A graphic example in more specific terms of how the individual's own experience of participation within an organization is influenced by the structure and procedure of that organization is furnished by what has become a classic experiment conducted by Lewin, Lippit and White at the University of Iowa.

These group-dynamics researchers set out to investigate the effects of social structure upon individual behaviour in work groups. In a controlled experiment, volunteer schoolboys were organized into groups for the purpose of model-building and similar hobby activities. The adults running the experiment organized the groups by means of three different *procedures*, distinguishable in particular by *leadership style*, which generated within the groups three corresponding different types of *social structure*.

As will become clear from the following description of the experiment (Brown, Ch. 8) the three different leadership procedures and hence the three corresponding types of social structure, created different moods or climates within the groups. There seems little doubt that the different group climates were largely responsible for the dramatic

differences in behaviour subsequently observed in the three types of group.

What primarily distinguished the three types of group? To start the experiment, the different types of group were established by three clearly distinguishable initial leadership procedures or "styles":

"The schoolboys were divided into groups, some of which were autocratic, some democratic, and some laissez-faire. In the *democratic* groups the leader discussed the work with the boys. He made suggestions and offered further information. The final decision was always left to them. They decided what to do, worked out a plan and arranged which members should work together. The leader acted throughout as a member of the group."

"The *autocratic* leaders imposed the decisions made in the democratic groups on their own autocratic ones so that both groups were doing the same work, the first from choice and by general agreement, the second by orders from above. The autocratic leader told the boys what to do, revealing only one step of the information at a time. He assigned boys to work together regardless of their own preferences. Apart from directing them, he remained aloof from the group and was friendly but impersonal."

"Finally, the *laissez-faire* groups were allowed to do just as they pleased. The boys were supplied with material and were told that they could ask for information. The leader offered no help, did not participate unless asked to do so, and neither praised nor blamed anyone."

What were the essential differences in procedure adopted by the different types of leaders?

In the democratic groups the leader acted as a catalyst which speeded up the natural processes of the group and helped it to attain the structure most suitable in the circumstances. The autocratic leader imposed a structure on the group which reflected his own wishes, and the laissez-faire leader was not a leader at all."

The democratic leadership style is among other things, sensitive to, and respects, the processes of the "informal organization."

What were the effects of the three different types of arrangement (or organization) upon group-members? Essentially, the autocratically-organized groups produced behaviour that was either aggressive or apathetic; the laissez-faire groups produced chaotic behaviour; and the democratically-organized groups produced behaviour that was constructive, resourceful, motivated and co-operative.

"Autocratic leadership produced two different types of behaviour within the groups. In some instances there was a marked increase of aggressiveness towards the leader, other members and even inanimate objects, while in other cases the response was apathy. The aggressive groups resented their leader because he restrained them but they were also afraid of him and showed their resentment by means of indirect forms of aggression. They would pretend that they had not heard when they were spoken to, they would break rules "by mistake", leave before time was up, and damage materials. The boys were not only aggressive towards their leader, but were equally aggressive towards other members. They disparaged each other's work and refused to co-operate. When they were told at the end that they could keep the models, many started to destroy them."

"The apathetic group under an autocratic leader disclosed during interviews the same dislikes the hatreds. But they did not voice them either openly against the leader or displace them against scape-goats. The boys were dull, tense, submissive and apathetic; they did not smile, joke or play freely together. But when the leader left the room, they dropped their work, ran about, shouted and showed all the signs of released tension."

"The laissez-faire groups were chaotic. The members showed a great deal of aggressiveness, but without the tension in the authoritarian groups. Practically no work was done and they were completely uncontrolled whether or not the leader was present."

"In contrast the boys in the democratic groups behaved entirely differently. They thought highly of their leader, he was described as 'a good sort who works with us, he never tried to be boss but we always had plenty to do'. They looked forward to meetings and worked well together. The work was described as 'our models', they referred to 'our' group and what 'we' do. The work of the more skilful members was looked on with admiration rather than jealousy as was the case in the other groups, since the skilful workers were considered a group asset. Criticism of each other's work was fair and when they were told to keep the

models, many presented them to their leader. When the leader left the room, work went on as before and the actual work was better done than that of the other groups."

The independent, and hence potentially confusing, effects of group organization on the one hand and the character of particular group members on the other, were carefully controlled by the experimenters:

"As a second experiment, the group members were changed about; those who had been in an autocratic group being placed in a democratic or laissez-faire group and vice-versa. The results were quite independent of personalities. Each group produced behaviour which was dependent on its structure rather than on who was in it, or who was its leader."

The behaviours and effects demonstrated by this experiment are very striking, and it seems reasonable to extrapolate these findings from group level to organization level. In other words, the relatively small primary groups set up in the experiment, can be regarded as small scale 'models' of corresponding types of larger organization structures.

A manager, for example, in assembling and administering meetings of his Heads of departments, could adopt a variety of approaches corresponding in principle to those adopted at the beginning of the experiment, and hence create a variety of climates tending to percolate downward and affect the whole organization.

Similarly, the democratic leader clearly makes assumptions which are distinguishable from those of an autocratic leader; for example, that it is valuable to share information with the group (or organization members), to invite participation of the group (organization members) in goal-setting and planning, and to be sensitive to the needs of team work, group harmony and group cohesion. Clearly, similar differences in initial assumptions could just as well be adopted by the leaders of whole organizations with correspondingly different consequences for procedure, structure, climate and behaviour in the organization at large.

Equally striking is the analogy between the negative, destructive and malicious behaviour of the autocratically-organized groups in the experiment and the similar behaviour so often complained of by the managers of comparable groups in occupational organizations - where a similar autocratic approach to management is conventionally adopted.

In a study by Litwin and Stringer, 45 students were divided into three simulated business firms with an "authoritarian-structured" business, a "democratic-friendly" business, and an "achieving" business represented. A researcher member of each group established different climates by employing the requisite leadership styles. The essential findings were that subjects in the achieving business gave the best performance, while subjects in the democratic-friendly groups were more satisfied with their jobs than those in any of the other groups. Here again, organization climate was an important intervening variable in the experiment, serving to influence motivation and hence organization effectiveness.

MORE DETAILED ELEMENTS OF ORGANIZATION CLIMATE.

Having looked at some of the implications for the worker of different organization structures, we now look more closely at the notion of climate itself — in particular, its manifestations in operational terms.

As we have seen, climate is something subjectively perceived, at individual level. In spite of controversy as to the reality of the construct, in formal studies of "organization climate" attempts have been made to isolate and define specific dimensions of climate. A relatively small number of factors have been suggested as comprising the essential elements of climate. The most prominent of these are set out below. It must be conceded that there is a faintly circular flavour about this factoring exercise. In a sense, a description of elements of organization climate is merely an account of various familiar organization characteristics, but described now as they appear to, or affect, an individual embedded within that organization.

Nevertheless, common to most studies are the following suggested components of perceived organization climate - representing, in effect, ways in which the organization impinges on the individual's activity. The terms used to name the dimensions are those commonly adopted in the literature.

1. Individual Autonomy.

Even though studies have varied in their approach this aspect of climate seems to be the clearest one which appears most commonly in all fields of study. The variable refers to degree of individual responsibility and independence and the exercising of individual initiative. The key element of this dimension is the individual's freedom to be his own master and to have a significant amount of authority to make his own decisions. He does not constantly have to account to higher management.

Another way of expressing this variation in constraint is to refer to the degree of *discretion*, as against *prescription*, given by a job-description to the incumbent of a post.

Closely related to this element is the degree of *trust* (particularly in relationships comprising the "line organization") implicit in the organization arrangements, sometimes referred to as high or low trust in the "organization culture". Note that we are here referring to the trust implicit in the *formal* organization arrangements.

- 1a. Closely related to "Individual Autonomy" can be discerned the factor Risk and Risk-Taking, describing the degree of opportunity presented by the organization arrangements for taking calculated risks in response to new challenges in the work situation. Depending upon individual dispositions, the presentation of risk can be either alarming to organization members or a significant precondition for evoking an achievement orientation - a potential motivator.

2. The Degree of Structure Imposed Upon the Position.

This variable refers to the freedom, or otherwise, of the individual to manoeuvre:

- in terms of his interactions with others, and his plans insofar as they involve accessing and collaborating with others
- within the formal organization, as constrained by rules, regulations and structure.

For example, is the individual highly circumscribed or even paralysed by a highly procedural organization culture — perhaps aggravated by a built-in functional dependence on others?

This factor is essentially structural and should not be confused with the prescribed-vs.-discretionary content of the individual's task itself.

3. Reward Orientation.

This element would perhaps be better termed the "Sanctions System" of the organization. It refers in particular to what sorts of positive or negative sanctions the organization possesses for responding to individual performance, and how closely these sanctions are applied or administered. It also refers to the degree to which sanctions are predictably and appropriately administered, and the individual's consequent confidence in this. This factor is not as coherent as the first two mentioned.

4. Consideration, Warmth, and Support.

This is not a particularly clearly defined dimension. It seems to refer, however, to the amount of support and stimulation received from primarily, one's superior, but also one's peers.

Other manifestations of this factor would seem to be the degree of trust prevailing in the informal organization, and the degree of co-operation between organization member.

4a. Closely related to "Consideration, Warmth and Support" we would also suggest a factor which could be termed Quality of Communication, referring in particular to the degree to which communication within the organization is open (i.e. not restricted or censored), honest, moves freely in all directions, and conveys feelings as well as ideas. Fostering "good" communication invariably means being aware of and fostering the various manifestations of the informal organization.

5. Tolerance of Conflict.

This element of climate expresses the degree to which differences of opinion are accepted as normal and legitimate within the organization, and the degree of social skills available for accommodating differences or for conflict-resolution.

The elements of organization climate just outlined should not be imagined as acting in isolation. Rather, as all these factors, and possibly others, interact in different proportions and within different situations the number of resultant net organization climates could be infinite.

MECHANISMS BY WHICH PERVASIVE ORGANIZATION CHARACTERISTICS EXERT A "CLIMATE" UPON THE INDIVIDUAL.

This process has been introduced in detailed experimental examples above. Now, mention must briefly be made of some discernible mechanisms in terms of which climate actually impinges upon organization member.

The perceived organization climate can be seen as an effect of the way in which features in the organizational environment of the individual influence or constrain his behaviour. In very general terms, Forehand and Gilmer point out three distinguishable mechanisms by which this constraining or determining process is effected — that is, how in

essence organization parameters influence the individual.

1. Influence by "Definition of Stimuli".

Circumstances influence the individual by limiting the initial definition of the very situation, and resources, in the organization setting which require the attention and action of the individual. Factors such as organization structure, job-definitions, available resources, and the assumptions of superiors, influence the individual's initial perceptions of the demands on him and the tasks he should attend to.

2. Influence by "Constraints upon Freedom".

The scope for subsequent action by the individual, and the types of actions possible or permitted, tend to be limited or defined by factors such as

- quality of communication and social or psychological distance attributable to structure,
- procedural regulations, or
- the allocation or delegation of "organizing resources" such as authority or decision-making — as well as other resources and facilities.

3. Influence by "Reward and Punishment".

The conditioning of repeated work behaviour of the individual is assisted by sanctioning and evaluating processes within the organization, usually directed from positions of authority. The way these processes reinforce or discourage certain types of behaviour constitute palpable aspects of the organization climate.

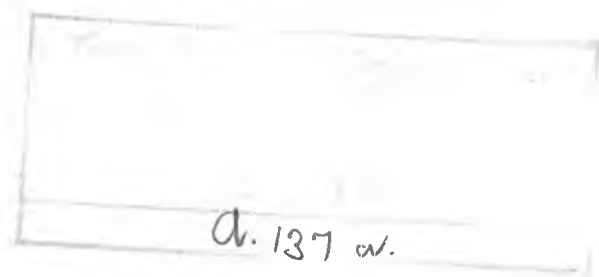
To these three mechanisms must be added the "micro-social" mechanism, the profound influence of group forces and related motivational forces exerted by the less formal social formations within the organization, demonstrated by the research of Mayo (Miller and Form, pp. 660-681, 677; Brown, Ch. 3, Ch. 5) and Lewin.

SOME CONCLUSIONS : THE SIGNIFICANCE OF ORGANIZATION CLIMATE.

It is difficult to articulate a highly formal definition of climate that is not either trivial or of limited use because of its generality. Nevertheless, an understanding of the concept of organizational climate can be valuable to administrators. Studies of organization climate such as those of Litwin and Stringer have indicated that managers are able to influence the climates of their organizations, and that climate in turn may influence motivation, performance and the satisfaction of organization members. The "fit" between organization and individual significantly affects individual performance and satisfaction in an organization context. This "fit" can be fruitfully viewed as the reaction of individual personality to organization climate. Correspondingly, in the development of organization theory, organization climate provides a conceptual linkage between analysis at the organizational and individual level.

In spite of criticism and controversy as to the reality of the construct, the concept of organization climate is undoubtedly useful, particularly in situations where administrators wish to be sensitive to the accommodation of individual needs and organization needs — in that case probably inclining toward a more organic model for their organization.

Organization Development can be seen as a set of diagnostic, planning and review procedures by means of which organization members jointly participate in the building of, initially, the organization climate or culture, and, finally, the structure and goals of their organization.



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APPENDIX A.

TYPOLOGY OF ORGANIZATIONS
IN TERMS OF ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES

(Reproduced from Likert, R. (1967) *The Human Organization*,
Table 2-1, pp. 4-10)

TABLE 2-1

TABLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

Organizational variable	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4
1. Leadership processes used				
Extent to which superiors have confidence and trust in <i>subordinates</i>	Have no confidence and trust in subordinates	Have condescending confidence and trust, such as master has to servant	Substantial but not complete confidence and trust; still wishes to keep control of decisions	Complete confidence and trust in all matters
Extent to which superiors behave so that subordinates feel free to discuss important things about their jobs with their immediate superior	Subordinates do not feel at all free to discuss things about the job with their superior	Subordinates do not feel very free to discuss things about the job with their superior	Subordinates feel rather free to discuss things about the job with their superior	Subordinates feel completely free to discuss things about the job with their superior
Extent to which immediate superior in solving job problems generally tries to get subordinates' ideas and opinions and make constructive use of them	Seldom gets ideas and opinions of subordinates in solving job problems	Sometimes gets ideas and opinions of subordinates in solving job problems	Usually gets ideas and opinions and usually tries to make constructive use of them	Always gets ideas and opinions and always tries to make constructive use of them
2. Character of motivational forces				
Manner in which motives are used	Fear, threats, punishment, and occasional rewards	Rewards and some actual or potential punishment	Rewards, occasional punishment, and some involvement	Economic rewards based on compensation system developed through participation; group participation and involvement in setting goals, improving methods, appraising progress toward goals, etc.
Amount of responsibility felt by each member of organization for achieving organization's goals	High levels of management feel responsibility; lower levels feel less; rank and file feel little and often welcome opportunity to behave in ways to defeat organization's goals	Managerial personnel usually feel responsibility; rank and file usually feel relatively little responsibility for achieving organization's goals	Substantial proportion of personnel, especially at high levels, feel responsibility and generally behave in ways to achieve the organization's goals	Personnel at all levels feel real responsibility for organization's goals and behave in ways to implement them
3. Character of communication process				
Amount of interaction and communication aimed at achieving organization's objectives	Very little	Little	Quite a bit	Much with both individuals and groups

TABLE 2-1 (Continued)

TABLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

Organizational variable	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4
Direction of information flow	Downward	Mostly downward	Down and up	Down, up, and with peers
Extent to which downward communications are accepted by subordinates	Viewed with great suspicion	May or may not be viewed with suspicion	Often accepted but at times viewed with suspicion; may or may not be openly questioned	Generally accepted, but if not, openly and candidly questioned
Accuracy of upward communication via line	Tends to be inaccurate	Information that boss wants to hear flows; other information is restricted and filtered	Information that boss wants to hear flows; other information may be limited or cautiously given	Accurate
Psychological closeness of superiors to subordinates (i.e., how well does superior know and understand problems faced by subordinates?)	Has no knowledge or understanding of problems of subordinates	Has some knowledge and understanding of problems of subordinates	Knows and understands problems of subordinates quite well	Knows and understands problems of subordinates very well
4. Character of interaction-influence process Amount and character of interaction	Little interaction and always with fear and distrust	Little interaction and usually with some condescension by superiors; fear and caution by subordinates	Moderate interaction, often with fair amount of confidence and trust	Extensive, friendly interaction with high degree of confidence and trust
Amount of cooperative teamwork present	None	Relatively little	A moderate amount	Very substantial amount throughout the organization
5. Character of decision-making process At what level in organization are decisions formally made?	Bulk of decisions at top of organization	Policy at top, many decisions within prescribed framework made at lower levels	Broad policy and general decisions at top, more specific decisions at lower levels	Decision making widely done throughout organization, although well integrated through linking process provided by overlapping groups
To what extent are decision makers aware of problems, particularly those at lower levels in the organization?	Often are unaware or only partially aware	Aware of some, unaware of others	Moderately aware of problems	Generally quite well aware of problems

TABLE 2-1 (Continued)

TABLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

Organizational variable	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4
Extent to which technical and professional knowledge is used in decision making	Used only if possessed at higher levels	Much of what is available in higher and middle levels is used	Much of what is available in higher, middle, and lower levels is used	Most of what is available anywhere within the organization is used
To what extent are subordinates involved in decisions related to their work?	Not at all	Never involved in decisions; occasionally consulted	Usually are consulted but ordinarily not involved in the decision making	Are involved fully in all decisions related to their work
Are decisions made at the best level in the organization so far as the motivational consequences (i.e., does the decision-making process help to create the necessary motivations in those persons who have to carry out the decisions?)	Decision making contributes little or nothing to the motivation to implement the decision, usually yields adverse motivation	Decision making contributes relatively little motivation	Some contribution by decision making to motivation to implement	Substantial contribution by decision-making processes to motivation to implement
6. Character of goal setting or ordering Manner in which usually done	Orders issued	Orders issued, opportunity to comment may or may not exist	Goals are set or orders issued after discussion with subordinate(s) of problems and planned action	Except in emergencies, goals are usually established by means of group participation
Are there forces to accept, resist, or reject goals?	Goals are overtly accepted but are covertly resisted strongly	Goals are overtly accepted but often covertly resisted to at least a moderate degree	Goals are overtly accepted but at times with some covert resistance	Goals are fully accepted both overtly and covertly
7. Character of control processes Extent to which the review and control functions are concentrated	Highly concentrated in top management	Relatively highly concentrated, with some delegated control to middle and lower levels	Moderate downward delegation of review and control processes; lower as well as higher levels feel responsible	Quite widespread responsibility for review and control, with lower units at times imposing more rigorous reviews and tighter controls than top management

TABLE 2-1 (Continued)

TABLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS OF DIFFERENT MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS

Organizational variable	System 1	System 2	System 3	System 4
Extent to which there is an informal organization present and supporting or opposing goals of formal organization	Informal organization present and opposing goals of formal organization	Informal organization usually present and partially resisting goals	Informal organization may be present and may either support or partially resist goals of formal organization	Informal and formal organization are one and the same; hence all social forces support efforts to achieve organization's goals
Extent to which control data (e.g., accounting, productivity, cost, etc.) are used for self-guidance or group problem solving by managers and non-supervisory employees; or used by superiors in a punitive, policing manner	Used for policing and in punitive manner	Used for policing coupled with reward and punishment, sometimes punitively; used somewhat for guidance but in accord with orders	Largely used for policing with emphasis usually on reward but with some punishment; used for guidance in accord with orders; some use also for self-guidance	Used for self-guidance and for coordinated problem solving and guidance; not used punitively

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APPENDIX B.

SIMPLIFIED MODEL OF PROCEDURAL DIMENSIONS/CHARACTERISTICS
DIFFERENTIATING LIKERT'S FOUR "MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS"

SIMPLIFIED MODEL OF PROCEDURAL DIMENSIONS/CHARACTERISTICS DIFFERENTIATING
LIKERT'S FOUR "MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS",**

ORGANIZATIONAL/PROCEDURAL VARIABLE	SYSTEM 1	SYSTEM 4
1. LEADERSHIP PROCESSES USED	Supervising Unapproachable/isolated Directive Authoritarian	Delegating Seeking feedback Consultative Egalitarian
2. CHARACTER OF MOTIVATIONAL FORCES	Coercive Extrinsic to task Prescriptive	Self-actualising Intrinsic to task Discretionary
3. CHARACTER OF COMMUNICATION PROCESS	Little Suspicious Inaccurate/distorted Insincere/irrelevant	Much Trusting Accurate Sincere/relevant
4. CHARACTER OF INTERACTION- INFLUENCE PROCESS	Isolated Untrusting Competitive	Interactive Trusting Co-operative
5. CHARACTER OF DECISION- MAKING PROCESS	Centralised Oligarchic (by elites) Autocratic/controlling Uninformed Procedural Incompetent	Decentralised/localised Democratic Participative/con- sultative/accommodating Informed Substantive/adaptive/ flexible Competent *
6. CHARACTER OF GOAL-SETTING OR ORDERING PROCESS	Autocratic Not legitimate	Participative Legitimate
7. CHARACTERISTICS OF CONTROL PROCESSES (SANCTIONS)	Centralised Formal Punitive	Decentralised/dispersed Informal Instructive

* w.r.t. task, organizing and motivation.

** Derived from Likert (1967), Table 2-1, pp. 4-10. Compare with Appendix A.



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REPORT ON EMPLOYEE REACTIONS
TO MANAGEMENT POLICIES AND COMPANY BENEFITS
IN A LARGE CHEMICAL PROCESS INDUSTRY IN DURBAN
A SUMMARY OF THE PRINCIPAL FINDINGS

R.D.J. Allen

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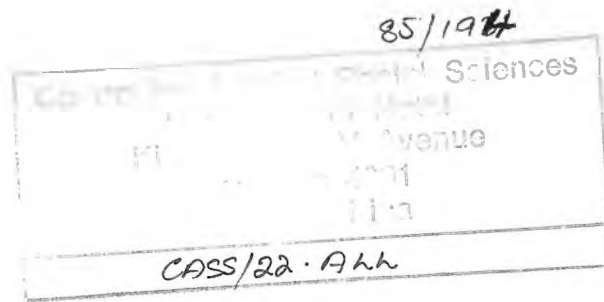
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DURBAN

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1984

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A complaint is not necessarily an objective recital of facts; it is commonly a symptom manifesting disturbance of an individual's status position.

*Roethlisberger and Dickson
Hawthorne Interviewing Program, 1928-1930*

Now it is evident that our high administrators have, in these days, accepted responsibility for training workers in new technical skills; it is equally evident that no one has accepted responsibility for training them in new (adaptive) social skills.

Elton Mayo, 1945

And look at the rewards we're offering our people today: higher wages, medical benefits, vacations, pensions, profit sharing, bowling and baseball teams. Not one can be enjoyed on the job. You've got to leave work, get sick, or retire first. No wonder people aren't having fun on the job..... It isn't easy, but what you're really trying to do is come between a man and his family. You want him to enjoy his work so much he comes in on Saturday instead of playing golf or cutting the grass.

*Robert Townsend
Up the Organization*

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INTRODUCTION

Because the survey on which this Report is based yielded a large volume of information the summary presented in this short document has to be confined to an outline of the main findings only, described as concisely as possible. Fuller details of the survey and the results have been described in a much more comprehensive Report written for the management.

The Tables or Figures² referred to in the text below will be found at the end of this report.

MAIN OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The material presented in the report is based on a confidential commissioned study conducted by the Centre for Applied Social Sciences and the author in a large chemical process industry in Durban. The study was undertaken at the request of the commissioning company, who specified in broad terms the objectives of the study. These were:

- to investigate employee views of the company, of work and jobs in the company, and of management and supervision in the company;
- to investigate employee awareness of formal benefits and similar resources within the company;
- to investigate employee priorities concerning perceived problems requiring action;
- and finally to investigate how perceptions and responses in respect of all these factors might differ between employees when employees are differentiated according to Race, Job Grade, Length of Service, and Department.

Data for the study was recovered by fieldwork conducted at the company during late 1983.

SAMPLING

The company was too large for us to interview everybody, so a sample of employees was scientifically selected. From a total of 1 100 employees throughout the company in the job grades 6A to 13 inclusive, 419 employees (38%) were eventually sampled for interviewing. This stratified quota sample is almost perfectly representative in terms of the employee "core" characteristics: Race, Job Group, Length of Service, Department. (See Table 1 of Report). In other words, in terms of these employee characteristics, the sample of employees selected for interviewing had the same composition as the whole workforce in job grades 6A to 13.

Note that because the survey was designed to examine only employees in job grades 6A to 13, and nobody in more senior grades, whenever we refer below to "the Personnel Department" we are in effect referring almost entirely to employees working in Security. For the same reason whenever we refer below to "the Technology Department" we are in fact referring mainly to laboratory staff and not to graduate technologists.

RELATIONSHIPS AMONG "CORE" CHARACTERISTICS OF EMPLOYEES

Job Group, or seniority, is associated quite strongly with Race. Whites are more likely to occupy higher job grades than Indians, who in turn are more likely to occupy higher job-grades than Blacks (Table 3). Job Group/Seniority is also distributed in different ways in the different Departments. Senior jobs are best represented in Engineering and least represented at Island View. (Table 6.)

THE PERCEIVED RELEVANCE OF JOBS TO GENERAL CAREER ASPIRATIONS

We asked employees "How important is your present job in helping you to get where you would like in your career?"

Four-fifths of the workforce surveyed feel that their work is relevant to the fulfilment of their own career objectives. The remaining one-fifth perceive little or no connection between their own career objectives and their present job.

The perceived relevance of jobs by employees is well below average at Island View. The perceived relevance of the job is poorest among Blacks and among longer service employees.

THE PERCEIVED OPPORTUNITIES FOR ADVANCEMENT IN THE COMPANY

We asked employees "Do you feel that you can become what you would like to become in the company?"

Employee optimism is cautious here. Only 15 percent of employees feel they can "definitely" attain their goals; about half feel they can "possibly" reach their goals. The remaining one-third of employees clearly doubt that they can reach their goals in the company.

Estimations of their opportunity for advancement are clearly better than average among Whites and among shorter-service employees, and poorer than average among Blacks and longer-service employees. Perceived opportunity for advancement is clearly above average in the Personnel Department, and above average in the Engineering Department; while it is below average in the Finance Department and at Island View.

KNOWLEDGE OF THE PERSONNEL POLICIES MANUAL

The Personnel Policies Manual is a 300-page indexed file containing comprehensive information about the company's official policies concerning such matters as: Company objectives, Industrial Relations objectives, recruitment, working hours and overtime, remuneration, supervision, grievance procedures, terminations, benefit schemes (such as pensions, insurance and medical aid), leave, company assistance and allowances to employees, housing policy, and unemployment insurance. About 150 copies of the Manual are kept throughout the company, and it is available to all employees either from their immediate supervisor or the Personnel Department.

About a quarter of employees judge themselves familiar with the Personnel Policies Manual, while about half are partially acquainted with it, and roughly one-third know little or nothing about it. Knowledge of the Manual is considerably above average among Whites, and well below average among Blacks. Knowledge of the Manual is below average at Island View, and very much higher than average in the Personnel Department.

JOB SATISFACTION

A great variety of information about employee satisfaction with many different aspects of the job was recovered by the survey. The results were calculated for the workforce as a whole, and also for different types of employee within the workforce. The main indications of the data are as follows.

Employee satisfaction among the workforce as a whole is very high in respect of the factor of identification with the company. It is also high in respect of the factors of:

- employee benefits,
- work demands,
- working conditions, and
- peer relations at work. (Figure 3B.)

There is also notable employee satisfaction with the following more particular matters assessed in the survey (in order of popularity):

- how employees get on with colleagues at the same level,
- the way the company treats people on sick leave,
- hours of work,
- time allowed for lunch and tea breaks,
- vacation leave conditions,
- how secure employees feel about losing their jobs,
- how well employees feel trusted by superiors. (Figure 3A.)

Employee dissatisfaction is most prominent in respect of the factor of recognition, status and equity. Dissatisfaction is also prominent in respect of:

- pay,
- scope for growth and advancement, and
- confidence and trust in management. (Figure 3B.)

There is also significant employee dissatisfaction regarding the following particular issues assessed in the survey (in order of severity):

- the annual performance appraisals,
 - opportunities for promotion in the company,
 - rewards for good work or performance,
 - the job-grading system,
 - whether people are treated fairly and equally,
 - effectiveness of consultation/liaison committees,
 - salary for the work or responsibility expected,
 - salary increases,
 - salary range,
 - salary,
 - company help for employees to make progress,
 - recognition for good work,
 - how well own work is rewarded compared with other work in the company,
 - whether managers and superiors have favourites,
 - the way employees' grievances are handled,
 - effectiveness of upward communication lines in the company, and
 - salaries compared with other local manufacturing companies.
- (Figure 3A.)

The overall picture gained by these indications is of a workforce who are:

- clearly satisfied with matters extrinsic to the work itself, such as Company image, employee benefits, and conditions of employment;
- moderately satisfied with material conditions of work and the scope for actual working satisfactions;
- rather indifferently or coolly disposed towards formal communication processes, supervision and management processes, and the use of authority; and
- plainly dissatisfied with the organization's various sanctions* which apply to themselves as individuals, such as:
 - pay,
 - personal recognition (affected by job-evaluations, performance appraisals, etc),
 - training and advancement, and
 - warmth of relations with supervisors/managers.

Satisfactions, then, tend to be focussed upon those areas of concern which are relatively overt, straightforward and easy for an organization to manage; while dissatisfactions tend to be focussed upon those areas of concern which are relatively elusive, complex and difficult for a large organization to successfully manage.

Another distinction which can be seen here is that satisfactions tend to be focussed upon those aspects of the employment situation in which everybody is, by definition, alike or treated equally — such as the conditions of employment and work, or the various benefits —; while dissatisfactions tend to be focussed upon those aspects of the employment situation which, again by definition, differentiate employees — such as the mechanisms necessary to encourage motivation and performance: evaluations, rewards, recognition, etc.

* "Sanction" refers to any kind of formal response which the system makes so as to reward or punish the behaviour or performance of individuals. The "sanctions system" usually means the formal system of rewards and penalties.

Although these differentials are, universally, the necessary "steam" pressure to drive the industrial enterprise, it is precisely because they do differentiate employees (ultimately for the rewards of income and status), that they also tend always to be matters of great concern or even anxiety to employees.

Job satisfaction differs quite clearly between employees of different lengths of service, and between employees of different Race; and it also differs significantly between employees of different seniority/job-grade. Over the majority of employment issues examined in the survey longer-service employees clearly tend to be the most satisfied, and short-service employees the least satisfied (Figure 6B). Similarly, White employees clearly tend to be the most satisfied, and Indian employees the least satisfied (Figure 4B). Likewise, employees in the Artisan/Supervisory job-grades tend to be more satisfied than the less senior employees (Figure 5B). The type of satisfaction that differs the most between employees of longer and shorter service is satisfaction regarding adequacy of communication. The type of satisfaction differing most between employees of different Race is satisfaction regarding race relations. The types of satisfaction differing most between higher and lower job-grades are satisfaction regarding pay and race relations. (Further details in Table 28.)

Job satisfaction also differs clearly between different Departments of the Company (Figure 10B). The Personnel Department is consistently the most satisfied over all issues, often by a large margin over other departments (Figure 7B). Engineering is the next best satisfied department, with above average satisfaction on virtually all job factors (Figure 8B). Technology is consistently the least satisfied department, with the greatest dissatisfaction evident in the areas of rewards, and social and organizational factors (Figure 8B). The Finance Department also shows lower-than-average satisfaction regarding

several areas of concern, mainly those centering on the work process itself and professional development (Figure 7B). The types of satisfaction that differ most between departments are satisfaction regarding scope for growth and advancement and the quality of supervision and management. (Further details in Table 28.)

Variation in satisfaction with job and employment is also associated quite clearly with variation in age, and in the perceived relevance of the job, and with education (a negative relationship). Here satisfaction tends to be greater among employees who are older, employees who see their job as helping them toward their own career objectives, and employees who are less educated. Degree of employment satisfaction is also weakly associated with degree of knowledge of the Personnel Policies Manual. Here satisfaction tends to be slightly greater among employees who know more about the Personnel Policies Manual.

Multiple regression analysis (limited to using the eight known objective employee characteristics as predictors) reveals that variance in employment satisfaction is explained most by perceived relevance of the job and age (largely representing length of service), and then, to a lesser degree, by job-group and education. (Further details in Table 32.)

SPONTANEOUSLY DECLARED WORK PROBLEMS

After our survey questionnaire had examined the employee's satisfaction regarding all the normal concerns and problems in the work situation, we then asked the employee to "write down any serious problems we have not covered".

The general types of problems which were the most expressed spontaneously by employees in response to this unstructured, open-ended question are (in order of priority) as follows:

- Benefits supplementing income (felt particularly by Indian employees)
- Management and supervision (felt particularly by long-service employees, and in the Personnel Department)
- Race discrimination and race-relations (felt almost equally by all races)
- Pay/remuneration (felt particularly by Black employees at Island View)
- Training for advancement (felt least by Indian and long-service employees, and in the Technology and Operations Department)
- Recognition, sanctions and equity (felt most by Indian and long-service employees, and in the Operations Department)
- Company transport to work (felt most by White employees, and in the Personnel, Finance and Technology Departments)
- Physical working conditions (felt most by Indian employees, and at Island View)
- Design of work and jobs (felt most by Indian employees, and in the Operations Department)

A more detailed description of the specific problems which employees mentioned the most is given in Table 30A.

EVALUATIONS OF MANAGEMENT SKILLS AND FUNCTIONING

The survey allowed employees to make critical evaluations of management. It did this by presenting a list of common criticisms of the management process, so that employees could indicate how true they thought each criticism really was (Figure 38).

The greatest problem experienced with regard to management skills and functioning was seen by workers to be inadequate description and re-evaluation of their job-descriptions, followed by unhappiness with what they perceive as an authoritarian, non-consultative style in the Company's decision-making process. Also fairly prominent were: the general criticism that not enough attention is given by management to staff and personnel problems, and a diffuse negative attitude toward management in general (fourth problem listed) (Figure 40).

Taken together, these declared problems suggest unhappiness with the more personal aspects of the management process, particularly as they affect the employee as an individual; and also a feeling in employees that the management are remote, out of touch, and cannot be adequately contacted.

These problems were registered more by Black employees than any other race group, then by Indians, and with least intensity by Whites (Figure 41). There was considerably greater dissatisfaction with management skills and functioning in the Finance Department than in any other. This group was followed by Technology in expressing dissatisfaction. The highest level of satisfaction with management processes was found in the Personnel Department (Figure 46).

AWARENESS AND KNOWLEDGE OF COMPANY BENEFITS

In accordance with the Company's concern with how aware employees are of the various benefits, our survey asked each employee to write down "six of the main benefits which the company provides, as far as you know".

When employees spontaneously name Company benefits in response to this open-ended question, the benefits uppermost in their awareness are the following (listed in order of prominence):

- Normal retirement benefits (particularly well known in the Personnel Department)
- Medical Aid Scheme (but less well known among Black employees and at Island View)
- Home Ownership Scheme (but not well known among Black employees and at Island View; and less well known among longer-service employees)
- Leave Provisions
- Group Life Insurance (but not well known among Black employees and at Island View)
- Education Assistance (but less well known among White employees and in the Engineering Department)
- Canteen Facilities (but not well known at Island View)
- 13th Salary Cheque (most mentioned by Indians and least mentioned by Whites)

The survey then presented a list of the fourteen main Company benefits, asking employees to indicate how much they knew about each benefit. The least-known benefits, in order of severity of ignorance, are:

- Deferred Retirement Benefits
- Voluntary Personal Accident Insurance
- Children's, Ill-health, and Widows', Pensions
- Group Personal Accident Insurance
- Early Retirement Provisions, and
- Optimal Dates for Retirement (Figure 48.)

Awareness of benefits differs significantly between employees of different race, with Blacks usually knowing much less than others. Blacks, however, are most aware of normal retirement benefits.

There is a strong tendency for the employees' knowledge of the benefits to differ according to their seniority. The semi-/non-skilled group were the least aware of benefits. The artisan/supervisory group were most aware of benefits.

There is a milder but still definite tendency for the employees' knowledge of benefits also to differ according to their length of service. With the exception of the Medical Aid Scheme, where they register the greatest awareness, shorter-term employees were generally less aware of benefits than others. The longer-term employees were the most aware, particularly of leave provisions, retirement benefits and pensions.

The different Departments differ in their awareness of certain benefits: Personnel registered less knowledge of retirement benefits and pensions. Their greatest knowledge was of leave, education assistance and insurance schemes.

The Finance Department were less aware of leave provisions and retirement benefits. Generally, however, they were aware of benefits.

Technology were least aware of ill-health pension, although otherwise generally well informed.

The Engineering Department exhibited slightly less awareness of retirement benefits.

The Operations Department were generally adequately informed about all benefits.

The Island View employees were, however, very uninformed about all benefits, particularly life and accident insurance, retirement benefits, medical aid, and the home ownership scheme.

EVALUATION OF BENEFITS

Having examined the employee's awareness of Company benefits, the survey went on to ask how satisfactory the employee felt the main Company benefits are.

There was generally an expression of better -than-fair satisfaction with benefits, with the marked exception of the home-ownership scheme which was felt to be inadequate (Figure 58).

This dissatisfaction was registered by all race groups, but was felt most keenly by Indians and Whites in the artisan and skilled groups. This dissatisfaction was registered relatively irrespective of length of service, although generally longer-term employees were less dissatisfied here.

Compared with the profile for the whole Company, the Personnel Department was exceptionally well satisfied with benefits, as was the Finance Department - although the latter registered particular dissatisfaction with the home-ownership scheme.

In the case of both the Technology and Operations Departments nearly all benefits were consistently given below-average ratings, particularly in the case of ill-health pension, which was given a poor rating in Technology.

In general the different types of employee (distinguished according to Seniority, Service, Race, or Department) rated their satisfaction with benefits in the same contrasting ways as they rated their job-satisfaction.

THE INFLUENCE OF PERSONAL EMPLOYEE CHARACTERISTICS UPON THE JOB GRADE ATTAINED

It has been shown earlier that employees of a certain race (White in this case) are more likely to occupy a higher job-group than a lower job-group. In this sense the employee characteristic "Race" can be seen as a predictor of job-group, or seniority. (If we are

told an employee's race, then we can predict the job-grade/ seniority that he is more likely to have.) Which employee characteristics serve as the better predictors of Job Group? In other words, which personal employee characteristics influence the seniority which an employee attains in the Company?

In the working population here studied, the job-grade or seniority attained by employees correlates very strongly with Race, strongly with School Education and Knowledge of the Personnel Policies Manual, and moderately with Department and Perceived Relevance of Job for Career Aspirations. Multiple regression analysis of these and other lesser correlates reveals that variance in job-group or seniority attained is explained predominantly by race ($r^2 = 50$), and also significantly by school education ($r^2 = 9,3$) and length of service ($r^2 = 2,4$).

To get this finding into perspective it should be understood that the placing of the employee characteristic "Race" first in the ranking of the predictor variables means that Race, representing not only itself but also other characteristics that Race co-varies with or "stands for" (such as quality of education, quantity of education, access to urban socialisation, prior employment experience, etc.), is the personal characteristic which most explains variance in job-grade or seniority.

THE MOST PRESSING PROBLEMS OF EMPLOYEES

After the surveyed employees had evaluated the many different aspects of their jobs which were covered in the survey, they were then asked to list what they felt were the three most serious or urgent problems from among them, ranking them in order of priority. The employees were asked to name the problems in their employment situation "which you feel need putting right most urgently".

Seventy-six percent of employees give priority dissatisfaction to various aspects of the income derived from their job.

Forty-two percent of employees give priority dissatisfaction to problems centering around the formal sanctions mechanisms of the Company (such as job-grading, and performance appraisal), by which the organization recognizes or penalizes work-relevant behaviours and performance, and which hence help determine the status and income of employees — and hence their progress.

Thirty-six percent of employees give priority dissatisfaction to problems centering around relatively informal social processes which influence sanctions and equity in the company, such as whether people are "treated fairly" or whether managers/ supervisors "have favourites", or how superiors "treat their staff" in general. These could be broadly termed problems of informal social sanctions and social equity.

Twenty-six percent of employees give priority dissatisfaction to problems concerning advancement in the company, such as opportunities for promotion and training in new skills.

Fourteen percent of employees give priority dissatisfaction to the functioning and effectiveness of the consultative and liaison committees, channels of communication concerned with broader issues in the Company.

Nine percent of employees give priority dissatisfaction in the area of company benefits other than the retirement benefits and health benefits.

These results are generally confirmed by the results of the open-ended question about work problems which have been given above under the heading "Spontaneously Declared Work Problems" (p. 8).

The priority problems revealed by the two different aspects of the survey are compared and linked in the diagram on the following page.

PUTTING THE MAIN PROBLEMS INTO PERSPECTIVE

Our survey has examined the attitudes of employees of all kinds throughout the Company to very many aspects of their work, jobs, and wider employment situation. Similar attitude research conducted on the Witwatersrand, and in the USA and Canada, (which is summarized in the N.I.P.R. Newsletter reproduced in Appendix A, p.19) suggests that most of the major problem areas uncovered by this survey are fairly typical of industrial employees. The other researchers found that the main areas of concern affecting overall job-satisfaction, among both managers and semi-literate factory workers, were:

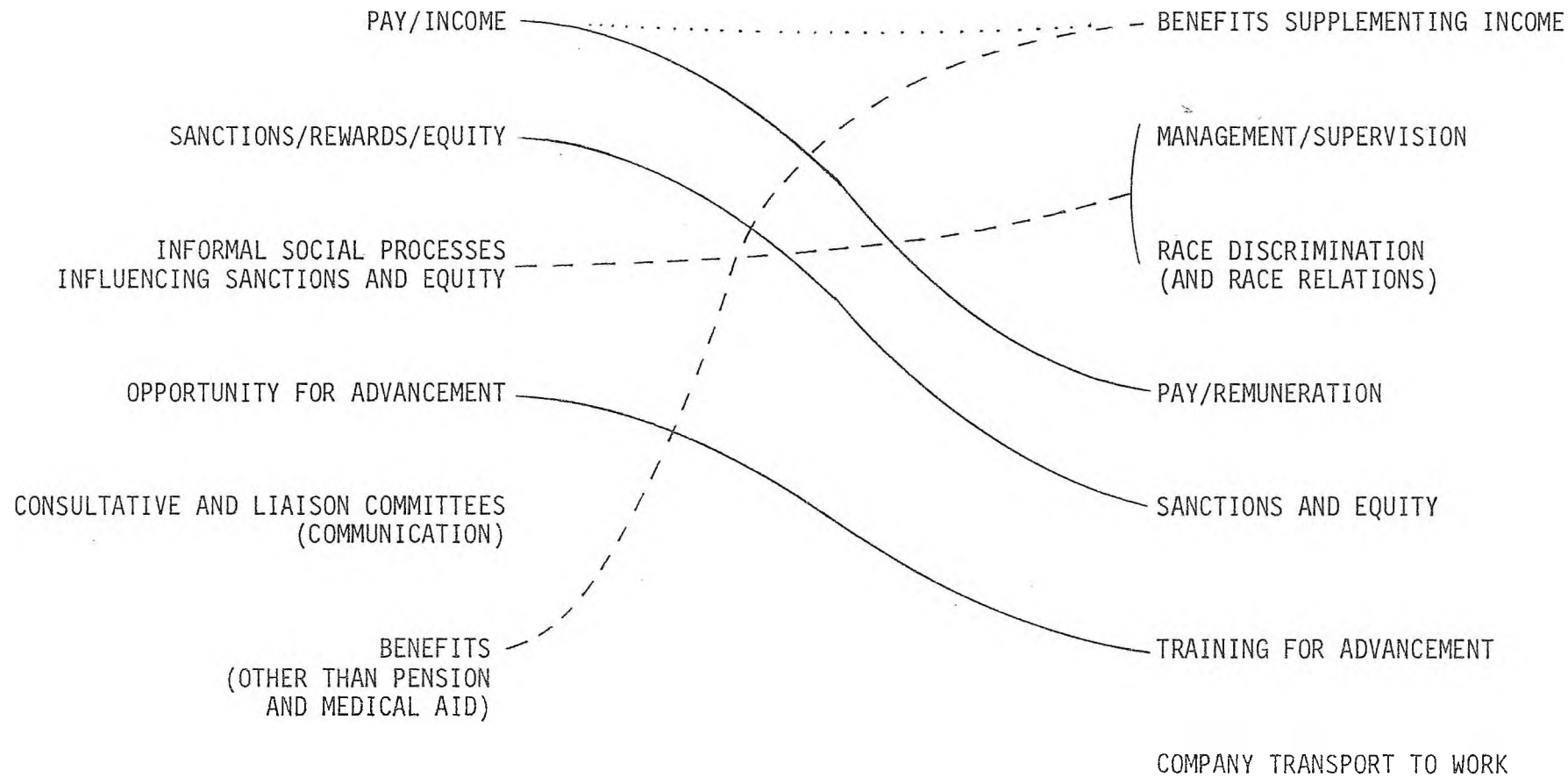
- personal progress and development,
- pay,
- organizational climate*,
- the quality of relationships between superiors and subordinates, and
- job security.

* "Organizational climate" is a term used to describe the employee's very personal overall impression of what it is like to work in a particular organization. Organizational climate is determined mainly by: the leadership style of management and supervisors, the distribution of authority and responsibility, the quality and authenticity of communications, openness and trust, and the design of individual jobs and the overall task structure.

PRIORITY PROBLEMS OF THE EMPLOYEES
REVEALED BY THE SURVEY

Priorities indicated by choices
from STRUCTURED questions.

Priorities indicated by responses
to OPEN-ENDED questions.



From this viewpoint the most worrying concern indicated by our results, in the sense that it is untypical, is the concern expressed by just over one-third of employees about the personal fairness of the human component of the sanctions/rewards/recognition system (i e supervisors, management, and other decision-makers) — the human component which administers the otherwise impersonal sanctions/rewards mechanisms.

The other worrying indication of our results, but in much more general terms, is the finding that about one-fifth of employees can see little or no connection between their present job and their own future career objectives.

APPENDIX A

N.I.P.R. Newsletter, December, 1974:
"WHAT'S GOOD AND WHAT'S BAD ABOUT WORK?"



JOB SATISFACTION

WHAT'S GOOD AND WHAT'S BAD ABOUT WORK?

What do people feel about their jobs? Which aspects do they dislike; which do they find satisfying? What do they most value: promotion and personal progress, pay, friendly relations with fellow workers, the way they are supervised? Do managers and machine operators value the same things? Questions like these underlie current research in the Personnel Adaptation Division of the NIPR.

Such questions are important because the feeling of satisfaction - or dissatisfaction - which we have about our jobs has far-reaching effects on our lives, influencing our mental health, our physical health, and even how long we live! And job dissatisfaction has been shown clearly to play a very big part in producing symptoms of industrial maladjustment such as high rates of labour turnover, absenteeism and tardiness.

As part of a larger study, the work attitudes of two hundred illiterate and semi-literate workers in a factory on the Witwatersrand were probed by Black interviewers using a specially prepared interview schedule. Four major areas of importance were identified concerning personal satisfaction with the work itself: personal progress, pay, organizational climate and job security.* These results are strikingly similar to those obtained in a study of the feelings which three thousand managers in the USA and Canada had about their jobs. Four similar areas of importance were identified: personal progress and development, pay, organizational climate and the quality of relationships between superiors and subordinates.

In another study undertaken in the Personnel Adaptation Division, the job-related attitudes of 1500 employees of a nation-wide chain of retail stores were assessed, using questionnaires which were completed by the subjects themselves. The sample included members of all sectors of the South African population and covered occupational levels from the factory worker to the senior manager. The questionnaire employed was considerably longer and more complex than the interview schedule devised for the illiterates and semi-literates, which allowed the responses obtained to be analysed in greater complexity and depth. Results of initial analyses indicate that the job satisfaction of this sample is also similar to that of the group of North American managers. Further analyses, currently under way, are probing for differences related to job level and/or cultural background.

Research now being planned will investigate what different types of people expect from their jobs.

* COLDWELL, D A L (1979) Role conflict, job satisfaction and situational anxiety amongst Black industrial workers. *Psychol. Afr.* vol. 18, pp. 81-101.

ATTITUDES TO BLACK AND WHITE SUPERVISORS

Should Black factory workers be supervised by Black or White supervisors?

This question was examined in a recent small exploratory study in which the attitudes toward supervision of two hundred urban and migrant factory workers were assessed. Migrants from rural areas preferred Black supervisors to White. Reasons advanced for this preference were that they found it easier to communicate with Black than with White supervisors, that Black supervisors were seen as more sympathetic and understanding about employees' personal problems than White and that Black supervisors were regarded as being more lenient about punctuality and work errors than White. Urban workers had no clear preference for Black or White supervisors. Both migrant and urban employees however considered that Black supervisors were overburdened with work, lacked real authority, and were in a difficult position between Black workers and White managers. Further, White supervisors were seen to wield greater power and to be more effective in obtaining pay increases.

It is not yet known to what extent these results are true for other factories, but research on this question is potentially useful for the selection and training of supervisors and for the design of their jobs.

Enquiries related to the projects described in this issue may be directed to the Head of the Personnel Adaptation Division, NIPR, Mr Hilton Blake.

Suggestions, Enquiries and Changes of Address to be directed to:

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@Please note our new postal addresses.

TABLE 1: COMPOSITION OF THE SAMPLE :
NUMBERS AND PROPORTIONS OF CATEGORIES OF EMPLOYEE

<u>VARIABLE</u>	<u>CATEGORIES</u>	<u>Number in sample</u>	<u>Percentage in sample</u>	<u>(Approximate% in universe*)</u>
RACE:	White	151	36	34
	"Indian" (includes 1% coloured)	130	31	27
	Black	138	33	39
		419	100	
JOB GROUP:	Artisan/Supervisory**	191	45	25
	Skilled/Operator	141	34	49
	Semi-skilled/Unskilled	87	21	26
		419	100	
LENGTH OF SERVICE:	Longer Service (10 years or more)	193	46	41
	Medium Service (5 to 9,9 years)	117	28	27
	Shorter Service (up to 4,9 years)	109	26	32
		419	100	
DEPARTMENT:	Personnel	19	4,5	4,7
	Finance	21	5,0	5,0
	Technology	29	6,9	8,0
	Operations	111	26	25
	Engineering	109	26	27
	Island View	130	31	31
		419	100	

* Exact figures for the grades sampled not known.

** Compositions described in text and Table 2.

TABLE 3: DISTRIBUTION OF JOB GROUPS BY RACE

R A C E	J O B G R O U P			
	% Artisan/ Supervisory	% Skilled/ Operator	% Semi-skilled/ Non-skilled	
White	77	23	0	100
Indian*	50	48	2,3	100
Black	6,6	32	61	100
All cases	45	34	20	100

<u>Measure of association</u>	<u>Significance</u>
Chi-square = 252,82	,00
Tau B = ,63	,00
Somers' D = ,63	
Pearson's R = ,70	,00

* ("Indian" includes 1 percent of coloured employees)

TABLE 6:

DISTRIBUTIONS OF JOB GROUP BY DEPARTMENT

D E P A R T M E N T	J O B G R O U P			Mean Job Group Value*	
	% Artisan/ Supervisory.(1)	% Skilled/ Operator.(2)	% Semi-skilled/ Non-skilled.(3)		
Personnel	47	53	0	100	1,53
Finance	43	47	10	100	1,66
Technology	42	55	3,4	100	1,62
Operations	60	26	14	100	1,54
Engineering	66	29	5,6	100	1,40
Island View	18	34	48	100	2,30
All cases	45	34	21	100	1,75

* "Mean Job Group value" for each department is the weighted average of the three Job Group values (1,2, and3), each value being weighted according to its frequency in that department.

FIGURE 3A : GRAPHED MEAN SATISFACTION SCORE, ON INDIVIDUAL ITEMS OF CONCERN, FOR ALL EMPLOYEES (N = 419)

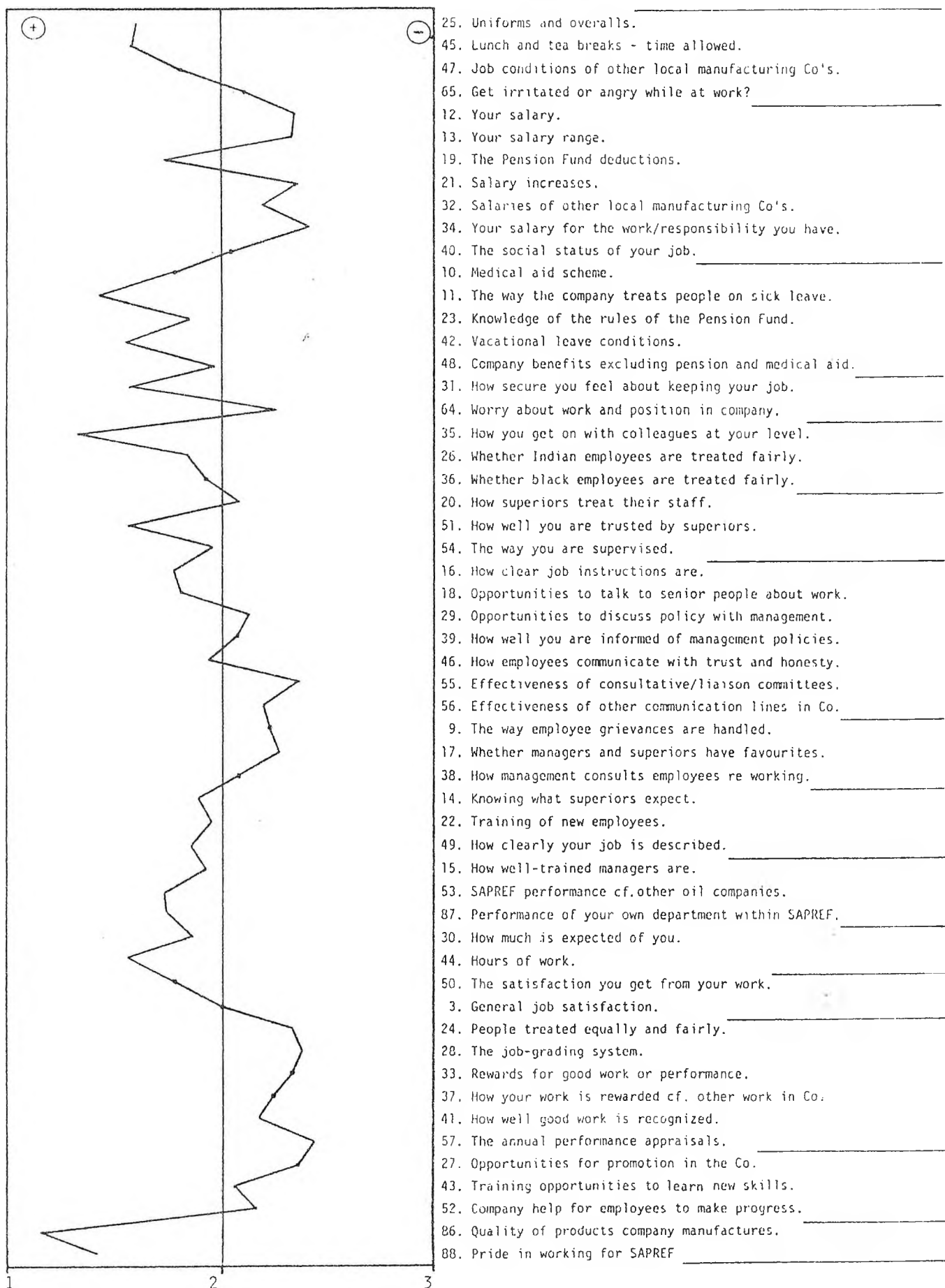


FIGURE 3B : GRAPHED MEAN SATISFACTION SCORE, ON PARTICULAR SATISFACTION FACTORS, FOR ALL EMPLOYEES (N = 419)

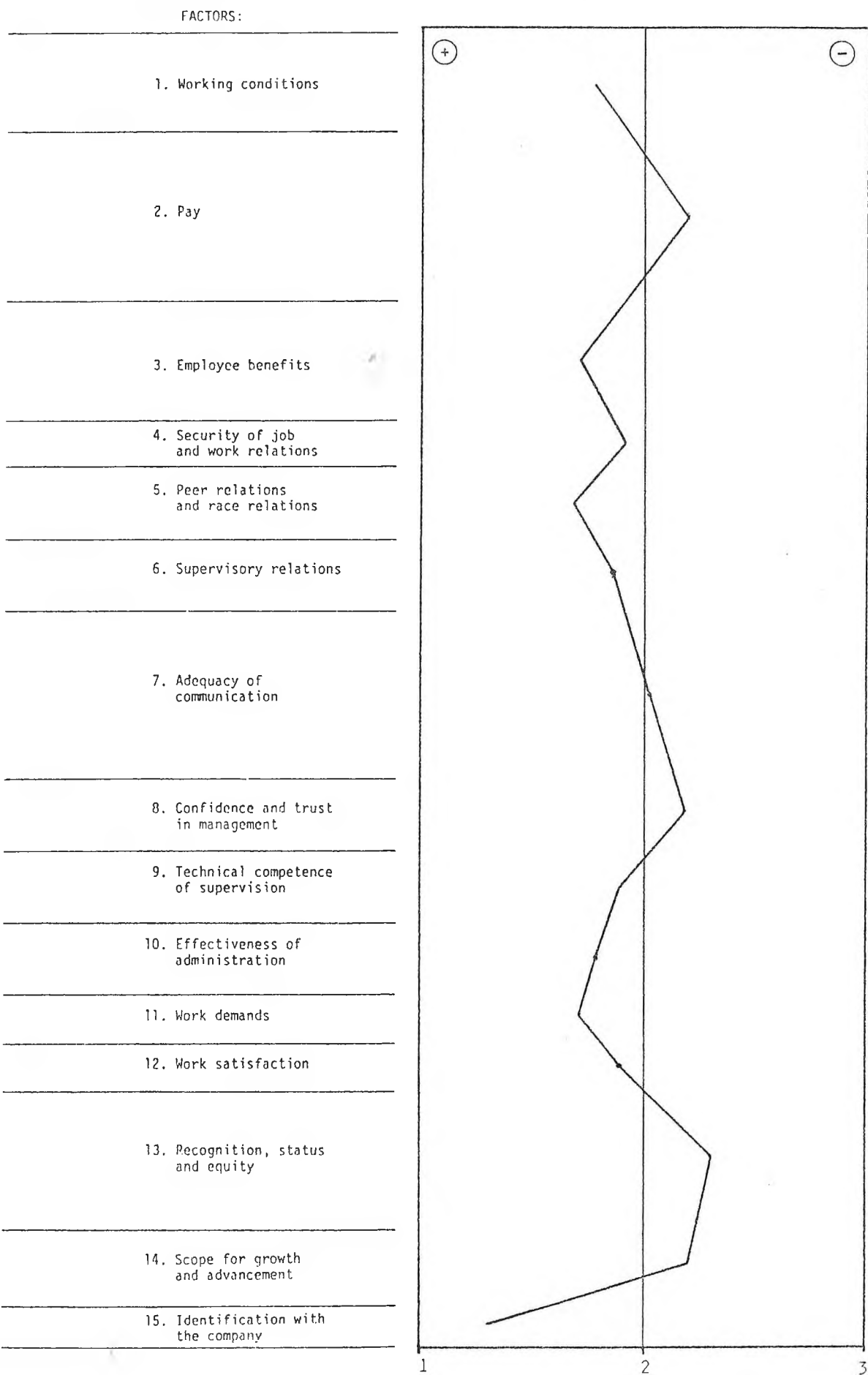


FIGURE 4B : GRAPHED MEAN SATISFACTION SCORES, ON PARTICULAR SATISFACTION FACTORS, OF WHITE, INDIAN, AND BLACK EMPLOYEES

FACTORS:

1. Working conditions

2. Pay

3. Employee benefits

4. Security of job and work relations

5. Peer relations and race relations

6. Supervisory relations

7. Adequacy of communication

8. Confidence and trust in management

9. Technical competence of supervision

10. Effectiveness of administration

11. Work demands

12. Work satisfaction

13. Recognition, status and equity

14. Scope for growth and advancement

15. Identification with the company

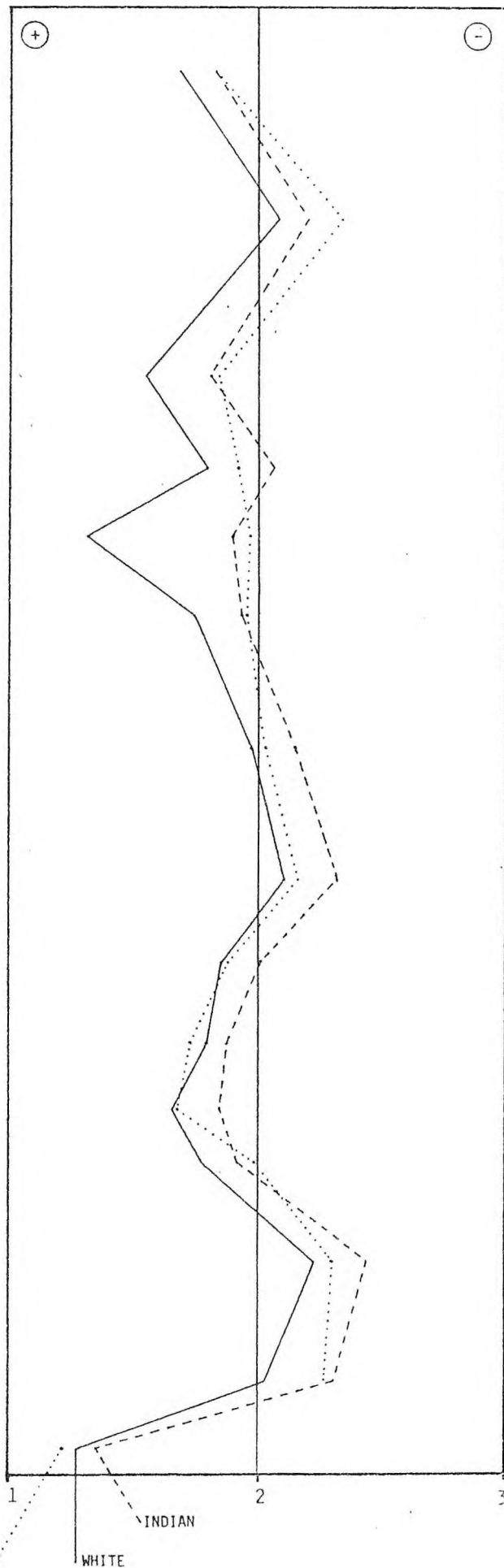


FIGURE 5 B : GRAPHED MEAN SATISFACTION SCORES, ON PARTICULAR SATISFACTION FACTORS, OF ALL ARTISAN/SUPERVISORY, SKILLED/OPERATOR, AND SEMISKILLED/NONSKILLED GRADES

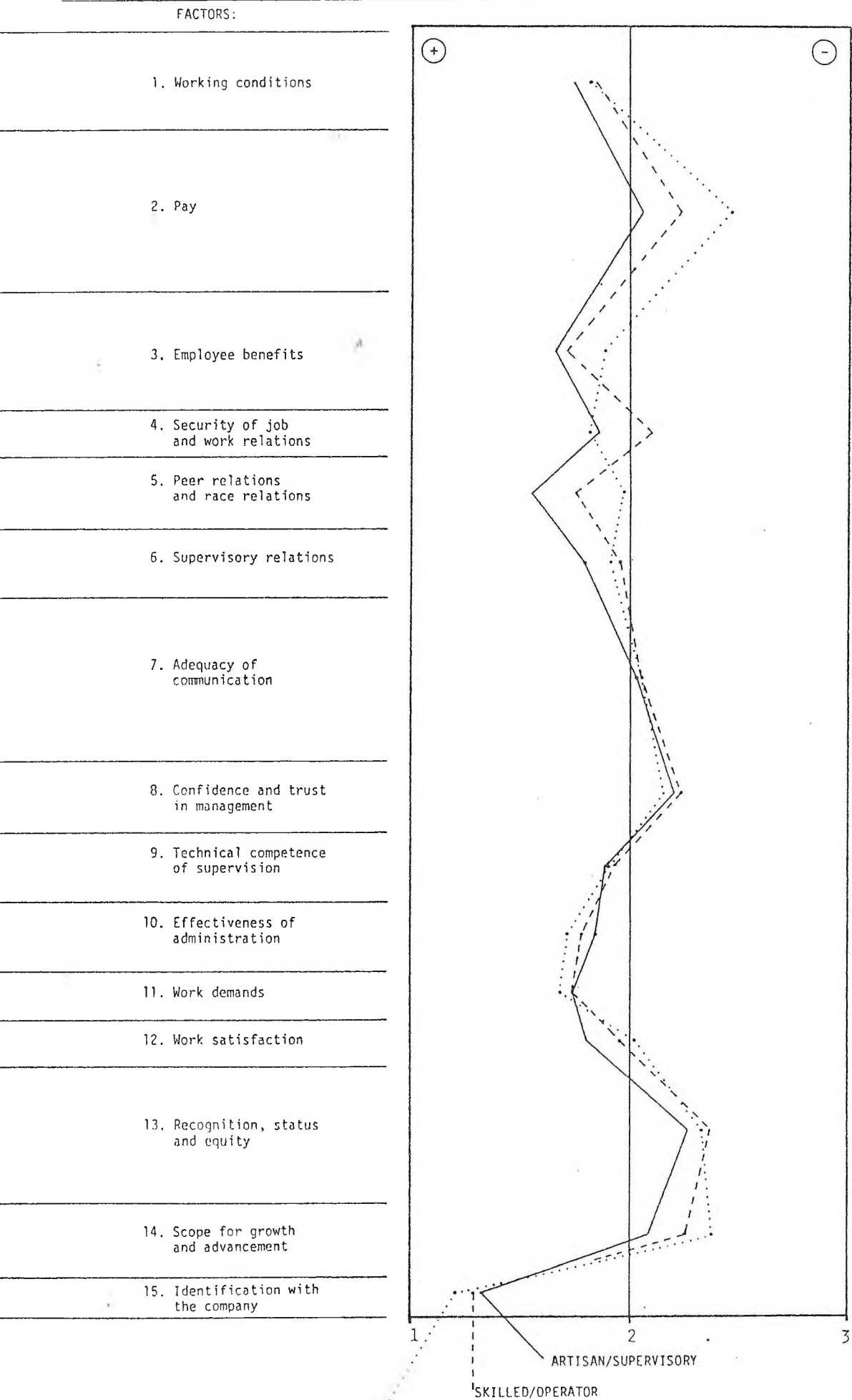


FIGURE 6 B : GRAPHED MEAN SATISFACTION SCORES, ON PARTICULAR SATISFACTION FACTORS, OF ALL LONGER SERVICE, MEDIUM SERVICE, AND SHORTER SERVICE EMPLOYEES

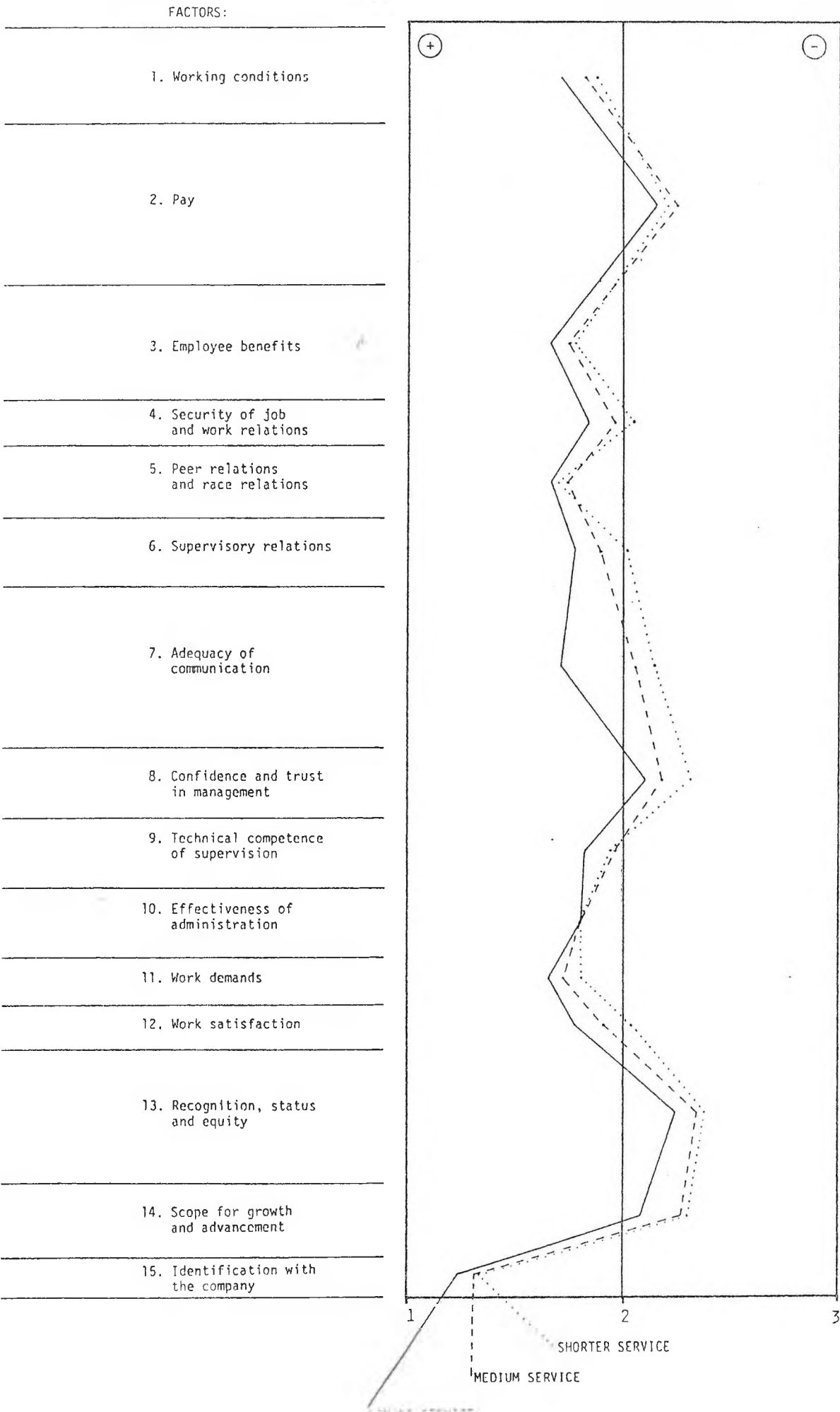


FIGURE 7B : GRAPHED MEAN SATISFACTION SCORES, ON PARTICULAR SATISFACTION FACTORS, OF PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT AND FINANCE DEPARTMENT EMPLOYEES

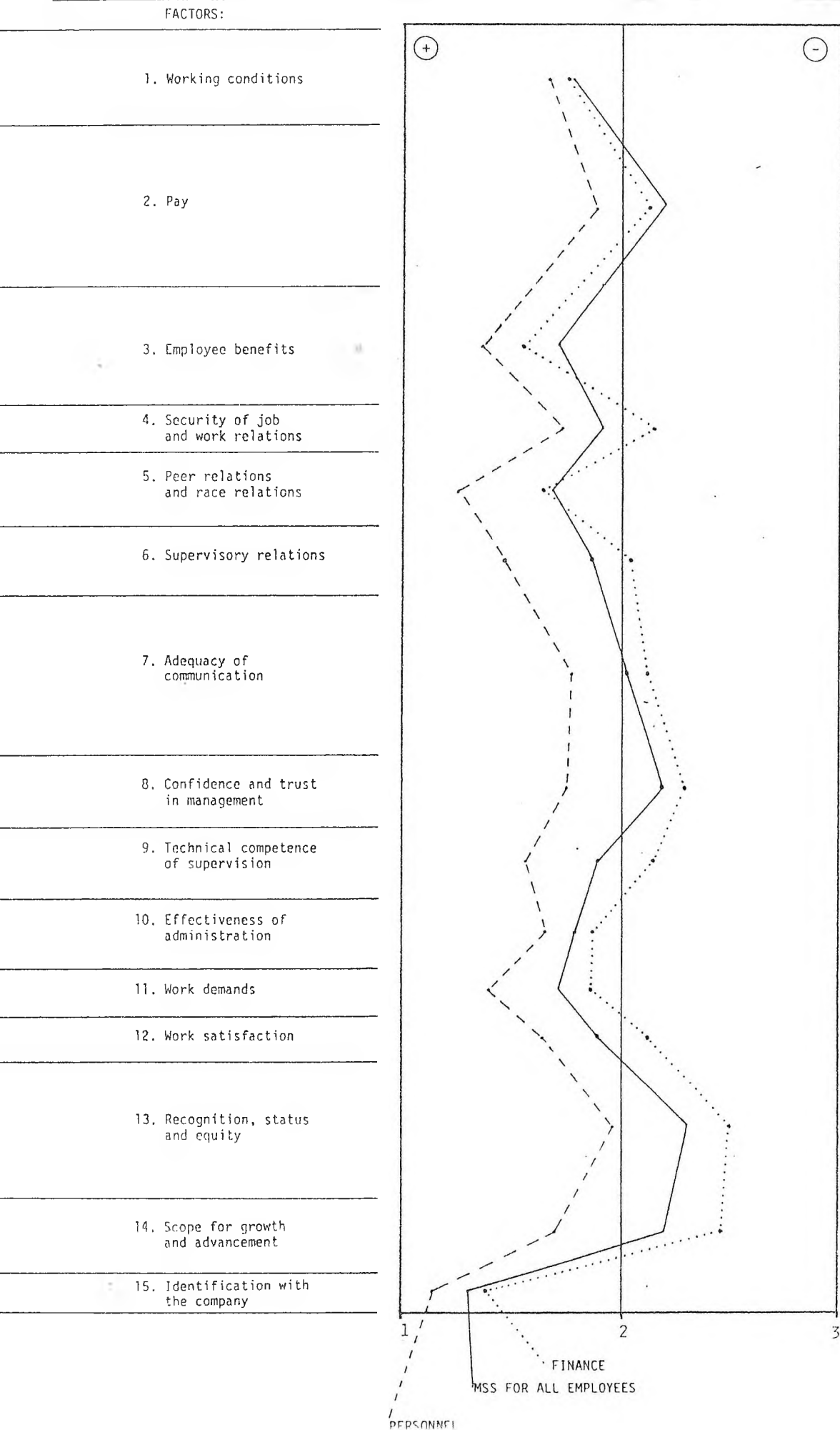


FIGURE 8 B : GRAPHED MEAN SATISFACTION SCORES, ON PARTICULAR SATISFACTION FACTORS, OF TECHNOLOGY DEPARTMENT AND ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT EMPLOYEES

FACTORS:

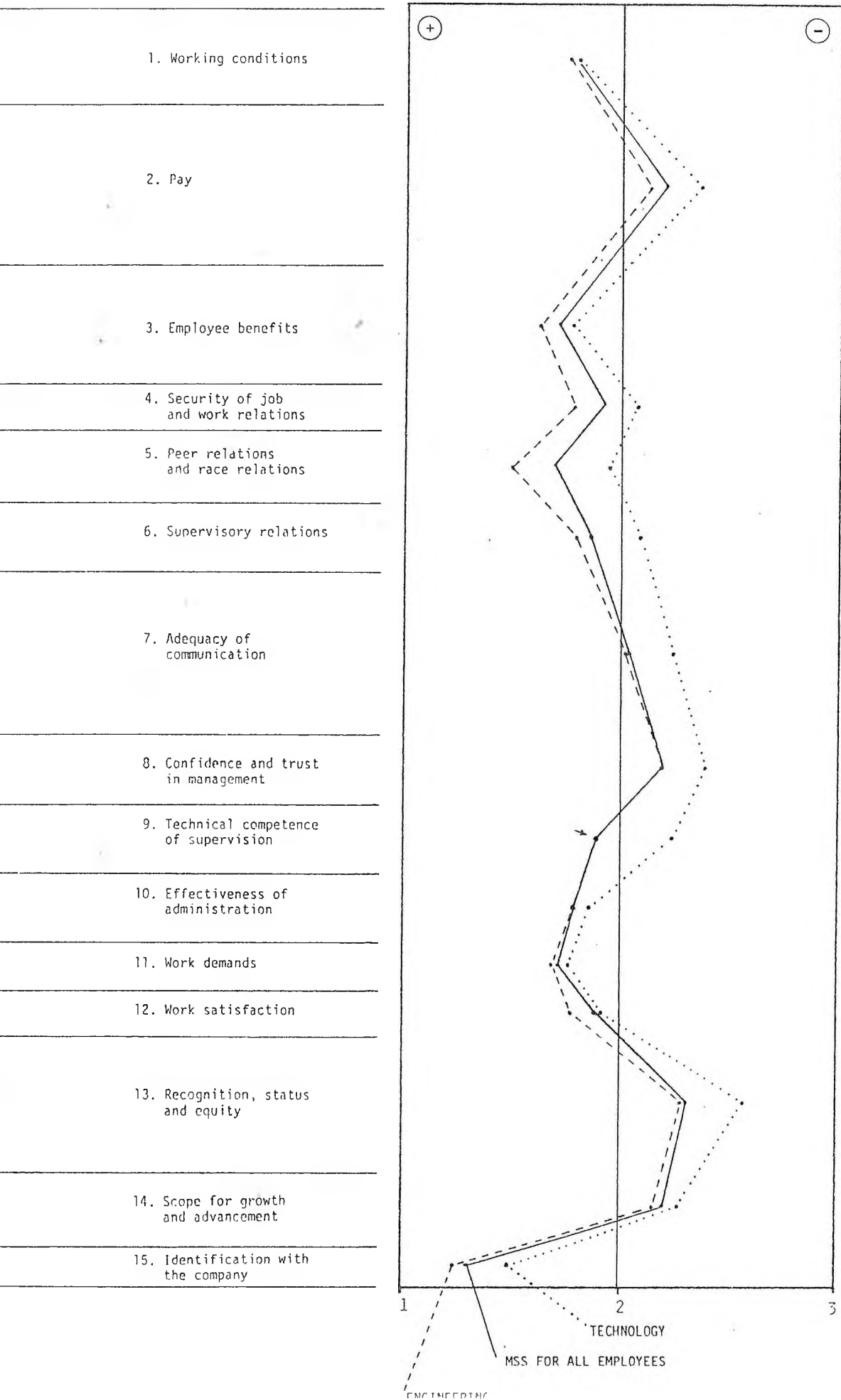


FIGURE 10A

SCALE APPLIED TO AXES USED
IN FIGURE 10B OPPOSITE.

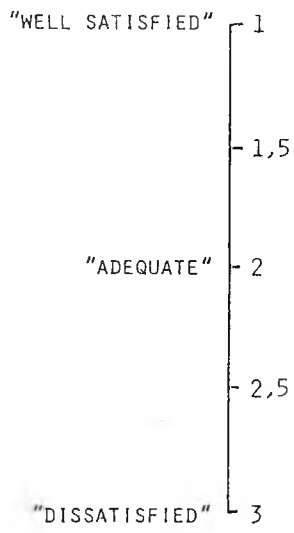


FIGURE 10B : GRAPHED MEAN SATISFACTION SCORES, ON NAMED JOB SATISFACTION FACTORS, OF PERSONNEL, FINANCE, TECHNOLOGY, OPERATIONS, ENGINEERING, AND ISLAND VIEW EMPLOYEES.

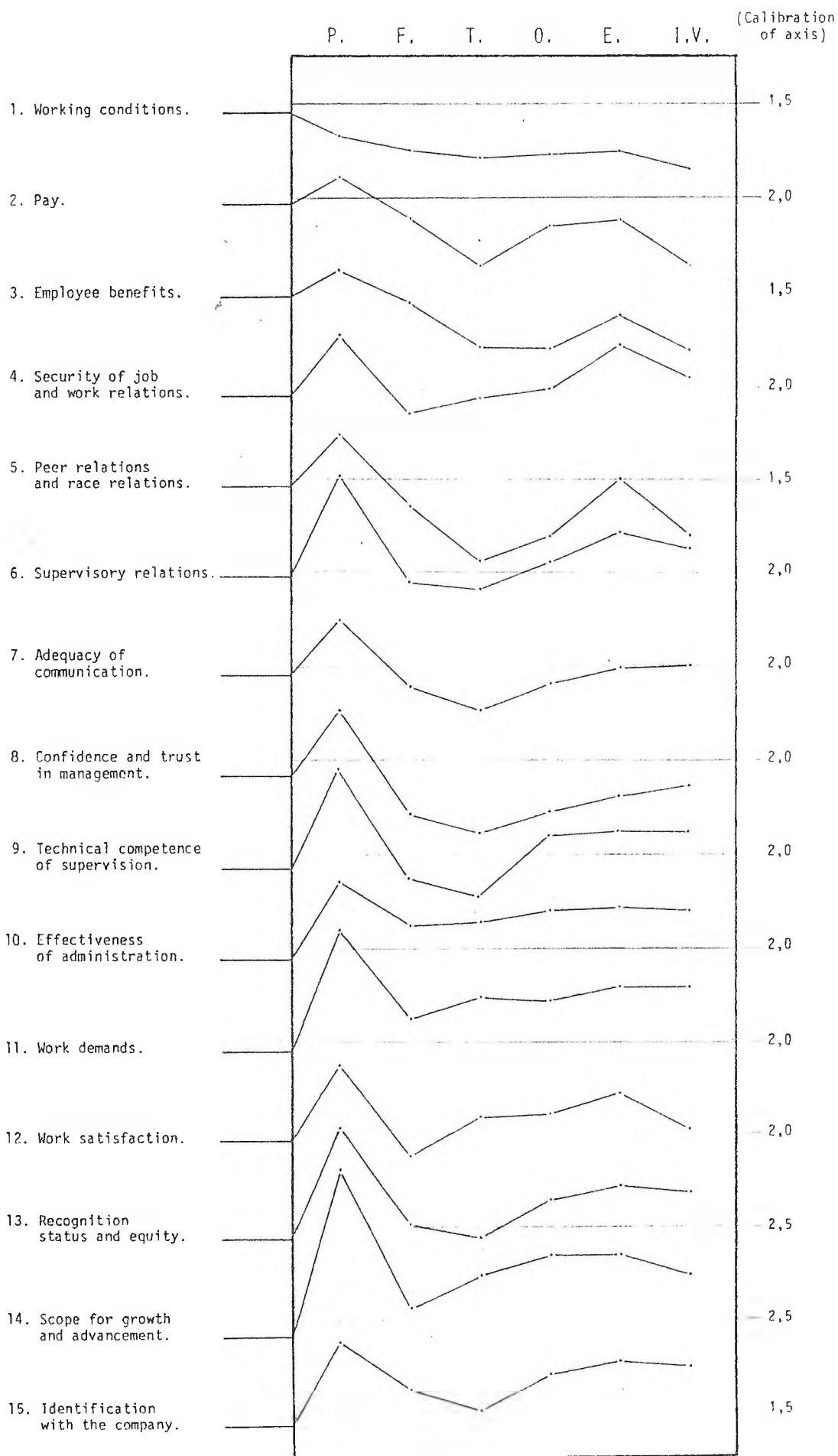


TABLE 28:

SUMMARY OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN "CORE" CHARACTERISTICS OF
EMPLOYEES AND TYPES OF JOB SATISFACTION

A. "Core" Variable Distinguishing Employees	B. Types of Formal Satisfaction Factors Most Differentiated by A.*	C. General concerns within the total work experience where satisfaction is most differentiated by A.
RACE:	PEER RELATIONS AND RACE RELATIONS. Scope for Growth and Advancement. recognition, status and equity, confidence and trust in management.	Race relations. "hygiene" factors. Progress and intrinsic satisfactions via work.
JOB GROUP:	PAY. (PEER RELATIONS AND) RACE RELATIONS. Scope for Growth and Advancement. Security of Job and Work Relations.	Extrinsics/"hygienes". Personal social concerns. Concerns re future prospects in the company.
LENGTH OF SERVICE:	ADEQUACY OF COMMUNICATION. Work satisfaction. Supervisory Relations. (security of job and work relations.)	Formal relation between worker and organisation. Performance of the actual work/task. Future adaptation and growth of the worker.
DEPARTMENT:	SCOPE FOR GROWTH AND ADVANCEMENT. Peer Relations and Race Relations. Technical Competence of Supervision. Confidence and Trust in Management. Supervisory Relations. Recognition, Status and Equity.	No consistent pattern.

* listed in order of decreasing
differentiation.

TABLE 32: CUMULATIVE AND ABSOLUTE PERCENTAGES OF VARIANCE IN OVERALL EMPLOYMENT SATISFACTION ("GENSAT") EXPLAINED BY LISTED PREDICTOR CHARACTERISTICS, AS INDICATED BY MULTIPLE REGRESSION (PREDICTORS LISTED IN ORDER OF INFLUENCE)

PREDICTOR	% Variance of "GENSAT" explained (r^2):	
	Absolute.	Cumulative.
Relevance of Job for Career Aspirations	8,5	8,5
Age	8,3	16,7
Job Group	3,0	19,7
Education	2,1	21,8
Knowledge of Personnel Policies Manual	0,9	22,8
Race	0,2	23,0
Department	0,2	23,2
Length of Service	0,1	23,3

Indications are that the variable "Race" does not independently explain much variance because it is partly confounded with Job Group which appears before it. Similarly, Length of Service does not independently explain much variance because it is itself strongly related to Age. The variable "Department" would probably have explained much more variance had the six departments within it been listed in order of satisfaction so as to create an ordinal variable.

In conclusion, Relevance of Job and Age (almost synonymous with Length of Service) emerge, as the principal predictors of Employment Satisfaction; with Job Group (partly confounded with Race) and Education also serving to predict a little more of the variance in Satisfaction. Taken together, the eight employee characteristics considered account for 23,3 percent of the variance in Overall Employment Satisfaction.

TABLE 30A: PRIORITIES IN FURTHER EMPLOYMENT PROBLEMS (PART I.):
 FREQUENCIES AND RANK ORDERS OF PERCEIVED PROBLEMS VOLUNTEERED SPONTANEOUSLY BY EMPLOYEES
 (Based on first 3 responses to Q.6T: "Please write down any serious problems we have not covered".)

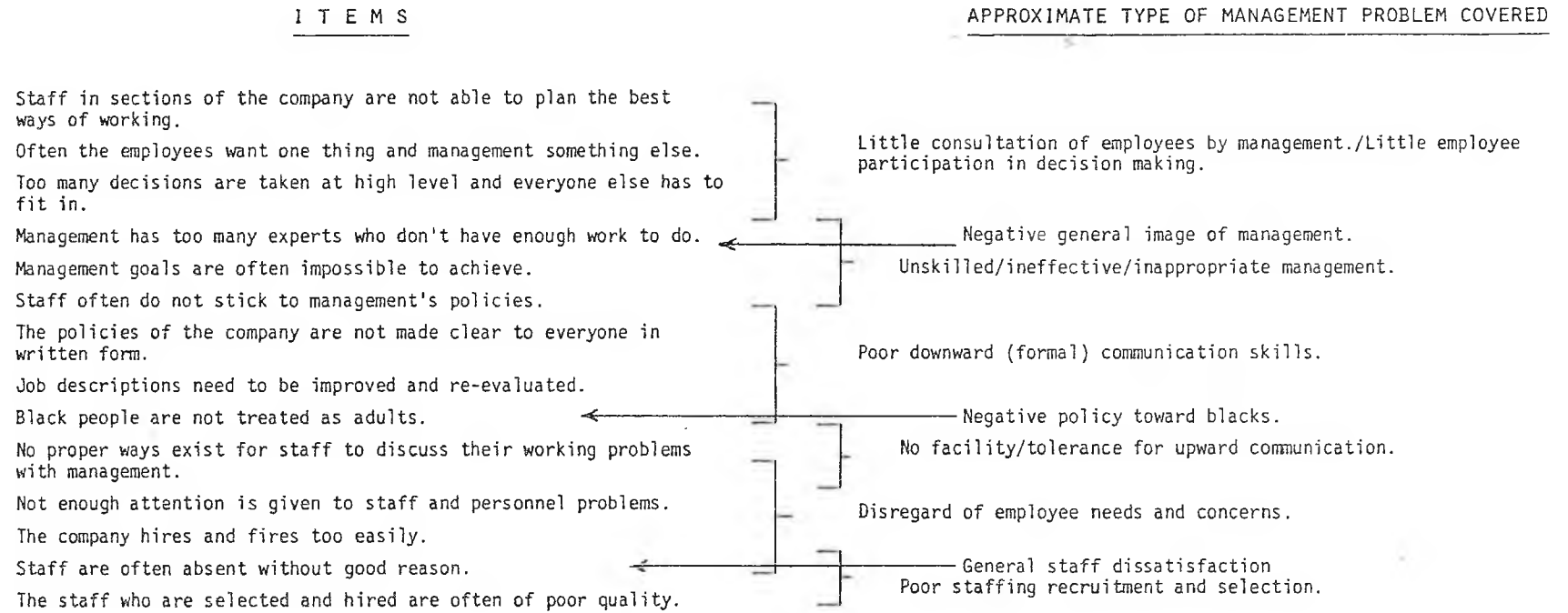
% Frequency of Problem*	Specific Problem Described	Classification: General type of Problem	% Frequency of TYPE
22 (1)	Housing loans repayment should be subsidized.		
3,4 (15=)	Medical aid should be subsidized.		
2,8 (18=)	Loans should be easily available.		
-	Want subsidized car purchase scheme.	BENEFITS SUPPLEMENTING INCOME	31 (1)
-	Want "ill-health pension".		
1,7 (28=)	Co. products should be available to employees at low prices.		
-	Co. should subsidize education of employees' children.		
11 (2)	Co. transport to work should be provided.	COMPANY TRANSPORT TO WORK	11 (5=)
7,8 (4)	No equality for all races.		
5,6 (7=)	Racial prejudice in job promotion.		
4,5 (11=)	Blacks are given preferential treatment.		
1,7 (28=)	Different Co. subsidy to different races: some get education assistance, not others.	RACE DISCRIMINATION/RACE RELATIONS	28 (3)
2,3 (22=)	Large gaps between wages for the same job.		
5,6 (7=)	Inter-racial attitudes are very bad.		
-	Island View canteen caters only for Blacks.		
9,5 (3)	The salary is below par.		
1,7 (28=)	There is no injury compensation (includes insurance).		
1,1 (35=)	One is not paid according to job grouping.	PAY/REMUNERATION	18 (4)
2,3 (22=)	No salary increment when you are promoted.		
2,8 (18=)	Shiftworkers' pensions should be calculated on total salary, not total + 15%.		
7,3 (5)	Management doesn't consult, but dictates, and covers things up.		
2,3 (22=)	There should be communication between departments.		
2,3 (22=)	People are penalized for being outspoken.		
5,1 (9=)	Grievances are not handled properly.		
2,8 (18=)	When foremen ill-treat us management don't take action.		
2,8 (18=)	Management fails to set specific measurable goals and conduct more specific performance appraisals.		
1,1 (35=)	Co. should appoint a labour officer to deal with staff problems during appraisals.	MANAGEMENT/SUPERVISION	29 (2)
-	Day workers ill-treat shift workers.		
2,3 (22=)	Supervisors should be chosen more selectively.		
1,1 (35=)	Senior supervisor doesn't communicate with me at all.		
1,1 (35=)	When a worker is sick he can't see the doctor without sister's permission.		
-	New employees are not introduced properly.		
-	Long and painful interviews for new jobs.		
2,3 (22=)	Supervisors have favourites who get promotion very quickly.		
5,1 (9=)	Promotion must be on merit.	SANCTIONS AND EQUITY	11 (5=)
3,4 (15=)	There are no rewards for good performance.		
1,7 (28=)	Too much work for night shifts.		
-	Too much is expected of us.		
-	Co. employs a person for a certain job, then later moves him to another lower skilled job for which he was not employed.		
-	There are boring tasks, but nothing is done about it.	WORK/JOB DESIGN	6,8 (9)
-	Schedule system of work does not satisfy.		
4,5 (11=)	No time flexibility.		
4,0 (13=)	Training should be offered within framework of job one is doing.		
4,0 (13=)	There must be training of Blacks for technical and managerial positions.	TRAINING FOR ADVANCEMENT	11 (5=)
3,4 (15=)	Black employees are not ready for industry, and must be properly trained.		
6,2 (6)	Our safety at work is uncertain.		
1,1 (35=)	Breathing apparatus on sites needs maintenance.	PHYSICAL WORKING CONDITIONS	9,0 (8)
1,7 (28=)	Poor working conditions on certain jobs.		
-	Not enough maternity leave.	LEAVE	1,1 (11)
-	Inadequate sick leave.		
1,7 (28=)	People/employees of long service should be given priority for any vacancy occurring in the Co. suitable for their qualifications.	TENURE	3,4 (10)
1,7 (28=)	Employees' children should be given first preference to become apprentices.		
1,1 (35=)	Graffiti or pictures on toilet walls.	OTHER	1,1 (11)

* Note: Figure in brackets after each percentage figure indicates consequent rank order of that particular problem or type of problem.

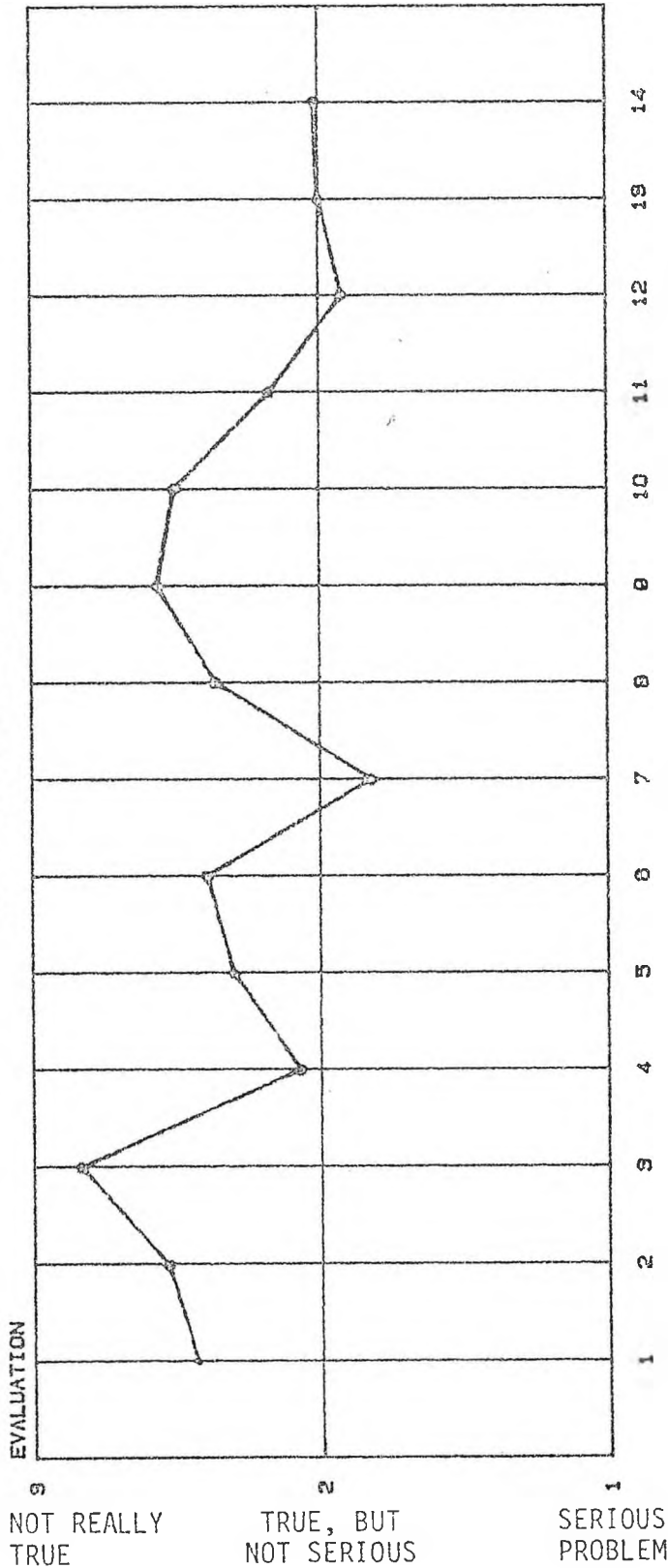
Frequencies of less than 1,0% are not recorded.

FIGURE 38

EVALUATION OF MANAGEMENT SKILLS AND FUNCTIONING:
GENERAL SIGNIFICANCE OF ITEMS



EVALUATION OF MANAGEMENT SKILLS
MEAN SCORES FOR ALL EMPLOYEES



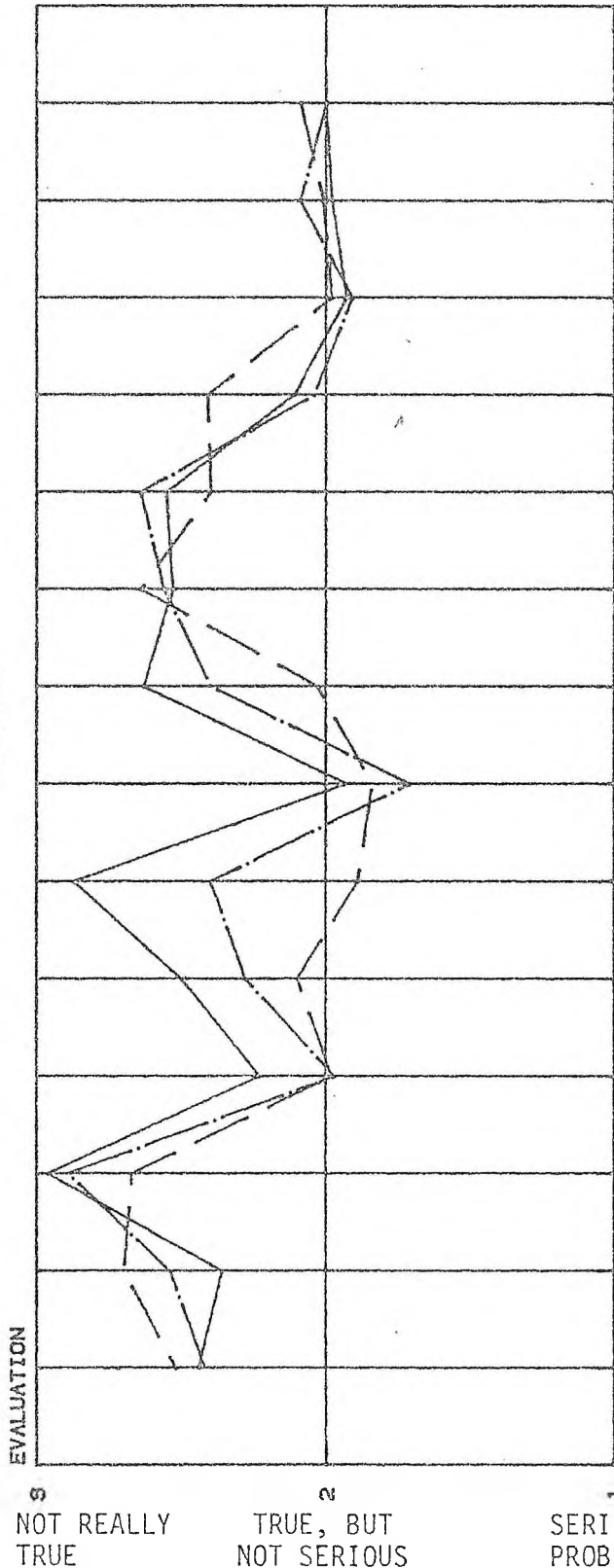
P R O B L E M

- 14 Staff in sections of the company are not able to plan the best ways of working.
- 13 Often the employees want one thing and management something else.
- 12 Too many decisions are taken at high level and everyone else has to fit in.
- 11 Management has too many experts who don't have enough work to do.
- 10 Management goals are often impossible to achieve.
- 9 Staff often do not stick to management's policies.
- 8 The policies of the company are not made clear to everyone in written form.
- 7 Job-descriptions need to be improved and re-evaluated.
- 6 Black people are not treated as adults.
- 5 No proper ways exist for staff to discuss their working problems with management.
- 4 Not enough attention is given to staff and personnel problems.
- 3 The company hires and fires too easily.
- 2 Staff are often absent without good reason.
- 1 The staff who are selected and hired are often of poor quality.

WHOLE SAMPLE

FIGURE 41:

EVALUATION OF MANAGEMENT SKILLS
BY RACE



P R O B L E M

- 14 Staff in sections of the company are not able to plan the best ways of working.
- 13 Often the employees want one thing and management something else.
- 12 Too many decisions are taken at high level and everyone else has to fit in.
- 11 Management has too many experts who don't have enough work to do.
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- 4 Not enough attention is given to staff and personnel problems.
- 3 The company hires and fires too easily.
- 2 Staff are often absent without good reason
- 1 The staff who are selected and hired are often of poor quality.

WHITE
(N=151)

INDIAN
(N=130)

BLACK
(N=130)

FIGURE 45

SCALE APPLIED TO AXES USED
IN FIGURE 46 OPPOSITE

EVALUATION OF MANAGEMENT:

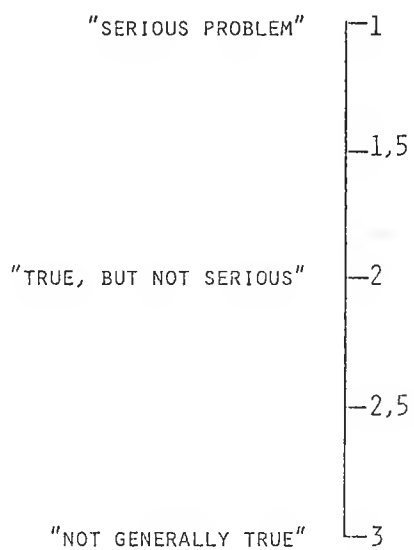
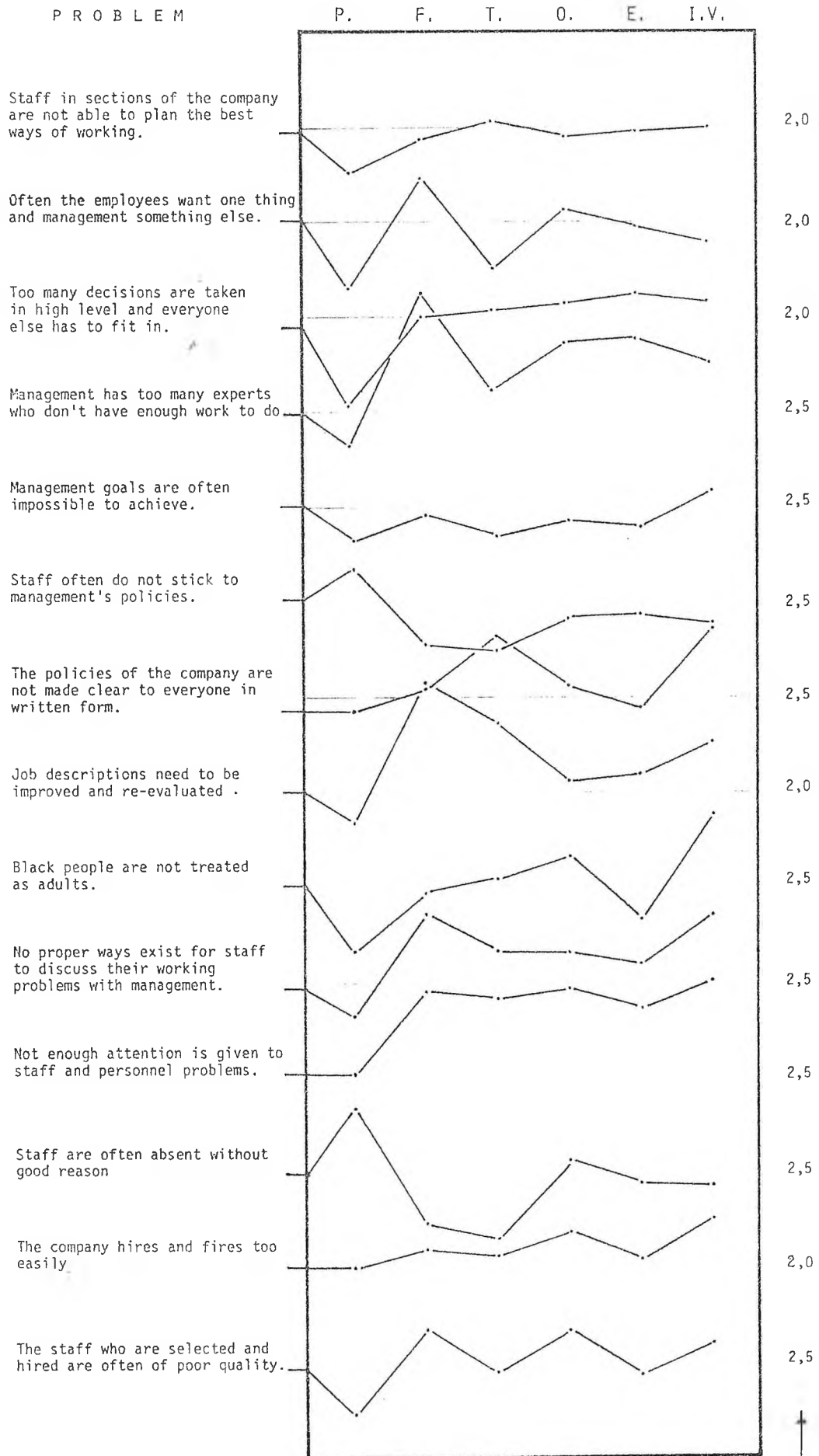


FIGURE 46 : EVALUATION OF MANAGEMENT SKILLS : GRAPHED MEAN EVALUATION SCORES ASSIGNED TO LISTED MANAGEMENT PROBLEMS BY PERSONNEL, FINANCE, TECHNOLOGY, OPERATIONS, ENGINEERING, AND ISLAND VIEW EMPLOYEES

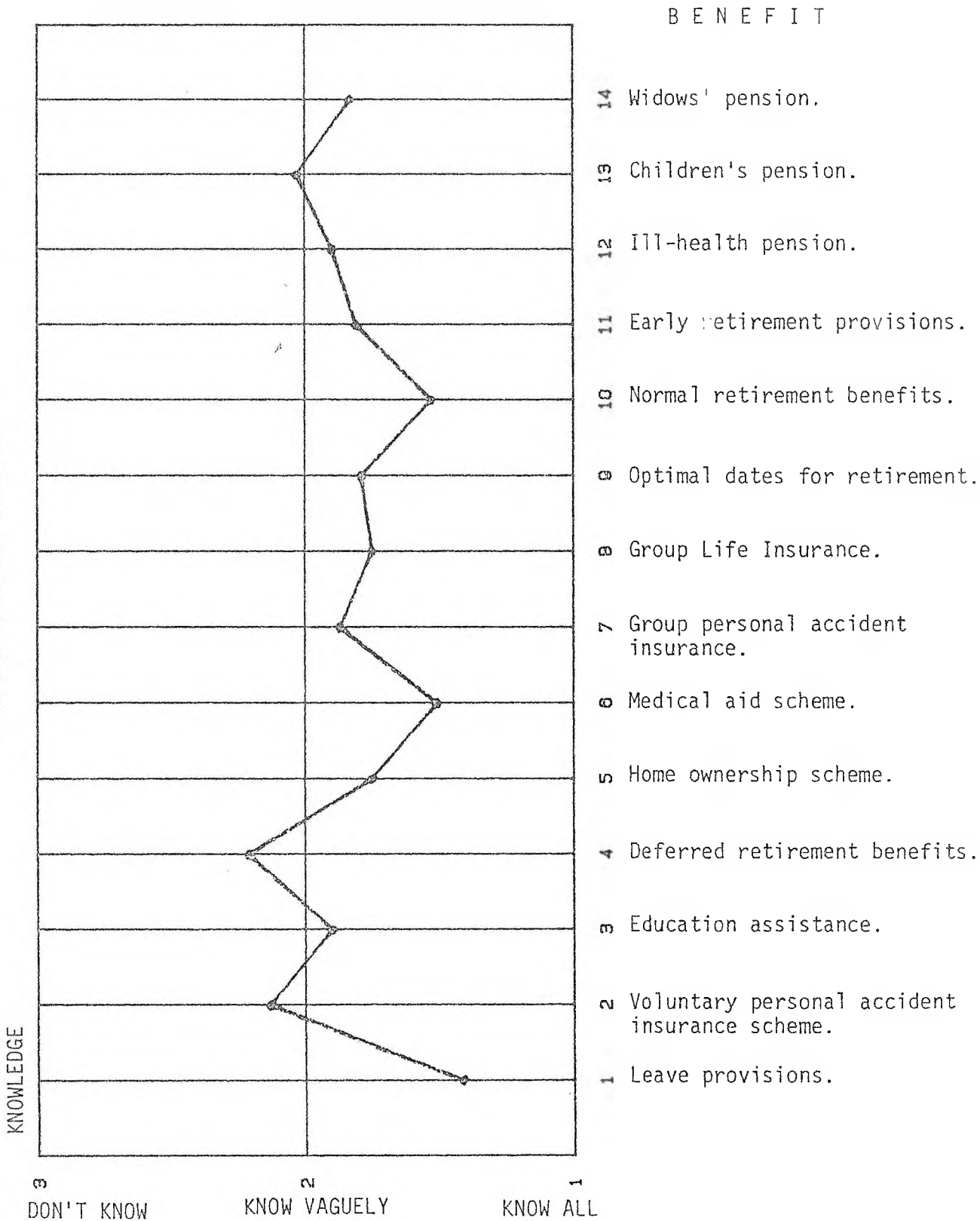


(Calibration of axis)

FIGURE 48:

KNOWLEDGE OF BENEFITS

MEAN SCORES FOR ALL EMPLOYEES

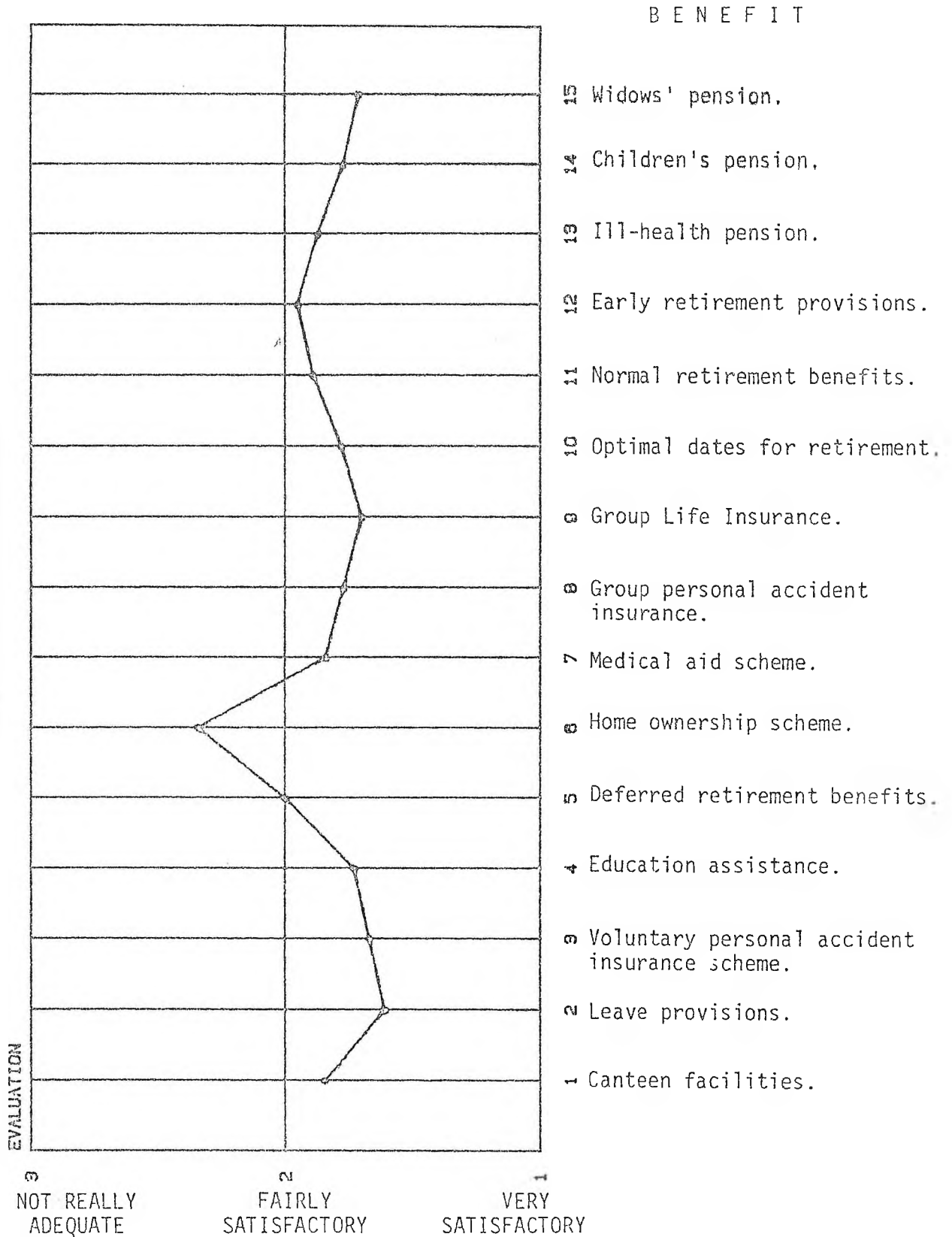


WHOLE SAMPLE



FIGURE 58:

EVALUATION OF BENEFITS:
MEAN SCORES FOR ALL EMPLOYEES



WHOLE
SAMPLE



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