

AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF THE PERCEPTION OF DEGREE
OF INTEGRATION OF INDIVIDUAL GOALS AND
ORGANIZATIONAL OBJECTIVES BY MENTAL
HEALTH WORKERS

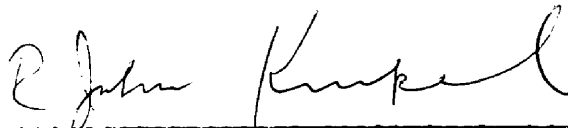
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Presented to the Public Administration Faculty
at The University of Michigan-Flint
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
Master of Public Administration Degree

Winter, 1983

First Reader



Second Reader

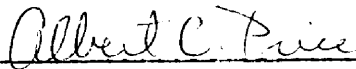


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ABSTRACT

In this study an attempt was made to measure the degree to which employees of mental health organizations perceive their personal goals as either conflicting with or being integrated with organizational objectives. Employee responses to the questionnaire administered were analyzed to measure the impact of eight independent variables upon employee perceptions of the degree of goal integration.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

In this study one of the most fundamental issues in the social sciences and the field of public administration was investigated, namely "the nature of the relationship between individual human beings and social organizations."¹ More specifically, it consists in an inquiry into the question concerning the extent to which organizational goals and objectives are either congruent with or disparate from those of the employees of modern bureaucratic organizations.

In somewhat general terms, the overall objective of the study may be described as an attempt to ascertain the extent to which employees of such organizations may or may not perceive their individual needs and goals as being satisfied simultaneously with, and/or as a consequence of the achievement of organizational objectives. Presumably, there is at least a minimal level of integration of individual goals and organizational objectives, which is a prerequisite for the survival of the organization, provided that membership within it is voluntary.

Indeed, serious problems are created within organizations by the ubiquitous and frequently marked conflict between individual goals and organizational objectives. A considerable amount of research has been done on the matter by social scientists and organizational theorists, and a fairly extensive body of literature on this subject has accumulated. Several organizational theorists have contrived and proposed an array of techniques and mechanisms whose purpose is to reduce the level of conflict between individual and organizational goals and, indeed, to integrate the two in many cases. These techniques and mechanisms

have been used, with varying degrees of efficacy and success, in both public and private sector organizations and will be examined in another section of this paper.

Since the field of public administration is concerned primarily with the efficient and effective management of resources and the delivery of services by public sector and governmental agencies and institutions, it should be axiomatic that this issue is not only related to public administration, but also is of paramount importance to practicing public administrators everywhere. The pursuit of individual goals and self-interests by employees is an inevitable phenomenon which is capable of disrupting organizational functions and significantly decreasing organizational efficiency and effectiveness in the attainment of goals and objectives. In public sector organizations, this can result in an impairment of an organization's capacity to deliver services to clients.

OBJECTIVES OF STUDY

In this study an attempt has been made to measure employee perception of the extent to which individual goals either conflict with or are successfully integrated with the goals and objectives of the formal organization. The employees of the mental health agencies and clinics who were administered the questionnaire that was devised for the survey were divided into categories based upon three background variables: 1. The type of community the respondent grew up in; 2. the highest level of education attained by the respondent and; 3. the tenure of the respondent in the organization.

In addition, the age, sex, income level, and marital status of each respondent has been examined in the study, in order to ascertain what impact, if any, these variables have on employee perceptions in the areas to be investigated.

The responses of each respondent were categorized according to the above variables and the resultant data was analyzed to determine whether or not these demographic and background variables significantly influence employee perception of the extent to which individual goals either conflict with or are successfully integrated with organizational goals and objectives.

An eighth variable was included for analysis: the position of the individual in the organizational hierarchy. An attempt was made to determine whether or not this variable significantly modifies employee perception of the extent to which individual needs and goals either conflict with or are successfully integrated with organizational goals and objectives. It was hypothesized that professionals and individuals with administrative and supervisory positions, in each organization studied, perceive a significantly higher level of integration between goals and organizational objectives than those with positions that are lower in the organizational hierarchy (support staff). This was hypothesized because it was assumed that individuals with positions higher in the organizational hierarchy identify with the organization more strongly than their counterparts with lower positions in the hierarchy. Consequently, they either perceive their individual goals as being more consistent with organizational objectives, or they perceive the pursuit of such goals as being impeded to a much lesser extent by organizational

constraints than members with lower positions in the hierarchy.

A second area that was investigated in the study is employee perceptions of the role of informal work groups in the achievement of both individual goals and organizational objectives. Once again, perceptions of employees concerning this issue within the eight aforementioned categories were compared and contrasted with the purpose of determining whether or not significant differences exist between them. It was hypothesized that both employees with positions lower in the organizational hierarchy and administrative and supervisory personnel perceive the informal work group more favorably than those with professional status in terms of its importance in the achievement of organizational goals and objectives. This was hypothesized because employees in both of these categories generally must depend more heavily upon such work groups to ensure the successful accomplishment of tasks, etc. than do professionals. However, it was hypothesized that respondents in all three categories of employees perceive informal work groups as being equally important for the satisfaction of individual needs and the attainment of related goals. This was hypothesized because of the widely accepted premise that human beings are social creatures who derive a great deal of satisfaction and fulfillment from interpersonal relationships. However, it was hypothesized that administrative and supervisory personnel tend to perceive such informal groups as potentially impeding the achievement of organizational objectives, since employees may engage in activities within such groups that divert them from accomplishing job related tasks and responsibilities.

A final area that has been investigated in this study is the realm of support staff and professional staff relations with supervisory and administrative personnel, and individual perceptions of the extent to which supervisors and administrators help or hinder other employees and the organization as a whole in the attainment of both individual goals and organizational objectives. Again, employee perceptions in this area have been examined and analyzed in terms of the impact, if any, of the aforementioned variables and in terms of the respective categories into which employees were divided. It was hypothesized that both professionals and administrative and supervisory personnel perceive the supervisory and administrative roles vis a vis those of support staff and professional staff as facilitating the achievement of both organizational goals and objectives and individual needs and goals. It was hypothesized that professionals have this perception because their status and educational level lead them to identify more strongly with the values and interests of administrators and supervisors than with the values and interests of support staff. Moreover, the job role of the professional tends to be both less constrained and narrowly directed by administrators and supervisors, due to the professional's greater knowledge and training in his or her field and the professional's position being more commensurate with the rank of the administrator and the supervisor in the organizational hierarchy than is the job role of the support staff employee. This combination of greater autonomy and more commensurate organizational status for the professional presumably leads to the perception by the professional of the

roles of supervisory and administrative staff vis a vis those of support staff as facilitating the achievement of both organizational objectives and individual needs and goals.

However, it was hypothesized that support staff personnel will perceive relations with supervisory and administrative staff as facilitating the achievement of organizational goals, but hindering individuals in their pursuit of personal goals and needs. It was postulated that all members of a given organization perceive the actions of administrative and supervisory personnel toward support staff as facilitating the achievement of organizational objectives since this is generally understood as being a primary function of their respective organizational roles. This could change if there is a perception of incompetence in and mismanagement by administrative and supervisory personnel among support staff. However, since the activities and behavior of support staff tend to be much more constrained and narrowly directed by administrators and supervisors, and since they occupy lower positions in the organizational hierarchy than do professionals and thereby feel more at odds with the former, it was presumed that they perceive the actions of administrators and supervisors as hindering their pursuit of personal needs and goals.

Finally, it was hypothesized that the background and demographic variables regarding community of origin, tenure in the organization, sex of the respondent, and marital status would not significantly influence employee perceptions in any of the areas discussed above. It was postulated that those variables are not relevant to the dependent variables of the study, as explicated above and, therefore,

have little or no impact.

It should be apparent to the reader from the hypotheses stated above and the accompanying reasons and explanations given for proposing them that the author anticipated that the independent variables which would prove to be most important in determining employee perceptions in all of the areas to be investigated are position of the individual in the organizational hierarchy and the relative educational level of the individual. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that the educational level of the individual impacts on employee perceptions primarily, but not exclusively, insofar as it helps determine the level of an individual's position in the organizational hierarchy. Community of origin, tenure in the organization, sex, and marital status of the respondent, were hypothesized to have a negligible impact on employee perceptions in all of areas to be examined. The two other variables to be included for analysis, age and income of respondents, were also hypothesized to have a minimal impact on employee's perceptions in the areas to be studied, except insofar as they are related to the position and status of the individual in the organization.

LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

Perhaps the most serious limitation of this study is the relatively small size of the total sample of employees of mental health organizations. Out of the five different mental health agencies and clinics that will be represented in the study, only two of them are large enough to require a systematic random sample. Both of these organizations have over one hundred employees. Each of the

other three organizations has no more than fifty employees and, therefore, it seemed too small to warrant the drawing of a 20% sample. Hence, a sample of 50% of the employees in these three organizations were surveyed.

The relatively small size of the total sample of employees for this study has both made it difficult to make generalizations about the integration of individual goals and organizational objectives to the population as a whole. The validity and accuracy of the findings and the interpretation of the data may be quite limited on these grounds.

Another limitation of the study results from its exclusive focus upon the employees of mental health organizations. It may well be that employees of mental health organizations, whether public or private, tend to perceive these issues and problems significantly differently from employees of organizations specializing in other product or service areas, such as criminal justice or pollution control. This is suggested as a possible limitation because it is speculated that the nature, purposes and objectives of the work done and the services provided by employees of mental health organizations may, in and of themselves, lead these employees to have perceptions and attitudes regarding this problem area that will differ significantly from their counterparts in other kinds of organizations with different goals and missions.

A final limitation of the study concerns the fact that it is only a single study involving five mental health organizations and will include no followup studies or attempts at replication by

administering the same survey to other similar organizations in the future. Consequently, there will be no way to either corroborate the findings of the study or to broaden and extend its scope.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In this section of the paper, the theoretical constructs of such organizational theorists as Chris Argyris, Douglas McGregor and Frederick Herzberg will be examined in terms of how they view the integration of the individual into the organizational environment. Also, the findings of several studies on the issues regarding the individual and his or her perception of organizational goals and objectives and/or the integration of individual goals and organizational objectives will be reviewed. The information, theoretical views and concepts presented within this section of the paper will provide an overview of the ways in which the problem area being investigated in this study has been dealt with by researchers and theoreticians in the past. Also, it will provide a background and basis upon which to build when doing the analysis and interpretation of the data obtained from the present study.

Before actually going into the review of the literature, it is necessary to provide a brief description of the modern bureaucratic organization, in order to more precisely establish and delineate what the author means by this phenomenon. This description will include, in very general terms, an examination of the basic structure, processes, purposes and objectives that typify and direct the modern bureaucratic organization, as well as a look at the relationship of the individual

to the organization and his role within it.

To begin, an organization is purposeful. It exists to achieve one or more goals, which may be the production of a product or the delivery of a service. The primary criteria for judging a given organization are its degree of success and its level of efficiency in the achievement of its goals.

For the individual in modern society, organizations are of paramount importance since the environment of the average person is, to a large extent, made up of formal organizations and groups. Therefore, it is realistic to depict the individual's social existence as a set of roles within the various organizations and groups of which he or she is a member. All such organizations and groups profoundly affect the physical and psychological states of the individual and are principal determinants of his or her behavior. The "objective organization", (as opposed to the "psychological organization" in the mind of the individual) may be defined as "an open dynamic system, that is, it is characterized by a continuing process of input, transformation and output."² Organizational input includes people, materials and energy, and organizational output consists in the products or services of the organization, or, perhaps, even the direct psychological return to individual members. The objective organization, as an open system, is defined by the relationships, patterns and processes that are needed to maintain the ongoing "cycles of input-transformation-output,"³ and consist in the motivated activities of human beings. Consequently, a given organization's survival depends upon the overall ability it manifests

to motivate people to engage in the behaviors necessary to maintain these ongoing cycles.

The first requisite for connecting the individual to the formal organization is to locate him or her within the "total set of ongoing relationships and behaviors"⁴ that comprise the organization. The concept of office may be used for this purpose, i.e. "a unique point in organizational space."⁵ Each office has a particular set of activities associated with it which, taken together, make up the role of the individual, in an approximate way, who occupies a given office. Moreover, each individual invariably has a different conception of his or her office, which consists of an array of beliefs and attitudes concerning what he or she should and should not do in that position. This conception includes the individual's perception of those behaviors that will best accomplish his or her tasks and facilitate the achievement of organizational goals and objectives. Presumably, this will, in turn, lead to the fulfillment of an individual's personal needs and goals.

Chris Argyris has argued that organizations and individuals are "discrete units" with separate laws and characteristics. However, each of these "units" depends upon the other's connectedness to it for its own continued existence.⁶ He hypothesizes that, in order to fully understand the individual, one must understand the organization that he or she is part of and vice versa.

A number of theorists and researchers have examined the concepts of organizational goal, organizational objective and individual goal. They have provided various definitions of these terms, some having

greater utility than others. We turn our attention now to an examination of these terms and concepts.

Herbert Simon contends that when one is concerned with large, complex, bureaucratic organizations, organizational behavior must be explained either "in terms of the goals of individual members or the organization, or one or more organizational goals must be postulated to exist"⁷ that are over and above the goals of individual members. He points out that, though the first alternative obviates the danger of reifying the organization, or seeing it as a "super individual entity,"⁸ a difficulty results. That is, the goals that decisions are predicated upon in an organization often fail to coincide with those of either the owners of the organization or of its top management. This occurs because such goals are modified by managers and employees at all levels of the organization. He suggests that the way out of this dilemma is to take the middle ground between these two alternatives. Basically, organizational decision making that leads to a given course of action must "satisfy a whole set of requirements or constraints"⁹ in order to meet acceptance. Hence it is accurate to broadly define organizational goals as "constraint sets."¹⁰ It is important to note that frequently there is little in common between the goals of different parts of a large organization. Different parts of such an organization have their own subgoals which often conflict with the subgoals of other parts, and this can cause serious problems for the organization as a whole.

The motivation theory proposed by Chester Barnard and Herbert Simon holds that the motives for groups of organization members can

be divided into "inducements," which are aspects of membership desirable to groups, and "contributions," which are aspects of membership that benefit the organization but are not desirable to groups.¹¹ A member is "motivated to maximize (or increase) his inducements while decreasing his contributions."¹² Simon goes on to assert that it is necessary not to overlook such factors as power seeking and self-aggrandizement by individuals, which he refers to as the "intrusion of personal goals"¹³ upon an individual's job role, when proposing such abstractions from the complexities of actual organizational life.

Simon notes that the ability of individuals to shift into different roles within a complex organizational milieu partly accounts for the widespread phenomenon of the internalization of organizational goals by individuals. Such a process entails an ongoing evolution of goals as they are automatically pursued while the individual performs his or her role. These roles always include a combination of both personal and organizational goals, which together comprise a portion of "the total system of constraints."¹⁴ With regard to the process of organizational decision making, since most of the constraints that delineate an acceptable course to be pursued within the organization stem from an individual's organizational role, Simon argues that this process is only obliquely related to his or her personal motives. Hence, the term organizational goal in this case pertains to the constraints or constraint sets "imposed by the organizational role"¹⁵ that an individual occupies.

Victor Vroom provides a somewhat simpler, and, perhaps, less

accurate definition of organizational goal in his article on "The Effects of Attitude on the Perception of Organizational Goals."¹⁶ He defined it as "a shared goal for the organization on the part of its leaders."¹⁷ Although less precise and intricate than Simon's definition, this one may be helpful insofar as it establishes the point that, in order for a goal to be pursued by the organization as a whole, it must be accepted and pursued as such by the top managers or directors of the organization.

The term organizational objective is distinct from the term organizational goal, and it pertains to more specific and measurable outputs and pursuits. John H. Barrett provides a reasonably useful definition of this term in his study on integrative mechanisms for individual goals and organizational objectives.¹⁸ He defines it as "any state of affairs (including both static and dynamic states) which contributes to the creation of an organization's primary outputs or to the fulfillment of its purposes or functions."¹⁹ Also, Barrett provides a useful definition for another concept in that study, which is of fundamental importance to the present study, that of individual goal. He defines individual goal as ". . . any state of affairs (dynamic or static) which contributes to the fulfillment of an individual's needs, motives or desires."²⁰ The definitions provided above of the crucial terms and concepts of this study have guided the author in both his design, planning and implementation of the present study and in his analysis and interpretation of the resultant data and findings.

Chris Argyris is an organizational theorist who has expressed

his views on the conflict between the organization (system) and the individual throughout his writings. He points out the fact that social science research suggests that there are three sets of factors, or combinations thereof, which cause human behavior within organizations: 1. Individual factors, i.e., the factors and principles relating to personality; 2. Small informal group factors, i.e., the factors and principles relating to social psychology, etc., and; 3. Formal organizational factors, i.e., the factors relating to the principles of formal organization, (e.g., staff-line, chain of command and specialization of tasks).

Argyris postulates a fundamental "incongruency between the needs of a mature personality and the requirements of the formal organization."²¹ He contends that this state of affairs is largely a consequence of the principles of formal organization as practiced in most organizations, since they dictate that the working environment: 1. Will give employees little control over their working lives; 2. expects them to be passive, dependent and subordinate; 3. expects them to have a "short time perspective"; 4. Induces them to develop and desire the regular use of a small array of limited skills; 5. and expects them to produce or contribute under conditions conducive to "psychological failure."²² An unfortunate consequence of these dictates, according to Argyris, is that organizations require individuals to behave in a manner that is less than mature.

Argyris devotes considerable attention to the issue regarding

"decreasing the degree of incongruence between the formal organization and the healthy individual."²³ He lists six different ways that the individual can adapt to the organization: 1. By leaving the organization; 2. by ascending the organizational hierarchy; 3. by growing "apathetic, disinterested and non-involved"; 4. by joining informal groups; 5. by merely accepting the inevitability of dissatisfaction and concomittantly "increasing his desire for human rewards"; 6. by transmitting these adaptive approaches to his or her offspring.²⁴

The administration or management of an organization tends to react to these modes of individual adaptation by: 1. Making the organizational leadership more directive and technicably skilled; 2. attempting to clarify the formal structure, thereby inadvertently making it more rigid; 3. increasing and strengthening administrative control; 4. developing programs aimed at education, communication and human relations. Argyris asserts that all of these reactions serve to worsen and intensify the problems inherent in the structures of formal organizations, rather than mitigating the causes of the problems. Indeed, they can even create new problems for both the individual and the organization.

To solve these problems, Argyris proposes the construction of a "systematic framework" whose purpose would be to modify the informal behavior of employees, etc. For example, the structure of the formal organization could be altered in a way that would enable employees to experience "more activity than passivity, greater relative independence than dependence, etc."²⁵

Argyris suggests that one may conceive of two different kinds of social entities that exist on opposite ends of "a multi-dimensional continuum."²⁶ On one end of the continuum is the group, whose focus is on individual needs, and on the other end is the organization, whose focus is on the achievement of organizational objectives. The informal group may, and often does impede the formal organization's ability to achieve its stated goals and objectives. It can do this by either reinforcing such informal adaptive behaviors as apathy, disinterest and non-involvement or by diminishing the need of the individual to be responsible for his or her and the group's actions.

Argyris contends that the problem of integrating the individual with the organization is a difficult one that necessitates the giving up of something by both of them. The extent to which this is done can never be maximized or optimized, according to Argyris. However, more than mere satisficing is a realistic goal. He argues that, paradoxically, "the incongruence between the individual and the organization can provide the basis for a continued challenge . . .,"²⁷ and, if the challenge is met, it will facilitate the development of both human beings and social organizations. The end result will be increased efficiency for each of them.

Argyris defines organizational effectiveness as, "(a) increasing outputs with constant or decreasing inputs, or (b) constant outputs with decreasing inputs and (c) (the organization) is able to accomplish this in such a way that it can continue to do so."²⁸ He defines

organizational ineffectiveness as "the state of a system when it manifests increasing inputs for constant or decreasing outputs, and does so continuously."²⁹ Organizational effectiveness and ineffectiveness can be perceived differently by members of the same organization at different levels and/or in different groups. For example, the pressure applied to employees by management frequently results in increased discomfort and the perception of lowered organizational effectiveness by the affected employees. However, this same pressure will be perceived by management as increasing organizational effectiveness.

Argyris states that organizational discomfort consists of all the negative feelings experienced by individuals in an organization that they can neither understand nor control. These negative feelings can include tension, anxiety, rivalries and frustration. Presumably, organizational discomfort is measurable and it is possible to develop a "discomfort index,"³⁰ according to Argyris. Another term, organizational pseudo-effectiveness, refers to the state that exists when, although no discomfort is reported by organizational members, a study of the organization's functions reveals ineffectiveness, which is not ostensible to the membership. It occurs when individuals send false information to top management that gives the appearance of effectiveness, in order to protect other members or themselves.

In order for organizational effectiveness to exist, there must be a viable approach to problem solving within the organization. In other words, an approach to problem solving must exist which ensures

that problems are soluble in a manner that prevents recurrence, requires a minimum expenditure of superfluous time and energy and leads to "minimal damage to the problem solving process."³¹

Argyris proposes the "mix" model as a means of integrating the individual with the organization, thereby both increasing organizational effectiveness and enhancing individual growth and development.³² He asserts that this can be accomplished by increasing the quantity of what he calls "psychological energy" available for work. He argues that the level of psychological energy can be increased by providing employees with more opportunities for "self-responsibility" and increasing the likelihood that individual employees will attain "psychological success" on the job, thereby decreasing the extent of unproductive, compulsive behavior.

In order to achieve the objectives of the "mix" model it is necessary to change the individual, since merely redesigning the organization is not sufficient, per se. Individual members must be capable of meeting new challenges, taking on additional responsibilities, etc. Argyris points out the fact that no a priori answer can be given as to how much the individual and the organization must be changed. He suggests that additional research be undertaken to "discover the possible payoffs of different combinations of individual and organizational expression under different conditions."³³

Douglas McGregor is another important organizational theorist who has written extensively on the integration of the individual with the organization. He is, perhaps, most widely known for his writings on the two divergent approaches to management which he calls "Theory X"

and "Theory Y." He holds that Theory X, or the traditional view of direction and control is undergirded by three widespread assumptions concerning human nature:

1. "The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
2. "Because of this human characteristic of dislike for work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed and threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. "The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition and wants security above all."³⁴

McGregor contends that these three assumptions significantly shape and influence the strategies and approaches of many managers and administrators. This has unfortunate consequences, because, although Theory X helps account for some human behavior within large formal organizations, it fails to explain a great deal of "readily observable phenomena"³⁵ that simply are not congruent with its premises.

A synthesis of many independent research findings in the social and behavioral sciences helped McGregor to account for the shortcomings of Theory X, and to develop a whole new theory of management. This view is based upon the theory that human beings have definite needs which can be fairly neatly arranged into a hierarchy.

The first level of needs are physiological in nature and must be satisfied in order for the individual to go to the next level of needs. They include the needs for food and water. The second level of needs are safety needs or the needs "for protection against danger, threat and deprivation."³⁶ Social needs comprise the third level

of needs, and include needs for belonging, association and acceptance by one's fellows. McGregor states that social needs can be erroneously perceived by management as anathema to the organization. For example, numerous studies have shown how tightly knit work groups are often considerably more effective than are an equal number of individuals working by themselves in the achievement of organizational goals. However, management often fears that such groups will lead to the expression of animosity toward its objectives and, therefore, attempts to prevent workers from forming them. This, in turn, blocks the fulfillment of social needs and induces resistant, antagonistic and obstructive behavior.

The fourth level of needs is referred to egoistic needs. These needs relate to one's requirements for "self-respect and self-confidence, autonomy, achievement . . .", etc.³⁷ They are rarely satisfied within modern organizations, because the opportunities to fulfill them are usually quite circumscribed, according to McGregor. Finally, at the top of the hierarchy are the needs for self-fulfillment, which include the need to realize one's potentialities, the need for self-actualization, etc. Once again, these needs are very rarely fulfilled because of the severely limited opportunities to do so which are available in modern organizations.

A very important point made by McGregor is that when the lower level needs of workers are satisfied, they are no longer motivated to satisfy them. Consequently, they no longer actually exist as a source of motivation for such workers. This fact explains why workers are not necessarily more productive when they are granted higher wages,

better fringe benefits, etc., since such forms of remuneration can typically only be used after a worker leaves the workplace. Frequently, this situation leads workers to view their jobs as a kind of punishment that must be endured in order to obtain the benefits that can be enjoyed away from work. Moreover, since most individuals have few opportunities to satisfy their higher level needs while on the job, they are deprived, and their behavior manifests this deprivation. The problems and difficulties that this causes for management seem to validate the premises of Theory X, but, in actuality, the effects have been mistaken for causes.

McGregor postulated "Theory Y," or the integration of individual and organizational goals as an alternative to the obviously flawed Theory X. Within Theory Y, a number of generalizations are proposed which are based upon knowledge that had recently been acquired about human behavior when McGregor formulated the theory, and provided the foundations for his new theory on managing human resources. The assumptions of Theory Y are:

1. "The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest. The average human being does not dislike work.
2. "External control and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. "Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement. The most significant of such rewards, for example, satisfaction of ego needs can be direct products of effort directed toward organizational objective.
4. "The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but to seek responsibility.
5. "The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity and creativity in the solution

of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

6. "Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized."³⁸

As McGregor points out, these assumptions have implications for managerial strategy that differ markedly from those of Theory X. Most importantly, they point to possibilities for human growth, development and "selective adaptation" to different job roles and environments. The central principle deriving from Theory Y is that of integration. That is, it suggests that conditions may be created within a given organization that make it possible for individual members to best achieve their own goals by working consciously toward the attainment of organizational goals and objectives. This principle is diametrically opposed to the unfortunate but commonplace managerial attitude stemming from the assumptions of Theory X, which holds that the needs of the organization must always take precedence over the needs of individuals. Indeed, most managers and administrators find the notions of employee integration and self-control to be alien to their thought habits, according to McGregor. Consequently, they tend to either automatically reject them or alter them so they accord better with their preconceptions.

Inherent in the concept of integration and self-control is the implication that organizational effectiveness in achieving objectives will increase when significant adjustments are made to better fit the needs and goals of a given organization's members. Furthermore, the implementation of this concept requires that both the

needs of the organization and those of its individual members be recognized, and that an effort be made to find an integrated solution that "meets both sides needs . . ." ³⁹ If this task is not successfully completed, both the organization and its members will suffer, according to McGregor.

If the assumptions of Theory Y are valid, to what extent, it may be asked, can the conditions be created within the organization that will lead to employee integration and self-control? McGregor states that "perfect integration of organizational requirements and individual goals is not a realistic objective." ⁴⁰ A level of integration must be sought that enables individuals to achieve their goals best by directing their efforts toward the achievement of organizational goals and objectives.

McGregor sums up his arguments by stating that "Theory Y assumes that people will exercise self-control in the achievement of organizational objectives to the degree that they are committed to those objectives." ⁴¹

John J. Morse and Jay W. Lorsch have proposed an alternative to Theory Y, which they call "Contingency Theory" or "the fit between task, organization and people." ⁴² The authors begin by discussing the "two competing approaches to the problems of human administration and organization." ⁴³ These two approaches are, of course, the classical school of organization, which calls for "well established lines of authority equal to responsibility" ⁴⁴ and the participative approach, which holds that it is most desirable to involve members of an organization in its decision making processes in order to increase their

level of motivation. Morse and Lorsch point out that the distinctions between the assumptions regarding human motivation spelled out in Theory X and Theory Y by Douglas McGregor correspond to these two approaches, respectively.

McGregor's advocacy of the participative approach derived from Theory Y has created considerable confusion among managers when they attempt to select the best of these two conflicting approaches, according to the authors. Their research indicates that both of these approaches work well in some situations and poorly in others. Indeed, studies undertaken by students of management have demonstrated that no single best approach exists. Instead, it has become apparent that the most appropriate approach is contingent upon "the nature of the work to be done."⁴⁵ For instance, in those organizations where tasks are repetitive and highly predictable, the classical approach to management, with its emphasis upon formalized procedures and hierarchical management is best. However, in organizations characterized by "highly uncertain tasks" that require a great deal of creative problem solving, the participative approach, with its emphasis upon informal relations, self-control and individual participation in the decision making process is superior. Hence, it appears that, rather than selecting either one or the other of these two approaches to management based upon some set of absolute criteria, it is most prudent to design a given organization "so that the organizational characteristics fit the nature of the task to be done."⁴⁶

The authors assert that a new set of basic assumptions is suggested by their study which go beyond Theory Y, to Contingency

Theory. They state that the primary objective of their paper was to inquire into how motivation is related to the "fit between task and organizational characteristics."⁴⁷ They then go on to list the assumptions of Contingency Theory:

1. "Human beings bring varying patterns of needs and motives into the work organization, but one central need is to achieve a sense of competence.
2. "The sense of competence motive, while it exists in all human beings, may be fulfilled in different ways by different people, depending on how this need interacts with the strengths of the individual's other needs.
3. "Competence motivation is most likely to be fulfilled when there is a fit between task and organization.
4. "Sense of competence continues to motivate even when a competence goal is achieved; once one goal is reached, a new, higher one is set."⁴⁸

The authors do have one important caveat to the assumptions of Contingency Theory. Though all persons possess a need to achieve a sense of competence and do resemble each other in this manner, they differ markedly in numerous other aspects of personality and behavior. Moreover, how one attains a sense of competence is largely determined by such differences.

By asserting the need for a new approach to the problems of human administration and organization that call for a "fit among task, organization and people"⁴⁹ the authors purport to have, in effect, closed the book on the debate concerning whether the classical or the participative approach to management is superior. They conclude by posing a new query: "What organizational approach is most appropriate given task, and people involved?"⁵⁰ This query is, of course, best answered by using the Contingency Theory

explicated in this article.

Another organizational theorist, William Ouchi, has postulated Theory Z as a way of integrating a number of Japanese ideas on management into a coherent body of principles. These principles can, and indeed currently are being adopted by many American firms, which are adapting them to their modes of organization and management.

Briefly, the principles of Theory Z entail:

1. An emphasis upon non-specialized career paths for managers, as opposed to the emphasis upon specialization found in American organizations.
2. An emphasis upon group consensus in the decision making process, thereby giving groups of workers the responsibility for decisions made rather than individuals, as is the case with the majority of American firms.
3. The third principle centers around the concept of control. Rather than relying upon formal, explicit rules and regulations for governing employee behavior, as do most American organizations, the Japanese inculcate a philosophy upon their employees which fosters organizational efficiency in the achievement of goals and objectives. (This principle is similar to the concept of integration and self-control advocated by McGregor inasmuch as it encourages the worker to achieve his goals by directing his efforts toward the success of the firm by instilling a set of values and beliefs in him through a common culture.)
4. An emphasis upon personalism within the organization, in contrast to the impersonalism which characterizes most American organizations.
5. The guaranteed lifetime employment for the core work force of the Japanese firm differs a great deal from the overall prospects confronting American workers, who can only achieve de facto lifetime employment is never guaranteed.
6. Much longer intervals between worker evaluations and substantially slower rates of promotion than those of American organizations characterize Japanese firms. In sharp contrast to the "'fast track' mentality" that dominates American firms, whereby capable new employees are promoted to upper management rapidly, the Japanese defer the first evaluation for a period of up to ten years. This principle gives the Japanese employee much more time to become acquainted with the people and culture of the organization.⁵¹

It should be quite obvious that numerous features of Japanese management are not acceptable to American firms, due to fundamental socio-cultural differences that exist between the two countries. However, there are many other features which can be successfully adopted by and integrated into American private and public organizations. For example, such aspects of lifetime employment as "trust, loyalty to the firm and commitment to a job over most of one's productive years are."⁵² These aspects comprise the basis for Theory Z.

In the United States, careers tend to be conducted between organizations, within one quite narrow specialization. In Japan, careers are conducted between specializations within a single organization. One very important result of this lifelong rotation of jobs within a single company is that the employer has an incentive to encourage the development of the employees' skills since there is no likelihood that any of them will eventually leave the company for a more enticing position, elsewhere. This is clearly not the case in most American firms. Indeed, according to Ouchi, there is a propensity for skilled professional people to become "nomads" in the United States who have a lifetime commitment to their respective professions and/or disciplines, but no similar commitment to an employer.

According to Ouchi, an unfortunate consequence of this tendency for professionals to move from firm to firm is a serious weakness in the form of American organizations. That is, this behavior largely precludes the opportunity for an intimate level of integration between individuals and between the individual and the organization. This

weakness could be remedied by a move toward "company-centered rather than skill-centered careers,"⁵³ and this trend would undoubtedly benefit both employees and employers in the United States.

Ouchi points out the fact that "trust consists in the understanding that you and I share fundamentally compatible goals in the long run and thus we have reason to trust one another."⁵⁴ This statement is reminiscent of a number of arguments made by Chris Argyris and Douglas McGregor regarding integrating the individual and the organization, and points out a fundamental pre-requisite to the accomplishment of this goal.

A final important point made by Ouchi regarding the "Z company" that is pertinent to the subject of this paper is that the management of such a company is committed to establishing objectives which allow individuals to pursue their own needs and goals while serving the interests of the organization. That is, "an integrated social structure"⁵⁵ is the ideal toward which such managers aspire.

Another theory deriving from the principles of Japanese management has been proposed by Richard T. Pascale and Anthony G. Athos⁵⁶ and is very similar to Theory Z. It clarifies and expands the principles of Z Theory to some extent, and focuses upon strategy, structure and systems. Pascale and Athos contend that the Japanese have developed unique strategies for the survival of an organization within a turbulent environment. For example, the organizational structure of a Japanese firm can be either centralized or decentralized, depending upon environmental conditions and other factors.

Four additional features of Theory S are style, superordinate

goals, staff and skills. Style and skills address the issue of organizational leadership, and the authors of this theory advocate strong leaders. The aspect of Theory S which most clearly distinguishes it from Theory Z, as well as other theories of management, is its central concept of superordinate goals for the organization. The Japanese perceive a need for relating organizational productivity to the overall benefit of society. The American counterpart to this notion, referred to as corporate responsibility, is evidently not as effective or potent as are the superordinate goals espoused by Japanese management.

Another theorist whose research findings have bearing upon the issues being examined in this project is Frederick Herzberg. Specifically, he proposed the Motivation-Hygiene Theory of work, which he developed during his investigation into the causes of worker satisfaction and dissatisfaction. Herzberg based his theory upon the premise that human beings have two different sets of needs. One set concerns their need as "animals" to avoid pain and the other set concerns their needs as human beings for psychological growth and development.

For his investigation into this area, Herzberg employed a very simple methodology. I.e., he asked workers to recall occasions when they were highly satisfied at work and to explain the cause(s) of this satisfaction, and also to recall occasions when they were highly dissatisfied at work, and to explain the cause(s) of such dissatisfaction. The principle finding of this study was that "satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not the obverse of one another . . ." ⁵⁷ That

is to say, the absence of factors producing dissatisfaction does not produce satisfaction and a lack of satisfaction does not lead to dissatisfaction. Instead, he found that satisfaction and dissatisfaction are caused by different and mutually exclusive factors. An individual obtains satisfaction when he or she experiences feelings of achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and intrinsic value from the work itself. An individual experiences dissatisfaction when he or she becomes disgruntled with company policy or administration, technical supervision, salary, interpersonal relationships and working conditions. Hence, Herzberg discovered that the factors leading to the emergence of either satisfaction or dissatisfaction can be removed or increased without significantly affecting the other. Moreover, he found that by increasing satisfactions, managers can increase a worker's motivations.

As Herzberg explained in Work and the Nature of Man, the factors related to satisfaction relate to what the individual does and the factors related to dissatisfaction relate "to the situation in which he does it."⁵⁸ He referred to worker satisfactions as "motivators" and factors leading to worker dissatisfaction as "hygiene factors." The motivators effectively spur the individual on to perform his or her job better because this fulfills his or her need for growth and self-actualization. The hygiene factors are most certainly important, but they evidently do not have a direct bearing upon worker satisfaction. In the words of Herzberg, "the opposite of job satisfaction would not be job dissatisfaction, but rather no job satisfaction . . . (T)he opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job

dissatisfaction, not satisfaction with one's job."⁵⁹

In Worker Productivity: Myths and Realities, David Macarov notes that respondents in all survey research tend to report a high level of satisfaction in all areas of their lives. This may result from the relative quickness, ease and lack of thought required in answering questions related to life satisfactions, as well as other factors. Indeed, many such studies simply ask something similar to this: "On the whole, how satisfied are you with the work you do?"; or ask respondents to rate their jobs on a scale. These studies usually obtain "very high satisfaction curves."⁶⁰

In those studies which probe more deeply into specific areas of worker dissatisfaction or the origins of worker dissatisfaction, markedly different results are obtained. Indeed, few respondents in such studies allude to work as challenging, exciting or fulfilling. The results of these studies indicate that there is a widespread tendency among workers to resign themselves to the necessity of work, as it were, and to attempt to construe their plight in the best way possible. As Macarov states, the individual behavior of workers corroborates "the thesis that most people do not enjoy their work."⁶¹ Such ubiquitous phenomena as absenteeism, tardiness, goldbricking, etc. are symptoms of the extent of worker dissatisfaction.

Macarov notes that the only groups of individuals who appear to be reasonably satisfied with their work are those in the professions and those highest in the organizational hierarchy. He accounts for this finding by explaining that "workers have different interests than management and perceive quality of working life quite differently

than do researchers."⁶²

A final important point by Macarov to be discussed in this paper is that the relationship between worker satisfactions and the corresponding level of job performance has a significantly different impact in settings wherein workers relate primarily to material objects as opposed to settings in which they relate mostly to people. In those settings where workers are chiefly or solely directing their energies toward the production of material things, widespread worker dissatisfaction may not have a particularly serious adverse effect. However, in service settings, in which workers relate to people, such as within social service and mental health agencies, widespread worker dissatisfaction will have potentially disastrous consequences, particularly if it is perceived as indifference or truculence by "customers, clients or other recipients of services."⁶³ This problem is manifested in the growing body of literature on what is referred to as burnout in the service professions, as is revealed in increased apathy, indifference, disgruntlement and leaving by service professionals.

Samuel A. Culbert and John J. McDonough have examined what they describe as "the covert battles" that occur within modern organizations as individuals pursue their self-interests while purporting to be enhancing organizational effectiveness in The Invisible War: Pursuing Self-Interests at Work. The primary objective of this book is to explain how self-interests can be pursued without harming individuals and in a way that enhances organizational effectiveness. Ways are suggested to both avoid debilitating conflict at work and

to provide individuals with "more meaningful work experiences."⁶⁴

The authors note that self-interests can motivate people in ways that both facilitate and hinder the pursuit of organizational goals and objectives.

The four major themes of this book are:

1. "Self-interests play a decisive role in shaping every organizational event.
2. "People are at their peril when they openly reveal the self-interests underlying their motivations.
3. "In not being able to acknowledge self-interests, people have little choice but to engage in deceptive behavior which proves punishing to others and inefficient for the organization.
4. "The authors have a unique perspective on this state of affairs which should allow one to cope better, punish others less, and work for a change in the system."⁶⁵

In this study on "The Effects of Attitudes on Perception of Organizational Goals" Victor Vroom argues that the goal an individual has for an organization "consists in some direction into which he wishes for it to go."⁶⁶ The individual's perception of organizational goals are based upon his or her understanding of the directions in which he or she believes the leaders of the organization wish to move.

Three hypotheses were proposed and tested in the study:

Hypothesis I: "The more positive a person's attitude toward an organization, the greater the tendency for him to perceive a similarity between the organization's goals and his goals for the organization."

Hypothesis II: "A person will be accurate in perceiving the goals of organization's with which he agrees to the extent that he has a positive attitude toward the organization."

Hypothesis III: "A person will be accurate in perceiving the goals of organizations with which he does not agree to the extent that he has a negative attitude toward the organization."⁶⁷

This study was undertaken in an electronics manufacturing organization,

using questionnaires. The questionnaires were administered to employees working in both of the two different product divisions of the company.

The results of the study strongly corroborated Hypothesis I and, though somewhat different from that which was predicted, lended credence to Hypotheses II and III. Viz., those "individuals having positive attitudes toward the organization were inclined to exaggerate the extent to which their goals for the organization were similar to the organization's actual goals."⁶⁸ However, the study's results indicated that individuals "with negative attitudes are less inclined to overestimate the extent to which organizational goals are similar to their own and on supervisory methods they actually underestimated them."⁶⁹

The findings of this study suggest that individuals have a pronounced tendency to impute "their own attitudes, opinions or goals to members of groups or to organizations to the degree that they have a positive attitude toward that group or organization."⁷⁰ However, to the degree that individuals have a negative attitude toward a particular group or organization, they tend to deny that their attitudes, opinions or goals are shared by that organization.

The study's findings may provide a means for more or less accurately predicting which conditions will be conducive to an individual's accurate perception of organizational goals. I.e., an individual will tend to accurately perceive organizational goals that closely resemble his or her own, to the degree that he or she has a positive attitude toward the organization. To a somewhat

lesser extent, the findings corroborate the hypothesis that an individual will correctly perceive organizational goals that significantly differ from his or her own to the degree that he or she has a negative attitude toward the organization.

In his book titled Individual Goals and Organizational Objectives: A Study of Integrative Mechanisms, John H. Barrett reports on his empirical examination of the relationship between the objectives of an organization and the goals of its individual members.⁷¹ The theoretical framework used by the author as the basis for this study centers around several approaches employed by different organizations and advocated by different organizational theorists as means of integrating individual goals with the objectives of a given organization.

Three goal integration models are described and examined, each having "a number of specific integrative mechanisms":⁷²

1. The Exchange Model: This is a bargaining model wherein the individual is offered incentives that are held to be related to personal goals by the organization. In return, the individual is expected to contribute a reasonable share of his time and effort to assisting the organization in the achievement of its objectives. Specifically, the mechanisms used under this model are pay and informal social relations with peers.

2. The Socialization Model: Essentially, this can be described as "a social influence model."⁷³ In this model, goal integration is reached via social processes intended to increase an individual's valuation of those activities which facilitate the achievement of

organizational objectives and diminish his or her valuation of any activities that impede or, at least, do not assist in the achievement of organizational objectives. A number of specific socialization mechanisms are available which differ chiefly "in terms of the agent of socialization."⁷⁴

3. The Accommodation Model: In this model, individual goals and needs are taken into account when organizational objectives are determined, or when procedures are designed for achieving them. The organization is structured and operated in a manner that makes the pursuit of organizational objectives "intrinsically rewarding" and, at the same time, provides ways for individuals to pursue their own goals. There can either be positive accommodation, in which elements that formerly were only components of individual goals are included in organizational objectives, or negative accommodation, in which an objective or activity is eliminated by an organization because the pursuit of it hinders individuals in their efforts to attain personal goals.

These three goal integration models should be conceived of as processes that can enhance the level of goal integration achieved in any given organization. In turn, the level of goal integration should be thought of as significantly impacting upon the organization's efficiency and effectiveness as well as on the manner in which individuals respond to their membership in the organization.

The major hypotheses of this study are:

General Hypothesis I: "The degree of goal integration in an organization is significantly related to the quality of the organization's functioning and the reactions of individuals to their membership in the organization."

General Hypothesis II: "The use of goal integration mechanisms associated with the three models is significantly related to the degree of goal integration achieved in an organization."

General Hypothesis III: "Goal integration mechanisms associated with the exchange, socialization and accommodation models are differentially effective in achieving high levels of goal integration. Specifically, accommodation mechanisms are more effective in this regard than are socialization mechanisms, which, in turn, are more effective than exchange mechanisms."⁷⁵

It should be noted that the second two models named in General Hypothesis III, i.e., the socialization and accommodation models, are based upon the motivation theories of such organizational theorists as Chris Argyris, Rensis Likert and Douglas McGregor. They are presumed to be more complete and accurate than the classical organization theories of Luther Gulick, L. Urwick, Frederick Taylor and Max Weber, upon which the exchange model is based. Furthermore, accommodation mechanisms entail a process which the author expected to have an "immediate effect" upon the projected increase in goal integration, because they involve efforts to change the situations that confront individuals. Conversely, the author anticipated that socialization mechanisms would tend to more gradually increase the degree of integration between individual goals and organizational objectives, because they involve changing individual behavior and attitudes. Ergo, accommodation mechanisms were expected to be more effective than socialization mechanisms in achieving high levels of goal integration.

In addition to the three aforementioned general hypotheses,

the study entailed an examination of a number of other related issues. These issues were posed as general questions. Only one of these questions shall be examined in this paper, since it is the only one with substantive bearing on the present study:

General Question I: "To what extent is the degree of goal integration experienced by individuals a function of their standing on some general demographic characteristics or their location in the social structure of the organization."⁷⁶

The variables included in this area were age of respondent, amount of formal education, type of community the respondent grew up in, tenure in the organization, the kind of work performed by the respondent and location in the organizational hierarchy.

The site of this study was a "large, modern oil refinery located in an industrial city of about 100,000 in the southern United States."⁷⁷ There were approximately 2800 employees of the company who comprised a "fairly old and stable work force" that was "predominantly male, mostly rural" and showed "a moderately high level of education."⁷⁸

The results of the study showed relatively small and inconsistent relationships between the demographic variables and the degree of goal integration perceived to exist in the organization. Only one variable, amount of formal education, appeared to have much impact at all. The results indicated that the more education an individual obtains, up to the point of acquiring a college degree, the more divergent will be his or her values and goals from organizational objectives. Thus, such individuals tend to be increasingly less likely to perceive their goals as being integrated with the organization.

However, individuals with college degrees showed a remarkable increase in their perception of individual goal integration with the organization. The author suggests that this phenomenon is best explained in terms of the "great symbolic value attached to college graduate status in our culture."⁷⁹ Presumably, college graduates will obtain the most desirable positions in any given organization and will have substantially more opportunities for advancement.

Tenure, hierarchical level and type of job also showed relatively "low relationships to the measures of goal integration used."⁸⁰ Indeed, the only variable that showed a significant relationship to these measures was that of hierarchical level. I.e., the individuals with positions higher in the organization tended to experience goal integration to a greater extent than those with positions lower in the hierarchy.

With regard to the three general hypotheses stated above, the hypotheses and the predictions based upon them were "generally confirmed" by the results of the study, with the single exception of the exchange mechanisms. These mechanisms failed to show "significant relationships to goal integration."⁸¹

It was found that "quality of departmental and work group units"⁸² significantly improved individual goal integration with organizational objectives. Also, another important finding of the study was that the accommodation and socialization models fit well into one particular system of management referred to as the "participative group" system by Rensis Likert (1967).⁸³ The exchange model, on the other hand fits

best into a rather different system of management referred to as the "benevolent authoritarian" system by Likert. These management systems have been alluded to and discussed under various names and in different terms throughout this section of the paper.

The author includes a fairly extensive investigation of the unconditional provision of incentives by management. He concludes by asserting that the provision of such incentives may be viewed as a means of conveying the impression to an individual employee that he or she is considered important by management as a person, and not just in instrumental terms. I.e., the individual is perceived not merely in terms of what he or she can accomplish for the organization. Thus, the unconditional provision of incentives will tend to confirm the individual's sense of self-worth and self-esteem.

One final point made by Barrett warrants consideration in this paper. He notes that organizational roles are never designed exclusively by the organization, since each individual "always participates, to some extent, in the design of his role."⁸⁴ This phenomenon occurs even in the event that an organization does not undertake a conscious or stated effort to design a particular role with the individual's personal goals and needs taken into account.

FOOTNOTES

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RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The methodology for this study has included the administration of an eighty-one question, twelve page questionnaire to a sample of the employees of five different mental health organizations in the midwest. A copy of this questionnaire is included in the appendixes of this paper. The sampling technique used in the survey was systematic sampling with a random start, and a total of 164 questionnaires were administered.

The largest organization included in the survey is a state facility which serves developmentally disabled clients. The other organizations represented in the survey are a private skilled nursing facility for mentally retarded (SNF-MR), a small, non-profit mental health agency which treats clients with psychological and behavioral disorders and two private mental health clinics which treat clients with mental disorders. The smallest three organizations in the survey (the non-profit mental health agency and the two private clinics) each have a total of fifty or fewer employees. A fifty percent sample was drawn from each of these organizations. The smallest of the other two organizations (the SNF-MR) had a total of 154 employees and the other one (the state facility) had a total of 842 employees at the time that the samples were taken. Systematic samples with random starts of approximately twenty percent of the total number of employees in each of these organizations were taken.

Of the 164 questionnaires that were administered, a total of 99 or 60.4% were returned. The non-response rate was highest at the largest organization included in the study, where 48 of the total of 100 questionnaires that were administered were returned (48%). This compares rather unfavorably to the return of questionnaires from the other four organizations, which were 68%, 83% and 100% for the three small organizations from which 50% samples were taken, and 80% from the other organization (the SNF-MR) from which a 20% sample was taken. It is, of course, not known how the poorer response rate of employees in the sample from the largest organization compared to the response rates of employees in the samples from the other four organizations has impacted on the results of the study. However, it should be noted that the smallness of the total sample for this study has significantly increased the probability of a large sampling error and, if so, this relatively large sampling error has diminished the reliability of the findings and the validity of the conclusions.

The data obtained from the survey questionnaires were subjected to a fairly rigorous statistical analysis, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) as the program format.¹ The computer system at the University of Michigan - Ann Arbor (Michigan Terminal System) was employed to perform the statistical calculations and to construct the tables which illustrate the results of the cross-tabulations of the various independent and dependent variables of the present study. Chi square was used in the cross-tabulations of these variables in order to ascertain the number of standard deviations from the mean. Only those cross-tabulated variables showing a degree of correlation with a significance level of 0.05 or beyond were used in the study to confirm or to disconfirm the proposed hypotheses.

The hypotheses for the present study are:

1. Professionals and administrative and supervisory personnel will perceive a significantly higher level of integration

- of individual goals and organizational objectives than will individuals with positions that are lower in the organizational hierarchy.
2. Both support staff and administrative and supervisory personnel will perceive informal work groups more favorably than will those with professional status in terms of their importance in the achievement of organizational objectives.
 3. Respondents in all three categories of employees will perceive informal work groups as being equally important for the satisfaction of individual needs and the attainment of related goals.
 4. Administrative and supervisory personnel will perceive informal work groups as potentially impeding the achievement of organizational objectives, rather than facilitating the achievement of them.
 5. Both professionals and administrative and supervisory personnel will perceive the supervisory and administrative roles vis a vis those of both support staff and professional staff as facilitating the achievement of organizational objectives.
 6. Support staff will perceive their relations with administrative and supervisory staff as facilitating the achievement of organizational goals.
 7. Support staff will perceive their relations with supervisory and administrative staff as hindering them in their pursuit of personal needs and goals.
 8. Professional staff will perceive their relations with supervisory and administrative personnel as assisting them in their pursuit of personal needs and goals.
 9. Professionals will perceive themselves as having considerably more autonomy in the performance of their job roles than will support staff vis a vis administrative and supervisory personnel.
 10. The background and demographic variables regarding community of origin, tenure in the organization, age, sex and marital status will not significantly influence employee perceptions in any of the areas studied.
 11. The level of education and the income level of respondents will impact on employee perceptions of the level of goal integration, etc. primarily insofar as they help determine and/or are related to position or status of the individual in the organizational hierarchy.

The reasons and explanations for proposing these hypotheses have been stated and clarified in the section on the objectives of the study. In the summary and discussion at the end of this paper an attempt shall be made to compare and contrast the findings and conclusions of this study with the theoretical constructs concerning the integration of individual goals and organizational objectives and the findings of earlier empirical studies on this problem area that were reported in the review of the literature.

The independent variables of the present study are community of origin, educational level, tenure in the organization, age, sex, marital status, income level and position in the organizational hierarchy.

Five dependent variables have been included in the study:

1. Individual perception of the level of integration between individual goals and organizational objectives.
2. Individual perception of the role of informal work groups in the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. Individual perception of the role of informal work groups in the achievement of individual goals.
4. Individual perception of the relationship between administrative and supervisory personnel and support staff or professional staff in the achievement of organizational goals.
5. Individual perception of the relationship between administrative and supervisory personnel and support staff or professional staff in the individual's pursuit of personal goals.

The 81 questions contained in the survey questionnaire were placed into five categories, based upon which of the dependent variables they were determined to be the best and most accurate measures of. For example, question 33 was placed in the category for dependent variable one since it

pertains most specifically to individual perception of the level of integration between individual goals and organizational objectives. Question 33 addresses the issue concerning employees being unduly interested in their own personal goals and relatively disinterested in organizational goals. A list of the five categories of questions and the dependent variable that each category corresponds to is included in the appendixes of this paper.

The author selected certain questions from each of these categories which were deemed to be most appropriate for or applicable to the various hypotheses of the study. Each of these questions was then cross-tabulated with one or more of the independent variables of the study, using the computer. A total of 127 cross-tabulations of different variables were executed on the computer, of which 13 showed a significance level of 0.05 or better, using chi square. In order to make the tables more useful for this study, the responses to all of the questions were dichotomized as those who agree (strongly or not) versus those who disagree (strongly or not), and those who indicated that they were undecided were counted as missing observations. Furthermore, the respondents were recoded for the income variable (question 78) as low income (\$1,000 to \$9,000), medium income (\$10,000 to \$14,999) and high income (over \$15,000). Finally, respondents were recoded for the age variable (question 79) and placed into three categories: 1. over 50 years of age, 2. 35 to 50 years of age and, 3. under 35 years of age. This recoding of the variables considerably reduced the number of degrees of freedom in each measure of chi square, thus increasing the accuracy and the reliability of the findings.

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

The following section of the paper will consist of an examination and interpretation of the findings of the 13 cross-tabulations which showed a statistically significant relationship between the variables measured. These findings will either confirm or disconfirm each of the 11 hypotheses proposed for this study.

Four of the cross-tabulations of variables for those questions in the survey questionnaire which pertain to dependent variable one, regarding individual perception of the level of integration between individual goals and organizational objectives, were statistically significant at the 0.05 level or better. The first of these to be examined is a cross-tabulation of position in the hierarchy as the independent variable with variable (question) 33, or personal goals over organizational goals as the dependent variable. Table 1 shows the results of this cross-tabulation.

Table 1 Cross-tabulation of V4, position in hierarchy by V33, personal goals over organizational goals

	agree	disagree	row total	
Managerial/ administrative	6	4	10 13.9%	Missing observations: 27
Professional	16	16	32 44.4%	
Support level	26	4	30 41.7%	
column total	48 66.7%	24 35.3%	72 100%	

Chi square=9.59 2 degrees of freedom significance=0.0082

The above table shows that support staff personnel perceive the propensity of individuals in the organization to be overly interested in goals that benefit themselves as opposed to goals that benefit the organization to be significantly more widespread than do either professionals or managers. This finding supports hypothesis 1 which states that professionals and administrators will perceive a significantly higher level of integration between organizational objectives and individual goals than will support staff.

Table 2 Cross-tabulation of V76, college degree by V16, positive attitude

College degree	negative attitude	positive attitude	row total	
yes	16	23	39 41.1%	
no	42	14	56 58.9%	Missing observations: 4
column total	58	37	95 100%	

Chi square=13.53 6 degrees of freedom significance=0.035

Table 2 shows that a significantly larger number of employees with less than a college degree indicated that they perceive their fellow workers as having a negative attitude toward the organization than did those with a college degree. It strongly supports hypothesis 11 which states that employees with a college degree will perceive a higher level of integration of individual goals and organizational objectives, both because they will identify more strongly with the organization and because they will tend to have higher (professional and managerial) positions in the organizational hierarchy.

Table 3 Cross-tabulation of V4, position in hierarchy
by V52, individual can get ahead

	agree	disagree	row total	
Managerial/ administrative	1	7	8 9.5%	
Professional	12	23	35 41.7%	Missing observations: 15
Support level	1	40	41 48.8%	
column total	14 16.7%	70 83.3%	84 100%	

Chi square=13.9 2 degrees of freedom significance=0.010

Table 3 shows how position in the hierarchy is related to employee perception of the level of opportunity to obtain better jobs and to advance in the organization. The results do not fully support hypothesis 1, which states that both professionals and administrators will perceive greater opportunities for advancement in the organization than will support staff, since only one out of the eleven managers in the study agreed with the statement. However, the hypothesis is partially supported by the data because a significantly greater number of professionals than support staff do perceive many opportunities for advancement in the organization.

A reasonable conjecture as to why administrative staff overwhelmingly indicated that they do not believe that individuals can advance in the organization is that they may have already attained the highest position that is available for them to reach in the organization and, therefore, realistically see no opportunities for advancement. Another plausible explanation is that cutbacks and reductions in funding and other resources for the organizations in the study, due to the severe budgetary constraints

which have resulted from the ongoing depressed economic conditions in this region have greatly curtailed their expectations for advancement or promotion in their respective organizations. In any event, this anomalous finding does somewhat weaken the overall validity of hypothesis 1.

Table 4 Cross-tabulation of V76, college degree by V52, individual can get ahead

College degree	agree	disagree	row total	
yes	14	19	33 39.3%	Missing observations: 15
no	2	49	51 60.7%	
column total	16 19.0%	68 81.0%	84 100%	

Chi square=16.85 1 degree of freedom significance=0.000

Table 4 shows how educational level is related to employee perception of the extent of opportunity to obtain better positions and to advance in the organization. The results strongly support hypothesis 11, which states that employees having college degrees will perceive a higher level of integration between individual goals and organizational objectives than will employees not having college degrees. I.e., personal advancement in an organization is an individual goal, and the fact that significantly more employees having college degrees than those not having college degrees perceive many opportunities for advancement lends strong support to this hypothesis. Moreover, this finding provides additional indirect support for hypothesis 1, since, presumably, individuals having college degrees will be

much more likely to have professional or administrative positions in the organization than those not having college degrees.

It should be noted here that none of the cross-tabulations of variables for those questions in the survey questionnaire pertaining to either dependent variable two or to dependent variable three was significant at the 0.05 level. These variables were measures of employee perceptions of the function of the work group in their job roles and in the organization as a whole, both as it affects the achievement of individual goals and organizational objectives. The total lack of statistically significant correlations between the variables related to the hypotheses regarding employee perceptions of the work group led the author to reject each of them. I.e., hypotheses 2, 3 and 4 were not confirmed by the findings.

A total of seven of the cross-tabulations of the variables corresponding to those questions in the survey questionnaire pertaining to dependent variable four, regarding employee perception of the relationship between administrative and supervisory personnel and support staff or professional staff in the achievement of organizational objectives, were statistically significant at the 0.05 level or beyond. The first of these to be examined is a cross-tabulation of position in the hierarchy with the variable (question) 43 concerning employee perceptions of the necessity for supervisory approval of decisions before action can be taken on the job.

Table 5 Cross-tabulation of V4, position in hierarchy
by V43, supervisor's approval necessary

	agree	disagree	row total	
Managerial/ administrative	1	9	10 11.9%	Missing observations: 15
Professional	8	27	35 41.7%	
Support level	28	11	39 46.4%	
column total	37 44.0%	47 56.0%	84 100%	

Chi square=23.25 2 degrees of freedom significance=0.000

Table 5 shows the relationship between position in the hierarchy and supervisor's approval is necessary. The results reveal a strong positive relationship between the two variables. They indicate that professionals see themselves as having a great deal of autonomy in the performance of their job roles, and that support staff perceive themselves as depending, to a marked extent, upon supervisory approval and, therefore, having relatively little autonomy in the performance of their job roles. Indirectly, this finding may partially support hypothesis 6, which states that support staff perceive relations with supervisory and administrative staff as facilitating the achievement of organizational objectives since it reveals that support staff perceive themselves as largely dependent upon their supervisors in the fulfillment of their job related tasks. However, a more likely interpretation of this finding is that support staff perceive themselves as being unduly dependent upon their supervisors and, therefore, lacking autonomy in

their jobs.

The finding does support hypothesis 9, which states that professionals will perceive themselves as having considerable autonomy in the performance of their job roles, due to their higher level of training and expertise and to the fact that their positions are more commensurate with those of administrative and supervisory personnel than are the positions of support staff personnel.

Table 6 Cross-tabulation of V4, position in hierarchy by V51, management encourages suggestions

	agree	disagree	row total	
Managerial/ administrative	7	3	10 12.2%	Missing observations: 17
Professional	23	13	36 43.9%	
Support level	10	26	36 43.9%	
column total	40	42	82 100%	

Chi square=18.08 8 degrees of freedom significance=0.021

Table 6 shows the relationship between position in the hierarchy and employee perceptions concerning whether or not management encourages suggestions for improving the organization. The data reveal that the preponderant majority of both professionals and administrators perceive management as encouraging suggestions for improvements. However, a substantial majority of support staff do not perceive this to be the case and have indicated that they perceive management as not encouraging suggestions for improvements. This

finding confirms hypothesis 5, which states that both professionals and administrators will perceive supervisory and administrative roles vis a vis those of support staff or professional staff as facilitating the achievement of organizational objectives.

However, the finding suggests that support staff do not perceive administrators or supervisors as working in conjunction with them to achieve organizational goals, at least insofar as encouraging them to suggest ways to improve the organization. This finding suggests that a majority of support staff employees may not perceive administrators and supervisors favorably in the organizations studied, and calls into question the validity of hypothesis 6. It could also indicate a significant level of alienation from and resentment toward administrative and supervisory personnel among support staff in the organizations studied.

Table 7 Cross-tabulation of V76, college degree by V43, supervisor's approval is necessary

College degree	agree	disagree	row total
yes	10	26	36 42.9%
no	27	21	48 57.1%
column total	37 44.0%	47 56.0%	84 100%

Chi square=5.66 1 degree of freedom significance=0.017

Table 7 shows the relationship between educational level and employee perception of the necessity for supervisory approval before action can be taken in one's job. The data reveal a strong positive

relationship between the two variables and indicate that there is an inverse relationship between educational level and the perception of the need for supervisory approval. I.e., a substantial majority of respondents with college degrees indicated that they believe that supervisory approval is not usually required before they can take action on a decision related to their job role. However, a smaller but still significant majority of respondents without college degrees indicated the opposite belief. This finding supports hypothesis 11, regarding the relationship of educational level to position and status in the organization and hypothesis 9, regarding position in the organization and its relationship to perceived job role autonomy that was examined in the discussion of Table 5.

Table 8 Cross-tabulation of V81, tenure by V50, management is building the organization

Tenure	agree	disagree	row total	
from less than 1 to 5 years	33	2	35 47.9%	
6 to 10 years	7	8	15 20.5%	Missing observations: 26
11 to 15 years	3	7	10 13.6%	
16 to 20+ years	6	7	13 17.8%	
column total	49 67.1%	24 32.9%	73 100%	

Chi square=37.90 21 degrees of freedom significance=0.013

Table 8 shows the relationship between tenure in the organization and employee perception of whether or not management is building the organization. The most striking aspect of these data is the fact that in only one of the four categories of respondents, based on five year intervals, is there a majority that perceive management as building the organization, i.e., those respondents with less than one year to five years with the organization. Moreover, this majority is considerable, with 33 agreeing and only 2 disagreeing. In all other categories, at least a majority of the respondents indicated that they perceive management as not building the organization. This researcher can suggest three possible explanations for this phenomenon. The first is the possibility that most of the managerial staff are relatively young and have brief (one to five year) tenures in each respective organization. If most of the managerial personnel were in this category and agreed with the statement, this number along with a sizable proportion of professionals agreeing would largely account for the occurrence. A second possible explanation is that as the length of employment increases for a given individual, he or she tends to become increasingly disgruntled with and cynical about administrative policies and procedures. A final possible explanation is that most of the organizations in the sample are relatively new and that the perception that management is not building the organization predominates at the oldest organization represented in the survey. The latter explanation is buttressed by the fact that the oldest organization in the survey is a state mental agency which has experienced substantial reductions in resident

population, staffing and funding during the last ten years.

In any event, this finding contradicts hypothesis 10 to a limited extent, because it demonstrates that one of the demographic variables (tenure in the organization) has a positive relationship to one of the dependent variables, i.e., individual perception of the relationship between administrative and supervisory personnel and support staff or professionals in the achievement of organizational objectives. Specifically, it suggests that employees with greater tenure in a given organization may tend to perceive management as being less dynamic and/or effective than their counterparts with significantly less tenure.

Table 9 Cross-tabulation of V78, income level by V29, organization should change its goals

Income level	agree	disagree	row total	
low income	6	6	12 16.2%	Missing observations: 25
medium income	21	4	25 33.8%	
high income	21	16	37 50.0%	
column total	48 64.9%	26 35.1%	74 100%	

Chi square=61.247 2 degrees of freedom significance=0.044

Table 9 shows the relationship between income level and employee perception that the managers of the organization should change their goals for the organization. It is interesting to note that at least 50% of the respondents in all three income categories indicated that

they agreed with this statement. This finding suggests that there is a widespread belief among employees in these organizations that the goals and objectives of the organization, as espoused and pursued by its top managers, are either not appropriate for the organization as a whole or that they are perhaps, not properly prioritized. This is an important finding per se, because it indicates that there is considerable divergence between the goals that a majority of individual members of these and, presumably, other similar organizations would prefer to have pursued by the management of the organization and the goals that actually are. This seems to belie a rather low level of integration between the individual employee and the organization, at least within the organizations studied, and provides empirical support for the hypotheses of Chris Argyris and Douglas McGregor regarding this issue, which were discussed at length earlier in the paper. This matter will be examined more thoroughly in the final section of this paper.

A substantially larger majority of respondents in the medium income category (21 out of 25) agreed that the organization's goals should be changed than in the high income category (21 out of 37). This disparity of perceptions between the two income groupings indicates that employees with higher incomes are, to a significantly greater extent than those with medium incomes, inclined to support the goals and objectives pursued by management. Hereagain, assuming that employees in the high income grouping are more likely to have professional or administrative positions than are those in the medium income category, this finding lends some support to both hypothesis 1 and hypothesis 5, as explained earlier in this section of the paper.

The fact that respondents in the low income category were divided in half in their relative agreement or disagreement on this matter is somewhat anomalous. However, it may be a consequence of sampling error, due to the relatively small number of respondents in this grouping. Finally, it may also be at least partially accounted for by the fact that many of these employees are part-time and are not as knowledgeable of or concerned about the organization and/or its objectives as are respondents in the other two categories.

Table 10 Cross-tabulation of V4, position in hierarchy by V64, evaluations are fair

	generally fair	generally unfair	row total	
Managerial/ administrative	7	1	8 13.3%	Missing observations: 39
Professional	22	4	26 43.3%	
Support level	12	14	26 43.3%	
column total	41 68.3%	19 31.7%	60 100%	

Chi square=10.45 2 degrees of freedom significance=0.0054

Table 10 shows the relationship between position in the hierarchy and individual perception of the fairness or unfairness of employee evaluations in the organization. A substantial majority of both professionals and administrators indicated that they perceive employee evaluations as being generally fair. This evidence, indicating that the vast majority of both professionals and administrators see employee evaluations as being fair in these organizations, is cogent and provides strong support for both hypothesis 5

and for hypothesis 8. The perception by a majority of professionals that employee evaluations are generally fair most persuasively suggests that they tend to perceive supervisory and administrative roles vis a vis their own and those of support staff as both facilitating the achievement of organizational objectives and as assisting individuals in the pursuit of their personal goals.

On the other hand, slightly more (14) support staff indicated that they perceive employee evaluations as being generally unfair than as being generally fair (12). This finding lends considerable support to hypothesis 7 and further weakens hypothesis 6. I.e., the perception by more support staff respondents than by professionals or administrators that evaluations are unfair than that they are fair indirectly suggests that support staff do not perceive relations with administrative or supervisory staff as either facilitating the achievement of organizational objectives (hypothesis 6) or as assisting them in the pursuit of individual goals (the obverse of hypothesis 7).

Table 11 Cross-tabulation of V78, income level by V64 evaluations are fair

	generally fair	generally unfair	row total
low income	4	3	7 11.7%
medium income	11	14	25 41.7%
high income	26	2	28 46.7%
column total	42 68.3%	19 31.7%	60 100%

Missing
observations: 39

Chi square=15.03

2 degrees of freedom

significance=0.0005

Table 11 shows the relationship between income and individual perception of the fairness or unfairness of employee evaluations in the organization. The most striking finding reported in these data is the large number of high income respondents (28) who indicated that they perceive evaluations as being generally fair and the correspondingly small number of them who indicated that they perceive evaluations as generally unfair. This finding provides most convincing indirect support for hypotheses 5 and 8, as was explained in the interpretation of table 9, and direct support for hypothesis 11, regarding the relationship between income level and position in the organizational hierarchy. Once again, this assertion is predicated upon the ostensibly sound hypothesis that respondents in the high income category will be most apt to have professional or administrative positions in the organization.

As can be noted in table 11, the obverse of that which was indicated by high income respondents was indicated by medium income respondents. A significant majority (14) of them reported that they perceive evaluations as being generally unfair, whereas only 11 of them reported that they perceive evaluations as being generally fair. Hereagain, this finding provides support for hypothesis 7 and weakens hypothesis 6, as explained above, provided that one accepts the hypothesis that most medium income respondents occupy support staff positions in the organizations studied.

The somewhat anomalous pattern of responses by those in the low income category (four perceived evaluations as generally fair and

three as unfair) cannot be discounted or ignored. These data may somewhat call into question the validity of the aforementioned evidence either supporting or weakening the hypotheses tested by these variables, since they are not consistent with the pattern of responses in the other two categories. However, the author wishes to point out once again the possibility of sampling error in this category as well as the fact that many of these respondents are part-time employees who, presumably, do not share the level of involvement in organizational processes and activities that their full-time counterparts have. Therefore, significant differences and irregularities in their overall response pattern ought to be expected.

A total of two of the cross-tabulations of variables for those questions in the survey questionnaire pertaining to dependent variable five, regarding employee perception of the relationship between administrative and supervisory personnel and support staff or professional staff were statistically significant at the 0.05 level or beyond. The first of these to be examined is a cross-tabulation of income level and variable (question) 59 concerning the perception that managers and/or supervisors never show respect for the employees who do the day-to-day work for the organization.

Table 12 Cross-tabulation of V78, income level by V59, no respect for workers

	agree	disagree	row total	
low income	7	9	16 19.8%	
medium income	23	5	28 34.6%	Missing observations: 18
high income	11	26	37 45.7%	
column total	41 50.6%	40 49.4%	81 100%	

Chi square=17.89 2 degrees of freedom significance=0.0001

Table 12 shows the relationship between income level and no respect for workers. The most significant observation to be made about the data is the difference in perceptions on this issue reported between employees in the medium income category and those in the high income category. Hereagain, the employees in the low income category show a different and anomalous response pattern, but this may be explained either in terms of sampling error or the fact that a majority of respondents in this category may be part-time employees, lacking the level of involvement in and knowledge of the organization that full-time employees have. However, the striking differences pointed out above indicate that employees in different income levels and, presumably, different job roles tend to perceive this issue quite differently. Assuming that most support level employees fall within the income range of \$10,000 to \$14,999 per year and that a majority of professionals as well as most administrators earn \$15,000 or more annually in the organizations studied, this finding supports hypothesis

7 which states that support staff will perceive supervisory and administrative staff as hindering them in their pursuit of personal needs and related goals. It also supports hypothesis 8 which states that professional staff will perceive their relations with supervisory and administrative staff as assisting them in their pursuit of personal needs and goals. Finally, as noted above it supports hypothesis 11 since it demonstrates that there is a positive relationship between hypotheses 7 and 8 and the independent variable, income level.

Table 13 Cross-tabulation of V4, position in the hierarchy by V59, no respect for workers

	agree	disagree	row total	
Managerial/ administrative	3	5	8 9.9%	Missing observations: 18
Professional	12	22	34 42.0%	
Support level	26	13	39 48.1%	
column total	41 50.6%	40 49.4%	81 100%	

Chi square=7.76 2 degrees of freedom significance=0.021

Table 13 shows the relationship between position in the hierarchy and the perception that managers and/or supervisors never show respect for the employees who do the day-to-day work for the organization. The data in this table provide support for both hypothesis 7 and hypothesis 8. A substantial majority of the professionals disagreed with the statement and indicated that they perceive managers and supervisors as showing adequate respect for those who perform the day-to-day work for the organization. This finding indirectly supports hypothesis 8, regarding

the professionals' relations with administrative and supervisory staff and their pursuit of personal goals, because it suggests that professionals perceive administrative and supervisory staff as respecting them and, therefore, assisting them in their pursuit of personal needs and related goals.

On the other hand, precisely twice as many support level respondents indicated that they perceive managers and supervisors (those "in charge") as not showing respect for those who do the day-to-day work for the organization. This finding clearly supports hypothesis 7 because it indicates that a significant majority of support level employees do not believe that they are shown respect by their superiors and, therefore, are hindered by their superiors in their pursuit of personal needs and goals.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The foregoing analysis and interpretation of the data from the survey for this study have demonstrated that a majority of the proposed hypotheses were at least partially supported by the findings.

Specifically, hypotheses 1, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9 and 11 were confirmed by the findings and hypothesis 10 was largely confirmed. Hypotheses 2, 3 and 4 were not supported by any of the findings, and were, therefore, rejected. I.e., the evidence from the study indicates that employee perceptions of the role of the work group in achieving individual goals and organizational objectives do not correspond to the modes and patterns predicted by any of the proposed hypotheses. No significant relationships at the 0.05 level were found to exist

between any of the independent variables and the dependent variables measuring perception of the role of the work group. Finally, most of the findings did not support hypothesis 6, regarding support staff perceptions of their relations with administrative and supervisory personnel in the achievement of organizational objectives and, therefore, this hypothesis was also rejected.

Hypothesis ten was only partially confirmed because the independent variable, tenure in the organization, was found to have a significant relationship with one of the variables measured, i.e., the perception that management is building the organization. As stated in the analytical section of this paper, the finding indicates that employees with the least tenure in the organization were the most likely, by far, to perceive management as building the organization. The findings supported the prediction in hypothesis 10 regarding all of the other background and demographic variables: Community of origin, age, sex and marital status. That is, no significant relationships were found to exist between any of these variables and employee perceptions in any of the areas studied.

Those independent variables which had the most impact upon employee perceptions in all of the areas which showed significant relationships between variables, (level of integration of individual goals and organizational objectives; individual perceptions of relations between support staff or professionals and administrative and supervisory personnel in the achievement of organizational objectives and in the achievement of personal goals; and perceived level of job role autonomy by professionals and support staff vis a vis

administrators and supervisors) were position in the organizational hierarchy, educational level and income level. All of these variables influenced perceptions in the ways that were predicted by the hypotheses, for the most part.

The most important variable was, as predicted, position in the organizational hierarchy. This variable, more than any other, appears to shape and determine employee perceptions in all of the areas measured, as was amply demonstrated in the analytical section of this paper. Those employees with the higher and more prestigious positions in the hierarchy (professionals, administrators and supervisors) tend to experience a significantly higher level of integration between their goals and the goals and objectives of the organization and tend to identify more strongly with the organization and its goals and objectives than do support staff. Moreover, these individuals also perceive significantly more autonomy in the performance of their job roles than do support level employees, and this factor, evidently, considerably increases the level of job satisfaction that they experience.

The findings of this study do provide support for the theoretical constructs of Chris Argyris, which were examined in the literature review of this paper. In particular, the responses by support level respondents to many of the questions in the survey questionnaire revealed a great deal of alienation from and apathy toward the organizations of which they are members. As Argyris repeatedly states in his writings, these are inevitable reactions in individuals who are placed in organizational roles that make them passive, dependent and subordinate. Responses to the questions on the necessity for supervisory approval by

support staff respondents indicated that there is a pervasive sense of passivity and dependence among support level personnel in the organizations studied.

It is more difficult to point out ways in which the findings of the present study support or call into question the theories of Douglas McGregor, Frederick Herzberg, John Morse and Jay Lorsch or William Ouchi. No attempt was made to measure the extent to which the administrations of any of the five organizations included in the study practice the principles embodied in Theory X, Theory Y, Contingency Theory, the Motivation-Hygiene Theory or Theory Z. Therefore, any attempts to relate the findings of this empirical study to the concepts of any of these organizational theorists would be, at best, tenuous and highly conjectural. However the aforementioned finding of the study that a majority of respondents in all income levels within the organizations studied believe that the management of the organization of which they are members should change its goals does indicate that there is a low level of consistency between the goals that most individuals would prefer management to pursue and the actual goals of management in these organizations. This finding does provide some support for the theories of Argyris, McGregor, Herzberg and Ouchi regarding the less than satisfactory relationship between workers and management that characterizes most modern, bureaucratic organizations in the United States.

The study on integrative mechanisms for individual goals and organizational objectives by John Barrett was much more complex and extensive than is the present study and involved the testing of a

number of goal integration models and related mechanisms as a framework. It is difficult to draw comparisons between the study by Barrett and the present study since the former study involved the testing of hypotheses and models that, for the most part, differed from those of the present study. However, the findings in the study by Barrett that position in the hierarchy and educational level were significantly related to the level of goal integration experienced by individuals were both strongly supported by the findings of the present study. Also, the demographic variables of age and community of origin showed no relationship to the measures of goal integration used in either study. However, as noted above, tenure in the organization did show a significant positive relationship to the perception that management is building the organization in the present study. In the study by Barrett tenure showed no relationship to any of the measures of goal integration used. A number of possible explanations for tenure showing a significant positive relationship to the perception that management is building the organization in the present study were provided in the analytical section of this paper.

Finally, the hypotheses tested, as well as the objectives of the study by Victor Vroom investigating the effects that attitudes have on the perception of organizational goals were substantially different from the hypotheses tested and the objectives of the present study. The former study entailed an examination of individual attitudes toward the organization and their effects upon perceptions of organizational goals. This differs considerably from the overall objectives of this study, which chiefly concern individual perception

of the level of integration between individual goals and organizational objectives.

In conclusion, it should be noted that the present study has raised as many, if not more questions on the issue of integrating the individual and the organization than it has, perhaps, answered. The author strongly encourages other researchers to investigate these questions, in order to assist in increasing the existing levels of knowledge and understanding of the relationship between individual human beings and social organizations.

FOOTNOTE

1. Earl Babbie, The Practice of Social Research (Third Edition), Wadsworth Publishing Company, Belmont, California, A Division of Wadsworth, Inc., 1983), p.p. 502-525.

Appendix 1

Classification by variable labels of the survey questions according to the dependent variables that each is a measure of.

Dependent variable one - Individual perception of the level of integration between individual goals and organizational objectives.

1. V5 - Take work home
2. V6 - Stay after work
3. V7 - Help organization
4. V8 - Lose sleep
5. V10 - Over again
6. V12 - Outside training
7. V13 - Pay for outside training
8. V14 - Flextime
9. V15 - Maternity leave
10. V16 - Positive attitude
11. V19A to V19C - Cope with frustration
12. V21 - Criticize organization
13. V22A to V22F - Satisfied with job
14. V24 - Seek increased responsibility
15. V25 - Employee talents are used
16. V28 - Hard work personal goals
17. V30 - Proud of organization
18. V32 - Organization is serious about individual
19. V33 - Personal goals over organization
20. V34 - Personal rewards over money
21. V35 - Pay is fair
22. V37 - Opportunities to design job
23. V39 - Wages and benefits are insufficient
24. V40 - Organizational loyalty
25. V44 - Job is unpleasant
26. V45 - Work over leisure
27. V46 - Job is boring
28. V47 - Force self to work
29. V48 - Happy with job
30. V52 - Individual can get ahead
31. V54 - Know how Job fits in organization
32. V56 - Satisfied with employee benefits
33. V58 - Job is worthwhile
34. V63 - Personally satisfied with job
35. V66 - Degree of burnout
36. V68 - Use of company time
37. V69 - Organizational rewards for organizational goals

Dependent variable two - Individual perception of the role of informal work groups in the achievement of organizational objectives.

1. V20A to V20D - Activities on break
2. V22B - Satisfied with job: others
3. V36 - Good work relationships

Appendix 1 (cont.)

Dependent variable three - Individual perception of the role of informal work groups in the achievement of individual goals.

1. V9 - Talk about job
2. V38 - Work group over individual (also for dependent variable four)
3. V53 - Boss encourages teamwork

Dependent variable four - Individual perception of the relationship between administrative and supervisory personnel and support staff or professional staff in the achievement of organizational goals.

1. V11A to V11D - Discuss job performance
2. V17 - Administration invites suggestions
3. V18 - Allows individual decisions
4. V29 - Organization should change goals
5. V31 - Criticize organization freely
6. V41 - Little individual discretion
7. V42 - More individual control
8. V43 - Supervisor's approval is needed
9. V53 - Boss encourages teamwork (also for dependent variable three)
10. V57 - Layoffs are fairly done
11. V61 - Too many bosses
12. V64 - Evaluations are fair
13. V65 - Promotions are fair (also used for dependent variable five)
14. V67 - Pressures on the job

Dependent variable five - Individual perception of the relationship between administrative and supervisory personnel and support staff or professional staff in the individual's pursuit of personal goals.

1. V22D - Satisfied with job: Recognition
2. V27A to V27C - Organization handles frustration
3. V49 - Supervisor is self-interested
4. V50 - Management is building organization
5. V51 - Management encourages suggestions
6. V59 - No respect for workers
7. V60 - Supervisors don't understand
8. V65 - Promotions are fair (also used for dependent variable four)

Appendix 2

Sources of questions on survey questionnaire.

1. Miller, Delbert C. Handbook of Research Design and Social Measurement. David McKay Company, Inc., New York, 1977.
 - A. from page 286 - question 43.
 - B. from page 370 - questions 44 to 48.
 - C. from page 359 - questions 49 to 52.
 - D. from page 360 - questions 52 to 53.
 - E. from page 361 - questions 54 to 56.
 - F. from page 362 - questions 57 to 58.

2. Poole, Eric D.; Regoli, Robert M. "Professionalism, Role Conflict, Work Alienation and Anomia: A Look at Prison Management." The Social Science Journal, Vol. 20, No. 1, (January, 1983), 63-70.
 - A. from page 69 - questions 59 to 61.

3. Olson, Sheldon R. Ideas and Data: The Process and Practice of Social Research. The Dorsey Press, Homewood, Illinois, 60430, 1976.
 - A. from page 429 - question 71.
 - B. from page 435 - question 72.
 - C. from page 432 - questions 73 to 77.
 - D. from page 472 - questions 78 to 81.

Instructions for Answering Questionnaire

In this questionnaire you will be asked many questions about your job and the organization you work for. It is being given to you and other employees at this agency in order to obtain information for a study about the way you and other employees see your jobs and the organization you work for.

Questions 1, 2 and 3 are open-ended questions. They are questions that ask for written answers from you. Please keep each of your answers as brief and to the point as you can, using the spaces provided on the page.

Questions 4 through 72 are all to be answered in one of two ways:

1. For the questions having an answering format with a scale from 1 to 10, simply circle the number that is closest to the way you feel or believe about the question. For example:

Not Important			Somewhat Important				Very Important		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

2. For all other questions, simply put a check in the space () provided by the response that is closest the way you feel or believe about the questions. For example:

Most of Time	Sometimes	Hardly Ever	Never
()	()	()	()

or

Yes	No	Not Sure
()	()	()

The last 11 questions ask for information about your background. The purpose for this information is to get an idea of who you are and what you do on your job.

After you answer all of the questions, please return the questionnaire to the person who gave it to you. The questionnaire is anonymous, so do not write your name on it.

1. We hear a great deal about the goals of organizations these days. For example, the goals of increasing productivity, quality, efficiency and effectiveness. What do you think the goals of this organization are from the directors' or the administration's point of view? (List 2 to 3 of them). Rate each of these goals in importance, as you see them, on a scale of 1 to 10, by circling the appropriate number.

a. Goal 1: _____ 5-6/99

<u>Not Important</u>			<u>Somewhat Important</u>				<u>Very Important</u>		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

b. Goal 2: _____ 7-8/99

<u>Not Important</u>			<u>Somewhat Important</u>				<u>Very Important</u>		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

c. Goal 3: _____ 9-10/99

<u>Not Important</u>			<u>Somewhat Important</u>				<u>Very Important</u>		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

2. What are the goals of this organization from your point of view? (List 2 to 3 of them). Rate each of these goals in importance, as you see them, on a scale from 1 to 10, by circling the appropriate number.

a. Goal 1: _____ 11-12/99

<u>Not Important</u>			<u>Somewhat Important</u>				<u>Very Important</u>		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

b. Goal 2: _____ 13-14/99

<u>Not Important</u>			<u>Somewhat Important</u>				<u>Very Important</u>		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

c. Goal 3: _____ 15-16/99

<u>Not Important</u>			<u>Somewhat Important</u>				<u>Very Important</u>		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

3. What are your own personal work related goals? (List 2 to 3 of them).
Rate each of these goals in importance to you on a scale from 1 to 10.

a. Goal 1: _____

17-18/99

<u>Not Important</u>			<u>Somewhat Important</u>				<u>Very Important</u>		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

b. Goal 2: _____

19-20/99

<u>Not Important</u>			<u>Somewhat Important</u>				<u>Very Important</u>		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

c. Goal 3: _____

21-22/99

<u>Not Important</u>			<u>Somewhat Important</u>				<u>Very Important</u>		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

4. Do you consider your job to be: _____ PROFESSIONAL (for example, psychologist, social worker, consultant, etc.) 23/9
 _____ SUPPORT LEVEL (for example, secretary, nurses aide, housekeeper, etc.)
 _____ MANAGERIAL, ADMINISTRATIVE (for example, manager, administrator, director, etc.)

5. Do you ever take your work home with you? 24/9

<u>Most of the Time</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Hardly Ever</u>	<u>Never</u>
()	()	()	()

6. Do you ever stay at work after hours, discussing work related matters with others? 25/9

<u>Most of the Time</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Hardly Ever</u>	<u>Never</u>
()	()	()	()

7. Do you work extra hard when necessary or "go the extra mile" to help this organization achieve its goals and objectives? 26/9

<u>Most of the Time</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Hardly Ever</u>	<u>Never</u>
()	()	()	()

8.	Do you often lose sleep at night because of frustration related to your job?					27/9
	<u>Most of the Time</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Hardly Ever</u>	<u>Never</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>	
	()	()	()	()	()	
9.	While on the job, I very often find myself talking with groups of people about my job.					28/9
	<u>Most of the Time</u>	<u>Sometimes</u>	<u>Hardly Ever</u>	<u>Never</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>	
	()	()	()	()	()	
10.	If you had it all to do over again, would you take a job with this organization?	Yes	No	Not Sure		29/9
		()	()	()		
11.	We all have certain jobs and tasks to perform while at work. Would you say that the administration:					30/9
	a. Discusses many ways to improve your job performance with you?	Yes	No	Not Sure		
		()	()	()		
	b. Discusses a fair number of ways to improve your job performance with you?	Yes	No	Not Sure		31/9
		()	()	()		
	c. Hardly ever discusses ways to improve your job performance with you?	Yes	No	Not Sure		32/9
		()	()	()		
	d. Never discusses your overall job performance with you?	Yes	No	Not Sure		33/9
		()	()	()		
12.	Does this organization allow its employees to take outside training, workshops, etc.	Yes	No	Don't Know		34/9
		()	()	()		
13.	If so, does this organization pay its employees for outside training, workshops, etc.	Yes	No	Don't Know		35/9
		()	()	()		
14.	Is this organization flexible in scheduling your paid hours of work? For example, can you change your hours around so that you can take a course and continue your education?	Yes	No	Don't Know		36/9
		()	()	()		
15.	(If you are female), will this organization let you go on maternity leave?	Yes	No	Don't Know		37/9
		()	()	()		

16.	Generally, my fellow workers have a positive attitude toward this organization, as opposed to a negative attitude.	<u>Very Negative</u>				<u>Somewhat Positive</u>			<u>Very Positive</u>	38-39/99	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
17.	In this organization, does the administration or the director invite your comments and suggestions when planning new programs and ways of doing things?	<u>Never</u>				<u>Sometimes</u>			<u>Most of the Time</u>	40-41/99	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
18.	Does the administration or the director of this organization allow you, as individual employees or as groups, to make decisions within areas that you are skilled in?	<u>Never</u>				<u>Sometimes</u>			<u>Most of the Time</u>	42-43/99	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
19.	Here are some ways that people use to cope with frustration on the job. On a scale from 1 to 10 which ones are most typical of you?										
a.	Accept dissatisfaction as inevitable and learn to live with it.	<u>Not Typical</u>				<u>Somewhat Typical</u>			<u>Very Typical</u>	44-45/99	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
b.	By getting involved with small, informal work groups.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
											46-47/99
c.	By becoming indifferent and non-involved.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
											48-49/99
20.	On a scale from 1 to 10, what are the most likely things you would do while on break?										
a.	Eat lunch with a group of people	<u>Never</u>				<u>Somewhat Likely</u>			<u>Very Likely</u>	50-51/99	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
b.	Eat by myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
											52-53/99
c.	Chat with others during a break.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
											54-55/99
d.	Prefer to take care of personal business matters or read a book while on break.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
											56-57/99
21.	I criticize this organization when I am with people who are my friends or relatives.	<u>Never</u>				<u>Somewhat Often</u>			<u>Very Often</u>	58-59/99	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
22.	When I am satisfied with my job it is because I:										
a.	Get monetary rewards.	<u>Not Important</u>				<u>Somewhat Important</u>			<u>Very Important</u>	60-61/99	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
b.	Get support from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
											62-63/99
c.	Feel that I am achieving personal goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
											64-65/99

con't)	<u>Not Important</u>			<u>Somewhat Important</u>				<u>Very Important</u>			
d. Get recognition from superiors.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	66-67/99
e. Know it is important to the achievement of the organization's goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	68-69/99
f. Know that I can advance and get promotions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	70-71/99
3. What best describes the way you solve problems in this organization?											
	<u>Does Not Describe</u>			<u>Somewhat Describes</u>				<u>Best Describes</u>			
a. By analyzing the root cause of the problem and then dealing with it.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	72-73/99
b. By becoming defensive. That is, to criticize the people who point out our problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	74-75/99
4. I feel that I look for challenging goals and increased responsibility in this organization.											
	<u>Never</u>			<u>Somewhat</u>				<u>Very Much So</u>			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	76-77/99
5. Are the talents and skills of employees utilized fully by this organization?											
	<u>Never</u>			<u>Somewhat</u>				<u>Very Much So</u>			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	78-79/99
6. The following is a list of activities from which you may get enjoyment. Rate each of them on a scale from 1 to 10.											
	<u>Enjoy Least</u>					<u>Enjoy Most</u>					Deck 02
a. Vacation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1-3 10
b. Outdoor Sports	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	4/2 card
c. Cleaning the Yard	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	05-06/99
d. Your job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	07-08/99
e. Watching TV	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	09-10/99
f. Being with family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11-12/99
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	13-14/99
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	15-16/99
7. What are the typical ways that this organization deals with employee frustration?											
	<u>Not Typical</u>			<u>Somewhat Typical</u>				<u>Very Typical</u>			
a. Increasing the amount of supervision over employees.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	17-18/99
b. Making the formal rules and regulations stricter and better spelled out.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	19-20/99
c. Giving in-service training on "Communications", "Human Relations", etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	21-22/99

For the following questions, please circle the correct abbreviations for the words Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Strongly Disagree.

- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|---|----|---|----|---|----|------|
| 28. | I work very hard on my job because doing so helps me achieve my own personal goals. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 23/9 |
| 29. | The people who run this organization should change their goals and do things differently. For example, they should change from stressing efficiency to stressing quality. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 24/9 |
| 30. | Generally, I am proud to let people know that I work for this organization. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 25/9 |
| 31. | In this organization, I feel free to offer healthy criticisms about the organization and the way things are run to people over me. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 26/9 |
| 32. | This organization takes the needs of individual employees very seriously. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 27/9 |
| 33. | People in this organization are overly interested in goals that benefit themselves, as opposed to goals that benefit the organization. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 28/9 |
| 34. | I base my job satisfaction less on money and more on personal rewards such as knowing I'm doing a good job and helping others. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 29/9 |
| 35. | The pay I receive is a fair wage, given the time and energy I put into my job. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 30/9 |
| 36. | The opportunity for good working relationships with others on the job is about what I expected here. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 31/9 |
| 37. | In my particular job, this organization gives the individual a great deal of opportunity to design the nature and content of the job role. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 32/9 |
| 38. | In the kind of work I do in this organization, tightly knit work groups permit a much higher level of efficiency and/or accuracy in getting the work done than does an equal number of employees working alone. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 33/9 |
| 39. | The wages and benefits I obtain from my job are <u>not</u> sufficient in and of themselves to motivate me to work hard. | SA | A | UD | D | SD | 34/9 |

(con't)

40.	People should be more loyal to the organization and not leave it merely because they are offered a better paying job elsewhere.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	35/9
41.	In the kind of work I do on my job, people perform better when job related tasks and requirements are specifically given from above and little discretion is left up to the individual in the performance of his job.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	36/9
42.	In the kind of work I do in my job, people perform better when each individual has more control over his job and is able to take part in decision making related to his/her job and its contribution to the organization.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	37/9
43.	There can be little action taken on my job until a supervisor approves a decision.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	38/9
44.	I consider my job rather unpleasant.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	39/9
45.	I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	40/9
46.	I am often bored with my job.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	41/9
47.	Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	42/9
48.	I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	43/9
49.	My supervisor is too interested in his/her own success to care about the needs of employees.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	44/9
50.	Management here is really trying to build the organization and make it successful.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	45/9
51.	Management encourages us to make suggestions for improvements here.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	46/9
52.	There are plenty of good jobs here for those who want to get ahead.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	47/9
53.	My boss gets employees to work together as a team.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	48/9
54.	I know how my job fits in with other work in this organization.	SA	A	UD	D	SD	49/9

n't)

I have plenty of opportunity on the job to use my own judgment. SA A UD D SD 50/9

I'm satisfied with the way employee benefits are handled here. SA A UD D SD 51/9

When layoffs are necessary, they are handled fairly. SA A UD D SD 52/9

I'm really doing something worthwhile in my job. SA A UD D SD 53/9

The people in charge here never seem to respect those who do the day to day work. SA A UD D SD 54/9

One of the problems here is that the people in charge don't really understand what the average worker has to face each day. SA A UD D SD 55/9

There are so many people telling us what to do here that you never can be sure who the real boss is. SA A UD D SD 56/9

This organization is strongly committed to its goals and objectives. SA A UD D SD 57/9

Are you personally satisfied with your job?

Very Satisfied Satisfied Somewhat Satisfied Dissatisfied Undecided 58/9
() () () () ()

Concerning the evaluation of workers, do you feel that the evaluations given in this organization are generally fair, or are they biased and unfair?

Generally Fair Generally Unfair Don't Know 59/9
() () ()

Do you feel that the supervisors are fair in the way that they promote people in this organization, based on achievement standards?

Very Fair Fair Unfair Very Unfair Don't Know 60/9
() () () () ()

If there are signs of apathy and "burnout" in this organization, to what degree do you think the problem exists?

0 to 10% 10 to 30% 30 to 50% 60 to 80% 90 to 100% Don't Know 61/9
() () () () () ()

67. Does anyone having authority over you at work ever talk to you about the need to do more, or do a better job?

<u>Every Day</u>	<u>At Least Once a Week</u>	<u>Once or Twice A Month</u>	<u>A Few Times A year</u>	<u>Never</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>
()	()	()	()	()	()

62/9

68. Do people in this organization use "Company Time" to further their own interests?

<u>A Great Deal</u>	<u>To Some Extent</u>	<u>Very Little</u>	<u>Never</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>
()	()	()	()	()

63/9

69. This organization rewards people for pursuing organizational, rather than personal interests while on the job.

<u>A Great Deal</u>	<u>To Some Extent</u>	<u>Very Little</u>	<u>Never</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>
()	()	()	()	()

64/9

70. My job offers plenty of opportunities for seeking the attainment of:

a. Challenging goals

<u>Very many</u>	<u>A fair number</u>	<u>Very few</u>	<u>None</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>
()	()	()	()	()

65/9

b. Self esteem

<u>Very many</u>	<u>A fair number</u>	<u>Very few</u>	<u>None</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>
()	()	()	()	()

66/9

c. Responsibility

<u>Very many</u>	<u>A fair number</u>	<u>Very few</u>	<u>None</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>
()	()	()	()	()

67/9

d. Recognition from superiors

<u>Very many</u>	<u>A fair number</u>	<u>Very few</u>	<u>None</u>	<u>Don't Know</u>
()	()	()	()	()

68/9

71. Which of the following categories comes closest to the type of place you were living in when you were 16 years old?

69/9

- In open country but not on a farm.
- On a farm.
- In a small city or town (under 50,000).
- In a medium size city (50,000-250,000).
- In a suburb near a large city.
- In a large city (over 250,000).

(con't)

72. Are you currently--married, widowed, separated, or have you never been married? 70/9

Married
 Widowed
 Divorced
 Separated
 Never married

73. What is the highest grade in elementary school or high school that you finished and got credit for? 71-72/99

No formal school
 1st grade
 2nd grade
 3rd grade
 4th grade
 5th grade
 6th grade
 7th grade
 8th grade
 9th grade
 10th grade
 11th grade
 12th grade

74. If you finished 9th - 12th grades.

A. Did you get a high school diploma or GED certificate? 73/9
 Yes No

B. Did you ever complete one or more years of college for credit not including schooling such as business college, technical or vocational school? 74/9
 Yes No

75. If yes: How many years did complete? 75/9

1 year
 2 years
 3 years
 4 years
 5 years
 6 years
 7 years
 8+ years

76. Do you have a college degree? 76/9
 Yes No

77. If yes: What degree or degrees? 77/9

Junior college
 Bachelor's
 Graduate

(con't)

78. What is your current income?

78-79/ 99

- 1,000 to 2,999
- 3,000 to 3,999
- 4,000 to 4,999
- 5,000 to 5,999
- 6,000 to 6,999
- 7,000 to 7,999
- 8,000 to 8,999
- 9,000 to 9,999
- 10,000 to 14,999
- 15,000 to 19,999
- 20,000 to 24,999
- 25,000 or over
- Don't know

Deck 03
1-3 ID
4/3 Card
5/9

79. In what year were you born? _____

80. Sex: Male _____ Female _____

6/9

81. How long have you worked here?

- | | | |
|---|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Less than 1 year | <input type="checkbox"/> 11 years | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1 year | <input type="checkbox"/> 12 years | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 13 years | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 3 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 14 years | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 4 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 15 years | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 5 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 16 years | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 6 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 17 years | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 7 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 18 years | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 8 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 19 years | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 9 years | <input type="checkbox"/> 20 years | |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 10 years | <input type="checkbox"/> More than 20 years | |

7-8/99

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