EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL DECISION MAKING AND ACCEPTANCE OF PLANNED CHANGE

Thesis for the Degree of Ph. D. MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY SHAN-PANG YIEN 1970





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ABSTRACT

EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL DECISION MAKING AND ACCEPTANCE OF PLANNED CHANGE

By

Shan-pang Yien

This study explores some of the social psychological factors that might account for member acceptance of planned change within a formal organization. The field research was conducted in a local bank which provided state-wide credit card services. The questionnaire was the major instrument for data collection.

Acceptance of organizational planned change was predicted to be affected and modified by variables concerning personal data items, personality determinants and organizational perceptions. Psychological and objective participation were examined along with role perception, group cohesiveness, perceived supervisors' attitudes to change, perceived self-competence, etc.

The findings showed that the criterion was accounted for more by <u>institutional</u> variables than by personal data or personality determinants. These imply that participative control should not be overemphasized in securing change acceptance unless the relevant social as well as psychological elements are taken into consideration.

EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL DECISION MAKING AND ACCEPTANCE OF PLANNED CHANGE

Ву

Shan-pang Yien

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CHAPTER T

EMPLOYEE PARTICIPATION IN ORGANIZATIONAL DECISION MAKING AND ACCEPTANCE OF PLANNED CHANGE

Introduction

I. The Problem

Because of pressures from competition, or from other forces within or without, challenging an organization to develop new methods to cope with ever-changing and complicated environments, it is conceivable that any modern organization is constantly facing change. Creative changes, as Faulhaber (1967) contends, become most potent organizational strategic resources and will be the only exercises that keep an organization in a state of competitive leadership and superiority.

In most organizations, there are subsystems called "Research & Development" which are primarily concerned with sensing relevant and important changes in the outside world, and translating the meaning of changes for the whole organization. When a set-up of a new program or discontinuity of an existing one is considered necessary and inevitable, the immediate concern of top management is how to put it into effect. However, their endeavor sometimes fails to elicit expected change results because they neglect to devote some of their communication to changing the attitudes and actions of the personnel in the organization.

For instance, Coch and French (1948) reported that one of the serious problems faced at the Harwood Corporation (manufacturing pajamas) was the resistance of the production workers to the necessary changes in methods and jobs. Analogously, Agnew and Hsu (1966) found that forces of resistance came from both hospital personnel and the patients when a new clothing policy was being introduced in a mental hospital.

Agnew and Hsu attributed these forces of resistance to the following two reasons: (1) Change of any consequence is likely to require some shift in habits to which the individuals involved have been accustomed, and (2) any change in one of its component parts is likely to require or result in alternation or rearrangement of other parts. Both of these tend to be painful or troublesome to the individuals involved. The authors further contended that resistant forces could be reduced to a great extent if a meeting or meetings were provided in which the purpose of the change and the method to carry out the change were discussed by the people involved.

March and Simon (1958) point out that, theoretically, individuals and organizations give preferred treatment to alternatives that represent continuity of present programs over those that represent change. Persistence or program continuity comes about primarily because the individual or organization does not deliberately look for or consider alternatives to the present course of action unless the present course of action is unsatisfactory.

Some of the implications resulting from the above discussion are that any organization and its members prefer program continuity; that communication within organizations is for maintaining equilibrium, and that changes, if necessary and inevitable, tend to be planned rather than unplanned.

Our focus is not on whether an organization out to prefer changes or stick with the old ways, as no organization can afford to have constant changes or no change at all if it intends to keep good quality as well as traditional dependability. Rather, the attention is on the role of organizational communication in the process of introducing planned change. Organizational researchers have indicated that member participation in decision making is highly associated with organizational efficiency and member satisfaction. If this is the case, we speculate that member participation, because of its high psychological reward to the members involved, should be also associated with the employee's acceptance of planned change.

II. Research on Member Participation

Communication in organizations has been an interesting subject to draw the attention of both communication researchers and organizational scholars since Barnard (1938) discussed the importance of communication in organizational theory. However, most of the research writings have been published by organizational researchers rather than communication scientists. As a result of this organizational approach, efforts have been made to relate different patterns of communication

systems to varying degrees of organizational effectiveness. Some of the examples resulting from this "utilitarian" approach are Tannenbaum (1956), Tannenbaum and Georgopoulos (1957), and Smith et al. (1964). These researchers suggest that a system of high mutual influence (high amount of control exercised by both leaders and members) and multi-directional communication is conducive to effective organizational performance.

Based upon this line of reasoning, a number of field experiments (Seashore and Bowers, 1963; Likert, 1961 & 1967; Smith and Jones, 1968, and Marrow et al., 1967) have been conducted to test the theory of participative management, and their findings seem to indicate that member participation, among many other things, results in effective organizational performance.

The concept of member participation within organizational context involves at least two things: communication structure and control structure. The participative approach, some modifications of the traditional system of control that give the rank and file some say in matters that affect them on the job, is believed effective in creating a work environment that is more rewarding psychologically to organization members (Tannenbaum, 1966). However, member participation does not necessarily increase productivity, one of the major concerns of most profit-making organizations.

For instance, Morse and Reimer (1949) conducted an experiment that posed quite a different problem. Their experiment took place in a department employing approximately five hundred clerical workers

and four levels of supervision. The department was composed of four divisions, which were precisely parallel in type of work performed. Under the "autonomy program," an attempt was made to place a greater amount of control in the hands of the rank and file, delegating to lower levels some of the decision-making authority of the higher levels. Under the "hierarchical program," the control exercised by upper levels was increased in the other two divisions. Decisions and policies were initiated at upper levels and passed down the line.

The authors expected to find the autonomy program superior to the hierarchical one in terms of productivity and the psychological adjustments of the employees. The results, however, did not conform entirely to their predictions. It was found that in the participative divisions, the clerks' feelings of self-actualization on the job and their general sense of satisfaction with the company increased, whereas the clerks in the hierarchical program experienced an opposite reaction. Company productivity records showed significant improvement in both groups.

Although member satisfaction may not necessarily be associated with productivity and high levels of productivity can be achieved in many different ways (Bass, 1965), it seems to be safe to generate the statement that when the employees' feelings of self-actualization on the job and their sense of satisfaction with the organization increases as a result of participation, their resistance to change introduced by top management will tend to be reduced to a great extent.

However, the relationship exists between employee participation in organizational decision making and acceptance of planned change is not as straightforward as assumed. Lowin (1968), among many others, indicates that the effectiveness of participative decision making is subject to both the structure of actor motives and the opportunity the environment provides or does not provide for motive attainment. Therefore, it is clear that to explore the effects of participative control on members' acceptance of change in a given organization, such actor motives as personality determinants and personal data are no less important than the opportunity the organization provides for motive attainment.

III. Scope of the Study

The scope of the study is two fold: (a) to relate member participation to acceptance of change; and (b) to determine the proportion of the variance accounted for by personality determinants, personal data items and other institutional variables in addition to psychological and objective participation.

Participative decision making was first discussed by Lewin (1947). Since then this concept has been interchangeably used with member participation, or simple participation. For instance, participation is defined as the degree to which members of a social system are involved in decision-making process (Rogers and Shoemaker, 1967); participation is a process of joint decision making by two or more parties in which the decisions have future effects on those

making them (Vroom, 1960), and participation is a mode of organizational operations in which decisions as to activities are arrived at by the very persons who are to execute those decisions (Lowin, 1968).

In this study, participative decision making is defined as an organizational decision-making process in which the employee exercises his control in arriving at, or helping to arrive at, some decisions in which he will be involved in carrying out.

Operationally defined, it is the extent to which the employee either actually exercises or psychologically exercises his influence in relevant decision-making activities.

As it is possible to find in any organization people who think they have much say on decision making and people who do have a great amount of influence on decision making, the concept of participative decision making is conceptualized as shown in the following paradigm.

Explication of Participative Decision Making

Town of	Objective Participation	Psychological Participation		
Form of Involvement	Physical partici- pation	Psychological participation		
Relevance	Participate to be informed, to vote and to make decision	Perceived legitimacy of participation		
Control/ Influence	Amount of control one exercises on decision making	Perceived range of decision making		

Psychological participation is the state in which an individual psychologically exercises his influence in relevant decisionmaking activities. Thus, we say an employee is psychologically participating in decision making if he <u>feels</u> he has some say on what is going on around him. The more he feels, the higher his psychological participation.

Psychological participation differs from objective participation in the sense that the latter refers to the <u>actual</u> amount of influence an individual has on decision-making activities. We say that an employee is objectively participating in decision making when his exercise of influence in a meeting helps shape or arrive at some kind of decision. Thus, physical attendance is the first characteristic that distinguishes objective from psychological participation.

Secondly, psychological participation is different from objective participation in the aspect of participation relevance. Psychological participation is characterized by perception of participation legitimacy, the degree to which participation is legitimized by societal norms and values. For example, a department supervisor perceives that it is legitimate for him to have some say in whether a particular employee should be promoted or not, whereas he might not expect to be consulted about the hiring of a new employee.

The notion of participation legitimacy also accounts for the reasons an employee attends decision-making activities. Sometimes,

an individual is there only to get information; and, sometimes, the attendance helps make or shape the making of a new decision. In short, considering objective participation, participation legitimacy may refer to attendance to be informed of a new policy, attendance to discuss the implementation of a new program, or attendance to make a new decision.

Finally, in terms of the exercise of influence in decision, psychological participation refers to the individual's perception of the range of decisions over which participation is considered, whereas objective participation means the actual amount of influence the individual has exercised on decision-making activities.

As cited previously, Coch and French (1948) contend that participative control creates a work environment that is psychologically favorable to the adoption of changes and Agnew and Hsu (1966) point out that member participation speeds up the adoption of an innovation (staff meetings on introducing a new clothing policy in a mental hospital resulted in less resistance found among the hospital personnel), both psychological and objective participation are investigated in this study. Nevertheless, it is not the purpose of this study to investigate the possible discrepancy between members' psychological and objective participation though Vroom (1960) points out that such a phenomenon is almost always conceivable because a formal organization is a special setting in which members are subject to both organizational structure and control.

On relating participation to one's attitudes toward job and over-all job performance, Vroom (1960) found that such personality determinants as authoritarianism and need for independence may intervene with the otherwise simple and apparent association between participation and job satisfaction. (Participation has a more positive effect on the attitudes of those with strong independence needs; participation is more satisfying to low than high authoritarians.)

In addition to personality determinants, it was found that the employees' response to change may include differences among the employees in their readiness for change and the history of the management of change in a given organization (Jacobson et al., 1962), differences in their social status and organizational positions (Faunce, 1960) as well as differences in sex, group membership, perceived supervisor-subordinate relationship and perceived self-competence (Trumbo, 1961).

We will call an individual's predispositions the antecedent variables and label the ones derived from his surrounding environments, the contextual variables. The following table represents the scope of the study.

Table 1. List of Variables

	endent Variables bles Contextual	Variables	Dependent Variable
Age		Length of Employment	
Sex		_	
Education Background	Psychological Participation	Group Cohesiveness	Acceptance of Planned Change
Readiness to Change		Perceived Supervisor's Attitudes to Change	Tarred Glarge
Authori- tarianism	Objective Participation	Perceived Supervisor-	
Need for Independence		subordinate Relationship	
Perceived Self- Competence		Role Perception	on

IV. Rationale and Hypotheses

Based upon the discussion that psychological participation can be intrinsically satisfying and that objective participation promotes employees' feelings of self-actualization and their satisfaction with the company, it is predicted that member participation associates positively with acceptance of planned change. More specifically, the greater the extent an individual feels he has influence and/or control over organizational decision making, the more the likelihood that he shows positive response to planned change. Similarly, the greater the amount of influence an individual exercises in the process of decision making, the higher the possibility that he is to welcome the decision.

H₁: Psychological participation correlates positively with acceptance of change.

H₂: Objective participation correlates positively with acceptance of change.

However, as the scope of the study points out that the individual's predispositions and his surrounding environments can also affect one's response to change, we are interested not only in knowing how member participation is related to acceptance of change, but in exploring the variables which may either increase or decrease the predictability of acceptance of change from participation. For example, Trumbo (1961) found that, within an organization, female workers were less receptive to change than male workers. Thus, sex may decrease the predictability of acceptance of change from participation in an organization which is mainly composed of female workers even though the employees are provided with the opportunity to participate in decision-making activities.

Analogously, by virture of the fact that work-related change requires extra effort from the people involved and that change oftentimes disturbs the existing system, it is assumed that younger employees should be more open to change than older ones and that junior employees should show less resistance than senior employees. Therefore, in terms of such individual predispositions as sex, age and length of employment, we hypothesize that:

H₃: In an organization which is mainly composed of male workers, sex correlates positively with acceptance of change; whereas in an organization which is mainly composed of female workers, sex correlates negatively with acceptance of change.

H₄: Employee's age correlates negatively with acceptance of change; i.e., the older the employee, the less the acceptance of change.

H₅: Length of employment correlates negatively with acceptance of change; i.e., the longer the employment in the organization, the less the acceptance of change.

Work-related change also requires a certain amount of formal education to cope with the re-training caused by either discontinuity of an existing program or the beginning of a new one. Formal education is important in the sense that it not only provides an individual with more insight into the necessity of change, but it also makes him more receptive to change. Trumbo (1961), for example, found a positive relationship between amount of education and attitudes toward change. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H₆: Education correlates positively with acceptance of change; the higher the education, the more the acceptance of change.

At the level of the individual employee, such personality determinants as readiness to change, need for independence, authoritarianism, and self-perceived competence are no less important than his personal data items in account for his response to change.

Jacobson et al., (1959) argue that one important aspect of employee adjustment to technical change is the way in which the employee experiences the change. The more one experiences, the more he is psychologically ready for change of similar nature. When an individual is psychologically ready, he will not consider

change as a threat and thus is more likely to welcome it.

H₇: Readiness to change correlates positively with acceptance of change; the higher the readiness to change, the more the acceptance of change.

Need for independence and authoritarianism are two of the personality determinants which have been found to affect the effectiveness of participation. Participation, according to Vroom (1960), has a more positive effect on the attitudes of those with strong independence needs and is more satisfying to low than than high authoritarians.

However, within an organization context it is common to find some people who like to get their jobs done without constant instruction and close supervision, whereas some people react oppositely. Relevant literature has pointed out that employees who prefer autonomy programs have strong independence needs and those who feel inclined to hierarchical programs have less need for independence (Vroom, 1960; Agnew and Hsu, 1966).

It is assumed that detailed instruction and close supervision almost always follow planned change in a formal organization, it seems legitimate to say that for those employees with strong independence needs change tends to challenge their feelings of self-reliance as they will be given instruction constantly and be supervised closely.

H₈: Need for independence correlates negatively with acceptance of change; i.e., the stronger the independence needs, the less the acceptance of change.

Conversely, on relating authoritarianism to acceptance of change, we predict that employees with high authoritarianism are more receptive to change than low authoritarians.

In this study, authoritarianism is the personality pattern associated with excessive respect for and obedience to authority, admiration for power, toughness and aggression. As it is assumed that high authoritarian people tend to be overly conscious of distinction of status in their interpersonal relations and are contempuous or exploitative toward those of lower status (Deutsch and Krauss, 1955), we expect high authoritarians to accept planned change without questioning the details as long as it comes from top management. Of course, since participation is more satisfying to low than high authoritarians, low authoritarians may welcome change more than high authoritarians in an organization where participative control is highly practiced.

Based upon participant observation that participative control was not widely practiced in the organization under investigation, we hypothesize that:

Hg: Authoritarianism correlates positively with acceptance of change; i.e., more acceptance of change is expected from high than low authoritarians.

Another personality determinant which is assumed to be related to an individual's acceptance of change within an organizational contextual is his self-perceived competence.

As a result of comparing his own abilities and opinions with other employees (the notion of self-evaluation) and comparing his own ideals with his achievement (the notion of self-esteem), an individual may differ from others in terms of his participative activities and response toward change. Cohen (1959), for instance, points out that persons of low self-esteem (greater discrepancies between his ideals and achievement), tend to be less active in attempting to exert influence.

By the same token, we may expect that persons with low selfperceived competence tend to resist change of any nature simply because of the fear that they are unable to readjust. Therefore, on relating perceived self-competence to an individual's response toward change, we hypothesize that:

H₁₀: Self-perceived competence correlates positively with acceptance of change; i.e., the higher the self-perceived competence, the more the acceptance of change.

So far we have been concerned with acceptance of change at an individual employee's level. At the level of organizational context, such variables as role perception, group cohesiveness, perceived supervisor's attitudes toward change and perceived supervisor-subordinate relationship are assumed to influence employees' acceptance of change.

One of the many approaches to analyze a complex organization is to see it as having a fabric of roles that constitutes the structure of the organization (Weiss and Jacobson, 1955). This approach

is considered appropriate to this study as it assumes that the elements of organizational structure are role relationships. Member participation is one of the activities based upon such relationships. Also, in most formal organizations the structure tends to remain unchanged despite the fact that changes may occur in terms of personnel or techniques.

Cohen (1965) applies the term role to situations in which the prescriptions for interaction are culturally defined and are independent of the particular personal relationships which may otherwise exist between persons occupying the positions. Analogously, Rommetveit (1955), and Thibaut and Kelley (1959) conceptualize "subjective role" as a set of specific expectations the occupant of a position perceives as applicable to his own behavior when he interacts with the occupants of some other positions.

Role perception is more appropriate than status position in describing an employee's behavior within a given organization, as position may only refer to one's formal status but role perception reflects the activities based upon both formal status and such other things as seniority, familiarity with operations, access to organizational information, etc.

For example, A and B are supervisors of two departments, but as a result of A's seniority, B may still consult with A when difficulties come up and he wants to make no mistakes. In terms of position, A and B are equal in supervisory position, yet the role A plays tends to be broader then B's. By the same token, two

rank-and-file employees may differ from each other for the roles they play. One may be working completely within his own department, and the other may be in contact with members of other departments on the basis of task necessity (the notion of liaison personnel discussed by Weiss and Jacobson, 1955, and Schwartz, 1968).

To better explain the activities of the employees in this organization, role perception is thus used to substitute for status position, and we define role perception by asking our respondents to classify themselves as: (1) rank-and-file; (2) liaison personnel between nonsupervisory and supervisory employees; (3) supervisory personnel; (4) linkage between supervisory personnel and the officers, and (5) the officers.

Under the assumptions that role perception is positively related to organizational information (the broader the role, the more the information) and that organizational information justifies the necessity of change (change is to increase productivity or to cope with the external demands), we hypothesize that:

H₁₁: Role perception correlates positively with acceptance of change; i.e., more acceptance of change is expected from the employees with high than low role perception.

Other contextual variables which are assumed to determine an employee's acceptance of change are group cohesiveness, perceived supervisor-subordinate relationship.

Deutsch (1949) related group cohesiveness to the degree of perceived cooperative interdependence among group members, and to the strength of goals about which the members are cooperatively interdependent. To the extent that an individual perceives high group cohesiveness, he is more likely to perceive opportunities of participating in decision making.

However, group cohesiveness was found negatively related to attitudes toward change (Trumbo, 1961). It was interpreted that change posed a threat to the satisfaction of social needs through informal social structure. Thus, we hypothesize that group cohesiveness is negatively associated with acceptance of change, despite the fact that it is positively related to member participation.

H₁₂: Group cohesiveness correlates negatively with acceptance of change; the higher the group cohesiveness, the less the acceptance of change.

As planned change usually comes from people on the top, it is assumed that an employee's perceived supervisor-subordinate relationship determines his response toward change. Perceived supervisor-subordinate relationship is important in the sense that the greater the psychological distance experienced by the subordinate, the less he will feel he has been consulted regarding the change, and, in turn, the less the likelihood that he will accept such change.

H₁₃: Perceived supervisor-subordinate relationship correlates positively with acceptance of change; i.e., the closer the relationship, the more the acceptance of change.

Finally, it is assumed that when supervisors show their favorable responses to the change introduced, they tend to create a

social climate that will reduce their subordinates' overt resistance to change (trumbo, 1961). An individual's perception regarding his supervisor's attitudes toward change is thus expected to affect his own response to change.

H₁₄: Perceived supervisors' attitudes toward change correlates positively with acceptance of change; i.e., the more favorable the perceived attitudes, the greater the amount of acceptance of change.

V. Investigation at the Level of Multivariate Analyses

The above hypotheses have been chiefly concerned with the simple associations between acceptance of change and each of the variable assumed to have influence on an individual's response toward change. Significant findings from these tests will not only tell us that the prediction of change acceptance are attainable from these variables, but point out that acceptance of change is not unidimensional.

For illustration, supposing that acceptance of change is found significantly associated with psychological and objective participation, length of formal education, role perception and group cohesiveness, then it is quite legitimate to interpret that amount of formal education, degrees of role perception and group cohesiveness are as good predictors as psychological and objective participation for the criterion.

Multivariate analysis will be used to examine whether the inclusion and/or elimination of an individual's personal data items, his personality determinants and relevant institutional factors

affect psychological and objective participation in predicting an employee's amount of change acceptance.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

In investigations of participative control and its effectiveness, research findings indicate that empirical demonstrations of
participative decision-making effectiveness or its absence can be
safely generalized only to other setting whose environments are believed to be similar to the test setting (Lowin, 1968). A brief
description on research sites, organizational structure and characteristics of the respondents of this study are presented in
Appendices 1 and 3.

I. Data Collection Procedures

It was the first time the organization allowed any field research to be conducted within its system and its affiliated offices. To make it more difficult, the study came neither from top management nor from a consultant agency. The study was initiated by a doctoral candidate who used to work there in summers and was never considered a permanent employee pursuing any kind of life career. However, the special relationship the author had with the organization turned out to be very helpful. Being an "outsider" but having some employment relationship, the writer was in the advantageous situation to obtain almost full cooperation from the entire employee body, without being perceived as a threat by any employee of any rank.

The very same factor limited the study by confining data collection to questionnaire only. Such vital aspects of organizational behavior as employees' job satisfaction, perceived competence of superiors, and varied states of grievances could only be included implicitly or completely untouched. The author hopes that his more than two years of participant observation would be advantageous to bridge the gaps left by the hard data.

Approximately one month prior to the beginning of the study, key personnel in each department were contacted informally in which the purpose of this study was explained and their cooperation was asked. During a week in July, 1969, questionnaires were distributed to the department supervisors along with a written message from the general manager to insure that the study was approved and office hours could be used to fill out the questionnaire.

As a result of the whole-hearted trust from both top management and the rank-and-file employees, data collection was completed in the week, with more than 88 percent return. After incomplete questionnairs were eliminated, the sample used for this study was composed of 210 subjects.

II. Questionnaire Construction

The questionnaire items were of multiple-choice type, with five responses, ranging from "Strongly disagree" though "Don't know" to "Strongly agree." Such variables as sex, age and length of employment were the exceptions.

After the questionnaires were collected, the items were coded by assigning "l" to "Strongly disagree"; "2" to "Disagree"; "3" to "Don't know"; "4" to "Agree," and "5" to "Strongly agree."

Negative items were reversed accordingly.

Although most of the items were used in other studies, for example, the items measuring authoritarianism and need for independence were used by Vroom in 1960, inter-item correlations were performed and the items which resulted in low and/or negative coefficients were removed from the scales utilized to test the hypotheses.

Table 2. Inter-item Correlations*

Variables	Number of Items Correlated	Range	Median
Authori- tarianism	3	.24 to .47	.44
Group Cohesiveness	3	.16 to .56	.21
Need for Independence	2	.58	.58
Objective Participation	6 (Nonsupervisors) 3 (Supervisors)		.33 .35
Perceived Competence	6	.46	.46
Psychological Participation	6	.07 to .50	.32
Readiness to Change	7	.04 to .47	.24

Table 2 (contd.)

Variables	Number of Items Correlated	Range	Median
Perceived Supervisors' Attitudes to Change	2	.38	.38
Perceived Supervisor- subordinate Relationship	2	.26	.26
Acceptance of Change	ц	.31 to .62	.46

^{*}N = 210 except that for objective participation N = 15 for supervisors and N = 195 for nonsupervisors.

Because of the result of the inter-item correlations, 17 items were deleted from the original questionnaire. The measurement instrument actually used for this study is presented in the following table.

Table 3. Categorization of Variables and Corresponding Questionnaire Items.

Independent Variables		Questionnaire Items	N = 210
Α,	Personality Determinants		
	a. Authoritarianism	Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn	Mean = 4.02 S. D.= 1.16
		The future would be brighter if people would talk less and work more.	Mean: 3.26 S. D.: 1.29

Table 3 (contd.)

Independent Variables	Questionnaire Items	N = 210
	What American youths need is to learn strict discipline, respect, and determination to protect their country.	Mean: 3.39 S. D.: 1.24
b, Need for Inde- pendence	When I am not in a group situation, I usually do things which I believe are right, regardless of others' opinions.	Mean: 3.84 S. D.: 1.06
	When I am in a group situation, I usually do things I believe are right, regardless of what other people in the group think.	Mean: 3.48 S. D.: 1.19
c. Perœived Competence	Based on such criteria as ability, information, personality, and attitude toward innovation in general, please rate yourself in terms of the following pairs of adjectives:	·
C	ompetence Incompetence tence	Mean: 4.32 S. D.: .63
		Mean: 3.95 S. D.: 1.27
d. Readiness to Change	I'd rather stay with a job that I can handle than switch to one where most things are new to me.	Mean: 2.55 S. D.: 1.27
	The job that I would consider ideal for me would be one where the way I do my work is always the same.	Mean: 1.83 S. D.: .95

Table 3 (contd.)

Independent Variables	Questionnaire Items	N = 210
	The trouble with most jobs is that you just get used to do- ing things in one way, then they want you to do them differently.	Mean: 3.22
	I like a job where I know I'll be doing my work about the same way from one week to the next.	Mean: 2.84 S. D.: 1.22
	When I get used to doing things in one way, it is disturbing to have to change to a new method.	Mean: 2.57
B. <u>Contextual</u> <u>Variables</u>		
a. Group Cohe- siveness	I always feel that I am an important part of this organization.	Mean: 3.48
	The people in my department get along with each other better than people in other departments.	Mean: 3.28 S. D.: .97
	Compared with other depart- ments, I think that the people in my department really help each other more	Mean : 3.65
	on their jobs.	S. D.: .91
b. Perceived Super- visors' Attitude toward Change	I think my boss is always in favor of change.	Mean: 3.41 S. D.: .90
toward Change	When I make any suggestions that may result in some change, my boss shows his willingness to listen to me.	Mean: 3.93 S. D.: .85

Table 3 (contd.)

ndependent Variable	s Questionnaire Items	N = 210
c. Perceived Supervisor-subord Relationship	inate ease when I speak with him.	Mean : 3.93 S. D.: 1.11
	As compared with other departmental heads, I feel that my supervisor can't be approached easily.	Mean : 2.23
d. Psychological Participation		Mean : 3.74
	in which I am involved.	S. D.: 1.05
	My boss acts on things which involve me without consultin	
	me first.	S. D.: 1.06
	I don't feel that my opinions will affect the decisions of	Mean: 2.54
	my boss on things in which I am involved.	S. D.: 1.07
	My boss usually asks my opinion when a problem comes	
	up that involves my work.	S. D.: 1.06
	It's easy for me to get my ideas across to my boss when ever I have a suggestion for	
	improving the job in some wa	
e, Role Perception	on We are interested in the rol within this organization. Y not necessarily mean your poinstance, in terms of positial a supervisor, but the role y include activities as a coor other supervisors and your saddition to your supervisory the same token, you may be a employee, but the role may inactivities as a linkage betwand the supervisor. Assuming	our role does sition. For on, you may be ou play may dinator betwee uperior, in function. By non-supervise nclude your een other empl

Independent Variables	Questionnaire Items	N = 210
independent variables	Questionnaire Items	N - 210
5 4 3 3 3 2 1 1	structure of this organization diagramed as in the chart provent please place the number that is appropriate to describe your ronganization. (Numerically, lefor nonsupervisory employee; 2 the linkage between nonsupervisors; 3 for supervisors personnel; 4 for the linkage between the lin	rided below, s most cole in this stands stands for sory employee sory etween super-
	My role number is	Mean: 1.82 S. D.: 1,31
f, Objective Participation	I attended all the meetings regarding my departmental	Mean : 1.71
	problems.	S. D.: 1.49
	I attended the meetings only to be told what's going on in	Mean : 3.17
	my department.	S. D.: 1.57
	I attended the meetings to discuss and offer my opinions on matters regarding the work	Mean : 3.61
	in my department.	S. D.: 1,43
	(The above items were filled out only by nonsupervisory personnel.)	
	I attended all the super- visory meetings.	Mean: 1.82 S. D.: .51
	I attended the supervisory meetings only to be informed about what I should do in my	Mean : 3.98
	department.	S. D.: 1,02
	I attended the supervisory meetings to discuss my own	Mean: 4.53
	departmental problems.	S. D.: 1.62

Table 3 (contd.)

Independent Variables	Questionnaire Items	N = 210
	I attended the supervisory meetings to discuss my own departmental problems as well as other departmental problems.	Mean: 4.71 D. S.: 1.48
	I had much say (or a lot of influence) on the decisions made in the recent meetings I attended.	Mean: 3,77
	The feeling I had from attending the supervisory meetings is that the relationship between my superior and me is more or less like a partnership.	Mean: 4.14 S. D.: 1.76
	(Preceding six items were answered by supervisory personnel only.)	
Acceptance of Change In general, changes to more automated work methods result in improved work situations for employees in a job like mine. The change to more automated work methods has made my own work much more satisfying.	Mean: 3.35 S. D.: .80	
	work methods has made my own	Mean: 3.46 S. D.: .78
	The change to more automated work methods has made my working conditions more pleasant.	Mean: 3.41 S. D.: .75

III. Strategy of Data Analysis

Since, as already indicated, we wish to assess the covariation between participative decision making and acceptance of planned

change as well as to examine the factors which may contribute to differences in predicting acceptance of change from participation, either correlation analyses or interactional analyses can be used. In this study, because of its exploratory nature and some idiosyncrasies of the organization, correlation analyses are emphasized.

The use of zero-order correlation to examine the relation-ships between the variables, however, assumes that the nature of such associations is linear, whereas the use of partial and multiple correlation to test the hypotheses about the nature of relationships among social psychological variables assumes that such variables are independent of one another (Brewer et al., 1970). Consequently, it is clear that linearity should be checked in order to be sure that the assumption is met, and that the factor structure underlying the intercorrelations should be examined before the single-factor model is rejected in favor of a two-factor model.

Eta's were computed from the associations between acceptance of change and each one of the variables included in the study. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Zero-order Correlation Coefficients and Eta's.*

(Relationships between each of the independent variables and acceptance of planned change.)

Independent Variables	Zero-order Correlation Coefficients	Eta's	Significance of Curvilinearity
Age	.07	.23	n.s.
Sex	(.27)	.27	**

Table 4 (contd.)

			
Independent Variables	Zero-order Correlation Coefficients	Eta's	Significance of Curvilinearity
Length of Employment	17	. 24	n.s.
Education	.05	.13	n.s.
Role Perception	.37	.37	n.s.
Authoritarianism	04	.32	n.s.
Group Cohesiveness	.40	.46	n.s.
Need for Independence	-,03	.11	n.s.
Objective Participation	.34	.40	n.s.
Perceived Competence	e .20	.26	n.s.
Psychological Participation	. 24	.52	s,*
Readiness to Change	.16	.40	n.s.
Perceived Super- visors' Attitudes to Change	.19	.38	S.*
Perceived Super- visor-subordinate Relationship	.12	.34	s,*

^{*}Curvilinearity was significant at .05 level.

**As sex contains only two categories, no linear statistic was calculated.

As shown in the table, three out of fourteen variables violated the assumption of linearity. The consequences of this violation will be discussed in the following chapter.

Partial and multiple correlations were used to determine the proportion of variance of the criterion accounted for by other predictor variables in addition to psychological and objective participation. However, cautions will be given for the conclusions and the interpretations based upon the finding so obtained.

Since the basic assumptions underlying the use of partial and multiple correlations are that the variable being partialled out from, or included in conjunction with, the main predictor contains no unique components and is measured without error, no conclusions regarding the nature of such social psychological variables can be drawn on the basis of the results unless the viability of a single-factor model has been tested through appropriate factor analytic techniques. The results could sometimes be assumed to mean that two variables share some common variation not shared by the others, but they could just as well reflect the existence of a single factor shared and imperfectly measured by all the variables (Brewer, 1970).

However, regardless the fact that those assumptions are difficult to meet in most social science researches, partial and multiple correlation were still performed. The rationale is that even when a cluster or clusters of highly intercorrelated measures is found among the predictor variables, it is statistically clear that the one which happens to have the largest correlation with the criterion

will enter the regression equation first, with the others contributing little or nothing to the prediction. Given the instability of
zero-order correlations, the dominant predictor could vary greatly
from sample to sample. Partial and multiple correlations were thus
used to determine the dominant predictor or predictors in this
study, with the intention to show that research of similar nature
in future may yield different findings as a result of the fact that
organizational idiosyncrasies vary from one to another.

As the problems regarding the conclusions and interpretations drawn on the use of partial and multiple correlations are most encountered in the cases in which social and psychological variables are examined, a factor analysis of the 11 x 11 matrix of intercorrelations was conducted for this study and the results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5 shows that role perception, self-perceived competence, objective participation and acceptance of change load on Factor 1; perceived supervisors' attitudes to change, perceived supervisorsubordinate relationship and psychological participation load on Factor 2, and readiness to change and authoritarianism load on Factor 3 (Need for independence was found loaded on Factor 4. However, as the first three factors accounted for 46 percent of variance, instruction was given to stop the rotation at Factor 3).

These findings indicate that misinterpretation could occur if either partial or multiple correlations are used to test the hypotheses underlying the relationships among these intercorrelated

Table 5. Independence of the Variables: Factor Analysis*

Variables	1	Factor Loadings 2	3	
Role Perception	. <u>84</u>	07	.05	
Authoritarianism	06	.21	. <u>63</u>	
Need for Independence	.14	.11	03	
Group Cohesiveness	. <u>45</u>	32	43	
Perceived Competence	.35	33	09	
Readiness to Change	.21	-,37	. <u>62</u>	
Perceived Supervisors' Attitudes to Change	.14	<u>56</u>	06	
Perceived Supervisor- subordinate Relationship	.00	<u>69</u>	.06	
Psychological Participation	.20	<u>71</u>	14	
Objective Participation	<u>. 86</u>	11	.16	
Change Acceptance	· <u>51</u>	 22	08	
Proportions of Variance	.20	.16	.10	

^{*}Varimax rotation analysis

variables without examining the factor structure underlying the intercorrelations. Extreme caution should be given to the conclusions and the interpretations drawn on the basis of the results of partial and multiple correlations.

Finally, in testing the hypotheses, because the directionality of results was specified, one-tailed tests for significance was accepted as the basis for rejecting the null hypothesis.

CHAPTER III

FINDINGS

I. Testing the Hypotheses

The Pearson product-moment correlation (r) was used to determine if there is a relationship between the criterion and each of the 14 independent variables investigated in the study. The findings of zero-order correlation, shown in Table 6 indicate that 2 out of 4 demographic characteristics, 2 out of 4 personality determinants, and 5 out 6 institutional factors were statistically significant at the five percent level.

Table 6. Associations between Acceptance of Change and Each of the Independent Variables: Zero-order Correlation Coefficients.*

	20011101001	
Independent Variables		Association found with Acceptance of Change (N = 210)
Α.	Demographic Characteristics	
	Age	n.s.
	Sex	Positive (r = .27)
	Length of Education	n.s.
	Length of Employment	Negative (r =17)
В.	Personality Factors	
	Authoritarianism	n.s.
	Need for Independence	n.s.

Table 37 (contd.)

Independent Variables		Association found with Acceptance of Change (N = 210)	
	Perceived Competence	Positive (r = .20)	
	Readiness to Change	Positive (r = .16)	
c.	Institutional Factors		
	Group Cohesiveness	Positive $(r = .40)$	
	Role Perception	Positive (r = .37)	
	Perceived Supervisor's, Attitude to Change	Positive (r = .19)	
	Supervisor-subordinate Relationship	n.s.	
	Objective Participation	Positive (r = ,34)	
	Psychological Participation	Positive (r = .24)	

^{*}N = 210 p < .05 when r's are greater than .16

Across the organization, it was found that sex and length of employment, perceived competence and readiness to change, as well as perceptions toward the organization such as group cohesiveness, role perception, perceived supervisors' attitudes to change, objective participation and psychological participation were significantly associated with the criterion.

In terms of directionality, the findings show that:

1. Sex correlated positively with acceptance of change. In this study, it should be interpreted as female workers were no less receptive to change than male employees, as females constituted 73

N.B. Zero-order correlation coefficients for all the variables investigated are presented in Appendix 3.

percent of the employee body. (This finding was contrary to the expectation of H_3 .)

- Length of employment correlated negatively with acceptance of change. That is, the amount of change acceptance decreased as the seniority increased.
- 3. Group cohesiveness correlated positively with acceptance of change. The more the employees perceived themselves as a group, the greater the amount of their acceptance of change (contrary to the prediction of H_{12}).
- 4. Role perception correlated positively with acceptance of change. However, it was also found that role perception highly correlated with objective participation (r = .78). This seemed to indicate that in this organization role perception was greatly dependent upon status position. Thus, the positive association existed between role perception and the criterion might be a direct result of formal positions the employees were assigned to.
- 5. Perceived supervisors' attitude to change correlated positively with acceptance of planned change. This finding indicates that when supervisors were perceived in favor of change their subordinates would also be more accepting of change.
- 6. Objective and psychological participation correlated positively with acceptance of change. That is, when employees' influence on decision making increased, their acceptance of planned change also increased.

- 7. Readiness to change correlated positively with acceptance of change. Low though significant relationship between his predictor and the criterion (r = .16) seemed to conform to the general contention that an individual's over-all attitude toward change does not necessarily apply to a particular. In our study, readiness to change was measured by the questionnaire items concerning an individual's response to change in general, but acceptance of change was measured by those which examined his response to accepting automation.
- 8. Length of employment correlated negatively with acceptance of change. Thus the longer the employees had remained in the organization, the less the likelihood that they welcomed change.

One interesting and important finding is that the magnitude of the significant correlations between members' acceptance of change and institutional variables tended to be greater than those of the criterion and either <u>personality</u> or <u>demographic</u> variables. One implication of this finding is that an employee's response to planned change can be positively promoted if such variables as group cohesiveness, perceived supervisors' attitudes to change, etc. are properly manipulated. At least, it is relatively easier for top management to improve the environment surrounding an employee than to change his personality and/or his personal background.

II. Multivariate Analyses: Multiple and Partial Correlations

As already stated, once participation correlates with the criterion and once the criterion is shown to be multi-dimensional,

our immediate and no less important task is to determine the proportion of the variance of change acceptance which is accounted for by other predictor variables in addition to psychological and objective participation.

Multiple correlations were used for the prediction of acceptance of change from participation in conjunction with an additional variable, and partial correlations were employed for the influence of an additional variable eliminated. The results are reported separately for the relationship between acceptance of change and objective participation, and for that of change acceptance and psychological participation.

Table 7. To Predict Acceptance of Change from Objective Participation in Conjunction with each of the other Variables:
Multiple Correlations*

Variables in Conjunction with Objective Participation	Multiple Correlation Coefficients
Age	.36
Sex	.36
Length of Employment	.34
Education	.34
Role Perception	.38
Authoritarianism	.34
Group Cohesiveness	.46**
Need for Independence	.35
Perceived Competence	.36
Readiness to Change	.35

Table 7 (contd.)

Variables in Conjunction with Objective Participation	Multiple Correlation Coefficients	
Perceived Supervisors' Attitudes to Change	.36	
Perceived Supervisor- subordinate Relationship	.35	
Psychological Participation	.37	

^{*}Zero-order correlation coefficient between objective participation and acceptance of change was 4 = .34, significant at .0005.

All multiple correlation coefficients in the above table met significance criterion.

At the first glance, the results of multiple correlations seem to indicate that predicting acceptance of change from objective participation in conjunction with each of the other predictor variables did not result in improving the prediction of the criterion except when group cohesiveness was taken into account (over 20 percent of the variance of the criterion was accounted for by objective participation and group cohesiveness).

However, since the results of factor analysis, as presented in Table 5, show that objective participation and group cohesiveness loaded on the same factor, the multiple correlation coefficient can only let us draw the conclusion that group cohesiveness

^{**}Group cohesiveness was related to acceptance of change by, r = .40. When the prediction of acceptance of change was made from objective participation and group cohesiveness, it was found that beta weight for the former was .24, and the latter was .33.

contributed more than objective participation in predicting the criterion (beta weight for group cohesiveness was .33, for objective participation .24). The significant coefficient (R = .46) might be a result of measurement error, as these two predictors were essentially measuring the same thing with varying amounts of unique variation, and they bore the same relationship to the criterion.

Therefore, the use of multiple correlations could generate meaningful findings only when the criterion was predicted from objective participation in conjunction with such other predictors as psychological participation, perceived supervisor-subordinate relationship, perceived supervisors' attitudes to change, authoritarianism and readiness to change. These latter variables were found <u>not</u> to load on the same factor as objective participation.

The same reasoning should also apply to the use of partial correlations, in which the criterion was predicted from objective participation with the influence of each of the other predictor variables eliminated. The results are presented in Table 8.

The results of partial correlations, as compared with that of zero-order correlation between objective participation and the criterion (r = .34), seem to indicate that objective participation retained its predictability for the criterion except when the influence of role perception was partialled out.

However, role perception and objective participation were found to load on the same factor; thus, the nonsignificant finding based upon the partial correlation ould merely be a result of

Table 8. To Predict Acceptance of Change from Objective Participation with the Influence of each of the other Variables Eliminated: Partial Correlations.*

Variables Eliminated	Partial Correlation Coefficients	Significance Levels
Age	.35	.0005
Sex	.25	.0005
Length of Employment	.30	.0005
Education	.34	.0005
Role Perception	.09	.204 0**
Authoritarianism	.34	.0005
Group Cohesiveness	.25	.0005
Need for Independence	.35	.0005
Perceived Competence	.30	.0005
Readiness to Change	.31	.0005
Supervisors' Attitude to Chang	ge .32	.0005
Supervisor-subordiante Relatio	nships .33	.0005
Psychological Participation	•30	.0005

^{*}Zero-order correlation coefficient between objective participation and acceptance of change was r = .34, significant at .005.

measurement error. As objective participation and role perception shared a great deal of common variation, the partialling out of role perception eliminated the significance of objective participation.

^{**}Objective participation was no longer a good predictor for acceptance of change after role perception was eliminated. Beta weight for objective participation in predicting acceptance of change was .13, whereas that of role perception was .27.

Consequently, the only conclusion one can draw from this finding is that role perception contributed more than objective participation in predicting acceptance of planned change (beta weight for role perception was .27, for objective participation .13).

To sum up the findings presented in Tables 7 and 8, we conclude that although objective participation could significantly predict acceptance of planned change, when other predictors were taken into account the dominant predictors were group cohesiveness and role perception rather than objective participation.

Table 9. To Predict Acceptance of Change from Psychological Participation in Conjunction with each of the other Variables: Multiple Correlations.*

Variables in Conjunction with Psychological Participation	Multiple Correlation Coefficients	
Age	.25	
Sex	.33	
Length of Employment	.28	
Education	.24	
Role Perception	•40**	
Authoritarianism	.24	
Group Cohesiveness	.42**	
Need for Independence	.24	
Perceived Competence	.28	
Readiness to Change	.26	

Table 9 (contd.)

Variables in Conjunction with Psychological Participation	Multiple Correlation Coefficients
Supervisors' Attitude to Change	.26
Supervisor-subordinate Relationship	.24

^{*}Zero-order correlation coefficient between psychological participation and acceptance of change was 4 = .24. All multiple correlation coefficients reported in the above table met significance criterion.

The results of multiple correlations as shown in Table 9 indicate that the prediction of members' acceptance of change noticeably increased when psychological participation was in conjunction with group cohesiveness and role perception. Almost no difference was found when psychological participation was in conjunction with such variables as age, education and perceived supervisor—subordinate relationship.

However, a comparison of the zero-order correlation coefficient between psychological participation and acceptance of change (r = .24) with the coefficients obtained from partial correlations, some interesting findings appeared.

The predictability of members' acceptance of change from psychological participation decreased when the influences of such variables as group cohesiveness, role perception, supervisors'

^{**}In predicting acceptance of change from psychological participation and role perception, beta weight for role participation was .33, and for psychological participation was .15. Analogously, beta weight for group cohesiveness was .36, for psychological participation was .12.

Table 10. To Predict Acceptance of Change from Psychological Participation with the Influence of each of the other Variables Eliminated: Partial Correlations.*

Variables Eliminated	Partial Correlation Coefficients	Significance Levels
Age	.24	.0005
Sex	.21	.003
Length of Employment	.22	.001
Education	.24	.001
Role Perception	.15	.029**
Authoritarianism	.24	,001
Group Cohesiveness	.14	.059**
Need for Independence	. 24	.001
Perceived Competence	.20	.004
Readiness to Change	.22	.002
Perceived Supervisors' Attitud to Change	e .18	.010
Perceived Supervisor-subordina Relationship	te .21	.002
Objective Participation	.16	.018

^{*}Zero-order correlation coefficient between psychological participation and acceptance of change was r = .24.

In predicting acceptance of change, psychological participation was no longer a good predictor when such variables as role perception and group cohesiveness were eliminated. Beta weights for role perception was .33, for psychological participation was .15. Analogously, beta weight for group cohesiveness was .36, for psychological participation was .12.

attitude to change, objective participation, and perceived competence were eliminated from the associations between members' acceptance of change and psychological participation. Psychological participation could no longer predict members' acceptance of change if the knowledge of group cohesiveness and role perception were unattainable, correlation coefficients dropped from r = .24 to r = .14 and r = .15.

To summarize our findings, the data seemed to support the general hypothesis that member participation correlates positively with acceptance of planned change. The data also showed that employee response toward planned change in this organization was multi-dimensional.

Further, the data demonstrated that the greater the influence which employees had on decision making, the more the likelihood for them to accept planned change. Employee response to change depended upon how they perceived the organization and the people working within it, and was also modified by their personality and demographic background.

The multi-dimensionality of acceptance of change reveals that role perception and group cohesiveness were dominant predictors though objective participation alone could significantly account for the variance of the criterion. Further, it shows that role perception and group cohesiveness were crucial predictors to retain psychological participation as a predictor for the criterion.

CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSIONS

I. Summary

Introducing and/or implementing change of any nature in a formal organization is a common phenomenon. Its successor failure may be attributed to multiple causes. However, the acceptance of or the resistance to change found among members is undoubtedly a communication problem. It is so because a formal organization is composed of a group of individuals who hold together as long as it fulfills a variety of personal purposes. Communication is crucial in that it makes all members see their actions as interrelated and their fates as interdependent.

One way to study communication within organizations is to see communication as a prescribed formal network according to an organizational flow chart. This type of approach assumes that large organizations impose a set of patterned communication links upon their members. Accordingly, the individual and the assumptions about him are either ignored or oversimplified. A result of this oversight is the breach between theory and practice in organizations, between the way organizations should work and the way they do work (Tannenbaum, 1966).

The Hawthorne research (1924), for example, illustrated how important this human aspect of the organization is, and also made it clear that psychological and/or social psychological principles of behavior were at work. Since then, the following issues have been raised constantly by organization theorists:

- That the qualities of personality and motivation of an individual are found to be inconsistent with the requirements of a formal organization;
- that the human organism lacks the rationality, simplicity, and passivity that classical organization theories assume it has, and
- 3. that human beings are complex and variable.

The general contention is that formal work-related organizations are not adequately set up with employee self-interests in mind. Therefore, frustrations have been frequently encountered in formal organizations, especially from people of lower ranks.

Member participation has thus been considered, among other things, as a method to reduce some of the frustrations. It does this by increasing the authority and status of people on lower positions, by broadening the activities of these postiions, and by producing decisions that seem less arbitrary and disadvantageous. Participation seems to be intrinsically satisfying.

Nevertheless, relevant research literature has indicated that member participation is subject to an individual's personality and tends to be regulated by the structure of a given organization. Personality determinants may affect an individual's reactions to participative control. As evidenced by French et al., (1960) and Vroom (1964), differences in the performance of workers when participative control is given seems to be a joint function of personality (whether authoritarian or egalitarian) and perceptions of the degree to which the supervisors are participative. Not all organization members react positively to participation.

Analogously, it has been illustrated by relevant literature that member response to change also varies because of differences in their personality, personal background and their perceptions of the environments surrounding them.

Thus, under the assumptions that organizational planned change occurs to cope with the ever-changing environment and to keep the organization in a competitive role, that communication through psychological and objective participation in decision making reduces the tension caused by change, and that reaction to change can be shaped by an individual's personality, personal data items and his perceptions of a given organization, this study was intended to explore the factors which could account for acceptance of planned change.

The research was conducted at one of the local banks where the employees were asked to fill out a questionnaire of closed questions. Personality determinants and institutional variables were measured by summing the scores of an individual's responses to corresponding items. The results of data analyses show that most of the hypotheses supported were in the same direction as predicted, except the ones regarding sex and group cohesiveness.

Positive association between sex and acceptance of planned change could be attributed to the fact that the organization was mainly composed of young females. As the volume of the work increased, office employees, three-fourths of them were young females, did not perceive automation as a threat to eliminate jobs, and they regarded change as not disruptive. High acceptance of change found among the employees was thus considered a direct result of the particular nature of the organization.

Positive association also was found between group cohesiveness and acceptance of change, contrary to prediction. High group
cohesiveness was attributed to the homogeneity of the employees,
as most of them were young females, coming from similar family
background and with same high school educational training.
Further, inter-departmental transfers was nothing unusual for the
young females, as typing and basic machine operations constituted
the major proportion of the work performed by them.

No relationships were found between the criterion and such predictor variables as age, length of education, authoritarianism, need for independence and perceived supervisor-subordinate relationship. The failure to support these hypotheses may be explained by the follwing reasons:

1. Inadequacy of measurement:

Non-significant relationships between the criterion and authoritarianism and need for independence may be the result of inadequacy of measurement as only three items were used to measure authoritarianism and only two items to measure need for independence.

2. Idiosyncrasies of the organization:

Non-significant relationships between the criterion and age and length of education may be the result of the fact that young females constituted almost three-fourths of the entire employee body. One of the consequences of this disproportinate ratio is that it tends to produce low variations in terms of age and education. (Characteristics of the respondents are presented in Appendix 2.)

3. Violation of linearity assumption:

Non-significant relationship between the criterion and perceived supervisor-subordinate relationship may be the result of violating the assumption of linearity. Significance of curvilinearity found in the relationships between the criterion and such predictors as psychological participation, perceived supervisors' attitudes to change and perceived supervisor-subordinate relationship indicates that the correlation coefficients and linear regression functions are not

appropriate measures to use. It seems that Eta's are more appropriate than correlation coefficients to describe curvilinear relationships. However, correlation coefficients were used in this study, since Eta can only describe the degree of association but not the form of the relationship.

Theoretically, this study conceptualized the variables which could determine the degree of acceptance of change within an organization in terms of personality determinants, personal data items and institutional variables. The results of factor analysis clearly point out that Factor 1 accounted for objective participation, role perception, group cohesiveness, perceived competence and acceptance of change; Factor 2 for psychological participation, perceived supervisors' attitudes to change and perceived supervisor-subordinate relationship, whereas Factor 3 for authoritarianism and readiness to change.

These results point out that change acceptance is multidimensional, and is subject to the influence of Factor 1, which
seems to deal with employees' objective involvement with the organization; Factor 2, which refers to members' psychological affiliations with the organization and the people working within it, but
Factor 3 points to individuals' predispositions which are independent of the organizational context.

The use of multiple and partial correlations resulted in the findings that group cohesiveness and role perception were dominant predictors when either one of them was used in conjunction with objective participation to predict acceptance of planned change, and that group cohesiveness and role perception were both crucial in retaining psychological participation as an influential predictor for the criterion.

The implications of these findings are that an employee's perceptions of group cohesiveness and the role he plays are more important to his psychological affiliation with the organization than to his actual influence on decision making; however, objective participation effectiveness can elicit more positive response to planned change if either role perception or group cohesiveness is taken into consideration.

II. Implications

Katz and Kahn (1966) point out that to move from an unorganized state to an organized state requires the introduction of constraints and restrictions to reduce diffusion and random communication to channels appropriate for the achievement of organizational objectives. It may also require the introduction of incentives to use those channels and use them appropriately rather than leave them silent or use them for organizationally irrelevant purposes.

Current findings on administrative management, however, reveal that too much emphasis on the constraints and restrictions for communication channels may result in high turnover. For instance, in their study of executive turnover, North and North (1969) found

that ninety-three percent of the young executives were leaving because they felt there was no challenge in their jobs. In-depth exploration revealed that the majority of these young men had positions of responsibility but had been given virtually no authority to make decisions. All decisions had to be cleared with the president of the company.

In other words, positions of responsibility without the companionship of appropriate amount of participation in decision making cannot make the jobs challenging.

Nevertheless, it may be overstating the case to say that participative control is the only way to solve organizational problems involving planned change. This study points out that member participation can be effective only when it is accompanied by appropriate control of other relevant social and psychological elements. Since few of the organizational behaviors are uni-dimensional, the importance of social and psychological factors always exists in any attempt to study member attitudes and behaviors within an organizational context.

Although it was a relatively new attempt to study organizational communication from a social psychological approach and the empirical findings presented here might have been affected by distinguishing characteristics of the organization and the measurement instrument, several implications may be drawn.

Theoretically, this study confirms the contemporary notion that change acceptance, or an individual's response to change, is

multi-dimensional. Thus, change acceptance is subject to an individual's personal data items, his personality and his perceptions of the organization he works for and the people he works with. However, this study goes a step further in pointing out that <u>institutional</u> factors, rather than either personal data or personality determinats, accounted for more of the variance in regard to employee acceptance of change.

Importance of this finding is that it implies that employee attitudes and behaviors can be manipulated toward goals of the organization they work for. If top management wants full cooperation from the rank-and-file in the process of introducing change, what should be of concern is how to get supervisory personnel interested in it. Once the supervisory personnel are in favor of change, their subordinates will also be receptive to it. As this study found, the more favorable the supervisors are to change, the more likely the subordinates welcome it.

In general, it should be relatively easier for top management to change employee perceptions of the organization and the people who work within it than to change the employees' personalities and/or their backgrounds.

Methodologically, this study points out that research in the future will produce a fruitful contribution to the understanding of organizational change if such variables as length of employment are taken into account. As the study indicates, length of employment correlates negatively with acceptance of planned change, it would

be interesting and meaningful to investigate how an employee's seniority intervenes in his response to change.

Analogously, need for independence and authoritarianism can also be examined to see how they contaminate the effectiveness of participative control on member responses to planned change. For example, if participation has a more positive effect on low than high authoritarians, different courses of action might be necessary in delegating participative control to the employees of a given organization. Participation may not be necessary for employees who are highly authoritarian, and participation may not be appropriate for those with low need for independence.

These questions are relevant and deserve to be explored.

If change has now become a permanent and accelerating factor in

American life, then adaptability to change becomes increasingly

the most important single determinant of survival. At the level

of the individual, adaptability to change is important in order to

cope with the demands of the on-going organization; at the level

of the organization, it is vital in the highly competitive world.

Employee resistance to organizational planned change directly results in organizational inability to cope with outside challenges. Therefore, to understand the problem of change will not only facilitate the well being of employees themselves, but the survival of the organization as well.

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APPENDIX 1: Research Sites and Organizational Structure

APPENDIX 1

APCC was launched in March, 1966. Its services are sold and handled by dozens of participating banks, with hundreds of offices. Banks are compensated for the service they perform for merchants and cardholders in their areas. Merchants are relieved of record keeping and credit checking, and receive daily cash credit for charged purchases. Credit card holders are not required to be customers of any of the sponsoring banks, but must be worthy of credit.

In the past four years, changes were introduced to the APCC both in areas of administration and operations. The amount of total employees increased from under fifty to more than 250 at the time the study was in progress, and automation was seriously considered to replace manual operations in several departments in addition to its original set-up of electronic data processing.

As the first charge card handled by a banking institution, the whole idea and the appropriate procedures to put it to work were new not only to consumers but also to the personnel involved. As a result, the organization was under constant change. Sometimes the changes occurred as planned, and sometimes they appeared quite unexpectedly. However, the central notion around them was always to improve accuracy and efficiency at less cost.

All employees in the APCC were the subjects of our study and the organizational structure is shown in the following chart. As the chain of command descended, the amount of information regarding change activities decreased.

	The General Manager
<u>Officers</u>	Viœ-presidents
	Assistant vice-presidents N = 8
Middle-range Supervisory Personnel	Departmental Supervisors N = 7
Nonsupervisory	
Personnel	Rank-and-file N = 195

The officers held weekly meetings in which major policies were decided and then relayed to the departmental supervisors. The supervisors, then, sorted out the related information and either formally or informally transferred the information to the rank-and-file.

Although upward communication was not formally encouraged, ideas and suggestions originated from the lower ranked employees from time to time. The departmental supervisors were provided with opportunities to forward any constructive recommendations regarding organizational changes and they were trusted with confidence and permission to run their departments independently. Consultation and formal permission would be obtained by the supervisors only when the departmental changes would seem to affect the organizational operations as a whole.

Lateral communication behaviors clearly reflected the designated roles the persons were assigned to. During office hours, communications were limited to the persons whose work was directly related and conversation was discouraged. Breaktime activities were also patterned—employees took their break almost always with their fellow employees within the same departments; however, the higher the rank, the more the flexibility. In other words, a fixed time schedule was imposed on the rank-and-file employees, but not on the supervisors or the officers.

Also, the ranks determined the content of the breaktime conversations. The breaktime conversations for the officers tended to be a continuation of their formal discussion. The content changed, yet not drastically, for the middle-range supervisory personnel; but they tended to drop out completely for the rank-and-file. The change of the conversation content could be the result of information availability or the amount of decision-making opportunities, and also could be the indirect result of the organizational stress on the chain of command.

Like many other organizations with a similar number of employees, the APCC confronted such employees' grievances as low pay scales, limited chances for promotion, lack of understanding between the supervisory and nonsupervisory personnel, high turnover rates, etc. However, it would be unfair to say that the top management neglected such problems, as the writer, in the past three years, engaged in numerous times with high ranking officers discussing such serious problems as high turnover rates, which had been between 25 to 40 percent anually—almost every week, some employees quit and the same number of

replacements were hired.

Although this is by no means saying that the training is difficult, constant training of new employees will not only make the departmental supervisor lose his enthusiasm, but also occupy his time and energy for more useful research and/or planning. As a result, in most cases, a new employee was trained by other senior clerks, who, to some extent, did not have enough insight into their own operations within the department.

The most common grievances resulted from inadequate training:
"My supervisor did not tell me how to handle a case like this one";
"I was told by George to do it in this way, but Mary told me the other way"; "Well, this is the way my supervisor told me when I was hired in;
I don't care how this will affect your department."

From several informal contacts with their high ranking officers, the writer found that high turnover rate and inefficiency were, according to the officers, attributed to the poor quality of the middle-range supervisory personnel and the lack of career incentives among the rank-and-file employees. The high turnover rate directly affected the employees' morale and indirectly resulted in overemphasizing seniority as the single baseline for promotion.

Lack of career incentives was an immediate result of low pay scale, despite the fact that one high ranking officer openly discussed and emphasized the fact that although the present pay scale was admittedly low, the organization was seriously concerned with raising it and that, in the long run, to work in the organization should prove

to be advantageous. Unfortunately, that discussion did not achieve its expected effect, and for most of the rank-and-file employees, a wait-and-see attitude prevailed. The APCC still served as a training ground for other organizations with similar work.

Among the middle-range supervisory personnel, over 20 percent were part-time college students and none of them expected to obtain any college degree in the immediate future. Their average education was higher than that of the rank-and-file in only four out of eight departments, and so was their average age. As the supervisory task did not require any special skill, their seniority seemed to play an important role.

To their superiors, the middle-range supervisory personnel held the responsibilities of getting the job done effectively, managing the personnel problems within their own departments, and coordinating with other departments. To their subordinates, they were the bosses, the caretakers, and the <u>only</u> sources for either work-related or personal problems.

APPENDIX 2: Variables Investigated at the Level of Simple Correlations

Variables Investigated at the Level of Simple Correlation*

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1. Age	2. Sex	3. Length of Employment	f. Lengui or Education		tarianism				to Change	Attitude to Change			14. Objective Participation	13. Acceptance on Change

 * N = 210 p < .05 when r is greater than .16

APPENDIX 3: Characteristics of the Respondents

APPENDIX 3

Characteristics of Respondents

Sex	Male Female No response	26.5% 72.2% 1.3%
Age	Under 20 20-24 25-29 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49 50-54 55 and over No response	19.6% 31.8% 14.0% 6.8% 5.9% 5.9% 4.5% 4.3% 1.3%
Education	8 years or less Some high school High school diploma Some college College degree or more. No response	0.0% 5.9% 43.2% 44.1% 5.5% 1.3%
Length of Employment	6 months or less 7 to 12 months Over one year 2 years or more 3 to 4 years 5 years or more No response	31.4% 19.6% 17.7% 16.4% 10.0% 3.6% 1.3%
Type of Employment	Part time Full time No response	18.2% 80.5% 1.3%

APPENDIX 4: The Questionnaire

APPENDIX 4

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Michigan State University

Survey of Organizational Communication Behavior

Under the guidance of his doctoral committee members, Robert Yien is conducting a study to analyze the communication behavior of the employee in an organizational setting, and some of his work attitudes.

Please help this important study by carefully and honestly answering each item. Please do not put your name on the questionnaire, so that your answers can remain anonymous. Significant and meaningful results will be achieved by your cooperation.

However, we shall give you a summary of the results. Thank you for your help.

> Robert Yien Department of Communication

Doctoral Committee:

Dr. Hideya Kumata

Dr. Eugene H. Jacobson

Dr. Bradley S. Greenberg Dr. Verling C. Troldahl

Michigan State University Summer, 1969

PLEASE PLACE AN (X) MARK ON THE BLANK LOCATED IN FRONT OF THE APPROPRIATE RESPONSE FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING ITEMS.

Example	Example:				
	Suppose the question is: The United States is powerful nation in the world, and your responsagree," then please put an "X" on the blank is choice.	se is "strongly			
	The United States is the most powerful nation in the world.	X Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree			
	now. If you have any further questions, please tact Bob Yien at Ext. 84. Thank you.	e ask your supervisor			
(1)	When I have a problem I like to think it through myself first before asking for help from others.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree			
(2)	In general, I like to work under people who have forceful and dominant personalities.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree			
(3)	I'd rather stay with a job that I can handle than switch to one where most things are new to me.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree			
(4)	When I've made up my mind, it isn't very unusual for someone else to change it.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree			

(5) ,	The job that I would consider ideal for me would be one where the way I do my work is always the same.	Strongly agreeAgreeDon't knowDisagreeStrongly disagree
(6)	When I am not in a group situation, I usually do things which I believe are right, regardless of others' opinions.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(7)	I don't mind at all that the people above me tell me to do what I really don't want to do.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(8)	The trouble with most jobs is that you just get used to doing things in one way, then they want you to do them differently.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(9)	When I am in a group situation, I usually do things which I believe are right, regardless of what other people in the group think.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(10)	Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(11)	The trouble with many people is that when they find a job they can do well, they don't stick with it.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree

(12)	I usually find that I can carry out other people's suggestions without changing them.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
	The future would be brighter if people would talk less and work more.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(14)	I like a job where I know I'll be doing my work about the same way from one week to the next.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(15)	What American youths need is to learn strict discipline, respect, and determination to protect their country.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(16)	When I get used to doing things in one way, it is disturbing to have to change to a new method.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(17)	Usually, I want the person who is in charge of my group to tell me what to do.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(18)	In addition to laws and political programs, what this country needs is a group of courageous, tireless, devoted leaders in whom the people can trust.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree

(19)	It would take a sizable raise in pay to get me to voluntarily transfer to another job.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(20)	I often feel that I am not as good in things as most people who have worked on the job longer than I have.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(21)	I think it's better to keep busy with cheerful things than to think about problems and worry.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(22)	Human nature, being what it is, will always bring war and conflict.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(23)	I always feel that I am an important part of this organization.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(24)	I'd consider moving if I had a chance to do the same kind of work for the same amount of pay in some other place.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(25)	The people in my department get along with each other better than people in other departments.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree

(26)	Compared with other departments, I think the people in my department really help each other more on their jobs.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
Based	upon such criteria as ability, information,	personality, and
attit	ude toward innovation in general, please rat	e <u>yourself</u> in terms
of th	e following adjective pairs. Check one and	only one of the
follo	wing five points of each item.	
Examp	<u>le</u> :	
	Experienced: : X : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	: Inexperienced ery
(27)	Competent:	: Incompetent
(28)	Open-minded ::::	: Closed-minded
(29)		
(30)		
(31)	My boss usually explains his decisions to me about matter in which I am involved.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(32)	My boss acts on things which involve me without consulting me first.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(33)	My boss makes me feel at ease when I speak with him.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree

(34)	As compared with other departmental heads, I feel that my supervisor can't be approached easily.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(35)	It is part of my job to take part in discussions which result in decisions regarding the Bankard's problems and activities.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(36)	It is not my job to suggest what I think could be better ways of doing things around here.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(37)	I think I have some say or influence on what goes on around here.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(38)	I think that, if the people on the top want to get things done efficiently, they should do them without consulting the rank-and-file employees.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(39)	I don't feel that my opinions will affect the decisions of my boss on things in which I am involved.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(40)	My boss usually asks my opinions when a problem comes up that involves my work.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree

(41)	It's easy for me to get my ideas across to my boss whenever I have a suggestion for improving the job in some way.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(42)	My boss pays more attention to suggestions that I make than he dees to those made by other employees.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(43)	I think my boss is always in favor of change.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(44)	When I make any suggestions that may result in some change, my boss shows his willingness to listen to me.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(45)	Please indicate one type of change that has occurred recently in the department where you work.	
people authori people people	There are always changes being made in wor in different ways. For instance, people i zation are on the way to using CRT to replin accounts receivable and security moved in customer service had their room extended in the questions below, please indicate he work situation that have taken place in the	n the department of ace monthly journals; to their new offices; ed, etc. w you feel about changes
(46)	In general, changes to more automated work methods result in improved work situations for exmployees in jobs like mine.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree

(47)	The changes that have taken place recently have led to better relationships between me and the other people I work with.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(48)	The change to more automated work methods has made my working conditions more pleasant.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(49)	The change to more automated work methods has made my own work much more satisfying.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree
(50)	My age is:	Under 20 20-24 25-29 30-34 35-39 40-44 45-49 50-54 55-60 60 and over
(51)	My sex is:	Male Female
(52)	My length of employment at Michigan Bankard is:	6 months 7 to 12 months Over one year 2 years or more 3-4 years 5 years More than 5 years

(53)	My length of formal education is:	8 years or less Some high school High school diploma Some college College degree or more		
(54)	My type of employment here is:	Part time Full time		
(55)	Number of people supported by my income is:	One Two Three Four Five Six or more		
	We are interested in the role you play within does not necessarily mean your position.			
For instance, in terms of position, you may be a supervisor, but the role you play may include activities as a coordinator between other supervisors and your superior, in addition to your supervisory function. By the same token, you may be a non-supervisory employee, but the role may include your activities as a linkage between other employees and the supervisor.				
Assuming that the structure of this organization can be diagramed as in the chart provided below, please place the number that is most appropriate to describe your role in this organization. (Numerically, 1 stands for non-supervisory employee; 2 for the linkage between non-supervisory employees and supervisors; 3 for supervisory personnel; 4 for the linkage between supervisory personnel and the officers, and 5 stands for officers.)				
(56)	My role number is			

The following items are for non-supervisory personnel only. For supervisory personnel, please skip to next page.				
Please <u>recall</u> any formal or informal decision-making meetings you attended either alone with your supervisor or accompanied by fellow employees in the past few weeks or months. Check the one and only one which you think is most appropriate to describe the nature of your attendance.				
(57)	I attended all the meetings regarding my departmental problems.	Yes No		
(58)	I attended the meetings only to be told what's going on in my department.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree		
(59)	I attended the meetins to discuss and offer my opinions on matters regarding the work in my department.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree		

The following items are for supervisory personnel only.				
Please <u>recall</u> the meetings you attended in the past few weeks or months. Check the one and only one response which you think is most appropriate to describe the nature of your attendance.				
(60)	I attended all the supervisory meetings.	Yes No		
(61)	I attended the supervisory meetings only to be informed about what I should do in my department.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree		
(62)	I attended the supervisory meetings to discuss the problems in my department.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree		
(63)	I attended the supervisory meetings to discuss my own departmental problems as well as other departmental problems.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree		
(64)	I had much say (or a lot of influence) on the decisions made in the recent meetings I attended.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree		
(65)	The feeling I had from attending the supervisory meetings is that the relationship between my superior and me is more or less like a partnership.	Strongly agree Agree Don't know Disagree Strongly disagree		

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